LEADERSHIP THEORIES: AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE APPLICATION
OF LEADERSHIP THEORIES AMONG CHIEF EXECUTIVE OFFICERS OF
ZIMBABWE STOCK EXCHANGE LISTED COMPANIES

BY

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ABSTRACT

Leadership in Africa is under-researched while academic investigation into leadership has been much more rigorous, in terms of trends, in America and Europe. In Africa, there is sparse empirical research on leadership in business organizations.

This study contributes towards closing the gap through investigating the application of leadership theories by Chief Executive Officers of Zimbabwe Stock Exchange listed companies. While the theoretical propositions and frameworks have been largely influenced by empirical studies within the Western World, emerging studies on African leadership and management culture show a gap that needs to be filled for Africa to move forward. This research, therefore, investigates the efficacy and relevance of some of the theories on leadership by focusing on Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) drawn from organizations listed on the Zimbabwe Stock Exchange during the period 2005 to 2010. The research will also aim to analyse the leadership characteristics that help to transform a corporation into a social system. In essence, the study sought to ascertain the role of the various factors proposed in the literature as affecting leadership and how leaders act to get the best out of their subordinates through inducing an appropriate action for a particular need. The theoretical proposition posed is that leaders, through influencing an entire group, can improve the fortunes of a company.

The research problem for this study is premised on the resource endowment and educational levels in Zimbabwe which do not reconcile with the level of development in the country especially when compared with Asian countries that were at the same levels of development just a few decades ago.

The research methodology applied to investigate the application of theory, in this study, involved a combined approach i.e. quantitative and qualitative analysis
(triangulation). Instruments used to investigate the underlying practices and characteristics of leaders in a developing country context were questionnaires, observations, case studies and oral interviews. The archival method of directing questions at a population concerning key issues was aimed at understanding the present and predicting the future. The qualitative approach informed by phenomenology was used to come up with a holistic view where emphasis was on meaning rather than frequency while the quantitative approach was used to determine frequency. This process introduced flexibility as it allowed for greater spontaneity and adaptation through the more elaborate responses by respondents and follow up questions.

The study looked at the evolving theories of leadership from the Great Man and Trait theories, Behavioural Theories, Theory X and Y, the Contingency/Situational Theories and Transformational theories and investigated their application by Chief Executive Officers of Zimbabwe Stock Exchange listed companies between the period 2005 to 2010.

The findings from this research support calls against the blanket implementation of universal models of leadership and leadership development, as well as approaches that break culture down into a series of discrete dimensions. They call for the facilitation of a more constructionist approach to the surfacing of Afro-centric knowledge about leadership and management.

The study concluded that while some Western World principles, with regards to work and leadership, do not work in an African set up, it is agreed that the underlying theories on leadership are applicable universally but their universal and uncritical acceptance without regard to culture and the peculiarities of the operating
environment does not work. The study calls for a pragmatic adaptation of the theories for application in Zimbabwe.

Finally, the study recommends further and deeper studies with specific interest on African and Zimbabwean cultural and environmental idiosyncrasies.
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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my late parents, Josaya and Estina Zimbango.
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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.0 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

This study investigates the application of leadership theories developed in the American and European world in a developing country context. The study further explores the relevance of some of the key theories on leadership in light of empirical evidence among selected Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) drawn from companies quoted on the Zimbabwean Stock Exchange between 2005 and 2010.

Leadership, whatever form it takes, is the prime ingredient in all organized endeavours and good leaders take their followers and organisations to a better place while bad leaders destroy enterprises and ruin people. Leadership is regarded as a process of sense-making and direction giving, within a group, for the attainment of a common purpose or goal. A leader can only be identified on the basis of relationships with others, who behave as followers, in a social group (Weirich and Koontz, 2005). Leadership has been exhibited, over time, in areas such as religion, politics and the corporate world where such people as Oppenheimer, Cecil John Rhodes, Martin Luther King Junior, Strive Masiyiwa (Econet Wireless Zimbabwe) and Prophet Muhammad cultivated strong followership based on their ability to apotheosize individual conscience, the sanctity of the inner man and the strength of a shared vision.

While for centuries, writers, historians and the public in general stated that leadership was privately exercised by great men, born with certain characteristics (The Great Man Theory) “and not made”, and that the real progress and change in civilization awaited the coming of such individuals (Weirich and Koontz, 2005). It has now become apparent that the process of influencing others to act to accomplish
specified common objectives can indeed be accomplished through measured interaction between the leader, subordinates and the operating environment.

While leadership has been mistaken for a code for rich guys with impressive titles who order people around, it is not the case in the modern world characterized by low loyalty, high mobility and extreme uncertainty (Harvard Business Review, HBR, 2011). Only those who can inspire and engender loyalty succeed. The work of leaders is, therefore, to see possibilities where others see problems, to make strategic calls, to be decisive, to communicate compellingly, to negotiate skilfully, to win the support of stakeholders, to be comfortable with ambiguity and to motivate people so that the company or group moves forward on a sustainable basis (HBR, 2011).

History is full of leaders who were forced to lead because they could not follow and they proved to be misfits even though in the most positive sense they tried (Kotter, 2006). They failed to fit easily in the fabric of organizations or even social institutions because they failed to differentiate themselves from the rest. They felt they were unique and meant for special achievements and were motivated by a desire for wealth, success or accomplishments at the expense of service to others. These leaders reached a point of paralysis after striking an obstacle. Harvey Martin, Chief Executive Officer of Essentials and Matt Williams of Perpetual Investments cited in (Harvard Business Review, 2011) are some leaders who were parachuted into leadership positions but failed because they were over reliant on consultants and investment banks thereby outsourcing the decision making process. In particular, Williams discouraged subordinates from getting too close to the top by overly exhibiting his intelligence thereby becoming an intellectual bully who perpetually did not involve subordinates in the decision making process. This resulted in a lack of
grooming of future leaders since leadership is more of a calling to the service of others than a purely individualistic phenomenon with forced followership.

Leadership is about saving a deal, soothing a customer or keeping the company afloat. In certain situations a leader might have to do certain things outside the conventional job description just to get things done and if this upsets some individuals so be it because the job has to be done. A leader might be the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of a Blue Chip company responsible for the growth of the corporation and everything that will deliver consistent long-term returns to shareholders or the head of a small branch with fewer big worries than the CEO but in both cases one has to oversee and lead people. In this era, where discontinuity is the only constant, the ability to lead wisely has nearly vanished in spite of all the knowledge in the world. It is not uncertainty alone that has paralyzed leaders but the pace of change and changes in technology, demographics and consumption trends which have kept values and ethics changing consistently. The service to others philosophy has all but vanished and workers keep asking “what’s in it for me” instead of “what’s good, right and just for everyone”. (HBR 2011: 59). People behave less ethically when they are part of organizations and groups and this is where leadership should set in to bring them back to the core values of ethical practices and service to others (HBR, 2011).

It is also important to differentiate between leadership and management as these two are often used interchangeably. According to Kotter (2006), management is a set of processes that can keep a complicated system of people and technology running smoothly through planning, budgeting, and organizing, staffing, controlling and problem solving. Managerialism is proposed as a value neutral proposition to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of a business. Economic rationalism
exercised through leadership, on the other hand, is not neutral as it has assumptions about the nature of knowledge and reality about why people act the way they do. There is a theme of progress occurring within economic rationalist thought: that is moving forward, doing better, and continuously improving the bottom line (Kotter, 1985). Leadership, just like economic rationalism, defines what the future should look like, aligns people with the vision and inspires them to make it happen despite the obstacles (Weirich and Koontz, 2005). Successful transformation is 70% to 90% leadership and only 10% to 30% management (Cooper and Sawaf, 1997).

Management and leadership are often thought to be one thing but this is not correct although it is true that effective managers will almost certainly be effective leaders. While leading is an essential function of managers, there is more to leading than just managing. Managing involves planning, setting up organizational structures that aid people to achieve set goals, staffing, measurement and controlling (Kotter, 1985) but leadership is this plus much more. All these managerial functions accomplish nothing if managers do not know how to lead people or understand the human factors in their operations in such a way as to produce the desired results. The managerial function of leading involves understanding human factors like motivation (Kotter, 1985).

According to Harkins and Swift (2009), companies are leadership factories and to survive and thrive, they have to put in place mechanisms that will deliver talent for tomorrow with a deep fear of failure and an absolute, nearly paranoid, hatred for losing. They further point out that in doing so, there is need for the realization that:

- Leaders are not always obvious before they become leaders.
- Leaders need a chance to lead.
Leaders need things to go their way if they are to shine.

Leaders come in every shape, size, and personality type and from every kind of background (Harkins and Swift, 2009).

Effective leaders take a personal interest in the long-term development of their employees and they use tact and other social skills to encourage employees to achieve their best (HBR, 2011). It is not about being “nice” or “understanding” but about tapping into individual motivations in the interest of furthering organization-wide goals.

Leadership is also not about the exercise of power and force or the possession of extraordinary analytical skills. A successful leader is one who can understand people’s motivations and enlists employee participation in a way that marries individual needs and interests to the group’s purpose. In many ways, leadership is the accomplishment of goals through the direction of human assistants (HBR, 2011). A person who successfully marshals human collaborators to achieve particular ends is a leader and one who can do so consistently in various circumstances is a great leader (HBR, 2011).

A leader may not possess or display power, force or the threat of harm or punishment. He may not be popular and his followers may never do what he wishes out of love or admiration for him. The leader’s unique achievement is a human and social one which stems from his understanding of his fellow workers and the relationship of their individual goals to the group goal that he must carry out.
A new school of leadership thought has arisen from the realization that no one individual is the ideal leader in all circumstances (Heifetz, 1994) and so different situations require different leadership styles and approaches.

Social relations in the leadership contract and the need for a leader to be accepted by followers has given rise to informal, emergent or dispersed leadership. This approach argues for a less formalized model of leadership where the leader’s role is dissociated from the organizational hierarchy. It is proposed that individuals at all levels in an organization and in all roles can exert leadership influence over their colleagues and thus influence the overall leadership of the organization. According to Heifetz (1994), the exercise of leadership and the exercise of authority are different. This then dissociates leadership from formal organizational power roles resulting in “leaderful” organisations. This concept of “leaderful” organisations or “distributed leadership” results in expansion of expertise across staff members and ranks thereby deepening efforts for continuous improvement.

Key issues of power, influence, culture and authority are some of the key considerations in leadership as they impact on leadership practices. These factors are important in organizations in as far as they affect organizational politics (Kotter, 2006).

Organizational politics is another inescapable and intrinsic reality in leadership. It is so intricately woven with management systems that relationships, norms, processes, performance and outcomes are hugely influenced and affected by it (Kotter, 2006).

While literature has not been clear on how effective leadership can be developed within organizations, there is general agreement that indeed leadership can be learnt and nurtured. To compound this, there is no empirical evidence to link certain
leadership practices or performances to certain outcomes of business operations irrespective of situations (Lord and Brown, 2004).

Despite all the perceived linkage problems, Executive Leadership has been identified, by some authors, as a key ingredient to improve an organization’s effectiveness and competitive advantage in the achievement of business goals (Cook and Wall, 1980).

Human factors in management involve the understanding that individuals have needs and objectives that are especially important to them. Managers assume the role of helping these people realize that they can satisfy their own needs and utilize their potential while contributing to the aims of the company. This calls for an understanding of roles assumed by people and the individuality and personalities of people (Kotter, 2006). Managers and the people they lead are interacting members of a broad social system and unless managers understand the complexity and individuality of people, they may mis-apply generalizations about motivation, leadership and communication.

While achieving results is important, the process to achieving these results is more important and the process to achieving these results must never violate the dignity of people. According to Kraemer (2011), the only true leadership is values-based leadership where leadership is rooted in who one is not on a role model or historic figure. This, according to Kraemer (2011), can be attained through four principles of values based leadership. The first of these value based leadership principles is self-reflection which leads to greater self-awareness that determines one’s values and what matters most in one’s life. The second principle is balance; which allows a leader to see situations from multiple angles/perspectives so as to gain better
understanding of both subordinates and situations. The third is true self-confidence gained through knowing oneself so as to identify one’s strengths and weaknesses so as to work on them for continuous improvement. The fourth and final principle is genuine humility that enables a leader not to forget who they are and where they came from. This kind of humility keeps life in perspective and makes the leader to value all people he or she meets leading to people willingly contributing to group goals.

Human motives are based on needs whether consciously or subconsciously felt. Some needs are primary such as the physiological needs for water, air, food, shelter and sleep while others are secondary like self-esteem, status, affiliation with others, affection, accomplishment and self-assertion (D’Andrade and Strauss, 1992). These needs vary in intensity over time and between individuals. For leaders to motivate people, they should do things that address the whole being; that is the body, mind, soul and spirit so that people find their voice. Satisfaction of these needs induces subordinates to act in a desired manner. The concept of motivation is at the heart of leadership and people need to identify with certain values (Covey, 2004).

These divergent perspectives on leadership invite continual debate and research to improve insights into how Africans behave as leaders, why they behave the way they do and implications of such behaviours on organizational and national economic performance. Research is also required to determine and guide on the approaches that African leaders must adopt to achieve sustainable improvements through their leadership practices.

Africa, in general, and Zimbabwe in particular has produced great political and business leaders and has also made imprints on leadership philosophy through the
development of Ubuntu. The African world of business has also produced outstanding leaders especially over the past two decades where they have had to overcome greater infrastructural challenges than their counterparts in America and Europe. Countries like Switzerland and Luxembourg have very high gross domestic product and per capita income yet their resource endowment is nothing compared to most African countries, Zimbabwe included. This, therefore, compels scholars to want to investigate this unexplained gap in development. Leadership has been identified as a possible explanation of the developmental gap and this research is an attempt to answer the question of whether it is leadership that is pulling Africa and Zimbabwe back through an investigation into the application of leadership theories by Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) of Zimbabwe Stock Exchange listed companies.

With this background, this study will focus on an investigation into the application of leadership theories and leadership practices of CEOs of companies quoted on the Zimbabwe Stock Exchange during the period 2005 to 2010. In doing so, the study aims to address the link between leadership theories and leadership practices on the Zimbabwean corporate scene. The obtaining operating environment now has special emphasis on the fact that every man has a right to live, learn and love and by choice leaders allow every man to bloom like a flower, rise up like an eagle, find their voice and serve a purpose in life (Covey, 2004). Whether the leadership theories, as espoused in Western literature, are pertinent to Zimbabwe is the subject of this study.
1.1.1 Area of Investigation
While leadership exhibits itself in all sectors of an economy; that is corporate, social, profit and non-profit, Governmental and Non-governmental, the key area of this study was organizational leadership in companies listed on the Zimbabwe Stock Exchange between the period 2005 to 2010 compared to established leadership theories. The period of the study was deliberately chosen as it presented challenges brought about by both social and economic factors.

1.1.2 Economic Overview
This overview is meant to help the reader appreciate the operating environment and so realize the importance of theoretical framework and leadership theory application in the real world in order to mitigate the impact of environmental challenges and staff expectation in light of the unpredictable and often volatile environment.

A Stock Exchange is a market where shares are bought and sold. Buying shares is a means of accumulating wealth by holding a stock of shares for eventual resale or to obtain control in an organization so as to influence direction. The share values go up and down in response to developments in the economic, political and corporate environment. The Zimbabwean Stock Exchange is controlled by an Act of Parliament (Zimbabwe Stock Exchange Act: Chapter 198) and is run by a group of members. Members of the Stock Exchange operate independently and they are called stock brokers. They represent buyers and sellers of shares who are called investors (www.zse.co.zw)

Investors instruct stockbrokers to buy shares in companies they select based on current performance and perceived future performance. Once the shares have been paid for, share certificates are then issued and these confirm title to the respective
number of shares. It is these share certificates that are used to resale the shares on the market or deposited as security or store of value.

Shares are bought for two main reasons, as a source of income as companies usually pay part of their profits to investors once or twice a year in the form of dividends (dividend income). If a company does not make profit, it does not pay dividends and the value of its shares is likely to fall. If a company is making good profits, the value of its shares rises and investors who sell their shares can make profit from selling such shares (capital growth) (www.mbendi.com/exch/p005htm).

Investors on the Stock Exchange include Pension Funds, Insurance Companies, ordinary companies and individuals. As is normal practice, all these investors will only invest where there is potential and potential is driven by perceptions about future earnings. Perceptions are driven by the leadership of these companies which invariably influences share prices (www.mbendi.com/exch/p005htm).

At the time this study was conducted, between 2005 and 2010, the Zimbabwean economy was struggling with an unsustainable fiscal deficit, an overvalued currency and hyperinflation that led to massive shortages of consumer goods. The 1998 to 2002 involvement in the Democratic Republic of Congo war drained the country of millions of dollars and this, compounded with the chaotic Land Reform exercise, badly damaged the agro-based economy. Zimbabwe was (2005-2010) and still is a net importer of food, a complete reversal of its previous bread-basket status. Support from multi-lateral institutions like the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank was suspended because of arrears on loan repayments leading to a widening of the trade deficit. The Reserve Bank routinely printed money to fund a growing budget deficit causing official inflation to rise from 32% in 1998 to 133% in
2004, 585% in 2005, 1000% in 2006 and 26 000% in 2007 (www.mbendi.com/exch/p005htm). As at 2008, private economists estimated inflation to have been well above the Government stated 231 million per cent. Instead, they estimated it to be well over 500 million per cent and by then, most people really did not care to calculate because inflation was rising by the second. The official exchange rate fell from Z$15 per 1 US$ in 2003 to Z$ 30 000 per US$ in 2007 and over Z$50 000 by mid-2008. From June 2008, the exchange rate was rising by the minute and so too were prices of basic commodities. To move with the ever rising prices, there were bank notes to the value of $100 trillion dollars (World Bank Country Report 1996-2010).

In 2007, Zimbabwe’s debt to multilateral institutions stood at US$5.155 billion with unemployment at over 80% (World Bank Country Report 1996- 2010). Gross Domestic Product for 2007 was estimated at US$2.211 billion comprising of Agriculture at 18.1%, Industry 22.6% and Services at 59.3%. During the same period, Zimbabwe was experiencing negative growth of up to 6% as a result of skewed policies, drought, corruption, political instability and other factors.

During the period covered by the study (2005-2010), all economic indicators for Zimbabwe were on a downward trend with the country falling behind Zambia and Malawi in terms of GDP per capita where, overally, it was placed at position 221 out of the 225 countries surveyed (World Bank Country Report 1996- 2010).
1.1.3 Zimbabwe Stock Exchange

The Zimbabwe Stock Exchange (ZSE) which was established in 1896, opened its doors to foreign investment in 1993. ([www.zse.co.zw](http://www.zse.co.zw)). The Exchange operates two indices, the Zimbabwe Industrial Index and the Zimbabwe Mining Index as per the Stock Exchange Act (Chapter 198). The Zimbabwe Stock Exchange has seventy eight (78) companies but the number of active counters varies from time to time.

During 1998, the Zimbabwe Stock Exchange saw a decline in turnover to 60% of the previous year and 88% of its value of shares sold as a result of high interest rates which attracted investors to the money market, and a loss of market confidence due to political unrest, farm invasions and stay-aways.

Despite the economic crisis and decline in turnover, the Zimbabwe Stock Exchange managed to post very impressive performances, beating inflation by as much as 40%. Over half of the counters operated well above inflation with financial counters registering between 30% and 40% above inflation ([www.zse.co.zw](http://www.zse.co.zw)). Ideally, a country’s stock market should reflect the performance of the economy, but for Zimbabwe, this did not apply as institutional investors were investing in the hope that once a positive political dispensation returned, confidence would return to the market and huge rewards would accrue to their investments in the future. In any case, foreign currency restrictions made it difficult for investors to repatriate their earnings and capital. Money was being moved from manufacturing into the stock exchange as investors saw an opportunity to take controlling stakes in companies using the Zimbabwean dollar which was losing value on a daily basis. Negative interest rates and inflation caused a shift from the money market to assets, driving share prices to record highs even in real terms ([www.zse.co.zw](http://www.zse.co.zw)).
1.2 Statement of the Problem

Zimbabwe is endowed with natural resources, a good climate, and a well-educated population yet developments in industry and commerce during the period 2005 to 2010 were difficult to reconcile with this resource endowment. As a management scholar and a practising leader, the motivation for undertaking this research was to reconcile leadership theory and leadership practices in Zimbabwe. It was also necessary to compare the American-centric leadership theories with empirical evidence on leadership practices in Zimbabwean Stock Exchange listed companies based on responses from Chief Executive Officers to a set of leadership questions.

Most leadership theories examined in this study were developed in America, largely informed by an Anglo-Saxon culture and then imported into sub-Saharan Africa by investors, explorers and missionaries who came to start churches and businesses. According to Blunt and Jones (1997; 10)

“Most modern published notions on leadership have their origins in the West and such notions have been propagated far and wide by American and Western management scholars”.

This assertion motivated the research interest which was to investigate the application of Anglo-Saxon leadership theories in the African business environment in general and the Zimbabwean one in particular. Key issues on the application of these leadership theories arise from ownership and influence of colonialism on one hand and cultural issues on the other. Since 1980, ownership and the management profiles were slowly changing and so were the fortunes of the companies. By 2005, the leadership profile in most Zimbabwean companies had changed significantly.
hence the motivation behind this research was the need to establish application of
certain leadership theories given the evolving context.

Leadership in Africa is under-researched while papers exploring African leadership
with a sufficient business focus are rare (African Business, 2013). Leadership in
Africa is, therefore, still an area of interest because Africa is still developing and
there is need to establish a wide body of knowledge on the subject for current and
future researchers.

1.3 AIMS OF THE STUDY
The aim of the study was to investigate the efficacy and relevance of classical and
contemporary leadership theories application on the Zimbabwean corporate scene.
To all intents and purposes this stock of knowledge is largely propagated in the
mainstream body of knowledge on management and related literature. Exploring the
similarities and differences contributes to the development of relevant knowledge for
practitioners and researchers in developing country contexts.

Further, the study contributes to the body of knowledge to the extent of the
convergence and divergence in leadership theory and practice within a globalizing
business environment. In many ways, the study contributes to the debate on the
transfer of knowledge across different cross-cultural contexts. More importantly, the
focus on leadership practices was poignant in view of the study period that was
characterized by hyper-inflation and economic challenges.
1.4 Objectives Of The Study

The objectives of this study are:

- To explore the link between leadership theories developed in the Western world and leadership practices of selected Chief Executive Officers of Zimbabwe Stock Exchange listed companies
- To examine the rationale for similarities and differences between theory and practice
- To gain some understanding on the link between leadership practices and emerging theories on leadership in Africa and the developing world.
- To draw some insights and recommendations for practitioners and future researchers on business management leadership.

1.5 Research Questions

This research will endeavour to answer the following questions:

- Which approaches to leadership were evident in the practices exhibited by selected Chief Executive Officers in Zimbabwean Stock Exchange listed companies during the period 2005 to 2010?

- What are the similarities and differences between theory and the leadership practices of Chief Executive Officers of Zimbabwe Stock Exchange listed companies?

- What lessons can be drawn from the empirical evidence in view of the traditional and possible emerging theories on leadership in the developing world context?
1.6 Justification of the Study
The question of corporate leadership in Zimbabwe, in particular, and Africa in general has been sparsely researched as evidenced by the dearth of empirically-grounded business focused leadership research studies. Engagement in this study was necessary to explore the subject of leadership practices in the corporate world because there is need to create a source of knowledge for business leadership development in Zimbabwe as very little prior work has been done in this field of study. This thesis will focus on leadership practices within listed enterprises so that findings contribute to the body of evidence on the application of leadership theories in the real world of work in Zimbabwe.

1.7 Assumptions of the Study
The study assumes that share price is a universally accepted indicator of company performance and investors are rational beings who only invest in companies showing great potential through exceptional leadership.

There is very little that can be attributed to luck and the destiny of any company lies in the leadership practices exhibited by the Chief Executive Officer.

1.8 Significance of the Study
This study seeks to contribute to the body of empirical research on leadership studies in Zimbabwe by reviewing leadership theories developed in North America and then establishing a link with leadership practices by Chief Executive Officers of Zimbabwe Stock Exchange listed companies during the period 2005 to 2010. Further, the study will seek to highlight the key variables influencing leadership within a developing country context.
In its 2004 report, the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, (UNCTAD) cites Akyuz and Gore, 2001 as stating that;

“The last four decades have witnessed a persistent search for explanations for the dismal growth of Sub-Saharan African (SSA) economies. These economies have been frequently compared with high growth Asian economies such as those of Malaysia, China and South Korea which were at similar levels of growth barely five decades ago. While the Asian economies now enjoy the accolade of being “economic miracles, the African economic situation is usually described as a disaster”.

As the African economic situation is described as a “disaster” or a “tragedy”, explanations for this dismal performance have highlighted institutional and structural weaknesses (Yeats et al, 1996; Killick et al, 2001), limited attention to private enterprise development (Fafchamps et al, 2001), poor and limited staff motivation (Okpara and Wyn, 2007), management ineptitude (Kamoche, 1997) and limited staff motivation (Okpara, 2006). Other scholars have argued that leadership weaknesses constitute the most important reason for Africa’s poor economic performance (Ochola, 2007) hence the motivation for this research.

1.9 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

This study was conducted based on leadership practices of companies listed on the Zimbabwe Stock Exchange during the period 2005 to 2010. As indicated in the introductory chapter to this thesis, this period was characterized by rapid and significant negative changes of all economic indicators for Zimbabwe. The period also marked the emergence of a black business elite whose success could be described as either political or leadership driven. Some businesses made it because the owners were politically connected and so enjoyed favourable terms especially
with regards to government business while others made it because they exercised leadership in rallying teams towards a vision. The issue of race cannot be divorced from this study as the race of the Chief Executive Officer had a major role to play in terms of values, perceptions and parenting. Culturally, there was a high power distance between workers and management in companies led by white managers as a result of the colonial past while there was low power distance in companies managed by blacks. The period under review (2005 to 2010) was also a transition from a mostly white corporate leadership to black corporate leadership on the Zimbabwe Stock Exchange. Of the thirty one (31) companies that responded, only eight (8) were wholly Zimbabwean owned meaning that the rest (23) had foreign ownership and so their accounts had to be incorporated in group accounts for the benefit of all investors. It is also the same period that the Stock Exchange experienced rapid growth. Geographically, all companies listed on the Zimbabwe Stock Exchange were considered irrespective of location. The study population covered forty nine (49) companies listed on the Zimbabwe Stock Exchange but responses were received from thirty (31) companies representing a sixty three per cent (63%) response rate.

1.10 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The limitations to this study were:

- The politicized operating environment made some respondents uncomfortable with releasing information on their company operations. These limitations included selective memory, recalling events as if they occurred at one time when they happened at another to suit explanations at that particular time (telescoping).
Access was another major limitation because the way the research was structured involved written and oral responses but not all respondents were available for the two processes. Most Chief Executive Officers filled the questionnaires but few were available for oral interviews to close gaps. Time constraints were cited as the major reason for non-availability of the Chief Executive Officers.

For some open ended-questions, the writing style left the researcher guessing exactly what the respondent wanted to say and this was made worse by, in some instances, lack of access for oral interviews.

Some twelve (12) questionnaires were filled in by Personal Assistants and the issue the researcher had to deal with was whether the answers were representative of the Chief Executive Officers’ feelings on the subject. This was indicated to the researcher by the Personal Assistants who indicated that they had done so using their experience with their bosses and only referring a few questions to the CEOs.

The final limitation was that of time and in some cases the researcher was told upfront as to the little time there was for the oral interviews before starting the actual interviews.

To mitigate against these limitations, the researcher adopted a very patient attitude to state and restate questions to see the consistency of responses after reassuring the respondents that the research was purely academic. In the case of time, the respondents were given enough time to set dates and timings even outside that originally requested and often agreed timing. Although this prolonged the research period it gave some authenticity to the research. Questionnaires that appeared to have been completed by Personal Assistants and where oral interviews could not be
secured to verify, were dropped from the research altogether as this research was not about the number of respondents but deduction of meaning.

Where time was a constraint during oral interviews, the researcher, in all cases, requested for and was granted the opportunity to call again. While this had the effect of prolonging the research, it helped in making sure that as many CEOs as possible were fully interviewed.

1.11 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN TO BE USED

Qualitative research, the main methodology adopted, is a paradigm of enquiry employed especially in the social sciences to gather an in-depth understanding of human behaviour and the reasons that govern and influence such behaviour. The qualitative method was used to understand phenomena and answer certain questions. It investigated the whys and how’s of decision making, not just what, where and when. Qualitative methods produce information on the cases studied only and any more general conclusions are only propositions (informed assertions). This is supported by Parry (1998) who stated that qualitative methods alone are insufficient to theorize successfully about the nature of leadership which is understood as a social influence process with no definite answers. As this research sought to understand “people and social and cultural contexts within which they live”, (Myers 1997 online), a qualitative approach to data gathering was necessary to allow for a holistic view (Gummeson, 1991). The selection of a qualitative approach only, based on the above, could not yield the desired results so this research adopted a combined approach (triangulation) i.e. quantitative methodology for bio data was used while a qualitative analysis was used to determine the underlying characteristics leading to certain practices, professional qualifications and career
paths. A combination of research methods (triangulation), therefore, improved research quality (Benbasat, 1997).

Case studies analysed in chapter two, oral interviews and questionnaires will be used for the more ‘academic’ side of the research. The questionnaires and case studies will use several research designs like using participant observation, semi-structured interviewing, document analysis and interviews, asking leaders about their practices and orientations or inviting individuals to discuss other leaders or leadership practices. Where interviews were carried out, assumptions were not made about the participants’ knowledge as everything had to be established as it was at the time of the interview. The interview questions investigated the central research aim of wanting to establish application of leadership theories in leadership practices by CEOs of Zimbabwe Stock Exchange listed companies.

1.12 Ethical and Legal Considerations

In conforming to the ethical standards of research, the researcher will address key issues of ensuring voluntary participation, anonymity of respondents and confidentiality of information supplied. As stated in the letter of request, the data obtained will only be used for the research and any release to third parties will be with the full concurrence of the respondents. Appropriate ascription of authorship and rejection of all forms of plagiarism will be strictly observed (Babbie E & Mouton J, 2009).

In seeking information, the researcher will have to advise all respondents of their rights like limiting the time for activities, right to refuse to answer all or some questions and strict adherence to legal requirements.
1.13 Chapters Summary
Chapter one presented an overview of the study, the statement of the research problem, aims and purpose of the study, research objectives, justification for the study, study delimitations, legal and ethical issues, study limitations and the mitigatory measures that were put in place. A brief overview of the economic conditions prevalent during the period the study was undertaken was also done and it showed that the economy was characterised by high inflation, high unemployment and a generally unfriendly operating environment.

The following chapter presents the related literature review on various leadership theories and empirical research evidence on leadership definition, practices and related concepts and conceptual frameworks. The chapter also looks at case studies of companies in corporate America and papers on leadership in Africa to better understand the similarities and differences. The chapter also involves defining leadership and explaining the difference between leadership and management, the context and styles of leadership and what influences leadership behaviours through case studies of some successful American leaders and the influence of culture on leadership in Africa.

Chapter three looks at the research methodology, design and paradigm. The chapter also looks at the step by step process of the research from questionnaire design, sampling plan, data collection methods and data analysis.

In Chapter Four, research data is presented for analysis and interpretation. In doing so, the chapter links research finding to the related literature review.

Chapter five presents conclusions and recommendations. The chapter also answers the research questions and links leadership theory to the obtaining practices, the
similarities and differences between theory and practice, the role of the environment, culture and the nature of subordinates. The chapter also offers recommendations to current leaders and future researchers.
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews the literature on leadership theories and research evidence on leadership practices and behaviour. The current body of knowledge on leadership is reviewed focusing on the espoused link between theory and practice within different contexts in line with the objectives of the study. The key themes and concepts in the following sections include the definition of leadership, approaches and underpinning leadership theories and conceptual frameworks on the topic, empirical research evidence and related developments with emphasis on Africa in particular and developing countries in general.

