DECLARATION

I, Jerome Clinton Baatjes, hereby declare that:

THE DEVELOPMENT OF A LEADERSHIP BRAND TO ENHANCE THE
COMPETITIVENESS OF ORGANISATIONS

is my own, original work and all sources used or referred to have been documented and
recognised. This research paper has not been previously submitted in full or partial
fulfilment of the requirements for an equivalent or higher qualification at any other
recognised education institution.

__________________________________________ _________________
Jerome Clinton Baatjes                        Date
DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated in loving memory of my late father, who devoted his life to giving his children the best opportunities possible.

Frank David Baatjes

(1936 – 1998)
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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ABSTRACT

Effective leadership is and will remain the cornerstone of business success. It is leadership that differentiates world class from mediocre performance. The objective of this study is to investigate how positive leadership brand can be developed in order to leverage human capital and enhance the competitive position of organisations. To achieve this objective a comprehensive literature study was performed to determine the extent of existing knowledge on branding, leadership and leadership branding. The study included an investigation into the attributes of effective leaders, leadership development activities, leadership styles and a formula for effective leadership was presented.

Managers from selected organisations were requested to complete questionnaires in order to determine the views of South African managers on leadership branding. The questionnaire was developed in accordance with the findings from the literature research. The answers of the respondents were analysed and compared to the literature study.

The information obtained from the literature study and from the respondents resulted in various recommendations and conclusions. In general, support was found for investing resources into developing leadership brand as respondents indicated that positive leadership brand could result in a source of competitive advantage. The major obstacles in developing positive leadership brands are: absence of a clear message of what makes an effective leader, lack of feedback that leaders receive on the behaviours they display and no (or an unknown) link between leadership behaviours and rewards.
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Chapter 1 : PROBLEM STATEMENT AND DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

1.1 THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

Leadership is the most critical success factor that will determine South Africa’s future. It represents the electricity that could power the country into prosperity. The impact of effective leadership is substantial. It determines political and social development, economic growth and business success. South Africa has to develop its own brand of leadership because its demands, challenges and followers are unique (Schultz, Bagraim, Potgieter, Vierge and Werner, 2003:186). Often companies have the same machines and equipment, even the same suppliers and customers, however, only some become world competitive whilst others struggle – leadership makes the difference. Leadership is the ability to create an environment where people feel committed and empowered to be innovative and continuously seek opportunities to improve performance. (Team leadership, 2001: 2)

A study, Benchmarking South African Business Challenges, undertaken by the Centre for Work Performance at the Rand Afrikaans University (RAU) concluded that leadership is and will remain the cornerstone of success in business. Furthermore the study asserts that establishing credible and competent leadership and management is one of the best predictors of business success. (Roodt, 2001: 8)

In addition, Roodt (2001: 8) states effective leadership, in turn, is the cornerstone for three other building blocks in achieving success:
• creating a performance culture within the organisation,
• establishing high performance delivery processes to support the performance culture,
• thereby creating and exceeding customer satisfaction with superior service delivery.

In order to sustain a performance culture, the survey findings indicated that the organisation should establish a set of strong core competencies.

Intagliata, Ulrich and Smallwood (2000:13) furthermore state that branded leadership creates a distinct leadership culture that permeates the entire organisation. If this culture is aligned with the business strategy and tightly linked to the desired business results the organisation is trying to achieve, it can be a source of competitive advantage.

Van Dyk and Herholdt (2004: 165) also argue that a causal relationship exists between an organisation’s leadership brand, the organisation’s ability to attract and engage human capital and the (financial) results of the organisation. Thus a positive leadership brand will enable the organisation to attract and engage human capital and that will lead to positive results for the organisation. Similarly it is argued that a negative leadership brand leads to negative results for the organisation. This causal relationship is depicted in figure 1-1 below.
This begs the following question, which will be addressed in this research:

*If a leadership brand has such a direct link to competitive advantage, how is such a positive leadership brand developed?*

### 1.2 SUB-PROBLEMS

In order for a research strategy to be developed that will address and deal with the main problem, the following sub-problems requiring solution have been identified:

**SUB-PROBLEM ONE:**

What is a leadership brand and how is it developed?

**SUB-PROBLEM TWO:**

Which leadership attributes contribute to developing a positive leadership brand?
SUB-PROBLEM THREE:

What are the views of South African managers regarding leadership branding?

1.3 DEMARCATION OF THE RESEARCH

The demarcation of the research serves the purpose of making the research topic manageable from a research point of view. The omission of certain topics does not imply that there is no need to research them.

1.3.1 Level of management

The study will be limited to middle and senior managers.

1.3.2 Size of the organisations

Organisations with a workforce greater than 200 employees will be used in this research.

1.3.3 Type of organisations

Only selected organisations, which supply products to the motor industry, will be surveyed in this study.

1.3.4 Geographical demarcation

The study will be limited to selected organisations in the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan area.
1.4 DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

To ensure clarity and understanding, the descriptions of key concepts below will apply in this paper.

1.4.1 Leadership

Schultz et al. (2003:186) define leadership as the social process of influencing people to work voluntarily, enthusiastically and persistently towards a purposeful group or organisational goal. Leadership is not restricted to a formal position or formal authority: anybody at any level in the organisation can exert influence over others. It is furthermore stated that management typically involves planning, organising, problem-solving and control activities, which are related to the everyday running of a business. Leaders add an inspirational and emotional dimension to the organisation by creating a shared vision and inspiring people to become passionate about achieving the vision. Leaders have a long-term perspective and develop strategies to achieve organisational ideals.

1.4.2 Leadership brand

A leadership brand occurs when a critical mass of leaders work together to deliver desired results, agree on how to deliver these results, and develop personal attributes to achieve them. (Zenger and Smallwood, 1999)
1.4.3 Leadership attributes

“Leadership attributes” is the collective term used to describe the habits, traits, competencies, behaviours, style, motives, values, skills and character displayed by leaders (Ulrich, Zenger and Smallwood, 1999: 7).

1.4.4 Core competency

Core competences are activities or processes that critically underpin an organisation’s competitive advantage. They create and sustain the ability to meet the critical success factors of particular customer groups better than other providers in ways that are difficult to imitate.

A core competency enhances the value of the product or service provided by a company to external and internal customers. The competency must increase the quality or performance of the processes of a company to levels exceeding those of their competitors. Core competencies must be difficult to imitate by competitors (Johnson & Scholes, 2002:156).

1.4.5 Competitive advantage

An edge which may include a process, patent, management philosophy, or distribution system, that a organisation has that enables the organisation to control a larger market share or profit than the organisation would otherwise have. (Cox and Blackstone, 1999: 15)
1.4.6 Organisational culture

Organisational culture is ‘the set of shared, taken-for-granted implicit assumptions that a group holds and that determines how it perceives, thinks about and reacts to its various environments. It is therefore the shared values and beliefs that underlie a company’s identity. Organisational culture is passed on to new employees through the process of socialisation and influences their behaviour at work. (Kreitner, Kinicki & Buelens, 2002: 58)

1.5 KEY ASSUMPTIONS

It is assumed that the particular attributes, competencies and skills that effective leaders display are universal and can be developed and adapted to the requirements of the situation in which the leader operates.

It is also assumed that the said attributes, competencies and skills are independent of the organisation and operate in the same way irrespective of the type of organisation.

The literature study includes authors that are mostly from countries other than South Africa. However, the assumption was made that the relevant information would also be applicable to South African organisations.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

Intagliata, Ulrich and Smallwood (2000: 13) state that branded leadership creates a distinct leadership culture that permeates the entire organisation. If the distinct culture is aligned with the business strategy and tightly linked to the desired business results the organisation is trying to achieve, it can be a source of competitive advantage.
Additionally, these authors also state that employees of firms with branded leaders know what is expected of them, both in terms of how they work but also in terms of what they accomplish at work. Customers of firms with branded leaders receive a more consistent value proposition whether it is better service, higher quality, or performance, lower prices or greater level of innovation. Investors see the intangibles of branded leaders and offer these firms a market value premium because they have confidence in the quality of leadership within the firm to deliver results again and again. When the entire leadership hierarchy gets focussed on delivering the same results and has developed models identifying relevant attributes to deliver these results, they gain and sustain a competitive advantage.

Ulrich, Smallwood, and Zenger (2000: 46) assert that any good leader wants to be a better one. Leaders who want to be better need to understand the outcomes they must produce for their organization. This requires understanding of strategy and how they contribute to it. It also requires that their knowledge and behaviours support the strategic goals. With branded leadership, everyone gains a line of sight to what is really desired. When an entire leadership team focuses on delivering the same results and has developed relevant attributes to deliver these results, they gain a competitive advantage.

By building branded leaders, our business, social, and public institutions may begin to close the gap between the substantial investment already made in leadership and the growing need for ever more effective leaders in the future.

(Ulrich, Smallwood, and Zenger, 2000: 46)
Lastly Ulrich (2001: 18) claims when a leadership brand is present, leaders embody the 
brand of the firm in their behaviours and outcomes. Building a leadership brand means 
ensuring that leaders have the right attributes and outcomes.

1.7 CONCLUSION

The aim of this chapter was to define the main research problem to be addressed and to 
explain how the researcher aims to solve it. The key concepts, such as leadership, 
leadership brand, leadership attributes and competencies, competitive advantage and 
organisational culture were defined and key assumptions clarified. The importance of 
the topic was discussed.

The following chapter will discuss the findings from the literature study.
Chapter 2 : REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter explores literature that relates to the research topic. The discussion will commence with the concept of branding and how brands are developed. Following the discussion on branding, leadership and, in particular, which attributes are found in effective leaders, is discussed. This will lead on to what a leadership brand is and how a positive leadership brand can be developed.

2.2 BRANDING

Patrick Barwise of the London Business School is quoted as defining a brand as a combination of – a name and/or other symbols – its mental associations among consumers (and others), which enhance the value of the product/service. (www.at.artslink.co.za/~pansa/data/what_is_a_brand.doc)

Kotler (2003:216) furthermore states that a brand is an implied promise to deliver a specific set of features, benefits, and service consistently. The best brands convey a warranty of quality and engage customer (or employees) on a deeper level by touching a universal emotion.

Brands create a perception in the mind of the customer that there is no other product or service on the market that is quite like yours. A brand promises to deliver value upon which consumers and prospective purchasers can rely to be consistent over long periods of time. Brand equity is the sum total of all the different values people attach to the
brand. A brand is a live asset and shows all the characteristics of a living cognitive entity. (Kothari, M)

Farquhar (1989: 25-26) states that brand equity imparts competitive advantage. Firstly a strong brand provides a platform for new products and secondly it has the resilience to endure crisis situations.

2.2.1 Process of brand building

Van Dyk and Herholdt (2004: 39) propose that building a brand is a circular, three-step process. These steps are:

**Step 1:** An investment in marketing activity affects consumer/customer mindset or level of brand knowledge. This will include activities such as researching what consumers expect from the brand and designing the message to be delivered.

**Step 2:** Brand knowledge has some effect on market performance. These effects will include not only differences in buying behaviour of clients and customers, but also the behaviour of employees – often called living the brand or being the brand. These need to be measured and the positives reinforced while negative results should spark off another round of investment (in training for instance).

**Step 3:** Market performance affects shareholder value. If this step is not measured and made visible to stakeholders, crucial further investments required to build the brand might not happen.
Figure 2-1: Growth engine for creating value through brand and branding

Source: Van Dyk & Herholdt, 2003: 40

Figure 2.1 illustrates the positive cycle, which can be achieved when the branding exercise is successful. An increased investment, such as time, energy and other resources, in a brand causes positive changes in client and employee behaviour. These changes in turn cause demonstrable differences to the organisation’s bottom line, usually monetary for profit organisations, but for non-profit organisations, it could be living up to members’ expectations. This demonstrated success then causes further investment in brand and branding activities, refueling the engine of growth. The balancing loop comes into play when the investment in the brand and branding does not yield the expected changes in client and employee behaviour. At this point, more investment will be necessary to ensure that the desired behavioural changes happen. If investment does not happen at this crucial point, the loop results in negative results (Van Dyk & Herholdt, 2004: 40).
2.2.2 Elements for building a strong brand

According to Farquhar (1989: 25), three elements are essential in building a strong brand: positive brand evaluation, an accessible brand attitude and a consistent brand image.

**Positive brand evaluations:** Quality is the cornerstone of a strong brand. A firm must have a quality product that delivers superior performance to the consumer in order to achieve a positive evaluation of the brand in the consumer’s memory. Van Dyk & Herholdt (2004: 41) support this and state that to build a strong brand, one needs to start with a quality product or service that delivers superior performance.

**Accessible Brand Attitudes:** The second element in building a strong brand is attitude accessibility. Accessibility refers to how quickly an individual can retrieve something stored in memory. A positive evaluation is not enough, if it is not readily retrieved from memory. The managerial implication of this is clear. One goal in building a strong brand must be to foster accessible attitudes and thus to impact on subsequent consumer behaviour.

**Consistent Brand Image:** The third element in building a strong brand is to have a consistent brand image. Consistency of the brand’s image is part of managing the relationship between the consumer and the brand. This special relationship between a brand and consumer must be analysed, nurtured, and reinforced. It is the consistency of this brand-consumer relationship that count; if one changes, the other must, too.

Therefore brand equity is built (1) by creating positive brand evaluations with a quality product, (2) by fostering accessible brand attitudes to have the most impact on consumer purchase behaviour, and (3) by developing a consistent brand image to form a relationship with the consumer. (Farquhar, 1989: 27-29)
2.2.3 Selling the leadership message

Baldoni (2002: 3) states that the insights of marketing can be used to rally employees behind their leaders and suggests the following:

2.2.3.1 Develop the leadership brand

Central to the concept of marketing is brand – the identity, image and essence of what the product or service is. A leadership brand reflects the organisational culture; which is the essence of what the organisation is and how it behaves. Leaders must strive to brand the inside of the company as vigorously as they brand the outside of the company. To do this, leaders must communicate what they stand for, in other words their values. The leaders need to embody the value of the organisation so that employees can see that they have real meaning (Baldoni 2002: 3). To build a strong brand leaders must start with a quality product, (in the case of leadership brand, effective leadership), that delivers superior performance. All strong brands absolutely demand a superior product or service. Furthermore, leaders must live the message of the brand. Leaders need to deliver on the promise they make to their market. Whatever the brand image, positioning statement, or unique selling proposition that have been promised to the market (or employees), must be delivered upon. The brand is nothing more and nothing less than these promises and the organisation must deliver on them. (Kothari, M)

2.2.3.2 Stay focused

Marketers usually focus on communicating one aspect of a product or service at a time. Leaders should also keep communications specific and on target. When leaders have many things to say, they should create new and different opportunities to say them (Baldoni 2002: 3).
2.2.3.3 **Generate a buzz**
Get people to talk about what is being said. Leaders need to get people talking about their messages. To do this, people must be kept informed about what is going on in the company and then be challenged to spread the word and debate. At the same time leaders must make the message they are trying to sell new and different (Baldoni 2002: 3).

