

**TITLE OF THESIS:**

**An evaluation of bureaucratic leadership as a panacea for effective  
performance among subordinates  
by**

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**at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology**

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Date submitted (August 2021)**

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## **ABSTRACT**

This research explored bureaucratic leadership as a dominant style in South African public institutions. Despite criticism in certain sections of the literature, bureaucratic work arrangements continue to be a key feature in government departments. Given this controversy on the efficacy of bureaucracies, the study was set to describe the bureaucratic leadership style and its effects on the productivity of members of a public entity selected in Cape Town. A close-ended questionnaire was used to gather data and attain the set objectives. The results of the study showed that bureaucracies offer both benefits and negative consequences. Some of their benefits include a high degree of order, consistency and the strict adherence to principles while it suffers from such negative consequences as rigidity, nepotism and poor creativity. The study recommended that bureaucracies in government should be merged with other leadership styles.

**Keywords:** leadership, bureaucratic leadership, effective performance, subordinates

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## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this to my grandmother IDA BIYANA (Madlomo) who raised me with nothing and gave me love and education, to become a better person.

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# CHAPTER ONE

## BACKGROUND TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE STUDY GAP AND PROVIDES THE PROBLEM STATEMENT

**Research question:** Does bureaucratic leadership influence effective performance amongst subordinates?

**Hypothesis:** Bureaucratic leadership directly influences effective performance amongst subordinates.

**Keywords:** leadership, bureaucratic leadership, effective performance, subordinates

### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

The dynamic changes within the global market where industries operate demand organisations to adjust and adapt to the continuous changes. These dynamic changes in the business environment require an effective input from every level of the organisation so that the organisational goals can be met (Smith and Lewis, 2011:381-403). Human capital is an important asset for an organisation, but for it to be utilised it needs leaders who can convert the energy in these individuals to work performed. Thus, leadership plays a pivotal role in the smooth running of the organisation and achieving its goals if it is managed effectively as it allows subordinates to embark on creative practices which result in the successful execution of projects. Subordinates, alone without leaders, may not successfully execute a project or their duties as they require the guidance of a leader. There is need for a leader who provides direction as to how things should be done and to ensure that the subordinates are motivated to perform. Having an understanding that leaders have the means and powers to run organisations, their impact on subordinates is significant. Research findings have indicated that leadership styles play critical roles in shaping subordinates' attitudes towards job performance and job satisfaction.

There are several leadership styles that a leader can use to motivate subordinates to perform, but this study focuses on the impact of the bureaucratic style. This style is of particular interest since it is the most common in public institutions and large organisations which employ large numbers of people. Literature on bureaucratic leadership has acknowledged significant positive impacts on subordinates' performance. This research begins by exploring on the concept of transformational leadership, followed by research literature review, problem statement, research objectives, research question and research methodology.

## 1.2. BACKGROUND TO STUDY

Leadership style is the most predominant issue that impact subordinates' attitudes and behaviours as well as their commitment to their organisations. Various leadership styles have been used as a way getting things done in the way that the leader wants them to be done. Amongst the commonly used leadership styles are democratic leadership, autocratic leadership, laissez-faire leadership, strategic leadership, transformational leadership, transactional leadership and bureaucratic leadership (Ojokuku, Odetayo and Sajuyigbe, 2012:202-207). The honors of which leadership style to use lies on the discretion of the leader as to whether he or she wants to be considerate about the folowers' readiness, the nature of the task to be done as well as teammembers' diversity differences. The issue of leadership can be traced back to ancient times as there are trends showing the various stages that leadership have gone through to date. Throughout history, studies have been conducted to determine what makes some people better leaders than others. Some of the most often quoted historical leaders include, amongst others, Plato, Machiavelli, Hobbes and Locke, Confucius and Xunxi (Turner and Muller, 2005:49). Most of these studies have identified different key elements to effective leadership which can be traced back to 500 BC. Table 1.1 below shows the six modern historical schools of leadership.

**Table 1.1: Six modern and three historical schools of leadership**

School	Period	Main Idea	Example authors
Confucius	500BC	Relationships (jen), Values (xiao), process (li) Moderation (zhang rong)	Chen
Aristotle	30BC	Relationship (pathos), values (ethos), process (logos)	Collinson and Covey
Barnard	1938	Relationship versus process	Barnard
Trait	1930-1940	Effective leaders show common traits, leaders are born not made	Kirkpatrick and Locke
Behaviour or style	1940-1950	Effective leaders adopt a certain styles or behaviours. Leadership skills can be developed	Blake and Mouton, Tannenbaun and Schmidt
Contingency	1960-1970	What makes an effective leader depends on situation	Fiedler, House, Robbins
Visionary or charismatic	1980-1990	Two styles Transformational: concern for relationship. Transactional concern for process	Bass
Emotional Intelligence	2000's	Emotional Intelligence has greater impact on performance than intellect	Goleman et al
Competency	2000's	Effective leaders exhibit certain competencies including traits behaviours and styles	Dulewicz and Higgs

**Source: Adapted from Muller and Turner (2006:22).**

As indicated above in table 1.1, leadership did not emerge recently, but it is a phenomenon which came a long way as early as 500 BC.

According to Muller and Turner (2005:50) with regards to successful leadership styles and competence, we have to consider:

- The growth of leadership theory throughout the 20<sup>th</sup> century
- Literature on behaviour of teams and team members

Barnard (1993) as cited by Muller and Turner (2005:51) suggest an executive to have both managerial and emotional functions which he deemed cognitive and cathetic.

- Cognitive functions include aiding, directing and constraining choices and actions.
- Cathetic functions include emotional and motivational aspects of goal setting and developing faith and commitment to a larger moral purpose.

Similarly, over the last seventy years, there have been six main schools of leadership theory (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2003; Handy, 1982; Partington, 2003):

1. The trait school
2. The behavioural or style school
3. The contingency school
4. The visionary or charismatic school
5. The emotional intelligence school
6. The competency school.

### **1.2.1 The Trait School**

The idea behind this school is that effective leaders share common traits. It effectively assumes that leaders are born, not made. Attempts to identify the traits of effective leaders have focused on three main areas:

- Abilities: hard management skills
- Personality: such as self-confidence and emotional variables
- Physical appearance: including size and appearance.

### **1.2.2 The Behavioural or Style School**

The behavioural or style school was popular from the 1940s to the 1960s. It assumed that effective leaders adopt certain styles or behaviours. It assumes that effective leaders can be made. The theories characterize managers or leaders against one or two parameters and place them on a one-dimensional continuum or in a two-dimensional matrix. The parameters are tabulated below in table 1.2:

**Table 1.2: Parameters**

Parameter	Explanation
1. Concern for people or relationships	This refers to the degree to which a leader is likely to have job relationships characterised by shared trust, respect for subordinates' ideas and regard for their state of mind.
2. Concern for production	These leaders emphasize technical or task aspects of the job instead of focusing on employees.
3. Use of authority	This is the degree to which a leader is likely to define and structure his or her role and those of subordinates in the pursuit for goal accomplishment.
4. Involvement of the team in decision-making (formulating decisions)	This is the extent to which a leader is likely to involve the team in decision-making in the search for goal attainment.
5. Involvement of the team in decision-taking (choosing options)	This is the extent to which a leader is likely to involve the team in decision-taking in the search for goal attainment.
6. Flexibility versus the application of rules.	It refers to how a leader shows flexibility of behavioural responses in the face of disparity in two conflicting situations

**Source: Own construction**

The table 1.2 above emphasises the need for good leadership that emanates from a good relationship with followers. An ideal leader does not have subordinates but has followers, hence the ability to influence the behavioural patterns of their followers. Over and above all else, the ability to delegate and get the team involved assists in lessening the burden of leadership, this primarily becomes a critical element of good leadership. Effective project managers are known to have particular focus on both tasks and people thereby marrying followers to specific relevant tasks. As illustrated in table 1.3 below.

**Table 1.3: Four styles of a project manager based on parameters 4-6 in Behavioural School.**

Parameter	Laissez-faire	Democratic	Autocratic	Bureaucratic
Team Decision-making	High	High	Low	Low
Team Decision-taking	High	Low	Low	Low
Flexibility	High	High	High	Low

**Source: Adapted from Muller and Turner (2005:51)**

Table 1.3 above shows that effective leaders adopt certain styles or behaviours. It further characterises leaders against one or two parameters and place them on a one-dimensional continuum or in a two-dimensional matrix as shown in table 3 above.

**1.2.3 The Contingency School**

The contingency school spoke of rather than looking for universal theories of leadership that would apply in every situation, contingency theories advise that what makes an effective leader would depend on the situation. They tend to follow the same pattern:

1. Assess the characteristics of the leader.
2. Evaluate the situation in terms of key contingency variables
3. Seek a match between the leader and the situation.

Below is table 1.4 which shows leadership styles, project team types and project life cycle.

**Table 1.4: Leadership styles, project team types and project life cycle**

Leadership Style	Stage	Team Type	Team Nature
Laissez-faire	Feasibility	Egoless	Experts with shared responsibility
Democratic	Design	Matrix	Mixed discipline working on several tasks
Autocratic	Execution	Task	Single Discipline working on separate tasks
Bureaucratic	Close out	Surgical	Mixed working on single task

**Source: Adapted from Muller and Turner (2005:51).**

From table 1.4 above, laissez-faire is associated with shared responsibility by experts in a particular expertise, democratic leadership has to do with mixed disciples working on multiple tasks, autocratic leadership being made up of single discipline which works on a single task and bureaucratic having to do with mixed team members to work on single task.

#### **1.2.4 The Visionary or Charismatic School**

The visionary school was popular during the 1980s and 1990s and arose from the study of successful business leaders leading their organizations through change. Bass (1990) as cited by Muller and Turner (2005:51) identified two types of leadership, transactional and transformational:

##### 1. Transactional leadership:

- Emphasizes conditional rewards, rewarding followers for meeting performance targets.
- Manages by omission, taking action when tasks are not going as planned.

##### 2. Transformational leadership:

- Exhibits charisma, developing a vision, engendering pride, respect and trust.
- Provides inspiration, motivating by creating high expectations and modelling correct behaviours.
- Gives thought to the individual, paying personal attention to followers and giving them respect.
- Provides academic motivation, challenging followers with new ideas and approaches.

### **1.2.5 The Emotional Intelligence School**

Further investigations from the writings of Muller and Turner (2005:52) tell that emotional intelligence school has been popular since the late 1990s, and teacher leader's that emotional intelligence has a greater impact on his success as a leader—and the performance of his or her team—than does the leader's intellectual competence

They identified four dimensions of emotional intelligence, and, from there, six leadership styles:

- Visionary • Democratic
- Coaching • Pacesetting
- Affiliative • Commanding.

### **1.2.6 The Competency School**

The emphasis has been to identify the competencies of effective leaders. Competencies can be learned, so leaders can be made, not born. Different combinations of competencies show the way to different styles of leadership, appropriate in different situations, producing transactional leaders in situations of low complexity and transformational leaders in situations of high complexity. Competencies can be technical or intellectual in nature, emphasizing Barnard's cognitive roles, or emotional in nature, emphasizing Barnard's cathectic roles and the domains of emotional intelligence.

The project management body of knowledge found a definition that applies to this particular field of leadership. The definition emphasizes the role of leadership as the change driving force for even more than we may expect in organizations with continuing leader and follower roles:

Project leadership is defined as a presence and a process carried out within an organizational role that assumes responsibility for the needs and rights of those people who choose to follow the leader in accomplishing the project results.

There is usually a limited amount of time, money, and other resources, i.e. the project has several constraints (Makilouko, 2003:388)

According to Munns and Bjeirmi (2006:82), a project has a direction towards higher and long-term goals. Important characteristics of these goals returned on investment, profitability, competition and market ability.

A variety of factors will affect the ability to achieve these goals, which have been identified by various authors. Amongst the commonly raised factors, table 1.5 below gives a clarity or an explanation of these factors:

**Table 1.5: Factors that affect performance of subordinates.**

(a) Objectives;	These are things aimed at or goals.
(b) Project administration;	This is organising the necessary team members and facilitating projects under the management of a project manager.
(c) Third parties;	These are people who may be indirectly involved but is not a major party to an procedure or business.
(d) Relations with client;	It is the way a leader deals with his or her clients which can be friendly or hostile.
(e) Human parties;	These are stakeholders involved in a project
(f) Contracting;	Is entering into a formal and lawfully binding treaty.
(g) Legal agreements;	This is reciprocated understanding between two or more lawfully knowledgeable individuals or entities about their rights and duties regarding their past or future routines and contemplation (Barnett, 2010:1751).
(h) Politics;	Can be defined as the activities related with the governance of a project especially the argument between parties having power to do the project.
(i) Efficiency;	It is regarded as the ability to circumvent wasting resources and time in doing a project or something to produce the desired outcome.
(j) Conflicts and	This a state of disagreement between ideas or interests of project stakeholders
(k) Profit.	It is a financial gain or the difference between the amount earned and the amount spent in producing something.

**Source: Own construction**

As indicated above in table 5, the performance of subordinates is not affected by a single factor, but by several factors such as conflicts, contracting, profit to be gained after having done or performed the tasks as per the expectations. Thus, subordinates' performance can be affected by different things as indicated above which then adversely affect project completion.

Current writings, would imply that the success of a project is dependent on having the following items tabulated below in table 1.6:

**Table 1.6: Project success factors**

Term	Explanation of the term
Realistic goal	These are the goals in which the probability of attaining them are high.
Competition	It is the condition of pushy to win something by overcoming or defeating others.

Client satisfaction	This is the degree to which the customers are pleased with your products or services.
A definite goal	This is an aim that is precise and clear.
Profitability	It is a measurement of a business's capability to yield a return on an venture based on its possessions in evaluation with an different investment.
Market availability	It can be defined as the number of individuals who are willing and have the capacity to buy a specific product or service in a precise market.
The implementation processes	This is the stage at which what has been planned is put into action.
The perceived value of the project	It has to do with the worthy a project generates for its stakeholders in terms of efficiency, effectiveness and their satisfaction.

**Source: Own construction**

As shown above in table 1.6, there are several factors that come into play for a project to be successful such as having definite goals, availability of the market, profitability of the venture, competition, the implementation process and the perceived value of the project. If the goals are not definite it means that the project will not be successful as there will be no clear direction to follow. Also, if the venture is not implemented well, then the project may fail as well since the success of the project is dependent on the implementation process. Another factor to consider is the perceived value of the project by the stakeholders as they determine the extent to which the project will be done effectively and efficiently basing on their perception that the project brings to them.

Project success also is affected by many other external factors outside the direct control of the project leader. This is one of the key reasons why projects can succeed or fail independently of the leadership process.

According to Love, Lopez, Goh and Tam (2011:849) design errors are a warning sign of dysfunctional directorial and managerial practices that run within the construction industry. Design errors contribute to cost and schedule growth, and rework. They also endanger safety and are major contributors to accidents that occur during and post construction. Considerable failures are focused on to emphasize the harmful role that errors, and failures can have upon the safety of workers and the general public. Typically, with regards to engineering and construction projects, many of the failures that occur could have been prevented if design checks and reviews had been undertaken and appropriate managerial and project management practices had been put into place. Instead cost and time pressures appear to be prevailing factor contributing to errors and failures.

Project management has for a long time been seen as a practical capability area. Project managers are good at 'cracking the whip' to ensure that iron triangle performance is achieved (Walker and Walker, 2011: 388).

There is proof that dynamic projects may gain advantage from selecting their project manager according to how well suited they are to the type of project. Dynamic projects are more likely to benefit from managers with flexibility, the ability to trade-off broadly, and the ability to find trouble, especially if it is not apparent. If a project deals with high levels of new material, then the project manager's work experience needs to be equally high. Hands on managers are favourable on inventive projects (Collyer and Warren, 2009: 362).

Research in the construction industry is beginning to pay more attention to project leadership. Current perception of construction project leaders is largely built around power, authority, and task-orientation. This is due to the traditional focus of the construction industry on technical and managerial features of construction projects. The greater challenges of prevailing times and increasingly different business environment demand for a renewed vision for leadership research and call for a change in traditional awareness and mindset about leadership in the construction and engineering industry (Toor and Ofori, 2007:260).

Toor and Ofori (2007: 260) further state that research has shown that the project manager is one of the most important success factors of projects. Site managers have an impact on the overall quality and cost of the project and the quality of the individual site manager may affect the project cost by as much as 10%. Leadership is one of the most important subjects in management studies.

The complexity of today's project environment has created an even greater need to ensure that construction an engineering organisation have effective career development programmes to fill project management roles with the 'right' people for successful delivery (Madter, Bower and Aritua, 2011:1)

According to (Wang, Dulaimi and Aguria, 2004: 237–252) the context of construction and engineering industry, the occurrence of a definite event or combination of events which occur during the whole process of construction to the disadvantage of the project a lack of predictability about structure outcome or consequences in a decision or planning situation the uncertainty associated with estimates of outcomes – there is a chance that results could be better than expected as well as worse than expected.

Engineering organizations operate not just one hierarchy but also multiple hierarchies. Sometimes these are professional hierarchies that co-exist in a single organization with

the bureaucratic hierarchy. Sometimes they are the interacting hierarchies of several organizations. This has implications for how to influence behaviour in organizations, both intra and inter-organizational behaviour. The higher the status of the manager, the greater their degree of personal judgment in the performance of their work. This sort of work is often described as professional. Professions are organized in several ways through professional networks and systems of peer review, and through professional hierarchies. These hierarchies provide training and accreditation for subordinates whose work is subject to license from above. One or more professional hierarchy may co-exist alongside the bureaucratic hierarchy within a single organization. This arises because in the face of difficult and complex work, professionals' segment or pigeonhole the task resulting in several hierarchies. The more complex the work, the more professional the hierarchies are likely to be, and the greater the need for the senior managements to be involved (Pratt, Plamping and Gordon, 2007:9).

With regards to bureaucratic leadership and structures, Bien and Marion (2009:631) see them as complex as he states: that we should focus on shifting leadership from the industrial age to the knowledge era. The Leadership of bureaucratic forms of organizing describes how adaptive dynamics can work in combination with administrative functions to generate emergence and change in organizations. Complexity leadership approaches are consistent with the central claim leadership is multi-level, procession, contextual, and interactive.

The findings of a study done by Zehir, Ertosunb, Zehir and Múceldili (2011: 1740) do not support the previous research that suggested that bureaucratic organizational culture has a negative effect on the organizational outcomes. The positive relationship between community culture and performance may be explained by the fact that community culture, elements of personnel commitment, teamwork, and self-management were placed high among the organizational values.

Engineering design team members have no choice but to have work-related exchange of output and input. In a recent study, Kratzer et al. (2006:88) indicate that the coordination of the workflow network can be used as a managerial tool to inspire creativity in innovation teams. There are two components that mainly determine this structure.

- First, there is the breakdown of the task at hand and the follow-on interface that require team member exchanges.
- Secondly, there is the coordinating hand of the team leader who can connect or

disconnect team members for managerial reasons.

In innovation work systems this structure certainly changes and adapts to the shifting challenges and tasks. The role of team leaders in workflow networks is double. Team leaders as coordinators; monitor the workflow and change when the situation requires it. On the other hand, team leaders themselves have to be proactive in the workflow and projects so as to be able to evaluate the work progress and to steer the team.

This double role has certain consequences for the creativity of the team. Team leaders who are strongly involved in the workflow network easily become overloaded with knowledge and decision needs, and this stifles creativity since team members may receive the necessary input delayed or not at all. A central position within the workflow network may discourage team members from finding original solutions by centralizing the responsibilities of work-related issues. On the other hand, without the monitoring and steering of the project team or site members, the team may shift away from seeking creative solutions (Kratzer, Leenders and Engelen, 2007: 280).

In understanding the relationship between leadership behaviours and team performance outcomes, it becomes clear that regardless of whether the leadership function is shared as in co-leadership, rotated throughout the team, or primarily held by one individual team leadership is ideal for time, cost and quality management. While shared leadership requires additional coordination between those leading the team, as they now become in essence a multi-team system (leader–leader and leader–team), the basic leadership behaviours as applied to team members in facilitating team performance would not be different. At its most basic level, ‘team’ leadership is about what the leader or leaders do to facilitate team performance (Burke, Stagl, Klein, Goodwin, Salas and Halpin, 2006: 303).

An analysis by Yang, Huang and Wu (2011:258), showed that increases in levels of leadership may enhance relationships among team members. More specifically, the results point out that the project managers who adopt transactional and transformational leadership may improve team communication, team collaboration, and team cohesiveness. In investigating the relationship between teamwork and project performance, teamwork is positively related to project performance. The findings suggest that project success in terms of schedule performance, cost performance, quality performance, and stakeholder satisfaction can be achieved with stronger team communication and collaboration as well as greater team cohesiveness. The study by Odusami, Iyagba, and Omirin (2003; 525) further enforces this as it was found that there was a significant connection between preferred management style of

the site managers and their level of effectiveness. The result means that high performing site managers are more likely to prefer the team management style. Four leadership styles were identified and used in a survey conducted; the leadership styles are shareholder leadership, autocrat leadership (bureaucratic similar leadership style), consensus leadership and consultative autocratic leadership. The best leadership style in terms of overall performance was found to be consultative autocrat. In this type of leadership, the project leader absorbs the information input from the team members but makes the ultimate decision. The least effective style was autocratic leadership under this leadership style; the project leader has complete authority in decision making with little or no input from the project team members. This finding is significant in that it will help the would-be project leader to identify the best leadership style he should adopt for the optimum result in his projects and which one to avoid escaping from disaster.

Academics of the engineering industry alternatively believe Leadership opportunities should be appropriately formalized and delegated, with full and unambiguous executive, funding and administrative support, and exercise within an operating structure (Goh, Hartle and Brodie 2011:7).

### **1.3 PROBLEM FORMULATION**

There is a marked increase in the use of management operations as projects, since there is a difference between project management and operations management as alluded to. The failure rate of projects however remains high, specifically in engineering projects, where the management of the project-execution-processes is done by engineering professionals. Considering the number of technological advances, it is expected that tasks are done more efficiently, yet the failure rate has remained high. Consequently, the focus of researchers has turned to the human element which is the only common factor amidst all these developments. Studies on leadership has identified different styles of leadership, with each having different results dependent on the style and who it is practiced on. The study focuses on the impact of bureaucratic leadership style because of the general use of this style in most government and large organisations. The study sought to identify, if any, positive aspects of this method that might save as the answer to the high failure rate of project execution in government and large organisations.