Leadership theories are generally grouped into four major groups namely the essentialist, relational, critical and constructionist theories. These four main groups are further divided into sub-theories grouped according to the research approaches (Yukl, 1998) and these include behavioural, motivational, contingency/situational, charismatic, transactional and transformational theories as explained in 2.2 below.

2.1 DEFINING LEADERSHIP

There are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have defined the concept (Bass, 1981). There is, however, a common thread in the definitions and this boils down to influence and followership.

Donnelly, Ivanicevich and Gibson (1985) defined leadership as an attempt at influencing the activities of followers, through the communication process, towards the attainment of some goal or goals.
Hersey and Blanchard (1988) defined leadership as the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation. Batten (1989) adds another dimension by defining leadership as the development of a clear and complete system of expectations in order to identify, evoke and use the strengths of all resources in the organization, the most important of which is people.

According to Bass (1990), leadership is an interaction between two or more members of a group that often involves a structuring or restructuring of the situation and the perceptions and expectations of members. Bass (1990) further states that leadership occurs when one group member modifies the motivation or competencies of others in the group. Any member of the group can exhibit some amount of leadership.

Weirich and Kroontz (2005) defined leadership as the art or process of influencing people so that they willingly and enthusiastically strive towards the achievement of group goals.

All these definitions point to key issues of influence and willingness to undertake assignments aimed at achieving group goals. Leaders place themselves before the group and facilitate progress and inspire the group to accomplish organizational goals (Weirich and Kroontz, 2005). In order to inspire, leaders have to envision the future, instil values and show a concern for employees and customers. To achieve this, leaders use four ingredients and these are the ability to use power effectively and in a responsible manner, the ability to comprehend that human beings have different motivating factors at different times and in different situations, the ability to
inspire and the ability to act in a manner that develops a climate conducive to responding and arousing motivation (Weirich and Kroontz, 2005).

This study on leadership practices among a selected group of CEOs within a developing country context explores the link between the divergent schools of thought on the subject. Leadership is one of the most observed and studied phenomenon yet it is still poorly understood or confused with other concepts like management. This study seeks to gain some understanding on the phenomenon within a developing country context and relate this to the accumulated body of knowledge largely from the Western world.

The following section reviews the literature on the differences between management and leadership. More importantly, for this study, the essence of leadership in ensuring the survival and success of the organisation was critical among the C.E.Os in the study given the prevalent economic conditions during the study period.

2.1.1 The Difference between Management and Leadership

Some critical review of the body of knowledge on the similarities and difference between leadership and management is important in view of the study research problem. It has been reported that leadership is often confused with management and this is often exacerbated by managers who over evaluate their performance and competitive position, listen poorly and learn slowly (HBR, 2011). It will be critical to understand how managers, who are reported as having difficulty seeing forces that present threats and opportunities due to the bureaucratic culture that smothers those who want to respond to changing forces in the operating environment, should adjust their practices to help companies move forward.
This bureaucratic scenario is made worse by the institutionalization of management in corporate culture thereby discouraging those who want to learn to lead. Attention is turned inward because of past successes and managerial competencies take precedence over leadership. Successful transformation is 70 to 90 per cent leadership and only 10 to 30 per cent management (Kotter, 2001).

The point of view that leadership is different from management needed elaboration in this study so that the phenomenon under study could be clearly understood. Kotter 2001 stated that:

“leadership is not mystical and mysterious. It has nothing to do with having charisma or other exotic personality traits. It is not the province of a chosen few. Nor is leadership necessarily better than management or a replacement for it.” (Kotter 2001:85)

He further pointed out that leadership and management are two distinctive and complementary systems of action and both are necessary for success in an increasingly complex and volatile business environment. Successful corporations actively seek out people with leadership potential and expose them to career experiences designed to develop that potential.

In contrast, Kotter (2011) again stated that management is about coping with complexity and its practices and procedures are largely a response to one of the most significant developments of the twentieth century which is rapid and constant change. Good management also brings a degree of order and consistency to key dimensions like the quality and profitability of products.

This study needed to critically examine the notion that leadership is about coping with change in a more competitive and more volatile world, characterized by faster technological change, greater international competition, deregulation of markets,
over capacity in capital intensive industries and the ever-changing demographics of the workforce (Kotter 2001). This is necessary because doing what was done yesterday or doing it 5% better is no longer a formula to survive and compete effectively in the current environment. To survive, today’s enterprises have to engage in major and constant changes which are critically necessary and as a result of this, there is constant need for more leadership.

Coping with change and coping with complexity shape the characteristic activities of management and leadership. Each system of action involves deciding what needs to be done, creating networks of people and relationships that can accomplish an agenda and then trying to ensure that people actually do the job set out in the agenda. Management and leadership accomplish these tasks in different ways (Kotter, 1985).

It is a generally accepted statement that companies manage complexity through planning and budgeting. Companies also set targets or goals for the future as a check mechanism to track management performance through establishing detailed steps for achieving set targets and then allocating resources to accomplish the plans before evaluating performance. This process normally takes place at the beginning of a reporting period and is known as strategic planning. According to Yulk, 1994, the same can be said about leading an organization to constructive change which, also begins with setting a direction and developing a vision for the future along with strategies for producing the changes needed to achieve that vision.

Management develops the capacity to achieve its plans by organizing and staffing, that is, creating an organizational structure and set of jobs for accomplishing plan requirements, staffing the jobs with qualified personnel, communicating the plan to
those people, delegating responsibility for carrying out the plan and devising systems to monitor implementation. The equivalent leadership activity, however, is aligning people through communication of the new direction to those who can create coalitions that understand the vision and are committed to its achievement. Management also ensures plan accomplishment by controlling and problem solving, monitoring results versus the plan in more detail both formally and informally through reports, meetings and other tools. It also involves identifying deviations and then planning and organizing to solve the identified problems. For leadership, achieving a vision requires motivating and inspiring people to keep them moving in the right direction, despite major obstacles to change, by appealing to basic but often untapped human needs, values and emotions (Hickman, 1992).

Two key words have emerged from this section and these are consistency and order. The key elements of consistency are predictability of actions and possible outcomes as well. The key elements are addressed through the exercise of management and leadership. In this study, however, there seems to be a contradiction especially considering that we have already stated that the environment was unpredictable and so called for inconsistent behaviour but the thrust is on consistency of practices that are influenced by the environment rather than sticking to practices which might not work in a given situation. Order, on the other hand, refers to planning where issues are well thought out before implementation and this helps track and evaluate performance.
**Leadership Versus Management (Kotter, 1985)**

**Management**

- **Planning and budgeting**
  Establishing detailed steps and timetables for achieving needed results, then allocating the resources necessary to make it happen.

- **Organising and staffing:**
  Establishing some structure for accomplishing plan requirements, staffing that structure with individuals, delegating responsibility and authority for carrying out the plan, providing policies and procedures to help guide people, and creating methods or systems to monitor implementation.

- **Controlling and problem solving:**
  Monitoring results, identifying deviations from plan, then planning and organising to solve problems.

**Leadership**

- **Establishing direction:**
  Developing a vision of the future – and strategies for producing the changes needed to achieve that vision.

- **Aligning people:**
  Communicating direction in words and deeds to all those whose cooperation may be needed so as to influence the creation of teams and coalitions that understand the vision and strategies and that accept their validity.

- **Motivating and inspiring:**
  Energising people to overcome major political, bureaucratic, and resource barriers to change by satisfying basic, but often unfulfilled, human needs.

**Source:** From a Force for Change: How Leadership Differs from Management (Kotter, 1985)

**Note:**

- Leadership produces change, often to a dramatic degree, and has the potential to produce extremely useful change (e.g. new products that customers want, new approaches to labour relations that help make a firm more competitive).

- Management produces a degree of predictability and order and has the potential to consistently produce the short-term results expected by various stakeholders (e.g. for customers, always being on time; for stockholders, being on budget).
The leadership versus management exhibit above captures the essence of the differences between leadership and management in a graphic form to enhance understanding.

The theoretical postulations by Kotter (1985, 2011), reviewed in the preceding sections, had to be explored within the Zimbabwean context to ascertain or otherwise the link between theory and practice.

Hickman (1992) compared and inter-related the competencies and mind-sets of managers and those of leaders. His findings were that as a result of the growing pressures on contemporary organizations, executives find themselves confronted with an escalating conflict between the managerial and leadership requirements of organizations. An either or mentality dominates when organizations most desperately need the best of both. Hickman (1992) further suggests that what companies need are both sets of skills, the practical, analytical, orderly mind of a manager and the experimental, visionary and creative soul of a leader.

Hickman (1992) further suggests that the words manager and leader are just metaphors representing two opposite ends of a spectrum. In this respect, the term manager signifies the more analytical, structured, controlled deliberate, and orderly end of the continuum, while leader tends to occupy the more experimental, visionary, flexible, uncontrolled and creative end.

Related concepts that differentiate managers from leaders postulated by Hickman (1992) include the following: Authority plus influence, Art plus science, Simplicity plus complexity, Dreams plus duties, Inspiration plus instruction, and Compromise plus polarize.
The ability to create visions for the future and related scenarios and versions is considered a prime leadership skill. Further, Hickman (1992) posits that the ability to envision some desired future state of being and to inspire others to understand and share that vision is a critical leadership skill. This study sought to examine this among the group of C.E.Os under study.

The following section reviews the traditional theories on leadership in terms of the underpinning concepts and frameworks.

2.2. Leadership Theories

Bass and Stogdill (1990) reviewed leadership literature and considered the issues relating to leadership styles. As with general management literature, effective leadership is a critical success factor in the management of organizations and an appropriate leadership style can lead to better performance in a given environment.

A review of leadership literature reveals an evolving series of schools of thought from trait theories where leaders were said to be born with certain physical characteristics to transformational leadership which is characterized by relationships of mutual stimulation to attain shared objectives. Whilst earlier theories focused on characteristics and qualities of leaders, later theories began to look at the roles of followers, relationships and the contextual nature of leadership.

The study will concentrate on the contemporary theories (contingency/situational) that place emphasis on the significance of the environment as these render simplistic theories like Trait or Great Men irrelevant. Leadership has been widely studied over time but it remains an elusive phenomenon to develop, practice and understand. It is this elusive and ever changing nature of leadership that makes it a good subject to study.
Bolden and Kirk (2009) group theories of leadership into four main categories:

1. Essentialist theories
2. Relational theories
3. Critical theories
4. Constructionist theories

The essentialist theories rely on objectivist paradigms and seek to identify and define what leadership is in universal terms, which are, focusing on predictable leadership traits and behaviours (Blake and Mouton, 1964; Fielder, 1967; Stogdill, 1974; Hersey and Blanchard, 1977 and Bass, 1985). Although these are classical theories, the inability to identify a fixed set of leadership traits further discounts these theories and focuses attention on leadership behaviour or practices (Linstead, 1999). Again, it is from this assertion that this research will focus on leadership practices rather than traits.

Relational theorists on the other hand argue that leadership does not reside within men but in their relationship with others. These theorists call for recognition of the emergent nature of leadership processes and the distributed nature of expertise and influence. They place emphasis on formal and informal learning which helps in the acquisition of proper leadership attitudes and insights. This way, the cycle of learning is enhanced for the betterment of leadership practice. Each working day brings new challenges and experiences that put knowledge, skills and attitudes to the test. Lifelong learning then helps good leaders to tackle these challenges effectively and thereby bring credibility to the leader whose interactions with family, friends and co-workers is taken as a learning curve. Through these constant interactions, repeated actions become habits which form a person’s character and good leadership
practices. The belief that experience is the best teacher stems from this principle of lifelong learning.

Critical theories focus attention on the underlying dynamics of power and politics within organizations by emphasizing the social and psychological processes that characterise the performance of leadership functions in organizations. Finally, the constructionist theorists draw attention to the manner in which leadership is utilized to construct shared meanings that enable people to make sense of their predicaments.

These four main categories can be further divided into sub-leadership theories grouped according to the research approaches (Yukl, 1998) and these include behavioural, motivational, contingency/situational, charismatic, transactional and transformational theories as detailed below.

2.2.1 Behavioural Theories:
Blake and Mouton (1985) postulated that great leaders are not born but made. The prime focus of these theories is on observations of what effective and ineffective leaders actually do on the job rather than their qualities. Different patterns of behaviour observed are categorized as styles of leadership. Mintzberg (1973) took this further to develop roles that leaders must fulfil and these are: Figurehead role, Leader role (integrating the organization and motivating), Liaison role, Monitor role, Disseminator role, Spokesman role, Entrepreneur role, Disturbance Handler role, Resource Allocator role and finally the Negotiator role.

Kotter (1988) describes what leaders really do as the development of a bold new vision, an intelligent workable strategy for implementing the vision, eliciting the
cooperation and teamwork from a large network of essential people and relentlessly working to keep key people in the network motivated towards the vision.

In related work, Kouzes and Posner (2006) inferred five practices and ten behavioural commitments that characterize effective leaders as;

- Challenging the process—search for opportunities, experiment and take risks.
- Inspiring a shared vision—envision the future, enlist others
- Enabling others to act—foster collaboration, strengthen others
- Modelling the way—set the example, plan small wins.
- Encouraging the heart—recognize individual contribution, celebrate accomplishments.

Ulrich, Zenger and Smallwood (1999) assert that whatever a person’s characteristics might be, in the end, one must focus on results of the organization in as far as they affect employees, regulatory authorities/governments, customers and investors. A results oriented leader will pay attention to and try to satisfy all four key stakeholders.

This study explored the extent to which the postulated behavioural theories influenced or related to the leadership practices of the CEOs under study.

2.2.2. Motivational Theories: House’s Path-Goal Theory of Leadership

House (1971), states that the motivational function of the leader consists of increasing personal payoffs to subordinates for goal attainment and making the path to these payoffs easier to travel by clarifying it, reducing roadblocks and pitfalls and increasing the opportunities for personal satisfaction.
This theory is related to the expectancy theory where people are motivated by the level of expectation that they can do the work, be rewarded and value the reward offered. The leader must understand the subordinates' expectations and clarify and magnify them toward the desired result. This version of leadership includes four basic types of behaviour: supportive, directive, participative, and achievement oriented.

2.2.2.1 McGregor's (1960) Theory X and Y

This theory brings in a dimension of managerial assumptions in determining leadership practices and this is essential if the research objectives are to be achieved. Theory X states that the average human being dislikes work and has to be coerced, directed, threatened and controlled in order to put in meaningful effort.

Theory Y on the other hand states that work is as natural as play and there is no need for threats and controls but clear rewards and proper work conditions associated with achievement of objectives.

How a leader classifies employees with regards to theory X and Y determines the leadership style that the leader will assume and this invariably influences results (McGregor, 1960).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theory X managers believe that:</th>
<th>Theory Y managers believe that:</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>- The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if possible.</td>
<td>- The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest and the average human being, under proper conditions, learns not only to accept but to seek responsibility.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Because of this human characteristic, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed or threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort to achieve organizational objectives.</td>
<td>- People will exercise self-direction and self-control to achieve objectives to which they are committed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has little ambition and wants security above all else.</td>
<td>- The capacity to exercise a relatively high level imagination, ingenuity and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population and the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized under the conditions of modern industrial life.</td>
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Leadership styles are a function of the situation, the followers and the task at hand. While the task can be set, the environmental situation and the followers differ from time to time and this is what brings relevance to McGregor’s work. How the leader views followers determines style and generally if a leader assumes that followers are theory Y oriented, they adopt a more democratic leadership style while the leader who assumes his subordinates to be theory X oriented will adopt an autocratic style.

The study explored the link between the postulated motivational theories and leadership practices reported by the C.E.Os in the study.

### 2.2.3. The Contingency or Situational Theories:

This group of theories pays special attention to contextual issues like the nature of the work to be performed by the leader’s unit, the individual characteristics of the followers, or the nature of the external environment. This approach sees leadership as specific to a situation in which it is being exercised. Some great leaders like Franklin Delano Roosevelt (Great Depression, 1930 in the USA) and the rise of Mao Zedong in China, after World War II, emerged through their response to specific situations and this is supported by the assertion that there exists an interaction between the group and the leader and that people tend to follow those leaders whom they perceive as offering them a means of accomplishing their personal desires (Weirich and Koontz, 2005). Leaders need to consider the situation when they design an environment for performance.

The situational or contingency theories have roots in studies by (Fielder, 1967), as well as Hersey and Blanchard (1977) and posit that there is no one best way to influence people. Different situations call for different types of leadership orientation and actions. The dominant leadership behaviours are placed on a continuum with...
task centred leadership on one end and relationship centred leadership behaviour on the other (Nahavandi, 2009; Yukl, 2010). Task centred leaders consider it their responsibility to supervise their subordinates closely, telling them what to do, how to do it and when to do it.

Relationship centred leaders, on the other hand, address the social and emotional needs of their peers and subordinates with emphasis on recognition, work satisfaction and self-esteem. The extent to which a leader is task or relationship-centred depends on the nature of the task, the degree of urgency with which the task has to be accomplished and the level of maturity of the employees carrying out the task (Avolio et al, 2009). It has been established that people tend to exhibit varying degrees of maturity depending on the specific task, function or objectives that have to be fulfilled (Lord et al, 1999).

The task and relationship perspectives of leadership have evolved into two new perspectives, that is, transactional and transformational leadership. Transactional leadership focuses on exchange of favours between the leader and subordinates and reward or punishment for good or poor performance. This model takes its roots in the expectancy theory which holds that an employee’s motivation to achieve success is a product of the individual’s perceived probability of success and the expected rewards (Atkinson, 1957).

Similarly, motivation to avoid failure would be a product of perceived probability of failure and the negative outcome of the failure. Transformational leadership, on the other hand, involves binding people around a common purpose through self-reinforcing behaviours that followers gain from successfully achieving a task and from reliance on intrinsic rewards.
Transformational leaders act as role models and are able to motivate and inspire their followers by identifying new opportunities, providing meaning and challenge and articulating a strong vision for the future. They are also enthusiastic and optimistic, communicate clear and realistic expectations and demonstrate commitment to a shared vision. Subordinates are encouraged by such leaders to share in the organizational vision, seeing deeper and meaningful purpose in their work and exceeding their own self-interests for the good of the organization. They also consider the needs of others over their own, share risks with others and conduct themselves ethically (Kuada, 2010). Transformational leaders also provide their followers with individualized consideration such as achievement, development, growth and support.

The postulations propagated by the contingency or situational theories were examined in light of the research evidence in attempts to address the central study research question especially given the obtaining environment.

2.2.3.1 Vroom-Yetton Contingency Model (1973)

This is a refinement of the situational approach. Vroom and Yetton (1973) stated that all leadership is contingent upon factors within the environment and no leadership style is cast in stone. This model is based on the assumption that situational variables interacting with personal attributes or characteristics of the leader result in leader behaviour that can affect organizational effectiveness. The leader’s possible behaviours are contingent upon the interaction between the questions and the leader’s assessment of the situation in developing a response to those questions. The model empowers the leader in ways that other models do not because the leader makes decisions using information available to them at the time (Hersey, 2001).
Vroom and Yetton (1973) classify leadership decision making into five different categories where, in one case, the leader obtains the necessary information from followers and then decides on the solution to the problem. The role of the followers is to provide information rather than generating or evaluating alternative solutions.

In another situation, the leader shares the problem with relevant followers individually, getting their ideas and suggestions without getting them together as a group. The decision made by the leader may or may not reflect the followers’ influence.

In yet another case, the leader shares the problem with followers as a group, collectively obtaining their ideas and suggestions. The decision, however, may or may not reflect the followers’ influence.

In the final case, the leader shares the problem with followers as a group and together they generate and evaluate alternatives and attempt to reach a consensus on a solution. The leader’s role is more like a chairperson and does not influence the group to adopt a particular solution.

These five methods are relevant to group decision making and include two authoritarian processes, two consultative processes and joint decision making. (House and Aditya 1997).

This model allows leaders to follow a clear pattern of questioning leadership decision making to determine how best to work with subordinates and address problems. Leadership and the actions needed to be a leader are never constant and a certain degree of fluidity must be applied to leadership at all times.
2.2.3.2 Situational Theory of Leadership

Hersey and Blanchard (1977) state that there are environmental factors, to do with subordinates and the task at hand, that determines leadership practices. This theory is an extension of the Managerial Grid and the maturity of the subordinates determines the mix of people versus task orientation appropriate for the subordinate. Immature subordinates require a more directive, task oriented leader, while mature subordinates who are willing to take responsibility will respond better to a more relationship and people –oriented leader. The four Blanchard leadership styles are directive, managing, coaching, and delegating. This theory is based on the amount of direction (task behaviour) and socio-emotional support (relationship behaviour) a leader must provide given a situation and the level of maturity of subordinates.

- Task behaviour is the extent to which the leader engages in spelling out the duties and responsibilities to an individual or group. This behaviour includes telling people what to do, how to do it and when to do it. In task behaviour, the leader engages in one way communication.

- Relationship behaviour is the extent to which the leader engages in two way communication. This includes listening, facilitating, and supportive behaviour. The leader engages in two-way communication by providing socio-economic support.

- Maturity is the willingness and ability of a person to take responsibility for directing his own behaviour. People tend to have varying degrees of maturity, depending on the specific task, function or objective that a leader is attempting to accomplish through their efforts.
To determine the appropriate leadership style in a given situation, the leader must first determine the maturity level of subordinates in relation to the task. As the level of followers’ maturity increases, the leader should begin to reduce the task behaviour and increase relationship behaviour until the followers reach a moderate maturity level. As the followers begin to move into above average maturity levels, the leader should decrease both the task behaviour and the relationship behaviour. Once the maturity level is identified, the appropriate leadership style is then applied. The process of identifying maturity level is a function of time and experience on the part of the leader and it almost comes naturally.

2.2.3.3 Tannenbaum and Schmidt’s Leadership Continuum (1973)
Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) suggested that leadership is exercised along a continuum and that as one moves away from the autocratic extreme to some amount of subordinate participation and involvement in decision making, production increases. They also suggested that the kind of leadership represented by the democratic extreme of the continuum will be rarely encountered in formal organizations. They further state that five main leadership styles can be located at points along the continuum and these are; the autocratic or telling, the persuasive, consultative, democratic and a middle of the road which can be called benevolent autocracy.

2.2.3.4 Fiedler’s Contingency Model of Leadership-(Fielder, 1967)
Fielder’s (1967) theory postulates that there are three situations that could define the conditions of a managerial task, namely;

- The leader member relationship: How well the manager and employees get along.
• Task structure: Is the job highly structured, fairly unstructured, or somewhere in between?

• Position Power: How much authority does the manager possess?

Through the Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) rating, individuals are asked to name the person they least worked well with in the past and then rate the person’s personality. Some leaders will be more effective in certain situations, while others will do better in other situations. Leader-member relationships, positional power and the structure of the task all contribute to the degree of fit between an individual and a situation. Fielder postulates that there is no single best way for managers to lead. Situations will create different leadership style requirements. In a highly routine (mechanistic) environment where repetitive tasks are the norm, a directive leadership style may result in the best results while in a dynamic environment; a more flexible participative style may be required.

2.2.4. Adair’s Action-centred Leadership Model (Adair 1973)

The Adair model states that the Action-centred leader gets the job done through the work team and relationships with fellow managers and staff through directing the job to be done (task structuring), support and review of the individual people doing it and coordinating and fostering the work team as a whole. To achieve this, the leader defines the task, makes a plan and allocates resources. To ensure teamwork, the leader maintains discipline, builds team spirit, encourages, motivates, gives a sense of purpose and ensures communication within the group. For the individual team members, the leader attends to their personal problems, gives status and praise, recognizes and uses individual abilities and helps in the development of the individual.
2.2.5. House’s Theory of Charismatic Leadership

Charismatic leadership is measured by the followers’ trust in the correctness of the leader, similarity of followers’ belief in the leader’s, unquestionable acceptance of the leader by the followers, emotional involvement of followers in the mission of the organization and a belief by followers that they can contribute to the success of the group’s mission (House, Hunt and Larson 1977). This theory asserts that charismatic leaders exhibit the following characteristics:

- High self-confidence, strong conviction in own beliefs.
- The impression that they are competent.
- Articulate ideological goals for subordinates.
- Appeal to the hopes and ideals and ideals of the followers.
- Use role modelling where they can, “Be like me”.
- Communicate high expectations.
- Arouse motives related to the group’s mission to keep members focused on the bigger goal.

2.2.6. Transactional/Management Leadership Theories:

Bass (1981) points out that this leadership approach emphasizes the importance of relationships between leaders and followers focusing on the mutual benefits derived from a form of contract through which the leader delivers such things as rewards and benefits in return for commitment and loyalty of the followers. Followers are motivated through a system of reward and punishment, that is, this-for-that as expounded in the Leader-member theory. Transactional leadership has been the
traditional model of leadership with its roots in organizational or business perspective in the “bottom line” (Bass, 1981). Leadership is a reciprocal process of mobilizing by persons with certain motives and values in order to realize goals independently or mutually. The nature of the goals is made crucial by this very fact of mutual interest. The goals can be separate but related; that is two persons may exchange goods or services in order to realize independent objectives. The object is not a joint effort for persons with common aims acting for the collective interests of followers but a bargain to aid the individual interests of persons or groups going their separate ways like trading of votes in parliament (Bass, 1981).

2.2.7. Transformational Leadership/Relationship Theories:

According to Bass and Avolio (1994), the goal of transformational leadership is to transform people and organizations literally. It aims to change them in mind and heart, enlarge the vision, insight, and understanding; clarify purposes; make behaviour congruent with beliefs, principles, or values; and bring about changes that are permanent, self-perpetuating and momentum building. The focus is on connections that are formed between leaders and followers. Leaders motivate and inspire by helping group members to see the importance and higher societal good of tasks. The central theme is change and the role of leadership is in envisioning and implementing the transformation of organizational performance. Under these theories we have contributions from Burns and Bass’s (1994) and Kouzes and Posner (2006).

Burns (1994) describes transformational leadership as a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents. He further states that the transforming leader shapes, alters and elevates the motives, values and goals of followers achieving significant
change in the process. The premise of this leadership is that whatever the separate interests persons might hold, they are presently or potentially united in the pursuit of higher goals, the realization of which is tested by the achievement of significant change that represents the collective or pooled interests of leaders and followers. Burns (1994) proposed that there is a special power entailed in transforming leadership which are;

“armed with principles that may ultimately transform both the leaders and followers into persons who adhere to moral values and end-values” (Burns, 1994; 17)

Bass (1994) further developed Burns’ concept of transforming leadership into transformational leadership where the leader transforms followers and the organization. The direction of influence is one way unlike Burns who sees it as two ways. Bass’ transformational leaders may expand a follower’s portfolio of needs, transform a follower’s self-interest, increase the confidence of followers, elevate followers’ expectations, heighten the value of the leader’s intended outcomes for the follower, encourage behavioural change and motivate others to higher levels of personal achievement (Maslow, 1954).

Transformational behaviour is what endures change in organizations and so can only be sustained through appropriate behaviours associated with the five transformational styles namely:

- Living one’s ideals
- Inspiring others
- Stimulating others
- Coaching and development
- Respect, trust and faith. (Kouzes and Posner, 2006)

Behaviours influence practices and the table below lists behaviours associated with each transformational style for emphasis of this principle.

**Table 2.2**

**Transformational Leadership Styles and Behaviours (Bass and Avolio, 1994)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TRANSFORMATIONAL STYLE</th>
<th>LEADER BEHAVIOUR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Idealized Behaviours</strong></td>
<td>• Talk about their most important values and beliefs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Living one’s ideals</td>
<td>• Specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Champion exciting new possibilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Talk about the importance of trusting each other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inspirational motivation</strong></td>
<td>• Talk optimistically about the future.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspiring others</td>
<td>• Talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Articulate a compelling vision of the future</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Express confidence that goals will be achieved.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Provide an exciting image of what is essential to consider</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Take a stand on controversial issues.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Intellectual Stimulation** |
| **Stimulating others** |
| **Re-examine critical assumptions to questions whether they are appropriate.** |
| **Seek differing perspectives when solving problems.** |
| **Get others to look at problems from different angles.** |
| **Suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.** |
| **Encourage non-traditional thinking to deal with traditional problems.** |
| **Encourage rethinking those ideas which have never questioned.** |

| **Individualized Consideration:** |
| **Spend time teaching and coaching.** |
| **Treat others as individuals rather than just as** |
### Coaching and development

- Consider individuals as having different needs, abilities and aspirations from others.
- Help others to develop their strengths.
- Listen attentively to others’ concerns.
- Promote self-development.

### Idealized Attributes:

**Respect, trust and faith**

- Instil pride in others for being associated with them.
- Go beyond their self-interest for the good of the group.
- Act in ways that build others’ respect.
- Display a sense of power and competence.
- Make personal sacrifices for others’ benefits.
- Reassure others that obstacles will be overcome.

---

Transformational Leadership Styles and Behaviours (Bass and Avolio, 1994)

Transformational leadership increases associates' awareness of what is right and important to raise associates' motivational maturity and to move associates to go beyond their own self-interest for the good of the group, the organization or society.
Such leaders provide their associates with a sense of purpose that goes beyond a simple exchange of rewards for effort provided. Such leaders want to elevate the maturity level of the needs of their associates from security needs to needs for achievement and self-development. They convince their associates to strive for a higher level of achievement and as well as higher levels of moral and ethical standards. Through the development of their associates, they optimize the development of their organization as well. This is crucially important because high performing associates build high performing organizations (Bass and Avolio, 1994).

This approach views leadership as a process that is diffuse throughout an organization rather than a preserve of formally designated leaders hence the emergence of formal and informal leadership. The emphasis thus shifts from developing leaders to developing “leaderful” organisations where there is a collective responsibility for leadership.

Bass (1990) described a Transformational leader as someone who is a model of integrity and fairness, sets clear goals, has high expectations, encourages, provides support and recognition, stirs people’s emotions, gets people to look beyond their self-interest and inspires people to reach for the improbable.

Transformational behaviour is what endures change in organizations and it is sustained through five transformational styles namely: Living one’s ideals, inspiring others, stimulating others, coaching and development and respect, trust and faith.

Transformational theories show a significant progression from the industrial revolution mentality where production was key and humans were viewed as machines that could be replaced willy-nilly. The current knowledge economy does not allow this as people are now more mobile, know their rights, cannot be kept in
the dark and want a role to play in the development of the organisations they work for (Covey, 2004).

Transformational theories are relevant to this study in that given what was obtaining in 2005 to 2010, there was need to change the minds and hearts of people so that their visions would be enlarged, the purpose clarified and behaviour made congruent with beliefs, values and principles. Given the pursuit for short term gains during this period, there was definitely need for transformational leadership to convert leaders into moral agents who could persuade followers to pursue the higher good.

2.2.8. Leadership Substitutes Theory (Kerr and Jermier, 1978)

According to Kerr and Jermier (1978), two situational variables can reduce the importance of leadership by “formal leaders” such as managers. These variables are:

- **Neutralizers**: Factors in the work situation that hamper the effectiveness of a leader’s actions.

- **Substitutes**: Factors that make the very role of a formal leader unnecessary.

These neutralizers and substitutes may be found in three different dimensions of work situations such as subordinate characteristics, task characteristics and group or organizational characteristics which are described in more detail below.

- **Subordinate characteristics**- subordinates who arrive with extensive training (e.g. doctors, engineers) or who have high internal motivation may serve as substitutes for leaders; they may not require or even want supervision. Subordinates’ values may serve as neutralizers for leadership.
• **Task characteristics;** certain tasks, by their nature, do not call for much leadership. Simple, repetitive tasks that can be mastered easily make leadership unnecessary. Extremely rewarding tasks can also serve as substitutes for leadership by ensuring job satisfaction and enthusiasm without the presence of a formal leader.

• **Group and organization characteristics;** highly formalized organizations, with extensive regulations and policies, can serve as substitutes for leadership. Once subordinate learn the rules, work goes on with little need for the direction of the leader. Such formalized settings can become neutralizers for leadership if the inflexibility of the rule impedes the leader’s efforts to make strategic changes.