2.2.3.4 **Keep driving the message home**
Leaders need to saturate their audience with their message. Key messages should be marketed using every communication medium available, including small-group forums, print communications, large group-meetings and multimedia. In large organisations especially, repetition is needed to cut through the information overload. Employees may not hear the message the first time, or may not ascribe any importance to it until they hear it over and over again (Baldoni 2002: 4).

2.2.3.5 **Monitor acceptance**
Leaders often make assumptions regarding their communications with their employees. The four fatal assumptions are: one, employees understand what was communicated; two, employees agree with what was communicated; three, employees care about what was communicated; and four, employees will take appropriate action. To avoid making these assumptions and to be sure that the correct message reached the employees, leaders must do market research. The best ways to do this is for leaders to meet and mingle regularly with employees and then to ask informal questions about the leadership message (Baldoni 2002: 4).
2.2.3.6  Live large

For leadership communication to be effective, the message that leaders communicate must reflect something of themselves. Their message needs to reflect their character and value, as well as leadership role in the organisation. Furthermore, leadership marketing is about reaching the hearts and minds. Just as marketers know that for a brand to be successful, they need to establish an emotional connection with consumers, leaders must tap into the emotions of their employees. Leaders need to instil a sense of pride in the employees by helping people understand how both ‘what they do’ and ‘how they do it’ contributes to a worthwhile purpose and makes the world a better place (Baldoni 2002: 4).

2.3  LEADERSHIP

Leadership is defined as the process of moving a group (or groups) in some desired direction through mostly non-coercive means. Effective leadership is defined as leadership that produces movement in the long-term interests of the group(s) (Kotter 1988:5). Kreitner, Kinicki & Buelens (2002: 450) share this view by defining leadership as ‘the ability of an individual to influence, motivate and enable others to contribute to the effectiveness and success of organisations of which they are members’.

Swanepoel et al. (2003: 353) mention that leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect the purposes mutually held by both leaders and followers.

Lawler (2004: 35) states that leadership of managers at all levels in an organisation has an impact on both individual and organisational effectiveness. It determines the type of relationships that people develop with organizations, how motivated they are, how long
they stay, and how they treat customers and other employees. Furthermore, Latty-Mann (2004: 12) states that genuine leadership breathes energy into the workforce, causing it to take on a life of its own. Those impacted by it will, in turn, energise those who may not be in direct contact with the original energy breathers. Where genuine leadership is present, most employees are eager to come to work and make a difference.

### 2.3.1 Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership is the set of abilities that allows the leader to recognise the need for change, to create a vision to guide that change, and to execute the change efficiently. This type of leader can influence in every direction – downward with subordinates, laterally with colleagues, upward with superiors, and outwardly with clients and customers. Thus the transformational leader can change the culture of the organisation.

The transformational leader empowers followers. Transformational leadership is aimed at creating follower independence. Apart from being charismatic, transformational leaders have the following characteristics:

- they identify themselves as change agents;
- they are value-driven;
- they believe in people;
- they take risks and are courageous individuals;
- they have the ability to deal with:
  - complexity;
  - uncertainty; and
  - ambiguity;
- they are life-long learners;
• they engage in impression management – using tactics and techniques
designed to enhance their attractiveness and appeal to others; and

• they are visionaries, and engage in framing – defining their vision or purpose
in a way that gives meaning and purpose to whatever actions they are
requesting from followers.

It is clear from the above characteristics that their influence does not stem from their
possession of semi-magical traits, but is rather a logical result of a complex cluster of
behaviours and techniques. (Swanepoel et al. 2003 : 353 – 355)

2.3.2 Effective leadership

Gitomer (2005: 23) states that, the ability to master leadership skills, directly relates to
the leader’s ability to lead. The leadership skills that Gitomer considers key are:

• Leaders should get their people to like and believe in them. Hated leaders are
eventually overthrown or fired. If a hated leader cannot be fired, people will quit;

• Leaders must make sure that their people and their jobs are a “fit”. People need
to feel comfortable about the tasks they are performing and the space they are
performing them in;

• Leaders must encourage their people to freely share in goal-setting. When
people set their own goals, they think they can achieve them;

• Leaders must give their people clear direction. Make sure that all employees
know what they are responsible for, see the big picture and how their part fits into it.

• Leaders must create an environment in which people love their work and their
workplace. Make the workplace fun. Make sure that employees can complete tasks
with a sense of pride and satisfaction. Provide a great and happy atmosphere to work
in. Make the duty, task, or project challenging, without being oppressive or stressful;
• **Leaders must encourage their people.** The most effective leaders are coaches. They stand on the sidelines and cheer on their players.

• **Leaders must reward their people.** It does not have to be money, but whatever it is, don’t be cheap about it. Make people feel valued.

• **Leaders must praise their people.** Praise hard work. Praise effort. Praise accomplishment. Often.

• **Leaders must by their actions and accomplishments become their people’s hero.** For the team members to become dedicated players, they must see the dedication of the leader.

2.3.3 Traits of effective leaders

The belief that certain personal characteristics and skills contribute to leadership effectiveness in many situations is the universal theory of leadership. According to this theory, certain leadership traits that are universally important are the most consistently occurring personality traits found in effective leaders (Dubrin 2004: 32).

2.3.3.1 Self-confidence

It is important in virtually every leadership setting that a leader must be realistically self-confident, without being overbearing or bombastic. A leader who is self-assured instils self-confidence in team members and will be capable of keeping others calm during turmoil (Dubrin 2004: 32).

Dunning (2004: 99) supports the idea that leaders need self-confidence and states that when people are unsure of their abilities and perceive themselves as lacking, they often relate to others in a defensive and pessimistic manner and tend to give up more easily and take fewer risks. Those with low confidence can come across as either unsure or
overconfident. Both demeanours tend to be unsuccessful when dealing with people. Clearly a person with low confidence will find it difficult and uncomfortable in a leadership position.

2.3.3.2 Humility

Self-confidence is a key leadership trait, but in order to be an effective leader it must be balanced with humility, being humble at the right times. This would include the leader admitting that he does not know everything and cannot do everything, as well as admitting mistakes to his team members and outsiders. Another element of humility in a leader is the capability to put others in the limelight and not himself, as for example upon receiving a compliment for an accomplishment, stating that his team deserves the credit (Dubrin 2004: 32).

2.3.3.3 Trustworthiness

Swanepoel et al (2003: 358) state that trust is a facilitator, which helps to make it possible for an organisation to function effectively. Trust implies accountability, predictability, reliability, and provides the foundation, which maintains organisational integrity.

Trust is defined as a person’s confidence in another individual’s intentions and motives, and in the sincerity of that individual’s word. It is generally accepted that being trustworthy and/or honest contributes to leadership effectiveness. This is also backed up by research in this area. An effective leader is supposed to walk the talk, thereby showing consistency between deeds (walking) and words (talk). Leaders must be trustworthy, and they must also trust group members. When leaders are perceived to be trustworthy, it leads to positive outcomes for the organisation. A high correlation
between trusting a leader and the work attitudes of group members has been found. The most significant of these were:

- job satisfaction;
- organisational commitment;
- turnover intentions/frequency (if one trusts one’s leader, one is less likely to leave);
- belief in the information provided by the leader;
- commitment to decisions;
- satisfaction with the leader.

(Dubrin 2004: 35)

2.3.3.4 Extroversion

Extroverts are more likely to participate in group-activities and are likely to naturally assume a leadership role in such group activities. As such, extroversion has been recognised for its contribution to leadership effectiveness as in most situations it is helpful for a leader to be sociable and outgoing (Dubrin 2004: 36).

2.3.3.5 Assertiveness

Assertiveness refers to being straightforward in expressing demands, opinions, feelings and attitudes. Being assertive helps leaders perform many tasks and goals. Among them are confronting team members about their mistakes, demanding higher performance, setting high expectations, and making legitimate demands on higher management (Dubrin 2004: 36).

2.3.3.6 Emotional stability

Emotional stability refers to the ability to control one’s emotions to the point where the response is appropriate to the occasion. Emotions associated with low emotional
stability include anxiety, depression, anger, embarrassment and worry. Emotional stability is an important leadership characteristic because group members expect and need consistency in the way that they are treated. Leaders who are emotionally unstable and lack composure are more likely to handle pressure poorly and give in to moodiness, outbursts of anger and inconsistent behaviour. Such behaviour undermines relationships with group members, peers and superiors. In contrast, effective leaders are generally calm, confident and predictable during a crisis (Dubrin 2004: 38).

2.3.3.7 Enthusiasm

Enthusiasm is a desirable leadership trait because it helps build good relationships with team members. Group members tend to respond positively to enthusiasm and a good dose of genuine enthusiasm will inspire and motivate and is a effective tool for getting things done (Dubrin 2004: 38). Shelton (1999: 14) also states that great leaders identify, cultivate and inspire enthusiastic followers. Few businesses can survive and thrive without people to carry out the leaders’ programmes. Good leaders not only understand their employees, but also motivate them to do their very best work.

2.3.3.8 Sense of humour

Humour adds to the approachability and people-orientation of a leader. Laughter and humour, when used appropriately in the workplace can serve the functions of relieving tension and boredom and defusing hostility. Because humour helps the leader dissolve tension and defuse conflict, it helps him exert power over the group. (Dubrin, 2004: 38 – 41)
2.3.3.9  **Warmth**

Projecting warmth contributes to leadership effectiveness in several ways. Warmth helps to establish rapport with team members and is a key component that helps provide emotional support. Giving emotional support to group members is important leadership behaviour (Dubrin 2004: 32).

2.3.3.10  **Passion for work and people**

Effective leaders are passionate about their work and to some extent about the people who help them accomplish the work. The passion goes beyond enthusiasm and often expresses itself as an obsession for achieving company goals (Dubrin 2004: 42). Great leaders are ambitious for themselves, their companies and their people (Shelton 1999: 14).

2.3.3.11  **Flexibility and adaptability**

A leader is someone who facilitates change. A leader must be flexible enough to cope with changes such as technological advances, a shifting customer base and changing workforce. Leaders who are flexible are able to adjust to the demands of changing conditions. Without the underlying characteristic of flexibility, a person could be an effective leader in only one or two situations (Dubrin 2004: 45).

2.3.3.12  **Courage**

Leaders need courage to take risks and initiate change. Thus leaders must face up to the responsibility and be willing to put their reputations on the line. It takes courage for a leader to suggest a new undertaking because if it fails the leader is often seen as having failed (Dubrin 2004: 32). Great leaders are not afraid to make tough decisions (Shelton 1999: 14). Leaders face problems on a daily basis that require decision-making. In some
cases there is adequate time to think, assess and evaluate the circumstances surrounding the problem, but often, immediate decisions are needed. The good leader must make such decisions.

2.3.3.13 Empathy

Empathy means thoughtfully considering employees' feelings - along with other factors - in the process of making intelligent decisions. Empathy is particularly important today as a component of leadership for at least three reasons: the increasing use of teams; the rapid pace of globalisation; and the growing need to retain talent.

Teams are sometimes cauldrons of bubbling emotions. Teams are often charged with reaching a consensus - which is hard enough with two people and much more difficult as the numbers increase. Even in groups with as few as four or five members, alliances form and clashing agendas are set. A team's leader must be able to sense and understand the viewpoints of everyone around the table.

Globalisation is another reason for the rising importance of empathy for business leaders. Cross-cultural dialogue can easily lead to miscues and misunderstandings. Empathy is an antidote. People who have it are attuned to subtleties in body language; they can hear the message beneath the words being spoken. Beyond that, they have a deep understanding of both the existence and the importance of cultural and ethnic differences.

Finally, empathy plays a key role in the retention of talent, particularly in today's information economy. Leaders have always needed empathy to develop and keep good
people, but today the stakes are higher. When good people leave, they take the company's knowledge with them.

That's where coaching and mentoring comes in. It has repeatedly been shown that coaching and mentoring pay off not just in better performance but also in increased job satisfaction and decreased turnover. But what makes coaching and mentoring work best is the nature of the relationship. Outstanding coaches and mentors get inside the heads of the people they are helping. They sense how to give effective feedback. They know when to push for better performance and when to hold back. In the way they motivate their protégés, they demonstrate empathy in action.

Leaders with empathy do more than sympathise with people around them: They use their knowledge to improve their companies in subtle but important ways. (Goleman, 2004: 89-90)

2.3.3.14 Social skill

Social skill is friendliness with a purpose: moving people in the direction desired, whether that be agreement on a new marketing strategy or enthusiasm about a new product.

Socially skilled people, for instance, are adept at managing teams. That's their empathy at work. Likewise, they are expert persuaders - a manifestation of self-awareness, self-regulation, and empathy combined. Given those skills, good persuaders know when to make an emotional plea, for instance, and when an appeal to reason will work better. And motivation, when publicly visible, makes such people excellent collaborators; their passion for the work spreads to others, and they are driven to find solutions.