## **1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES.**

Research objectives are the expectations that the researcher has in their mind at the start of the research project. These therefore inform how the problem statement will be translated into measurable findings at the conclusion of the research project. These objectives have been divided into two parts to enable maximum understanding (covering) of the study, namely, primary research objective and secondary research objectives.

### **1.4.1 Primary research objectives**

- To identify the positive impact of the bureaucratic leadership style in the motivation of project employees to effectively perform.

### **1.4.2 Secondary research objectives**

Secondary objectives are a more detailed form / elaborated explanation of the main or primary research objective. In a sense, the research objective broken into finer components, namely;

- To identify employee attitude towards a manager who clearly defines exactly what is to be done in detail.
- To identify what the employees think about the use of many policies as a means of getting things done correctly and uniformly.
- To identify the thinking of the employees in a work environment where they have many people to go through to get problems solved.
- To identify the extent to which the chain of command affects the employees' effectiveness and performance of their tasks.
- To identify the impact of the structure pertaining to the subordinates' aspirations to senior positions in the organization.
- To identify the impact of the structure on employees' performance where managers seem to be protected by rules and regulations.
- To identify the impact of the bureaucratic structure on the decision-making process and impact on performance.
- To identify the aspects of the bureaucratic system that are considered positively by the subordinates.

## **1.5 THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The research questions are generally a direct derivative of the objectives in that they assist in addressing specifically issues that directly to the research expectations. Jowah (2015:87) posits that the research question is critical in giving directions to the study, since the questions assist on the identification of the literature to be reviewed in

research. As is in the structure of the research objectives, the research questions have been divided into two parts, namely; main question (primary question) and sub-questions (secondary questions).

#### **1.5.1 Main research question**

- What aspects of the bureaucratic leadership style assist in the motivation of subordinates to perform well in a project environment?

#### **1.5.2 Sub-questions**

- How do you feel when your manager identifies to the last dot the tasks you are expected to perform during project execution?
- How do you feel about the presence of many rules and policies that govern your operations in the workplace?
- What do you think about the many different management / supervision layers you pass through to get the responses to issues?
- How are you affected by the chain of command in the performance of your daily project tasks?
- What do you think is the impact of the tall structure in a bureaucratic organisation in providing you an opportunity to be promoted?
- What do you think is the impact of the tall structure with the many policies and rules as this relates to the functioning of the manager?
- How does the bureaucratic structure impact on the decision-making system and the ability to perform your tasks?
- What advantages of the bureaucratic structure and system that outweigh the negative for you as a subordinate?

The type of questions provided in a research go beyond giving directions for the literature to be reviewed, but these also assist in deciding on how the research was conducted. This becomes a critical element of any investigation – the methodologies used to get the required information, relevant to the problem statement.

### **1.6 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHADODOLOGY**

Research design is essentially the road map or the path to be followed during the investigation – this is about identifying the sequence of events. On the other hand, the research methodology is the “how” will the research be conducted (Jowah, 2015:103) considering the type of answers or information required. There are two commonly used research methodologies, namely, qualitative, and quantitative methodologies. Qualitative research methodologies borrow largely from social sciences (Rawhouser, Cummings and Newbert, 2019:82-115) where the research findings are generally not

specific and have no measurable standard and can therefore not be quantified. Quantitative methodologies originate from natural sciences and these involve concordant readings and large samples to enable the development of hypotheses and theories showing relationships of the phenomena. Extensive research undertaking has noted that these two methodologies, though widely different and sometimes considered to contradict in each in the principles used, they are complementary. The use of both (mixed methods) has become the norm in most of the research projects undertaken in the management and social sciences. To take advantage of these complementary properties of the two methods, the two will be combined for the current research project.

#### **1.6.1 Target population**

The targeted population in the study is project practitioners working in embedded projects (projects in government or large corporations), other than the project managers. This would entail Work Breakdown Structure supervisors and sub-team leaders at supervisory level and below. The targeted population is in the engineering field, including construction, architecture, building, civil engineering and electrical engineering. These specifically have well developed project structures.

#### **1.6.2 Sample selection and method of sampling**

Government departments and large organisations (electricity supply) was used for the research, but the sample proper (respondents) was randomly sampled in their workplaces / stations.

#### **1.6.3 The Method of Data Collection**

Data collection was done by use of personal interviews using a pre-designed research tool (questionnaire) with standard questions. A handful (+/-6) people were trained to assist with information gathering / administering the questionnaires to the respondents. The use of personal administering of the questionnaires is deliberate, as this allowed proper management of the time it took to collect the data. Besides, this increased the response rate to the questionnaires distributed to the respondents allowing the researcher more responses and ability to control the other factors. Respondents may need clarity on aspects of the questionnaire, administering the tool directly enable the respondents to ask questions to clarify aspects of the questionnaire.

#### **1.6.4 Research Instrument - questionnaire**

A structure questionnaire was used for the purpose, the questionnaire had three sections, namely; Section A – Biography, Section B- Likert scale and Section C – open ended questions.

**Section A – Biography;** this section allows the researcher to identify the type of people who responded to the questions. Those who did not qualify, but responded or participated in the research, their questionnaires were removed from the final count during the editing and cleaning process.

**Section B- Likert scale;** the Likert scale seeks to measure the perceptions and or feelings of the respondents in respect of specific statements. Essentially the respondents ranked the statements on a scale of 1- 5 (1= strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree and 5 = strongly agree). It is not possible to measure (quantify) attitudes, perceptions and beliefs, hence the use of the Likert scale.

**Section C – Open ended questions;** in this section, topics relating to aspects of the research (as taken from the literature review) was discussed. The respondents will be able to discuss, state and explain openly any information they are able to recall or are willing to discuss.

#### **1.6.5 Statistical Analysis**

Descriptive statistics was used for the summary of the data obtained for a group of individual units of analysis. The survey and questionnaires data will be analyzed by means of Statistical Package for Social Science. Correlations and cross-tabulation will be used to establish the relationships between leadership styles and project success. The project managers and project team members will require to complete a questionnaire consisting to a certain number of questions about the bureaucratic leadership, and or other leadership styles as an influence to project success. After answering all questions on the questionnaire their scores were tabulated on the spreadsheet. Content analysis was used to identify the benefits or limitations of bureaucratic leadership and the classification of project managers' leadership styles.

#### **1.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION**

Ethical considerations assist researchers to identify if the research impinges on the morality and rights of the respondents (Fritz, 2008:3). This, therefore informed the researcher on whether to conduct the research in the first place, observing the prevailing norms of the targeted population. The effort to identify the importance of ethics itself does assist also in assisting the researcher on deciding what research method would be most ideal considering the ethical issues. There are three ethical principles to be considered, and these are, namely; respect for the respondents, beneficence, and justice (Escobedo, Guerrero, Lujan, Ramirez, and Serrano, 2007:3-5).

- **Respect for respondents** – the respondents allowed to make independent decisions to participate in the study, be free to withdraw at any time or stage in the research process and must be provided with adequate information before they start the process.
- **Beneficence** – the participants must be protected at all costs and not be coerced into saying what they may not agree with. No identification of the respondents anywhere on the material used to collect data and what they say should not be shared with another individual – strictly confidential.
- **Justice** – a scientific process of deciding on the sample and nominating the respondents should be used and fairness should be practiced. There was a justifiable cause for the research and the use of particular processes of the research with due consideration for the respondents' interests.

### **1.8 LIMITATIONS TO THE STUDY**

The study is restricted to available organisations in the Cape Metropolis and specifically to engineering related businesses. Because of the cost involved it would not be possible to carry out a country wide study on this subject, let alone dealing with every type of project. The tasks to be performed are always critical to the type of management that is required to execute the relevant tasks. Only one government department involved in public works and one large State-Owned Enterprise will be used for this research as they resemble the required project “*embeddedness*.”

### **1.9 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

The study on leadership and its relevance to effectively executing tasks to reach the organisational objectives has been going on for a long time. Each study seems to add on or subtract from the previous because the impact of leadership is also a function of the followership involved (Jowah, 2013:67). Thus, the tasks to be performed, the people to be led, the prevailing culture of both the individuals and the organisation will differ from environment to environment. This study will assist on determining how effective the bureaucratic structure would be in the environment in the Cape Metropolis. This will assist in the training of project practitioners in the large organisations that are inherently bureaucratic in nature.

### **1.10 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION**

The study will be classified into 6 different chapters, each of the chapters will have a title which will be an aspect of the complete study. The chapters will follow closely or

provide information as guided by the research objectives and the research question in compliance with the problem statement. The chapters are listed below;

**CHAPTER 1;** This chapter introduces the study, provides background to the development of the study gap and provides the problem statement. A brief outline of the research objectives, research questions, research design, research methodology, data collection instrument, data collection methods and data analysis is provided.

**CHAPTER 2;** This chapter focusses on transactional leadership, X and Y theories including their origins, the advantages, disadvantages, and the possibility of using these between followers at different levels of maturity in a particular industry.

**CHAPTER 3;** This chapter focuses on the organisation, the organisational structure, the different structures of organisation, the tall and flat structures, their benefits and demerits to operation and employee motivation.

**CHAPTER 4;** This chapter focuses on the bureaucratic structure, the meaning, types of bureaucratic structures, their advantages and disadvantages, the applicability of these structures and leadership style. The most prominent leadership styles are identified and contrasted with the bureaucratic leadership style.

**CHAPTER 5;** The chapter addresses the different leadership models, their impact and use in a universal project-driven-environment, this is accompanied by a suggested leadership model for the future effective execution of projects that are embedded in bureaucratic structures.

**CHAPTER 6;** The chapter discusses the research design, research methodology, contrasts the two, identifies the type of research methodologies (quantitative and qualitative), contrasts them, explains the use and the reason for choosing a mixed approach to the use of the methodologies. The population, sampling, data collection and analysis are all carried out and the methods of analysing the collected are described.

**CHAPTER 7;** This chapter discusses and presents the findings in diagrammatic format; each diagram is explained and variables are compared. The illustrations are interpreted, and findings are recorded.

**CHAPTER 8;** This chapter summarises the findings of the research project and is discussed together with the problem statement, the research objectives and research questions. Conclusions and recommendations are provided as the study report comes to the close.

## **CHAPTER SUMMARY**

Leadership is one of the extensively studied fields by academics, research after research continues to try to understand this difficult-to-know subject. The reasons why there is no clear-cut answer, or one-size-fits-all is because of the unpredictable nature of human beings. The one thing all researchers and practitioners alike agree on is that leadership is about dealing with people. The heterogeneous structure of the human being complicates the process of leading, making it difficult to have a cut-in-the-stone leadership formula. The different styles of leadership practiced by different people are determined largely by the circumstances the people (leaders) find themselves in, the culture they come from, their previous experiences and the diverse nature of the people to be led. The bureaucratic structure (leading to the bureaucratic leadership style) is a unique one on its own. There is a need for further research on how these large organisations should be able to effectively execute tasks in line with the known field of project management and the benefits this leadership brings to productivity.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **CONTRASTING AUTOCRATIC AND DEMOCRATIC LEADERSHIP STYLES**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

As stated by Sweeney, Clarke and Higgs (2019:115-136), leadership is a relationship among leaders and followers who intend a real change and outcomes which reflect their shared purposes. The global view of leadership is the process of producing direction, alignment and commitment (Haque, Fernando and Caputi, 2019:759-774). Good leaders are those who are able to lead their followers to the destination, as it is difficult to reach the destination without knowing the right way to follow (Ciulla, 2020:177-195). According to Sweeney, Clarke and Higgs (2019:115-136), democratic leaders are considered to be effective if the job done by their team is smooth and successful. This style must take into consideration the requirements of the project. A degree of performance must be expected if all the members of the team participate actively towards achieving the same goal (Ciulla, 2020:177-195). It is believed that an autocratic leader is someone who expects his/her orders to be executed without any objections and according to his /her specifications. He seldom accepts any input from anyone among his subordinates. Project success means the success of the team and likewise, any achievement of the team should imply the success of the project (Haque, Fernando and Caputi, 2019:759-774).

#### **2.2 BACKGROUND**

The aim of this research is to find out if the democratic leadership style is more effective than autocratic leadership style in project execution. Previous research conducted by Loan and Hai (2017:1-8), noted that there has been a problem finding a leadership style which is better for project success. Most leadership styles have been used during project execution, but the difficult part is to find which one is more effective than the others. In the hypothesis: "Democratic leadership style is more effective than

autocratic leadership style in project execution”, the researcher seeks to determine which leadership style is better among the two mentioned above. Munyeki and Were (2017:41-60) concluded that democratic leaders empower their subordinates, hence creating a motivation spirit in their followers which leads to project success. When working toward a common goal, members of a team need to feel important and that encourages them when it comes to presenting their input (Munyeki and Were, 2017:41-60). There is no democratic leadership without sensitivity to the individual needs, which will have an impact on the morale of the team and productivity will be affected (Taylor, 2006:40-60). On the other hand, autocratic leadership can be good for the success of projects in certain specific domains. Loan and Hai (2017:1-8) argued that the military domain needs autocratic leadership to reinforce discipline in its ranks. The application of this type of leadership must be applied without impacting the respect and credibility of the team leaders. Pollard (2019:3) believes that project managers need to be careful when choosing their project team for the effective success of their projects. The following characteristics will have to be identified: commitment to the project, sharing responsibility, flexibility, task-orientation, ability to work within schedules and constraints, trust and mutual support, team-orientation, open-mindedness, ability to work across structure and authorities, and the ability to use project management tools. In his research Turner (2018:231-240) stated that a good project manager should have a high motivation to manage, ethical and professional behaviour, technical and legal competency, pragmatic decision-making skills, ability to make decisions, good communication skills, and ability to empower a design team. These characteristics found in an ideal project manager can lead better to the success of a project if they are supplemented by the team members’ characteristics mentioned above.

For a leadership style to be qualified as effective, it has to be measured against different stages of a project. A project can only be called successful when its concept is put into design, which is followed by the implementation, execution, and the closing out of the project (Zerjav, Edkins and Davies, 2018:444-459).

In this research, the influence of both democratic and autocratic leadership styles on project success will be analysed and conclusions will be drawn according to the most effective one. The aim of this research will be to demonstrate that the democratic leadership style is much better than autocratic leadership when project execution is concerned.

### **2.2.1. Autocratic leadership**

Autocratic leadership is a system of leadership generally centred on one individual (or a handful of authorities) who make all the strategic decisions for the organisation without involvement of the subordinates (Hunt and Fitzgerald, 2018:62). This form of leadership has not been popular, but there is every evidence to confirm its existence. Cotta (2019:183-197) defines autocratic leadership as a classical leadership approach which is comparable to dictatorship or tyranny. The leader has full control and does not consult for other people's opinions, which aligned in a way to McGregor's X theory that is based on the assumption that employees (or subordinates) are inherently lazy, cannot be trusted and they do not like to work (Stegmann, Braun, Junker and van Dick, 2020:65-81).

#### **2.2.1.1 Characteristics of autocratic leadership**

The leader has certain characteristics generic to all leaders of this calibre, and this is how they perceive that people should be treated. Ruben and Gigliotti (2019:13-34) noted that autocratic leaders do the following, namely;

1. Keep all power to themselves and have full control in the organisation with all authority and the exclusive right to make decisions without consulting.
2. Closely supervise the operations or the working of the subordinates because it is assumed that they cannot perform without close supervision.
3. They never delegate and they are involved in all day-to-day issues and are reluctant to empower subordinates.
4. Communication with them is one way – starting from them and sending it down to the last individual relevant to the communication.
5. No one else has the correct opinions, ideas, knowledge, or ability to do things correctly without supervision by the leader.
6. Employee motivation is using rewards for good deeds and empowerment is looked down upon.
7. No effort is made to develop relationships with subordinates and always resorts to threats and punishment to get tasks performed.
8. Not interested in development issues, focused exclusively on the tasks and execution thereof as primary.

9. Takes all the credit for the work that is performed or done and takes full responsibility for issues around the organisation.

This system has a well-structured and centralised chain of command, and the leader is involved in every aspect. The understanding in this leadership system is that employees must be put under stress if they are to be pushed to perform. Close supervision is believed to facilitate the processes and allow for efficiency and cutting down on the time needed to accomplish tasks.

### 2.2.1.2 The advantages of autocratic leadership.

The proponents of the autocratic system point out some positive elements of autocratic leadership to justify the approach which are tabulated below as table 2.1.

**Table 2.1: The proponents of the autocratic system**

Quick decision making	Close supervision
Streamlined work process	Maintains order and discipline
Absolute control	Satisfactory work
Focused targets	Good for less educated people
The manager's expectations are clear	Ideal for emergencies

**Source: own construction**

As stated above, there are benefits that come from this leadership, even though it is not popular because it has its own disadvantages. Many leaders during times of war fit into this category; some have led successfully, but it requires more energy to enforce this, especially in large organisations. The advantages cited are of significant and should also be considered as worth some merit. However, the sustainability of benefit from such leadership remains doubtful considering that some people may be demotivated because of it. The leadership style has its own disadvantages as indicated in the table 2.2 below.

**Table 2.2: Disadvantages of autocratic leadership**

Poor motivation	Disempowering of subordinates
Low productivity	Discourages thinking by employees
Agitation by employees	Employee dissatisfaction

High turnover of experts	Does not prepare employees for development
Likely to promote favouritism	Causes conflicts with skilled labour

**Source: own construction**

The system has been heavily criticised and has been linked to the X theory concept, indicating the absence of human feelings in the workplace. It has the most devastating effect on self-motivated and innovative employees, thus underutilising talent in an organisation. This style will not work for people belonging to the Y theory category and an organisation will not get the best from its own human resources who are available but underutilised.

Cotta (2019:183-197) believes that this leadership style portrays the opposite of democratic leadership. The project manager takes all the decision alone and imposes his way of doing things. Autocratic leaders are more controlling, restrictive, firm and dominating. They become harsh when giving orders, and they leave no room for suggestions from the members of the team. Ruben and Gigliotti (2019:13-34) believe that everything from an autocratic leader is not always bad, as this style can be effective in some circumstances when a job needs to be done as soon as possible, especially when an emergency situation arises.

**2.2.2 Democratic leadership style**

Democratic leadership (also known as participative leadership) is a leadership process that involves members of the group to take a more participative role in making decisions and discussing programs (Tang, 2019:11-25). This leadership realises the importance of involving people and the benefits of relationships in the execution of tasks. Raheem (2019:564) defines the democratic leadership style as a leadership process that facilitates conversation with other people involved in the undertaking by sharing ideas to allow for effective decision making. The leadership style distributes responsibilities and is therefore empowering to the group members and allows for universal engagement in an organisation. Managers and individuals at different levels can take part in different forms, among which are consulting, participating, and collaborating with other stakeholders in top-down and down-top communication systems.

### 2.2.2.1. What are the characteristics of a democratic leadership?

There are certain qualities that followers look for in a project manager:

- **Honesty:** it becomes a big problem when a leader does not tell the truth to both the supervisors and the customers. A project might be at risk but the most important thing to be done is to tell the truth so that all the stakeholders can be involved in finding a solution (Nederhand and Klijn, 2019:1200-1226).
- **Competency:** there is a difference between being a competent project manager and being an expert. What is required from a project manager is to be able to know the project inside-and-out in order to get the work done on time, and to control and negotiate the required resources for the project (Pollard, 2019:3).
- **Forward-looking:** A project manager should be able to oversee the end result of the project. He must be able to integrate the entire small task in one and come up with a big picture of the end result (Nederhand and Klijn, 2019:1200-1226).
- **Inspiring:** During the execution of the project, a project manager should be able to inspire all the team members in order to work as a team. The success of the project manager depends on the morale of its team members (Nederhand and Klijn, 2019:1200-1226).
- **Inspiring a shared vision:** It is important to share the vision that the project manager has for the project in order to gain support from other team members. Stakeholders need to understand the vision in the same way in order to work with the common goal in mind, as noted by Turner (2018:231-240).
- **Enabling others to act:** There is no use having a vision for a project as a project manager and keep it to oneself, without empowering other to build a common spirit. Allowing others to act when necessary will enable the project to progress (Turner, 2018:231-240).
- **Modelling the way:** The most important factor is not to try to impose a leadership style to the followers but to demonstrate leadership qualities so that others can follow. If a project manager has those qualities which enable the team members to judge him as a good leader, they will obviously follow and be a positive force in the team. A good leader must set good examples and act the way he/she would like his/her team to be and act (Mollin, 2018:205-226).

This system has traits that are unique and important for effective leadership, as illustrated in table 2.3 below.

**Table 2.3: Traits that are unique and important for effective leadership**

Honesty	Intelligence	Courage
Creativity	Competence	Egalitarian
Fair-mindedness	Adaptiveness	Engaged
Role modelling	Forward-thinking	Team-oriented
Consensus building	People focus	Confidence builder

**Source: own construction**

The openness of the system allows trust to be built amongst the participants, allowing for varied inputs into the issues to be discussed. Moral values are developed, and differences of opinion are accommodated, thereby enriching the group members in terms of the breadth and depth of knowledge of the issues at hand. Followers are motivated and inspired, leading to subordinate engagement and a boost to the job satisfaction and performance of the individuals because they feel they belong. The leadership style is common in the workplace and makes provision for well informed decision making with the rest of the participants incorporated. The style has its own advantages and disadvantages discussed below.

### **2.2.2.2 Advantages of the democratic leadership style**

Much has been stated about openness and how people (stakeholders) can participate and contribute to the overall running of the organisation. The advantages of the democratic leadership style identified in the literature are shown below in table 2.4.