### 2.2.9. Cognitive Resources Theory (Fielder, 1986)

Fielder (1986)’s theory explores the conditions in which two cognitive resources of a leader, experience and intelligence, have a bearing on group performance through three propositions of leader, stress and experience.

Leader ability contributes to group performance only when a leader has directive style and subordinates require guidance in order to perform. When a task is complex, an intelligent leader will be able to devise a better strategy for performance than an unintelligent leader. When the task is routine, subordinates will not need much leadership and leader intelligence will not have any bearing.

Stress affects the relationship between intelligence and group performance. In a low stress environment, a highly intelligence leader will generate better strategies and decisions than a less intelligent leader. When stress is high, a negative relationship occurs between leader intelligence and the quality of decisions.
Stress also affects the relationship between leader experience and group performance. In high stress situations, leaders look to their own past decisions for guidance. Experience is positively related to decisions quality in these situations, but is unrelated to decision quality when stress is low.

2.2.10. Leadership Theories summary

The essence of this research was to review leadership theories and link them to leadership practices among Chief Executive Officers of Zimbabwe Stock Exchange listed Companies during the period 2005 to 2010 in order to investigate application of theory.

Theories on leadership have moved on since the Blake and Mouton Grid (1964) was originally proposed. In particular the context in which leadership occurs is now seen as an important driver of the leadership style used. In many situations, the team leader as an ideal has moved on to the transformational leader as the ideal.

The Great Man and Trait Theories do not apply in modern day leadership because researchers have failed to come up with a list of traits that can be linked to good leadership practices. Extensive empirical studies have failed to establish the generalizability of these traits and thus it came into quick competition with other leadership theories (Nahavandi, 2009). These theories also discount learning and the experience in leadership. Behavioural Theories focus on observations of what leaders actually do and it is on this basis that they are dismissed because obviously different leaders will do things differently but style alone does not make a leader until it is matched with a situation.
The contingency or situational theories bring relevance of factors within the environment and according to these theories; the external environment, the subordinates and the characteristics of the leader determine practices and effectiveness. Under this group of theories, the task, relationships and maturity levels of subordinates determine the appropriateness of leadership styles. The assumptions of these theories support performance under the difficult environment of 2005 to 2010. These theories would work well with the transformational theories where focus is on transforming people and organizations literally and change them in mind heart and spirit by enlarging their vision, clarifying purpose to bring about permanent change that focuses on connections between the leader and the followers. Once this has been achieved, the two groups are then united in pursuance of higher goals. Motivational theories (e.g. Maslow, 1954 and Hertzberg, 1971) on the other hand, look at individual task attainment through reducing pitfalls and roadblocks along the way. They are not enduring in nature and are overly reliant on rewards just like transactional theories. Charismatic theories or the “be like me” theories are highly dependent on followers trust in the leader not the higher goals. It follows, therefore, that two sets of theories are relevant to the modern day society and these are the contingency/ situational and transformational theories.

In an endeavour to establish the practices that help to move companies from good to great, it is important to realize that transformational theories carry all the requisite ingredients and leaders have to be guided by the underlying principles of transformational and contingency theories. This study will thus be linking the characteristics of transformational and contingency theories to practices exhibited by CEOs during the period of the study (2005 to 2010).
2.3. Leadership Styles

Leadership style is the manner and approach of providing direction, implementing plans and motivating people (Weihrich and Koontz, 2005). The key to good leadership is a good knowledge base and style theories suggest that individuals who possess a particular style of leadership can be matched to certain organizations or specific tasks for maximum benefit.

Leadership frameworks influence style through the interaction between assumptions and orientations of the leader operating in a particular environment and subordinates who exhibit certain characteristics. The urgency of the task and the skills available also influence style.

2.3.1 The Managerial Grid (blake and mouton, 1964)

Blake and Mouton (1964) looked at leadership based on concern for people and tasks and developed the managerial grid. The Managerial Grid further supports the work of Hersey and Blanchard (1977), House and Aditya (1997) and Vroom and Yetton (1973) on the situational theory of leadership.
Table 2.4: Managerial Grid

Concern for People is the degree of personal commitment towards goal achievement and maintenance of the self-esteem of workers. Concern for people is meant to convey how managers are concerned about people and not such things as how much production they are concerned about getting out of a group.

Concern for production includes the attitude of a supervisor towards a wide variety of things such as the quality of policy decisions, procedure and processes, creativeness of research, quality of service, work efficiency, and volume of output. Concern for people is likewise interpreted in a broad way. It includes such elements...
as the degree of personal commitment towards goal achievement, maintenance of the self-esteem of workers, placement of responsibility on the basis of trust rather than obedience, provision of good working conditions and maintenance of satisfying interpersonal relations.

The four leadership styles or types identified from the grid are:

**2.3.1.1 Authoritarian/Autocratic: (9.1)**

This is a classical leadership style where the manager seeks to make as many decisions as possible and exert the most authority and control in decision making. It is characterized by high task, low relationship (Blake and Mouton, 1964). These leaders are hard on their workers (autocratic) with little or no allowance for cooperation or collaboration, strong on schedules and expect people to work without questioning or debate. Leaders tell their employees what they want done and how they want it accomplished without getting the advice of their followers. This style is appropriate under conditions where the leader has all the information to solve the problem, short on time or well-motivated employees. Work accomplished is from committed people with interdependence through a common stake in organizational purpose and with trust and respect.

This style is often used in the military and involves use of demeaning language, threats and abuse of power. It is short-termistic and increases the workload on the manager or leader because workers have to constantly refer in order to avoid mistakes and the consequences that come with them. This style should only be used on rare occasions as it has no place in a leader’s repertoire. (U.S. Army Handbook, 1973)
2.3.1.2 Team Leader, Participative and Democratic: (9.9)

According to Blake and Mouton (1964), these leaders display the highest possible dedication to people and production. The leader promotes sharing of responsibility, delegation and continual consultation on all major issues and decisions. The leader includes one or more employees in the decision making process but maintains the final decision making authority. This style is normally used when the leader has part of the information and the employees have the other part. This style operates under the assumption that a leader is not expected to know everything and this is why they employ knowledgeable and skilful employees. Using this style is of mutual benefit as it allows employees to become part of the team while allowing the leader to make better decisions. Work accomplished is from committed people with interdependence through a common stake in organizational purpose and with trust and respect.

Belbin (1975) conducted a study of teams focusing on the factors separating successful and unsuccessful teams. Through the study, Belbin (1975) found out that the composition of the team was important and that individual differences in style, role and contribution far from underlining personal weakness, were a source of potential strength. Balanced teams which comprised of individuals who engaged in complementary role behaviour performed better than unbalanced teams. In this case, differences are celebrated because they add value to goal achievement.

The democratic leadership style creates a positive work environment, successful initiatives, creative thinking, reduction in friction and office politics and reduces employee turnover.
2.3.1.3 Country Club Management (1.9)
Under this style, Blake and Mouton (1964) state that managers have little or no concern for production, but are concerned only for people. They promote a relaxed, friendly and happy environment with no effort to accomplish enterprise goals. Thoughtful attention to needs of people leads to a friendly and comfortable organisational atmosphere and work tempo but little progress in attaining organisational goals.

2.3.1.4 Impoverished Management (1.1)
These leaders concern themselves very little with either people or production and have minimum involvement in their job. They abandon their jobs and only act as messengers (Blake and Mouton, 1964). This abdication is retrogressive and helps no one.

2.3.1.5 Benevolent Autocrat (5.5)
Leaders under this style have medium concern for production and for people. They obtain adequate but not outstanding morale and production. They do not set goals too high and are likely to have a rather benevolently autocratic attitude toward people (Blake and Mouton, 1964).

Leadership characteristics of the above styles can be further clarified by looking at specific behaviours that go with each style as listed;

2.3.1.6 Autocratic
The leader takes the decisions and announces them, expecting subordinates to carry them out without asking questions (The telling style).
2.3.1.7 Persuasive
The leader takes all the decisions for the group without discussion or consultation but believes that people will be better motivated if they are persuaded that the decisions are good for them and the organisation. The leader does a lot of explaining and selling in order to overcome any possible resistance to what has to be done. The leader also puts a lot of energy into creating enthusiasm for the goals he has set for the group (the selling style).

2.3.1.8 Consultative
The leader confers with the group members before taking decisions and considers their advice and feelings when framing decisions. The leader may, however, not always accept the subordinates’ advice but they are likely to feel that at least they were consulted and so had an influence on the decision. Under this leadership style the decision and responsibility remains with the leader but the degree of involvement by subordinates in decision making is very much greater than telling or selling styles (the consultative style).

2.3.1.9 Democratic
The leader characteristically lays the problem before his subordinates and invites discussion. The leader’s role is that of conference leader or chair rather than that of a decision taker. The leader allows the decision to emerge out of the process of group discussion, instead of imposing it on the group as the boss. (The joining style)

2.3.1.10 Bureaucratic
The leader is concerned with ensuring that workers follow rules and procedures accurately and consistently. Employees display a formal, business-like attitude in the workplace and between each other. Managers gain instant authority with their
positions and leadership development becomes useless. Employees are rewarded for their ability to adhere to rules and procedures perfectly.

The Managerial Grid is a useful device for identifying and classifying managerial styles, but it does not tell us why a manager falls into one part or another of the grid. To determine the reason, one has to look at underlying causes such as the personality characteristics of the leader or the followers, the ability and training of the managers, the enterprise environment and other situational factors. Personality characteristics of the leader or followers, the ability and training of managers, the enterprise environment and situational factors influence how leaders and followers act (Weihrich and Koontz, 2005). Linking styles to the variables is the underlying principle in situational theories and telling, selling, consulting and joining styles apply depending on the situation. Situations attracting each of the different styles are;

**Telling:** In an emergency, a telling style may be the most appropriate and would normally be considered justified by the group.

**Selling:** When the group leader alone possesses all the information on which the decision must be based and which at the same time calls for a very high level of commitment and enthusiasm on the part of group members if the task is to be carried through successfully.

**Consulting:** When there is time in which to reach a considered decision and when information on which the decision is to be based lies among the team members, then the consultative style should be used.

**Joining:** This is applicable where the nature of the responsibility associated with the decision is such that group members are willing to share it with the leader or
alternatively, the leader is willing to accept responsibility for decisions which he has not made personally.

These styles mean that leaders are not locked in a particular mode but look at situations, the task at hand and the team to determine the best way to get results. In defining leadership, it was stated that it is an influence process based on the situation, the follower and the task. There are situations that demand a particular style and leaders are supposed to assess situations before engaging into or adopting a style. Even after doing so, the leader should be able to shift from one style to another in the execution of a single task depending on the situation.

The U.S. Army Handbook, (1973) supports the Blake and Mouton grid (1964) by identifying three major styles, two of which agree with the Blake and Mouton grid i.e. the Authoritarian and the Participative or Democratic. The third style not covered in the Managerial Grid is the Delegative or Free Reign style where the leader allows employees to make decisions but is ultimately responsible for the decisions that are made. This style is used when employees are able to analyse the situation and determine what needs to be done and how to do it. For the leader to allow this style to prevail, the leader must fully trust and have confidence in the maturity level of the people below. This style relieves pressure on the leader as there is minimum exertion of effort to get work done and to sustain organizational morale.

2.4 CULTURE AND LEADERSHIP IN AFRICA

Leaning on Hofstede’s cultural dimensions, Muczyk and Holt (2008) argue that an autocratic leadership style may be appropriate in cultures that are high in power distance, collectivism, masculinity and uncertainty avoidance and characterized by external environment orientation. An autocratic leadership style might also be
appropriate for societies whose members have a high regard for hierarchy and are reluctant to bypass the chain of command. Democratic styles, on the other hand, are more effectively practised in cultures that are low in power distance, high on individualism and femininity, low on uncertainty avoidance and characterized by internal environment orientation.

Theoretical arguments advanced in the two streams of research on cultural theories and leadership theories have influenced management studies in Africa and some scholars now use culture to justify the uniqueness of African leadership styles (Leonard, 1987; Jackson, 2004). While some scholars project culture as an inhibitor to effective leadership practices, studies showed, indeed, that this would be the case in the wholesale application of Western leadership practices. In Africa, studies have shown that Malawian workers have instrumental orientation towards work, they expect their jobs to bring substantial benefits to themselves but show very little loyalty and commitment to the organization (Jones, 1986; Montgomery, 1987; Kuada, 2008; Nwankwo and Richards, 2001). Jones (1986) and Montgomery (1987) further observed that management practices of executives in Southern African countries fail to treat organizational goals with the importance that these goals deserve and are frequently engaged in the search for personal power and privileges, seeing their positions in organizations as personal fiefdoms and a means to an end.

"Even arguments and negotiations over public vehicles, housing and equipment centred about the convenience of the individual user more than about the mission of the organization to which they were assigned" (Montgomery, 1987; 917).

Nwankwo and Richards (2001) argue that post-independence leadership styles in Africa have hitherto remained autocratic, dictatorial and incompetent in both public and private organizations. African employees tend to be inspected (closely
supervised) rather than expected (motivated) in an age when other societies advocate for and practice employee empowerment and encourage independent thinking and creativity that ensures organizational agility (Kuada, 1994). African employees, therefore, tend to act with extreme caution while at work in order not to invite the anger of their superiors over any mistakes that they may make. In Africa, the function of the loyal employee is to serve as a buffer for the immediate superior and if anything goes wrong, the loyal employee will do anything to blame all others including himself in order to protect the boss. A variation of this kind of behaviour plays up in situations where several employees are aware of something that is a problem of mutual concern but choose to act as if they do not know of it and therefore cover up the errors in a case of “skilled incompetence” as coined by Argyris (1990). The consequences of all this are that employees become reluctant to question existing practices in their organizations even if this would help to rectify problems that hold back the company from moving forward. It is well documented that cultural differences greatly influence social values and behaviours and thus habitual, desirable and effective forms of leadership (House et al, 2004; Hofstede, 2001; Trompernaars, 1993).

It thus follows that culture plays a key role in leadership practices within a specific social context. According to Gbadamosi (2003) Western management concepts have not shown how culture might be taken into account in managerial practice. Jones (1986) and Lamb (1990) intimated that African values influence leadership practices among different African groupings in the East and West African settings especially in as far as what motivated different groups to act the way they do. In the Sub Saharan region, age is critical as hierarchy is strictly followed and there is a general and common sense belief that wisdom comes with age and culture dictates that elderly
people must be respected even those from outside a family setting and in work situations even subordinates. Consultations at work places often take this into account with the older generation taking leadership roles in an informal way. Africa’s most common cultural characteristics can be summed up as; high social inequality, respect for hierarchies (title and age), importance of personal connections and relationships, collective nature, male domination, preference to harmony than to conflict, time flexibility (African time), emphasis on tradition and honour, corruption in some countries, disregard for law due to low enforcement and positive work ethics but with low productivity. (Nnadozie, 2001).

These cultural beliefs and characteristics have an influence on leadership practice from both a leader and subordinate point of view because they heavily influence style.

Gender is another key consideration when it comes to culture and leadership in Africa. In their article on African women leaders, Nkomo S.M and Ngambi H (2009) state that there are several factors that impede women’s ascent to leadership positions chief among them; early socialisation, limited educational opportunities, multiple roles, gender stereotyping, subtle discrimination and organisational policies. Most of these factors are rooted in cultural and social traditions which emphasise the primary role of women as that of being mothers and wives with the role of keeping humanity growing (http://dx.doi.org/18186870903102014). Even when they eventually get into leadership positions, African women face the challenge of progressing at the same rate as their male counterparts because of lack of exposure to management development programmes and the start-stop career path due to motherhood. While the issue of culture has a more profound role in Africa, it affects social relations elsewhere because gender is a recognisable social construction. The historical role
of women greatly influences their contemporary role in leadership because their universal subordination applies to all cultures.

From the above, it can be argued that there are elements of African culture that promote unique and positive leadership behaviours (Jackson, 2004) but some of the cultural rules of behaviour tend to act as drags on effective leadership and managerial practices and so curtail entrepreneurship and economic growth (Kuada, 2009). This is especially so when it comes to leadership roles for women who are treated as minors, in some societies, no matter their capabilities. Understanding this complexity is important for the success of any leadership development initiatives on the continent. The key to leadership practice effectiveness, therefore, lies in researchers coming up with the pros and cons of culture on leadership practices in Africa and developing a basis for the contextual application of the principles espoused in the Anglo Saxon theories.

2.5 ENVIRONMENT AND LEADERSHIP PRACTICES

In establishing the true nature of leadership and the distinctiveness of the African story, Horner, 1997; Tirmizi, 2002; Yukl, 1999 and Bolden, 2004, reviewed leadership studies and concluded that leadership was contextual, that is, placing emphasis on matching the leadership style to the context in which it occurs. To get to this level, there is need for training and the experiential knowledge. According to Kirk and Bolden (2002), leadership development is from experience and internalization of prescribed models or principles. By having an opportunity to go through a reflective process of personal enquiry, of working out own meanings of leadership from experience in different life roles, people develop an enduring sense of personal
identity as leaders. This involves becoming aware of the wider body of thinking about leadership such as the principles, passions and assumptions of leadership.

To what extent leadership theory is context specific is a moot point and as long as the economy forms one of the variables, it invariably has an influence on leadership practices under the Situational or Contingency approach. The concept of “fit” means that to avoid working at cross-purposes with the economy, leadership practices had to bring equifinality between the two elements, that is the environment and applicable practices.

2.6 Leadership Practices

Having described leadership as a relationship, there are certain practices that are used to transform values into actions, visions into realities, obstacles into innovation, separateness into solidarity, and risks into rewards (Kouzes and Pousner, 2006). Kouzes and Pousner (2006) further identified these common practices as;

- Model the way – Setting the example for behaviour expected of subordinates starts with leaders themselves. Leaders need to be clear about what they think and believe in. Consistent deeds no matter how small tend to set a lasting impression on subordinates. Modelling the way is about earning the right to lead through involvement and action and this involves such things as coming to work on time and respecting rules of the organization etc.

- Inspire a shared vision – Every organization or social movement begins with a dream or vision. While dreams or visions are an inspiration, there is need for communication with other team members so that all effort is directed towards a common goal. Visions seen by the leaders only are insufficient to create an
organized movement to significant change in a company. Commitment from team members needs inspiration from the leader. As leadership is a dialogue, leaders need to know what inspires subordinates and so communicate it in a way that shows they have knowledge of people’s dreams, hopes, aspirations and values.

- Challenge the process – Those who lead others to greatness seek and accept challenges. Leaders are pioneers who search for opportunities to innovate, grow and improve. As change comes from different sources, a leader’s primary role is the recognition of good ideas, the generation of support for those ideas and the willingness to challenge the system to get new products, processes, services and systems adopted. Leaders take rights but do things gradually; they are learners who learn from both failures and successes. Arnold Toynbee (2006), the historian once said; “Nothing fails like success”. By this, he meant that when there is a challenge and the response is equal to the challenge, that is success but applying the same response to a different challenge, the once successful response does not always work and it suddenly becomes a failure. Challenging the process is thus relative and it affects the way we communicate, motivate and discipline subordinates.

- Enable others to act - Leaders need to foster collaboration and build trust. They engage all those who must make something work so that they take ownership and feel strong, capable and committed to make a mark. When people feel trusted and have more discretion, more authority and more information, they shy away from gossiping and concentrate on successfully completing the task at hand. This way, they are more likely to use their energies to produce extraordinary results. People who feel trusted always
respond positively all the time but failure to give opportunities to staff prevents managers from tapping into those people’s highest motivation, talents and genius, leaving those people to perform only when they are being watched. They do this because they feel insulted, alienated and depersonalized from their work by attitudinal restriction from their leaders.

- Encourage the heart – Genuine acts of caring uplift the spirits and draw people forward. Encouragement comes from dramatic gestures or simple actions like showing appreciation for people’s contributions and creating a culture of celebration. Everyone loves encouragement and it lifts them up and motivates them. Leaders have to visibly and behaviourally link rewards with performance and also strive to make people see the benefits of positive behaviour that is aligned with cherished organizational values. Collective identity and community spirit comes from celebrations and rituals done with authority. Most people do not have faith in themselves and they see difficulties in every situation but with a little faith and encouragement, they can do great things. These same people often do not have someone who has faith in them and if a leader identifies this and addresses it, they encourage the heart such that the person will feel like somebody and realize their full potential. People’s instincts are good at knowing when others have faith in them and they can tell if the belief is genuine or not. When they think it is genuine, they will do anything to live up to the faith and solidarity shown. They rise or fall to meet the leader’s level of expectation of them. If a leader expresses scepticism and doubt, he gets rewarded with mediocrity. Leaders who encourage and allow mistakes will get subordinates who will do their best to live up to this
expectation. In the end, the leader and subordinates benefit from the faith and creativity shown.

Welch (2005) states that before one is a leader, success is all about growing oneself, but when one becomes a leader, success is all about growing others. He also states that there are many ways to be a leader and every leader has a different list of leadership rules. Drawing from his own leadership experiences over forty years, Jack Welch (2005) lists eight key things that leaders should do and these became his rules which guided him to success.

Welch (2005) states that leaders relentlessly upgrade their team, using every encounter as an opportunity to evaluate, coach and build self-confidence. Leaders, therefore, need to evaluate, coach and build self-confidence in subordinates. Self-confidence energises and gives people the courage to stretch, take risks and achieve beyond their dreams.

Leaders make sure people not only share and see the vision, but also live and breathe it. A leader has to make the vision come alive by making the direction so vivid that every employee can understand it and, if need, be give a clear and distinct answer.

Leaders establish trust with candour, transparency and credit. They make sure that people always know where they stand in terms of performance through regular and honest evaluations. They are always unequivocal when delivering bad news and also give credit when it is due.

Leaders get into everyone’s skin, exuding positive energy and optimism. A dynamic leader, who is always upbeat and with a positive attitude, ends up running a team of
well upbeat people with positive outlooks. No matter the outlook, the job of the leader is to fight the gravitational pull of negativism.

Leaders have the courage to make unpopular decisions and gut calls. No matter where one works, there are times when hard decisions have to be made e.g. let people go, cut funding or close shop altogether. These decisions spawn complaints and resistance but the job of the leader is to listen and explain clearly but still move forward without dwelling or cajoling.

Leaders inspire risk taking and learning by setting the example. If, as a leader, one wants people to experiment and expand, he/she must set the example by creating a culture of risk taking and freely admitting mistakes and talking about the lessons learnt from each mistake.

Leaders celebrate success as success has to be celebrated so that it makes people feel like winners and creates an atmosphere of recognition and positive energy. Companies win all the time but they let it go without celebration thereby discouraging employees.

There seems to be paradoxes in the list proposed above but this is the essence of leadership, managing for the short term by keeping on squeezing the lemon, and managing for the long term by keeping on dreaming. (Welch, 2005) Leaders can, therefore, keep squeezing and dreaming at the same time. In other words leaders balance the conflicting demands of long and short term goals.

Collins (2001) identified the timeless principle of good to great leaders who take a good organization and turn it into one that produces sustainable great results. Collins (2001) further identified level 5 leaders as those leaders who turn companies from
good to great. These leaders channel their ego needs away from themselves to the larger goal of building a great company. According to Collins (2001), level 5 refers to the highest level in a hierarchy of executive capabilities as shown in the next diagram;
Figure 2.5 Level 5 Hierarchies

Level 5 Good to Great Hierarchy (Collins, 2001)

**LEVEL 5 - Executive**

Builds enduring greatness through a paradoxical blend of personal humility and professional will.

**LEVEL 4 - Effective Leader**

Catalyses commitment to and vigorous pursuit of a clear and compelling vision, stimulating higher performance standards.

**LEVEL 3 - Competent Manager**

Organizes people and resources toward the effective and efficient pursuit of predetermined objectives.

**LEVEL 2 - Contributing Team Member**

Contributes individual capabilities to the achievement of group objectives and works effectively with others in a group setting.

**LEVEL 1 - Highly Capable Individual** Makes productive contributions through talent, knowledge, skills, and good work habits.

In their research, the good to great team, identified certain characteristics attributable to the good to great leaders as follows;

They set up their successors for even greater success in the next generation while the egocentric level 4 leaders often set up their successors for failure.

They display a compelling modesty, are self-effacing and understated.
They are fanatically driven, infected with an incurable need to produce sustainable results. They are resolved to do whatever it takes to make the company great, no matter how big or hard the decisions. They display a workmanlike diligence of more plough horse than show horse. They look out the window to attribute success to factors other than themselves but when things go bad they look in the mirror and blame themselves, taking full responsibility.

These practices and styles are based on a combination of individuals’ beliefs, values and preferences as well as organizational culture and norms which encourage some styles while discouraging others. This scenario has led to what Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) called the leadership continuum concept. This concept sees leadership as involving a variety of styles, ranging from one that is highly boss-centred to one that is highly subordinate-centred. The styles vary with the degree of freedom a leader grants to subordinates. Instead of suggesting a choice between the two styles of leadership, authoritarian or democratic, this approach offers a range of styles, where no style is better than the other but a style can be relevant to a situation and in a particular situation, one style might be more appropriate than the other.

The appropriateness of a style depends on the leader, the followers and the situation as indicated in earlier chapters. To Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973), the most important elements that determine style can be seen along a continuum as;

- The forces operating in the manager’s personality, including value systems, confidence in subordinates, inclination towards leadership styles and feelings of security in uncertain situations.
• The forces in subordinates such as their willingness to assume responsibility, their knowledge and experience and their tolerance for ambiguity.

• The forces in the situation, such as organizational values and traditions, the effectiveness of subordinates working as a unit, the nature of the problem and feasibility of safely delegating the authority to handle it and the pressure of time.

These forces further lend support to contingency or situational theories’ applicability.

Hofstede (2010) raised the issue of power distance in leadership practices.

• Power is the ability of individuals or groups to influence the beliefs or actions of other persons or groups. There are many bases of power but of concern to real leadership is legitimate power which arises from position and derives relevance from the cultural system of rights, obligations and duties whereby a position is accepted by people as being legitimate. Power may also be derived from the expertise of a person or a group. This is the power of knowledge exercised by Professors and other academics. These people are respected for their specialized knowledge. Power may also exist as referent power that is derived from beliefs (Hofstede, 2010)

Power can also arise from the ability to offer rewards. Even those with little position power can exercise considerable influence like Professors who can withhold high grades to their students. Coercive power is closely related to reward power and arises from legitimate power which is used to punish. Politicians are known for their ability to use coercive power. For power to work, less powerful members of society must accept that power is distributed unequally, a concept called “power distance”
advanced by Hofstede (2010). Power distance also describes the extent to which employees accept that superiors have more power than they have. This may lead to acceptance of the fact that opinions and decisions are right because of the higher positions that some have.

In contrast, in large power distance countries, the relationship between boss and subordinates is strictly ruled and dependent on the decisions of the boss. In companies with large power distance which have very centralized organization structure, subordinates expect to be told what to do from their superiors because they consider each other as unequal. Inequalities are normally expected and privileges are seen as desirable by superiors. Large power distance societies have a large degree of centralization and in work situations, the salary gaps are wide. For people in high power distance cultures, positive emotions are expressed to superiors and negative emotions to subordinates. On a global scale, Western Europe and America are low power distance communities while Africa, Asia and Eastern Europe are high power distance communities (Hofstede, 2010).

2.7. CRITICAL DIMENSIONS OF LEADERSHIP SITUATIONS

Fiedler (1967) describes three critical dimensions of the leadership situation that help to determine what leadership style would be most appropriate and effective.

2.7.1 Position power

This is the degree to which the power of a position, as distinguished from other sources of power, such as personality or expertise enables a leader to get group members to comply with directions. This is the power arising from organizational authority. A leader with clear and considerable position power can obtain good followership more easily than one without such power.
2.7.2 Task structure

The extent to which tasks can be clearly spelt out and people held responsible for them. If tasks are clear, the quality of performance can be more easily controlled and group members can be held more definitely accountable and responsible for performance.

2.7.3 Leader-member relations

Fiedler (1967) considers this dimension as the most important from a leader’s point of view, since position power and task structure may be largely under the control of an enterprise. It has to do with the extent to which group members like and trust a leader and are willing to follow that leader.

Through scores that Fiedler registered on his least preferred co-worker (LPC) scale i.e. ratings made by people in a group of members with whom they would least like to work. Scores on the assumed similarity between opposites (ASO) scale which are ratings based on the degree to which leaders see group members as being like themselves on the assumption that people will like best and work best with those who are seen as most like themselves. People, who rated their co-workers high, were those who derived major satisfaction from successful interpersonal relationships. People who rated their co-workers low (least preferred) were seen as deriving their major satisfaction from task performance.

From the Fielder (1967) research, it was concluded that leadership performance depends as much on the organization as it depends on the leader’s own attributes. It is, therefore, not meaningful to speak of an effective or ineffective leader but instead, we can talk of leaders who tend to be effective or ineffective in a particular situation.
Organizational and group effectiveness can only be increased by building an organizational environment in which the subordinates can perform well.

Schnesheim (1982) supports the Managerial Grid concept through the use of consideration and structure. He lists consideration (employee orientation) as leaders’ concern about human needs of their employees. These leaders build teamwork, help employees with their problems and provide psychological support while structure (task orientation) leaders believe that they get results by consistently keeping people busy and urging them to produce.

According to Schnesheim (1982), leaders who are considerate in their leadership style are higher performers and are more satisfied with their jobs.

2.8. Other Leadership Styles

Robbins (2004) and Belbin (1993) brought up other leadership styles whose principles are not different from what has already been discussed.

2.8.1 Pull and Push Leadership Styles (Robbins, 2004)

Push leaders lead by giving directions (authoritarian) while pull leaders achieve results through:

- Taking responsibility for the success of their organization and people.
- Work to become attractive to others.
- Align and inspire with values.
- Act as stewards of their organization and people.
- Architect physical and social space.
Pull leaders are democratic and operate from a Human Resources framework. They create a social system that inspires people to follow and this is the essence of leadership. Pull leaders believe that the success of the organization is their responsibility, no matter what their job titles are. They make it possible for everyone else to succeed. They constantly worry about whether they have done enough for their people to be great in their jobs. They constantly ask how they can create a culture that helps others achieve.

Because organizational success alone is not enough, pull leaders take responsibility for helping their people succeed individually. They learn enough to encourage and support each person reach their goals that are not necessarily about work. Covey (2004), talks about individuals who choose individually and synergistically to become self-reliant independent entrepreneurs. This, he concludes, is finding their voices.

Pull leaders work to become attractive to others. Their greatest tool is themselves and so work to perfect that tool. They read constantly, attend top-level executive education programs, and strive to get better through improving interpersonal skills and getting their own lives in order. By working to become better people, they become better leaders.

**2.8.2 Solo Leader (Belbin, 1993)**

Leaders who are not notable for admitting their weaknesses, whether allowable or not and act as though they have no weaknesses are termed solo leaders. This type of behaviour may have great advantages to overcome internal barriers and decisions, especially those of an urgent nature which can be made and put into effect with little or no delay. Again this leadership style can be linked to the dictatorial style as detailed earlier. The increasing complexity and the discontinuous nature of
modern work coupled with high mobility poses great problems for solo leaders. The direct opposite of a solo leader is the team leader and an analysis of the two clearly shows how they operate and helps to determine which one is the preferred style. The table below gives a comparison between solo and team leaders and it is clear that the solo leadership model is no longer applicable in the modern day environment where the worker wants to play a meaningful role in the organization while leaders need more cooperation from their subordinates.
### Table 2.4 Solo and Team Leader (Belbin, 1993)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SOLO LEADER</th>
<th>TEAM LEADER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plays unlimited role and interferes in everything.</td>
<td>Chooses to limit role to preferred team roles- delegates roles to others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strives for conformity- the solo leader tries to mould people to particular standards.</td>
<td>Builds on diversity- the team leader values differences between people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collects acolytes- the solo leader collects admirers and sycophants.</td>
<td>Seeks Talent- the team leader is not threatened by people with special abilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directs Subordinates- subordinates take their leads and cues from the solo leader.</td>
<td>Develops colleagues- the team leader encourages the growth of personal strengths.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Projects objectives- the solo leader makes it plain what everyone is expected to do.</td>
<td>Creates mission- the team leader projects the vision which others can act on as they see fit.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Solo and Team Leader (Belbin, 1993)

The study explored contrasting views of leadership styles in Table 2.4 among the C.E.Os under study in line with the study thesis – investigating the application or otherwise of leadership theories developed in the Western world and leadership practices within a developing country context. The table shows practices that lead to corporate excellence as opposed to those that might seek to glorify the leader at the expense of team members. The table also helps to buttress the fact that leadership
is more about us and less about me hence team leader practices lead to corporate excellence and a sense of belonging for all members.