(Goleman, 2004: 90)
2.3.3.15 Energy

To sustain a high achievement drive and get ahead, leaders must have a lot of energy. Working long, intense work weeks (and many weekends) for many years, requires an individual to have physical, mental, and emotional vitality. Leaders are more likely than nonleaders to have a high level of energy and stamina and to be generally active, lively, and often restless. (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991: 50)

2.3.3.16 Tenacity

Leaders are better at overcoming obstacles than nonleaders. They have the capacity to work with distant objects in view and have a degree of strength of will or perseverance. Leaders must be tirelessly persistent in their activities and follow through with their programmes. Most organisational change programmes take several months to establish and can take many years before the benefits are seen. Leaders must have the drive to stick with these programmes, and persistence is needed to ensure that changes are institutionalised. (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991: 51)

2.3.3.17 Initiative

Effective leaders are proactive. They make choices and take action that leads to change instead of just reacting to events or waiting for things to happen; that is, they show a high level of initiative. (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991: 51)

2.3.3.18 Honesty and integrity

Honesty and integrity are virtues in all individuals, but have special significance for leaders. Without these qualities, leadership is undermined. Integrity is the correspondence between word and deed; honesty refers to being truthful or non-deceitful. The two form the foundation of a trusting relationship between leaders and
followers. Successful leaders are open with followers, but also discreet and do not violate confidences or divulge potentially harmful information. Effective leaders are credible, with excellent reputations, and high levels of integrity. Leaders can gain trust by being predictable, consistent, and persistent and by making competent decisions. An honest leader may even be able to overcome lack of personal expertise. (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991: 53 - 54)

2.3.3.19 Knowledge of the business

Effective leaders have a high degree of knowledge about the company, industry, and technical matters. Effective leaders gather extensive information about the company and the industry in which it operates. In-depth knowledge of the organisation and industry allows effective leaders to make well-informed decisions and to understand the implications of those decisions. (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991: 55 - 56)

2.3.3.20 Other traits

Charisma, creativity/originality, and flexibility are three traits with less clear-cut evidence of their importance to leadership. Effective leaders may also be more creative than nonleaders, but there is no consistent research demonstrating this. Flexibility or adaptiveness may be important traits for a leader in a turbulent environment. Leaders must be able to make decisions and solve problems quickly and initiate and foster change. (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991: 55 - 56)

Swanepoel et al. (2003: 344) list traits and skills of leaders as per table 2.1 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personality traits</th>
<th>Abilities and intelligence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• adaptability,</td>
<td>• ability to enlist cooperation, and to cooperate,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• alertness,</td>
<td>• interpersonally skilled,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• ambition,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(27)
• independent,
• assertive,
• responsible,
• persuasive,
• organised,
• dependable,
• energetic,
• persistent,
• self-confident,
• tolerant to stress,
• emotional stability,
• honesty and integrity

• diplomatic and tactful,
• socially skilled,
• fluency in speech,
• good judgement and concept formation,
• creativity,
• decisiveness,
• knowledgeable,
• courage,
• competence

Table 2-1: Personality traits and skills of leaders

2.3.4 Leadership development activities

A diverse range of activities complements classroom-type leadership training, for long the primary formal development mode. Classroom training should not be the only part of a leadership development initiative, and may be the least critical. While training may even be a necessary element of leadership development, developmental experiences are likely to have the greatest impact when they can be linked to or embedded in a person’s ongoing work and they are an integrated set of experiences. Activities like coaching, mentoring, action learning, and 360-degree feedback are increasingly key elements of leadership development initiatives.

Coaching involves practical, goal-focused forms of one-on-one learning and, ideally, behavioural change. It can be a short-term intervention intended to develop specific leadership skills or a more extensive process involving a series of meetings over time. The most effective coaching allows for collaboration to assess and understand the
developmental task, to challenge current constraints while exploring new possibilities, and to ensure accountability and support for reaching goals and sustaining development.

Mentoring is typically defined as a committed, long-term relationship in which a senior person supports the personal and professional development of a junior person.

Action learning is a set of organization development practices in which important real-time organizational problems are tackled. Three kinds of objectives are sought, namely:

a) delivering measurable organisational results,

b) communicating learnings specific to a particular context, and

c) developing more general leadership skills and capabilities.

Effective action learning may range from tacit, unfacilitated learning at work to focused and high-impact learning projects to transformations of people and organisations.

Challenging job assignments are a potent form of leadership development and provide many of the developmental opportunities in organisations. The level of organisational involvement in making job assignments part of their leadership development process range from simply providing people with information about developmental opportunities in their current job to a systematic programme of job rotation. Using job assignments for developmental purposes provides benefits that go beyond getting the job done and can result in competitive advantages for organisations. (Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004: 25)

2.3.5 Results-based leadership

Ulrich et al. (1999: 3) however argue that having leadership skills and attributes are not enough. Leaders must produce results. In order to produce results, leaders must connect attributes to results and thus effective leadership can be defined as follows: effective
leadership = attributes x results. Thus leaders must strive for excellence in both terms; that is, they must both demonstrate attributes and achieve results. If the focus is too much on one aspect, overall leadership effectiveness falls. When the focus is almost exclusively on results and leaders are driven to achieve short-term performance objectives, whatever it takes, there is a risk that sustainable results will not be achieved. This happens when leaders care more about what is accomplished than how it is accomplished. On the other hand, when focus is exclusively on building attributes, these leaders do not truly lead. They do good work, relate well to others and act with honour and integrity. However if they fail to deliver desired results, they cannot be effective.

2.3.5.1 Key elements of leadership attributes

Leadership attributes is a term that is used to collectively describe the habits, traits, competencies, behaviours, style, values, skills and character that leaders should have. Leadership attributes fall broadly into three categories: who leaders are (values, motives, personal traits, character); what leaders know (skills, abilities, traits); and what leaders do (behaviours, habits, styles, competencies) (Ulrich et al. (1999: 4). This is the “are-know-do” approach to leadership.

On the question of what successful leaders need to be, know and do, it is said that successful leaders set direction, mobilize individual commitment, build organisation capability and demonstrate personal character. (Ulrich, Zenger and Smallwood, 1999: 6).
2.3.5.1.1 Set direction
Leaders must position their firms for and towards the future. Leaders who set direction know and do at least three things: understand external events, focus on the future and turn vision into action (Ulrich et al. 1999: 7).

2.3.5.1.2 Mobilize individual commitment
Leaders turn vision into accomplishments by engaging others. Employees that are engaged, align their actions with the organisational goals and are dedicated to investing their minds, heart and soul to the organisational pursuits. Leaders who want to engage employees must invest time and energy in individuals and teams. Leaders must build collaborative relationships; they must share power and authority; and they must manage attention. Leaders must help individuals see and feel how their contributions aid in accomplishing organisational goals (Ulrich, Zenger and Smallwood, 1999: 7).

2.3.5.1.3 Engender organisational capability
Organisational capability refers to the processes, practices and activities that create value for the organisation. In order to develop organisational capability, leaders must demonstrate at least five abilities: to build an organisational infrastructure, leverage diversity, deploy teams, design human resource systems and make things happen (Ulrich, Zenger and Smallwood, 1999: 7).

2.3.5.1.4 Demonstrate personal character
Ulrich et al. (1999: 14) state that followers need leaders they feel they can trust, relate to and feel confidence in. This is often referred to as “credibility” and attributes such as honesty, ability to inspire, fair-mindedness and supportiveness contribute to building credibility. Leaders with character live the values of their firm, by practising what they
preach; they posses and create in others a positive self-image; and they display high levels of cognitive ability and personal charm. Further attributes of effective leaders include: spirit, trust, love, grace, warmth, intimacy and servant leadership.

2.3.5.2 Linking attributes to results

A leader’s job requires more than character, knowledge and action; it also demands results. For leadership to be effective, attributes must be linked to results. This means that leaders must not have a set of attributes that might lead to results, but rather means focusing explicitly on the desired results and linking specific attributes to those results (Ulrich et al. 1999: 17).

Leaders exhibiting attributes without results have ideas without substance. They might talk a good scenario and even act on sound general principles, but they fail to deliver. These types of leaders are often popular because of their charm or charisma, but are not long remembered because their leadership depended more on who they are and how they behave than on what they accomplish. Leaders who get results but who lack attributes often find their successes short-lived. These leaders achieve without knowing why and cannot replicate their successes nor learn from them. Those lacking attributes may have raw ability, but character flaws inhibit their ability to lead. They repel others, make fatal mistakes, or burn themselves out. Successful leaders get lasting results by aligning attributes with intended results (Ulrich, Zenger and Smallwood 1999: 20).

Effective leadership = attributes x results
2.3.6 Leadership styles

According to Goleman (2000: 82) leaders use six leadership styles, namely the coercive style, the authoritative style, the affiliative style, the democratic style, the pacesetting style and the coaching style. However, only four of the six consistently have a positive effect on organisational climate and results. The six styles are described in sections 2.3.6.1 to 2.3.6.6. below in detail. Five additional leadership style were identified by several other authors (Dubrin, 2004; Sadler, 2003 and Swanepoel et al., 2003). These five leadership styles are discussed in sections 2.3.6.7 to 2.3.6.11.

2.3.6.1 The Coercive Style

Of all the leadership styles, the coercive style is the least effective in most situations. This leadership style generally has a negative effect on an organisation's climate. Flexibility is the hardest hit. The leader's extreme top-down decision-making kills new ideas on the vine. People feel so disrespected that they think, "I won't even bring my ideas up - they'll only be shot down." Likewise, people's sense of responsibility evaporates: unable to act on their own initiative, they lose their sense of ownership and feel little accountability for their performance.

Coercive leadership also has a damaging effect on the rewards system. Most high-performing workers are motivated by more than money - they seek the satisfaction of work well done. The coercive style erodes such pride. The coercive style furthermore undermines one of the leader's prime tools - motivating people by showing them how their job fits into a grand, shared mission. Such a loss, measured in terms of diminished clarity and commitment, leaves people alienated from their own jobs.
The coercive style should be used only with extreme caution and in the few situations when it is absolutely imperative, such as during a turnaround or when a hostile takeover is looming. In those cases, the coercive style can break failed business habits and shock people into new ways of working. It is always appropriate during a genuine emergency, like in the aftermath of an earthquake or a fire. And it can work with problem employees with whom all else has failed. But if a leader relies solely on this style or continues to use it once the emergency passes, the long-term impact of his insensitivity to the morale and feelings of those he leads will be ruinous. (Goleman 2000: 82 –83)

2.3.6.2 The Authoritative Style.

Vibrant enthusiasm and clear vision are the hallmarks of the authoritative style. Of the six leadership styles, the authoritative style is most effective, driving up every aspect of organisational climate. The authoritative leader is a visionary; he motivates people by making clear to them how their work fits into a larger vision for the organisation. People who work for such leaders understand that what they do matters and why. Authoritative leadership also maximizes commitment to the organisation’s goals and strategy. By framing the individual tasks within a grand vision, the authoritative leader defines standards that revolve around that vision. When he gives performance feedback—whether positive or negative—the single criterion is whether or not that performance furthers the vision. The standards for success are clear to all, as are the rewards. The authoritative style also has a positive impact on flexibility. An authoritative leader states the end but generally gives people plenty of leeway to devise their own means. Authoritative leaders give people the freedom to innovate, experiment, and take calculated risks.

Due to its positive impact, the authoritative style works well in almost any business situation. But it is particularly effective when a business is adrift. An authoritative
leader charts a new course and sells his people on a fresh long-term vision. The authoritative style, powerful though it may be, will not work in every situation. The approach fails, for instance, when a leader is working with a team of experts or peers who are more experienced than he is; they may see the leader as pompous or out-of-touch. Another limitation: if a manager trying to be authoritative becomes overbearing, he can undermine the egalitarian or esprit de corps spirit of an effective team. (Goleman 2000: 83 –84)

2.3.6.3  The Affiliative Style

This leadership style revolves around people-its proponents value individuals and their emotions more than tasks and goals. The affiliative leader strives to keep employees happy and to create harmony among them. He manages by building strong emotional bonds and then reaping the benefits of such an approach, namely fierce loyalty. The style also has a markedly positive effect on communication. People who like one another a lot talk a lot. They share ideas; they share inspiration. And the style drives up flexibility; friends trust one another, allowing habitual innovation and risk-taking. Flexibility also rises because the affiliative leader, like a parent who adjusts household rules for a maturing adolescent, doesn't impose unnecessary strictures on how employees get their work done. They give people the freedom to do their job in the way they think is most effective.

As for a sense of recognition and reward for work well done, the affiliative leader offers ample positive feedback. Such feedback has special potency in the workplace because it is all too rare; outside of an annual review, most people usually get no feedback on their day-to-day efforts—or only negative feedback. That makes the affiliative leader's positive
words all the more motivating. Another strength of affiliative leaders is that they are masters at building a sense of belonging.

The affiliative style's generally positive impact makes it a good all-weather approach, but leaders should employ it particularly when trying to build team harmony, increase morale, improve communication, or repair broken trust. Despite its benefits, the affiliative style should not be used alone. Its exclusive focus on praise can allow poor performance to go uncorrected; employees may perceive that mediocrity is tolerated. And because affiliative leaders rarely offer constructive advice on how to improve, employees must figure out how to do so on their own. When people need clear directives to navigate through complex challenges, the affiliative style leaves them rudderless. Indeed, if overly relied on, this style can actually steer a group to failure. (Goleman 2000: 84 –85)

2.3.6.4 The Democratic Style

By spending time getting people's ideas and buy-in, a leader builds trust, respect, and commitment. By letting workers themselves have a say in decisions that affect their goals and how they do their work, the democratic leader drives up flexibility and responsibility. And by listening to employees' concerns, the democratic leader learns what to do to keep morale high. Because they have a say in setting their goals and the standards for evaluating success, people operating in a democratic system tend to be very realistic about what can and cannot be accomplished.

However, the democratic style has its drawbacks, which is why its impact on climate is not as high as some of the other styles. One of its more exasperating consequences can be endless meetings where ideas are mulled over, consensus remains elusive, and the
only visible result is scheduling more meetings. Some democratic leaders use the style to put off making crucial decisions, hoping that enough thrashing things out will eventually yield a blinding insight. In reality, their people end up feeling confused and leaderless. Such an approach can even escalate conflicts.

This approach is ideal when a leader is himself uncertain about the best direction to take and needs ideas and guidance from able employees. And even if a leader has a strong vision, the democratic style works well to generate fresh ideas for executing that vision. The democratic style makes much less sense when employees are not competent or informed enough to offer sound advice. (Goleman 2000: 85)

2.3.6.5 The Pacesetting Style

The leader sets extremely high performance standards and exemplifies them himself. He is obsessive about doing things better and faster, and he asks the same of everyone around him. He quickly pinpoints poor performers and demands more from them. If they don't rise to the occasion, he replaces them with people who can.

The pacesetting style destroys climate. Many employees feel overwhelmed by the pacesetter's demands for excellence, and their morale drops. Guidelines for working may be clear in the leader's head, but if the leader does not state them clearly it may leave the team directionless. Pacesetting leaders expect people to know what to do and even think, "If I have to tell you, you're the wrong person for the job." Work becomes not a matter of doing one's best along a clear course so much as second-guessing what the leader wants. At the same time, people often feel that the pacesetter doesn't trust them to work in their own way or to take initiative. Flexibility and responsibility evaporate; work becomes so task-focused and routinised that it's boring.
As for rewards, the pacesetter either gives no feedback on how people are doing or jumps in to take over when he thinks they're lagging. And if the leader should leave, people feel directionless—they're so used to "the expert" setting the rules. Finally, commitment dwindles under the regime of a pacesetting leader because people have no sense of how their personal efforts fit into the big picture. (Goleman 2000: 86)

2.3.6.6 The Coaching Style

Coaching leaders help employees identify their unique strengths and weaknesses and tie them to their personal and career aspirations. They encourage employees to establish long-term development goals and help them conceptualise a plan for attaining them. They make agreements with their employees about their role and responsibilities in enacting development plans, and they give plentiful instruction and feedback. Coaching leaders excel at delegating; they give employees challenging assignments, even if that means the tasks won't be accomplished quickly. In other words, these leaders are willing to put up with short-term failure if it furthers long-term learning.

Of the six styles, this research found that the coaching style is used least often. Leaders who ignore this style are passing up a powerful tool: its impact on climate and performance are markedly positive. There is a paradox in coaching’s positive effect on business performance because coaching focuses primarily on personal development, not on immediate work-related tasks. Even so, coaching improves results. The reason: it requires constant dialogue, and that dialogue has a way of pushing up every driver of climate.