**Table 2.4: Advantages of the democratic leadership style**

<b>1</b>	This leadership style connects people with their work.
<b>2</b>	It works to promote the free flow of ideas.
<b>3</b>	This structure encourages trust and respect throughout the team.
<b>4</b>	Democratic leaders place more of an emphasis on values and morality.
<b>5</b>	Leaders who use this style are seen as being more competent.
<b>6</b>	It takes an open and honest mind to be a democratic leader.
<b>7</b>	Democratic leaders entertain a more diverse set of ideas.
<b>8</b>	It allows teams to develop more strength.

<b>9</b>	This leadership style can create a robust vision for the future.
<b>10</b>	It increases the amount of knowledge that is available to the team.

**Source: own construction**

There are many advantages, but there are further considerations. The effectiveness of a system is as good as the people involved in it, and the democratic leadership style may not be sufficient for effective leadership. The contingency theory stipulates that there is no “perfect fit” leadership style, and that leadership is a function the situation. Below are some of the disadvantages of the democratic leadership system.

**2.2.2.3 Disadvantages of the democratic leadership style**

The disadvantages, as alluded to above, may be encountered because of the situation in which the leader is involved or confronted with. The tasks to be performed, the organisational structure and practice, the type of followership (Jawah, 2013:708-719) and the type of power resident in both the followers and the leader are also relevant. The disadvantages are discussed in table 2.5 below.

**Table 2.5: Disadvantages of the democratic leadership system**

	The democratic leadership style requires extra time to implement a decision.
	This leadership style is ineffective during crisis situations.
	This method relies on the expertise of the team to be useful.
	Emphasis on the leadership style can take priority over decision-making.
	Democratic leaders must often deal with rejection.
	This leadership style can sometimes encourage workplace procrastination.
	It is rare for a team to reach a consensus decision.
	There is always an element of uncertainty when using the leadership style.
	This leadership style does not always come with a clear definition.
	Some leaders do not know how to correctly use this technique.
	The democratic style encourages no one to take responsibility for a bad idea.
	Democratic leaders must know how to request information from others.

**Source: own construction**

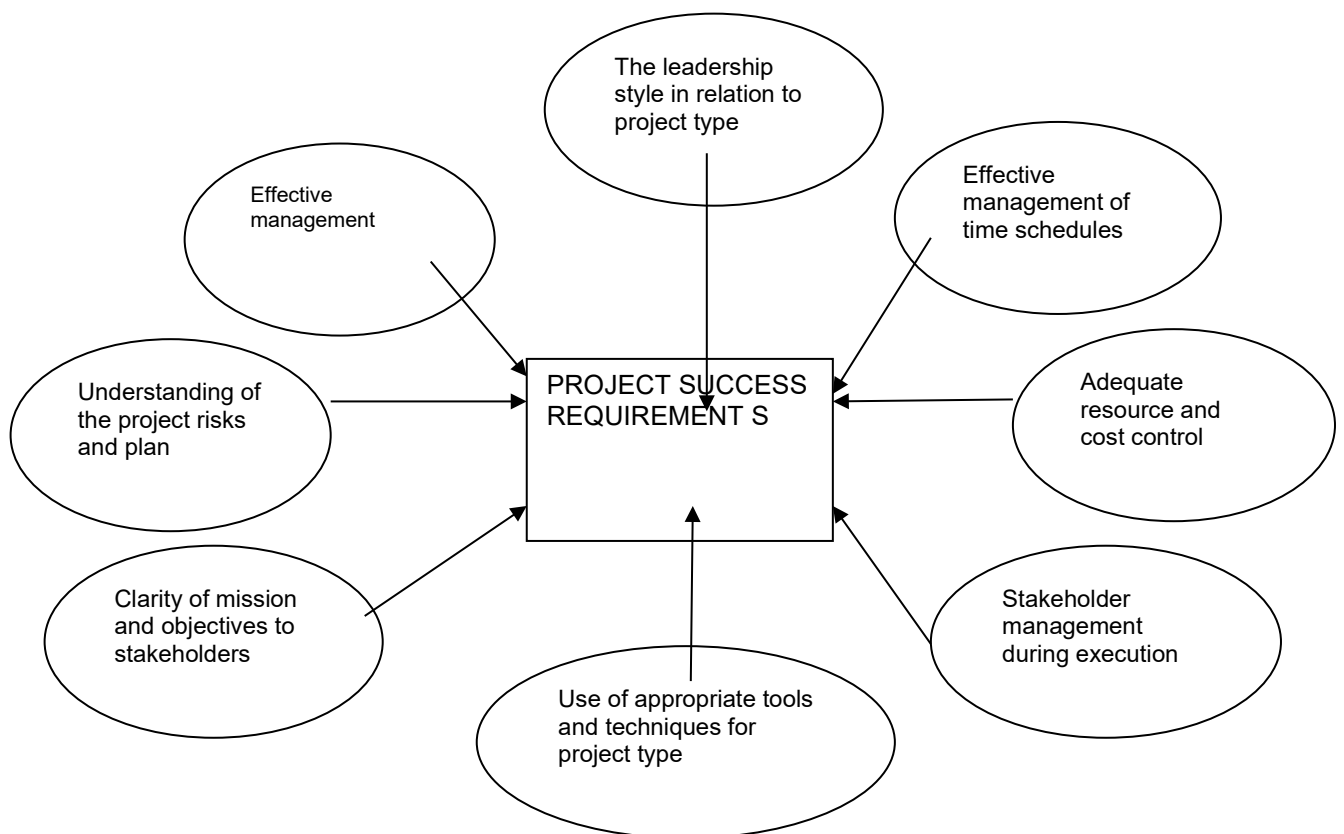
When ideas are shared in different forums when consulting with stakeholders, it may be necessary to encourage recording of the opinions. This may be referred to in future

should there be problems and or challenges with whatever would have been decided. In those suggestions, there may be many other ideas that might be relevant as the situation develops. It should be accepted however that consulting and collaborating should not remove the final responsibility from the leader, but the final decisions will be informed. The effectiveness will depend on the capability of the leader.

### 2.2.3 What are the project success requirements?

A project manager is responsible for leading a project from its initiation to planning, execution, managing human and other resources, and the scope of the project, which must be finished within its estimated cost and time, and to specified quality standards (Igwe and Ude, 2018:152). Igwe and Ude (2018:152) also describe project success as the basis from which a client approves the quality of the project, evidence that the project manager has done a good job, and creating the possibility that the client will be prepared to hire him again.

**Figure 2.1: Summary of factors that influence project success.**



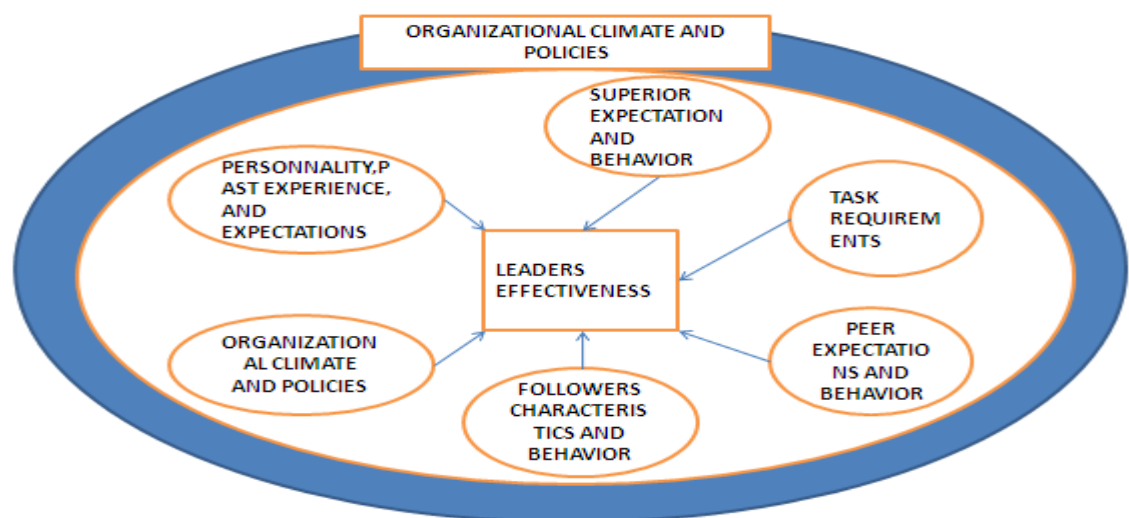
**Source: Jowah (2013:708-719)**

For a project to meet the requirement of project success, the following has to be done.

- Availability of training for all project participants to meet the project management requirements.
- Understanding of all team members.

- Understanding the resources required to perform requirement processes effectively and invest in the project's requirement process.
- Developing a proper project vision and mission scope document.
- Working towards the development, deployment, and implementation of the capabilities.
- Readiness to adapt to changes in the workplace when necessary.
- Use of an effective automated requirements tool to maintain information about the requirements.
- Conducting inspections of all requirement-related documents.
- Soliciting the support and assistance of all members of the project staff in helping to perform requirement work.
- Proactively addressing requirement-related risks.

**Figure 2.2: Factors that influence effective leadership.**



**Source: Adapted from Kerzner (2009:224)**

From figure 2.2 above, the leader's effectiveness is affected by several factors such as organisational climate and policies which hinder the leader from going beyond the set policies and organisational climate. Further, superior expectation and behaviour also influences effective leadership as the superior controls what is supposed to be done and they will expect the leader to do as per their expectations. The requirements of the task also determine the type of leadership to be applied as leadership styles may be situational. Again, other factors such as the expectations of peers and their behaviours also contribute to factors influencing effective leadership.

### **2.2.3.1 Leadership as a necessity for project success.**

Leadership is often regarded as the single most critical factor in the success or failure of institutions involved in managing or handling projects (Alvesson, 2019:27-43). Thus, leadership is influencing others within an environment of mutual growth and integrity to achieve a shared vision that sustains positive change. Villamil, Pinilla and Martin (2019:1-4) noted that project management leadership involves five processes groups as identified in the PMBOK guide, namely project initiation, planning, execution, monitoring and control and finally the project closure. Kerzner (2009:17) posited that project success is the completion of an activity within the constraints of time, cost and performance with the acceptance of the customer and without changing the corporate culture. As indicated above, managing people is becoming a much more complicated task as the marketplace has developed into a global economy. As managers interact with more and more people, the chances of creating unfavourable situations become greater. Project managers must develop leadership skills that will encourage and guide their team (Kerzner, 2009:11-14).

Another essential skill required by project management leaders is problem solving. Every project conducted is different; therefore, every project has the chance of different things going wrong and can present many different problems that need to be solved (Alvesson, 2019:27-43). Project success is therefore dependent on leadership characteristics or style. Participative leadership involves consultation, encouragement and facilitation between the leaders and subordinates in making decisions (Raheem, 2019:564). According to Morris, Shenkar, and Mackey (2019:110), given the notion that workforces are knowledgeable and are equipped with relevant skills, subordinates would prefer managers who would give them the opportunity to be heard. For project managers to be effective and successful they must not only demonstrate efficient administrative skills and technical knowledge but must also practice an appropriate style of leadership. The leadership style used can profoundly impact employee morale and productivity, so that the success of a project may be directly dependent on good leadership.

Ciulla (2020:177-195) defines leadership as “the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives”. Holm and Fairhurst (2018:692-721) define leadership as “a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal.” These definitions suggest

several components central to the phenomenon of leadership. Viewing leadership as a process means that leaders affect and are affected by their followers either positively or negatively. It stresses that leadership is a two-way, interactive event between leaders and followers rather than a linear, one-way event in which the leader only affects the followers. Defining leadership as a process makes it available to everyone, not just a select for the few who are believed to be born with it. More important, it means that leadership is not restricted to just the one person in a group who has formal position power.

Dulewicz and Higgs suggested that there are fifteen leadership dimensions that can be used to explain the performance of leadership styles in project managers (Grzesik, and Piwovar-Sulej, 2018:35). These dimensions are shown in table 2.6 below which indicates that leaders with different leadership styles perform better or worse on different types of projects.

**Table 2.6: Fifteen leadership dimensions**

GROUP	COMPETENCY	GOAL	INVOLVING	ENGAGED
<b>Intellectual</b>	1. Critical Analysis	High	Medium	Medium
	2. Vision and Imagination	High	High	Medium
	3. Strategic Perspective	High	Medium	Medium
<b>Managerial</b>	4. Engaging Communication	Medium	Medium	High
	5. Managing Resources	High	Medium	Low
	6. Empowering	Low	Medium	High
	7. Developing	Medium	Medium	High
	8. Achieving	High	Medium	Medium
<b>Emotional</b>	9. Self-Awareness	Medium	High	High
	10. Emotional Resilience	High	High	High
	11. Motivation	High	High	High
	12. Sensitivity	Medium	Medium	High
	13. Influence	Medium	High	High
	14. Intuitiveness	Medium	Medium	High
	15. Conscientiousness	High	High	High

**Source: Grzesik and Piwovar-Sulej (2018:35).**

Besides the above-mentioned fifteen leadership dimensions, Muller and Turner also identify four characteristics of leadership styles that are prominent in project management (Mughal, Bahaudin and Salleh, 2019:987-996). The idea is that the leader must help the team find the path to their goals and help them in that process, four characteristics are listed in table 2.7 below.

**Table 2.7: Muller and Turner’s leadership styles**

Leadership style	Brief explanation of the characteristics
------------------	--

Directive leaders	These are leaders who give clear guidelines, objectives, and prospects to the workforce.
Supportive leaders	These leaders provide support to their dependents with apparatus and means until they possess the skills to work independently.
Participative leaders	These leaders allow their subordinates to have input on all or major decisions for the organisation.
Achievement-oriented leaders.	The leaders set stimulating goals for workers and expect them to execute at their maximum capacity showing them self-assurance in their potential to meet this anticipation.

**Source: Own construction plus Müller and Turner (2010:437-448).**

According to Chukwusa (2018:1), a directive leader is one who is very strict, autocratic, makes use of his power of influence from his position to control rewards and force the followers to comply with his instruction. This type of leader dominates and controls all the decisions and actions by giving instruction and direction to the followers on what to do and how to carry out a task, thereby restricting followers' creativity and innovativeness (Müller and Turner, 2010:437-448). However, in view of globalization and acquired skills by the followers, directive leadership may no longer be accepted by subordinates who are becoming more competent, independent and knowledgeable. Thus, the directive leader may be perceived as ineffective by the subordinates if they try to recognise the reality of agency in democratic participative processes and to distinguish between the authoritarian personality and the directive leader. When it comes to the common good of an organisation, the leader in many ways may be directive as a well-intentioned agent of the principals (McKenna and Intezari, 2018:190).

Over the last century, six schools of leadership theory have developed, five of which have suggested that different leadership styles are appropriate in different circumstances (Turner and Muller, 2005:49-61). Turner and Muller (2005:49-61) defined six schools of leadership styles, including the trait school, the behavioural school, the visionary school, the contingency school, the emotional intelligence school, and the competency school.

The competency school of leadership theory states that effective leaders exhibit certain competencies. It encompasses all the previous schools because traits and behaviours are competencies. It says certain competency profiles are appropriate in different

situations, it can define the competency profile of transformational and transactional leaders, and it suggests emotional intelligence as one of four groups of competencies. After a substantial review of the literature on leadership competencies, Dulewicz and Higgs (2003:224-232) identified fifteen as previously illustrated in table 1 above, which influence leadership performance. They group the competencies into three competence types, which they call intellectual quotient (IQ), managerial quotient (MQ) and emotional quotient (EQ).

Dulewicz and Higgs (2003:224-232) also identified three leadership styles, which they called Goal-Oriented, Involving and Engaging.

- Goal-oriented leaders are best on low complexity projects.
- Involving leaders are best on medium complexity projects, and
- Engaging leaders are best on high complexity projects.

Thus, they showed in table 2.7 below that in project management, certain leadership styles lead to better results than others.

**Table 2.7: Performance of different leadership styles on different types of change projects**

<b>Leadership Style</b>	<b>Relatively Stable</b>	<b>Context-Significant change</b>	<b>Transformational change</b>
Goal-Oriented	Good fit	Moderate fit	Poor fit
Involving	Moderate fit	Good fit	Moderate fit
Engaging	Poor fit	Moderate fit	Good fit

**Source: Dulewicz and Higgs (2003:224-232).**

Tang (2019:11-25) emphasises the qualities of transformational and transactional leaders in managing projects. According to Ng and Rivera (2018:136-141), transformational leadership contains four components: charisma or idealized influence (attributed or behavioural), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration which fall under charismatic leadership (Grabo, Spisak and van Vugt, 2017:473-485). Followers identify with the charismatic leaders' aspirations and want to emulate the leaders. If the leadership is transformational, its charisma or idealized influence is envisioning, confident, and sets high standards for emulation. Its inspirational motivation provides followers with challenges and meaning for engaging in shared goals and undertakings (Grabo, Spisak and van Vugt, 2017:473-485). Its intellectual stimulation helps followers to question assumptions and to generate more creative solutions to problems. Its individualized consideration treats

each follower as an individual and provides coaching, mentoring and growth opportunities.

On the other hand, transactional leadership involves contingent reinforcement (Khan, 2017:178-183). Followers are motivated by the leaders' promises, praise, and reward, or they are corrected by negative feedback, reproof, threats, or disciplinary actions. The leaders react to whether the followers carry out what the leaders and followers have "transacted" to do (Barnett, 2018:226-236). In contingent rewarding behaviour, leaders either make assignments or they may consult with followers about what is to be done. This is in exchange for implicit or explicit rewards and the desired allocation of resources. When leaders engage in active management-by-exception, they monitor follower performance and correct followers' mistakes. Khan (2017:178-183), postulates that when leaders engage in passive management-by-exception, they wait passively for followers' mistakes to be called to their attention before taking corrective action with negative feedback or reprimands.

Leadership is an extremely important factor for any organization. Chief executive officers (CEOs) and managers who have excellent leadership skills contribute to the success of the organisation. In project management, leadership is one of the keys to project success, such that project managers who have outstanding leadership skills are more likely to lead the project team to success (Keegan, Ringhofer and Huemann, 2018:121-133). In discussing the topic of leadership style, it is apparent that there are many aspects to leadership, including leadership style. In project management, there are all kinds of projects, and every project manager has a different leadership style. Therefore, it is important to determine if the project manager's leadership style influences the success of the project.

The general management literature suggests that a manager's leadership style and competence is key to successful performance in business and performance of organizations and companies. The literature on project success factors, surprisingly, is very quiet about the role of the project manager and his or her leadership style or competence. Leadership style and competence are seldom identified as critical success factors on projects (Grzesik and Piwowar-Sulej, 2018:35). Project success factors are tabulated below as table 2.8.

**Table 2.8: Project success factors.**

<b>Project success factors</b>	<b>Description</b>
1. Project Mission	Clearly define goals and direction

2. Top Management Support	Resources, authority and power for implementation
3. Schedule and Plans	Details and specification of implementation
4. Client Consultation	Communication with and consultation of all stakeholders
5. Personnel	Recruitment, selection and training of competent personnel
6. Technical Tasks	Ability of the required technology and expertise
7. Client Acceptance	Selling of the final product to the end user
8. Monitoring and Feedback	Timely and comprehensive control
9. Communication	Provision of timely data to key players
10. Troubleshooting	Ability to handle unexpected problems

**Source: Müller and Turner (2007:298-309).**

As shown above in table 2.8, the determinants of project success have been raised and discussed.

### **2.3 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

Leadership is an important thing within an organisation as it is an applied skill reflecting the ability of an individual to lead or control other people. The notion and definition of leadership and style may differ from individual to individual, based on the situation. The term “leadership” is commonly used in several areas such as business, politics, academic life, and social work, which means that it is a common term used. According to Ginnett (2019:73-102), leadership is defined as the process whereby an individual influences other group members to attain an organisational or individual goal. Leadership is always associated with or characterised by a style, hence the term leadership style, which is the gist of this research. In this chapter, how leadership affects the productivity of an organisation has been discussed.

## **CHAPTER 3 CONSTRASTING TRANSFORMATIONAL AND TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP IN CONSTRUCTION**

### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

Leadership is defined as the ability to guide followers toward shared goals, as a form of influence and as simply something a leader does. It involves motivating and initiating and is the foundation of organizational success. A project is defined as a temporary endeavour undertaken to create a unique product/service (Dai, 2020:35-46). Leadership is generally considered to be an important aspect of project-based organizing and there are several reasons to propose that transformational leadership is of relevance in this context. Effective project manager leadership is an important success factor in projects. Transformational leaders inspire followers to exceed self-interest and perceptions of their own limitations to become more effective in pursuing group goals (Ng, 2017:385-417). Transformational leadership is often contrasted with transactional leadership. Transactional leadership emphasizes contingent rewards, rewarding followers for meeting performance targets. Mushtaq (2019:91-99) stated that the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) was developed to assess leadership competencies, and, in a series of studies, it was shown that transformational leadership has significantly greater impact on the organization than transactional leadership.

### **3.2 BACKGROUND**

#### **3.2.1 Leadership**

Leaders, as stated by Cheung, Baum and Hsueh (2018:1468-1485), are the most important aspect in a workplace environment as they have the ability to shape followers' perceptions of work-related information. Leaders should use this remarkable impact to improve followers' work-related attitudes and feelings (Cheung, et al.,

2018:1468-1485). Thus, leadership can be described as a form of influence exerted on followers to promote the accomplishment of organizational goals.

### **3.2.2.1 Management and leadership**

According to Anantatmula (2010:13-22) there is a difference between management and leadership. Car, Kyaw and Atun (2018:1-9) agree and offer a contrast between the two: leadership is mostly about effectiveness, it is about doing the right things and knowing how to prioritise them, whereas good management is also dependant on this ability, but it is largely about efficiency. Management as affirmed by Anantatmula (2010:14) is usually focused on classical functions such as planning, organizing, and controlling. In general, management is concerned with making decisions about processes and functions in order to improve operational efficiency and effectiveness. Leadership, on the other hand, is about motivating and guiding people to realize their potential and achieve tougher and challenging organizational goals (Anantatmula, 2010:14).

Bass, as cited by Turner and Muller (2005:51), identified two types of leadership, transactional and transformational:

#### 1. Transactional leadership:

- Emphasizes contingent rewards, rewarding followers for meeting performance targets.
- Manages by exception, taking action when tasks are not going as planned.