2.9. CONTEXT OF LEADERSHIP

An organization that is established as an instrument or means for achieving defined objectives is defined as a formal organization. Divisions, departments, sections, positions, jobs and tasks make up the work structure. A formal organization is expected to behave impersonally with regards to relationships with clients or its staff members. Entry and subsequent advancement is by merit or seniority, with each employee receiving a salary and enjoying a certain degree of tenure that safeguards him from any arbitrary influence by superiors or clients. It is this bureaucratic structure that forms the basis of appointments which endow individuals with the authority attached to positions.

In the context of an informal organization that underlies the formal structure, the organization expresses the personal objectives and goals of the individual membership which may not coincide with those of the formal organization. Leaders emerge from the informal organization and their personal qualities, the demands of the situation or environment or a combination attract followers who accept their leadership within one or several overlay structures. Instead of the authority of a position being held by an appointed head, the emergent leader wields influence or power. Influence is the ability to gain cooperation by means of persuasion or control over rewards. Power is a stronger form of influence because it reflects a person’s ability to enforce action through the control of means of punishment.

A leader is not dependent on title or formal authority. Leaders are recognized by capacity for caring for others, clear communication and a commitment to persist. In
the absence of sufficient personal competence, a manager may be confronted by an emergent leader who can challenge his role in the organization and reduce it to that of a figurehead.

Leadership is only partly about the leader and largely about those around that leader. The power that one gets when anointed as a leader is a onetime gift and to keep it, one has to keep earning it. Leadership is not a solo performance; it is the achievement of a specific purpose through and with others.

Sri Narayani Amma (2006) once said, "When you think you are helping others, it is not true. You are actually helping yourself". This is because, at the level of the soul, we are all one. Through helping others, one connects with one’s inner soul and that becomes a source of joy. We all know that people like to do things they enjoy and in doing so, they continue to work for others and this is the essence of leadership.

This concept of helping leads to four main variables, and seven principles in the leadership process. Transformational leadership, in the context of service to others, is unconditional leadership which addresses the principle of reciprocity, where one does well to others for the purpose of attaining one’s own goals through others’ efforts.

There are eight variables in leadership and these are; a leader, a situation, followers personalities, attitudes and abilities, the operating environment and power and authority relationships.

Leadership is practised in the context of these key variables and this gives support to the contingency approach to leadership where a style is adopted depending on the variables. This again lays credence to the fact that given the Zimbabwean scenario
at the time of this study (2005 to 2010), it was fundamental for leaders to be sensitive to the environment in order to survive. In order to address these changing conditions, leaders operate on a continuum, oscillating from one style to another depending on the operating environment. Leadership styles or practices are, therefore, practised on a continuum where appropriateness is dependent on the obtaining situation.

While it is true that leaders need to continually move and learn, there are seven principles or insights that are almost constant even as leaders move through the different modes and these are; Choice, Purpose, Passion, Standards, Capability, Resolve and Reflection (Harkins and Swift, 2009)

These principles help in understanding leadership and according to (Harkins and Swift, 2009), the greater one’s mastery of these principles, the more capable a leader one can become. Leaders come in different flavours, with formal leaders being elected into positions while informal leaders come up by virtue of their expertise and contribution in a given field for example Albert Einstein in the field of Physics. Both formal and informal leaders practice a combination of leadership styles depending on the situation.

Leadership is not the sole responsibility of one person but rather a shared responsibility among members of an emerging team. Leadership is shared and is collective as leaders belong to groups with a common objective. As followers respond to a leader’s call, a symbiotic relationship develops that binds the leader and followers together into a social collective (Harkins and Swift, 2009). Each member has responsibilities within the group and each member plays a critical but complementary role just like the sun lights the day and the moon lights the night.
Formal leadership positions are, thus, merely added responsibilities aside from the main responsibility of being a member of a team. Effective leadership requires members to do their share of work with social interactions playing a major cohesion role. To work together effectively, requires trust between and among leaders and members and trust is built on actions not words. When mutual respect exists, trust is fostered and confidence is built leading to easier and effective task completion.

Leadership is dissensual and produces meaningful conflict which produces engaged leaders who generate more conflict among the people. Conflict relevant to popular aspirations is a key democratizer of leadership as it causes leaders to expand the field of combat, to reach out for more followers and search for allies. As this happens, goal congruence develops and is easily identifiable to outsiders who then jostle to join the clearly effective and compact team (Collins, 2006).

Leadership is causative and true leadership is not merely symbolic or ceremonial. The result of effective leadership is a change in leaders’ and followers’ motives and goals that produce small or historic causal effect on social relations and political institutions. The most lasting tangible act of leadership is the creation of an institution that continues to exert moral leadership and foster needed social change long after the creative leader is gone (Harkins and Swift, 2009). Malcolm X, Martin Luther King Junior, Samuel Mutendi (Founder of Zion Christian Church in Zimbabwe which has followership of over 1 million people) and many others’ influence continues to play a key and pivotal role in various fields of modern day societies. People are all driven by the need to survive but leaders search for much more, they search and strive for a purpose, a need to make the lives of others more meaningful (Covey, 2004).
Leadership is also morally purposeful and all leadership is goal-oriented. The failure to set goals is a sign of faltering leadership as successful leadership points in a certain direction or vision (Covey, 2004).

Transforming or unconditional leadership is elevating. In the enmeshing of goals and values, leaders and followers are raised to more principled levels of judgment. Leadership often thrives on the “unity of opposites” i.e. the use of various styles to achieve various ends. Leadership styles really depend on situations but there is, however, no rule that only one style works and leaders employ different styles for different situations even if it means changing styles during the course of one task (Burns, 2010).

2.10. Leadership, Vision and Strategy

A vision, in leadership, is a state that is considered to be significantly more desirable than the current state. It is a state that cannot be approached without a fundamental change of direction, a change of the status quo and in some cases a redeployment of significant resources. It takes courage to lead such change and it involves instilling courage in others with a promise of a better state in the future. It involves more than persuasion; it requires inspiration which evokes a willingness to make sacrifices now in the pursuit of long term objectives or ideals. Leadership requires the ability to implement pursuit of a vision. Inspiration without implementation is provocation, not leadership. Implementation without inspiration is management or administration not leadership (HBR, 2011)

It follows then that leadership must be both creative to inspire and courageous to induce implementation. Courage stems from self-belief that the route taken will lead to the desired outcomes even in situations of criticism and objection.
An inspiring and courageous vision requires a mobilizing idea, an idea that need not appear to be realisable as stated by Gasset (1934);

"Man has been able to grow enthusiastic over his vision of .... Unconvincing enterprises. He has put himself to work for the sake of an idea, seeking by magnificent exertions, to arrive at the incredible. And in the end he has arrived there" (Gasset, 1934)

Visions may consist of either positive or negative images. Positive images incorporate something that we do not have but want while negative images incorporate something that we have but do not want like crime, poverty and disease.

Negative images are much easier to formulate and mobilize people around but it is true; however, that action against negative images often results in outcomes that are less desirable than the original problem. An example is when the United States tried to get rid of alcoholism by alcohol prohibition, it neither got rid of alcohol nor alcoholism but instead created organized crime around distribution of alcohol and creation of more lethal alternatives (HBR, 2011)

Positive visions that can mobilize transformations of individuals, organizations or societies can be produced by idealized design. Those who formulate the vision begin by assuming that the system being redesigned has been completely destroyed overnight but its environment remains exactly as it was. They then undertake to try and redesign a system that would replace the existing system right away.

Leadership is a visionary concept. According to Covey (2004), vision is holistic and is defined as an imagined or perceived pattern of communal possibilities to which others can be drawn by willing to share through constituting a powerful source of energy and direction within an enterprise. Others will be drawn by the necessary enthusiasm and momentum on the part of the leader who is promulgating the vision.
Leadership effectiveness comes from the capacity to communicate a vision through the process of management styles and to translate the vision into practicalities via a strategy. Implementation of a vision might be based on enterprise mission statement, organization culture and values, mechanisms of socialization, training and development or incentive systems, status and rewards. Trust is also crucial in leadership vision realisation as it acts as the emotional glue that unites leaders and followers in a common purpose that helps in the achievement of that vision.

A leader encourages and facilitates formulation of an organizational vision in which as many stakeholders as possible have participated. The leader must create an environment in which employees can accept and execute their responsibilities with confidence and finesse. The leader also has to communicate with his employees/followers, imparting the company’s vision and listening to what they need to make that vision a reality. To succeed, the leader must be a visionary, a strategist, an informer, a teacher and an inspirer (Harkins and Swift, 2009). This helps to shape the subordinates who are a critical component in the context of leadership practice which is a function of the task, the environment and the followers.

A transformational leader is one who can formulate or facilitate the formulation of an inspiring vision of something to be sought even if it might seem unattainable, although it must at least be approachable without limit. The leader must also be able to encourage and facilitate (inspire) pursuit of the vision by invoking the courage required to do so, when short term sacrifices are required and making that pursuit satisfying, fun and fulfilling.

The following section takes a closer examination of each of the skills leaders need plus real life case studies of successful American companies.
2.10.1 Setting direction versus Planning and Budgeting

Since the function of leadership is to produce change, setting the direction of that change is fundamental to leadership. Setting the direction is never the same as planning or even long term planning, although people often confuse the two. Planning is a management process, deductive in nature and designed to produce orderly results, not change. Setting the direction is more inductive. Leaders gather a broad range of data and look for patterns, relationships and linkages that help explain things. The direction setting aspect of leadership does not produce plans; it creates a vision or talented individuals or corporate culture in terms of what it should become over the long term and articulate a feasible way of achieving this goal.

A vision is not mystical or mysterious such that mere mortals or talented individuals could never hope to achieve. Instead, developing good business direction is not magic but a tough and sometimes exhausting process of gathering and analysing information through broad based strategic thinking and willingness to take risks. Visions and strategies do not have to be brilliantly innovative; in-fact, some of the best are not but have mundane quality, usually consisting of ideas that are already well known although the combination or patterning might be new but sometimes this might not even be the case (HBR, 2011)

Collins (2001) points out that when CEO Jan Carlzon of Scandinavian Airlines System (SAS) articulated his vision to make it the best airline in the world for the frequent business traveller, he was not saying anything that everyone in the airline industry did not already know. Business travellers fly more frequently than other market segments and are generally more prepared to pay higher fares. This means that focusing on this segment offers an airline the possibility of higher margins, steady business and considerable growth. In an industry known more for
bureaucracy than vision, no company had ever put these simple ideas together and
dedicated itself to implementing them. Scandinavian Airlines System did exactly that
and it worked.

What matters about a vision is not its originality but how well it serves the interests of
important constituencies like customers, stockholders, employees and how easily it
can be translated into realistic competitive strategy. Bad visions ignore the legitimate
needs and rights of important constituencies by sometimes favouring employees
over customers or stockholders or they are simply strategically unsound. When a
company, that has never been better than a weak competitor in an industry,
suddenly starts talking about becoming number one, that is a pipe dream not a
vision.

One of the most frequent mistakes that over-managed and under-led companies
make is to embrace long-term planning as a panacea for their lack of direction and
inability to adapt to an increasingly competitive and dynamic business environment.

Long-term planning is always time consuming and whenever something unexpected
happens, the plans have to be redone. In a dynamic environment such as the one
obtaining during the time of the study (2005 to 2010) the unexpected was the norm
and long term planning became an extra-ordinarily burdensome activity. This is why
most successful corporations limit the time frame of their planning to just a couple of
years.

Collins (2001) further states that in a company without direction, even short-term
planning becomes a black hole capable of absorbing an infinite amount of time and
energy. With no vision and strategy to provide constraints around the planning
process, every eventuality deserves a plan. Under these circumstances, contingency
planning can go on forever, draining time and attention from far more essential activities, but without providing a clear sense of direction that a company needs. Planning works best not as a substitute for direction setting but as a complement to it.

With reference to the study, this addresses the issue of moving as one unit so that all elements are at par since leadership is exercised in context and where the employees know the direction and share the vision, goal accomplishment is made easy.

2.10.2 Aligning People versus Organizing and Staffing (HBR, 2001)

A central feature of modern organizations is interdependence, where no one has complete autonomy, where most employees are tied to many others by their work, technology, management systems and hierarchy. These linkages present a special challenge when organizations attempt to change because of the need for individuals to line up and move together in the same direction. If they do not, people will tend to fall over one another. To executives who are overeducated in management and undereducated in leadership, the idea of getting people moving in the same direction is an organizational problem. What executives need to do is not organize people through aligning them to a vision.

Managers organize to create human systems that can implement plans as precisely and efficiently as possible. Typically, this requires a number of potentially complex decisions and a company must choose a structure of jobs and reporting relationships, staff it with individuals suited to the jobs, provide training for those who need it, communicate plans to the workforce and decide how much authority to delegate and to whom. Economic incentives also need to be constructed to
accomplish set plans, as well as systems to monitor its implementation. These organizational judgements are much like architectural decisions of a fit within a particular context.

Aligning is different as it is more a communications challenge than a design problem. Aligning invariably involves talking to many more individuals than organizing does. The target population can involve not only a manager’s subordinates but also bosses, peers, staff in other departments, suppliers, government officials and even customers. Anyone who can help to implement the vision and strategies or who can block implementation is relevant.

Trying to get people to comprehend a vision of an alternative future is also a communications challenge of a completely different magnitude from organizing them to fulfil a short term plan. Whether delivered with many words or a few carefully crafted symbols, such messages are not necessarily accepted just because they are understood.

Another big challenge in leadership efforts is credibility – getting people to believe the leader’s message. Many things contribute to credibility: the track record of the person delivering the message, the content of the message itself, the communicator’s reputation for integrity, trustworthiness and the consistency between words and deeds.

Aligning leads to empowerment in a way that organizing rarely does. One reason why some companies have difficulty adjusting to rapid changes in the market or technology is that so many people within those companies feel relatively powerless. They have learnt from experience that even if they correctly perceive important
external changes and then initiate appropriate actions, they are vulnerable to someone higher up who might not like what they would have done.

Alignment helps overcome this problem by empowering people in at least two ways. First when a clear sense of direction has been communicated throughout an organization, lower level employees can initiate actions without the same degree of vulnerability. As long they share a vision with lower level employees, superiors’ behaviour will be consistent with that vision. Secondly, because everyone is aiming at the same target, the probability is less that one person’s initiative will be stalled when it comes into conflict with someone else’s.

As leadership is an influence process, it is best that those who have to be influenced have a clear sense of direction so that goal congruence is attained for organisational effectiveness. In application of leadership theories, this takes cognisance of the critical role of followers.

2.10.3 Motivating People versus Controlling and Problem Solving
Since change is the function of leadership, being able to generate highly energized behaviour is important for coping with the inevitable barriers to change. Just as direction setting identifies an appropriate path for movement and just as effective alignment gets people moving down that path, successful motivation ensures that they will have the energy to overcome obstacles.

According to the logic of management, control mechanisms compare system behaviour with the plan and take action when a deviation is detected. (HBR, 2001) In a well-managed factory, for example, this means the planning process establishes sensible quality targets, the organizing process builds an organization that can
achieve those targets, and a control process makes sure that quality lapses are spotted immediately, not in thirty to sixty days, and corrected.

For this reason, control is so central to management that highly motivated or inspired behaviour is almost irrelevant. Managerial processes must be as close as possible to fail-safe and risk-free. This means that they cannot be dependent on the unusual or hard to obtain solutions. The whole purpose of systems and structures is to help normal people who behave in normal ways to complete routine jobs successfully, day after day.

Another important motivational technique is to support employee efforts to realize the vision by providing coaching, feedback, and role modelling, thereby helping people grow professionally and enhancing their self-esteem. Good leaders recognize and reward success, which not only gives people a sense of accomplishment but also makes them feel like they belong to an organization that cares about them. When all this is done, the work itself becomes intrinsically motivating (HBR, 2001)

The more that change characterize the business environment, the more that leaders must motivate people to provide leadership as well. When this works, it tends to reproduce leadership across the entire organization, with people occupying multiple leadership roles throughout the hierarchy in a “leaderful” enterprise. This is highly valuable, because coping with change in any complex business demands initiatives from a multitude of people and nothing less will work.

Of course, leadership from many sources does not necessarily converge. To the contrary, it can easily conflict. For multiple leadership roles to work together, people’s actions must be carefully coordinated by mechanisms that differ from those coordinating traditional management roles.
Strong networks of informal relationships, the kind found in companies with healthy cultures, help coordinate leadership activities in much the same way that formal structures coordinate managerial activities. The key difference is that informal networks can deal with the greater demands for coordination associated with non-routine activities and change. The multitude of communication channels and the trust among the individuals connected by those channels allow for an on-going process of accommodation and adaptation. When conflicts arise among roles, those same relationships help resolve the conflicts. Perhaps most importantly, this process of dialogue and accommodation can produce visions that are linked and compatible instead of remote and competitive ones. All this requires a great deal more communication than is needed to coordinate managerial roles, but unlike formal structure, strong informal networks can always handle it.

Informal relations of some sort exist in all corporations but, too often; these networks are very weak with some people well connected while most are not. Networks might be highly fragmented with strong networks existing inside departments like marketing or Research & Development but not across the two departments. Such networks do not support multiple leadership initiatives well. In fact, extensive informal networks are so important that if they do not exist, creating them has to be the focus of activity early in a major leadership initiative (HBR, 2001)

In investigating the application of leadership theories, aligning and motivating are critical because they deal with essential cogs in leadership practice which is the subordinates and the environment. If followers know the direction and are motivated, it becomes easy to influence them to meet environmental challenges for a vision to be attained.
2.11. LEADERSHIP CONTEXT SUMMARY

Leaders perceive a need, possess a gift, parade a passion, persuade a people and pursue a purpose. In every age, there comes a time when a leader must come forward and meet the needs of the time. There is no potential leader who does not have an opportunity to make a positive difference in society. Tragically, however, there are times when a leader does not rise to the occasion and a bad situation gets worse. The work of leaders is to see possibilities where others see only problems, to make strategic calls, to be decisive, to communicate compellingly, to negotiate skilfully, win support of stakeholders, be comfortable with ambiguity and motivate people. (Manning, 2002). Leadership is not the product of a simple formula; every age throws up a few golden people who seem to arrive on the world stage at the right time to lead. It is always a confluence of factors that connect individuals to the possibilities for which they seem to have been born. Leadership is part instinct and part skill. It is something one is born with added to what one learns through life. It is an amalgam of logic, luck, the grace of God, power, compassion, teaching and learning, reflection and action. It can thus not be linked to a set of traits but a combination of things exercised in different situations each in turn depending on the environment.

It is not hard to state, in a few words, what successful leaders do to make them effective but it is much harder to list the components that determine success. Crude forms of leadership rely solely on single sources of satisfaction like monetary rewards or the alleviation of fears about various kinds of insecurity. Such forms of motivation are effective within limits. They attach the worker’s self-interest to the interest of the group or employer in a mechanical way.
Business enterprises operate as a system but originally they were initially thought to operate as a deterministic system, a machine created by the owner to do work with no purpose. In the past, the owner’s principal purpose was to obtain a return on investment of time, money and effort. Making a profit was the only legitimate function of enterprises. This philosophy then led to the misplaced notion that;

“ There is one and only one social responsibility of business – to use its resources and engage in activities designed to increase its profits so long as it stays within the rules of the game……”. (Friedman, 2002;81)

According to Covey (2004) early owners of enterprises ran their entities with virtually no constraints. Employees were recognized as human but their personal interests and purpose were irrelevant to their employers. Workers were retained as long as they were ready, able and willing to work as per the enterprise owner’s demands. When they became unable or unwilling to work, they were discarded just like machines (deterministic system).

By the end of World War 1, the mechanistic conception was replaced by one that was biological and organismic. The levels of worker education and aspirations had increased as a result of compulsory public education, unionism and regulations by governments. There was also the need to raise capital in line with demands to exploit all growth opportunities arising from increased technology. By diluting ownership through going public, the company mechanistic “gods” disappeared. Stockholders became numerous, dispersed, anonymous and unreachable by the workforce. This led to managers then gaining effective control of the enterprise as the owners became dispersed and not involved in the day to day running of businesses. Enterprises were thus run by managers for their own benefit not the owner’s. Profit was considered a means not an end although it was essential for the
survival and growth of the enterprise. Managers who wanted high productivity could not obtain it through treating workers as machines as skills were scarce because of rapid advances in technology (Covey, 2004). Workers had thus to be treated as human beings with their own purpose and so enterprises started to become social systems. This realization led to managers thinking of their companies as systems in which people individually and collectively played the major roles (Covey, 2004).

This thesis will thus try to investigate the application of other non-mechanistic ways of leading and how the environment and subordinates influence the leadership styles for organisational success.

Current leadership is no longer the military commander type where unimaginative application of reward and punishment works. Current leadership is now about the transformational leaders who can change a deterministic or animated system to a social system. It is about understanding the followers, the environment and the situation. This research aims to analyse the leadership characteristics that help transform a corporation into a social system through fundamental changes such as:

- Altering the traditional notion of supervision because most employees now do their work better than their bosses. The bosses only have the responsibility to create working conditions under which subordinates function to their best abilities.

- Providing subordinates with opportunities for continuous development through on and off the job training.
• Managers managing interactions of their subordinates and units with other internal and external units in order to maximize their contribution to the whole organization.

• Providing internal flexibility through willingness to rapidly change the organization structure in line with changing demands.

• Promoting rapid learning and adaptation.

These leaders focus on the relationship between the structure, strategy, environment, implementation, experimentation and adoption. (HBR, 2011)

2.12. LEADERSHIP FRAMEWORKS

Leadership frameworks support leadership styles in as far as they reinforce the role of leaders’ assumptions on their subordinates, the environment and how they get goals attained (Harkins and Swift, 2009). A human resources framework is practised by leaders who believe in people and are visible and accessible. They empower, increase participation, support, share information and move decision making through the organizational structure.

Leaders who practice a political framework clarify what they want and what they can get, they assess the distribution of power and interests, build linkages to other stakeholders, use persuasion first and then negotiation and coercion only if necessary. Symbolic framework leaders view organizations as a stage or theatre to play certain roles and give impressions. They discover and communicate a vision.

Harkins and Swift (2009) further describe a structural framework leader as a social architect whose leadership style is analysis and design. The focus is on structure, strategy, environment, implementation, experimentation and adaptation.
Just like styles, no framework is the best but there is a right framework for a particular situation. There is, however, a desired position for leadership effectiveness and from this research; it is obvious that every leader should gravitate towards the Human Resources Framework with traces of the Symbolic Framework. Here, the leader develops and shares a vision, allows everyone to act thereby allowing teamwork to prevail. Leaders who operate from the Human Resources framework inspire others and draw from everyone’s contribution through empowerment and delegation.

2.13. Leadership Approaches/Models

Leadership approaches are grounded in one or more leadership theories but can be distinguished from theories in that they attempt to place the concepts into a more applied form.

Wolsinki (2010) identified seven leadership approaches/models and these are:

- Transformational
- Charismatic
- Authentic
- Servant
- Dynamical
- Adaptive
- Strategic

Some of these approaches (transformational, charismatic) are typically considered fully fledged leadership theories and are discussed as such in their own right while others like strategic are a specific leadership competency. The authentic leadership
approach is linked to humanistic psychology and is based on the idea that leaders are effective by being true to themselves and being open and authentic with others. The focus is on who the leader is as a person and how she or he conveys that to others. Each person has to find a way of leading that is congruent with who they are so that it comes over as authentic not acting. Leadership has evolved from command and control to business leadership and as a result, three levels of leadership have emerged and these are; team leadership, operational leadership and strategic leadership. This means that leadership is required at all levels and for a leader to be effective he needs to;

- Define the task,
- Plan
- Communicate
- Control
- Evaluate
- Motivate
- Organize
- Set an example.

Servant leadership emphasizes the leader’s duty to serve followers out of the desire to serve rather than the desire to lead.

According to Greenleaf (1970), the servant-leader is servant first and the process begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve and to serve first before conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead. He or she is sharply different from the person who is leader first, perhaps because of the need to assuage an unusual power drive or to acquire material possessions. For such it will be a later choice to
serve, after leadership is established. The leader-first and the servant-first are two extreme types. Between them there are shadings and blends that are part of the infinite variety of human nature.

The difference in this blending manifests itself in the care taken by the servant-first to make sure that other people’s highest priority needs are being served. The best test, which is, however, difficult to administer, is: do those served grow as persons; do they, while being served, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous and more likely, themselves, to become servants? It also begs the answer to the question, what is the effect on the least privileged in society; will they benefit, or, at least, will they not be further deprived?

Servant Leadership is a practical philosophy which supports people who choose to serve first, and then lead as a way of expanding service to individuals and institutions. Servant leaders may or may not hold formal leadership positions. Servant leadership encourages collaboration, trust, foresight, listening, and ethical use of power and empowerment. Servant leadership is a clear manifestation of the core of leadership theory which emphasises societal good otherwise referred to as unconditional leadership. In African communities, this equates to the concept of *Ubuntu*.

Positive leaders use rewards such as education, independence and others to motivate employees, their key characteristics are; Effective organization and planning, Proactive management, Participative and supportive leadership, Proactive team leadership, Empowerment and delegation and Genuine concern for people. They look after the Interests and development needs of staff and exhibit open and personal management approach, inclusive decision making and communicate and
consult widely to keep people informed. Negative leaders are domineering and act superior to their people. They rely on penalties such as job or pay loss or reprimands before other employees. They emphasize penalties and show lack of consideration or concern for staff making them ineffective, autocratic or dictatorial.

Leadership approaches or models determine levels of success but there are general approaches that are negative and must be avoided and these are;

- Post-hoc management approach which is a poor but common style of after the event or reactive kind of management.

- Micro Management where the leader controls every detail from the top taking away initiative from junior staff thus not allowing creativity and development.

- Seagull Management involves the leader flying in, pooping and flying off again without clarifying matters thereby leaving staff confused and without a sense of direction.

- Mushroom Management is when the leader drops subordinates in the poo keeping them in the dark and using information as a source of power.

- Kipper Management is a two faced approach of wanting to appear good but in the process retarding progress and guidance to employees (Harkins and Swift, 2009).

These different approaches or styles to leadership and management are based on different assumptions and theories. The style that leaders use will be based on a combination of their beliefs, values and preferences as well as the organizational culture and norms which often encourage some styles while discouraging others. The team leader is a more effective leader in that there is follower involvement but
as said earlier, a good leader uses all styles depending on what forces are involved between the followers, the leader and the situation e.g. using the authoritarian style (solo) on a new employee just learning the job with the leader as a competent and good coach while the employee is motivated by the need to learn a new skill in a new environment. A participative style is used with a team of employees who know their job. Here, the leader knows the problem but does not have all the information while the employees know their job and also want to become part of a team.

A leader can thus use a combination of styles, telling employees that a procedure is not working and a new one must be established (authoritarian) and then asking for ideas and inputs in creating a new procedure (participative) and then delegating tasks in order to implement the new procedure (delegative), all during one task.

This further illustrates the centrality of context in leadership practice and links well with our investigation on application of leadership theories during the rapidly changing period between 2005 and 2010.

2.13.1 Forces that influence style

Leadership styles can vary from a shared vision approach to the dominance of individuals as determined by organizational culture and strategy. Parallel to the leadership theories outlined above, a cohort of studies have suggested that culture provides a frame of reference or logic by which leadership behaviour can be understood (Dorfman et al, 2006). Culture represents the shared values and norms that bind members of a society or organization together as a homogeneous entity regulated through a collection of consensual aspirations or values (Roberts, 1970). Leaders, therefore, display leadership behaviours and styles in a culture-bound manner and in one of four frameworks (Bolman and
Deal, 1991). These frameworks are determined by leadership assumptions about employees, the calibre of employees, the operating environment and beliefs of the leader. The frameworks greatly influence leadership style based on the situation and often dictate whether to be autocratic or participatory.

Forces that influence style to be used include:

- How much time is available?
- Are relationships based on respect and trust or disrespect?
- Who has the information, the leader, the employee or both?
- How well are the employees trained and how well the leader knows the task?
- Internal conflict
- Stress levels
- Type of task; is it structured, unstructured, complicated or simple?
- Laws or established procedures or training plans.

In today’s organizations the team leader is more appropriate. While team leadership may not be as natural as Solo leadership, Belbin (1993) suggests that it can be learned through understanding the nature of leadership and the qualities required. In this constantly changing and uncertain work environment, no one person has all the answers to leadership. A team leadership style based upon the developments of the strengths and allowable weaknesses of all of the roles will permit a more holistic, or participative style of leadership where teamwork, problem solving, decision making and innovation can flourish with heightened teamwork and performance.
Most leaders, however, do not use one or the other but are somewhere in a continuum ranging from extremely positive to extremely negative.

People who continuously work out of the negative are bosses while those who continuously work out of the positive are considered real leaders.

According to Maxwell (2008), everyone loves a winner, and it is easy to have faith in people who have already proved themselves elsewhere. People tend to forget that there are no hopeless situations but people who have grown hopeless. Leaders have to realize that there are seeds of greatness in every individual and there is just need for encouragement to bring up the dormant seed. To do this, the leader must highlight the strengths in each individual and show faith in them through continuous encouragement and coaching. This way, the leader builds relationships and as already stated, relationship is the glue that holds team members together and once they are together, goal congruency becomes easy. By emphasizing strengths, a leader helps individuals to believe that they possess what they need to succeed. Encouraging them involves listing their past successes to show that they are capable and so motivate them.

Biblically, David got inspiration from his past successes to confront Goliath and as we all know he killed Goliath and went on to become a King. While in this case David had to self-inspire, not everyone can remember their past successes in order to tackle new assignments with confidence and self-belief so leadership often involves instilling confidence in subordinates by reminding them of their past successes. Even if they fail at the first attempt, it is important to put faith in them so that they gain confidence and belief that they can still succeed. People need to be reminded that success is a journey not a destination so it takes effort, often stumbling and picking
oneself up in the process. If success is a journey, then there is always the need to make reference to some journeys that were undertaken and accomplished together and this is one key motivational role of a leader.

Hope is built from a sense of vision and one of the key characteristics of good leaders is that they develop and share a vision with their subordinates thereby developing a sense of purpose in every assignment. Part of purpose building is visualizing future success and expecting a new level of living from a certain kind of effort.

Leaders must strive to get others to see beyond today and revel in pursuing the visualized tomorrow. Life is made of dreams and leaders must help people realize their dreams by putting faith in them and motivating them to move to a whole new level of life. A real life example of this scenario is exemplified by Waldron’s (HBR, 2001) assertion which, again, shows application of leadership with reference to followers or subordinates.

Hicks B. Waldron, chairman of Avon Products Inc. once wrote;

“We have 40 000 employees and 1.3 million representatives around the world.... We have a number of suppliers, institutions, customers, communities. None of them have the same democratic freedom as shareholders do to buy or sell their shares. They have much deeper and much more important stakes in our company than our shareholders” (HBR, 2001; 54)

2.14. LEADERSHIP PRINCIPLES

Harkins and Swift (2009) identified eight principles with the eighth magnifying the impact of leadership based on the other seven principles. The eight principles are; choice, purpose, passion, standards, capability, resolve, reflection and service.
These practices and principles are supported by Maxwell (2008) who identified four areas that are key to successful leadership. Put together, they form the foundation for taking good leaders to greatness. While conditional leadership is based primarily on achieving one’s own objectives, unconditional leadership is transformational and is a result of building on the success of conditional leadership to attain higher level goals. Leadership is about people, and if they are put first, they will be loyal and supportive. To reach this stage, Maxwell (2008) identified four areas of emphasis and these are relationships, trust, shared ethical values and respect.