When an employee knows his boss watches him and cares about what he does, he feels free to experiment. He is sure to get quick and constructive feedback. Similarly, the
ongoing dialogue of coaching guarantees that people know what is expected of them and how their work fits into a larger vision or strategy. That affects responsibility and clarity. As for commitment, coaching helps there, too, because the style's implicit message is, "I believe in you, I'm investing in you, and I expect your best efforts." Employees very often rise to that challenge with their heart, mind, and soul.

The coaching style works well in many business situations, but it is perhaps most effective when people on the receiving end are "up for it." The coaching style works particularly well when employees are already aware of their weaknesses and would like to improve their performance. Similarly, the style works well when employees realize how cultivating new abilities can help them advance. In short, it works best with employees who want to be coached.

By contrast, the coaching style makes little sense when employees, for whatever reason, are resistant to learning or changing their ways. And it flops if the leader lacks the expertise to help the employee along. (Goleman 2000: 86–87)

2.3.6.7 The Authoritarian Style

Sadler (2003: 65) state the autocratic (or authoritarian) leader takes decisions and announces them, expecting subordinates to carry them out with out question. Dubrin (2004: 112–113) supports this and furthermore state that autocratic leaders retain most of the authority. They make decisions confidently, assume that group members will comply, and are not overly concerned with group members’ attitudes toward the decision. Autocratic leaders are considered task-orientated because they place heavy emphasis on getting task accomplished. Typical authoritarian behaviours include telling people what to do, asserting themselves, and serving as a model for team members.
Additionally, Swanepoel et al. (2003: 345) state that the flow of communication is primarily downward and the primary strength of the authoritarian leadership style that it stresses prompt, orderly, and predictable performance. The primary weakness of the authoritarian leadership style is that it stifles individual initiative.

2.3.6.8 The Consultative Style

The significant feature of consultative leadership is that the leader confers with the group members before taking decisions and considers their advice and feelings when framing decisions. He or she may, of course, not always accept the subordinates’ advice but they are likely to feel that they can influence the leader. Under this leadership style the decision and the full responsibility remain with the leader. (Sadler, 2003: 65)

2.3.6.9 The Persuasive Style

The persuasive leader takes all 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 ones. He or she does a lot of explaining and ‘selling’ in order to overcome any possible resistance to what he or she wants to do. The leader also puts a lot of energy into creating enthusiasm for the goals he or she has set for the group. (Sadler, 2003: 65)

2.3.6.10 The Participative Style

The participative leader involves the team, listens, guides and directs the team. The leader is aware of the team’s needs and adapts accordingly. This leader prepares information and facts, praises and recognises the team whilst also remaining open-minded to leader. This leadership behaviour leads to commitment, acceptance of responsibility and innovation. (Team leadership, 2001: 13)
2.3.6.11 The Laissez-faire Style

Swanepoel et al (2003: 345) states that the nature of the laissez-faire leadership style is that the leader denies responsibility and abdicates it to authority to the group. Group members are told to work things out themselves and to do the best they can. Communication is primarily among peers. The primary strength of the laissez-faire leadership style is that it permits self-starters to do things as they see fit with out interference from the leader. The primary weakness is that the group may drift aimlessly in the absence of direction from the leader. Turner and Müller (2005: 51) also state that the laissez-faire leadership style is appropriate in egoless teams of experts where these is shared responsibility.

2.4 IMPORTANCE OF COMPETENCIES

Intagliata et al. (2000: 13) state that competencies are a critical lever to produce leadership brand within an organisation for at least five reasons:

- they guide direction;
- they are measurable;
- competencies can be learned;
- they can distinguish and differentiate the organisation;
- they can help integrate management practices.

2.4.1 Directional Guide

Most fundamentally, competencies provide organisations with a way to define in behavioural terms what its leaders need to do to produce the results the organisation desires and do so in a way that is consistent with and builds its culture. They should provide the “North Star” by which leaders at all levels navigate in order to create
synergy and produce more significant and consistent results. Competencies alone may provide leaders with direction, but it is only when they are combined with desired results that they are able to produce “leadership brand”. Direction is strongest and most clear within organisations when competencies explain not only what or how to do something, but why. (Intagliata et al., 2000: 13 - 14)

2.4.2 Competencies are Measurable

A second reason for the importance of competencies in building leadership brand is that, when properly defined, they (and the impact they have on desired results) can be measured. This measurability enables organisations to evaluate the extent to which their leaders are demonstrating the behaviours believed to be critical for success as well as to assess the business-relevant return on resources invested to attain or develop these competencies in their leaders.

The ability to know if individuals are demonstrating the behaviours judged to be critical for producing the organisation’s desired results and/or are making progress in developing them (as judged by follow-up measurement) is a critical aspect of being able to strengthen an organisation’s leadership brand. If the measurement of competency development progress is also coupled with the measurement of the impact of these competencies on business results this heightens the organisation’s capability to progress in its development of leadership brand. (Intagliata et al., 2000: 14)

2.4.3 Leadership Development

Competencies can be learned. Thus if an organisation determines the kind of leadership behaviours critical for its success they can enhance their success in creating leadership
brand by taking steps to develop the capability of their leaders to demonstrate these 
competencies on the job. Unlike personality traits, competencies are characteristics of 
individuals that are (relatively more) malleable—they can be developed and improved. 
(Intagliata et al., 2000: 14)

2.4.4 Organisational Differentiation

A fourth reason why competencies are important for developing leadership brand is that 
they represent a behavioural dimension on which organisations can distinguish and 
differentiate themselves. While two organisations may be generally alike in the kinds of 
financial results they achieve (as well as results related to their employees, customers, 
etc.) the way in which they accomplish this can vary depending on the competencies 
that fit their particular strategy and culture. Having a brand that is differentiated can 
enhance its value. (Intagliata et al., 2000: 14)

2.4.5 Management Practices Integration

Competencies are important for producing leadership brand because they can provide a 
structured model that can be used to integrate management practices throughout the 
organisation. With competencies appropriately defined, organisations can align their 
recruiting, performance management, training and development and reward practices to 
build and reinforce key valued behaviours. Employees in many organisations can feel 
pulled in multiple directions when HR practices reinforce and demand competing 
priorities. If employees and their managers are responding to “mixed signals” about 
what is important within the organisation their capability in producing a recognizable 
and distinct leadership brand is diminished. (Intagliata et al., 2000: 14 - 15)
2.5 LEADERSHIP BRANDING

Leadership brand occurs when a critical mass of leaders work together to deliver desired results, agree on how to deliver these results and develop personal attributes to achieve them. (Zenger and Smallwood, 1999)

To improve product brand, researchers increase product efficacy while marketers work on advertising. When product efficacy and advertising are both successful, product brand is attained and the product typically achieves a price premium of about thirty percent. Leadership branding refers to the same kind of process. To improve leadership brand, leaders must increase their efficacy of attaining results while senior leaders “advertise” these results. (Intagliata et al., 2000: 13)

A clearly identified leadership style can be a powerful factor in attracting, retaining, and motivating the right employees. A positive leadership brand that permeates the organization can also serve as a touchstone for all current employees who are managers or desire to be managers, guiding them toward your organization's "true north" with respect to the leadership behaviours and skills expected of them. (Lawler, 2004: 35)

2.5.1 Building leadership branding through competencies

The likelihood of competency models producing strong leadership brand is enhanced to the extent that they measure up against the following:

1) linkage to and balance across the organisation’s key result areas;
2) alignment with business strategy, organisation capability and values;
3) connection to the organisation’s enabling systems, and
4) differentiation of expectation by role or level within the organisation.
2.5.1.1  Link competencies organisation’s key result areas

Intagliata et al. (2000: 17-18) state that an organisation’s leadership competency model must be linked to its desired results. The stronger, more explicitly and more effectively they are linked, the better. Often organisations pay attention to competencies primarily for the purpose of employee cultural alignment or individual personal development, while objective and goal setting for business results are treated separately as part of the performance appraisal process.

A second key way to strengthen the relevance of an organisation’s competencies is to ensure that they support the accomplishment of desired results that are balanced across multiple stakeholder groups. While a focus on satisfying investors by reaching financial bottom-line goals is critical to any organisation’s success, it is hard to reach those goals consistently and over a long period of time unless attention is also given to achieving employee, customer and organisation results. Leaders who excel in only one area are not effective leaders. Achieving high employee results, demonstrated by high levels of employee commitment and skills, means little if employees' efforts fail to satisfy customers. In such cases, the leader has failed the balance test. Without balance, companies are generally not able to reach their goals on a consistent basis and will never be able to establish a strong leadership brand. (Intagliata et al., 2000: 17-18)

2.5.2.2  Align Competencies with strategy, capabilities and values

Competency models that produce strong leadership brand must be closely aligned with the strategy of the business and with the organisation’s core capabilities and values. These competency models must be current and able to support where the company is headed, not just reflect what made it successful in the past.
Linking leadership competencies to specific organisational core capabilities is another way in which organisations can build a leadership brand that is distinct rather than generic and that will increase their chances for achieving the particular business results they have targeted. Furthermore to create a distinctive leadership brand the organisation needs to ensure that its competencies are clearly aligned with its values. (Intagliata et al., 2000: 18-20)

2.5.2.3 Differentiate competencies by level

It is a common-sense principle that all employees of the organisation need to “be on the same page” and “pulling in the same direction” in order to optimize success. In competency model terms this can be accomplished by creating a competency architecture that highlights a limited number (typically 6-8) of core competencies that all employees share as an expectation to guide behaviour. Organisations will, of course, need to allow some variation in competency expectations from one functional area or unit or job to another, but this variation comes into play only after the core competencies are addressed.

The second aspect of a competency architecture that can enhance leadership brand distinctiveness involves defining each core competency in a manner that provides different expectation levels that match with the different demands of people’s roles (e.g. individual contributor, manager, executive). While it is important that all employees have a “line of sight” to what is expected of them and how that leads to desired results, their individual lines of sight are, in fact, somewhat different depending on their roles and the competency architecture needs to reflect it. (Intagliata et al., 2000: 21)
2.5.2.4 Connect competencies to the organisation’s enabling systems

No matter how good the leadership competency model it may not contribute to developing a strong leadership unless brand it is leveraged fully within the organisation’s enabling systems. The enabling systems of interest here are 1) the human resources systems, 2) the information systems, and 3) the financial systems.

2.5.2.4.1 Human Resources Systems

The human resource systems provide a number of key levers for sending signals to the organisation about what really matters. One of these is the recruiting and selection lever which, when linked to the organisation’s competency model, can screen candidates for hire or promotion on the basis of their alignment with the critical competencies linked to producing the organisation’s desired results. A second is the talent planning and development lever. The organisation can leverage its competency model to great benefit if it audits the current capabilities of its workforce against the competencies and uses the results for talent planning as well as to guide investment in training and development activities that will help close critical competency gaps.

A third key human resources lever is the organisation’s performance planning and management system. This system needs to be tightly connected to the organisation’s competency model and can help to enhance performance particularly if each of the competencies in the model were selected in the first place because of their strong linkage to a particular result or result-category (e.g. employee, customer, investor, etc.). In the performance planning process it then simply becomes a matter of linking a particular individual’s key results accountabilities (“the what”) to the particular competencies (“the how”) that he/she needs to demonstrate to successfully deliver.
The final human resources system lever relates to how the organisation ties reward to the demonstration of competencies. An organisation’s willingness to “put its money where its mouth is” can send a very strong signal to its employees that competencies are taken seriously and “really matter”. An example of how an organisation might do this is would be to sweeten the incentive pay-out to individuals who not only meet their results targets but do so in a way that is very consistent with its competency expectations. (Intagliata et al., 2000: 20)

2.5.2.4.2 The Information Systems

With regard to information systems, this translates into having information technology and/or enterprise guidance systems that help employees better leverage competency related information and applications. For example, individuals could access their own competency profile or those associated with other positions for career development planning, solicit 360 degree feedback, access competency-linked on-line development planning software, etc. Managers could make use of it for resource allocation decisions or for determining optimal staffing for a specific kind of business unit or organisational initiative by matching competencies required by the nature of the work and competency capabilities of individuals within the organisation. (Intagliata et al., 2000: 20-21)

2.5.2.4.3 The Financial Systems

With regard to financial systems, it means having information on individual employee competence not only linked to its traditional HR system components but also with its business performance metrics and tracking capabilities. This kind of linkage would enable management to be able to determine, for example, whether or not more return to the organisation is occurring in those units where specific kinds of competency ratings
are higher and to track the return investment to build competencies through increased productivity or lower costs that might result. (Intagliata et al., 2000: 20-21)

2.5.2 Characteristics of organisations with strong leadership brand

Ulrich, Smallwood and Snyder (2001: 2) state that in research on concepts of leadership brand, they have identified the following characteristics present when a firm possesses a strong leadership brand.

1) Express the importance of leadership for current and future business success.
Executives who believe in the importance of leadership give it their time, attention, and passion. They talk about how leaders are central to their firm’s success; include development of leaders in their assessment of career opportunities; invest resources in training future leaders; and articulate personally and passionately their views of leadership.

2) Craft a clear statement about what makes an effective leader.
If asked the question, “what makes an effective leader at this firm?” executives who understand leadership brand have clear, precise answers often linked to the equation: Effective leadership = attributes x results. Attributes reflect the competencies and behaviors leaders required to accomplish strategy; results are the balanced scorecard for the leadership value proposition. Executives who build brand have a simple, but repeatable point of view about effective leadership that is shared frequently and widely throughout the firm.

3) Translate statement of effective leadership into measures for both behaviours and results.
With a common point of view about effective leadership, leadership brand may then be operationalized. This occurs by turning competency definitions into behaviors that can be observed and measured through a 360-degree feedback instrument. Brand is also
measured by tracking employee, customer, investor, and organisation results. Indicators of these results may become the leadership dashboard for tracking leadership performance.

4) **Invest resources to build individual leadership capability and a leadership system.**

Once the measures are defined, executives may then invest in programmes and activities to create a leadership brand. These investments may include training courses, action learning workshops, career development experiences, coaching, performance management efforts, and culture change.

5) **Ensure clarity about how leadership brand relates to firm brand.**

It was found that a firm’s culture represents its identity in the mind of its best customers. This firm brand engages customers and increases their loyalty and commitment to the firm.

6) **Tie the human resource systems to sustain the brand.**

Human resource systems become the infrastructure of a firm. The following HR questions reinforce a leadership brand: Who is hired, how people are hired what and how leaders communicate, how decisions are made, how information is shared, how performance standards are set, what incentives are used, how rewards are allocated, and how work is allocated. The responses to these questions become the foundation for HR systems. These systems may be more or less aligned to a leadership brand.