#### 2. Transformational leadership:

- Exhibits charisma, developing a vision, engendering pride, respect and trust.
- Provides inspiration, motivating by creating high expectations and modelling appropriate behaviours.
- Gives consideration to the individual, paying personal attention to followers and giving them respect.
- Provides intellectual stimulation, challenging followers with new ideas and approaches.

One may argue that transactional leadership style, which is based on an exchange of reward and work, is more suited to organizational processes, whereas transformational leadership is useful when one is concerned with relationships (Anantatmula, 2010:14).

### **3.2.2.2 Leadership in a project-based environment**

Leadership has been constantly recognized as an important contributor to project success (Meng and Boyd, 2017:717-728). The issue of how to lead employees in project-based firms is one that attracts substantial interest in the specialist project

management literature. Leading commentators have recently begun to suggest that transformational leadership may be of particular interest in the project-based context. They stress for example the growing importance of emotional and motivational aspects of the role of project managers in temporary organizations (Kapucu and Ustun, 2018:548-561). Project managers are conceived of as leading “a diverse set of people despite having little direct control over most of them” and transformational leadership resonates with the leadership demands of project-based organizing in emphasizing the visionary, inspirational role of leaders (Anantatmula, 2010: 14). Motivating the project team is an essential part of the project manager or leader’s role (Kapucu and Ustun, 2018:548-561). Because project managers are conceived of as leading “groups of talented people in an environment of collaborative bureaucracy”, the emphasis has shifted from control and compliance to identification, loyalty and commitment. Such processes are central to transformational leadership. Thus, transformational leadership is a style of leading that may suit the project context well.

### **3.2.2.3 Transformational and transactional leadership styles**

Among the various approaches to the study of leadership, one of the most common is the transformational/transactional leadership framework (Uzonwann, 2017:151-164). According to Cheung, Baum and Hsueh (2018:1468-1485), transformational leadership is defined as a style of leadership that transforms followers to rise above their self-interest by altering their morale, ideals, interests, and values, motivating them to perform better than initially expected. It is contrasted with transactional leadership, which is based on an exchange relationship in which the leader makes clear what is expected of followers. Uzonwann (2017:151-164) contends that transactional leaders influence followers by controlling their behaviours, rewarding agreed-upon behaviours, and eliminating performance problems by using corrective transactions between leader and followers. They also contend that transformational leaders influence their followers by developing and communicating a collective vision and inspiring them to look beyond self-interest for the good of the team and organization. Transactional leaders focus on exchanges between leaders and followers. In contrast, transformational leaders focus on the potentialities of the relationship between the leaders and followers. This leader taps the motives of followers to better reach the goals of both. López-Sevillano, Díaz-Piraquive and Crespo (2020:19-48) showed that project managers are primarily people-focused, with 40 out of 47 project managers in their sample being purely people-focused.

### 3.2.2.4 Transformational leadership

Much of current work on leadership in both the general leadership as well as in project management literature stresses the importance of transformational leadership (Anastasiou and Garametsi, 2021:58-77). Transformational leadership came to prominence in the last two decades and is also associated with terms such as 'visionary' and 'charismatic' leadership (Sung and Kim, 2021:2079). Transformational leadership can be used to describe the leadership of individuals who use optimism, charm, intelligence, and several other personal qualities to transform individuals and organizations into superior performance. Over the years, a lot of research has gone into investigating the effects of transformational leadership on various employee and organizational outcomes (Sung and Kim, 2021:2079). In these studies, transformational leadership has been shown to be associated with several positive outcomes ranging from leader effectiveness to follower job satisfaction and performance to group and organizational performance, group cohesion and performance, and organizational financial performance (Lee, 2021:237). According to Anastasiou and Garametsi (2021:58-77), transformational leaders influence followers to rise above lower-order needs and goals for the sake of the long-term benefit of the entire group. Transformational leaders increase their followers' level of interest and examine new prospects for solving problems and reaching goals by encouraging followers to find new solutions and propose new ideas (Anastasiou and Garametsi, 2021:58-77).

According to Khan, Idris and Amin (2021:1-15), transformational leadership is based on four principal factors:

- (1) **Idealized influence/charisma**, whereby leaders influence followers by arousing strong emotions and loyalty from them;
- (2) **Inspirational motivation**, whereby a leader communicates high expectations, uses symbols and imagery to focus effort, and expresses the importance of organizational purposes;
- (3) **Intellectual stimulation** implies a leader who values the intellectual ability of followers and who encourages innovation and develops creativity. Others are encouraged to reframe problems, use a holistic perspective in understanding problems, question the status quo, and approach problems from different angles, thus creating readiness for change and developing the ability to solve current and future problems.

(4) **Individualized consideration** involves behaviours that emphasize paying close attention to followers' individual needs for achievement and growth, including teaching, coaching, and creating new learning opportunities. The leader furthermore designs appropriate strategies to develop individual followers to achieve higher levels of motivation, potential, and performance.

In general, transformational leadership is seen as moving beyond transactions in order to improve followers' performance and satisfaction by influencing their needs and values (Khan, Idris and Amin, 2021:1-15). Transformational leadership is associated with strong personal identification with the leader, the creation of a shared vision of the future, and a relationship between leaders and followers based on far more than just the simple exchange of rewards for compliance. Transformational leaders define the need for change, create new visions, mobilize commitment to these visions and transform individual followers and even organizations (Khan, Idris and Amin, 2021:1-15). Transformational leaders initiate ambitious collective goals and encourage followers to accept them. They also support followers in working toward the goals, such as by acting as a role model, stimulating them to engage in analysis, showing concern for them as individuals, and encouraging teamwork (Sung and Kim, 2021:2079). Lee (2021:237) suggested that transformational leadership is about an ideal kind of leader, able to act as a role model, and to whom followers actively want to relate. The positive link between transformational leadership and organizational commitment has been shown in numerous studies (Lee, 2021:237). Sung and Kim (2021:2079) concur that numerous studies have found transformational leadership to be positively associated with subordinate performance at the individual and organizational levels.

### **3.2.2.5 Transactional leadership**

Transactional leadership has been the traditional model of leadership with its roots from an organizational or business perspective (Gillam and Cosford, 2021:14-19). Gillam and Cosford (2021:14-19) defined transactional leadership as one that supports the status quo through mutual leader and follower self-interests across three dimensions: contingent reward, active management-by-exception, and passive management-by-exception.

Contingent reward refers to leaders clarifying the work that must be achieved, and use rewards in exchange for good performance. Management by exception (passive) refers to leaders intervening only when problem arise, whereas management by exception (active) refers to leaders actively monitoring the work of followers and making sure those standards are met (Singh, Sood and Bala, 2021:20-37).

Transactional leadership according to Singh, Sood and Bala (2021:20-37) is based on (a series of) exchanges between leader and follower. Followers receive certain valued outcomes (e.g., wages, prestige) when they act according to the leader's wishes (Gillam and Cosford, 2021:14-19). Thus, transactional leaders view the relationship between leader and follower as an exchange process based on a system of reward and punishment. With active management-by exception, transactional leaders specify the standards for compliance and punishment for non-compliance, as well as what constitutes ineffective performance (Howe and Lammers, 2021:147-161). This leadership dimension emphasizes close monitoring of followers for any deviances, mistakes and errors so that corrective action can be taken as soon as possible (Howe and Lammers, 2021:147-161). Howe and Lammers (2021:147-161) agree that transactional leadership is based on contingent reward and management by exception. A transactional leader will thus offer positive reinforcement, prizes, praise, compliments, and rewards when goals are reached and will utilize negative reinforcement such as punishment and reproach when errors are made or failures occur (Howe and Lammers, 2021:147-161).

Sims, Carter and Moore De Peralta (2021:55-75) distinguished transactional and transformational leadership styles. This is tabulated below in table 3.1.

**Table 3.1: Distinctions between transactional and transformational leadership styles**

<b>Transactional leadership</b>	<b>Transformational leadership</b>
Is preoccupied with power and position, politics and perks	Is preoccupied with purposes and values, morals, and ethics
Is mired in daily affairs	Transcends daily affairs
Is short term and hard data orientated	Is orientated toward long-term goals without compromising human values and principles
Focuses on tactical issues	Focuses more on missions and strategies
Relies on human relations to lubricate human interactions	Releases human potential – identifying and developing new talent
Follows and fulfils role expectations by striving to work effectively within current systems	Designs and redesigns jobs to make them meaningful and challenging
Supports structures and systems that reinforce the bottom line, maximize efficiency and guarantee short term profits	Aligns internal structures and systems to reinforce overarching values and goals

**Source: Sims, Carter and Moore De Peralta (2021:55-75).**

According to Sims, Carter and Moore De Peralta (2021:55-75), transformational leadership is seen as a positive addition to transactional leadership, which is an exchange relationship in which expectations are clarified and the immediate self-interests of leaders and followers are addressed. Transformational leadership goes beyond the cost-benefit exchange of transactional leadership by motivating and inspiring followers to perform beyond expectations (Howe and Lammers, 2021:147-161). In comparison to followers of transactional leaders, followers of transformational leaders have been found to have higher creative performance on idea generation tasks (Pieterse *et al.*, 2010: 610). Research shows that transformational leaders put greater emphasis on innovation than transactional leaders. Moreover, transactional leadership as stated by Deci and Ryan and cited by Howe and Lammers (2021:147-161) may be perceived as controlling, causing less innovative behaviour. Transformational leadership is also associated with higher levels of trust in the leader on the part of subordinates, which in turn leads them to show more so-called “organizational citizenship behaviours” (Howe and Lammers, 2021:147-161).

The transactional leader distributes work to the follower and holds him accountable for getting it done. In a general sense, transactional leadership exemplifies the most common dynamic of social exchange between leadership and followership (Sung and Kim, 2021:2079). Transactional leadership focuses on the bottom line and is event-centered as it follows and fulfils role expectations by striving to work effectively within current systems (Sung and Kim, 2021:2079). A transaction-oriented, directive, authoritarian style may be most productive when members do not have experience, do not need to be committed to the goal and task, and are likely to be minimally engaged in the effort. The transaction-oriented style formulates plans, organizes tasks, makes assignments, provides guidance and direction, monitors progress, makes decisions, and fixes any problems that arise (Kalsoom, Khan and Zubair, 2018:23-30). The components of transformational and transactional leadership have been shown to lead to increased satisfaction, motivation, job and organizational commitment and other positive outcomes in a variety of ways (Kalsoom, Khan and Zubair, 2018:23-30).

### **3.3 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER**

In this chapter, leadership has been defined, and transactional and transformational leadership styles have been discussed. Transformational leaders inspire followers to exceed self-interest and perceptions of their own limitations to become more effective in pursuing group goals. Transactional leadership has been described as emphasizing

contingent rewards, rewarding followers for meeting performance targets. Transformational leadership and transactional leadership have been contrasted as well.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **BUREAUCRATIC STRUCTURE AND TYPES OF BUREAUCRACY**

#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

Wherever human beings live together and there are large populations with objectives to be achieved, leadership emerges. Delegation of responsibilities and specialisation of operations increasingly creates rankings that lead to a reporting system. Depending on the size of the organisation and the philosophy of the leadership and organisation, structures emerge which are meant for the meeting of objectives. Chou and Liu (2021:555) postulate that such structures were designed for the effective execution of operations with the intention of maximising output. The structures are of paramount importance as they impact on the effectiveness and the efficiency needed by organisations. The presence of these structures is expected also to create command structures as a means of managing and leading in organisations. Organisational structure came about as a deliberate effort by humanity to address the needs of organisations for operational purposes, then the emergence of different organisations resulted in the process of “structuring organisations to suit their needs.” This introduced the quest for fit-for-purpose structures with the increased desire to accommodate the employees (Leonardi, 2011:147-167) by giving them more knowledge and responsibilities where they could express their opinions over the different operational issues. By implication, structure is a response to both external and internal pressures in an effort to provide efficiency and effectiveness. The study will focus on the impact of bureaucratic structures on the execution of projects in governmental settings with vertical structures. Lim, Griffiths and Sambrook (2010:20-30) proposed that the

development of organisational structure is very much dependent on the strategy that is to be used and the behaviour or thinking of the management.

## **4.2 TYPES OF BUREAUCRATIC STRUCTURES**

Bureaucracy is defined as a structure embedded in sets of regulations that are constructed and or promulgated to control activity (Wang, 2019:1-28). These are common in large organisations where senior management may not have direct day to day interaction with the operation's employees who are generally at the bottom. A typical example of a bureaucratic structures would be a government, where there are many layers between the minister and the operational staff. Bureaucratic structures are generally meant to provide standardised procedures in the system in view of the distance between the operations and senior management (Winnubst, 2017:151-162). There are rules, policies and procedures to be followed, which dictate the processes used for the execution of duties and responsibilities. This is the opposite of adhocracy, which by its definition is a flexible, adjustable and comfortable form of business which is defined by absence of official structure, employing particular multidisciplinary crews assembled by functions (Williams, Gruber, Sutcliffe, Shepherd and Zhao, 2017:733-769). The bureaucratic structure is characterised by standardisation of procedures (sticking to rules) which dictate the execution processes, too often down to the finest detail (Melnyk, Flynn and Awaysheh, 2018:164-192) within the organisation by formally dividing the powers and creating a hierarchy of the relationships. The policies need to be interpreted and cascaded down the ranks to the operational levels, dependent on what the policy is meant to achieve.

Jevtić, Jovanović and Krivokapić (2018:41-52) noted that Mintzberg designed a working framework from which seven elements of organisational configurations were identified. These configurations can be used in organisations of different settings. These configurations are simple structure, machine bureaucracy, professional bureaucracy, diversified form, adhocracy (innovative organisation), missionary organisation and political organisation. An organisational configuration is defined as the way the organisation is structured in terms of reporting lines, which include amongst other things the chain of command (Moss, Likely, Sriramesh and Ferrari, 2017:80-90). Too often this is an organic development informed by the type of responsibilities, their alignment and how these are combined to help with proper functioning. People performing the same or similar or related functions and in the same department are likely to be put together and report to the same manager or supervisor.

Depending on the size of the organisation and the diversity of operations and other activities, so the structure takes on its particular configuration (Magnusson, Mascia and Di Vincenzo, 2018:115-141). Some of the structuring is more to do with the management style or directives from senior management. Not all structures in the organisation are necessarily fit for purpose as these are informed by the type of management. The different types of bureaucratic structures are discussed below in table 4.1

**Table 4.1 Mintzberg’s seven structure configurations**

<b>TYPE OF STRUCTURE</b>	<b>EXPLANATION</b>
<b>Simple structure</b>	Or entrepreneurial structure is simple and largely informal with a leader who coordinates and supervises the work directly (Zehnder, Herz and Bonardi, 2017:65-85). This does not have technostructures and little or no support staff. Common in organisations with simple environment and allows for significant powers allocated to individuals
<b>Machine bureaucracy</b>	Or machine organisation; has the work regulated by the use rules with a hierarchical techno-structure of middle management. Most of the centralisation is at the middle management level (Bennis, 2017:3-16), ideal for simple and repetitive operations. This is found in the example of the police and prisons, where the duties are routine and easy to follow since the rules are clearly defined. It is easy for the supervisors to control the routine work and rules are static (Winnubst, 2017: 151-162). Standardisation of operations and activities is the norm.
<b>Professional bureaucracy</b>	Or professional configuration; coordinates to a very large extent work done operating professionals through provision of training and related activities (e.g. universities). The professional core provides members (skilled professionals) with a high degree of autonomy making the middle management less significant (Klatt, 2019:110-112). The technostructure loses much of its significance since the professions are specialised in the discipline, they are entrusted with responsibility and need little or no supervision at all. Klatt (2019:110-112) posits that this is characterised by the presence of many support staff, fair amount of administrative responsibilities and this results in many committees (universities, hospitals or law firms).
<b>Diversified form</b>	Also called divisionalised form, it comprises many units or parts that have high levels of autonomy. The parts may work independently but may interact to create synergy which assists in the operations at hand (Chen, Kaul and Wu, 2019:1791-1821). This is observed regularly in old, large organisations.
<b>Adhocracy configuration</b>	Also called innovative configuration, this constructs teams of specialists to perform specific tasks – common in complex environments that show high levels of dynamism. These can be divided into two types, namely administrative adhocracy and

	operating adhocracy (Martela, 2019:23). The operating adhocracy is generally innovative in solving client problems, and examples of which are advertising agents and organisations that develop prototypes. Administrative adhocracy teams focus on internal problems within the organisation.
<b>Missionary organisation</b>	This structure is characterised by its functions of working through ideology. These are generally characterised by formal rules and they are not many (Kumar, 2015:12-19). They are heavily decentralised but the differences in the levels are not that significant but have the necessary synergy.
<b>Political organisation</b>	These are used specifically in the struggle for control of resources and involve a lot of coalition, negotiation, and trade-offs. Power is used primarily by making alignments in the organisation's political space.

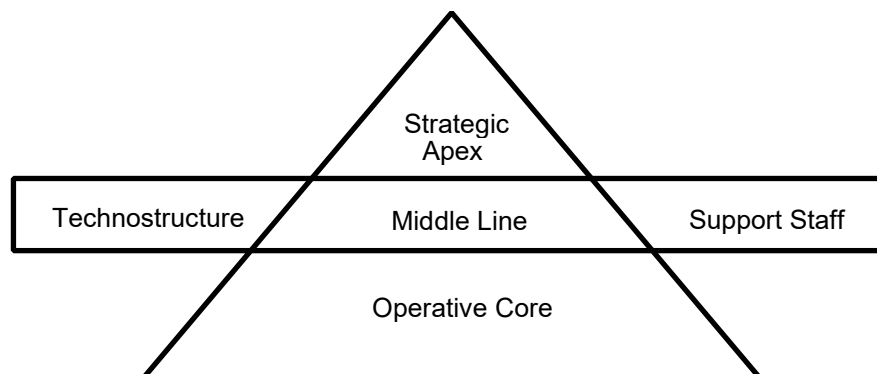
**Source: adopted from Matei and Britt (2017: 97-112).**

These different configurations are found in the organisations, though some organisation may have hybrid structures depending on the philosophy of the management. The structure is generally determined by the relationship between the operational activities (Kumar, 2015:12-19), as there is interdependence between the operational units. In a construction project, for instance, the civils section is distinctly different from the finance section, yet procurements are requested from finance. It means therefore that the efficiency of an organisation resides in the ability of units to cooperate and develop the much-needed synergy. Mintzberg (cited in Martela, 2019:23) noted the importance of removing silos within organisational units and the development of integrated operation systems. From the study, Mintzberg identified several mechanisms emanating from the different tasks, namely mutual adjustment, direct supervision, standardisation of work processes, standardisation of outputs, standardisation of skills, and standardisation of norms (Adinolfi, 2021:9-21).

Mintzberg as cited by Lunenburg (2012:1-8) posits that organisations can be classified into three basic sets, namely the part of an organisation that determines the success or failure of the business, the primary coordinating mechanism which facilitates communication within an organisation, and the type of decentralization used allowing subordinates to take part in the making of decisions. It is on the basis of this that an organisation decides on what organisational configuration to adopt between the five structural configurations. The purpose of establishing organisations is with the intention of meeting certain objectives (Fukuda-Parr, 2016:43-52), some of which may be to make profits (in the case of a business) or to provide service (in the case of a

government). Depending on the size of the organisation, the jobs are put into categories which become the departments. Further divisions may be found within a department, depending on the functions and the purpose for which the organisation was established. These departments will be working towards the same objectives, and they collectively report to the senior management, thus forming the organisational structure (Nelson and Quick, 2011:218-254). This therefore forms the basis on which an organisational structure is established: *organisational structure* is thus the formal configuration between individuals and groups. These groupings will allow the allocation of tasks that are needed for the organisation to facilitate processes leading to achievement of the set objectives. Porter and Heppelmann (2015:96-114) argue that organisational structures in the early stages of industrial revolution were based on product type and or primary function within the organisation. With further research and innovation to maximise productivity and efficiency in the organisations, the matrix system was introduced (Durugbo Tiwari and Alcock, 2013:597-610). The matrix structure combined two traditional methods originally used for the departmentalisation of organisations (Fatehi and Choi, 2019:241-274) and focused on the identification of the interdependence of strategy and structure. It is therefore alluded to in the current studies of organisational structure that the chief determinant of the structure adopted by the organisation is based primarily on strategy (Marler and Fisher, 2013:18-36). Therefore the critical variables of the environment, and the tasks and the technology used, are derived from the strategy, which itself is informed by the objectives of the organisation. The key parts of an organisation are the strategic apex, technostructure, middle line, support staff and operative core. Below is figure 4.1 showing the key parts of an organisation.

**Figure 4.1 Key parts of an organisation**



**Source: Tomažević, Tekavčič and Peljhan (2017:578-599).**

As stated above, the purpose and the objectives of establishing an organisation will be primary and key to decide on much of what else is to be done. The key parts of an organisation are interlinked and they work together to facilitate the realisation of the objectives for which the organisation is established. The roles of these structures may need further explanation, including the connection between each component to the overall function of the organisation.

- **The strategic apex:** this is the highest part of the organisational structure, consisting of senior management and the support staff at that level. It is here that decisions on the direction the company follow are conceptualised and to be implemented.
- **The support staff:** this is in reference to those in the top management level or working for the top management to provide indirect services and assistance to the top management. This can be the administrative staff or outsourced services that are necessary and helpful to the need of the top management.
- **The operative core:** the strategies formed at the top need to be implemented or executed, and this involves the core operative staff. It is at this level that plans and visions are transformed into reality towards meeting the organisational goals (Lunenburg, 2012:1-8). Without these it could be difficult to reach the objectives for which the organisation exists.
- **The middle line:** these are the intermediate managers and or supervisors who are responsible for the operations core. They manage the teams and allow for the interpretation and application of what the top management says should be done (Lunenburg, 2012:1-8). Essentially this is the link between the operative core (where things happen) and top management where dreams are put into plans for implementation (Lunenburg, 2012:1-8). Generally specialists in particular disciplines, having risen through the lower levels, are expected to understand and give directives.
- **The technostructure:** comprising a group of specialist personnel, mostly analysts, accountants, planners and technicians within the organisation who are by their nature influential groups in the economy of the organisation. With these reside the expertise required by the organisation, and they are generally placed at levels below the top management and above the operative core (Mărginean, 2015:77-81).