Relationships (Love, heart) are the ability to connect with anyone irrespective of rank, class or race. A leader should generally be likeable whether one agrees with him or not. Relationship is the glue that holds team members together. As already asserted a compact team produces results and is also characterized by respect for other team members. While this respect should be shown to the other team members, the other members must, at the same time, earn this respect. To earn this respect, team members must show this respect even in difficult and controversial times. When connected, the leader can influence while the follower follows willingly and so effective leadership manifests.

While respect lays the foundation for a good relationship, a leader cannot be relational with someone he does not know. For the relationship to develop, it requires shared experience over time but this is always not easy to achieve. This is why teams that have been together for longer tend to be more successful. The success of these teams comes from trust. According to Covey (2008), trust is essential to all good relationships as it is better to be trusted than to be loved. Without trust, relationships cannot be sustained. To illustrate how trust works, Covey (2008) gave an example of a New York street burger vendor who realized that change was a
problem and his customers were getting impatient as he tried to get change. In addressing this issue, the vendor put small denomination notes and coins in a container on one side and he concentrated on moving the queue as quickly as he could. He asked his customers who were due for small change to get it themselves from the small container. As a result, service was greatly enhanced, volumes increased and a lot of his customers did not even collect the small change leaving him with even more money.

This is one example of application of leadership theory in practice that emphasises trust and responding to a specific situation to create an environment conducive to effective performance.

Fukuyama (1995) suggests that the most effective organizations are based on communities of shared ethical values. These communities do not require extensive contractual or legal regulation of their relationships and social architecture because prior moral consensus gives members of the group a basis for mutual trust. A high degree of trust increases economic efficiencies by reducing transaction costs that would be incurred in maintaining and sustaining an effective enterprise relationship architecture, holding together large-scale and impersonal organizations or networks whose relationships must have a wider basis than that related to family or kin, dealing with inter-party disputes, finding trustworthy and reliable suppliers, buyers or creditors, negotiating and implementing contractual arrangements, complying with government, trade or environmental regulations and identifying and dealing with malpractices and frauds (Fukuyama, 1995). African society is modelled under this kind of scenario and this now brings in the universality of leadership theory.
This reinforces the two way nature of relationships as no one-sided relationship lasts. If one person is always the giver and the other the receiver, the relationship is bound to disintegrate. This is the same with trust which is the foundation of all relationships. A good relationship should benefit both parties through full attention and people need to see a leader who cares and in turn they will give their time and effort. There is, therefore, need for reciprocity so that people see that value is placed on their contributions to group effort.

The final key ingredient in relationships is mutual enjoyment. When relationships grow and start to get solid, the people involved begin to enjoy each other and in this way even unpleasant tasks become positive experiences. If these simple rules are observed, then leaders will not overlook or overrun others. Understanding others and giving time to their concerns adds to the stature of a leader. Being highly relational brings individual and team success.

Attitude has a profound impact on people’s lives. A leader cannot ignore people’s attitudes and still expect to succeed. Those that lead from the head and the ego are not effective leaders. It is when one leads from the heart and soul that effectiveness is attained. To lead from the heart requires the right attitude and a person’s attitude impacts on their relationships with others. Attitudes can, therefore, make or break individuals as they impact on interactions with others.

From the simple fact that each one of us influences a number of people, it follows that proper use of that influence can lead to team goal achievement. This stems from our definition of leadership in earlier chapters of this study where it was defined as an influence process. A good leader always strives to get each and every team
member to the next level and in so doing get the individual and the group to achieve personal and corporate goals.

During his time as CEO of Procter and Gamble, A.G Lafley, one of the most successful CEOs in recent history (Collins, 2001), made fearlessness in the face of failure a core tenet of his practices. He wrote and practiced that a high success rate was a sign of incremental innovation. He celebrated his eleven most expensive product failures, focusing on what the company learned from each of the mistakes.

In today’s uncertain and volatile world, avoiding failure is not an option but using practices that limit failure or focus on what one can gain from failure through the concept of intelligent failure is key. This approach enables learning to create substantial value (Collins, 2001).

This section links with the research question by emphasising the need to treat humans with the full knowledge that they are not machines. They have to be shown a level of trust, respect and relationship for them to operate at their optimum level and so help organisations become more successful. This supports the basics of leadership theory which state that leadership is exercised in the context of the follower, the environment and the task at hand.

2.15. Leadership Styles Summary

The Managerial Grid (Blake and Mouton, 1964) suggested that leaders are locked in a mode, but Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1985) developed the Leadership Continuum as an alternative way of looking at the same problem. First formulated in 1985, the Leadership Continuum (Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1985), states that leadership involves a variety of styles ranging from highly boss centred to highly subordinate
centred or dictatorial to highly democratic. The appropriate leadership style, therefore, depends on the leader, the follower and the situation or environment.

The leadership continuum concept has two extremes, that is, at one extreme; the manager has a great deal of freedom while subordinates have very little. At the other extreme, the manager has very little freedom while subordinates have a great deal of freedom. There is evidence, however, that leaders who are considerate in their leadership style are higher performers and are more satisfied with their jobs (Schriesheim, 1982). In this study, the operating environment was changing regularly and it is the researcher’s quest to determine whether practices were changing as well so as to complete the investigation on application of leadership theory.

Quinn (HBR, 2005) states that when leaders do their best work, they do not copy anyone but draw on their own fundamental values and capabilities, operating in a frame of mind that is true to them yet, paradoxically, not their normal state of being. This is called the fundamental state of leadership. It is the way leaders lead when they encounter a crisis and choose to still move forward. It is possible to enter the fundamental state even without a crisis. The fundamental state is a temporary state to counter fatigue and external resistance which can cause withdrawal. Each time leaders reach this state, they return to their everyday selves a bit more capable and usually elevating the performance of people around them. Over time, we all can become more effective leaders by deliberately choosing to enter the fundamental state of leadership rather than waiting for a crisis. To enter this state, one needs to honestly address certain key questions and give honest and well thought out answers to these key questions.
Company Presidents and Chief Executive Officers do not usually function in the fundamental state of leadership. Most of the time they are in the normal state, a healthy and necessary condition under many circumstances but one that is conducive to coping with crisis. In this normal state, people tend to stay in their comfort zones and allow external forces to direct their behaviours and decisions. They lose moral influence and often rely on rational arguments and the exercise of authority to bring about change. Some followers comply with what these leaders want out of fear but the results are usually unimaginative, not incremental and largely produce what already exists.

To elevate the performance of others, leaders need to elevate themselves into the fundamental state of leadership and to get there requires a radical shift. First there has to be a move from being comfort centred to results centred (Fritz, 2008). Asking a single question (what results do I want to create?) can move leaders from the normal state to a much more generative condition. An honest answer pushes leaders off nature’s path of least resistance and leads them from problem solving to purpose finding, which is, a key characteristic of effective leaders.

Secondly, there is the need to move from being externally directed to being internally directed. This means stopping to be merely complying with others’ expectations and conforming to the current culture. To become more internally directed is to clarify core values and increase integrity, confidence and authenticity. As authenticity and confidence grows, behaviour changes and if others make sense of this new behaviour, they will be attracted to it but others will be offended by it. However, when one is true to their values, they are willing to initiate such constructive conflict.
Finally, leaders become less self-focused and more focused on others (purpose finding). They put the needs of the organization as a whole above their own. They defeat the impulse to control relationships in a way that feeds their own interests. When leaders put collective or societal good first, others reward them with trust and respect forming tighter and more sensitive bonds. Empathy is then increased and cohesion is built, creating formidable team work with not so ordinary results. An enhanced sense of community is created and this helps transcend the conflicts that are a necessary element in high performing organizations. From the foregoing, it can be seen that a clear pattern is developing where issues discussed in earlier chapters are all coming together in determining leadership effectiveness. These issues are trust, relationships, enabling others to act, equipping and listening. Key among this is the order of things in effective leadership where self is always last with society and God being second and first respectively depending on one’s beliefs.

“What most people really want is to be listened to, respected, and understood. The moment people see that they are being understood, they become more motivated to understand your point of view.” (Maxwell, 2004; 19)

It follows therefore, that it is not so much how ideas and feelings are expressed but how people are understood that can motivate and influence them in a positive way. As understanding others has featured well in leadership effectiveness, it is important to discuss why people fail to understand others.

Almost all the controversies, tensions and conflicts arise from lack of understanding one another. Understanding is hampered by fear, self-centeredness and failure to appreciate differences. If people do not understand others, they tend to be fearful and in the process they fail to overcome the fear so that they learn more about the other person. We have stated earlier that understanding is critical to leadership
success and here we can see a buffer being created by fear. This is the scenario that obtains in many work places with regards to leaders and their subordinates. In a healthy work environment, fear must be replaced with understanding so that everyone can work together positively.

The contingency theory which talks of leadership practice in context addresses all these factors through understanding the environment and the followers in any leadership situation.

Where fear is overcome, self-centeredness becomes another stumbling block. The nature of human beings is that they are self-centred and one way to overcome this is to try to see things from the other person’s point of view. Once one has seen things from the other’s perspective, they should learn to recognize and respect everyone else’s unique qualities. Comparison is not a virtue unless it is done to improve oneself not to cast others in one’s own image. Culture and talent possessed by others should be understood so that horizons are broadened, synergies created and motivation improved. As a leader, one must understand that different people are motivated in different ways and to do this, the leader needs to appreciate differences among people. Understanding this will lead to leaders treating every person as if he or she was the most important person in the world. Understanding people, albeit complicated, can be summed as follows;

“Everybody has the desire to be somebody, to have significance and this is why even the least ambitious and unassuming person wants to be regarded highly and valued by others. If a leader treats every person in an organization as if they are the most important person in the world, then the person would feel that they are somebody” (Covey, 2004: 49).
In other words, nobody cares how much you know until they know how much you care. It is common cause that people’s greatest time and fondest memories come because of other people but it is these same people who can bring the most difficult, hurting and tragic times. According to Maxwell (2003), the challenge is to keep caring no matter what because it is one of these people who will rise up and make a difference. Everybody needs friendship, encouragement and help. It is paradoxical that the so called self-made men when giving their testimonies end up attributing their success to certain individuals. Solo leaders and lone rangers are not happy individuals because naturally, everybody needs somebody. Under normal circumstances, if one falls in the presence of others, they look up to the other to pick them up and if they both fall, they have each other for company and warmth and encouragement (Covey, 2004).

In investigating the application of leadership theories in Zimbabwe this will be helpful through establishing if leaders really cared for followers inside and outside the work situation. To get maximum cooperation, followers have to have the perception that they are not only useful in terms of task completion but outside this sphere as well.

As earlier stated, everybody can be somebody when somebody/others understand and believes in them. Leaders need to make people special and give their time for that cause so that people feel special. Understanding is critical in leader- subordinate relationship and it is this understanding that is a leader’s investment in making somebody someone through encouragement and motivation. An investment into one overflows to the others in more ways than one thereby encouraging everyone to work even harder for a common objective. Anybody who helps somebody influences a lot of bodies. This comes about from testimonials and observation which invariably multiplies influence either from the need to get similar recognition or reciprocity
which was discussed earlier. When people are genuinely grateful, they do not get
tired of showing their appreciation and gratitude. They spread the word leading to a
whole chain of loyal subordinates. If leaders choose to show understanding, they
increase their capacity to influence, motivate and encourage others (Covey, 2004).

This assertion helps to consolidate the assertion that certain leadership practices
can help to motivate subordinates so that they operate at sustainably higher levels
leading to organisational success. In leadership this is attained through pursuit of
societal good and the spirit of ‘Ubuntu’.

2.16. MAKING SENSE OF THE LITERATURE IN THE REAL WORLD OF BUSINESS
LEADERSHIP

A question that often arises in the study of leadership is what sets great Chief
Executive Officers apart from the rest in the real world?

To answer this question, the writer uses practical examples of great leaders and
what they practised to move their companies forward. These examples, however,
relate mostly to American companies because of the abundance of literature from
that part of the world. A section on African leadership and the role of women is
included because there is a general belief that leadership is pervasive and is only
influenced by such factors as culture and the environment.

The other reasons for this set up are that the history of colonialism in Africa and
Zimbabwe means that most of the companies that were operating in Africa had their
Head Offices in Europe, Americas and other continents except Africa. This led to the
Head Offices influencing leadership styles at subsidiary companies. African ideas in
business were not documented and until recently, Africans were confined to the role
of workers not leaders with the African situation described as a disaster and a tragedy (UNCTAD, 2004). Documentation of African leadership has thus been limited to them being terribly ineffective, adapting poorly to the demands of an increasingly complex globalized economic system (Ochola, 2007). Documentation of African success stories was also limited or non-existent at all because of negative perceptions by earlier researchers resulting in African leadership styles not being appreciated or simply credited to outsiders although lately this has been challenged on the grounds that there are a wide variety of leadership and management practices throughout the world (Whitley, 1994; Sorensen and Kuada, 2001). Africans also abandoned their own leadership models grounded on Ubuntu (Mbigi, 2001) for the American and European styles relegating themselves to perpetual learnership of alien cultures and leadership practices. In any case, when you copy someone else, it is rare to do it perfectly.

This study is now an attempt to relook at the African scenario and establish whether African practices conform to leadership theories that have already been developed.

2.16.1 The chairman of the Australian Securities Exchange, David Gonski said; “The best chief executives are those who have a mixture of the ability to see the bigger picture but at the same time not lose sight of the detail. If they can do both, it is a fabulous attribute. Good chief executive officers do not glorify themselves, they are modest and realize they have to prove themselves each day, and also improve the company each day” (HBR, 2010:48).

2.16.2 The chairman of Leighton Holdings and Australia Post, David Mortimer, says great leaders inspire. “The most effective people are those who can grasp the
imagination of their team. They have the personal magnetism and intelligence to build around them” (HBR, 2010: 55).

The chief executive officers of all studied top companies of the world come from different academic and professional backgrounds. Some studied commerce, others sciences, economics, medicine, law while others have no tertiary education. In any case, however, the major attribute is psychological capital, or emotional intelligence, which is the ability to know and understand oneself and acknowledge strengths and weaknesses. These same people are aware of their particular characteristics and how they might impact others. They cannot always change but as long as they are aware and minimize any negative effect, they move forward. They also need to have a vision for the organization, not the cliché one-sentence visions but being able to describe the future they want as they see it in a way which inspires others to wholeheartedly follow. This links in well with the description of leadership on willing followership. In this investigation, knowing oneself and developing a strong vision is one leadership practice that leads to success through utilizing strengths and working on weaknesses for the benefit of the organisation.

As mentioned earlier, there are very few executives who exhibit all the attributes necessary for success but a great leader must be a good communicator, able to speak confidently and keep the message simple. They are not afraid to surround themselves with people who are smarter than themselves and give these people what they need to succeed, step aside and let them do the work. The major differentiating factor between good and great leaders is knowing when to balance consensus with their executive team or other stakeholders with the speed and execution required to get things done.
As individuals, successful chief executive officers are different but as business leaders they are alike. Each of them has a very clear objective about what they should do in business and they stick to their plans with an unbelievable self-belief. Dovetailed to this is their ability to convince people to go along with them through developing a feeling of trust and creating an environment where staff wants to give their all for success. In some cases, there might be a greater need for micro-management and closer monitoring of progress against a set strategy.

The final ingredient of a successful organization is its culture and values that glue the organization together. A strong culture is an impetus for the organization and it ensures an environment that gets the best out of the people in both good and bad times.

2.17. LEADERSHIP PRACTICES CASE STUDIES

Given the above background I will now bring forward case studies of some chief executive officers who exhibited some of the characteristics set out in the literature and how each one of them exercised some of the principles in leadership theories. The leaders are all drawn from corporate America, the biggest economy in the world and where all the big corporates are domiciled. American industry was the home of big corporations with footprints throughout the world contributing a quarter of global trade (World Bank, 2009). America has also contributed significantly to the world leadership education through its educational institutions like Harvard and the many management training institutes and motivational speakers whose influence has shaped leadership.
2.17.1 The Professional Services C.E.O.

Robert Milliner, Chief Executive Partner, Mallesons Stephens Jaques

“After stepping into the chief executive role five years ago, I began to understand more fully the Peter Drucker observation that management is doing things right, leadership is doing the right things”. (HBR, 2001; 114)

While his insight applies to managers at all levels, it is a particularly compelling point for those who occupy the chief executive’s chair.

Typically the early years of a professional services career are devoted to building technical, client and, to a lesser extent, management skills. The emphasis is on ‘doing things right’ at a localized level. A chief executive has a different brief: to guide the whole-of-business vision that will underpin appropriate actions by others thereby focusing on ensuring the organization is `doing the right things`.

In my experience, the role entails a complex balancing act between strategies that respond to changing environment and ensuring consistent outcomes across all lines.

One of the challenges of the role is that while chief executives are ultimately responsible for leading a business to achieve an agreed vision, they cannot directly control every aspect of execution. They must rely on the capabilities of people in the organization and build on their leadership skills. Being prepared to step back from day-to-day execution and concentrate on getting the best out of others is the key to success but it often means saying goodbye to previous ways of working. Business today is undoubtedly tough. People are understandably looking to leaders to help them interpret what the changing landscape means for clients and for themselves, which makes good communication essential.

He stated that his experience was that engaging people is first and foremost about using language that reflects the culture and values of the business – using dialogue
in a way they can relate to people are also more likely to engage if they believe a
leader is genuinely committed to two-way interchanges. In this respect, listening is
as important as communicating.

It can be tempting in challenging times for an organization to throw all its energies
into the development of new strategies. However, the continual evolution of culture
and leadership capabilities in a business is as critical as strategic innovation. `Doing
the right things` means addressing these elements together.”

2.17.2 Darwin E. Smith- Chief Executive Kimberly-Clark

In 1971, Darwin Smith became Chief executive officer of an old paper company
whose stock had fallen 36% behind the general market over the previous twenty
years (HBR, 2001).

Smith, the company’s mild mannered in-house lawyer, was CEO for twenty years. In
that period, Smith created a stunning transformation, turning Kimberly–Clark into the
leading paper based consumer products company in the world. Under him, the
company generated stock returns 4.1 times the general market beating its direct
rivals Scott Paper and Procter and Gamble (HBR, 2001).

Darwin Smith never cultivated hero status or executive celebrity status. He found
companionship among plumbers and electricians but exhibited a fierce, even stoic,
resolve toward life and made some dramatic decisions like selling the mills, a
decision described by one Board member as the gutsiest decision ever made by a
Chief Executive Officer. Darwin blended extreme personal humility with intense
professional will. He never stopped learning and channelled his ego needs away
from himself into the larger goal of building a great company (Collins, 2001).
2.17.3 Jack Welch, CEO of General Electric

Perhaps one of the greatest leaders in modern history started his tenure as CEO of GE by laying-off thousands. At first he was vilified as Neutron Jack, after the bomb that kills people but leaves structures intact. Next, he became Jack the educator, leading teach-ins at the famous executive education centre in Croton Ville, New York. Along the way, he set GE on course for its amazing run of success by laying out ground rules that became legendary, like become number one or number two in your market or get out. Jack Welch embodies both dimensions of the good and the bad but he did everything as per the season, to address a particular situation. Dictatorial, persuasive, encouraging, decisive, consulting and most of all grooming along the way for the best results. He created remarkable value for shareholders. The enterprise was somewhat sluggish but he just kept changing himself and the company up to the end of his tenure. (The art of self-destruction) He was in his sixties when the internet arrived full-bore but he embraced it with childlike vigour (HBR, 2001).

2.17.4 Lou Gerstner C.E.O. IBM

When Lou Gerstner took over at IBM, many scoffed because he lacked a technical background. Although IBM was touted for great customer service, the company had become a bully and forgotten the art of intimate listening. Gerstner visited customers of all sizes and shapes asking them what IBM’s problem was. Customers told him point blank and he fixed it and IBM turned around. Obviously, the story is not that simple but the impact of Mr Gerstner’s intimate listening tour hard to overestimate. It illustrates that there are times when one should fly 5 000 kilometres for a five-minutes meeting. Leadership is, in the end, the ultimate relationship game.
2.17.5 Other Leaders

Herb Kelleher (Southwest Airlines), Bill Gates (Microsoft), Roberto Guizueta (Coca-Cola), Jeffrey Immelt (GE), Steven Jobs (Apple), Sam Walton (Wal-Mart), Michael Dell (Dell Computers), Meg Whitman (e-Bay), Warren Buffet (Berkshire Hathaway) are all legendary figures who are poorly understood because they were not written about and no one has explained what took their companies to exceptional performance standards unlike the ones listed above whose exploits are well documented. What is clear, however, is that their company share prices outperformed industry average and they consistently posted good results.

They were set on a pedestal for what they achieved but there is no understanding of what took them there. When some leaders experience a fall, they are quick to be labelled but sometimes, like in the case of these leaders, scholars are also bewildered at their rise.

This explains why it is sometimes difficult to confidently talk about what makes leaders great or villains but quick to look at the practices of great leaders so as to reveal that all the leaders who strive on excellence strive to build organizational cultures that perpetuate excellence through leading to get some particular thing done like Steve Job who aimed to change the world with a computer and inducing others to take novel journeys to places of surpassing importance.

This is the reason why Richard Branson of Virgin once remarked, “I never, ever thought of myself as a businessman, I was interested in creating things I would be proud of” (leaving a legacy)” (HBR, 2011).
Dubai Billionaire, Mohamed Alabbar, Chairman of Dubai Real Estate, spoke of working seven days a week, day and night, and stated that that’s the only way they do business.

The businessman said he began focusing on the mining industry immediately after the launch of Emaar’s flagship project the Burj Khalifa in Dubai in 2010. When the Burj was over, he was already thinking of where to go next and what to do. Each time he achieved a goal, he would set another more audacious goal (Arabian Business Magazine, 2011)

These leadership case studies show that the best leaders know how to build great companies while treating employees well, how to improve dysfunctional corporate cultures, how to reinvigorate tired brands and how to develop new and relevant strategic plans. The leaders, in every case, considered their environment and followers in coming up with responses to challenges or in their planning process.

Henry Ford had strong views about labour and how the workforce should be treated. He paid his workers more money for fewer working days and made the five day forty hours working week a normal part of working life. He promoted the Ford Foundation in 1936 to promote human welfare through research grants, educational grants and development grants (Covey, 2004). In short; he cared for people and in turn got the best out of them.

Another great leader, Michael Dell of Dell Computers once said “I do not like to do the things I like but I like to do things that cause the company to succeed. I therefore do not spend a lot of time doing my favourite activities.” (HBR, 2001). This shows that great leaders focus less on self and more on society.
2.17.6 Setting a Direction: Lou Gerstner at American Express (HBR, 2001)

When Lou Gerstner became president of the Travel Related Services (TRS) arm at American Express (AmEx) in 1979, the unit was facing one of its biggest challenges in American Express`\'s 130-year history. Hundreds of banks offering or planning to introduce credit cards through Visa and MasterCard that would compete with the American Express card. And more than two dozen financial service firms were coming into the traveller\'s checks business. In a mature market place, this increase in competition usually reduces margins and prohibits growth.

But that was not how Gerstner saw the business. Before joining American Express, he had spent five years as a consultant to TRS, analysing the money-losing travel division and the increasingly competitive card operation. Gerstner and his team asked fundamental questions about the economics, market and competition and developed a deep understanding of the business. In the process, he began to craft a vision of TRS that looked nothing like a 130-year old company in a mature industry.

Gerstner thought TRS had the potential to become a dynamic and growing enterprise, despite the onslaught of Visa and MasterCard competition from thousands of banks. The key was to focus on the global marketplace and, specifically, on the relatively affluent customer American Express had been traditionally serving with top-of-the-line products. By further segmenting this market, aggressively developing a broad range of new products and services, and investing to increase productivity and to lower costs, TRS could provide the best service possible to customers who had enough discretionary income to buy more services from TRS than they had in the past.

Within a week of his appointment, Gerstner brought together the people running the card organization and questioned all the principles by which they conducted their
business. In particular, he challenged two widely shared beliefs – that the division should have only one product, the green card, and that this product was limited in potential for growth and innovation.

Gerstner also moved quickly to develop a more entrepreneurial culture, to hire and train people who would thrive in it, and to clearly communicate to them the overall direction. He and other top managers rewarded intelligent risk taking. To make entrepreneurship easier, they discouraged unnecessary bureaucracy. They also upgraded hiring standards and created the TRS Graduate Management Program, which offered high-potential young people special training, an enriched set of experiences, and an unusual degree of exposure to people to people in top management. To encourage risk taking among all TRS employees, Gerstner also established something called the Great Performers program to recognize and reward truly exceptional customer service, a central tenet in the organization’s vision.

These incentives led quickly to new markets, products and services. TRS expanded its overseas presence dramatically. By 1988, AmEx cards were issued in 29 currencies (as opposed to only 11 a decade earlier). The unit also focused aggressively on two market segments that had historically received little attention: college students and women. In 1981, TRS combined its card and travel-service capabilities to offer corporate clients a unified system to monitor and control travel expenses. And by 1988, American Express had grown to become the fifth largest direct-mail merchant in the United States.

Other new products and services included 90-day insurance on all purchases made with the AmEx card, Platinum American Express card, and a revolving credit card known as Optima. In 1988, the company also switched to image-proce3ssing
technology for billing, producing a more convenient monthly statement for customers and reducing billing costs by 25%.

As a result of these innovations, TRS`s net income increased a phenomenal 500% between 1978 and 1987 – a compounded annual rate of about 18%. The business outperformed many so-called high-tech/high-growth companies. With a 1988 return on equity of 28%, it also outperformed most low-growth but high-profit businesses. For this to succeed, there was tolerance of mistakes and recognition of Joseph Conrad’s assertion that; ‘It’s only those who do nothing that make no mistakes, I suppose’.

2.17.7 Aligning People: Chuck Trowbridge and Bob Crandall- Eastman Kodak (HBR, 2001)

Eastman Kodak entered the copy business in the early 1970s, concentrating on technically sophisticated machines that sold, on average, for about $60,000 each. Over the next decade, this business grew to nearly $1 billion in revenues but costs were high, profits were hard to find and problems were nearly everywhere. In 1984, Kodak had to write off $40 million in inventory. Most people at the company knew there were problems, but they couldn’t agree on how to solve them. So in his first two months as general manager of the new copy products group, established in 1984, Chuck Trowbridge met with nearly every key person inside his group, as well as with people elsewhere at Kodak who could be important to the copier business. An especially crucial area was the engineering and manufacturing organization, headed by Bob Crandall (HBR, 2001).

Trowbridge and Crandall`s vision for engineering and manufacturing was simple: to become a world-class manufacturing operation and to create a less bureaucratic and more decentralized organization. Still, this message was difficult to convey because
it was such a radical departure from previous communications, not only in the copy products group but throughout most of Kodak. So Crandall set up dozens of vehicles to emphasize the new direction and align people to it: weekly meetings with his own 12 direct reports; monthly "copy product forums" in which a different employee from each of his departments would meet with him as a group; discussions of recent improvements and new projects to achieve still better results; and quarterly "State of the Department" meetings, where his managers met with everybody in their own departments.

Once a month, Crandall and all those who reported to him would also meet with 80 to 100 people from some area of his organization to discuss anything they wanted. To align his biggest supplier – the Kodak Apparatus Division, which supplied one-third of the parts used in design and manufacturing – he and his managers met with 12 to 20 people on a specific topic, such as inventory or master scheduling.

The goal: to get all of his 1,500 employees in at least one of these focused business meetings each year.

Trowbridge and Crandall also enlisted written communication in their cause. A four to eight page "Copy Products Journal" was sent to employees once a month. A program called "Dialog Letters" gave employees the opportunity to anonymously ask questions or Crandall and his top managers and be guaranteed a reply. But the most visible and powerful written communications were the charts. In a main hallway near the cafeteria, these huge charts vividly reported the quality, cost and delivery results for each product, measured against difficult targets. A hundred smaller versions of these charts were scattered throughout the manufacturing area, reporting quality levels and costs for specific work groups.
Results of this intensive alignment process began to appear within six months, and still more surfaced after a year. These successes made the message more credible and helped more people on board. Between 1984 and 1988, quality on one of the main product lines increased 153 nearly 100-fold. Defects per unit went from 30 to 0.3. Over a three-year period, costs on another product line went down nearly 24%. Deliveries on schedule increased from 82% in 1985 to 95% in 1987. Inventory levels dropped by over 50% between 1984 and 1988, even though the volume of products was increasing. And productivity, measured in units per manufacturing employee, more than doubled between 1985 and 1988 (HBR, 2001).

This presents a good example of what recognition of lower level employees can achieve.

2.17.8 Motivating People: Richard Nicolosi - Procter and Gamble (HBR, 2001)

For about 20 years after its founding in 1956, Procter & Gamble`s paper products division had experienced little competition for its high-quality, reasonably priced, and well-market consumer goods. By the late 1970s, however, the market position of the division had changed. New competitive thrusts hurt P & G badly. For example, industry analysts estimate that the company`s market share for disposable diapers fell from 75% in the mid-1970s to 52% in 1984.

That year, Richard Nicolosi came to paper products as the associate general manager, after three years in P & G`s smaller and faster moving soft-drink business. He founded a heavily bureaucratic and centralized organization that was overly preoccupied with internal functional goals and projects. Almost all information about customers came through highly quantitative market research. The technical people were rewarded for cost savings, the commercial people focused on volume and share, and the two groups were nearly at war with each other.
During the late summer of 1984, top management announced that Nicolosi would become the head of paper products in October, and by August he was unofficially running the division. Immediately he began to stress the need for the division to become more creative and market driven, instead of just trying to be a low-cost producer. “I had to make it very clear,” Nicolosi later reported, “that the rules of the game had changed”.

The new direction included a much greater stress on teamwork and multiple leadership roles. Nicolosi pushed a strategy of using groups to manage the division and its specific products. In October, he and his team designated themselves as the paper division “board” and began meeting first monthly and then weekly. In November, they established “category teams” to manage their major brand groups (like diapers, tissues, towels) and started pushing responsibility down to these teams. “Shun the incremental, Nicolosi stressed, “And go for the leap”.

In December, Nicolosi selectively involved himself in more detail in certain activities. He met with the advertising agency and got to know key creative people. He asked the marketing manager of diapers to report directly to him, eliminating a layer in the hierarchy. He talked more to the people who were working on new product development projects.

In January 1985, the board announced a new organizational structure that included not only category teams but also new-brand business teams. By the spring, the board was ready to plan an important motivational event to communicate the new paper products vision to as many people as possible. On June 4, 1985, all the Cincinnati-based personnel in paper plus sales district managers and paper plant managers—several thousand people in all—met in the local Masonic Temple. Nicolosi and other board members described their vision of an organization where “each of
us is a leader`. The event was videotaped, and an edited version was sent to all sales offices and plants for everyone to see.

All these activities helped create an entrepreneurial environment where large numbers of people were motivated to realize the new vision. Most innovations came from people dealing with new products. Ultra Pampers, first introduced in February 1985, took the market share of the entire Pampers product line from 40% to 58% and profitability from break-even to positive. And within only a few months of the introduction of Luvs Delux in May 1987, market share for the overall brand grew by 150%.

Other employee initiatives were oriented more toward a functional area, and some came from the bottom of the hierarchy. In the spring of 1986, a few of the division`s secretaries, feeling empowered by the new culture, developed a secretaries network. This association established subcommittees on training, on rewards and recognition, and on the `secretary of the future`. Echoing the sentiments of many of her peers, one paper products secretary said: “I don`t see why we, too, can`t contribute to the division`s new direction”.

By the end of 1988, revenues at the paper products division were up 40% over a four-year period. Profits were up 68%. And this happened despite the fact that the competition continued to get tougher.

The above are but a few examples of different leaders putting to use the various characteristics of good leadership as set out in the literature review.