7) **Have positive and negative consequences for leaders who do or do not embody the brand.**

Leadership brand is more than an aspiration; it must also be a discipline. Leaders may be more or less affixed to the leadership brand. Leaders who embody the desired brand are promoted and become icons for the firm; leaders who do not embody the brand need to be changed.
8) Ensure that leadership brand permeates all levels of the organisation

If leaders at multiple levels of an organisation were asked, “what does it take to be effective as a leader in this organisation?” similar answers should follow. A brand should have a line of sight from the top to the bottom of the organisation; it should capture the behaviour and results for leaders throughout an organisation; it should be a clear message about leaders throughout.

2.5.3 Benefits of Strong Leadership Brand

Branding is not just developing generic attributes, but developing attributes that lead to a set of specific outcomes and that are aligned with its strategy, core capabilities and values. Employees of firms with branded leaders know what is expected of them, both in terms of how they work but also in terms of what they must accomplish at work. Customers of firms with branded leaders receive a more consistent value proposition whether it is better service, higher quality, or performance, lower prices or greater levels of innovation. Investors see the intangibles of branded leaders and offer these firms a market value premium because they have confidence in the quality of leadership within the firm to deliver results again and again. When an entire leadership hierarchy gets focused on delivering the same results and has developed models identifying relevant attributes to deliver these results, they gain and can sustain a competitive advantage.

As executives pay attention to these characteristics of leadership brand, they will be rewarded by leaders throughout their organisation who add value. These firms will be more likely to gain market value, to attract and retain talented employees, to build customer intimacy, and to create flexible adaptive organisations. (Intagliata et al., 2000: 22)
To be a branded leader, one must turn a business strategy into specific employee, organisation, customer, and investor results. By defining, measuring, and tracking these results, a dashboard for successful leadership may be created. The dashboard enables each leader to know the results he must deliver and to monitor progress against those results. Next, the leader must identify the attributes required to consistently deliver these results. A leader who knows both the results expected, and the attributes required, to achieve those results will develop a unique brand for his firm. This leader will distinguish herself both to employees, supervisors, and ultimately customers. These leaders make a difference not just because of what they say or who they are, but what they deliver. (Ulrich, Smallwood and Zenger, 2000: 3)

2.6 CONCLUSION

In this chapter literature relating to the research problem was presented. A discussion on the concept of branding and how brands are developed was followed by a discussion of leadership and, in particular which attributes are found in effective leaders. This was followed by a discussion on leadership branding and how a positive leadership brand can be developed.

In chapter 3 the research methodology used during this study will be discussed in detail.
Chapter 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Research is defined in the dictionary (Tulloch, 1993: 1306) as “the systematic investigation into and study of materials, sources, etc., in order to establish facts and reach new conclusions”. Leedy and Ormrod (2001: 2) also define research as “a systematic process of collecting, analysing, and interpreting information (data) in order to increase our understanding of the phenomenon about which we are interested or concerned”.

Leedy and Ormrod (2001: 94) state that research studies can be divided into two broad categories: quantitative and qualitative research.  

**Quantitative research** is used to answer questions about relationships among measured variables with the purpose of explaining, predicting and controlling phenomena. This approach is sometimes called the traditional, experimental or positivist approach.  

**Qualitative research** is typically used to answer questions about the complex nature of phenomena, often with the purpose of describing and understanding the phenomena from the participants’ point of view. The qualitative approach is also referred to as the interpretive, constructivist or postpositivist approach.

In this chapter the empirical study designed to address the research question will be outlined. Qualitative and quantitative research methodologies will be discussed first, followed by a description of the research design, data collection method and data analysis process.
3.1 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH METHODOLOGIES

Qualitative research studies typically serve one or more of the following purposes:

*Description*: They can reveal the nature of certain situations, settings, processes, relationship, systems or people;

*Interpretation*: They enable the researcher to (a) gain new insights into a particular phenomenon, (b) develop new concepts or theoretical perspectives about the phenomenon and (c) discover the problems that exist within the phenomenon;

*Verification*: they allow the researcher to test the validity of certain assumptions, claims, theories or generalisations within real-world contexts;

*Evaluation*: They provide a means by which a researcher can judge the effectiveness of particular policies, practices, or innovations.

(Leedy and Ormrod, 2001: 134 – 135)

Leedy and Ormrod(2001: 135) state that there are five common qualitative research designs: case studies, ethnography, phenomenological study, grounded theory study and content analysis. A summary of the five designs is set out in table 3- below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Design</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>Method of data collection</th>
<th>Method of data analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Case study | To understand one person or situation (or perhaps a very small number) in great depth | One or a few cases within its/their natural setting | • Observations  
  • Interviews  
  • Appropriate written documents and/or audiovisual material | • Categorisation and interpretation of data in terms of common themes  
  • Synthesis of an overall portrait of the case(s) |
| Ethnography| To understand how behaviour reflects the culture of a group | A specific field site in which a group of people share a common culture | • Participant observations  
  • Structured or unstructured | • Identification of significant phenomena and underlying structures and beliefs |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualitative Design</th>
<th>Methodology</th>
<th>Data Collection</th>
<th>Data Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Phenomenological study</strong></td>
<td>To understand an experience from the participants’ point of view</td>
<td>A particular phenomenon as it is typically perceived by human beings</td>
<td>• Organisation of data into a logical whole (e.g. chronology, typical day)</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>• Search for “meaning units” that reflect various aspects of the experience</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Integration of the meaning units into a “typical” experience</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Grounded theory study</strong></td>
<td>To derive a theory from data collected in a natural setting</td>
<td>A process, including human actions and interactions and how they result from and influence one another</td>
<td>• Interviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Any other relevant data sources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Prescribed and systematic method of coding the data into categories and identifying inter-relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Continual interweaving of data collection and analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Construction of a theory from the categories and inter-relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Content analysis</strong></td>
<td>To identify the specific characteristics of a body of material</td>
<td>Any verbal, visual or behavioural form of communication</td>
<td>• Identification and possible sampling of the specific material analysed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Coding of the material in terms of predetermined and precisely defined characteristics</td>
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<td>• Tabulation of the frequency of each characteristic</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Descriptive or inferential statistical analysis, as needed, to answer the research question</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3-1:** Distinguishing characteristics of different qualitative designs

*Source: Leedy & Ormrod (2001: 144)*
3.2 QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH METHODOLOGIES

A study that aims to quantify attitudes or behaviour patterns, measure variables on which they hinge, compare and point out correlations. It is most often conducted by means of a survey on a sample that must be representative so that the results can be extrapolated to the entire population studied. It requires the development of standardised and codifiable measurement instruments (structured questionnaires).


Quantitative research falls into two categories: surveys and experiments. Both types of quantitative research employ scientific methods to draw their conclusions. Survey research uses scientific sampling and questionnaire design to measure characteristics of the population with statistical precision. It seeks to provide answers to such questions as "How many people feel a certain way?" and "How often do they behave in a certain way?" Survey research enables management to make comparisons between groups. It provides estimates from a sample that can be related to the entire population with a degree of certainty (e.g., +/- 3% of 57% of the population will answer the question this way 95% of the time).

The quality of the survey can be affected by:

- Response rate - the percentage of those sampled who complete the research;
- Sampling error - the chance difference between the sample and the population from which it was drawn;
- Sample bias - when the sample systematically differs from the population from which it was drawn. For example, a certain segment of the population was not included because they lacked transportation to the facility or did not have a phone.

(Active Living by Design [Online])
3.2.1 Survey Research

Survey Research is the systematic gathering of information from respondents for the purpose of understanding and/or predicting some aspect of the behaviour of the population being investigated. The survey research is concerned with sampling, questionnaire design, questionnaire administration and data analysis.

Person-to-person Interviews

An in-person interview consists of an interviewer asking the respondent questions in a face-to-face situation. The interview may take place at the respondent's home or a research office.

Advantages:

- Flexibility - personal interviews are the most flexible means of conducting a survey. They can be used to administer any type of questionnaire - structured questionnaires with specified but variable question sequences (skip patterns) and unstructured questionnaires requiring a close rapport between the interviewer and the respondent.
- If the project involves material testing, personal interviews allow the interviewer to provide or withhold visual cues when appropriate or necessary.

Disadvantages:

- Takes a long time to code and analyse data.
- Expensive.

Telephone Interviews

Telephone Interviews involve the presentation of the questionnaire by telephone. Computer-Assisted Telephone Interview systems programme a survey questionnaire directly into a computer. The telephone interviewer then reads the questions from a
television-type screen and records the answer directly on the terminal keyboard or directly on to the screen with a light pen.

**Advantages:**

- Flexibility - often the exact set of questions a respondent is to receive will depend on his/her answers to earlier questions. The computer allows for the creation of an "individualised" questionnaire for each respondent based on answers to prior questions.
- The computer can present different versions of the same questions, rotating the order in which the alternatives offered by the question are presented.
- "Bad" questions can be changed and new questions can be added with ease and speed.
- Data analysis is almost instantaneous.

**Disadvantages:**

- Inappropriate for studies that require the respondent to react to the actual product, advertising copy, package design or other physical characteristics.
- The interviewer cannot observe the respondent in order to ensure that instructions are understood.

**Self-Administered Questionnaires**

Respondents complete self-administered questionnaires themselves. Self-administered questionnaires are generally distributed by mail. Upon receipt of the questionnaire, the respondent completes and returns it through the mail to the researcher. The questionnaires can also be distributed by means of magazine and newspaper inserts or can be left and/or recovered by company personnel. Questionnaires enable management to elicit detailed information from respondents who may not otherwise be accessible (homebound, rural, etc.).
Increasingly, the computer is being used for survey administration; respondents are recruited via Internet advertisement, e-mail, or website. Website surveys are particularly advantageous because respondents can answer the questions and submit their responses during a single visit to the website, thus they do not have to take the additional step of mailing their survey (and run the risk of forgetting to do so). In addition, materials can be scanned into the computer for pre-testing. Regardless of the advantages, it should be noted that sampling bias may occur with computer surveys, thereby forcing the researcher to use caution when drawing conclusions.

**Advantages:**

- Inexpensive
- Does not require interviewer time
- Allows respondents to maintain their anonymity and reconsider their responses

**Disadvantages:**

- If mailed, response rate is low
- Often requires follow-up
- May take a long time to receive sufficient responses
- Respondents self-select (potential bias)
- If used for material pre-test, exposure to materials is not controlled
- May not be appropriate if audience has limited writing skills

(Active Living by Design [Online])

### 3.2.2 Advantages and disadvantages of quantitative analysis

Denscombe(2003: 264) states that quantitative analysis has the following advantages:

*Scientific.* Quantitative data lend themselves to various forms of statistical techniques based on the principles of mathematics and probability. Such statistics provide the
analysis with an aura of scientific respectability. The analyses appear to be based on objective laws rather than the values of the researcher.

Confidence. Statistical tests of significance give researchers additional credibility in terms of the interpretations they make and the confidence they have in their findings.

Measurement. The analysis of quantitative data provides a solid foundation for description and analysis. Interpretations and findings are based on measured quantities rather than impressions.

Analysis. Large volumes of data can be analysed relatively quickly. Once the procedure is operational, researchers can interrogate their results relatively quickly.

Presentation. Tables and charts provide a concise and effective way of organising and communicating the findings to others.

Denscombe(2003: 264) also states that quantitative analysis has the following disadvantages:

Quality of data. The quantitative data are only as good as the methods used to collect them and the questions that are asked.

Technicist. There is a danger that the researcher may become obsessed with the techniques of analysis at the expense of the broader issues underlying the research. With the power of computers, attention can sway from the real purpose of the research towards an overbearing concern with the technical aspects of analysis.

Data overload. Large volumes of data can be a strength of quantitative analysis but, without care, it can start to overload the researcher. Too many cases, too many variables, too many factors to consider – the analysis can be driven towards too much complexity. The researcher can get swamped.
False promise. Decisions made during the analysis of quantitative data can have far-reaching effects on the kinds of findings that emerge. In some respects, the analysis of quantitative data is no more neutral or objective than the analysis of qualitative data.

3.2.3 Advantages and disadvantages of qualitative analysis

Denscombe(2003: 280 - 281) states that qualitative analysis has the following advantages:

The data and the analysis are ‘grounded’. A particular strength associated with qualitative research is that the descriptions and theories such research generates are ‘grounded in reality’. It suggests that the data and the analysis have their roots in the conditions of social existence. There is little scope for ‘armchair theorizing’ or ‘ideas plucked out of thin air’.

There is a richness and detail to the data. The in-depth study of relatively focused areas, the tendency towards small-scale research and the generation of ‘thick descriptions’ mean that qualitative research scores well in terms of the way it deals with complex social situations.

There is tolerance of ambiguity and contradictions. To the extent that social existence involves uncertainty, account of that existence ought to be able to tolerate ambiguities and contradictions, and qualitative research is better able to do this than quantitative research. This is not a reflection of a weak analysis. It is a reflection of the social reality being investigated.

There is the prospect of alternative explanations. Qualitative analysis, because it draws on the interpretive skills of the researcher, opens up the possibility of more than one explanation being valid. Rather than a presumption that there must be, in theory at least,
one correct explanation, it allows the possibility that different researchers might reach different conclusions, despite using broadly the same methods.

Denscombe (2003: 281 - 282) also states that qualitative analysis has the following disadvantages:

*The data may be less representative.* The flip-side of qualitative research’s attention to thick description and the grounded approach is that it becomes more difficult to establish how far the findings from the detailed, in-depth study of a small number of instances may be generalized to other similar instances. Provided sufficient detail is given about the circumstances of the research, however, it is still possible to gauge how far the findings relate to other instances, but generalisability is more open to doubt than it is with well conducted qualitative research.

*Interpretation is bound up with the ‘self’ of the researcher.* Qualitative research recognises more openly than does quantitative research that the researcher’s own identity, background and beliefs have a role in the creation of data and the analysis of data. The research is ‘self-aware’. This means that the findings are necessarily more cautious and tentative, because it operates on the basic assumptions that the findings are a creation of the researcher rather than a discovery of fact. On the other hand, it may be argued that quantitative research is trying to gloss over the point - which equally well applies – that the greater exposure of the intrusion of the ‘self’ in qualitative research inevitably means more cautious approaches to the findings.

*There is a possibility of decontextualising the meaning.* In the process of coding and categorising the field notes, texts or transcripts there is a possibility that the words (or images for that matter) get taken literally out of context. The context is an integral part of the qualitative data, and the context refers to both events surrounding the production
of the data, and events and words that precede and the actual extracted pieces of the data that are used to form the units for analysis.