The bureaucratic structure is primarily designed to create uniform operational standards across the organisation, considering the many different managers in between. According to the organisational configurations and structure model designed by Mintzberg (Tomanek, 2016:231-239) each organisation can consist of a maximum of six basic components.

1. **Mutual adjustment:** Informal communication is the norm and allows for the coordination between employees and units in an organisation – this simple process allows for effective interaction between people from different units, for instance communication between two employees.
2. **Direct supervision:** In this arrangement one person provides the direction for the other members through instructions – the orders are to be followed as given by the supervisor or manager – the boss telling subordinates what should be done.
3. **Standardization of work processes:** The work processes here are used to coordinate and direct people doing the interrelated specified tasks as required by the manager or supervisor. These are developed in the technostructure and are to be carried out in the operating core.
4. **Standardization of outputs:** These are mostly developed in the technostructure which achieves coordination of the results through or by specifying the tasks to be performed with the end result known. This involves outlining the specifications of the product at the end of the execution, e.g. financial plans or budgets which specify the performance targets of the sub-units.
5. **Standardization of skills:** Training the workers to produce a standard product coordinated by virtue of the relevant training workers are provided with for only the execution of specific tasks, e.g. medical specialists – a surgeon and an anaesthetist in a theatre complementing each other.
6. **Standardization of norms:** Controlled work for the whole organisation with everyone functioning in the same way with the same beliefs or perceptions about phenomenon, e.g. standards and teachings in the Seventh Day Adventist church.

#### **4.3 BUREAUCRATIC VERSUS NON-BUREAUCRATIC STRUCTURES**

Essentially there are two types of organisational structures in the simplest form and these are bureaucratic or non-bureaucratic organisations. Bureaucracy is itself a combination of the structure, the policies, types of techniques and procedures,

embedded and controlled by protocols which put in place restrictions (Belabas and Gerrits, 2017:54). Bureaucracy creates the command structure which creates and functions on the basis of rules, policies and regulatory processes, which are created by executive management. Cohen (2018:175-187) defines bureaucracy as formal and sometimes informal networks linking organisational participants by making use of formal communication channels. The information is intended among other things to prevent dissimilarities between treatments provided to employees at all levels – uniformity. The bureaucratic system has been criticised for putting in place rules that affect the effectiveness and efficiency which impacts negatively on maximising output in the organisation (Makau and Muna, 2020:1-27). The structure on the other hand has been seen by others as a competence in that it creates consistency and removes favouritism through the publication of rules and guidelines (Cohen, 2018:175-187). The structure itself shows continuous hierarchy with tiers of control where each level has the responsibility to control levels below, with each level reporting to the one above it (Siverbo, Cäker and Åkesson, 2019:1801-1823). Bureaucratic structures are fundamentally based on the understanding that they exercise control of the lower levels based on knowledge on how things work.

A non-bureaucratic corporation is essentially an informal framework without the precise structures that promote strategies, policies, and avoids over-centralization (Todes and Turok, 2018:1-31). This structure is ideal for medium-sized and small organisations where the influence of senior management is easily felt at the bottom. This structure leaves the leader solely responsible for the major decisions to be taken, while subordinates may be able to influence decisions because of proximity to the top managers. The non-bureaucratic system is more flexible and has high levels of employee engagement, which leads to high performance (Auzair and Amir, 2017:1-12). The differences between these structures are tabulated below (table 4.2).

**Table 4.2 Comparison of bureaucratic and non-bureaucratic structures**

<b>BUREAUCRATIC</b>	<b>NON-BUREAUCRATIC</b>
Suitable for large organisations	Suitable for small and medium firms
Employees not readily engaged	Employees effectively engaged
Too rigid in its policies and operations	A more versatile work environment
No room for creativity as there are too many levels	Allows for creativity and innovation

Centralised decision making and control	Decision-making diffused to employees
Orders from experts take long to reach workers	Immediate orders are given by experts
Does not communicate directly with workers	Top level communicates directly with workers
More time taken to communicate with workers	Less time taken to communicate with workers
Poor communication through the levels	Easy communication – there are no levels
Many documents on procedures and rules	Very few rules and policies from the top
No flexibility and low motivated environment	Flexible and motivating environment
No direct recognition from top management	Easy recognition from top management
Change is slow and difficult	Less time to change and adjust
Static and consistent across the firm	More volatile and less consistent

**Source: own construction**

Table 4.2 above shows the comparison of bureaucratic and non-bureaucratic structures, with bureaucratic being suitable for large organisation, employees not readily engaged, and being too rigid in its policies and operations. On the other hand, non-bureaucratic structures are suitable for small and medium firms, employees are effectively engaged and there is a more versatile work environment.

**4.3.1 Advantages of non-bureaucratic group**

**4.3.2 Disadvantages of non-bureaucratic group**

Essentially the disadvantages are:

1. The framework is casual and does not give the impression of a formal environment.
2. There are no hard rules to be followed so anything goes and acceptability depends on who performed a certain action.
3. Because of the absence of rules and procedures there is no given standard to be adhered to by the employees.

4. Problems that arise tend to be attended to differently – there is no uniform treatment of issues.
5. Consequently, disagreements are likely to occur because decisions are taken spontaneously.
6. Creativity and innovation may be ignored if the leadership disagrees, and an issue may be politicised.
7. When the organisation grows, this approach might create problems that might eventually cause demotivation.
8. There is the danger that the organisation will fail to accomplish its business objectives and goals.

### 4.3.3 Advantages of bureaucratic structure

Most large organisations, chief among which are the multinational corporations and governments, employ thousands of people. Most have many operations, which, though they are in the same department, require very different skills and modus operandi (Shapiro, 2017:682-699). The need for the bureaucratic structure is informed largely by the differences in the operations and compounded by the number of both people and seemingly unrelated operations. The big structure has its own problems and disadvantages, but it has its own merits as well, as detailed in the table below.

**Table 4.4 Advantages of bureaucratic structures**

<b>BUREAUCRATIC</b>	
Suited for large organisation	This structure is ideal for large organisations as it helps in standardising the operations to meet the overall objectives of the organisation. The structuring of the organisation therefore enables that divisional managers are the ones disseminating and interpreting senior management information to the subordinates.
Employees not readily engaged	The distance between the subordinates and senior management is rather high and this allows management to plan with little interruption. Continued interaction may result in delays of implementation, so the top management accepts the advantages of little interruption
Centralised decision-making and control	The whole organisation has uniform standards and the presence of one decision-making board reduces unfair treatment amongst subordinates. All people are judged in the same way and thus they feel equal to each other even though they are in different sections of the organisations.
Documents with procedures, rules and policies serve as a guide	Employees will know what to do, and what is permissible or forbidden because there are existing rules, policies and regulations. This also protects the weak against the strong as the guides are written down for anyone to read and interpret.

Absence of flexibility and free will operations	Flexibility sometimes brings about favouritism depending on how people relate to each other. This is not found in bureaucratic organisations because the standards are set before time and the outcome of any issues is predictable.
Control by policy	Control in bureaucratic situations is governed by written down policies and the ability of management to implement. Thus all actions are standardised against existing systems and the behaviour of people in the organisation is largely uniform.
Stability and order	Organisations of this nature are very stable and do not change at the whim of one individual excited about something. Many people are involved in the change process thus, all weaknesses and risky elements can be identified before changes are made.
Competence-based promotion systems	Promotional systems and processes are standardised, so it is easy to use the guides to acknowledge performance of individuals. This allows for development within the areas of specialisation and hence growth.
Division of labour	Work is systematically divided amongst people according to their skills and this allows for efficiency since people do what they know best. This allows for specialisation and efficiency, reducing sloppiness when people perform their tasks.
Hierarchy allows accountability	Because the positions and functions are clearly defined, it is fairly easy to get people to be accountable when there is no delivery. The duties are clearly defined and the system allows for adequate information on expectations from different people.
Reduces scope of non-adherence	Because of the way the system is structured, there is no room for people to doubt what they are supposed to do and how they are expected to behave. The protocols are clear and there is no room for not performing correctly because of uncertainty.
Administration made easy	Because the organisation is rationally structured, the hierarchy assists in the administration of both people and tasks with comparative ease. When new rules are enacted the management at those different levels instructs subordinates on the new processes.

**Source: own construction**

In spite of the benefits that can be derived from the bureaucratic structure, the framework lends itself to certain disadvantages. The larger the size, the more bureaucratic it is likely to be (Andrews, Boyne and Mostafa, 2017:115-139), and the more complex the requirements become, making it difficult to address certain aspects necessary for effective and efficient function. From the preceding literature it is evident that bureaucracy seeks to maintain uniformity in operations, and it rules from the office. This system is indispensable in government and large businesses because the system is able to manage large scale employees operating at different levels (Harris, Sigman, Meyer-Sahling, Mikkelsen and Schuster, 2020:104745). This system allows for effective coordination of operations and people at varying levels of authority working together to achieve the same goals. Originally commonly found in political structures, today, with large multinational corporations, it is the most ideal system. It is structured according to hierarchy, subdivisions, specialisations and professionalism with the tasks to be performed classified as official duties (Boon and Wynen, 2017:214-231).

#### 4.3.4 Disadvantages of bureaucratic structures

Too much emphasis is put on the rationalisation of the institutional structure, and sometimes to the detriment of the purpose for which the organisation exists. The very advantages in the system are the primary causes for some of the disadvantages of the system. The weaknesses inherent in the system are summarised in the following section.

##### 4.3.4.1 Disadvantages of bureaucracy

1. **Red tape:** the presence of too many levels and structured form of reporting the process to the top may be cumbersome and takes a long time – sometimes unnecessarily. There is no flexibility, and the rules have to be followed even if they do not make sense (Steijn and van der Voet, 2019:64-80).
2. **Focus on the wrong aspects:** for the work to be done in a bureaucracy, the rules and regulations are given more credence even if they may not be appropriate. To change the system may take much longer than necessary thereby affecting the morale of the employees as well as failing to effectively reach the intended objectives efficiently (Joy, 2018: 97-109).
3. **Corruption:** The presence of these immovable and complicated policies, rules and regulations causes long delays of action which often result in corruption at the top levels of the structure, which becomes disastrous to both performance and welfare of the organisation (Fischer and Stiglbauer, 2018:132-152).
4. **Task specialisation:** the specialisation of jobs and tasks may positively help with efficiency, but it creates workplace silos which classifies people into compartments or units that may start competing (Arnaud, Mills, Legrand and Maton, 2016:38-57). Too often it also creates people who know nothing outside the narrow focus they have, without developing a full picture of the organisation's operations and objectives. Collaboration is reduced too, and the possibility of people moving to adjacent sections is limited in the process.
5. **Nepotism and favouritism:** the rigidity in the system makes it difficult for many employees to be afforded opportunities to rise in the organisation, leading to senior management favouring their own (Amis, Mair and Munir, 2020:195-230). This results in the wrong people going up faster and consequently has the effect of demoralising other employees and effecting performance of their respective tasks.

This structure breeds a specific type of leadership based on its characteristics. It should be emphasised that too often leadership styles are a direct product of the structure and environment that the leader works in. The assumption is made in bureaucratic situations that the structure is the best for good performance and that the rules remain relevant.

#### **4.3.5 Examples of bureaucratic organisations**

As alluded to above, bureaucratic organisations are generally large with all the hallmarks of an organisation with many departments and units (Krause, Feiock, and Hawkins, 2016:113-127). Typical bureaucracies are universities that have many faculties; the faculties are subdivided into departments which themselves may have subject heads and research units headed by research coordinators. Most government ministries are typical examples of such bureaucracies, and these employ thousands of people at a time.

Weber, cited in Cochrane (2018:65-85), identified generic features of a traditional bureaucracy in stating the advantages of the structure. One critical component of his discussion is that senior managers in a bureaucracy have unprecedented control over the businesses they run. This allows for ultimate control of how things are done and this is implemented through the use of written rules, policies and procedures (Weber, in Cochrane, 2018:65-85). This makes working systems and decisions that are generally predictable except where there is a deliberate departure from the guidelines. Below is figure 4.2 showing Weber's characteristics of bureaucratic structure.

#### **Figure 4.2: Weber's characteristics of bureaucratic structure**

## Bureaucracy Characteristics (Weber)

1. Hierarchical Management Structure
2. Division of Labor
3. Formal Selection Process
4. Career Orientation
5. Formal Rules
6. Impersonality

**Source: Shaikh, Islam and Jatoi (2018:251-262).**

The principles and guidelines would generally advocate for formal selection and development of personnel upward in the hierarchy. People would advance in the discipline in which they are employed and may not divert to other divisions unless there are similarities, or the guidelines are not followed (Bauer and Ege, 2017:13-41). The relationship between employees and senior management is generally very mechanistic and impersonal. From the identification of the characteristics of the structure, Weber developed a theory around the bureaucratic structure and the way it operates. The theory states that the structure has five pillars derived from the characteristics, illustrated in figure 4.3 below.

**Figure 4.3: Weber's theory on bureaucracy**

# Max Weber's Theory

Features of Bureaucracy Structure	
1. Division of Labor	Complex work broken down into simple jobs
2. Hierarchy of Authority	Accepted chain of command to direct individual's effort towards organizational goal accomplishment
3. Framework of Rules	Effort directed and coordinated by rules
4. Impersonality	Hiring and promoting people on the basis of objective merit rather than favoritism (on the basis of what they know, and not who they know)
5. Formal Selection	Technical competence members selected accordingly on the basis of training, qualification, education etc.

**Source: Gregory (2017:233-256).**

These pronouncements give the bureaucracy its organisational culture, of course informed by the personalities in the system. The methods of operation therefore become dependent variables, primarily governed by the structure and the predetermined rules, regulations and guidelines that operate the system (Gregory, 2017:233-256). On the other hand, personality conflicts may cause discord and disgruntlement leading to conflicts, largely dependent on the personality types in charge of a unit and the followers within that structure. Jowah (2013:708-719) posits that such personalities when combined, dependent on the level and type of power the head has, may determine the type of leadership that will emerge. Bureaucratic structures are most ideal for managers and not leaders, who would almost certainly run into frequent problems with such rigid structures (Eisenberg, 2017:103-167). The different personalities of the followers and the head combined together determine the type of leadership. By definition, leadership is the ability to influence people to do work or activities voluntarily through the use of power (Reina, Rogers, Peterson, Byron and Hom, 2018:5-18). Whereas management is the art of planning, controlling and getting work done through authority (Reina et al, 2018:5-18) and by virtue of being in a position that should command authority. Leadership and management are not the same thing even though they are interchangeably used. Table 4.5 below contrasts leadership with management.

Table 4.5 Leadership and management compared

Leader	Manager
Visionary	Rational
Passionate	Consulting
Creative / initiative	Persistent
Flexible	Problem solving
Inspiring	Tough-minded
Innovative	Analytical
Courageous	Structured
Imaginative	Deliberate
Experiential	Authoritative
Change-oriented	Stabilising
Personal power	Positional power

**Source: Jowah (2016:10-17).**

As indicated above, leaders do not have subordinates, but they have followers, whereas managers do not have followers, they have subordinates. Research shows that there are different types of leadership (as with management), and thus the styles of leadership may be effective in different situations (Jowah, 2016:10-17). Amongst the different types of leadership, the type of leadership depends on the followership, given the organisational structure and the tasks to be performed. Chief amongst the different types of leadership styles would be the transactional, transformational, and in this case the bureaucratic leadership style (Hansen and Pihl-Thingvad, 2019:918-944). Research has shown that the management of projects is different from traditional operations management, and project managers operate differently. Heyden, Fourné, Koene, Werkman and Ansari (2017:961-985) posit that the structure of the tasks and expectations in the execution process determines the ideal style of management. This may be derived from what successful project execution is. By definition, successful project execution is when the project is carried out within the projected budget, time, scope and quality (Anantatmula and Fan, 2018:250-267). Consequently, there is a distinction between operations management and project management, as indicated in table 4.6 below.

**Table 4.6 Difference between operations and project management**

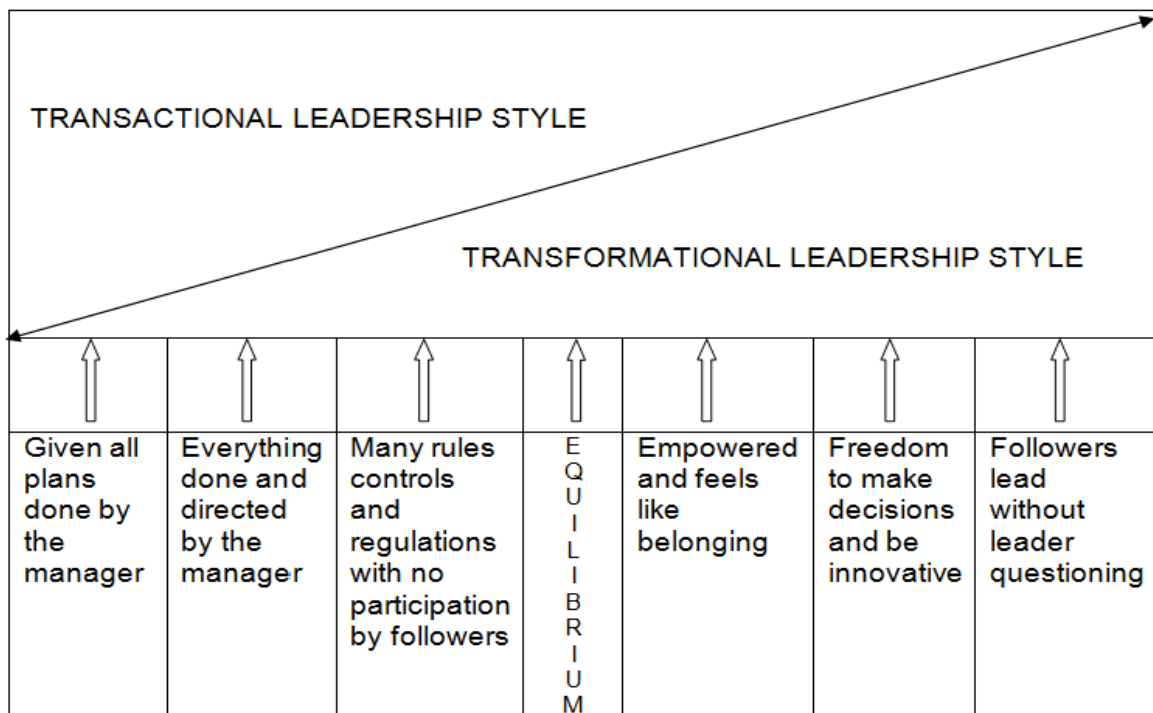
<b>Operations manager</b>	<b>Project manager</b>
Generates a static yield	Creates a unique yield

Must be cost-effective	Functions on a fixed budget
Does not produce new results	Produces new results to attain business objectives
Produces the same product or outcome repeatedly	When the newly manufactured goods or service are finished, the project finishes
Make a profit and upholds the system flawlessly	

**Source: Otsuki, Akiyoshi and Samejima (2017:5811-5818).**

Since leadership is crafted within a particular situation, it follows therefore that a transformational leader may have a role in a bureaucratic structure but may not practice in full the transformational leadership theories. This is shaped by the environment and the tasks to be performed without ignoring the impact of the followership and the situation. Jowah (2013:708-719) modelled the followership process as being in a continuum dependent largely on the tasks to be performed, the type of leader and follower prototypes, and the power of the leader and or followers. Figure 4.4 below demonstrates the followership continuum and how congruency between leader and follower promotes cooperation and performance.

**Figure 4.4 Continuum on leader – follower congruency**



**Source: Jowah (2013:708-719).**

There is a point at which, depending on the personalities of the leader and the followers (the big five personalities) that congruency is reached. At this stage either benefit or are satisfied, this therefore becomes a rallying point for acceptance (congruency) and cooperation may be maximised. This will allow for efficiency and effective execution of

the project at hand, notwithstanding the other factors in a bureaucratic structure. Managing or leading in a bureaucratic structure attracts a different type of leadership because of the way bureaucracy works. As alluded to earlier, the function of a middle manager (leader) in a bureaucracy is simply to implement according to guidelines prescribed for the executor. This therefore introduces a different form of management / leadership, referred to constantly as a bureaucratic leadership style.

#### **4.3.5 What is bureaucratic leadership?**

McCormick, Guay, Colbert and Stewart (2019:30-51) noted that bureaucratic leadership is characterized by the presence of policies, procedures, rules and controls that determine how the leader should behave. The standardisation of processes and the rigid division of labour predetermined by senior management removes the option of leader flexibility (Ramgulam, 2016:43-58). The pyramid structure or the hierarchy determines what and how things should be done using existing guidelines. This structure is ideal in the military environment or public management where everything comes from the top to the bottom. Ramgulam (2016:43-58) postulates that creativity is seriously hampered and there is no room for competitive thinking and innovation as these may go against the grain. The absence of flexibility and creativity makes the operations static and too often demotivating to employees who may see things differently. The manager simply implements, even if it is against what he or she would have preferred as the best way forward (Shapiro, 2017:682-699).

Weber and Waeger (2017:886-918) coined the term “bureaucratic leadership” in reference to the importance of the structure in the managing of large organisations. The reference was acknowledging a system run from the central office with predetermined requirements structured around desks, standards, and meticulous division of responsibilities with clearly defined accountabilities. The hierarchy encouraged the top-bottom approach, thereby making senior management the only ones who may think (Makau and Muna, 2020:1-27) and therefore their decision is absolute. Zarychta, Grillos and Andersson (2020:75-91) make reference to this as the most rational way of making decisions and ascribes this to effective development of society. Examples of this structure provided by the researchers were the McDonald’s fast food chain, and it was noted that this was based on four elements, namely control, efficiency, predictability and calculability.