Leadership always starts with a need that sparks passion within a person who then responds to that need and then influences others to cooperate in attaining the vision.
We all have dreams, we all need to succeed but what gives some people the drive to make dreams come true – and bring others along with them? This is the question that this thesis will try to answer through linking practices in Zimbabwe against the theories developed in North America. In the final analysis, however, the aim is to come up with universally recommended practices that make a leader shine.

There is nothing so powerful, nothing so effective and nothing so causal as common purpose. Leadership that arises from values or spiritual conviction is the easiest to grasp because the purity of intention is clear, inspirational and mobilizes while naked power coerces. In this formulation, leadership requires an ability to bring the will of followers into consonance with that of the leader so that they follow willingly, voluntarily, with dedication and enthusiasm (Covey, 2008). These requirements are not found in management or administration where coercion plays a significant role, it is the preserve of leadership.

This is one of the key areas that the researcher will endeavour to establish in this study, that is, whether there was common purpose between the leaders and followers.

Leadership is essentially an aesthetic function, a concept that is poorly understood but widely practised rightly or wrongly though. Continuous leadership development depends upon the pursuit of truth, plenty, the good, and beauty- aesthetics.

- The pursuit of truth is the societal function of science.
- The pursuit of plenty is the function of institutions that are concerned with producing and distributing the resources that make possible the pursuit of
ends as efficiently as possible and protecting the resources acquired against their appropriation, theft or destruction.

- The pursuit of the good involves the dissemination of ethical and moral principles.

- The pursuit of beauty makes possible the continuous pursuit of ideals- ends that can be approached indefinitely but never attained. This is why good leaders continually move goals forward to make them more challenging. (HBR, 2011)

The role of aesthetics produces an unwillingness to settle for what we have and a desire for something better and more challenging. It is the producer and product of creative activity, change; it is essentially for continuous development and improvement.

Pursuit of the good, beauty, plenty and the truth leads to the embracing of qualities of effective leadership namely;

(a) Procedural knowledge qualities i.e. management skills, knowledge of power structures and processes, techniques and practices; and

(b) Human qualities, charisma, vision, drive, and sense of purpose. Effective leadership does not derive from simply following procedures (management) but entails the qualities possessed by the individual at a deeper more spiritual level that allows one to effectively implement the procedural. This spiritual level recognizes that the source of our basic need for meaning and for positive things we need in life is principles. This sometimes lies in people’s belief in God as stated in Romans 8: 28 “And we know that in all things God works for the good of those who love him; who
have been called according to his purpose” (The Holy Bible KJV). While this is partly true, leadership goes further to identify that besides principles, politics and relationships are also crucial because human beings have feelings and should not be treated like equipment as what obtained in the production era. People will serve leaders who share their vision with followers and show empathy in pursuit of that vision. This leads to the vision being shared and easy to attain.

When leaders do their best work, they do not copy anyone but they, instead, draw on their fundamental values and capabilities- operating in a frame of mind that is true to them yet, paradoxically, not their normal state of being. Leaders are at the top of their game when they act from their deepest values and instincts. Robert E. Quinn (HBR, 2000: 41) calls this the “the fundamental state of leadership.”

2.18. RESEARCH EVIDENCE ON LEADERSHIP IN AFRICA

This section of the study looks at published work on leadership on the African continent. Some of the research findings highlight the influence of cultural values, the issue of gender and power relations on leadership practices within the African context.

Kirk and Bolden (2009) highlight the notion of a renaissance in Africa Leadership, whereby Africans are urged to be true to themselves (Louw, 2002) to liberate themselves from colonial and post-colonial thinking and to re-engage with African values (Koka, 1997; Mbigi, 2000; Mulemfo, 2000). They place emphasis on the importance of education and the development of indigenous knowledge. At the heart of this movement is a call for a leadership that is distinctively African and that is suited to the epoch (Obiakor, 2005).
They point out that the process of constructing new models of leadership involves the incorporation, moderation or rejection of older ones and that at any period of a person’s life a dominant meaning of leadership holds. They postulate that there are generally two schools of thought about African leadership with one saying Africa is part of the world and so has to conform to the general leadership principles of democracy like everywhere else. The other school of thought highlights the need for African leaders to be alert to peculiarities of their communities because leadership is generic and so has to be applied in context.

In turn, a study by Harvey, Carter and Mudimu (2000) set out to test proposed differences in work values and motives in Zimbabwe and the United Kingdom which imply some further rethinking of motivational principles along cross-cultural lines. The results showed that the tribal identity, loyalty and regional origin were key considerations in leadership from a Zimbabwean perspective. The authors also found out that the Zimbabwean perspective had no real approximation with British culture. This is supported by Hofstede’s (1983) proposition regarding the individualism scores for Africans that reinforce tribal loyalty as an important variable in African leadership.

Any assumptions that motivation theories, which are appropriate to Western cultures, are automatically transferrable to Third World cultures are contradicted by evidence from this study. Western World theory tends to see job satisfaction and self-development as major targets to strive for and it is often difficult to envisage that other people might have different priorities (Blunt and Jones, 1997). Indeed, many people in the Third World may harbour feelings of inadequacy if they do not subscribe to a set of values and goals that are prescribed in Western World textbooks.
The finding that intrinsic rewards to the African Manager may be less likely to include job satisfaction or autonomy but would instead include status, prestigious position and pride is consistent with other findings (Jones, 1986). Social interactions in Zimbabwe are preceded by socially approved rituals which serve the purposes of establishing rapport and appropriate deference (Lamb, 1990). Time and deadlines are less important and would not constitute a major driving force to get work completed. This would suggest that goal-orientation and job content are not major motivators and that expected set behaviours and accruing status and esteem are primary reasons for effort. The gender difference supported the notion that male Africans are more concerned with hierarchy and position (Thornton et al, 1997). In relation to authority, it was established that power distance is a salient dimension to African Managers. Status, position and prestige would support this notion. Medium levels of uncertainty avoidance would tend to be associated with higher levels of bureaucracy and possibly that the higher need for social approval may also be related to bureaucracy.

Loyalty was also found to play a crucial role to Africans (Jones, 1986). It might be that it is related to the ability of an organization to provide status and prestige but that neither of these relate to performance. The interaction of Third World and First World values, suggested by Munro (1986) would account for this ambivalence of values and the perceived relative importance of some job content issues to Africans. This brings in the issue of linking high performance to enhanced status, at least partly through recognition in a visible way such as status symbols to accompany enhanced positions. Western World issues such as work harmonization and enrichment would be unlikely to be readily accepted in the Third World.
The conclusion of the study was that the universal and uncritical acceptance of Western values as if everyone holds those values is not correct. Good leadership practices should reflect cultural differences as well as similarities and should therefore vary in many ways between countries.

A study by Lutz (2009) argued that in the age of globalization, there is a need for a theory of global management consistent with the common human nature. To address this challenge, the study focused on African Philosophy and its fruitfulness for contributing to a theory of management consistent with African traditional cultures that should regard an organization as a community, a group with shared values, not a collection of individuals, aimed at promoting the common good.

The study points out that there should be rejection of all management theories that describe the purpose of management as the maximization of owner-wealth or those that advocate for unethical acts to attain that objective. Further, the study highlights the need for the rejection of theories of business ethics and corporate governance that are rooted in individualistic philosophical systems, including social-contract and stakeholder theories which seek to correct the errors of owner-wealth-maximization theories without addressing individualism which is the root of the problem.

One of the most striking features of Sub-Saharan African cultures is their non-individualistic character. Community is the cornerstone of African thought and life (Mbigi, 2005). People are not individuals, living in a state of independence, but part of a community, living in relationship and interdependence (Turaki, 2006).

The communal character of African cultures does not mean that the good of the individual person is subordinated to that of the group, as is the case in Marxist collectivism. In a true community, the individual does not pursue the common good
in place of his or her own good, but rather pursues his or her own good through pursuing the common good. To illustrate this point, the study made reference to the Igbo society as follows:

“The Igbo social structure consists of many small local communities. Within the village itself, power is held by various groups, and social balance is maintained by a system of checks and balances. Igbo society was such that even though there existed a strong community consciousness, the individual’s rights and existence as an entity were not neglected. Free speech, free movement and free action in Igbo society were guaranteed”. (Ike and Edozien, 2001; 155).

In Southern Africa, the traditional understanding that one is truly human only as a member of a community is expressed in terms of “ubuntu”. Ubuntu is, simultaneously, the foundation and the edifice of African philosophy. Ubuntu speaks of the very essence of being human i.e. friendly, caring, compassionate, generous and hospitable. (Mbigi, 2005).

This study will thus investigate whether, given the communal nature of African life, leadership theories developed outside Africa are applicable and if so how the peculiarities can be built into the theory to make it applicable

According to Blunt and Jones (1997) there exists a discrepancy between traditional African cultures and African business education, most of which is indistinguishable in theoretical content from Anglo-American business education. They point out that

“Most modern published notions of leadership have their origins in the West. Such notions have been propagated far and wide by the Western management education industry, so that any self-expressing MBA holder, say from Pakistan, Zimbabwe, Ecuador or anywhere else, will know broadly the same things about leadership and other aspects of human resources management” (Blunt and Jones, 1997; 10) ’

While Murove (2008) says theories that were created within and for individualistic cultures are not at home within communal-centric cultures it is not correct to then say
this mismatch between theory and culture means that many African Managers cannot practice what they have been taught. Murove further states that:

“Despite the fact that our institutions of higher learning have remained dedicated to the teaching of economics and business studies under the paradigm of Western patterns of economic thought, in practice such academic endeavours have not resulted in the appropriation of Western capitalism in post-colonial Africa. (Murove, 2008: 86)

Well, it is true that African managers need a management theory consistent with their communal cultures. In the absence of such a theory, there will, necessarily, exist either a discrepancy between management theory and management practice or a discrepancy between management practice and the culture of the manager. Such a theory though needed is not a new one per-ser but a modification of current theory to take account of African idiosyncrasies and this is part of the purpose of this study. The first step in developing that theory is based on the concept of Ubuntu which says to promote the good of a community is to promote the good of all its members. Drucker (1982) pointed out that the only philosophical traditions capable of serving as philosophies of management are the Confucian “ethics of interdependence” and the Aristotelian “ethics of prudence and self-development”. A look at the traditional philosophies of China and Greece reveals that they have much in common with traditional African philosophy that is relevant to the philosophy of business management. Mbigi (2005) makes a connection between African and Platonic-Aristotelian philosophy by identifying Ubuntu with the collective solidarity of the poor on survival issues, emphasizing the communal spirit and pursuance of the common good.

A critical look at this section does not actually differentiate between Western theory and African practice as the communal philosophy can be equated to the concept of
societal good which is espoused in unconditional leadership. It therefore follows that although there are differences in culture, the major issue of working for the good of the community is cross-cutting and what is needed is contextual application and pragmatic adaptation of leadership theories especially the contingency theory.

Bolden and Kirk (2009) provide an account of meanings and connotations of African leadership emerging from research among a cohort of participants on a Pan-African leadership development program. Data were collected in Namibia, Nigeria, South Africa (black sample), Zambia and Zimbabwe. The findings indicated high ratings against the humane orientation-value dimension. On leadership styles, a preference was shown for charismatic / value based team-oriented, participative and humane approaches although except for humane approaches, it is no different from the rest of the world.

Hofstede’s (1983) constructs showed similarity for both the West and East African samples although with a greater deviation from the mid-range for West Africa. There was a high score for power distance, low scores for individualism and long-term orientation and mid-range scores for masculinity and uncertainty avoidance. South Africa demonstrated a rather different profile with moderate power distance and uncertainty avoidance and high individualism and masculinity.

Together these findings give a crude indication of cultural preferences within these regions but offer little insight into how people come to conceive of, and behave in a leadership role. It thus becomes a challenge to develop this further.

Jackson (2005) points out that the key values that shape leadership and management in sub-Saharan Africa include sharing, deference to rank, sanctity of commitment, regard for compromise and consensus and good social and personal
relations. He further highlights the hybrid nature of management and leadership practice in Africa, shaped through a complex and multi-layered social, cultural and historical context. Hybridity in this context is not regarded as aping western practices or attempting to return to idealized notions of traditional leadership, but instead offers a means for adaptation and change. This assertion, therefore, supports the idea that the current theories can be adapted to the African scenario through managers reacting to different situations differently for effective leadership.

Within Africa itself, there has been a call for an African Renaissance, whereby Africans are urged to liberate themselves from colonial and post-colonial thinking and re-engage with an African value system (Mulemfo, 2000, Ntibagirirwa, 2003). These ideas have found resonance across the continent and have subsequently been applied to business and community leadership (Mbigi, 2000, 2005) where educational reform was a fundamental pillar (Obiakor, 2005).

The findings from this research, so far, support calls against the blanket implementation of universalistic models of leadership and leadership development, as well as approaches that break culture down into a series of discrete dimensions. They call for the facilitation of a more constructionist approach to the surfacing of Afro-centric knowledge about leadership and management. According to Inyang (2008), scholarly conceptualization from Europe and the United States of America concerning management in Africa have tended to disparage its development, creating a binary management systems of “developed” western management theories and concepts and “underdeveloped” African management thoughts. The underdevelopment is relative to Anglo Saxon standards but this does not take into account Africa’s peculiar leadership concepts with relation to its culture, power distance dynamics and the generally different business operating environment.
Western management literature stridently emphasizes this dichotomy, with unabated importation of western theories and practices to Africa at the detriment of adapting already existing theory to indigenous African management practices which can accommodate the continent’s cultural inertia. The centrality of the community, respect for the aged and the impact of femininity and masculinity in African culture are critical elements in adapting Western management philosophy to the African environment. This forms the basis for this research.

According to Gbadamosi (2003: 274);

“Western management concepts and writings have dominated the thinking of academics and managers in Africa for a long time. Such writings have not shown how culture might be taken into account in managerial practice” (Gbadamosi, 2003: 274).

This quotation further supports the research problem by calling for an investigation into the relationship between existing theory and African practice. There is no doubt that management in Africa is strongly rooted in cultural beliefs and traditions (Fashoyin, 2005) but any training must enable the African Manager to transform imported theories and concepts into acceptable cultural norms which can be applied to management practices in Africa to accommodate social, cultural political and environmental factors. (Fashoyin, 2005). Adaptation is a pragmatic practice and any leader or manager can only survive if flexible in line with the operating environment.

The observations from the reviews above point to the possible divergence between leadership theories proposed by the North American scholars and leadership practices within an African context and they can only be effective if they are practised with reference to African norms and culture. African managers therefore need a management theory consistent with their communal culture. Such a theory is
grounded in the concept of ‘Ubuntu’ that seeks to promote the good of a community and all its members. The only philosophical traditions capable of serving as philosophies of management are the Confucian ethics of interdependence and the Aristotelian ethics of prudence and self-development (Drucker, 2002). In a true community, the individual pursues his or her own good through pursuing the common good. There seems to be a paradox here but the underlying concept of the common good links the key ingredient of leadership in the North American set up to the African set up with the distinction only being in the detail. The discrepancy only lies in the management practice of different cultures but the key principle of the common good cuts across all cultures. Africans, therefore, only need to take cognisance of deference to rank, sharing, respect for age, sanctity of commitment, regard for compromise, consensus and good social and personal relations. (Jackson, 2005). This can be described as the pragmatic adaptation required for Anglo Saxon leadership theories for successful application of leadership theories and so provide an answer to our research questions on the applicability of the espoused theories especially the contingency or situational theories.

2.19 Chapter Critique and Relevance to Zimbabwe

It is clear that literature, in this thesis, has a North American leaning especially with regards to power distance, culture and values but it can still be deduced that there is some correlation with Zimbabwean Leadership practices because of corporate parenting resulting from the colonial past and the supremacy of the community. The African or Zimbabwean leaders have a set of completely different guiding principles emanating from cultural difference and view of society. The operating environment during the time of the study was very influential in determining critical leadership
practices for companies to survive although these were driven more from the outside as a result of parentage.

The key influencing issues from a Zimbabwean point of view are:

- The extended family influence on relationships.
- The importance of age in leader subordinate relationships.
- Socialisation and sharing where democracy is taking hold in Africa and the successful benevolent dictatorship style and hegemony cannot continue to take hold.
- The changing position of women in society in general and the existence of male chauvinism.
- Role of political power
- Handling of setbacks
- Underemployment as a result of levels of education, that is, highly educated youngsters doing work that is essentially below their level of education and a leadership that is not taking this into account.
- The highly unstable political and economic environment.
- Plenoxia- depicted in Gessen (2009) as the insatiable desire to have what rightfully belongs to others, an expanded form of selfishness that led leaders to abandon ethics leading to subordinates being viewed as instruments to attain certain goals without regard to their feelings. These leaders are a bad influence to workers whose only lesson is destroying the other guy no matter what it takes.
In answering our research questions, these critical variables were important in as far as they influence leader subordinate behaviour and perceptions leading to certain practices which were influenced more by the operating environment, cultural norms, characteristics of subordinates and the concept of power distance as espoused in the contingency or situational theories.
2.20. **Chapter Summary**

While the concept of effective leadership practices was complex in the Zimbabwean setting because of the obtaining situation during the period of the research, North American case studies and the reference to leadership research in Africa has all pointed to the fact that theories espoused in the American literature and leadership practices in Africa have the central theme of societal good and recognition of the individual as key tenets. There has also emerged the pursuit for common good in the pursuit of individual good thereby reconciling the societal good and Ubuntu. Differentials between Western and African beliefs and norms are, therefore, minimal if not artificial. The following chapter now looks at the methodology used to study real life practices on the Zimbabwean corporate scene to provide evidence on application of theory in real life situations.

While these literature review findings, especially the work of Mudimu, Kirk and Bolden, generally take the view that leadership theories that were created within and for individualistic cultures, like the North American society, cannot operate within communal cultures like those found in Africa, this research now, so far, seems to indicate that there might actually be some similarities but only actual research findings can confirm whether leadership is a universal concept that should be practised the same way the world over albeit with pragmatic adaptations.

The following chapter presents the study methodology.
CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

3.0. INTRODUCTION

This Chapter presents the methodology employed in undertaking this study. The study explored the motivation for actions by social actors in terms of leadership practices given that people interpret situations differently so their views of a situation and actions tend to differ thereby influencing their leadership practices. It was the researcher’s desire to understand this subjective reality.

3.1. RESEARCH PARADIGM

The research paradigm for this research was phenomenology (Roberts, Wallace and O’Farrell, 2003) which refers to the study of structures of consciousness from the first person point of view. It involved hearing it from the ‘horse’s mouth’, that is, things as they appear in real life experiences.

The outcomes included various types of experiences ranging from perception, thought memory, imagination, emotion, desire and volition to bodily awareness, embodied actions and social activity. As this research sought to establish familiar forms of consciousness as they are lived, and the context of experiences, a phenomenological influence was the best research paradigm.

This study adopted a qualitative approach influenced by phenomenology (theory of appearance). The research did not require testing of a theory but sought to generate theory, to understand and get a feel of the “goings on” and explore the nature of the problem at hand. The study allowed for the formulation of themes from findings and thus allowed a broader range of information to be collected rather than a deductive approach with rigid methodologies (Saunders et al, 2007). Qualitative research, the
methodology adopted, is a paradigm of enquiry employed especially in the social sciences to gather an in-depth understanding of human behaviour and the reasons that govern and influence such behaviour. The qualitative method explored issues to understand phenomena and answer certain questions. It investigated the whys and how’s of decision making, not just what, where and when. This is why smaller focused samples were utilized. Qualitative methods produce information on the cases studied only and any more general conclusions are only propositions (informed assertions). This is supported by Parry (1998) who stated that quantitative methods alone are insufficient to theorize successfully about the nature of leadership which is understood as a social influence process with no definite answers.

As this research sought to understand “people and social and cultural contexts within which they live”, (Myers 1997 online), a qualitative approach to data gathering was used to allow for a holistic view (Gummeson, 1991). The selection of a qualitative approach only, based on the above, could, however, not yield the desired results so this research adopted a mainly qualitative approach combined with a quantitative approach (triangulation). Quantitative methodology was used mainly for bio data analysis while a qualitative analysis was used to determine the underlying characteristics leading to certain practices, professional qualifications and career paths. A combination of research methods (triangulation), therefore, improved research quality (Benbasat, 1997).

This methodology, adopted for this study, allowed the researcher to have some structure to the process whilst allowing additional questions rather than follow a rigid framework such as with structured questions only (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

The advantages of adopting qualitative research in leadership research include;
• Flexibility to follow unexpected ideas during research and explore processes effectively;
• Sensitivity to contextual factors;
• Ability to study symbolic dimensions and social meaning;
• Increased opportunities to develop empirically supported new ideas and theories, in-depth longitudinal explorations of leadership phenomena and for more relevance and interest for practitioners. (Conger, 1998; Bryman et al, 1998; Alvesson, 1996)
• Allowance for greater spontaneity and adaptation of interaction between the researcher and the study participants.

Knowledge about leadership cannot emerge through fixed procedure organized to arrive at abstract conclusions because leadership itself is ambiguous (Alvesson, 1996). The researcher, therefore, created more open forms of inquiry, focusing on local patterns that acknowledged that meaning is jointly constructed with participants. Likewise, Tierney (1996) discusses five tenets of post-modernism (culture and difference; language and meaning; individual constraints and possibilities; power and politics; subjectivity and objectivity) and their implications for research on leadership.

The work of qualitative researchers in leadership covers the spectrum from post-positivism to post-modernism but there is no consensus about whether qualitative research is yet sufficiently valued within the more academic leadership literature to be used on its own for such research. Bass (2003) says that “there are efforts to triangulate quantitative and qualitative research for increasing confidence generated by both. Parry (1998) agrees that there is growing appreciation about the need for
both methods to be used in leadership research. This is necessary to tap into the strengths of each method and so yield better results.

As highlighted above, most work on leadership falls within the more traditional side of the qualitative spectrum. Lowe and Gardner’s 2001 analysis of 188 articles published in Leadership Quarterly until 1999 revealed that there was a healthy mix of quantitative (71%) and qualitative (39%) methods and a small subset of mixed studies. In terms of analytical methods, about half of the studies used content analysis, a little less than half, case studies and about one fifth grounded theories.

The high sensitivity of leadership to context (contingency theory) is well established in the literature and qualitative research is well positioned to open this “black box”. Oral Interviewing, questionnaires and general observations were adopted as the research instruments to gain insight into the research problem. The questions posed were aimed at addressing bio data, sources of inspiration, CEO-Staff relations, tolerance of errors, origins of good leadership, confidence in systems or staff, role of efficient leaders, consultation, assessment of period covered by the research and level of tackling key issues.

Questionnaires were used because they have the advantage that responses are gathered in a standardised format thereby becoming more objective and easy to analyse than oral interviews. Given the target group, questionnaires presented a quick way to collect information especially in this study where there were more closed questions than open ended ones. The use of questionnaires also assisted in getting a relatively high response rate especially that the research assistant delivered and collected most of the questionnaires.
Oral interviews were used to address some of the inherent shortcomings in questionnaires like important issues that might have been forgotten and also the deficiency created by closed questions. The few open ended questions generated large amounts of data which required standardisation via oral interviews. The oral interviews also helped to put respondents at ease so that they would not answer questions superficially because hearing the purpose of the study from the researcher made a lot of difference.

Qualitative studies about circumstances associated with organizational types or occupational settings have provided new insights into the dynamics of leadership (Bryman et al, 1996) with regards to task structure or position power thereby obscuring the impact of concept specific forces. Some new Leadership scholars have used mixed approaches to understand contextual variables such as culture. Others argue for process-focused studies to better understand the hows and whys of transformational and charismatic leadership (Bass, 1995; Lowe and Gardner, 2001).

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design or method refers to a “systematic” and orderly approach towards the selection of data so that information can be obtained from those data (Janowicz, 1995). According to White (2000), research design covers aims, appropriate methodology, data collection techniques, methods of data analysis and interpretation. Others like Zikmund (2003) call it a master plan for collecting and analysing data. The research design helps to state the conceptual structure within which the research is to be conducted. It is the “blueprint” for research dealing with at least four problems: which questions to study, which data are relevant, what data to collect and how to analyse the data. The best design depends on the research
question as well as the orientation of the researcher. In sociology, there are three basic designs which are considered to generate reliable data and these are; cross-sectional, longitudinal and cross-sequential. Preparation of the design facilitates efficiency of the research so as to yield maximal information. This study used cross sequential research as there was not enough time to carry out longitudinal research.

Research design or strategies are many, according to Cavaye (1996), Darke et al, (1998), Hussey and Hussey (1997), Leedy and Ormrod (2001), Miles and Huberman (1994), Powell (1997). They include alternatives such as the creation of an experiment, surveys, grounded theory, ethnography (a phenomenological methodology which stems from anthropology) and observes patterns of human activity, operational research and case studies.

The “qualitative” approach (Patton 1981) adopted for this research used a naturalistic inquiry method that involved qualitative data collection and an interpretive "hermeneutic" approach to content. Interpretive field studies based on the soft case study approach were also used because they demarcated between methods appropriate for prediction, understanding and change.

Leadership scholars seeking to answer questions about culture, meaning and leadership assumptions about subordinates have found experimental and quantitative methods to be insufficient on their own in explaining the phenomenon they wish to study. As a result, qualitative research gained momentum as a mode of enquiry for this study. This was more so because, as stated earlier, leadership is about relationships (Fletcher, 2002) and so is supported by the strength of qualitative inquiry in general.
Bryman (1986) identified two forms of qualitative research in the new leadership literature. One distils lessons from portraits of successful leaders to illustrate particular ideas. (The case studies analysed in chapter two). The other, more 'academic', explored several research designs like case studies using participant observation, semi-structured interviewing and document analysis (desk research) and interviews where leaders were asked about their practices and orientations through direct invitations to individual leaders to discuss leadership practices, (The questionnaires used in this research). Other qualitative designs not used in this research include ethnography, narrative inquiry, action research and grounded theory (Tierney, 1996; Schall et al, 2002; Huxman and Vangen, 2000; Parry, 1998).

This study was based on data from different corporate settings focusing on the organizations and the operating environment and drew lessons from Chief Executive Officers who outlined their leadership experiences and practices. This was necessary so that leadership could be studied in context so that the investigation could establish whether performance and effectiveness was dependent on the organisation being led and the operating environment. The strategy adopted for this research had some similarity to that of the Practitioner-Researcher (Bryman and Bell, 2007). When interviews were carried out, assumptions were not made about the participants' knowledge as everything had to be established as it was at the time.

In order to ensure that all necessary data was collected, all participants were advised in advance about confidentiality and this was reiterated before the face to face interviews. The set oral interview questions investigated the central research aim of wanting to establish application of leadership theories in leadership practices and in light of the qualitative nature of the study, it was not appropriate to generalize but to yield deeper understanding of the reality surrounding the research questions from
the point of view of the respondents. Further unprepared oral interviews were follow ups to issues that were not clear on the completed questionnaires.

This strategy was used because the research was for a finite period and the research investigated leaders' views and practices developed over their lifetime in order to gain a real sense of the changing views that influenced leadership practices.

During the interviews, it became apparent that many of the interviewees lacked detailed information or were deliberately withholding information so the researcher sought information first and then asked probing and supplementary questions to gain deeper understanding and extract further information. This came about as prior desk research could not reconcile with the answers to questionnaires with regards to company share performance on the Zimbabwe Stock Exchange. This further probing led to the divulging of information on activities outside the core business like banks going into vehicle trading, buying and selling bricks and engaging in black market foreign exchange dealings to improve their bottom line.

3.2.1. Case Study Approach

In a Case Study, one single unit is extensively studied and this can be a person, an organization, a group or situation. Bell (1999) states that “a case study approach is particularly appropriate for individual researchers as it gives an opportunity for one aspect of a problem to be studied in some depth within a limited time scale”. The case study approach is an empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context especially when the boundaries between the phenomena and context are not clearly evident (Yin, 2003). The definition gives emphasis to context, which justifies its use in consideration of factors applicable at
the time of the study. Again Yin (2003) states that the “How” and “Why” questions in this case are more explanatory and are likely to use of case studies.

In this study, case studies were used in the literature review to practically demonstrate applicability of key leadership concepts and also show how leadership theories were applied in real life corporate America. The leaders studied, in the case studies, were all drawn from corporate America, the biggest economy in the world, where most big corporates are domiciled and contributing a quarter of global trade (World Bank, 2009). It was also poignant because the literature reviewed was American and it made sense to do case studies of companies in the same source area. America has also contributed significantly to the world leadership education through its educational institutions like Harvard and the many management training institutes. The case studies highlighted from (HBR, 2011) were:

- Robert Milliner, Chief Executive Partner, Mallesons Stephens Jaques, on doing things right and building technical and management skills, commitment to two-way interchanges and the fact that listening is as important as communicating.

- Darwin E. Smith- CEO of Kimberly- Clark on transformational leadership, professional humility, humbleness and continual learning.

- Jack Welch, CEO of General Electric on educating subordinates, taking bold decisions and embracing technology.

- Lou Gerstner- CEO of IBM on customer service, listening and relationships.

All the cases showed how Chief Executive Officers were able to effect change through different leadership practices influenced by the obtaining environment.
3.2.2. The Survey Method

This was one of the research methodologies used in this study as the researcher directed oral questions to some Chief Executive Officers and some workers in order to explore issues in the present. Workers were not part of the study population but it was necessary to verify some assertions by the Chief Executive Officers as the topic under study was contingent on leader assumptions about workers and how the worker responded because the survey method is meant to:

“to answer questions that have been raised, to solve problems that have been posed or observed, to assess needs or set goals, to determine whether or not specific objectives have been met to establish baselines against which future comparisons can be made, to analyse trends across time and generally to describe what exists in what amount, and in what context” (Isaac and Michael, 1997: 136).

In this case, the researcher asked a set of written questions in a specific format during the interview and then recorded the answers as they came. The researcher did not manipulate any situation or conditions but simply asked questions and got answers in a short time to enable logical interpretation. Typically, answers were summarized in percentages and tables as shown in chapter 4. Survey research gave the researcher a picture of what many people thought or reported about the goings on in a particular company and this associated with general performance indicated application of leadership theories. This exercise then gave culturally specific and contextually rich data to enable drawing up of conclusions on preferred or predominant leadership practices.

3.3. Data Collection Methods

Data were collected through a primary closed questionnaire, interviews and observations. To cover the gaps left by the closed questionnaire, in-depth interviews
were organized to provide respondents with the opportunity to deeply explore further their views, feelings, perspectives and thoughts. (Boyce and Neale, 2006).

Face to face interviews maximized engagements and provided in-depth exploration of respondents' opinion. (Garson, 2008). As the researcher was dealing with existing successful companies, interviews were conducted so as to gain the advantages of obtaining detailed information along with obtaining detailed information on feelings, opinions and perceptions along with asking more detailed questions to clarify ambiguities through pressing for a full answer and following up on incomplete answers. Oral interviews also enabled the researcher to tailor make questions for each specific CEO. The interviewer was also able to observe facial expressions and body language to get clearer indications on honesty and frankness to be able to pass stronger judgement. Although there are various authors (Gerson and Horwitz, 2002; Mouton, 2001; Patton 2002; Saunders et al, 2000; Stake, 1995 Struwig and Stead, 2001; Tellis 1997; Welman and Kruger, 1999) who have commented on the use of interview as a data collection method, there is no single definition as to the one right way in which an interview can be used as a data collection method.

For the purpose of this research, the following types of interviews were used:

- Structured interviews using closed questions. The study questionnaire had nineteen questions divided into twelve groups and out of the nineteen, only two were open ended questions but one only required a prior job title. This was necessary to reduce time spent on the questionnaire.

- Semi structured interview questions which offered free responses from participants to specific questions. These were used as guides for the oral interviews and ten questions were designed for this purpose.
• Unstructured interview which allowed the participants to express themselves without any restrictions. In the study, follow-up oral interview questions were done with 20% (6) of the respondents to clarify earlier issues and also add to the depth of the research. The oral interview questions focused on secrets to success, tolerance of mistakes, the role of politics, characteristics of successful leaders, inspiration, identification of one successful Zimbabwean leader and what they attributed to the success, consultation with subordinates, impact of the environment and where they derived their confidence (systems or people).