There is the danger of oversimplifying the explanation. The quest to identify themes in the data and to develop generalisations the researcher can feel pressured to underplay, possibly disregard, the data that ‘doesn’t fit’. Inconsistencies, ambiguities, alternative explanations can be frustrating in the way they inhibit nice clear generalisation – but they are an inherent feature of social life. Social phenomena are complex, and the analysis of qualitative data needs to acknowledge this and avoid attempts to oversimplify matters.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

The scientific method is a means whereby insight into the unknown is sought by:

(1) identifying a problem that defines the goal of one’s quest;

(2) positioning a hypothesis that, if confirmed, resolves the problem;

(3) gathering data relevant to the hypothesis; and

(4) analysing and interpreting the data to see whether they support the hypothesis and resolve the question that initiated the research.

(Leedy and Ormrod, 2001: 33)

To determine the research design, the research problem should be clarified. The research problem in this study is:

How is a positive leadership brand developed?

The following sub-problems were identified and addressed to deal with and solve the research problem:
• What is a leadership brand and how is it developed?
• Which leadership attributes contribute to the developing of a positive leadership brand?
• What are the views of South African managers regarding leadership branding?

A literature study was conducted to address the first two sub-problems. Relevant literature on the subject was obtained through searching the electronic databases (EBSOhost) on the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University’s library website and obtaining relevant books from the university’s library. In addition, the Internet was searched for relevant literature. The results of this literature study were reported upon in chapter 2.

In order to solve the third sub-problem, (what the views are of South African managers regarding leadership branding), a questionnaire was developed based on the information from chapter two. The method of administering the questionnaire is discussed in more detail in section 3.4.

3.4 DATA COLLECTION

Leedy and Ormrod (2001: 185) identify questionnaires as one of the techniques for gathering survey data that can be sent to a large number of people. The authors also point out that participants can respond to questions safe in the knowledge that their responses will be anonymous, and may therefore be more truthful than they would be in a personal interview. In this study a combination of questionnaire and rating scale checklist will be used because of the relative low cost, ease of administration and as it allows respondents to maintain their anonymity and reconsider their responses.
3.4.1 The questionnaire

Closed questions were mostly used, since this type of question is quicker and easier to answer. They are also easier to process in the data analysis stage. A few open questions were included where it was difficult to anticipate all the possibilities. A 5-point rating scale would be used to determine respondents’ opinions to the closed questions.

The questionnaire (appendix 2) for this research was divided into three parts. Section A was compiled by requesting biographical data and by using closed and open-ended questions. The questions related to some biographical of the respondents and their organisation as well as the respondents’ perceptions and experiences of leadership development activities.

The aim of section B of the questionnaire was to get the views of the respondents regarding leadership branding. Questions in this section were mostly close-ended requesting the respondent to indicate his/her response by marking the appropriate blocks. A form of open-endedness was added by allowing respondents to add additional comments to questions 2.2, 2.8, 2.10, 2.11 and 2.12.

Section C of the questionnaire asked respondents to rate the impact of stated leadership attributes on:

   a) Impact on leadership brand; and
   
   b) Impact on results.

The respondents had to indicate their rating in the appropriate boxes. The rating scale was as follows:

1 – NO OR VERY LITTLE IMPACT

2 – LITTLE IMPACT
3 – MODERATE IMPACT
4 – STRONG IMPACT
5 – VERY STRONG IMPACT

3.4.2 The sample

Employees in leadership positions, ranging from middle to senior management of three selected organisations in the Nelson Mandela Metropole were used as a sample in completing the questionnaire. Although it is acknowledged that informal leaders play a pivotal role in any organisation’s success; this research focused on leaders in formal leadership positions. The rationale behind this is that it is the behaviour of the formal leadership that has the greatest influence on an organisation’s leadership brand.

Although the exact number of companies, which supply products to the local motor assembly plants in the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan area, is unknown, the Automotive Improvement Development Centre (AIDC) maintains an official database of local suppliers to the motor industry. This database (at the time of this study) had 135 companies registered, of which 37 had more than 200 employees. From this population, 18 were considered as being progressive in terms of human resource practices and implementing world-class management philosophies. A sample of 50 potential respondents from three of these organisations was selected for this study.

3.4.3 The administration of the questionnaire

An individual at each of the organisations surveyed handled the distribution of the questionnaire in their particular organisation. The questionnaires were either handed out or e-mailed to managers (as preferred by the potential respondents) and they were
supplied with envelopes to ensure confidentiality, encourage openness and honesty and to ensure that the respondents remained anonymous.

A covering letter was attached to the questionnaire that explained the reason for the questionnaire. The respondents were assured that the questionnaire would not take long to complete and that the information was viewed as confidential.

The initial deadline for returning the completed questionnaire to the contact persons was set for 30 October 2005.

### 3.4.4 The response rate

A response rate of 82 percent was eventually achieved. This can be accepted as being a very good response rate. It must be noted however that the due date for the return of the completed questionnaires was extended on two occasions and the final due date was 18 November 2005. Furthermore the contact persons knew the respondents personally, which further contributed to the good response rate achieved.

#### Table 3-2: The response rate attained in the survey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DATE RECEIVED</th>
<th>NUMBER OF QUESTIONNAIRES DISTRIBUTED</th>
<th>NUMBER OF QUESTIONNAIRES RETURNED</th>
<th>RESPONSE RATE (PERCENTAGE)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18 November 2005</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter attempted to provide an extensive analysis of the methodology of the research conducted. The different theoretical methodologies and the methodologies chosen to conduct this particular research were discussed.

The following chapter will consist of an analysis and interpretation of the response data obtained by means of the questionnaire.
Chapter 4 : INTERPRETATION OF THE RESULTS OF THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The research design and the process used in the empirical study were described in the previous chapter. The results of the empirical study will be presented in this chapter. The data will be interpreted in terms of the questionnaire, namely

- the biographical data;
- respondents’ exposure to training and leadership development activities;
- respondents’ perceptions on the importance of brands;
- how leaders are given feedback on leadership behaviour;
- respondents’ perceptions on the impact of leader style on leadership brand; and
- perceptions of the respondents of the impact of leadership attributes
  a) on leadership brand; and
  b) delivering results.

This chapter will attempt to answer the third sub-problem: what the views are of managers regarding leadership branding. The results are presented in the form of tables and graphs to provide a graphical illustration and to ensure a clear interpretation.
4.2 RESULTS FROM THE QUESTIONNAIRE

4.2.1 Results from Section A of the questionnaire

Table 4-1 indicates that the majority of the respondents were from the Port Elizabeth area. Figure 4-1 is a graphical illustration of this data.

Table 4-1: Geographical area covered in the survey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Geographical area</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Port Elizabeth</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>75.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uitenhage</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>24.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>41</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4-1: Graphic illustration of geographical area covered in the survey

Table 4-2 and figure 4-2 indicate the distribution of the different positions in which the respondents are employed. The data reflects a diverse group of respondents from different departments. Thirteen different departments were categorised which indicates
a good spread of exposure and differences that should make the study more relevant and applicable.

**Table 4-2: Positions held by respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nature of the position of the respondent</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Management</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Resources</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information Technology</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logistics Management</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing Management</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Production Management</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project Management</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality Management</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supply Chain Management</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Management</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>41</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4-2: Graphic illustration of positions held by respondents**
Table 4-3 indicates the average number of subordinates per respondent. This question was included to determine the respondents’ exposure to teams and their need to provide leadership to teams. The response of 19.3 subordinates per respondent indicates that the respondents on average have relatively large teams to manage.

Table 4-3:  Number of subordinates per respondent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Average number of subordinates to each respondent</th>
<th>19.3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Table 4-4 and Figure 4-3 illustrate the qualification level of the respondents. The majority of the respondents (85.4 %) have post-grade 12 qualifications.

Table 4-4:  Educational qualification of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualifications of respondents</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade 10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B Degree/Diploma</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>48.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honours/Higher Diploma</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>24.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters Degree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4-3:  Graphic illustration of qualifications held by respondents
Table 4-5 and figure 4-4 indicate the age of the respondents. The majority (41.5%) fall into the 31 – 40 age bracket and 95.1 percent of the respondents are thirty years and older. This implies that the majority of the respondents have had a number of years’ working experience and that they could provide valuable input for this study.

Table 4-5:   Age of the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age of respondents</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>30 and younger</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 – 40</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>41.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 – 50</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>36.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51 and older</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4-4:  Graphic illustration of the age of respondents

The responses to the questions relating to the respondents’ exposure to training and leadership development activities revealed that 96.7 percent of respondents have a
training department and 90 percent of all respondents have received training in leadership development. This is illustrated in table 4-6.

**Table 4-6: Respondents’ exposure to training**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Does your organisation have a training department</td>
<td>96.7 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you ever received training in leadership development</td>
<td>90.0 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4-5 illustrates the different types of leadership development activities the respondents were exposed to. Most respondents, who have participated in leadership development activities, indicated that it took the form of in-house training programmes.

**Figure 4-5: Respondents’ exposure to leadership development activities**

Question 1.10 of the questionnaire asked respondents to rate the importance of different activities on leadership development. Figures 4-6 to 4-14 shows the results to this question.
Question 1.10.1: Extent of impact of formal classroom training on leadership development. As per figure 4-6, 64 percent of the respondents indicated that formal classroom training has a strong to very strong impact on leadership development.

**Figure 4-6: Response to question 1.10.1**

![Figure 4-6: Response to question 1.10.1](image)

Question 1.10.2: Extent of impact of coaching on leadership development. As per figure 4-7, all respondents indicated that coaching has some impact on leadership development and 72 percent of the respondents indicated that coaching has a strong to very strong impact on leadership development.

**Figure 4-7: Response to question 1.10.2**

![Figure 4-7: Response to question 1.10.2](image)
Question 1.10.3: Extent of impact of mentoring on leadership development. As per figure 4-8, all respondents indicated that mentoring have an impact on leadership development. And 58 per cent of the respondents indicated that mentoring has a strong to very strong impact on leadership development.

Figure 4-8: Response to question 1.10.3

Question 1.10.4: Extent of impact of action learning on leadership development. As per figure 4-9, 52 percent of respondents indicate that action learning has a strong to very strong impact on leadership development.

Figure 4-9: Response to question 1.10.4
Question 1.10.5: Extent of impact of 360-degree feedback on leadership development. As per figure 4-10, 55 percent of all respondents indicated that 360-degree feedback has strong to very strong impact on leadership development.

**Figure 4-10: Response to question 1.10.5**

![Pie chart showing response to question 1.10.5]

Question 1.10.6: Extent of impact of challenging job assignments on leadership development. Figure 4-11 illustrates that all respondents indicated that exposure to challenging job assignments has at least a moderate impact on leadership development. Furthermore 76 percent of respondents indicated that challenging job assignments have a strong or very strong impact on leadership development.

**Figure 4-11: Response to question 1.10.6**

![Pie chart showing response to question 1.10.6]
Question 1.10.7: Extent of impact of job rotation on leadership development. As per figure 4-12, 43 percent of respondents indicated that job rotation has a strong to very strong impact on leadership development.

**Figure 4-12: Response to question 1.10.7**

The triangulation of question 1.101 –1.10.7 yields the following result.

**Figure 4-13: Response to combined question 1.10**

(78)
From the combined result of question 1.10 (figure 4-13) it can be deduced that a combination of different activities will have the biggest impact on leadership development. The various leadership development activities and their degree of importance are depicted in figure 4-14. Respondents rated challenging job assignments and coaching to have the highest impact on leadership development and job rotation to have the lowest impact on leadership development.

**Figure 4-14: Leadership development activities in degree of importance**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Challenging job assignments</td>
<td>76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coaching</td>
<td>72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal Classroom training</td>
<td>64%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentoring</td>
<td>57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>360-degree feedback</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action learning</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job rotation</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.2.2 Summary of Section A data

- The data received from the questionnaires may be considered a representative sample of managerial opinion from the organisations surveyed, since 82 percent response rate was achieved from respondents from thirteen different managerial positions within the organisations. The majority of respondents (85.4 %) held a qualification higher than grade twelve and the majority is within the 31 – 50 year age group. It can thus be deduced that the respondents are educated and have been exposed to business in general as well as leadership activities.
• Ninety percent of the respondents indicated that they have been exposed to leadership development activities which took the form of either one of or a combination of:
  o in-house training programmes;
  o attending leadership seminars;
  o mentoring;
  o coaching; or
  o formal classroom training.

The respondents also indicated that a variety of activities should be used in leadership development and that coaching and challenging job assignments would have the greatest impact on leadership development.

4.2.3 Results from Section B of the questionnaire

On the question of whether brands are important, 97.5 percent of the respondents indicated that brands are important in their organisation. This is depicted below in Table 4-7. Figure 4-15 shows that the organisations surveyed places high value on company and product brand, but relatively low importance on employment and leadership brands.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4-7:</th>
<th>Respondents’ view on the importance of brands</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are brands important in your organisation</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>97.5 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4-8 indicates that 95.1 percent of respondents agreed with the definition of a leadership brand as provided in the questionnaire. Only two respondents indicated that they agreed only partly with the definition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4-8: Response to question 2.3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you agree with definition 2.3 in the questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As illustrated in Figure 4-16, the majority of the respondents (80 percent) indicated that a positive leadership brand plays a significant role in an organisation’s competitive position. Furthermore as per Table 4-9, virtually all respondents (90.2 percent) agreed that resources should be spent on building an organisation’s leadership brand.
The majority (75.6 percent) of respondents indicated that leaders are not given feedback regarding the leadership behaviours that they display. This is illustrated in Table 4-10.

**Table 4-10: Response to question 2.7**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.4%</td>
<td>75.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As per Figure 4-17, when feedback on leadership behaviour is given, it is most frequently done during performance appraisals.
As per Table 4-11 only 58.5 percent of the respondents indicated that there are positive consequences for leaders that display desired leadership behaviours in their organisations. These positive consequences normally are a combination of promotion, financial rewards and public recognition as displayed in Figure 4-18.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In your organisation, are there positive consequences for leaders who display desired leadership behaviours</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>58.5 %</td>
<td>41.5 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4-18: Consequences of desired leadership behaviours
Figure 4-19 shows that customer satisfaction was measured and tracked in 97.5 percent of the organisations surveyed. In contrast with this only 52.5 percent of respondents indicated that employee satisfaction is measured and tracked. Furthermore investor satisfaction and organisational agility receive even less attention.

**Figure 4-19: Graphic illustration of measures applied**

Question 2.12 asked respondents to rate impact of different leadership styles on the leadership brand. Figure 4-20 – Figure 4-32 shows the results to this question.

Question 2.12.1: Extent of a coercive leadership style on leadership brand. Figure 4-20 illustrates that 25 percent of the respondents indicated that a coercive leadership style has a strong to very strong impact on developing a strong leadership brand.
Question 2.12.1: Extent of impact of an authoritative leadership style on leadership brand. As per figure 4-21, only 28 percent of the respondents indicated that an authoritative leadership style has a strong to very strong impact on developing a positive leadership brand.