#### 4.3.5.1 Advantages of bureaucratic leadership

Proponents of this leadership style embedded in bureaucratic structures argue that the structure is not all wrong, but they point out there are positives, namely:

- **Relationships within and among the practitioners** can be separated from the jobs to be performed. Because it involves standard processes, there are measurable systems used to measure performance, thus making the operations impersonal.
- **Roles are clearly defined** and easy to evaluate because of the guidelines provided – employees are hired as specialists in their own field of expertise and expected to perform as such. This allows for measurable, bias-free employee performance appraisal.
- **Strict regulations to be followed** make it easy for the leadership because the rules are clearly stipulated and easy for the leader to examine. No extra thinking or any form of flexibility – the internal systems are consistent and must meet the predetermined requirements.
- **Efficiency of the bureaucratic system** if the systems and specialisations are professionally organised, since everyone has an area of specialisation. Large amounts of work can be performed because the practitioners are specialists and they can fit into the predefined tasks with little problem.

#### 4.3.5.2 Disadvantages of bureaucratic leadership

Those opposed to bureaucratic structures and by derivation bureaucratic leadership point out numerous weaknesses that militate against the leadership in bureaucracies, namely:

**Hampered creativity in the practice** – this does not allow any better thinking and innovative operations to be practised because it is based on the understanding that what comes from the top is infallible. Productivity might never improve as long as new methods which are more efficient are not allowed into the system. Creativity is stifled and the organisation might never improve its efficiency.

**Wastage of precious time** trying to keep to or learn the standardised processes. Some of the employees coming from other organisations have used different methods, which could be of benefit to the bureaucracy, but they might not be able to introduce this because there is no flexibility or creativity allowed.

**High employee turnover** arises when employees do the same thing the same way all the time, and productivity suffers (Gubler, Larkin and Pierce, 2018:4967-4987) as employees look for more challenging and empowering occupations. This stifles the effort to be motivated in their jobs and they may opt for some occupation that challenges their thinking.

- **Predefined operation methods** discourage competition and limit the scope of the team members since daily operations require that they stick to the routines, giving no opportunity for the leader to excel or allow members to excel by competing with others.

#### **4.4 SUMMARY**

Working on projects which are limited by the triple constraints needs the most innovative means to enable the project processes to be effective. The absence of this competitive environment, together with the absence of a competitive environment leads to sloppiness at work, and contributes to high project failure rate in government service delivery projects. The competitive environment can also be linked to the type of leadership that the organisation uses. It is the leadership style that the organisation uses which allows the delegation of responsibilities and specialisation of operations, as it creates rankings which lead to a reporting system. Contingent on the size of the organisation and the viewpoint of the leadership and organisation, structures emerge which are meant for the meeting the objectives. The type of leadership which the organisation applies leads to either success or failure of the organisation. Thus, the structures are of paramount importance as they impact on the effectiveness and the efficiency needed by organisations. The presence of these structures is expected also to create command structures as a means of managing and leading the organisations, which creates a platform to effectively control how the organisation performs. In consequence, structure is a response to both internal and external pressures that will be exerted on an organisation as it endeavours to provide efficiency and effectiveness in successful execution of projects.

## **CHAPTER 5**

## **LEADERSHIP THEORIES AND MODELS THAT INFORM OUR CURRENT UNDERSTANDING OF LEADERSHIP TODAY**

### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

Leadership has existed since there were human beings who intended carrying out tasks (agreed on or merely assumed) because someone had to give direction. Over the centuries the concept of leadership has concerned some and yet has been a marvel to others. This is confirmed by the fact that Plato (429–347 BCE) wrote about leadership even before there was research to this extent (Moss, 2020:421). Before many leadership models were developed, the work of ancient leaders is well documented. Noah in the building of the ark (Genesis 5:32-10:1), Nimrod in the construction of the first ever cities (Genesis 10:8–12), Moses leading the children of Israel from Egypt to Canaan, the great emperors like Nebuchadnezzar, Darius, Alexander the Great, Julius Caesar, through the infamous Hitler, Napoleon, coming up to our present day with Robert Sobukwe, Nelson Mandela, and many too numerous to mention. Not forgetting the religious leaders, Jesus Christ, Mohamed, Confucius, Sri Guru Gobind Sing, Rama Krishna, etc. There have always been leaders who have been responsible for many things good or bad, and it is not about whether or not we like them, it is about leadership being the ability to influence other people to cooperate and perform tasks with one objective (Andriani, Kesumawati and Kristiawan, 2018:19-29).

People over the centuries have been fascinated by leaders and the great question as to what distinguishes some people from others. Researchers and enquirers started developing theories around why some people were leaders while others are followers. In the process of the studying this, many theories were developed and these also led to the development of leadership styles. For the convenience of the reader, leadership theory and leadership style are not the same, even though a style may be according to a theory.

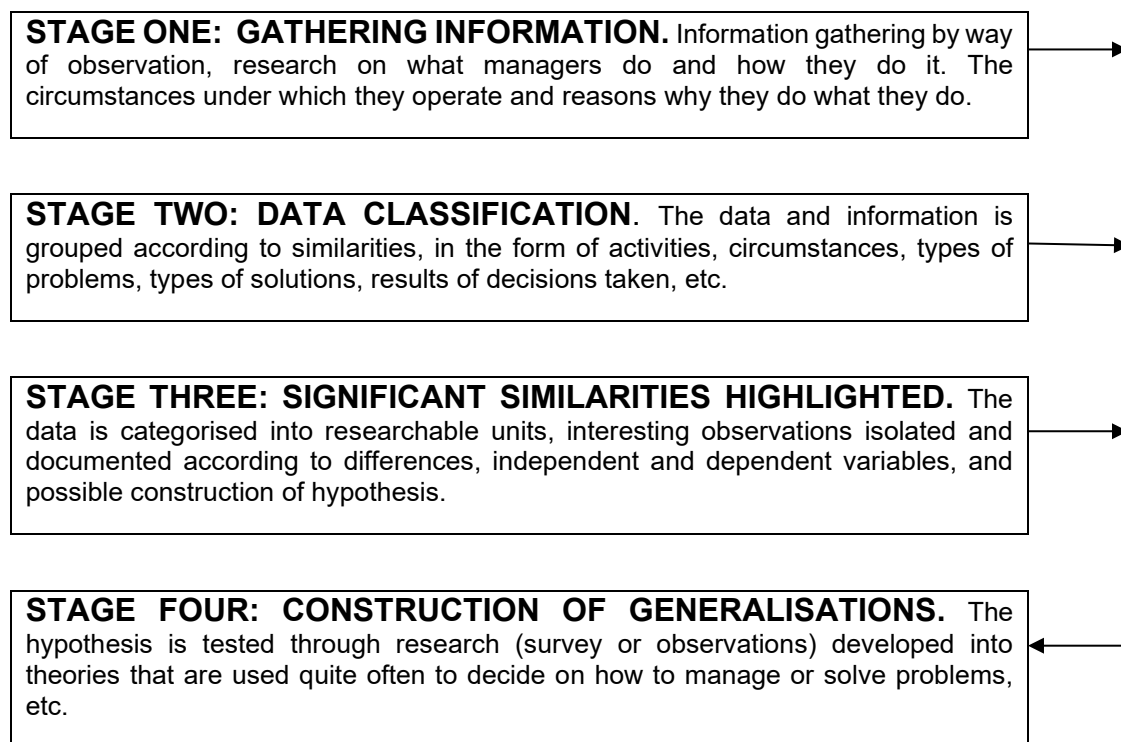
### **5.2 LEADERSHIP THEORIES**

1. **Leadership theory** consist of well organised principles generally accepted as a guide to explain and possibly analyse a situation (Daniëls, Hondeghem and Dochy, 2019:110-125). Theories emanate from someone's experience with situations or circumstances from which some guiding principles are drawn because the individual believes that these will always work in a particular way. Thus a leadership theory is an assumption made about the likelihood of the pattern being followed in given circumstances.
2. **Leadership style** is the leader's way of directing people in the execution of the tasks that are set for them (leader and follower). This focuses more on their personality and perceptions about how to deal with people and how to motivate

them to perform as expected or desired (Kteily, Sheehy-Skeffington and Ho, 2017:136). Styles are generally situation-specific if they are going to be effective, and this includes the tasks, the people, the leader and too often the organisational objectives (Andriani, Kesumawati and Kristiawan, 2018:19-29). The styles used in or during a military operation will definitely differ from styles used when in a production line manufacturing, for example, computers.

Tourigny, Han, Baba and Pan (2019:427-440) held that leadership theory has a degree of predictability of the results of some action taken and that therefore can be used as a guide to as a guide to predictions of behaviour. Theory does not develop in a vacuum, it is informed by many factors, chief among them will be the personality of the individual and how they understand the sequence of events. Jowah (2013: 708-719) identifies stages that are followed by the process of developing a theory and chronicles it as illustrated in figure 5.1 below.

**Figure 5.1: Jowah’s development of theory model**



**Source: Jowah (2013: 708-719)**

The different stages are the different experiences through which an individual develops a theory, starting with (1) the gathering of information, which may be through experience also; (2) categorization of the information according to similarity; (3) further classification of the information into similarities showing independent and dependent variables; and (4) development of a hypothesis and the eventual generalization. Many

different authors have highlighted different leadership theories; safe to say that there are more than two dozen theories on leadership. Highlighted below is one categorization which groups some of the theories (two or more theories classified together). Figure 5.2 below lists the different theories as they appear in literature.

**Figure 5.2: Theories of leadership**



**Source: Offermann and Coats (2018:513-522).**

There are many other theories of leadership that have not been included, which are largely found in western authorship with nothing on paternalistic leadership theories, and both leadership theories (Jawah, 2015:208-225). Research in leadership is expected to continue as long as there are human beings, and inevitably new theories will continue to emerge. The new wave of leadership theories may come together with a new thrust on what is considered to be millennial leadership, resulting from the new generation of followers and leaders moving into the Fourth Industrial Revolution.

### **5.2.1 The great man theory**

Tourish (2019:219-238) describes the great man theory as suggesting that certain people are born to be leaders, and in the same way others are born to be followers. This predestines individuals to be what they will be regardless of the other factors around their being. This presupposes that when a child is born into the world their destiny is already decided (Argentieri, 2018:1-40), and that whatever takes place, they will either be followers or leaders. They are born distinguished from other people and will portray the characteristics that make them become leaders, as discussed in table 5.3 below.

**Figure 5.3: The great man theory of leadership**

Carlyle	Great Man Theory	Freud
Great men were sent by God to be heroes and these heroes became leaders through the righteous process of hero-worship	<i>Core of theory</i>	Humans have a primal need for a father figure to whom they offer dependence and love in return for protection and reciprocated love
God Male – by virtue of history	<i>Source of authority</i> <i>Gender</i>	Position in family Male – by virtue of patriarchal family structure
Respect Loyal reverence Not recognizing great man Uplift	<i>Exchange with followers</i> <i>Role of followers</i> <i>Inherent danger</i> <i>Outcome of obedience</i>	Love Submission Mistreatment by great man Reduced autonomy of group members

**Source: Spector (2016:250-260).**

It is generally believed (in the theory) that great man were sent from God, possibly with a mission to be accomplished whilst they were alive. This also suggests that the source of their authority is their gender at birth, which predetermines their final position as leaders wherever they may be. Mouton (2019:81-102) concurs with this theory and identifies certain characteristics that identify these as leaders on the basis on which they develop to be what they were sent by God to be. A good leader is expected to have certain characteristics, and these are illustrated in the figure 5.4 below.

**Figure 5.4: Great man theory of leadership**



**Source: Mouton (2019:81-102).**

There are many people who still believe that leaders are born, and they come to the world predestined to lead at whatever level and in whatever capacity. The Great Man Theory (GMT) is practiced in many forms, including paternalistic practices, the royal families, chieftainship and many other such forms of inherited leadership. In as much

as this was accepted (and still is) in many quarters there has been no clear advantage to this theory; instead, the theory has numerous weaknesses.

### **5.2.1.1 The weaknesses of the great man theory**

The proponents of the GMT have not been able to counter or explain differently the disadvantages of the theory, namely;

- It presupposes infallibility of leaders, thus leading to followership without questioning.
- No criteria from birth can be used to identify who is born to be a leader until they take up leadership.
- Not all people believed to have been born to lead always become the leaders they are meant to be.
- It ignores the impact of upbringing including among others social structure, religion, and education.
- It ignores the impact of the tasks, the caliber of followers, the organisational structure and external factors.
- Leaders may become inconsiderate of other factors that make leaders fail or succeed because they claim entitlement.
- It does not explain the failure of those presumed to be leaders and their rejection by followers, as in elections.
- It is generally gender-based – but does not explain well women who have become effective leaders.

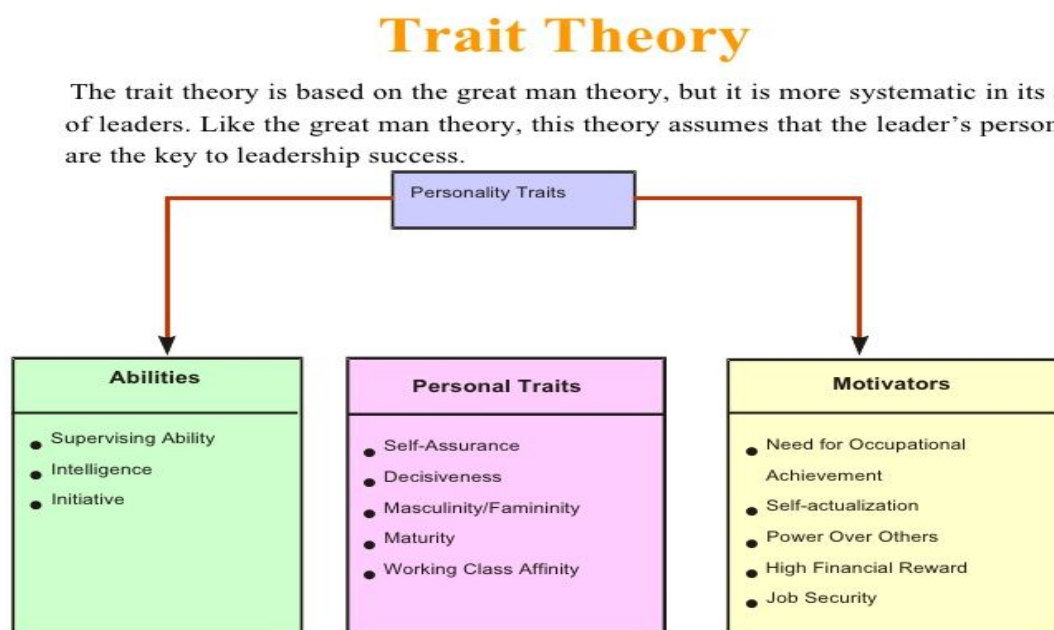
Jawah (2013:58-87) posits that for a leader to be effective, there should be “congruency” between the leader and the followers. Suggesting that when the followers feel that their objectives are being met, and the leader is satisfied that the organizational objectives will be met, this brings harmony. The contingency theory adds to the foregoing and considers that the task and the environmental factors shape the leader into what the followers consider to be effective leadership (Behrendt, Matz and Göritz, 2017:229-244). The two assertions should be considered in the concept of a bureaucratic structure which is essentially the primary determinant of the bureaucratic leadership style (Littoz-Monnet, 2017:584-595). The political waves in the 1950s – 1960s brought about a new dimension on the leadership spectrum when women complained about exclusion from decision making. In as much as there are not many women leaders, they have been elected to positions. This may suggest therefore that people may be appointed to head institutions, not because they qualify by a

considered favourable. This immediately brings questions into the selection process during interviews, and begs an answer as to the levels of objectivity and subjectivity involved (Littoz-Monnet, 2017:584-595). Many people become leaders more for political expediency by the senior stakeholders than because of their having been born leaders.

### 5.2.2 The trait theory

By definition a trait is a variety of individual attributes, including aspects of personality, temperament, needs, motives, and values (Scheffer and Heckhausen, 2018:67-112). Trait leadership makes predictions about the ability or effectiveness of an individual as a leader on the basis of certain identified and presupposed traits. These personality traits are considered to be integrated in the individual giving the individual unique power (ability to influence) which becomes the source of effectiveness. Leadership by definition (Littoz-Monnet, 2017:584-595) is the ability to influence people to change their behaviour to suit a particular mental framework where they cooperate to reach objectives. These personality traits are presumed to be unique to the individual and thus distinguishing the individual favourably, making them more acceptable. Behrendt, Matz and Göritz (2017:229-244) postulate that the presence of these traits in an individual gives them the influence they need to effectively direct other people towards set goals. This theory bears resemblance of the GMT theory with slight variations, as detailed in figure 5.5 below.

**Figure 5.5: The trait theory**



**Source: Fleeson and Jayawickreme (2015:82-92).**

The cause for the anxiety about leaders and leadership comes from the complexities and differences shown by the response of followers to leaders. Too often where some people are not able to exert power to invoke followership, other people succeed, and precisely that causes the curiosity. The traits theory postulates that the effectiveness of a leader emanates from or is based on three factors, namely abilities of the individual, the personality traits of the individual and the motivating factors.

**(1) The abilities of the individual:** a leader leads people and has to deal with them to be able to get them to do what is expected, for which they need to be able to supervise, be intelligent, and take initiative.

- **Supervision** is defined as a process whereby the leader or manager regularly meets and interacts with employee(s) to evaluate their work (Hoch and Dulebohn, 2017:678-693).
- **Intelligence** can be defined as the ability to reason, understand, learn, and ability to provide an informed decision.
- **Initiative** is regarded as the ability to be decisive and take action without being informed to do so by others (Barrett and Baum, 2017:397-414).

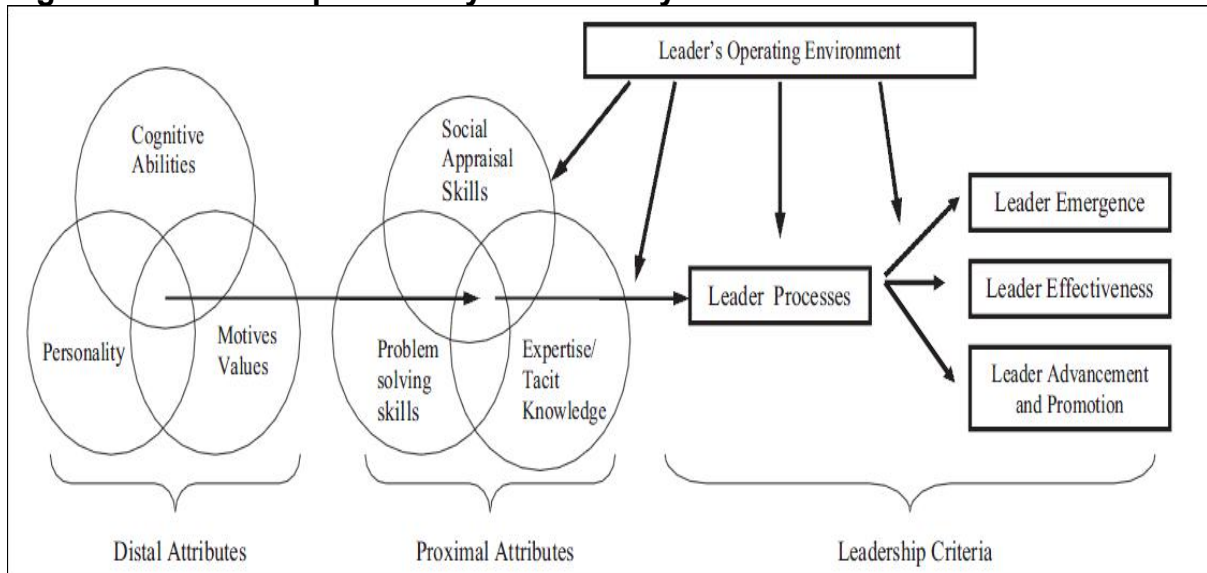
**(2) Personality traits** by definition reflect individuals' distinguishing patterns of views, feelings and manners (Sznycer, 2019:143-157). These personality traits can be broken down to components like, self-assurance, decisiveness, masculinity / femininity, maturity, and working class affinity.

- **Self-assurance** is defined as the confidence that an individual has in him/herself.
- **Decisiveness** is defined as the ability to make decisions without procrastinating and failing to choose what one wants.
- **Masculinity / femininity** are defined as traits classically connected with being male or female, in that order (Blackmore, 2017:27-48).
- **Maturity** is defined as the aptitude to respond to the situation with an awareness of precise time and place to act basing on the circumstances (Church, 2019:41).
- **Affinity towards the working class** has to do with an individual's ability to use attractiveness to establish a connection with the labouring class (Diesen, 2019:1-15).

**(3) Motivators** are defined as selected measures which an institute or business has in order to retain the workers dedicated and arouse in them a sense of belonging (Clack, 2020:1-28).

Pervin (1994:103-113) designed a traits model with more detail than the Fleeson model, which was more a development of the first model. Like the first model it also has three pillars on which it is based, namely distal attributes, proximal attributes and leadership criteria. These are illustrated in the figure 5.5 below.

**Figure 5.6: Pervin's personality traits theory model**



**Source: Pervin (1994:103-113)**

Of particular interest in this model is the consideration of the environment and the situation in which the leadership takes place. This, suggests that effectiveness of a leader must be considered also in the context of the environment in which the leadership takes place. As alluded to above, the aspects of this model of the trait theory are, namely distal attributes, proximal attributes and leadership criteria.

(1) **Distal attributes** are defined as having features which are intrinsic as they are native to individuals (Oreg and Berson, 2018:241-248). The distal attributes comprise three aspects, which are personality, cognitive abilities and motive values.

- **Personality** is defined as the mixture of features or abilities that form a person's unique character (Soto and John, 2019:444).
- **Cognitive abilities** are defined as brain-based expertise which is needed to perform any duty from the easiest to the most multifaceted (Oreg and Berson, 2018:241-248).
- **Motive values** by definition measure a person's principal values and classifies what an individual desires to do relatively to what an individual may do in definite situations (Weber, Unterrainer, and Höge, 2020:1009-1071).

(2) **Proximal attributes** are defined as features which are flexible and can be developed as time goes on (Oreg and Berson, 2018:241-248). The proximal

attributes are classifiable into three subsections, namely problem solving skills, special appraisal skills, and tacit knowledge (expertise).