In general, the structured questions helped ease the analysis of responses and cut down on the time required to complete the questionnaire given the busy schedules of most CEOs while the unstructured questions helped to close gaps through further clarity.

Observation was also used to collect data as it is a recognized method as set out by (Gillham, 2000; Jankowicz, 2000; Powell, 1997; Saunders et al, 2000 and Yin, 1994). The observations were done on an informal basis to avoid acting but only five companies allowed the researcher to observe and all of it was in a manufacturing environment and leadership interventions observed were to do with technical knowledge impartation, recognition and levels of communication. The observation was to see the CEO in action, as it were, so as to link the practicality on the ground with what each CEO said they do.

3.3.1. Primary data

Primary data were collected through non-standardized self-completion questionnaires that sought to obtain qualitative research data (Saunders et al, 2007).
The utility of semi-structured interviews allowed for a list of themes and questions and these varied from interview to interview as questions were not asked in strict order but dictated by the flow of the conversation (Bryman and Bell, 2007). An interview guide was used to provide some structure to the interview and to focus participants’ responses on the issue at hand (Remenyi et al, 2000). The researcher preferred this kind of interview because it allowed additional questions to draw out more information where necessary. This could not have been possible if a structured interview was used. The interviews were conducted on an individual basis on a face to face basis. The questions were to do with characteristics of successful leaders, tolerance of mistakes, importance of systems and staff, origins of good leaders, characterisation of the period 2005 to 2010, and source of inspiration on a day to day basis. Interview notes were recorded manually as they happened and no electronic recording was done for the comfort of the interviewees since the researcher had indicated that the research was anonymous.

3.3.2. Secondary Data
Secondary data are historical, already assembled and do not require access to respondents or subjects. (Zikmund, 1991).

A number of sources were consulted for secondary data for this study and these included documents, historical reports, industry publications and trade journals like the Confederation of Zimbabwe Industries (CZI) reports, Company Annual Reports, business journals and the Zimbabwe Stock Exchange Reports. These documents were consulted in preparation for the study and formed the basis for questioning on one hand and also provided examples of leadership case studies.
3.3.3. Sampling Techniques

The study followed Cooper and Schindler (2006) and adopted purposive sampling where the researcher selected participants on a “fit for purpose” basis through their unique characteristics, experiences, attitudes, and perceptions. This enabled the researcher to use his judgment to select cases that enabled clear answering of the research questions and meet the stated objectives (Saunders et al, 2007) Purposive sampling is also known as judgmental sampling and allowed the selection of individuals for a specific purpose (Remenyi et al, 2000). This was useful as the small number of participants was deliberate to avoid statistical analysis.

Bright (1987) defines a population as ” the set of all members of which a study intends to make references”. Wegner (1993) defines a population as all ”all possible observations of the random variables under study”

In this study, the population was all the seventy eight Zimbabwe Stock Exchange listed companies during the period 2005 to 2010. From the seventy eight, forty nine companies formed the sample to which questionnaires were sent. From the forty nine companies which formed the target population, thirty one (31) companies responded and formed the basis for the study. The target population was non-probability as it was based on fit for purpose (May, 2011). This fitted in well with the qualitative nature of this research. As highlighted earlier, the study sample (thirty one companies) was determined by the study objectives and characteristics of the study population. In this case, the researcher made sure that all industries and regions were well represented. The completed questionnaires were grouped by industry and region and where there was no representation, follow up was then targeted at specific companies to ensure equity. Although this delayed the research, it helped the researcher to draw up reasonable conclusions as the sample was cross-cutting.
The study sample comprised of thirty one (31) Chief Executive Officers with a range of ages and industry backgrounds. This was in line with the principle of qualitative research where only a sample (a subset) of a population is selected for any given study (Lawrence-Neuman, 2007). The researcher ensured that the sample covered the different industry sectors namely, manufacturing, tourism, services, mining, Agriculture and retail as detailed above. The sample was determined by the study objectives and characteristics of the population to cover size and diversity. The companies that responded were distributed as follows; Financial Services (4), Manufacturing (11), Tourism (2), Mining (2), Telecoms (2), Retail (6), Construction (1), Agriculture (1) and Insurance (2). In the classification, some holding companies were involved in more than one industry but for the purpose of this study they were put in the group from where they derived most of their income.

As the study was underpinned by the qualitative paradigm, data analysis was based on analysis of narrative discourse. The data was categorized to make analysis easier and to allow themes to emerge. To allow easier analysis, quantitative research was used to come up with trends in line with the triangulated nature of the research.

3.3.4. The Sampling Plan
Sampling in this triangulated research was done from rich descriptive data sources such as participant observation, in-depth interviews and document analysis (Mouton, 1996). The researcher considered forty nine out of the seventy eight listed companies based on activity on the exchange and performance of shares to enable the researcher to make informed deductions on leadership practices and company performance. The number was also influenced by the fact that some companies had been suspended from the bourse, closed and others simply refused to take part. The thirty companies that responded to the questionnaire were a representative sample
based on the population and these yielded the most information about the topic under investigation. (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005). Sample size in qualitative research is of no significance as the research did not seek to establish frequency estimates or representation but was kept small because of the need to collect rich manageable data to give more information on the research topic. (Richie and Lewis, 2003; Neuman, 2006). For the qualitative portion of the study, the idea was to collect data until it was saturated while the quantitative portion addressed performance records.

A good sampling plan ensured that measurements answered the right questions and communicated to other people what was to be accomplished.

The sampling plan was influenced by the following research sections:

- Project goals
- Parameters to be measured
- Sampling locations
- Sampling timing and frequency
- Methods.

3.3.5. Pilot study (Testing the Questionnaire)

Pilot testing of the questionnaires was conducted among the researcher's colleagues at Zimbabwe Posts Private Limited (Zimpost) and a small sample of fellow Chief Executive Officers from non-listed companies, who were not participating in the main study; to assess relevance and effectiveness of the questions asked. All ambiguities and errors detected were then corrected at this stage. This involved redrafting questions to make them closed as a result of the complication that arose when trying to analyse the responses. This is why most of the final questions were closed.
Language was also simplified to make the enquiry clearer especially the questions on leadership effectiveness. The final questionnaires were then dispatched along with an introductory letter attached as appendix A.

3.3.6. Administering the Questionnaires

Initially, the questionnaires were delivered to the targeted Chief Executive Officers using various means, some by hand, ordinary post and others by expedited mail service depending on the location of the respondents but following non receipt of posted questionnaires by most respondents, a register was compiled and all questionnaires were re-sent by a driver who obtained acknowledgements of receipt and details of contact persons for follow up. The research assistant physically collected the completed questionnaires after liaison with the contact person on the register. Some Chief Executive Officers called for the research assistant to pick up.

Of the forty nine questionnaires sent out, thirty one were completed and returned and thirteen were followed up with oral interviews. All, but one, interview were conducted at the Chief Executive Officers’ offices with only one visiting the researcher’s work place for the interview since it coincided with a mutual business engagement.

Letters of request for interviews (Appendix A) and oral interview guidelines (Appendix C) were sent at least two weeks before the scheduled date. This was to allow for convenient accommodation and diarisation given the tight schedules of most Chief Executive Officers. The in-depth interviews helped to fill the gaps not adequately covered through questionnaires or to raise follow up questions. This opportunity also enabled the researcher to clearly explain objectives of the study and
allay fears of the information obtained being presented in a manner that would compromise secrecy, anonymity and confidentiality of respondents.

The questionnaire addressed all the bio-data, leadership practices and relationship questions while the oral interviews sought to get clarifications on gaps and answer such questions as how the Chief Executive Officers achieved results in a highly uncertain environment.

3.4. **DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION PROCEDURE**

Data collation, interpretation, comparison and analysis were done once all the questionnaires that were likely to be returned were in place. Preliminary analysis, however, began with the first interview, the first observation or the first document read (Meriam, 1998). This was meant to eliminate bias and personal opinion of the researcher which might have come about through analysing frequency of responses and then possibly flow with the most frequent answers.

Qualitative and quantitative (biographical data) obtained from the study was analysed using a Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) to come up with percentages of who said what or belonged to which group.

This approach in data analysis included data reduction, data display and conclusion drawing and verification (Miles and Huberman, 1984).

3.5. **TRIANGULATION, VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY**

This study was triangulated as stated in the section on research design to reap the benefits of qualitative and quantitative approaches. The study allowed for the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods so as to analyse bio-data while at the same time determining the qualitative underlying characteristics leading to certain
practices, professional qualifications and career paths. A combination of research methods (triangulation), therefore, improved research quality (Benbasat, 1997) through flexibility to analyse social meaning and increased spontaneity.

It was necessary to create different forms of enquiry because of the ambiguous nature of leadership hence triangulation.

Validity of this research on leadership theories application was addressed through a thorough and rigorous literature review to fully understand the subject matter before going into the field. This enabled the researcher to clearly state what needed to be measured and in this case the issue at hand was to see application of leadership theories within Zimbabwean companies. The logical flow from literature to empirical evidence addressed all sources of error to ensure theoretical and measurement validity. Complexity, vagueness and ambiguity of leadership were addressed through thorough literature review to address all possible concepts and definitions and so come up with a clear theoretical validity. Sampling and leading questions were also eliminated at methodology stage through pilot testing and scale validation through use of questionnaires and oral interviews to clear all ambiguities. At data collection stage, the researcher addressed validity sources of error emanating from interviewer and respondent bias through multi methods and clear instructions to the research assistant. This then helped to bring about representativeness of respondents through well balanced data sets and a representative sample which was supported by a good response rate. At analysis and interpretation stage, the researcher used appropriate techniques as highlighted above like the Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) and thorough understanding of leadership literature to come up with proper conclusions, results and findings to ensure inferential validity, well supported by case studies of corporate America and Zimbabwean findings.
3.6. Ethical Issues

In conforming to the ethical standards of research, the researcher had to address key issues of voluntary participation, anonymity and confidentiality of respondents, appropriate ascription of authorship and rejection of all forms of plagiarism (Babbie E & Mouton J, 2009). In this research the researcher identified himself to all prospective respondents, stating aims purpose of the study and emphasising that information gathered from the research would not be identified with the participating companies but only contribute to the anonymous wide body of knowledge. This involved coding of questionnaires for follow up purposes only and any reference to specific information relating to companies was one that was already in the public domain given that the study involved stock exchange listed companies. All the research was done openly with no secret or clandestine research or part thereof being undertaken. As far as possible, acknowledgements for the work of others was clearly acknowledged and a full bibliography identifying information sources is provided.

3.7. Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the research philosophy that underpinned the study, the research design/strategy, the rationale for the case study approach and the survey methods, the data collection methods that used a combination of questionnaires, in-depth interviews and direct observation, sampling approach and administration of data collection instruments, data analysis and interpretation approaches used in the study. The chapter also addressed key issues of validity and research ethics to ensure that the research meets acceptable standards.

The following chapter presents the study data collected for analysis, discussion and interpretation.
CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the study findings on the investigation into the application of leadership theories among Chief Executive Officers of Zimbabwe Stock Exchange listed Companies. The first part presents the bio data of the respondents and background information on the organizations covered in the study. The data obtained is presented in the form of narrative accounts, tables, charts and graphs.

The study objectives were set as follows:

- To explore the link between leadership theories developed in the Western world and leadership practices of selected Chief Executive Officers of Zimbabwe Stock Exchange listed companies;
- To examine the rationale for similarities and differences between theory and practice;
- To gain some understanding on the link between leadership practices and emerging theories on leadership in Africa and the developing world;
- To draw some insights and recommendations for practitioners and future researchers on business management leadership.

The subsequent sections report on the study findings and attempt to fully address each of the research questions outlined above.

The first part reports on the bio-data, age ranges and professional backgrounds of the respondents’ vis-à-vis evidence from other studies and related publications.

While the total population of the Zimbabwe Stock Exchange was made up of seventy nine (79) listed companies, a sample of forty nine (49) companies formed the study
population and forty nine questionnaires were sent out but only thirty one (31) were returned giving a response rate of sixty three per cent (63%).

**Link Between Approaches To Leadership And Leadership Practices**

This section analyses the evidence that demonstrates some link between the leadership theories (approaches) reviewed in the previous chapter and the practices reported by the leaders (CEOs) in the study.

**4.1 Bio-Data Analysis**

**4.1.1 Age of Respondents**

![Age Range of Respondents](image)

*Figure 4.1  Age Range of Respondents*

Of the total respondents, forty nine percent (49%) of the CEOs were between fifty one (51) and sixty (60) years, followed by forty seven percent (47%) which was
made up of CEOs aged between forty one (41) and fifty (50) years, and the remaining four percent (4%) comprised of CEOs aged between thirty one (31) and forty (40) years.

The majority of Chief Executive Officers (93%) were 41 years old and above supporting the assertion that practical wisdom gained through the experiential curve, politics, learning or otherwise lies in the concept of phronesis (HBR, 2011; 60). Phronesis is “a true and reasoned state of capacity to act with regard to the things that are good or bad for men”. Aristotle (HBR, 2011) identified two types of wisdom: esoteric or metaphysical wisdom, and practical wisdom. As highlighted in the literature, a common sense approach in African culture assumes that experience is the best teacher and that experience comes with age. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1977), the process of identifying maturity level is a function of time and experience on the part of the leader and it almost comes naturally. According to the cognitive resources theory (Fielder, 1986), experience is positively related to decisions quality in a high stress environments like the one obtaining in 2005 to 2010.
4.1.2 Professional Background

The majority of the CEOs (42%) had professional backgrounds as Chartered Accountants, 16% had no professional background, 13% had marketing background, 11% had a mining background, 9% had professional background in Banking and Finance, 5% had Human Resources background and the remaining 4% had professional insurance background.

The results on professional backgrounds support the propositions by the functional approach to leadership that the skills of leadership can be learnt, developed and perfected (Mullins, 2005:288). This view point is supported by Kotter (1990:103) who postulated that companies are proactive with respect to developing the requisite leadership skills. He succinctly summarized this as follows:

‘They actively seek out people with leadership potential and expose them to career experiences designed to develop that potential. Indeed, with careful selection,
nurturing and encouragement, dozens of people can play important leadership roles in a business organisation’ (Kotter, 1990:103).

The functional leadership theoretical propositions by Kotter (1990) above highlight to a great extent the ascendency of professionals in the field of Accountants and Finance.

The findings on both the age profiles and professional backgrounds support the propositions by the Situational Approach to leadership that places emphasis on the significance of the situation in the study of leadership. This is reinforced by Mullins (2005:294) who points out that:

‘A variety of people with differing personalities and from different backgrounds have emerged as effective leaders in different situations. ...The situational approach emphasizes the situation as the dominant feature in considering the characteristics of effective leadership’ (Mullins (2005:294).

In the case of the CEOs in this study, the operating environment was characterized by high inflation and shortages of products and services with emphasis on pricing to try and salvage value. A shortage economy needed a response to do with recouping value from depressed volumes in the shortest possible time. Fixed costs were spread over low volumes while workers demanded for pay rises so there was need for serious financial engineering hence the need for Finance or Accounting professionals.

Parent companies based overseas were not getting any value for money and in some cases had taken out Zimbabwean financials from group accounts and from a situational approach the major environmental challenge during the time of the study was finance as depicted by the hyper-inflationary situation. To address issues emanating from this, financial skills were required hence the bias towards people with finance or accounting backgrounds.
In many ways, the context in this case, the hyper-inflationary environment, significantly contributed to the ascendancy of Chief Executive Officers with financial or accounting backgrounds into leadership positions.

Similarly, the findings reflect to some extent aspects of the Path-Goal theory (House, 1971; House & Dessler, 1974) one of the Contingency or Situational theories on leadership. The Path-Goal Theory of Leadership postulates that an individual’s performance is affected by the extent to which the higher level manager (leader) satisfies the individual’s expectation. With respect to the findings, the CEOs were operating under extreme economic environmental conditions and managed to steer their organizations to sustainable operational levels as measured by the share prices of their respective companies. This highlights their implied ability to provide motivation to their subordinates through crafting and navigating paths that resulted in achievement of the stated goals.

4.1.3 Prior Job before becoming CEO at current organization

![Prior Job](image)

*Figure 4.3 Prior Job before becoming CEO at current organization*
The bulk of the respondents (24%) were Finance Directors prior to becoming CEOs, 20% were already CEOs elsewhere, 15% were Marketing Directors, another 15% were Managing Directors, 9% were General Managers with another 9% being Operations directors and the remaining 7% were Accountants.

The explanation to this is contextual in that the operating environment obtaining then and the parentage influenced the choice of CEOs. Most of the companies studied were foreign-owned and the parent companies were more concerned about cost containment in a highly inflationary environment and the need to remit something to the parent company through financial engineering bordering on transfer pricing gains and rapid price changes to meet the runaway inflation and use of other financial models to salvage some value for the parent company. This could be best done by staff with strong finance background hence the preponderance of finance people.

The decisions to exclude Zimbabwean financials from group accounts was made out of the realisation that the financials weighed down group profits and so affected the share prices. In any case, the figures were not transferable to hard currency and so meant nothing to the external investors. The parent companies, however, held onto their investments in the hope that things would change and in the interim, they appointed finance people to respond and tackle the environmental challenges obtaining then so as to keep the companies afloat. The market was characterized by shortages so other disciplines like marketing and sales did not matter much.

This further reflects the influence of the context in the types of leaders that were appointed and in this case it was those with financial backgrounds.
4.1.4 What best equipped the CEOs for their current Job

![Bar chart showing the percentage of respondents best equipped for their current job through various means.]

Of the total respondents, 46% were best equipped for the C.E.Os’ job through experience and training, 26% attributed it to on the job experience and the remaining 24% said that on the job training was the key. The remainder could not pinpoint exactly what best equipped them.

These research findings support the observations of Gonski then Chairman of the Australian Securities Exchange (HBR, 2001) who noted that;

“The best Chief Executives are those who have a mixture of the ability to see the big picture but at the same time not lose sight of the detail. If they can do both, it is a fabulous attribute. Good Chief Executive Officers do not glorify themselves, they are modest and realize they have to prove themselves each day, and also improve the company each day”(Collins, 2001:112).

Harkins and Swift (2009) identified capability as one of the eight principles that magnify leadership and stated that leadership takes great fortitude, development of
character and depth of capability. Breath of personal and professional experience and development is also helpful in preparing leaders for the challenges they face. They further state that leadership requires technical and emotional capabilities that need to be improved through maintenance of the momentum of learning and growing continuously.

According to the Harvard Business Review (2001) companies such as Johnson and Johnson, 3M, Hewlett Packard and General Electric, created many small units that were run by lower- level general management positions as ways to enhance on-the-job training and equip staff with the relevant experience.

In many ways this highlighted the advantages of individuals exposed to broader leadership roles. As reflected by the evidence in Figure 4.4 the majority of respondents (46%) reported that both experience and formal training were critical in their development.

This reflected in the study reported in the Harvard Business Review (2011) that:

“Sometimes these businesses develop additional challenging opportunities by stressing growth through new products or services. Over the years, 3M has had a policy that at least 25% of its revenue should come from products introduced within the last five years. That encourages small new ventures, which in turn offer hundreds of opportunities to test and stretch young people with leadership potential”.(Harvard Business Review 2011: 60).

Such practices can, almost by themselves, prepare people for small and medium-sized leadership jobs. But developing people for important leadership positions requires work on the part of senior executives, often over a long period of time.
That work begins with efforts to identify people with great leadership potential early in their careers and to outline what will be needed to stretch and develop them.

Such strategies of on-the-job training help create a corporate culture where people value strong leadership and strive to create it. Just as more people are required to provide leadership in complex organizations that dominate contemporary business world. In the process, people gain practical wisdom through the experiential curve, politics, and learning (Phronesis – Harvard Business Review 2011: 60).

4.1.5 Sectors served

![Always been in the Private Sector](image)

*Figure 4.5  Always been in the Private Sector*

The majority of the respondents (78%) have always been in the private sector with the remaining 22% having been in the Public Sector at one time.

This can be explained by the organizational cultures and corporate parenting postulated by Johnson and Scholes and Whittington (2005), where the mother companies induced a work culture and this became the way things were done in the organization with people exercising self-direction and self-control more like the
provisions of Theory Y set-up where the capacity to exercise high levels of imagination, ingenuity and creativity are widely distributed in the organization. On recruitment, companies were calling for people with private sector experience driven by the profit motive. Most public sector employees had a social service orientation and often found it difficult to fit into private companies hence the high number of CEOs who had always been in the private sector.

4.1.6 Growing within the Organization to become CEOs

![Growing within the Organization to become CEOs](image)

**Figure 4.6 Grow in the Organisation**

The study revealed that the majority (56%) of the CEOs did not rise within the organizations but came from elsewhere. The remaining 44% grew within the organizations that they were leading during the time of the study.

This draws parallels to the case of David Maxwell who was CEO of Fannie Mae in 1981; the company was losing $1 million every single business day. Over nine years, Maxwell transformed Fannie Mae into a high-performance culture that rivalled the best Wall Street firms. Maxwell retired at the top of his game feeling the company
would be ill served if he continued and he handed over to an equally capable successor (Collins, 2001).

According to Collins (2001) David Maxwell, a CEO, like other successful leaders exhibited a key trait of Level 5 leaders which is defined as:

"ambition first and foremost for the company and concern for its success rather than one’s own riches and personal renown. Level 5 leaders want to see the company become even more successful in the next generation" (Collins, 2001; 26).

The various companies studied in the book, exhibited a trend with most of the internal candidates being considered for promotion because of their background within the companies except a few where families with majority shareholding could appoint CEOs from outside. Grooming was a key factor as it ensured that appointees were well schooled in organizational values and norms. According to Collins (2001), leaders of effective companies had another commonality, they valued human resources and most of their staff had grown in the company and had spent time socializing into and internalizing the ideologies and values of the company. The managers were well-versed in organizational politics and had the core practices of their companies on their fingertips. Succession was well-spelt out and, more often than not, if a vacancy arose, it was almost obvious as to who was going to fill it. The best performing companies from diverse industries, in the study, followed a strict succession planning model and had very low staff turnover. The companies actually seconded staff to the parent company or regional offices before promotion to the C.E.O’s post thus placing emphasis on grooming, nurturing and inculcating incumbent managers with the required corporate culture and value systems.
4.1.7 Other Positions Held

The majority of the respondents (48%) had been Finance Directors, 39% had been General Managers, 9% had been Managing Directors and the remaining 4% had been Operations Directors.

While the wide distribution seems to confirm that there is no formulaic route to the Chief Executive Officer’s position. The preponderance of staff with a Finance background was influenced by the obtaining environment which was characterised by high inflation and the need to strictly manage finance in light of the rapid decline in the value of the local currency and the need to make the most of the cash flows since it was now a cash economy.
4.1.8 Most important Role of CEOs.

**Figure 4.8  Most Important Role of a CEO**

There was evidence, as shown by the majority (87%) of respondents, from the study that Strategic Management and Strategy is the most important role for the CEO. 9% were of the opinion that Performance Management was the most important whilst the remaining 4% believed that Motivation was the most important role.

There was also evidence from the oral interviews of a belief in God as the key source of inspiration (93%), respect for age and traditional values (85%). Socio-cultural considerations also came up to support the issue of age and traditional values. Another major issue was the issue of syncretic religion where respondents believed in both the traditional and Christian religion with some practising the Christian religion during the day and traditional religion by night. The most important issue, however, was the realisation that there was some spiritual guidance needed.

In the oral interviews, the Econet CEO spoke of the communal early morning prayers and encouragement for everyone to read the bible so as to associate with the Lord.
This, he said, was a great inspiration to him and other company executives hence the company continuously posted impressive results.

Kotter (1988) describes what leaders really do in terms of development of a bold vision, an intelligent workable strategy for implementing the vision, eliciting the cooperation and teamwork from a large network of essential people and relentlessly working to keep key people in the network motivated toward the vision.

Blake and Mouton (1985) and Mintzberg (1973) in their behavioural theories observed what effective and ineffective leaders actually do on the job and identified the roles an effective leader must fulfil as figurehead role, integrating the organization, liaison, monitoring, dissemination, spokesman, entrepreneur, resource allocator, disturbance handler and negotiator.

In many ways, this supports the propositions in the literature that leadership effectiveness comes from the capacity to communicate a vision through the process of management styles and to translating the vision into practicalities. Implementation might be based on the enterprise’s mission statement, organization culture and values, mechanisms of socialization, training and development or incentive systems, status and rewards (Harkins and Swift, 2009).

The lesson from Lou Gerstner of American Express cited in the case studies in chapter two show that to a great extent, a leader needs to encourage and facilitate the formulation of an organizational vision in which as many stakeholders as possible participate. Further, the leader must create an environment in which employees can accept and execute their responsibilities with confidence and finesse. The leader must communicate with his employees/ followers, imparting the company’s vision and listening to what they need to make that vision a reality. To
succeed, the leader must be a visionary, a strategist, an informer, a teacher and an inspirer.

This supports Hershey and Blanchard (1977)’s situational leadership theory that highlights the importance of the readiness level of the people the leader intends to influence. It also supports Kotter’s (1985) postulations on the differences between leaders and managers where managers are more task oriented and are concerned about procedures whereas leaders are concerned about societal good and development of a compelling vision.

From the oral interviews, it also came out that a vision, in leadership, is a state that is considered to be significantly more desirable than the current state. It is a state that cannot be approached without a fundamental change of direction, a change of the status quo and in some cases a redeployment of significant resources. It takes courage to lead such change and it involves instilling courage in others with a promise of a better state in the future. It involves more than persuasion; it requires inspiration which evokes a willingness to make sacrifices now in the pursuit of long term objectives or ideals. Leadership requires the ability to implement pursuit of a vision. Inspiration without implementation is provocation, not leadership. Implementation without inspiration is management or administration not leadership. It follows then that leadership must be both creative- to inspire and courageous to induce implementation. Courage stems from self-belief that the route taken will lead to the desired outcomes even in situations of criticism and objection.

An inspiring and courageous vision requires a mobilizing idea – an idea that need not appear to be easily realizable (Gasset, 1934).
4.1.9 Key Challenges faced by CEOs.

![Key Challenges Faced](image)

**Figure 4.9 Key Challenges faced by CEOs**

Of the total respondents, 46% felt that the Environmental Pressures were one of the biggest challenges faced, 22% believed that retention of staff was a major concern, 15% saw the growing of the business as the key challenge, 13% stated that cost control was a key challenge and the remaining 4% viewed the management of investor relations as a key challenge. This resonates with observations by Collins (2001) that the key to leadership is a placid persona that hides an inner intensity, a dedication to making everything succeed. Irrespective of one’s current station in life, those who display a compelling modesty, are self-effacing and infected with an incurable need to produce sustained results through workman like diligence can end up in the C.E.O’s office.
4.1.10 How CEOs view their Subordinates

![Bar Chart: View on Subordinates]

The majority of the CEOs (41%) believed that their subordinates were participative, 39% felt that they were both participative and hardworking and the remaining 20% viewed them as hardworking only. None of the CEOs viewed their subordinates as people who wait for the CEO to make all the decisions. The major deductions from these observations bring us back to the theory on participative and transformational leadership. Transformational leadership enhances the motivation, morale and performance of followers through connection to followers’ sense of identity, mission and collective identity of the organization (Bass and Avolio, 1994). Transformational leaders challenge followers to take greater ownership of their work, and understand the strengths and weaknesses of followers so as to be able to align followers with tasks that optimize their performance. Bass and Avolio (1994) focussed on connections that are formed between leaders and followers and they state that
leaders motivate and inspire by helping group members to see the importance and higher societal good of tasks through their assumptions and perceptions of subordinates. Tannenbaum and Schimdt, (1973) stated that leaders encourage contributions and participation from group members if they are to succeed and the statistics on the views about subordinates seem to support this observation. Hicks B. Waldron, chairman of Avon Products Inc. pointed out that;

“We have 40 000 employees and 1.3 million representatives around the world…. We have a number of suppliers, institutions, customers, communities. None of them have the same democratic freedom as shareholders do to buy or sell their shares. They have much deeper and much more important stakes in our company than our shareholders” (Collins, 2001:118)

The essence of this quotation by Waldron points to the value that he placed on subordinates and it follows that with this kind of assessment, Waldron’s practices valued followers leading to excellent performance derived from the feeling of recognition that followers enjoyed. According to Hofstede (1980) in countries with higher power distance, employees are afraid to express their doubts and disagreements with the boss who tend to be autocratic and paternalistic. If any disagreements are there, they tend to be expressed privately and this tends to make the leadership process difficult.

For the companies studied, there was evidence that the theory propounded by Hofstede (1980) on cross-cultural values and power distance (strength of social hierarchy) was prevalent and organizations were highly regimented especially where the managers were from a different race because of cross-cultural factors. The conclusion that can be drawn here is that for effective leadership to manifest, the influence process must be guided by cultural considerations on power distance.
4.1.11 How CEOs address Failure

![Addressing Failure](image)

**Figure 4.11** Addressing Failure

Seventy one per cent (71%) of the respondents used the phrase “we have failed because…” when addressing failure, 22% used the phrase “i have failed because…” when addressing failure and the remaining 7% used the phrase “the company has failed because…”

Leadership is about taking responsibility and from the findings; CEOs who took responsibility by attributing failure to them were quick to recover in that there was no time to look for scapegoats but to quickly correct what had gone wrong.

This scenario shows a lack of compelling modesty and lack of team spirit, as observed by Collins, (2001) in his “Window and the Mirror” scenario where;

“Level 5 leaders look out the window to apportion credit to factors outside themselves when things go well (and if they cannot find a specific person or event to give credit to, they credit good luck). At the same time, they look in the mirror to apportion responsibility, never blaming bad luck when things go poorly.” (Collins, 2001:35).
This is in contrast with what came out of the research findings; where the majority of CEOs attributed success to the group rather than themselves. A number of the leaders wanted to take credit although they camouflaged it with “we” but as the conversation went on, their I-centric nature came out. The only instance where credit was given to someone else without reservation was when they attributed their success to GOD and this happened more often. If anything, they attributed substantial blame to the work of the devil or bad luck, again not wanting to take responsibility for their actions.

4.1.12 Addressing Success

Eighty seven per cent (87%) of the respondents used the phrase “we have succeeded because…” when addressing success and the remaining 13% used the phrase “the company has succeeded because…” These statements give credit to the whole team and according to Kouzes and Pousner (2006) this is encouraging the heart. This recognition encourages repeat performance and brings some ego into
followers’ performance as they know their work will be recognized. As noted by Collins (2001):

“Level 5 leaders channel their ego needs away from themselves and into the larger goal of building a great company. It is not that level 5 leaders have an ego or self-interest. Indeed, they are incredibly ambitious – but their ambition is first and foremost for the institution, not themselves.” (Collins, 2001; 21).

The issue of addressing success for effective leaders is well illustrated thus;

“Level 5 leaders look out the window to apportion credit to factors outside themselves when things go well (and if they cannot find a specific person or event to give credit to, they credit good luck). At the same time, they look in the mirror to apportion responsibility, never blaming bad luck when things go poorly.”(Collins, 2001; 35.)

As stated earlier, leadership is about taking responsibility while at the same time recognition has to be given to all team members so that team spirit is enhanced. Where there is team spirit, tasks are made easier and results are achieved with more ease and faster.
4.1.13 Who is consulted in Decision Making

Of the total respondents, 52% of the CEOs consulted senior managers before making decisions, the remaining 48% consulted both senior and junior managers and workers' representatives when making decisions.

Vroom and Yetton (1973) in their Contingency model, refined the situational approach to come up with a model based on the assumption that situational variables interacting with personal attributes or characteristics of the leader result in leader behaviour that can affect organizational effectiveness. The Leader’s possible behaviours are contingent upon the interaction between the subordinates and the leader’s assessment of the situation in developing a response or making the decision to consult. Vroom and Yetton (1973) differentiated the leadership styles as follows;

A1 where the leader solves the problem or makes the decision on his own using available information at the time (Hersey, 2001)
A11 The leader obtains the necessary information from followers and then decides on the solution to the problem by himself. Here, the role of the follower is to provide information rather than generating or evaluating alternatives.