Figure 4-21: Response to question 2.12.2
Question 2.12.3: Extent of impact of an affiliative leadership style on leadership brand.

As per figure 4-22, respondents rated an affiliative leadership as having a moderate to strong influence on developing a positive leadership brand.

**Figure 4-22: Response to question 2.12.3**

![Pie chart showing impact ratings for affiliative leadership](image)

Question 2.12.4: Extent of impact of a democratic leadership style on leadership brand.

Figure 4-23 illustrates that 55 percent of the respondents rated a democratic leadership style as having a strong to very strong impact on leadership brand.

**Figure 4-23: Response to question 2.12.4**

![Pie chart showing impact ratings for democratic leadership](image)
Question 2.12.5: Extent of impact of a pacesetting leadership style on leadership brand. Figure 4-24 illustrates that 63 percent of the respondents rated a pacesetting leadership as having a strong to very strong impact on leadership brand.

Figure 4-24: Response to question 2.12.5

Question 2.12.6: Extent of impact of a coaching leadership style on leadership brand. As per figure 4.25 all respondents viewed a coaching style as having at least a moderate impact on creating a positive leadership brand. Furthermore 70 percent of respondents indicated that a coaching style has a strong to very strong impact on leadership brand.

Figure 4-25: Response to question 2.12.6
Question 2.12.7: Extent of impact of an authoritarian leadership style on leadership brand. As per figure 2-26, 28 percent of respondents indicated that an authoritarian leadership style has a positive impact on leadership brand. Furthermore 39 percent of respondents indicated that an authoritarian leadership style has no impact on creating a positive leadership brand.

**Figure 4-26: Response to question 2.12.7**

Question 2.12.8: Extent of impact of a consultative leadership style on leadership brand. As per figure 4-27, 98 percent of respondents indicated that a consultative leadership style has at least a moderate impact on creating a positive leadership brand.

**Figure 4-27: Response to question 2.12.8**
Question 2.12.9: Extent of impact of a persuasive leadership style on leadership brand. As per figure 2-28, the majority (90 percent) of the respondents indicated that a persuasive leadership style has at least a moderate impact on developing a positive leadership brand and 60 percent indicated that the impact is either strong or very strong.

**Figure 4-28: Response to question 2.12.9**

Question 2.12.10: Extent of impact of a participative leadership style on leadership brand. Figure 2-29 illustrates that all respondents indicated that a participative leadership style has at least a moderate impact on developing a positive leadership brand. Furthermore 80 percent of respondents indicated that a participative leadership style has a strong to very strong impact on leadership brand.

**Figure 4-29: Response to question 2.12.10**
Question 2.12.11: Extent of impact of a laissez-faire leadership style on leadership brand. As per figure 4-30, only 18 percent of respondents indicated that a laissez-faire leadership style has a positive impact on developing a positive leadership and 57 percent of respondents indicated that it has no impact on creating a positive leadership brand.

**Figure 4-30: Response to question 2.12.11**

The triangulation of question 2.12.1 – 2.12.11 yields the following combined result.

**Figure 4-31: Response to combined question 2.12**
From the combined result of question 2.12 (figure 4-31) it can be concluded that the leadership style displayed does have an influence on the leadership brand of the organisation. Furthermore respondents indicated that a variety of leadership styles has an impact on creating a positive leadership, the appropriate leadership style being determined by the situation. The participative and coaching leadership styles are rated to have the greatest influence on a positive leadership brand, while the laissez-faire style is seen to have the least impact on creating a positive leadership brand. The various leadership styles and their degree of importance are depicted in Figure 4-32. From figure 4-32, it can be seen that leadership style that were rated as most important (participative and coaching), as the leadership style that require high levels of employee involvement.

**Figure 4-32: Leadership styles in degree of importance**
4.2.4 Summary of Section B data

- Most respondents indicated that brands are important in their organisations and that the most important brand tends to be company and product brands. The response further indicates that employment and leadership brands are currently viewed as less important. However the majority of respondents (80.5 percent) believe that a positive leadership brand will have a strong to very strong influence on the competitive position of an organisation. This is further confirmed by the fact that 90.2 percent of the respondents indicated that organisational resources, such as time and money, should be invested to create a distinctive leadership brand.

- The majority of respondents (75.6 percent) indicate that leaders are not given regular feedback on the leadership behaviours that are displayed. When feedback is given, it is most likely at (annual) performance appraisals. Furthermore only 58.5 percent of respondents indicated that leaders who display desired behaviours are rewarded, usually with a combination of promotion, financial rewards or public recognition.

- The respondents indicated that a variety of leadership styles has an impact on creating a positive leadership brand. The participative and coaching style were rated as having the highest impact on creating a positive leadership brand.

4.2.5 Qualitative analysis of the results of Section C of the questionnaire

The questions in section C were designed to measure the extent of impact of leadership attributes on creating a positive leadership brand and the impact of these attributes on achieving results. The questions were based on the information gained from the literature study.
4.2.5.1 Impact of leadership attributes on leadership brand

Table 4-12 represents a rating of the extent of impact of leadership attributes on creating a positive leadership brand. The attributes rated by the respondents as having statistically the greatest influence on creating a positive leadership brand, are honesty and integrity as well as trustworthiness. The attributes rated by the respondents as having statistically the lowest impact on creating a positive leadership brand, are sense of humour, extroversion, empathy and humility. However it is noted that on average the respondents rated all the leadership attributes in the questionnaire as having at least a moderate impact on creating a positive leadership brand. Thus it can be concluded that a strong link exists between leadership attributes and leadership brand.

Table 4-12: Leadership attributes ranked in extent of impact on leadership brand

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership attributes</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Honesty and integrity</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trustworthiness</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiative</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-confidence</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enthusiasm</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passion for people</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of the business</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passion for work</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assertiveness</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courage</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional stability</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenacity</td>
<td>3.625</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warmth</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2.5.2 Impact of leadership attributes on results

Table 4-13 represents a rating of the extent of impact of leadership attributes on the leader’s ability to deliver results. The attributes rated by the respondents as having statistically the greatest impact on delivering results, are honesty and integrity as well as trustworthiness. The attributes rated by the respondents as having statistically the lowest impact on delivering results, are sense of humour, extroversion, empathy and humility. However it is noted that on average the respondents rated all the leadership attributes in the questionnaire as having at least a moderate impact on results. Thus it can be concluded that a strong link exists between leadership attributes and the leader’s ability to deliver results.

Table 4-13: Leadership attributes ranked in terms of impact on results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership attributes</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Honesty and integrity</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trustworthiness</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiative</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of the business</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-confidence</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enthusiasm</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passion for people</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passion for work</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The analysis of the data furthermore revealed a near perfect positive correlation (Pearson product movement correlation coefficient of 0.9912) of leadership attributes’ impact on creating a positive leadership brand and the leaders’ ability to deliver results. Therefore it can be concluded that a positive leadership brand will have a positive impact on organisational results. Therefore a strong link exists between leadership attributes, leadership brand and delivering organisational results.

### 4.3 INTEGRATING THE RESULTS

In this section the results from the empirical study will be integrated with the literature survey presented in chapter 2.

#### 4.3.1 Leadership development activities

Results from the empirical study indicate that respondents consider a combination of development activities to have the most impact on leadership development. This is
supported by the literature, with Hernez-Boome and Hughes (2004: 25) stating that a variety of development activities should be utilised in leadership development. Furthermore Latty-Mann (2004: 12) proposes that all development activities should have a feedback component, such 360-degree feedback to ensure maximum benefit.

4.3.2 Feedback

Results from the empirical study indicate that feedback regarding the leadership behaviour that leaders displays are not given regularly (some respondents indicated that no feedback is given). Furthermore from the empirical study, almost half of the respondents indicated that in their organisations the link between desired leadership behaviours are not clear or do not exist. This is in contrast with the literature as Latty-Mann (2004: 12) states that regular feedback is necessary for leadership development and furthermore regular feedback is needed to ensure that leaders who display desired behaviours are rewarded (Ulrich, Smallwood & Snyder, 2001: 14). A possible reason for the lack of feedback is that the organisations surveyed do not have a clear statement of which behaviours makes an effective leader in the organisation.

4.3.3 Leadership styles

Generally the results from the empirical study regarding the impact of leadership styles agree with the literature. The leadership styles where there is a contract between what was found in the empirical study and the literature are the authoritative and pacesetting styles.

As per the results from the empirical study, only 28 percent of respondents rated the authoritative leadership style as playing an important role in building a positive
leadership brand. This contrasts with the literature, where this leadership style is highly regarded, particularly for the positive impact that it generally has on organisational climate (Goleman, 2000: 83–84). Leaders who use this leadership style, involve employees and solicit employee perspective on the vision for the unit (Appendix 3). Furthermore a key aspect of the authoritative leadership style is that standards for success are clear to all, as are rewards (Goleman, 2000: 83–84). This would all have a positive impact on the leadership brand. As per Appendix 3, the authoritative leadership style is however seen to be least effective when trying to promote self-managed work teams and participatory decision-making. A possible explanation for the disparity between the results from the empirical study and the literature is that the organisations surveyed may be in the process of implementing mission-directed work teams and that employee involvement is encouraged. In these situations, the authoritative leadership style would be less appropriate.

The results of the empirical study also indicate that the respondents rate the pacesetting leadership style high for its contribution to developing a positive leadership brand. The literature however claims that the pacesetting leadership style destroys climate and employee morale (Goleman, 2000: 86). A possible explanation of this difference between the results from the empirical study and the literature survey is that the pacesetting style is often effective when quick results are required (Appendix 3). The organisations surveyed were all component supplier to the motor industry, which is characterised by rapid change and fierce competition. Thus it may be that the respondents focused on the quick results aspect of the pacesetting leadership style and not it larger negative impact on organisational climate.
4.3.4 Leadership attributes

Leadership attributes are highly regarded by several authors (Dubrin, 2004; Shelton, 1999; Goleman, 2004; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991) as essential for effective leadership. This was confirmed by the results from the empirical study as respondents rated the impact of leadership attributes on both creating a positive leadership brand and achieving results as significant.

4.4 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter was to analyse and interpret the data obtained from the research questionnaire. The aim was to solve the third sub-problem that seeks to understand the views of managers regarding leadership branding. The next chapter will focus on various recommendations based on the previous findings of this study.
Chapter 5 : SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter the results of the empirical study were presented and integrated with the literature study, presented in chapter 2. In this chapter the main findings will be summarised. Recommendations regarding building positive leadership brand and further research relating to this study will be made.

5.2 MAIN FINDINGS

The research problem posed in this research was:

How can a positive leadership brand be developed which will enhance the competitive position of an organisation?

The following were the most pertinent issues that emerged from this study:

- Brands and branding are considered to be an important part of most business enterprises and as such companies are already investing considerable resources in developing and positioning brands. However it was found in this study that branding exercises are primarily focused on developing company and product brands. Employment and leadership brands receive much less attention and fewer resources are invested in these types of brands. Thus it was found that most of the branding exercises are focused outwardly and developing internal brands receive less attention.
This study found support for building a positive leadership brand and that a positive leadership brand can enhance the competitive position of an organisation. Furthermore it was found that organisational resources such as time and money should be invested to create such a positive leadership brand. Despite this, companies are not currently investing sufficiently in developing leadership brands.

Leadership attributes are still considered key to leadership success. A formula for effective leadership was proposed in the literature, effective leadership = attributes X results, which proposes for leaders to be effective they must both achieve results and display desired attributes. A variation of this can be stated as follows:

- **Proper application of leadership attributes** → **Effective leadership** → **Results**

Which can be thought of as a process as follows: the proper application of leadership attributes leads to effective leadership that leads to desired results.

On-going training and exposure to leadership development activities are important. Companies recognise this and as such investment in leaders are made by exposing them to a variety of leadership development activities. This study found that challenging job assignments and coaching achieves the greatest impact. Although support for the 360-degree feedback tool was found, it is most effective when used in conjunction with and to complement other development activities.

From the empirical study it was established that feedback to leaders on the behaviours that they display are not regular or do not exist. When feedback is
given, it was to be during (annual) performance appraisals. The literature points out that feedback is essential and that it needs to be frequent.

- It was found that in practice the link between rewards and desired behaviour is virtually non-existent or leaders are unaware of it. This is an important link as rewards drive behaviour. When leaders are rewarded for the behaviours that they display, it would be a combination of promotion, financial rewards or public recognition.

- Leadership styles are seen to have an important impact on developing a positive leadership brand. Although it was found in both the literature review and the empirical study that the situation determines the most appropriate style, it was found that the participative and coaching leadership styles have the greatest positive impact on developing a positive leadership brand.

- Finally, it was found that customer service is by far the element that is most frequently measured and tracked. This almost exclusive focus on customer service may lead to companies sacrificing other important elements such as employee and investor satisfaction, which may lead to declining customer service level. It is thus important that the areas that the company chooses to measure and track are strategically balanced.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

The recommendations can be made to assist organisations in developing positive leadership brands:
Step 1: Express the importance of leadership for current and future business success.

To achieve this objective, leaders can use the concepts of marketing to sell the leadership message to employees. Furthermore the importance of leadership for the organisation can stressed by investing in leadership development activities and linking it to career development.

Step 2: Craft a clear statement about what makes an effective leader.

Organisations must devise clearly crafted statement of what makes an effective leader. This statement must clearly state the desired results and leadership attributes required from leader in the organisation. This statement must be based on the strategy, value and organisational capability of the organisation at the time.

Step 3: Translate statement of effective leadership into measures for both behaviours and results.

With a common point of view about effective leadership, leadership brand may then be operationalised. This occurs by turning competency definitions into behaviors and linking desired behaviours with rewards. Brand is also measured by tracking employee, customer, investor, and organisation results. Indicators of these results may become the leadership dashboard for tracking leadership performance.

Step 4: Invest resources to build individual leadership capability and a leadership system.

Leaders need frequent feedback on leadership behaviours that they display. The following process is proposed:

- Use 360-degree feedback to identify attributes which need attention
Choose appropriate development activities
Allow opportunity to develop desired attributes
Repeat 360-degree feedback exercise on a two- to three-monthly basis

Step 5: Have positive and negative consequences for leaders who do or do not embody the brand.

Leadership brand is more than an aspiration; it must also be a discipline. Leaders may be more or less affixed to the leadership brand. Leaders who embody the desired brand are promoted and become icons for the firm; leaders who do not embody the brand need to be changed.

Step 6: Ensure that leadership brand permeates all levels of the organisation

If leaders at multiple levels of an organisation were asked, “what does it take to be effective as a leader in this organisation?” similar answers should follow. A brand should have a line of sight from the top to the bottom of the organisation; it should capture the behaviour and results for leaders throughout an organisation; it should be a clear message about leaders throughout.