- **Problem solving skills** are defined as an individual's capacity to resolve problems in an operative and appropriate way without any obstructions (Fichter, 2018:69-84).
  - **Special appraisal skills** are defined as a distinct review of a worker's job performance and general contribution to a business.
  - **Tacit knowledge (expertise)** is defined as the type of knowledge that is challenging to transfer to a different person by means of noting it down or putting it into words as it is attained through personal experience (Hadjimichael and Tsoukas, 2019:672-703).
- (3) Leadership criteria** are defined as a method which is used to select leaders or to put people into leadership positions. This involves leadership processes which themselves are divisible into three parts, namely leader emergence, leader effectiveness and leader advancement and promotion.
- **Leader emergence** is defined as the practice through which a person is acknowledged as the leader of a previously leaderless group (Bäcklander, 2019:42-60).
  - **Leader effectiveness** is defined as the fruitful exercise of personal impact by an individual which culminates in achieving one or numerous objectives as a consequence of the synchronized hard work of the followers (Bäcklander, 2019:42-60).
  - **Leader advancement and promotion** is the way in which a leader is developed and elevated.

Jawah (2015:208-225) observes that there is no effective leadership without an effective analysis and assessment of the followership. The followers may have unprecedented power (say from unions) which might impact on the style a leader may want to use (Verdun, 2017:207-221). Leaders do not operate on their own, they deal with people who have emotions, problems, ideas and all sorts of issues that need to be managed properly. That makes leadership a process since it involves effort and strategies to influence the followers to cooperate (Verdun, 2017:207-221). What complicates the process is the different type of followers in terms of rank, responsibility, technical expertise and general social diversities. If these are to be managed correctly, personality trait alone may not be enough considering those that may not like that trait

(Scheffer and Heckhausen, 2018:67-112). This should not exclude the leader's perception about the followers and how that impacts on her / his behaviour towards the subordinates, which suggests that it takes more than personality traits to be an effective leader. Researchers agree on one thing, that leaders have the ability to influence followers to work and that they command respect from their followers. Jowah (2015:208-225) asserted that the ability to lead is a direct function of the degree of congruency between the leader, the followers and the tasks to be performed. Some notable studies on the traits theory are discussed briefly below.

#### **5.2.2.1 Critical studies on the trait theory approach**

As in all theories, much work was put into the trait theory study with many disagreeing, agreeing and with overlaps in much of their work. Of particular interest is the fact that these people came from different experiences, cultural structures and possibly personalities. Using the implicit theory of leadership (Jowah, 2015:208-225) it can also be argued that they had their own different views about what makes a leader effective. Some of the work done by those who focused on this theory is summarized and listed below.

- Kouzes and Posner (2011:49-56) identified four traits inherent in effective leaders as being visionary (looking forward to), inspiring and motivating to the followers, honest (sincere and open in dealings) and showing familiarity with situations (competent).
- Miller (2018:165-185) identified the ability of the leader to accept that the situation in which the individual is leading matters in how one becomes effective. That effectiveness should be measured on the basis of the leader's ability to respond according to the demands / requirements of the situation.
- Zhao and Zhou (2019:944) held that until the leader understands the environment which also includes the needs of the followers, the expectations of the organisation, the complexity of the tasks and the worker-task-fit, they may not be able to be effective.
- Jowah (2015:208-225) noted that personalities may be a good starting point for one to be accepted as a prospective leader. Once the personality traits are acceptable to the respondents, then the ability to "maneuver between" organisational and individual objectives to the satisfaction of both becomes the measure of effectiveness.

Norhouse (2013:29-31), after analyzing trait theory including the different models submitted by previous researchers, summarized the theory. The strengths and the weaknesses of the theory are listed in point form below.

#### **5.2.2.2 The strengths of the trait theory as noted by Norhouse (2013:29-31)**

1. The traits theory confirms that the individuals who become leaders have distinctive attributes that differentiate them from others.
2. The traits theory suggests that these leaders are distinguishable because of their abilities which are not common to every other individual.
3. More research has gone into trait theory, and there are large volumes of work around the theory which helps with understanding leaders.
4. It helps with benchmarking for the identification of what is required in an effective leader during selection.

#### **5.2.2.3 The weaknesses of the trait theory as noted by Norhouse (2013:29-31)**

Even though there are strong points identified about this theory, like any other, there are notable weaknesses. These are listed below in no particular order of importance.

- There is more focus on the leader than there is on other factors like situational aspects such as organisational structure, organisational culture, and the nature of both the tasks and the subordinates.
- The traits are not specifically aligned to the role they would play in the leadership process, thus do not account for the source of effectiveness of the traits since there is no knowledge of what trait influences what aspects of the follower.
- It fails to account for the specific traits and how these align to follower power (position and skill of the follower) considering the “follower acceptable” traits and follower personalities.
- The trait theory considers the personality as existing before the individual becomes a leader thereby suggesting that the skills and competencies of effective leadership may not be learnt or teachable to other people.
- It suggests a predetermination on who becomes a leader by virtue of the traits they have by nature. But excludes the personality traits of followers which may be in direct opposition, yet presumes the leader will impact positively on these followers.
- It does not take into consideration that certain traits may not be as attractive to all followers, and assumes homogeneity amongst followers when in actual fact there is no workforce without diversity.

- It does not identify in specific terms and make a comparison of the traits that will motivate and demotivate, and what types of personalities would clash or complement each other as a determinant of what will constitute effective power.

The integrated patterns of these characteristics which are different from individual to individual may serve as a good source for learning leadership behaviour. This is also referred to as the early theory (Derue, 2011:125-150) as it opened up more information hitherto undiscussed about factors that impact leadership effectiveness.

Some of the researchers say that leadership is only for specific people who have special traits that cannot be improved. The trait theory gave birth amongst others to another set of theories which attracted a lot of research and controversy, namely the behavioural theories. There were numerous variations, different from each other in many respects but all focused on behaviour of the leader as a factor for effective leadership.

### **5.2.3 Behavioural theories**

The weaknesses of the trait theory gave way to new research and focus which shifted the study terrain of leadership. Leader behaviour became the central theme of the study, moving away from the much-studied trait theory. However, it can be stated here that some behaviour is also informed by aspects of trait theory in that the behaviour of an individual is connected to other factors. This did not include followers, as it was supposed that the leader was the central object of explanation and was the primary determinant of the success of any undertaking. There is no doubt nor dispute that leaders are a critical component of the mix (Jawah, 2013:47-58), but leaders cannot be considered as the sole determinant of successful leadership. A scientific approach to leader behaviour is an imperative, without which the study of leadership will be impossible. On the other hand, natural sciences cannot be used to determine or predict human leadership behaviour. What we have come to understand, and clearly so is that all stakeholders need to be in the process of effectively and actively working towards achievement of organisational goals (Morton, 2017:159-169). At the helm of this should be the leader who must help in coordinating the effort to achieve these organisational aims and objectives. So, it is obviously a justification of the trait theory to focus on the leader as it is the leader who is tasked with the achievement of the goals and objectives. Behavioural theory postulates that leader effectiveness and competencies are learnt, and can be taught, contrary to the earlier suggestions (Podsakoff and Podsakoff, 2019:11-33). This in a way contradicts or disagrees with much of the teaching of the great man theory and traits theory. In this theory a leader can be

developed and whatever a leader learns / experiences and is internalized becomes an acquired competence. The learnt behaviour put into practice becomes a competency which will resonate with the followers (whom this is learnt from) and this may impact positively on performance (Johnston, 2014:47-79). If the behaviour of the leader is in harmony with workers' prototypes of what constitutes good leadership, there is a strong likelihood that loyalty and productivity may follow (see figure 5.7 below).

**Figure 5.7: Behavioural leadership theories**

## BEHAVIOR THEORIES

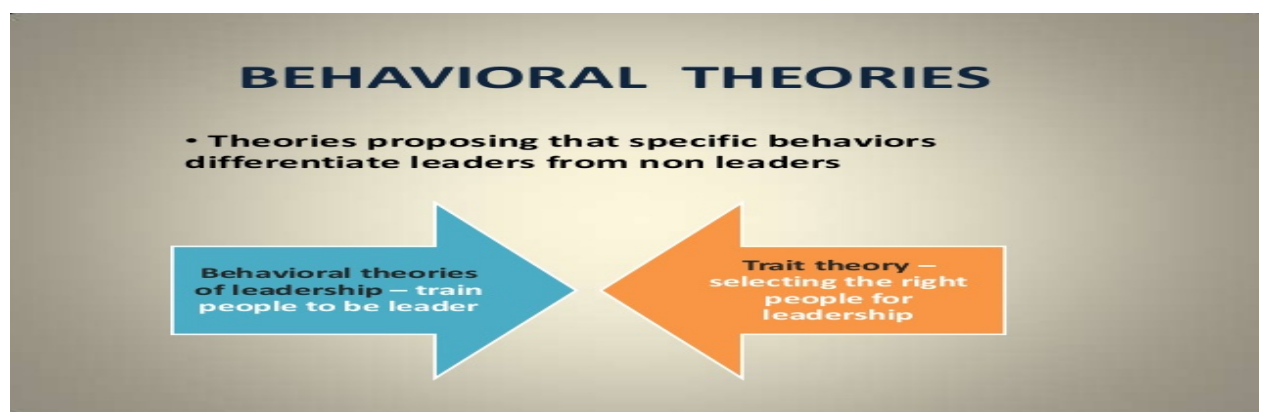
- These theories advocate that leadership is shown by acts rather than traits and that the leadership is the result of effective role behavior.
- The behavioral theorists concentrated on the unique behavioral aspects found in leaders that enabled them to attain effective leadership.
- Behavioral theories of leadership are based upon the belief that great leaders are made, not born.
- According to this theory, people can *learn* to become leaders through teaching and observation.

**Source: Hamlin and Patel (2020:259-282).**

The theories of behavioural leadership are a collection of different theories classifiable in the leader behaviour category.

Contrasting this with trait theory, considered to be among the most researched, the weaknesses of the trait theory led to the leader behaviour theory. The differences between these are illustrated in figure 5. 8 below.

**Figure 5.8 Contrasting trait and leader behaviour theories**



**Source: Hamlin and Patel (2020:259-282).**

There are several theories of leadership and some apply better in some environments than do others. It may be safe to say there is no universal theory. The two most common theories discussed in literature are trait theory and behaviour theory (Passafaro, 2020:579-601). The trait theory focuses on the selection of the right people to lead whereas the behavioural theory promotes the selection of the best trainable candidate. The trait theory of leadership emphasises the born leader concept based on certain traits which make one a good leader. On the other hand, the behavioural theory of leadership focusses on the behaviour of the leader which may take different forms depending on the circumstances (Passafaro, 2020:579-601).

### **5.3.2.1 Focus of the behavioural theory**

Derue (2011: 125-150) confirms that there is a relationship between strong leadership and worker performance and productivity. This performance is recognized in both the organisation as well as the organisation itself because of increased worker productivity. The behaviour of the leader permeates or isolates workers, and where the leader behaviour is acceptable, productivity is noticeably achieved. Some of the studies have resulted in the information shown in table 5.1 below.

**Table 5.1: Leadership behavioural theory**

<b>Leadership behaviour theory</b>	
<b>Task</b>	<b>Relationship</b>
Orient groups	Friendly and open
Manage standards	Accepting advice from others
Make plans	Self-aware
Clarify the work roles	Concerned about other people
Define the goals and tasks	Working with groups
Focus on completing the work	The community is important

**Source: Patria, Wahyuni, and Kusumastuti (2019:233-286).**

The tasks to be performed in a sense predetermine the type of employees that will be allocated to these tasks, i.e. an engineer will be given engineering work. Accountants and the HR people will be given to work in qualification0relevant tasks, and this immediately has an impact on how the leader behaves (Parker, Andrei and Van den Broeck, 2019:907). The factors listed above therefore imply that the leader has to learn certain behaviours and a way of dealing with the particular individual or situation. The theory concentrates on the behaviour of the leader and the likely influences that will

have on productivity (Hamlin and Patel, 2020:259-282). It is easier for the leader to learn behaviour than it would be to learn traits, and that ability to learn behaviour, if it is in line with expectations, will be rewarded with positive performance (Hamlin and Patel, 2020:259-282). Behavioural theory suggests therefore that everyone and anyone can be a leader if they are able to copy effectively what others do, and understand what the subordinates want. Effective communication will break down the walls and silos commonly found between managers and subordinates, and effectively communicating the vision, direction, organisational objectives and an understanding of the situation of the subordinates can bring about change (Parker, Andrei and Van den Broeck, 2019:907). Researchers have classified types of leader behaviour, and the first classification is task-oriented and relationship-oriented leadership (Parker, Andrei and Van den Broeck, 2019:907). This distinction has become the cornerstone of further studies on behavioural leadership theory. Leadership theory posits two types of behaviour, namely task-orientated and relationship-orientated behaviour. The details are put in tabular form below in table 5.2.

**Table 5.2: The two types of behaviour**

<b>Behaviour type</b>	<b>Explanation</b>
<b>Task-oriented</b>	Characterised by strictness of leadership, provision of specific details of tasks to be performed, how they should be performed and what the expectations are within a specified time limit. The leadership style involves micromanagement of the subordinates and does not allow for any mistakes or poor performance.
<b>Relationship-oriented</b>	The leaders focus on the relationship between the followers and the leader. The leaders get involved with the employees and allow the employees to approach when they have problems. The central focus is empowerment of the followers, generally seen in the provision of continuous training of subordinates (Lee, Willis and Tian, 2018:306-325). Mentoring and coaching is equally used to get subordinates to function without fear of repercussions in the event of their failing to perform to expectations.

**Source: Own construction**

These are derived from the Ohio State and University of Michigan models and the Managerial Grid model and Theory X and Theory Y model (Lee, Willis and Tian, 2018:306-325). Task-oriented leadership focuses on what is to be done with little consideration for the people involved, clearly a transactional approach to work. Relationship-oriented leadership would focus on relationships and use these to advance employee performance. Together with this should be considered the Ohio State University and the Michigan State University models.

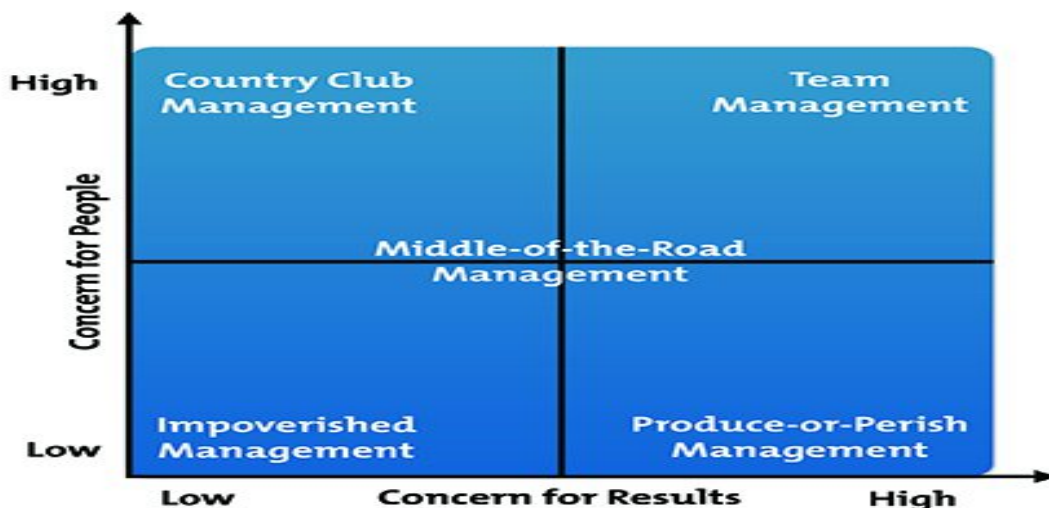
#### 5.2.4 The Blake and Mouton managerial grid

Vroom and Jago (2007:17) from Ohio State University proposed two leader behavioural theories which were classified as employee-orientation and production-orientation theories. These are comparable to the foregoing task and relationship orientated theories.

- a) Employee-orientated: the employee-oriented theory focused on personal relationships. This theory allowed the development of personalised interest which resulted in unity amongst the subordinates and acceptance of their diversities.
- b) Production-oriented: the leaders in this dimension tend to work with group members only to achieve the work. They are however known to achieve strongly and this is attributed to the good guidance they provide and the focus on high production.
- c) Participative leadership: this type of leadership provides support to the subordinates by guiding them through the necessary stages and mentoring them to solve most of their problems on their own. The leaders still have to make the final decisions.
- d) The Managerial Grid Theory was postulated by Blake and Mouton (1981:439-455) and is categorised into dimensions, namely concern for people and concern for results. The theories are closely related to the previous theories above, albeit classified or stated differently.
- e) *Concern for People*: this leadership looks specifically at people's interests, and this involves the skills, the passion and their ability to do certain things – talents. The ability to understand the different dimensions of an individual may also assist the leader to know what the subordinate is capable of doing (being) apart from what they have at a particular moment in time.
- f) *Concern for Results*: here, the leadership focuses on the most efficient way of fulfilling tasks to maximise productivity and enable the organisation to perform better.

Organisations are established for a purpose; as such, some leaders may neglect the other factors of productivity and focus on the one and only thing they think matters, the tasks. The figure below (figure 5.9) illustrates the Blake and Mouton model of leadership styles and theories – the managerial grid.

**Figure 5.9: The Blake and Mouton managerial grid**



**Source: Blake and Mouton (1981:439-455).**

**Impoverished management:** the manager in this quadrant has low interest in people and low interest in results. The manager has simply not motivated anything and expects that things will happen on their own (Clack, 2020:1-28). This situation may allow room for those subordinates with little or no motivation to take advantage of that situation and simply not perform. Such an environment is likely to negatively impact on those who are motivated extrinsically, as they may have nothing to motivate them to perform (Blake and Mouton, 1981:439-455).

**a) Produce-or-perish management:** the common name of the style is “authoritarian leadership.” These managers are essentially “slave drivers” who care little about human feelings and emotions but want their work done (Ahuja, 2020:1041-1112). Managers in this category use punishment as tools to motivate employees. Because of this, they may have high results and low people morale. Low morale may translate to low job satisfaction leading to high turnover, high absenteeism and burnout of subordinates in an organisation

**b) Middle-of-the-road management:** in this category the managers try to balance between people and tasks (Ahuja, 2020:1041-1112). It is alleged that this approach fails to motivate potential performers and fails to engage employees to provide high performance.

**c) Country club management:** the managers in this category are more concerned about employees’ feelings because they want to make the employees happy (Ahuja, 2020:1041-1112). The style tries to fit in the employees according to their capacity to work, and this may provide a relaxed work environment.

**Team Management:** this style focuses on building working relationships between the leader and the employees, and amongst the employees themselves (Hoch and Dulebohn, 2017:678-693). The team approach to working allows for a high degree of interdependence between the team members and the tasks they perform. This may allow for reduction in the silos in which most structures in organisations work, and provide synergy (Hoch and Dulebohn, 2017:678-693). This approach may result in inter-task relationships, which may increase productivity, which is ideal for project execution.

### **5.2.5 Theory X and Theory Y**

McGregor developed two contrasting theories centred on how leadership motivates subordinates through the behaviour of the leaders themselves (Prottas and Nummelin, 2018:109-117). The theories postulate that the leader's attitude and perception (it may be cultural, religious, experience, general knowledge, etc.) informs the way the leader behaves towards subordinates. These ground-breaking theories surmised that there are two approaches (from the leader's perspective) or things that leaders "know" about followers or subordinates, which were coded X theory and Y theory.

**X theory** postulates that employees do not like to work and have small motivation to work. It states further that some leaders believe that employees have a shortage of ambition, hate responsibility and like to be led (Prottas and Nummelin, 2018:109-117). This mentality may promote the temptation of the leaders to use authoritarian leadership with the intention of coercing employees into submission or forcing employees to perform. This practice encourages managers to resort to micromanagement of subordinates because there is that lack of trust.

**Y theory** contrary to the prescriptions of the X theory, the Y theory leader considers subordinates positively, and believes that the subordinates are interested in working, are able to learn, can be trusted and left alone (Prottas and Nummelin, 2018:109-117).

The underlying philosophy behind the theories is that as the manager or leader perceives the subordinates, so will the leader behave. If the leader has a negative perception of the subordinates, the leader's behaviour is seen as a response intended to push for productivity. The leader may not see anything wrong with this belief and behaviour, so as a corrective measure they may micromanage employees who are perceived to be lazy and unable to think. These different theories then gave room to new thinking as envisaged in the emergence of contingency theory.

**Behavioural leadership theory:** A result of scientifically evaluating actions and moods of individuals in positions of leadership and their adoption to the environment in order to succeed.

#### 5.2.5.1 The strengths of behavioural leadership theory

- It explains many grey areas and questions about leadership and its impact in an organisation
- It helps in the identification of a leadership style of managers and where they can be placed

Some of the leadership styles emanating from this theory are the different types of leadership styles, some of the most common are in table 5.3 below.

**Table 5.3: Types of leadership styles based on behaviour**

• Coaching leadership:	• Visionary leadership:
• Servant leadership:	• Autocratic leadership:
• Laissez-faire or hands-off leadership:	• Democratic leadership:

**Source: own construction**

#### 5.2.5.2 Disadvantages of behavioural leadership theory

- Behavioural theories imply a learned process that takes time
- Some leaders may fail to learn to understand the situation
- There may be too much diversity to allow for a standard
- Leaders have their own thinking about good leadership
- They should avoid showing weaknesses in the process

When leaders appear weak or unable to manage the situation, there is the likelihood that they may resort to other styles. Generally, the leaders will resort to use of power and influence to get the work done and meet schedules and deadlines. Too often they fall into two common behaviours, namely pacesetter leadership and transactional leadership styles.

- **Pacesetter leadership** tends to drive fast results in a situation where the workers may hold higher standards than the leaders. This may result in a higher frequency

of meetings to go through the performances on a regular basis, for example weekly.

- **Transactional leadership** is also centred on the leader who measures only the performance of the group or team by offering predetermined incentives in the form of rewards like money, and punishment if the worker fails to achieve as per expectation.