C1 The leader shares the problem with relevant followers individually and gets Ideas and suggestions without getting them together as a group. The decision made by the leader may or may not reflect the followers’ influence.

G11 The leader shares a problem with followers as a group and together they generate and evaluate alternatives and attempt to reach a consensus solution. The leader’s role in this instance is more like a chairperson and does not influence the group to adopt a particular solution.

These five methods are relevant and were observed in the study. They include two authoritarian processes (A1 and A11), two consultative processes (C1 and C11) and joint decision making (G11) as espoused by House and Aditya (1997). The results of the research indicated that there was an almost equal measure of consultation and non-consultation and this again lends credence to the situational approach as influenced by the operating environment and calibre or characteristics of subordinates. It also buttresses the fact that actions of a leader are contingent on different variables and a certain aspect of fluidity must be applied depending on various factors. Hersey and Blanchard (1977) and the Managerial Grid (Blake and Mouton, 1964) are quite evident in support of the work by House and Aditya (1997) on the contingency or situational leadership theory.
4.1.14 Do you have to justify your decisions

Figure 4.14  Justifications of Decisions

Forty six per cent (46%) of the CEOs did not justify their decisions after making them, 41% did justify their decisions and the remaining 13% sometimes justified their decisions. This can be explained by the power distance espoused in Hofstede’s (2010) theory on cultural dimensions which describes the effects of a society’s culture on the value of its members, and how these relate to behaviour. The Zimbabwean society is culturally a high power distance one and by virtue of workers believing that power is unfairly distributed they tend not to demand certain of their rights that allow for a more democratic organization. The workers who are less powerful in this case accept power relations that are more autocratic and paternalistic. The subordinates accept the power of others simply based on where they are situated in the formal hierarchical positions.

As can be seen from the numbers, forty six percent (46%) did not justify their decisions while the forty one percent (41%). From the oral interviews it came out that the CEOs who did not consult had assumptions about their subordinates with
regards to their understanding of the work processes or level of comprehension of
the subject matter. In some cases the C.E.Os felt there was no time for consultations
given the urgency of the decision? For those who consulted, some did it for political
reasons as they believed that followers were not in a position to contribute positively
but had to do it so as to be politically correct during the study period, 1998 to 2008,
which was tense especially across the racial divide.

One interesting observation in the study to buttress this point was the size of offices
and the cars driven by CEOs. There was no questioning which office belonged to the
CEO as it was exquisitely furnished and equipped with the latest gadgets like flat
screen TVs, a very large desk, a refrigerator and beautiful leather sofas. This was
the case in over ninety per cent of the companies visited. It resembled a home away
from home. In the car park, the CEO’s vehicle was conspicuous by its sheer size and
beauty. This shows the power distance factors of leadership exercised in an African
context.

Other issues that came up from oral interviews include;

- All CEOs spoke of good relations with staff and other stakeholders as a key to
  success but this was qualified in about 50% of the responses with the words
  “right staff”.
- Belief in spiritual guidance also emerged as a strong point with one company
  CEO stating that they had early morning communal meetings and a prayer at
  the start of any meetings.
- Tolerance of mistakes was a virtue among the CEOs although 22% spoke
  about assessing who did the mistake because they thought certain staff did
deliberate mistakes to test management. One interesting point was that the two lady CEOs in the study spoke of having fired staff for mistakes.

- On reliance on staff and systems, the answers were 100% on both and this can be linked to the backgrounds of most of the CEOs who had financial backgrounds and so wanted systems followed to safeguard company assets.
- Leadership according to the CEOs interviewed was brought down to management of stakeholders and creation of a vision for the company.
- Without doubt, all CEOs were impressed with the path taken by Strive Masiyiwa on the Zimbabwean corporate scene especially his persistence on seeing through his vision in spite of the road blocks that confronted him.
- The period 2005 to 2010 was described by most CEOs as trying and it also called for leadership at a higher level especially as regards the price controls and harassment of business by the state. There were also incidences of junior staff wielding political power from their positions in the community were some were Chairpersons of cells and branches and these were both an impediment to leadership or a conduit to powerful people and so leaders had to act with this in mind.
- From a cultural point, CEOs pointed to the obtaining economic environment leading to a lot of older people in the workplace making it difficult to effectively discipline older folk. This was a debatable point but it was raised.
- On tackling of issues, CEOs spoke of a sixth sense, a voice that often told them what was right and what was wrong. All of them highlighted that in over 90% of the time that voice was right. On further probe, most then attributed this voice to experience or guidance from God. From literature, however, this can be linked to the fundamental state.
These answers to oral interviews were a confirmation to what was on the questionnaires although the researcher was able to get more detail which was used in analysing the answers and link to literature. A point not in the questionnaire but which continued to be repeated in responses was the need for political leaders to sort out the politics and let business do its work. This is a confirmation of how context was influencing performance and how it had to be addressed or responded to for companies to move forward.

4.3. Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the study findings. In many ways the research findings supported the contingency theories on leadership. In particular, the majority of CEOs had financial or accounting backgrounds which propelled them into leadership positions.

Overall, the leadership practices evident in the study supported the contingent theories as the appointment of CEOs and predominant practices were influenced by the economic environment and the nature of subordinates. The other environmental factors to influence leadership were with regards to how they perceive the subordinates and the influence of the controlling shareholders.
CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, FINDINGS, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0. THESIS/RESEARCH SUMMARY
This chapter discusses the findings and conclusions of the study and makes recommendations for current and future leadership practitioners and researchers on the application of leadership theories.

5.1 FINDINGS
The central research question was to investigate the application of leadership theories by CEOs of Zimbabwe Stock Exchange listed companies. Overall, the study conclusion was that the Anglo Saxon theories especially the contingency theories that posit that there is no single style of leadership appropriate to all situations were confirmed by the study findings. In particular, Fielder’s Theory (1967) that postulates that the success of leadership depends on the favourability of the leadership situation was confirmed in this study. The study also concluded that there are levels of leadership with the preferred one being the one that takes a leader beyond “enough” and creates sustainable meaning and purpose. The study further established that Unconditional Leadership is both transformational and sustainable as it is not about the leader’s personal goals but purpose and organization wide goals. The issue of purpose was also linked to the African spirit of communalism and Ubuntu which speak of societal good before individual good. The issue of culture and gender was also found to have an influence on leadership especially as it relates to stereotypes and certain norms that tend to limit the ascendancy of women to leadership positions and the role of age in leader-subordinate relations.

In many ways, the economic situation prevalent in Zimbabwe, when the study was carried out (2005 to 2010), favoured those leaders who had a solid grasp of the
organisations’ financial operations and finance in general. This is supported by the evidence in the study of 42% of Chief Executive Officers who had financial or accounting backgrounds. This links in well with the major environmental variable at the time of the study (2005 to 2010) which was characterized by an unstable hyper-inflationary economic environment. In application of the contingency theory, shareholders responded to this variable by appointing people with finance backgrounds to CEO positions.

The following discussions now link the research questions to the literature in order to draw clearer conclusions to the study.

5.1.1 The link between leadership theories developed in the western world and leadership practices of CeOs in Zimbabwe

From the literature and the responses to the questionnaires, oral interviews and observations, it is quite clear that those Chief Executive Officers who operated during the period under review (2005 to 2010) exercised leadership practices supported by the Contingency/ Situational model leaning on the Human Resources framework. The context of the operational environment was characterized by rapid changes that called for adaptation and operating outside the box. Situational or Contingency theories e.g. Fiedler, (1967), Hershey and Blanchard, (1993), Vroom and Yetton, (1973) pay special attention to contextual issues like the nature of the work to be performed by the leader’s unit, individual characteristics of the followers and the nature of the external environment. This group of theories views leadership as contingent to a situation in which it is exercised. Flexibility is built into this model and no specific style is determined as a be all and end all. There was evidence of use of the four Hershey and Blanchard (1993) leadership styles of directing, managing, coaching and delegating depending on the situation.
The leaders’ behaviours were contingent to the situation which was characterized by high inflation, brain drain and strict government controls on prices and labour compensation. The leaders, in such cases, had to make quick decisions on whether to consult or dictate. As experienced staff left organizations in Zimbabwe, the relationship between people and task orientation tilted more to the accomplishment of the task rather than relationships and this applied in most situations during the period under review. Consultations were limited because of the rapid changes in the environment brought about by inflation so decisions had to be made quickly.

The issue of high power distance also influenced the actions of leaders because the nature of subordinates who remained as the more sophisticated and experienced left for the diaspora meant the characteristics of the subordinates allowed for leaders to concentrate on task behaviour. In professional companies, like the telecommunications companies, where compensation was reasonable, professionals remained and to interact with them, the leader exercised more relational behaviour but again this was only exercised to a limited extent.

5.1.2 Similarities And Differences Between Theory And Leadership Practices

5.1.2.1 SIMILARITIES

Vroom and Yetton (1973) in their contingency model, refined the situational approach to come up with a model based on the assumption that situational variables interacting with personal attributes or characteristics of the leader result in leader behaviour that can affect organizational effectiveness. The leader’s possible behaviours are contingent upon the interaction between the questions to be answered and the leader’s assessment of the situation in developing a response or making a decision.
The contingent variables, in this study, were the hyper inflationary environment and unstable economic environment that required leaders with a financial bias. The study findings, to a great extent, support Fiedler’s (1967) theory that there is no single best way for managers to lead. Similarly evidence of the postulations by Tannenbaum and Schmidt’s (1973) leadership continuum were observed as the Chief Executive Officers reported the need to vary leadership styles depending on the situation. Politics was also a major consideration in leadership as leaders did not want to be alienated to the politicians and so had to take decisions with the political set up in mind.

Hofstede’s (1980) theory on the influence of national culture on power distance was also supported in the study as style was again influenced by what leaders perceived of their subordinates thereby acting in a particular manner. In this case the peculiar situation was the subordinate characteristics as supported by Hershey and Blanchard’s (1993) theory on contingent factors of followers’ readiness in the success or failure of leadership practices. Africans’ respect for hierarchy and acceptance of differences with management were clear in the study.

5.1.2.2 DIFFERENCES

5.1.2.1 The Rationale For The Similarities And Differences Between Theory And Practice

In analysing the theories put forward and their application in attaining desired results, the researcher examined real life case studies that pointed to some supporting evidence demonstrating results attainable through leadership practices directed by the environment and subordinate characteristics. Research evidence on leadership practices in Africa and Zimbabwe was undertaken and this supported the need to interrogate the efficacy and relevance of theories to the African context. Harvey,
Carter and Mudimu (2000) compared relevant work values and beliefs between Western and African countries and concluded that, indeed, African values were different from other country groupings. Similarly, Lamb (1990) highlighted the importance of courtesy and respect in social interactions, social approval, group orientation, position prestige, tribal loyalty, and obedience to elders and the law in Africa.

Servant leadership, a practical philosophy which supports people who choose to serve first and then lead as a way of expanding service to individuals and institutions, was confirmed and demonstrated like in the Lbgo community. In the African scenario, this can be likened to Ubuntu philosophy which is at the centre of the African rennaisance. The context of leadership practices was demonstrated by the highlighted cases of individual leaders who did well like Jan Carlzon of Scandinavian Airlines System (SAS), Hicks B. Waldron, Chairman of Avon Products Inc., Robert Milner, Chief Executive Partner of Mallesns Stephen Jacques, Richard Nicolosi of Proctor and Gamble and many others (HBR, 2001). Their practices of valuing people and the community were in some way supportive of Mbigi’s (2005) concept of ‘Ubuntu’.

Corporations that did a better-than-average job put an emphasis on creating challenging opportunities for relatively young executives. Evidence from research on American companies such as Johnson and Johnson, 3M, Hewlett-Packard, and General Electric supports the role of leadership theories in moving companies from one level to another sustainable level. The only problem was relevance of the set up to Zimbabwean companies given that all studies were conducted in the Western World and there are very few documented studies of Zimbabwean Companies. The paradox of the Zimbabwean situation is that of parentage, where most of the studied
corporations had European/Western parentage and most of the practices could have been modelled in the parent country and just foisted on the leadership of the host country without consideration to the prevalent culture, traditions and values. The study did not find any stark contradictions thereby confirming that the underlying differences were more in the detail than the principles.

Despite the contextual variables, the theories outlined in the literature review and in particular the contingency or situational approach approximates what the study found among the leadership of Zimbabwean Stock Exchange listed companies that were studied in the situation obtaining at the time of the study (2005 to 2010).

5.1.3 The Role Of The Environment On Leadership Practices

According to Kirk and Bolden, (2002) leadership development is from experience and internalization of prescribed models or principles. By having an opportunity to go through a reflective process of personal enquiry, of working out their own meanings of leadership from experience in their different life roles, people develop an enduring sense of personal identity as leaders. This involves becoming aware of the wider body of thinking about leadership such as the principles, passions and assumptions of leadership.

In the study, prior professional background equipped individuals with relevant skills to tackle managerial challenges especially those to do with financial matters as it was the key deliverable during the period the study was undertaken.

To what extent leadership theory is context specific is a moot point and as long as the economy formed one of the key variables, it invariably had an influence on leadership practices under the Situational or Contingency approach. The concept of "fit" means that to avoid working at cross-purposes with the economy, leadership
practices had to bring equifinality between the two elements. The basic argument emerging in the study is that as the economy was characterized by instability and hyperinflation, leadership practices could not be divorced from this reality as failure would have been the only option. This clearly shows the key role of the environment in influencing leadership practices further justifying the embeddedness of leadership practices in the culture, economic, technological and social environs and relations of the respective society.

5.1.4 The Influence Of National Culture On Leadership Practices

Lutz (2009), states that one of the most striking features of sub-Saharan cultures is their non-individualistic nature. Community is the cornerstone of African thought and life (Mbigi, 2005). The individual pursues his or her own good through pursuing the common good. The ethics of a true community does not ask persons to sacrifice their own good in order to promote the good of others but instead invites them to recognize that they can attain their own true good only by promoting the good of others. In Southern Africa, the traditional understanding that one is truly human only as a member of a community is expressed in terms of ‘Ubuntu’, which is the foundation and edifice of African philosophy (Mbigi, 2005).

In recent years, there has been a call for an African renaissance, whereby Africans are urged to be true to themselves (Louw, 2002), to liberate themselves from colonial and post-colonial thinking and to re-engage with African values (Koka, 1997; Mbigi, 2000). Leadership is thus seen as a catalyst for social change and transformation but only where it is deeply rooted in African concepts of identity and community (Mbigi and Maree, 1995; Olojede, 2005; Prinsloo, 2000).
It is well documented that cultural differences greatly influence social values and behaviours and thus habitual, desirable and effective forms of leadership (House et al, 2004; Hofstede, 2001; Trompernaars, 1993). It thus follows that culture plays a key role in leadership practices within a specific social context. According to Gbadamosi (2003) Western management concepts have not shown how culture might be taken into account in managerial practice and only until then will American and European theory become useful in Africa. Jones (1986), Lamb (1990) and Thornton et al (1997) and Munro (1986) intimated that African values expressed in culture influence leadership practices among African leaders especially issues to do with power distance and relating to elders. The need to further explore this area cannot be over emphasised but common ground has been reached and it emphasises the need to exercise leadership in the context of national culture.

5.2 Discussion
African leadership practices are not isolated from the rest of the world but there is a general need for Africans to be true to themselves by exercising leadership with the full knowledge that leadership is contextual and can only be best practised through an African renaissance. Africans are urged to liberate themselves from colonial and post-colonial thinking and to re-engage with African values (Koka, 1997; Mbigi, 2000) so that they exercise leadership that is rooted in African concepts of identity and community (Mbigi and Maree, 1995; Olojede, 2005; Prinsloo, 2000).

It is well documented that cultural differences, socialisation and stereotypes greatly influence social values and behaviours and thus habitual, desirable and effective forms of leadership (House et al, 2004; Hofstede, 2001; Trompernaars, 1993). Trying to separate an African leader from the spirit of communalism and *Ubuntu* yields
negative results in as far as leadership or management practice is concerned. The
same applies to outsiders who want to exercise leadership in Africa; they have to be
fully cognisant of the cultural and environmental variables in their exercise of
leadership.

It thus follows that while leadership theories are universal; they have to be adapted
to the operating environment pragmatically in order to achieve the best results.

5.3 Conclusion

The conclusion of this study was that while leadership theories are universal, the
uncritical acceptance of Western values, as if everyone holds those values, will not
yield the best results. Good leadership practices should reflect and recognise cultural
and other environmental differences as well as similarities and should therefore vary
in many ways between countries. This pragmatic adaptation is what sets leaders
apart.

While it is generally agreed that some Western World principles, with regards to work
and leadership, do not compare favourably with the African set up, a study by Lutz
(2009) argued that in this age of globalization, there is a need for a theory of global
management consistent with the common human nature. This theory is not anything
new but an adaptation of current theories to the operating environments. This is
especially so given that leadership has been exercised and analysed elsewhere so
what is just needed is adaptation to different environments. While Mudimu (2008)
asserts that theories that were created within and for individualistic cultures, like the
North American society, cannot operate within communal cultures like those found in
Africa, the study by Lutz (2008) brings out two schools of thought, about African
leadership practice, which both point to Africa being part of the global village and so
has to conform to the general and tested leadership principles of democracy like everywhere else. This allows Africa to compete and so join other advancing societies in the world. The fact that Africa needs the world more that the world needs Africa means that the need for markets and technology by Africans is key to its development. The evolving school of thought that highlights that leadership theory is generic means that African leaders have to be alert to peculiarities of their communities and so apply leadership theory in context. These two viewpoints are important in coming up with a solution to Africa’s developmental shortfall especially given that leadership has been identified as the missing link. The challenge, therefore, is the pragmatic adaptation of the generic leadership theories to suit African conditions which are characterised by low productivity. This adaptation does not call for something new to the African Philosophy for it is grounded on communal principles. African society is regarded as an organization, a community, a group with shared values, not a collection of individuals, aimed at promoting the common good.

The study further concludes that research in Africa takes the view that although the leadership concepts are the same; the underlying factors like power distance, masculinity and femininity, and uncertainty avoidance differ between North America and Africa. This then brings in the issue of leadership theory application and context in Africa. Application of practices will differ from North America because of contextual implications and connotations. From this study, it can thus be concluded that, in principle, the American and European leadership theories are relevant in an African set up as long as they are applied with due regard to the cultural norms and values like power distance and the concept of Ubuntu.

The contingency or situational theories were proven to be applicable and flexible enough to apply in different situations at different times because the leader’s
possible behaviours are contingent upon the interaction between the questions and the leader’s assessment of the situation in developing a response to those questions. The contingency model also empowers the leader in ways that other models do not because the leader makes decisions using information available to him at the time. The contingency model achieves results when exercised unconditionally as unconditional leadership is both transformational and sustainable especially when exercised from the fundamental state.

The contingency group of theories also pay special attention to contextual issues like the nature of the work to be performed by the leader’s unit, the individual characteristics of the followers, or the nature of the external environment. In the study, the biggest and most influencing contextual issue for the period 2005 to 2010 was the operating financial environment which led to specific responses. The contingency approach sees leadership as specific to a situation in which it is being exercised. Another conclusion is that that there are elements of African culture that promote unique and positive leadership behaviours (Jackson, 2004). Understanding this complexity is important to the success of any leadership development initiatives on the continent and it should be informed by further research which has been identified as currently lacking. The key to leadership theory application in Zimbabwe, therefore, lies in researchers coming up with the pros and cons of culture on leadership in Africa and developing a pragmatic adaptation to already established theories.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS
5.4.1 To Zimbabwean Business Leaders and the business world in general;

- Although there are no hard and fast rules on leadership practices, it has been established that leadership is contextual and situational. Some key
considerations, however, are that subordinates need to be appreciated and informed about the leader’s vision. Leaders should desist from apportioning blame when things go wrong but look at ways of getting things back on track.

- Leaders should always look at the bigger picture, starting with the goal in mind and striving for service to others as in doing so they realize their own goals.

- As the world is now becoming a "global village", continuous learning and appreciation of different cultures keeps leaders abreast of the requirements for success in different settings.

- Leaders must always engage in creative persistence to ensure that they are striving for higher goals and competitive practices that ensure that they are steps ahead.

- Leaders need to practice the order of life and success which puts GOD first, society or others second and self as the third component. For those who do not believe in GOD, the order is also not very different as it places the corporate first, society and others second and “self” last. What links these together is service to others or the community which is the essence of leadership.

The major attribute a leader can have and exercise is psychological capital or emotional intelligence which is the ability to know and understand oneself, acknowledge strengths and weaknesses in order to know one’s limitations so that they are addressed. Knowing oneself is also critical in so far as knowing one’s key characteristics and how they impact others in group dynamics. It is
correct to state that no leader would have all the attributes required for success and this is why continuous learning is necessary in leadership especially now that we live in a global village and competition comes from every angle. A never ending cycle of continuous self-improvement is essential for every effective Chief Executive Officer and even subordinates.

It is also a virtue for a leader to surround himself or herself with people who might be smarter than him/her and give these people the leeway to innovate, through the leader stepping aside and allowing them do the work and in the process prepare them for future leadership roles. This will work if the leader allows errors but only in the sense that they present learning opportunities and once encountered, the error is not repeated but enhances learning. This, however, is not to say a leader must not balance consensus within the executive team with the speed and execution that might be required to get things done. In some cases the leader might not allow learning if it works against set targets but as a general rule, an “invented here” philosophy must be encouraged and this must be supported by investment in training. This is why certain corporations like Delta Corporation (Zimbabwe) have fed the corporate world with well trained and qualified staff but they themselves never seem to run out of trained staff. This is so because leaders in these corporations recognize Darwin’s theory that when you stop learning, you stop developing and finally stop growing. Investment in training at this corporation is not seen as a waste of resources and the company boasts of state of the art training facilities to continuously improve staff competencies. The adage that staff is the most critical resource is not lost in all this but is qualified to say that the right staff is the most critical resource so good
leaders get the right people in positions in the first place and are not influenced by politics or any other considerations.

A leader has to accept diversity by feeling comfortable with employees from a different background, race or ethnicity. The leader needs to exercise employment level flexibility through contracting out work more freely and outsourcing so as to make employment levels more fluid and adjustable in response to market variables and so make labour costs more variable and gain the power of rapid rightsizing when the need arises.

Procedural justice is one key requirement and procedures that are used to make decisions within an organization have to be fair to the extent that they are consistent across personas over time, correctable and based on prevailing ethical and moral standards. This is attained through providing individuals and groups with the capacity to be heard, a way to communicate their interests upwards and a voice system that sustains employee loyalty.

As a leader, perhaps the most critical factor to success is the elimination of self-doubt. Leaders should never view themselves as inferior or charlatans who believe that others are smarter and more capable than them. The constant fear of exposure retards movement and invariably leads to non-performance.

As a general rule, leaders need to implement succession planning, reload goals so that they are not attainable by a business as usual approach, know their team, challenge challenges, share a vision, adopt the soft tissue approach; quickly sort our problems before they get big or out of hand.
Leaders also need to attend to politics as this will never sort itself. They need to build strong relationships with all stakeholders as relationships are critical no matter how good or qualified a leader might be. Leaders need to address the spiritual function through trusting in God and attend to the four dimensions of human nature (mind, body, heart and soul) for self and subordinates.

Perhaps above all, leaders should tolerate mistakes, give workers an opportunity to learn and finally be of service to others as it is both biblical and managerial; show a genuine interest in other people by saying little about yourself when in the presence of others, have a good sense of humour, it makes leaders approachable and in the process they get a lot of interaction with lower level employees who have a lot to contribute to the well-being of an organization.

5.4.2 Recommendations to Future Researchers

The major constraint in this research was availability of data on African leadership in relation to established leadership theories but this study helped to link the Western and Eurocentric studies to obtaining leadership practices. The study also linked current practices to obtaining literature and to some extent proved that in general, leadership is global and the general concepts can be applied even in Africa as long as the idiosyncrasies are attended to.

Future researchers would thus be urged to;

- Conduct research in Africa in order to develop/build literature that is specific to the African continent building on what has already been developed elsewhere. This should involve the development of African and Zimbabwean case studies in line with the community spirit of Africans. This is necessary because according to Gbadamosi (2003) Western management concepts have not
shown how culture might be taken into account in managerial practice. Jones (1986) and Lamb (1990) also intimated that African values influence leadership practices among different African groupings in the East and West African settings and it is necessary to explore this further.

- Use mixed methodologies to unravel what lies in the core of African values and cultures and how that might influence leadership practices. This might mean engaging in longitudinal studies where leaders are followed up over a longer period of time to determine consistency and sustainability of their specific practices over time and possibly across companies that they work for and across different environments.

- Carry out broad cross-sectional studies that cover Non-Stock Exchange Listed Companies and State Owned Enterprises and Parastatals some of whom seem to be dragging the whole economy behind and make recommendations on leadership practices that enhance value and productivity. For Parastatals, this can still be attained whilst still serving the Universal Service function and facilitating development in a developmental state like Zimbabwe.

- Track movements of Executives to determine the influence of parentage of the companies they work for and establish if this has any influence on leadership practices.

- The influence of culture and values on leadership practices in a Zimbabwean set up devoid of western influences and the issue of parentage. To attain this, there might be need for comparative studies of companies on the basis of parentage, leader age, professional backgrounds and leader origin i.e.
whether the leader moved from e.g. international company to a local company, State-owned company to a private company or vice versa.

The major challenge with this research was the issue of the environment that was obtaining during the time (2005 to 2010). These were not normal times as respondents often stated that what was obtaining was no different from a country at war. Practices then were more like fire-fighting. This then brought the issue of what theories would obtain in a normal environment. Countries are not always at war and, more often than not, leaders operate in dynamic and stable environments and it would be very interesting to see how the research findings turn out in a normal or near normal environment.

However, the contingency theory allows for flexibility and application can still be adapted to suit a stable environment. Overall, this study represents a starting point for future studies on the applicability of leadership theories developed in the Anglo Saxon world and how they can be adapted to take care of African peculiarities like culture and social values so that the African Continent in general and Zimbabwe in particular moves forward in unison with the rest of the world.

5.5 Chapter Summary
This chapter reinforces the conclusion from literature that indeed American developed leadership theories are applicable in Africa but only to the extent that they are applied with special references to African Idiosyncrasies with relation to culture and the operating environment. Good leadership practices should reflect cultural differences as well as similarities and should therefore vary in many ways between countries. The chapter also highlights that leadership theory is generic but African
leaders have to be alert to peculiarities of their communities and so apply leadership theory in context.

The study further recommends practices that can help African leaders while proposing further studies since it has been established that leadership studies on Africa are sparse.
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Appendix A

15 Cannock Road
Mt Pleasant
Harare

15 December 2010

Dear Sir

REQUEST FOR AN INTERVIEW AND COMPLETION OF QUESTIONNAIRES

I am currently undertaking a Doctoral Study on Leadership with the Zimbabwe Open University and my thesis title is "Leadership Theories; An investigation into the application of leadership theories among Chief Executive Officers of Zimbabwe Stock Exchange Listed Companies".

This is a part-time study, as I am in full time employment as Managing Director of Zimbabwe Posts Pvt Ltd.

As part of the study, I have identified several companies based on their performance as measured by share prices on the Zimbabwe Stock Exchange. As you are a Chief Executive Officer of one of the companies identified, I am kindly requesting the following:

(a) Completion of the attached questionnaire.

(b) Allow me to conduct a face-to-face interview with yourself at a date and time convenient to you after completion of (a).
Your responses will be treated in the strictest of confidence and will only be used for purposes of this study only. An anonymous summary of findings from the study can, however, be sent to you for your information if you so require.

For further clarification, please do not hesitate to contact me on 263-4-751378 or 0772 565 339 or 0712 804 840.

Yours faithfully

Douglas Zimbango
Appendix B

Survey of Leadership Practices of Chief Executive Officers of Zimbabwe Stock Exchange Listed Companies

I am a Zimbabwe Open University Doctor of Philosophy candidate and I will be interviewing you as part of a group of Chief Executive Officers of Zimbabwean Stock Exchange and listed Companies. No identifying details will be included in the final results of my thesis. I am interested in investigating the application of leadership theories among Chief Executive Officers of Zimbabwe Stock Exchange listed companies.

1. **Your Age Group**

   - [ ] 20 – 30 years
   - [ ] 31 – 40 years
   - [ ] 41 – 50 years
   - [ ] 51 – 60 years
   - [ ] 60+ years

2. **CEO Qualifications**

   (a) What is your highest Educational qualification.

   - [ ] PhD
   - [ ] Masters Degree
   - [ ] First Degree
   - [ ] Professional qualification
Secondary Education
Other (state)

(b) What is your professional background?
- Accountancy
- Marketing
- Management
- Engineering
- Information Technology
Other
(specify)...........................................................................................................................................

3. What best Equipped you for your current job?
- On the job training
- On the job experience
- Experience and training

4. Employment history
(a) Have you always been in the Private Sector
- Yes
- No

(b) Have you always been in this organisation?
- Yes
- No

(c) What was your job before this one?
..........................................................................................................................................................
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5. CEO- Staff relationship.
(a) Do you regularly consult your staff in decision making?
- YES
(b) Do you have to justify the decisions you make to subordinates?

- YES ALWAYS
- YES, SOMETIMES
- NO

6. SOURCE OF INSPIRATION

Where do you derive your job inspiration from?

- [ ]
- [ ]
- [ ]
- [ ]

7. POLITICAL INFLUENCE ON CEO AND COMPANY

(a) How do you rate political influence?

- Nil
- Minimal
- Disruptive

8. Role of the Chief Executive Officer

What are the five most important things you do in your role as Chief Executive Officer?

- Executive Officer?
- Vision development
- Growing the business
- Cost Control
- Stake holder/ investor management
- Environmental Management
9. **Characteristics of successful CEOs**

(a) How do you View your subordinates?
- [ ] Participative
- [ ] Hardworking
- [ ] Just wait for CEO
- [ ] Participative and Hardworking

(b) How do you address company success?
- [ ] We have succeeded
- [ ] The company has succeeded
- [ ] I have succeeded

(c) How do you take errors by your subordinates?
- [ ] A learning experience
- [ ] An Invitation for discipline
- [ ] Tolerable only once

(d) Which of the listed characteristics, in your view, characterise an effective leader?
- [ ] Building enduring greatness through personal humility, greatness and professional will
- [ ] Commitment, pursuit of a clear and compelling vision and high performance standards
- [ ] Organizing resources and people for attaining objectives
- [ ] Contributing individual capacity to the team
- [ ] Showing great skill in problem solving

10. **Assessment of years 2005 to 2010.**
- [ ] Tough
- [ ] Challenging
- [ ] Test of character
11. Origin of good leaders

What would you say contributes to the development of good leaders?

- Inborn traits
- Training
- Training, experience, education and some traits.

12. Level of tackling key issues

(a) How do you tackle key issues in the organisation?

- Solo.
- Team work
- It depends

(b) When you have to make an organisational wide decision, who do you normally consult?

- Managers
- Workers’ Representatives
- Managers and Workers’ Representatives
- If you know it is right – no consultation

Thank you for your time!
Appendix C

Oral Interview Questions Guide

1. Can you briefly tell me your secret to success with regards to your relationship with staff?
2. Do you tolerate mistakes in this organisation?
3. Has politics ever played a role at both individual and company level performance?
4. Does your faith lie in the systems you create, your staff or something else?
5. What would you say are the three most important characteristics of a successful leader?
6. In your view, are good leaders born or made?
7. Can you identify one Zimbabwean corporate leader and without naming them, just let me know what you think they are doing right.
8. In your view, how would you describe the period 2005 to 2010 and how did you manage as a Chief Executive Officer?
9. When you tackle key issues within your organisation, do you do so in your normal state or you operate from a different level?
10. Who do you look up to for inspiration in your day to day activities between God or your actual beliefs?
### Appendix D

**Zimbabwe Stock Exchange Listed Companies**

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