Step 7: Advertise the leadership brand both internally and externally

Once the leadership brand is taking shape in the organisation, leaders should advertise the brand internally in order to leverage it as a powerful communications tool and to engage the organisation’s human capital. The brand must also be advertised externally in order to attract new talent to the organisation and to make the organisation’s leadership brand known to other stakeholders such as (potential) investors and customers.
5.4 OPPORTUNITIES FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study can provide a basis for further research. The recommendations made as well as the empirical component can make a contribution to further studies into problems and issues highlighted in this research. Further research could investigate:

- the role of non-formal leaders in leadership branding;
- This study focused on middle and senior level leaders. A study involving leaders at lower levels such as first line managers or shopstewards could add valuable insight;
- A further study as to the views of team members regarding leadership branding; and
- A study, which investigates how, an organisation’s leadership brand influences its ability to attract customers and what role the organisation’s leadership brand plays when joint ventures and partnership agreements are negotiated, could be the subject for a further study.
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SURVEY EVALUATION OF THE EFFECTS OF LEADERSHIP BRAND ON
COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE

Dear colleague

I would greatly appreciate if members of your organisation who fall into the middle and
top-level management structure can complete the attached questionnaire. The aim of the
questionnaire is to gather data for a project titled:

THE EFFECTS OF LEADERSHIP BRAND ON COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE

The questionnaire is designed in such a way that it will take no more than 15 minutes to
complete. The questionnaire will be treated as strictly confidential and it would be
impossible to identify the organisations taking part in the survey.

Kindly return the completed questionnaire before 30 October 2005.

Should you require any further information I can be contacted by the following means:

Telephone number: 082 444 2461
Email: jerome.baatjes@webmail.co.za

Thank you for your co-operation

Jerome Baatjes
MBA student: NMMU Business School
Appendix 2: Questionnaire

SECTION A – BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

Please answer the following questions by marking the appropriate block, or by writing your answer in the space provided.

1.1 In which geographical area is your organisation located?

Port Elizabeth
Uitenhage
Other (Please state)
_________________

1.2 Approximately how many middle and senior managers are employed in your organisation?

_________________

1.3 What is the nature of the position that you hold?

_________________________________________________________

1.4 How many people report to you?

_________________

1.5 What is your highest qualification?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade 10</th>
<th>Honours/Higher Diploma</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade 11</td>
<td>Masters degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 12</td>
<td>Doctorate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B Degree/Diploma</td>
<td>Other (please specify)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>________________________</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.6 What is your age?

| 30 and younger |
| 31–40          |
| 41–50          |
| 51 and older   |
1.7 Does your organisation have a training department?

| Yes | No |

1.8 Have you ever received any training in leadership development?

| Yes | No |

1.9 If your answer was Yes in question 1.8, please indicate below which forms of leadership training you received.

| 1.9.1 In-house training programmes |
| 1.9.2 Attending leadership seminars |
| 1.9.3 Mentoring |
| 1.9.4 Coaching |
| 1.9.5 Formal classroom training |

1.9.4 Other (Please state) ____________________________

1.10 Please indicate, in your opinion, the extent of impact of the following activities on leadership development

Legend:  1 – NO OR VERY LITTLE IMPACT
         2 – LITTLE IMPACT
         3 – MODERATE IMPACT
         4 – STRONG IMPACT
         5 – VERY STRONG IMPACT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extent of impact</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 1.10.1 Formal Classroom training |
| 1.10.2 Coaching |
| 1.10.3 Mentoring |
| 1.10.4 Action learning |
| 1.10.5 360-degree feedback |
| 1.10.6 Challenging job assignments |
| 1.10.7 Job rotation |

1.10.8 Other (Please state) ____________________________
SECTION B: LEADERSHIP BRANDING

2.1 Are brands important in your organisation?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

2.2 If your answer was Yes in question 2.1 please indicate which of the following type of brands are important in your organisation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2.2.1 Company brand</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.2.2 Products brands</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.3 Employment brand</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.4 Leadership brand</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.5 Other (Please state)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

"A leadership brand occurs when a critical mass of leaders work together to deliver desired results, agree on how to deliver these results, and develop personal attributes to achieve them."

2.3 Do you agree with this definition above?

Yes [ ] No [ ] Partly [ ]

2.4 If your answer was No or Partly in question number 2.3, please supply your definition in the space provided below.

______________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________
2.5 What influence does a company’s leadership brand have on competitive advantage?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>Little</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>Very strong</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.6 Should resources (time, money, etc.) be invested to create a distinctive leadership brand?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

2.7 Are leaders in your organisation given regular feedback on the leadership behaviours they display?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

2.8 If your answer was Yes in question 2.7 please indicate below how feedback on leadership behaviour given.

2.8.1 At performance appraisals [ ]
2.8.2 Results from employee satisfaction surveys [ ]
2.8.3 360-degree feedback [ ]
2.8.4 Other (Please state) [ ]

2.9 In your organisation, are there positive consequences for leaders who display desired leadership behaviours?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

2.10 If your answer was Yes in question 2.9 please indicate below which consequences.

2.10.1 Promotion [ ]
2.10.2 Financial rewards [ ]
2.10.3 Public recognition [ ]
2.10.4 Other (Please state) [ ]

__________________________
2.11 Are the following measured and tracked in your organisation?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.11.1 Employee satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.11.2 Customer satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.11.3 Investor satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.11.4 Organisational agility</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.11.5 Other (Please state)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.12 How do the following leadership styles impact on leadership brand?

Legend: 1 – NO OR VERY LITTLE IMPACT
        2 – LITTLE IMPACT
        3 – MODERATE IMPACT
        4 – STRONG IMPACT
        5 – VERY STRONG IMPACT

<p>| | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Extent of impact</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.12.1 Coercive style</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.12.2 Authoritative style</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.12.3 Affiliative style</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.12.4 Democratic style</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>2.12.11 Laissez-faire</td>
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**SECTION C: LEADERSHIP ATTRIBUTES**

Please indicate, in your opinion, the extent of the impact of the following traits on:

a. creating a positive leadership brand (image)

b. impact on results

Legend: 1 – NO OR VERY LITTLE IMPACT  
2 – LITTLE IMPACT  
3 – MODERATE IMPACT  
4 – STRONG IMPACT  
5 – VERY STRONG IMPACT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trait</th>
<th>Impact on Leadership brand</th>
<th>Impact on results</th>
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<tr>
<td>3.1 Self-confidence</td>
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<td>3.2 Humility</td>
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<td>3.3 Trustworthiness</td>
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<td>3.4 Extroversion</td>
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<td>3.7 Enthusiasm</td>
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<td>3.9 Warmth</td>
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<td>3.10 Passion for people</td>
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<td>3.11 Passion for work</td>
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<td>3.12 Flexibility</td>
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<td>3.13 Courage</td>
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<td>3.14 Empathy</td>
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<td>3.16</td>
<td>Honesty and integrity</td>
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<td>Initiative</td>
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<td>Tenacity</td>
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<td>3.22</td>
<td>Knowledge of the business</td>
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<td>3.23</td>
<td>Other (Please state)</td>
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THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION AND SUPPORT
PLEASE RETURN THE COMPLETED QUESTIONNAIRE NO LATER THAN
30 OCTOBER 2005
1. THE COERCIVE STYLE

Primary Objective:
Immediate compliance

When using this style, a manager:
- gives lots of directives vs. direction by telling employees what to do, and does not listen to or permit much employee input;
- expects immediate employee compliance or obedience;
- controls tightly, through close monitoring;
- relies on negative, corrective feedback to emphasise what is being done wrong, and sometimes uses attention-getting strategies (e.g. ridicule, name-calling) to embarrass an employee into compliance; and
- motivates by stating the negative consequences of non-compliance rather than by rewarding compliance.

The Coercive style is most effective:
- when applied to relatively straightforward tasks;
- in crisis situations, when employees need clear directions and the manager has more information than the employees;
- when deviations from compliance will result in serious problems (e.g. enforcing safety regulations); and
- with problem employees, when all else has failed and improvement or termination are the only options.

The Coercive style is least effective:
- when applied to tasks that are not straightforward - the more complex the task, the more ineffective this style becomes, possibly provoking rebellion;
- over the long-term, because employees are not being developed and tend to rebel, resist passively, or leave; and
- in extended interactions with self-motivated employees capable of directing and monitoring their own work; with talented, knowledgeable employees expected to initiate or innovate; or with individual specialists.

Summary

When used effectively, the Coercive style draws immediate and, for the most part, willing response from employees. In cases when employees resist directions, despite the effective use of the Coercive style, employee termination is the next logical step. When not used effectively, over the long-term, the Coercive style draws passive resistance, rebellion, resignation, and in the worst instances, physical damage to an organisation or strategic damage to major objectives.
2. The Authoritative Style

*Primary Objective:*
*Providing long-term direction and vision for employees*

When using this style, a manager:

- takes responsibility for developing and articulating a clear vision and direction for the organisation;
- solicits employee perspective on the vision and/or on the best way to get there, without surrendering authority;
- sees selling the vision or direction as a key part of the manager's job;
- persuades employees by explaining the why's behind the vision, in terms of employees' or the organisation's long-range best interests;
- sets standards and monitors performance in relation to the larger vision; and
- uses a balance of positive and negative feedback to enhance motivation.

*The Authoritative style is most effective:*

- when a new vision or clear direction and standards are needed (e.g. in times of change);
- when tasks are routine and employees' performance adequate;
- when the manager is perceived to be the "expert" or "authority"; and
- with new employees who depend on the manager for active guidance.

*The Authoritative style is least effective:*

- when the manager is not perceived as credible, or if used extensively with sophisticated and experienced employees who know as much or more than the manager; and
- when trying to promote self-managed work teams and participatory decision-making.

*Summary*

When used effectively, the Authoritative style motivates employees, particularly new ones, by focusing their attention on the long-term goals of the work unit and the way in which day-to-day efforts support these goals. When not used effectively, this style fails to take full advantage of the natural talents and ideas of knowledgeable employees.
3. The Affiliative Style

**Primary Objective:**
Creating harmony among employees and between managers and employees

When using this style, a manager:

- is most concerned with promoting friendly interactions among co-workers;
- places less emphasis on task directions, goals and standards than on meeting employees' outstanding emotional needs;
- pays attention to and cares for "the whole person" and stresses things that keep people "happy" (e.g. job security, fringe benefits and family-job trade-offs);
- identifies opportunities for positive feedback and avoids performance-related confrontations; and
- rewards personal characteristics sometimes as much as job performance.

The Affiliative style is *most effective*:

- when used as part of a repertoire including the Authoritative, Democratic or Coaching styles;
- when giving personal help (e.g. counselling); and
- in getting diverse, conflicting groups of individuals to work together harmoniously.

The Affiliative style is *least effective*:

- when employees' performance is inadequate and corrective performance feedback is necessary for improvement;
- in crises or complex situations needing clear direction and control; and
- with employees who are task oriented or uninterested in friendship with their manager.

**Summary**

When used effectively, the Affiliative style motivates employees by supporting them during either highly routine or stressful times. By strategically and explicitly focusing on the human element of a situation, this style often succeeds in getting the job done. When not used effectively, the Affiliative style leads to low standards, a sense of favouritism, lack of clarity, and frustration for many employees.
4. The Democratic Style

*Primary Objective:*

*Building commitment among employees and generating new ideas*

When using this style, a manager:

- trusts that employees have the capability to develop the appropriate direction for themselves and the organisation;
- invites employees to make decisions affecting their work;
- reaches decisions by consensus;
- holds many meetings and listens to employees’ concerns; and
- rewards adequate performance and rarely gives negative feedback or punishes.

The Democratic style is *most effective:*

- when employees are competent - when they have at least as much information and knowledge as the manager;
- when employees must be co-ordinated;
- in instances when a manager is unclear about the best approach or direction and has competent employees who might have clearer ideas; and
- after having used the Authoritative style for creating and championing a vision; switching to the Democratic style will yield the “how-to’s”, if employees are competent and possess critical information.

The Democratic style is *least effective:*

- in crises, when there’s no time to hold meetings; and
- when employees are incompetent, lack crucial information, or need close supervision.

**Summary**

When used effectively, the Democratic style motivates employees by empowering them to make decisions about their own work processes and goals. It is designed to create teamwork and team commitment to achieve those goals. When used ineffectively, the Democratic style produces confusion, delays, and conflict among employees or between employees and the manager due to lack of focus and direction.
5. The Pacesetting Style

Primary Objective:
Accomplishing tasks to high standards of excellence

When using this style, a manager:

• leads by example or "modelling";
• has high standards and expects others to know the principles/rationale behind what is being modelled or the strategy being followed;
• is apprehensive about delegating a task without assurance that the person can do it to a high standard;
• takes responsibility for tasks away from the person if high performance is not forthcoming;
• has little sympathy for poor performance;
• rescues the situation or urgently gives detailed task instruction when employees experience difficulties and ask for help, and thus does not develop employees; and
• sees co-ordination with others only as it impacts the immediate task.

The Pacesetting style is most effective:

• when employees are highly motivated and highly competent, so that they need little direction and co-ordination;
• when managing "individual contributors" (e.g. scientists in R&D; legal function) and having individual-contributor responsibility oneself (e.g. also a researcher or lawyer);
• when quick results are required; and
• for developing employees who are similar to the manager.

The Pacesetting style is least effective:

• when the manager cannot do all his/her work personally (e.g. when the organisation grows, requiring increased delegation); and
• when employees need direction, development, and co-ordination.

Summary

When used effectively, the Pacesetting style works for employees who are completely self-motivated and understand their objectives. It is also important for demonstrating that a manager can "pitch in with the troops" when necessary. This style is less effective in times of organisational change when an explicit discussion of the mission and employees' roles is warranted. Also, it can produce extreme stress as the manager takes on more of the work of his or her subordinates.
6. The Coaching Style

*Primary Objective:*

*Long-term professional development of employees*

When using this style, a manager:

- helps employees identify their unique strengths and weaknesses in light of their aspirations;
- encourages employees to establish long-range development goals;
- reaches agreement with employees on both the manager's and the employees' roles in the development process;
- provides ongoing instruction - with underlying rationales and principles - as well as feedback to facilitate employees' development; and
- may trade off immediate standards of performance for long-term development.

The Coaching style is *most effective:*

- when employees acknowledge a discrepancy between their current level of performance and where they ideally would like to be; and
- with employees who are motivated to take initiative, be innovative and seek professional development.

The Coaching style is *least effective:*

- when the manager lacks expertise;
- when employees require much direction and feedback; and
- in crises.

Summary

When used effectively, the Coaching style motivates employees by linking their daily work to personal long-term objectives. It helps employees develop sound thinking strategies that build their confidence in functioning more autonomously. When not used effectively, the Coaching style leaves employees unsure about what they should be doing next and can result in diminished standards and procrastination in regard to solving problems.