### **5.2.5.3 Trait and behavioural theories contrasted**

The differences between trait and behavioural theories appear to be small, yet the influence they have on leadership and perceptions about how to lead are significant. The two theories are contrasted below.

1. **Behavioural theories teach** people to be leaders with the understanding that leadership is more to do with the ability of leader and follower to form congruence in their respective objectives and expectations (Jawah, 2015: 208-225).
2. **Trait theories state** that people are born leaders and one need to identify those leadership traits that an individual has as a gift of nature. These people are born to lead and they have nothing to learn, they just have to be identified and be given the opportunity to lead (Fleeson, 2015:82-92).

In such environments there is continuity of the workforce as labour turnover is low and absenteeism is equally low.

### **5.2.6 Contingency theories**

The contingency theory emphasises that the leader operates in a given environment within which his/her impact is affected by the situation which demand a specific leadership response (Birasnav and Bienstock, 2019:142-157). The theory stipulates that there is no standard for an organisation since organisations have different factors and interests, including tasks or how these are to be performed. The theory focuses on specific situational factors which affect the relationships between independent and dependent variables (Birasnav and Bienstock, 2019:142-157). The variables to be considered would therefore be motivation as an independent variable impacting on the dependent variable, which is productivity.

From a contingency theory perspective, there is no best way to organise or lead an institution or to make decisions. The most appropriate decision making and/or leadership is contingent (dependent) the internal and external situation of the organisation (Hiller, Piccolo and Zaccaro, 2019:101352). The theory suggests that the

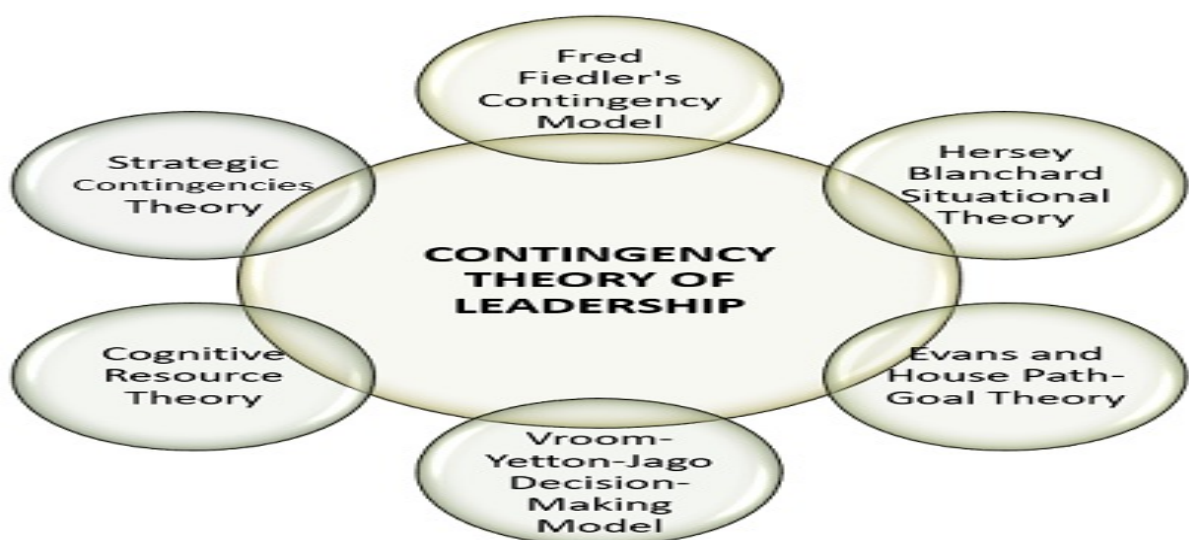
leader makes decisions contingent on the prevailing circumstances, suggesting that there is no uniform or standardised approach. The leader chooses a leadership style depending the tasks, the people he is working with, the objectives to be met, and time limits if there are any.

The main ideas behind this theory are summarised as follows;

- Organisations are impacted on by both internal and external factors which must be considered in the leadership process.
- Appropriate and context-relevant leadership is what is needed to balance organisational and employee objectives in the environment.
- The kind of the task and the circumstances on the ground determine how leadership styles should be shaped.
- Management must show concern for all aspects of the organisation (stakeholders) to allow for effective leadership and performance.
- From organisation to organisation, tasks to task, followership to followership, these become the dependable variables for leadership style.

The theory is supported by many other studies resulting in numerous other theories based on contingency theories of leadership. These are illustrated in the diagram below (figure 5.10)

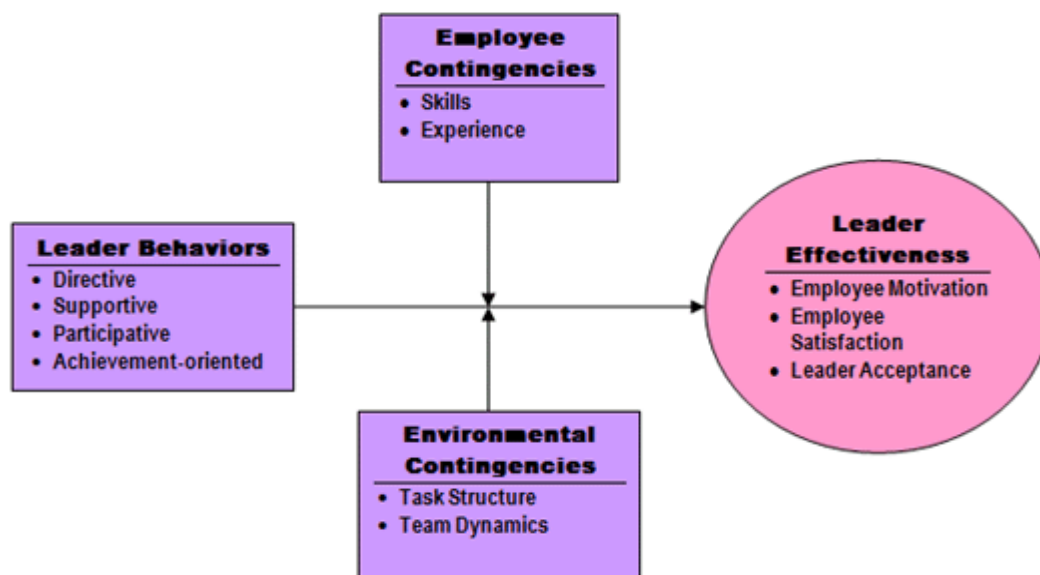
**Figure 5.10: Derivatives of contingency theory of leadership**



**Source: Ponomariov, Boardman and Boysen (2020:1-13).**

The theories emanating from or based on contingency theory are numerous, and some of these are discussed briefly below. The essence of these theories in general is that leaders have to decide on what and how to manage their subordinates given the situation they find themselves in. They need to understand group member characteristics in order to be able to fit in and influence the group effectively (Ponomariov, Boardman and Boysen, 2020:1-13). The effects would certainly differ from situation to situation dependent on the prevailing factors and circumstances. Some of the critical aspects of this theory are illustrated in figure 5.11 below.

**Figure 5.11: Aspects of factors influencing leadership**



**Source: Ramesh and Kulkarni (2018:2018:4-9).**

**Employee contingencies:** the employees’ skills level is an important factor, in that highly skilled people with experience in their trade may not want to be micromanaged. They have a degree of independence and may be offended if they are treated like novices, yet inexperienced personnel may consider micromanagement helpful to their learning.

**Leader behaviour:** responding to the personnel, the leader may therefore choose to adopt any of the following styles. Directive leadership for employees who do not know exactly what to do. Supportive leadership for a group that is unsure or lacks confidence in its operations, or participative leadership whereby the leader engages with the subordinates. In project management, achievement-oriented leadership may be most suitable because of the triple constraints of the project execution process.

**Leader effectiveness:** the ability of a leader to motivate employees is of primary concern, so the leader may resort to transactional leadership, for instance, as long as it is clear to the leader that not all employees are motivated by rewards in the form of money. With regard to employee satisfaction, there are many different factors for different employees leading to job satisfaction. A leader needs to understand all these and apply them appropriately.

**Environmental contingencies:** the tasks to be performed and the skills required are important because leadership patterns are influenced by the type of task to be performed. The team dynamics it is assumed will be influenced by the requirements for the tasks to be performed. There is also one element left out too often – the politics of an organisation also impacts on how the leader will perform.

Leaders lead people, and people are not homogenous, therefore leadership styles may differ according to who is being led, and by whom. Ramesh and Kulkarni (2018:2018:4-9) propose that leadership must have good relationships with subordinates, must have a full understanding of the environment, and must have the ability to punish when necessary. The pronouncements of this theory are explained in table 5.4 below.

**Table 5.4: Requisites for a leader to function**

Relationship with people	This theory explains the relationship between the people and the size of organization in term of its structure (Ramesh and Kulkarni, 2018:2018:4-9).
Understanding the environment	The main aspect of this relationship is understanding the relationship of a leader's characteristics and focus on the stability of the relative environment (Moss, 2020:421).
Ability to punish if need be	One of goals of this theory is that the leaders must have the capacity to reward and punish followers (Moss, 2020:421).

**Source: Own construction**

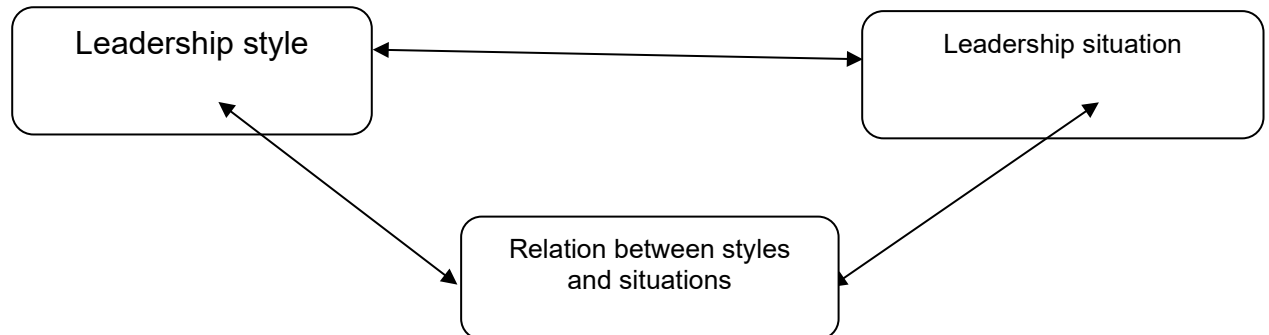
The theory advances the thought that leadership should not be seen in isolation, and because there are other factors involved, it is necessary to understand how they impact on the leadership style. Jowah (2013:37-43) posits that leaders lead because they have a form of agreement (acceptability) by the followers that they may lead. The research contends that there is a need for an “equilibrium” at which point the power of

the leader and that of the followers balance (as a group or as individuals). The resentment or acceptability of the leader therefore moves on a continuum.

### 1. Fiedler's contingency model

Fiedler's contingency model suggests that leadership is about the personality of the leader and the situation (including tasks and the types of followers) within which the individual leader must lead. This is shown in figure 5.12 below.

**Figure 5.12: Fiedler's Contingency model**



**Source: Nastiezaie and Musavinejad (2018:184-191)**

The theories of leadership have passed through many different stages with so many different interpretations and definitions. What is critical is that though there has been no fully accepted definition of leadership, all researchers agree that leadership involves an individual or individuals leading other people (Nastiezaie and Musavinejad, 2018:184-191). As alluded to above, leadership styles are a result of many factors, and since the people to be led are themselves diverse, it is difficult to come out with definitive solutions to leadership questions.

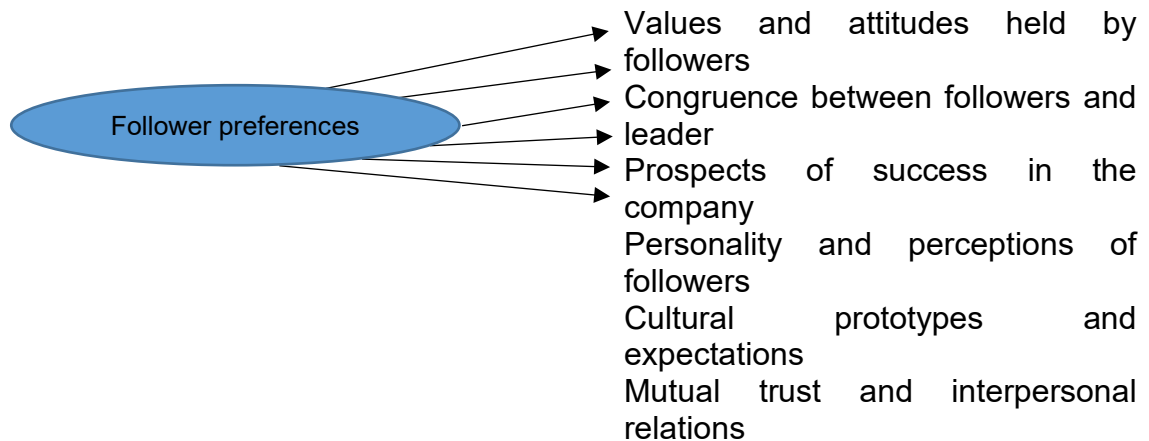
**Leadership style:** leadership is based on two dimensions: task orientation and human relations orientation.

**1. Situational Variables:** this style include three dimensions, which include among others the task structure, and leader-member relations.

### 2. Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model

The Hersey and Blanchard model of situational leadership (Wright, 2017:27-31) does not prescribe any particular preferences, suggesting that the style is determined by the situation. This is based on the understanding that the task and the people managing the tasks (followers) are an important part of the leadership process. Jowah (2013:37-43) identified certain characteristics of followers that may impact on leader behaviour. These are illustrated in figure 5.13 below.

**Figure 5.13: Follower preferences that impact on leadership**



**Source: Jowah (2013:708-719)**

The diverse nature of followership also makes it difficult to come out with a standardised structure as professionals may resent micromanagement. To be able to lead the followers and accomplish organisational goals (Wright, 2017:27-31), the leader may have to use styles specific to individuals. The primary objective would be to accomplish the tasks as required by the organisation; failure to accomplish them may affect the leader more than the followers. The type of followers and the ability of the leader to adjust become a critical point in considering follower performance. Kammerhoff, Lauenstein and Schütz, 2019:210-221) hold that good leaders have the ability to set goals and tasks in accordance with the levels of the followers and their skills as they relate to the tasks in question.

### **5.2.7 Robert House's path-goal theory**

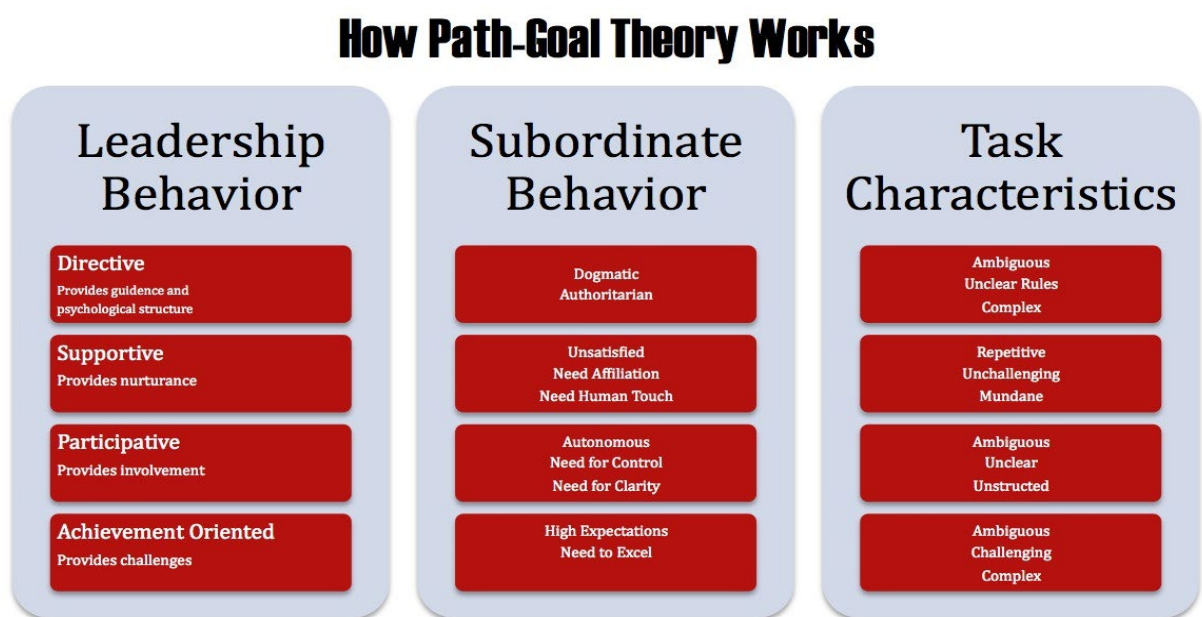
House's Path-Goal theory is based on the importance of focusing on the workers and seeking to motivate them. The theory suggests that good leadership involves the willingness of the leader to show interest in the welfare of the followers and try to assist them to realise their expectations. Cote (2017:28-35) notes that every individual in an organisation has expectations and objectives, and too often these differ widely from each other. But there would always be some that are generic that the leader can focus on to meet the objectives of the workers (Cote, 2017:28-35). Beyond that, the leader may pay attention to specific expectations of the employees which may be achievable; it is not always possible for the leader to satisfy all expectations. The effort put into helping workers to reach their objectives may be recognised and will be seen in the subordinates' response to the leadership. This theory can be summed up in three words, namely expectancy, instrumentality and valance.

- **Expectancy** – if a given goal or task is achievable.
- **Instrumentality** – the presence of a reward when the goal or task is achieved.

- **Valance** – if the reward is perceived to be of good value by the recipients.

Followers have expectations, and the expectations are specific to individuals, suggesting that the leader needs to try to meet these individual expectations. The leader has to give some form of assurance to each individual on the prospects of achieving their expectations (Jawah and Beretu, 2019:264-273). The different characteristics of individual followers, the situation or context in which the leadership takes place and the leadership style play a role in this leadership process. Four leadership styles are identified by this theory, namely directive, achievement-oriented, participative, and supportive styles. The details are provided in figure 5.14 below.

**Figure 5.14: Path-Goal Theory leadership styles**



**Source: Farhan (2018:13-22).**

The effectiveness of a leadership style is determined too often by the ability of the manager to fit into the circumstances in this environment. Each of these styles may be successful and leaders have the ability to change within these styles to the follower expectations. This can be discussed or considered in summary form as shown in figure 5.12 below. A prudent leader oscillates between the different leadership styles expended on the situation and prevailing circumstances. The leader learns the environment, and adjusts the style according to the context within which he / she finds himself / herself in. Depending on the type of followership, one group may respond positively whereas another may respond negatively to the same leadership under similar or comparable conditions. The difference in the response can actually happen in one group since individuals have different perceptions about the same styles, a reason for wisdom in a leader. Jawah (2015:208-225) makes reference to followership

types and suggests leadership-followership congruency as a measure of the leader to be effective. Below is table 5.5 showing Path-goal theory characteristics.

**Table 5.5: Path-goal theory characteristics**

<b>Setting of goals</b>	Goals are clearly stated and the leader's expectations are clear to the subordinate. The reward for performing according to stipulations is also communicated and feedback is provided promptly.
<b>Efficiency of routines</b>	These leaders concentrate on increasing the effectiveness of known routines and procedures using existing rules, policies and regulations of processes known to work.
<b>Operate in established bureaucracies</b>	Ideal for organisations with solid organisational structures and beyond the chaotic, no-rules stage commonly found in start-ups of entrepreneurs.
<b>Standardizes the traditional practices.</b>	The practices that are typical of this style result in the firm reaching maturity, with the use of goal setting as a standard for operation. This creates a culture that may be difficult to change in the future.

Source; Jowah (2015: 208-225).

### 5.2.8 The situational leadership model

This model classifies followers into four groups differentiated according to their levels of maturity with each particular group assigned to a particular leadership style. The two variables used in the classification are, namely task skills and motivation.

- **Task skills:** this is about the ability or knowledge of the employee or follower to perform certain tasks and therefore their ability to work alone or be supported.
- **Motivation:** this focuses on the measurement of the desire or willingness of followers to accomplish the set tasks; also measures psychological maturity.

Four forms or follower readiness levels were identified that can be used to identify a fit-for-purpose leadership style considering the skills and motivations as levels of maturity. Table 5.6 simplifies the structure of the follower maturity and readiness levels.

**Table 5.6: Readiness Levels and Effective Leadership Styles**

<b>Readiness Level (of followers)</b>	<b>Leadership Style</b>
R1 - Readiness Level 1: Low Motivation and Low Task Skills	S1 - Telling
R2 - Readiness Level 2: High Motivation and Low Task Skills	S2 - Selling
R3 - Readiness Level 3: Low Motivation and High Task Skills	S3 - Participating

Readiness Level (of followers)	Leadership Style
R4 - Readiness Level 4: High Motivation and High Task Skills	S4 - Delegating

**Source: Reunanen and Kaitonen (2017:251-262).**

The key above can be used, or at least aid in deciding on the likely effectiveness of a leader in given circumstances. This may be used subjectively, but a good investigation and understanding of the situational variables may minimise error in the selection of a leader for specific tasks. The process of selecting of leaders is subjective to say the least, and too often the people who make the selection have no scientific knowledge on how to determine the future effectiveness of a leader in an organisation.

#### **5.2.8.1 Weaknesses of the contingency theory**

- Changes in the organisational environment means leadership styles must also change.
- It is difficult if not impossible to stay with one leadership style when the environment changes.
- Choosing and predicting the most ideal contingent plan for an organisation is impossible.
- Some of Fiedler's stipulations might not always hold true in all the circumstances an organisation experiences.

#### **5.2.8.2 Strengths of the contingency theory**

- The theory has empirical evidence of success and reliability on how to attain effective leadership.
- The theory has broadened the general understanding of leadership and the ability and significance of leadership learning.
- Its predictive nature enables the selection and appointment of relevant and context-relevant leaders.
- The theory helps leaders to know that they cannot be effective in every situation since effectiveness is contingent on situations.
- It provides useful leadership profiling that may be used in the development of human resources capital for an organisation

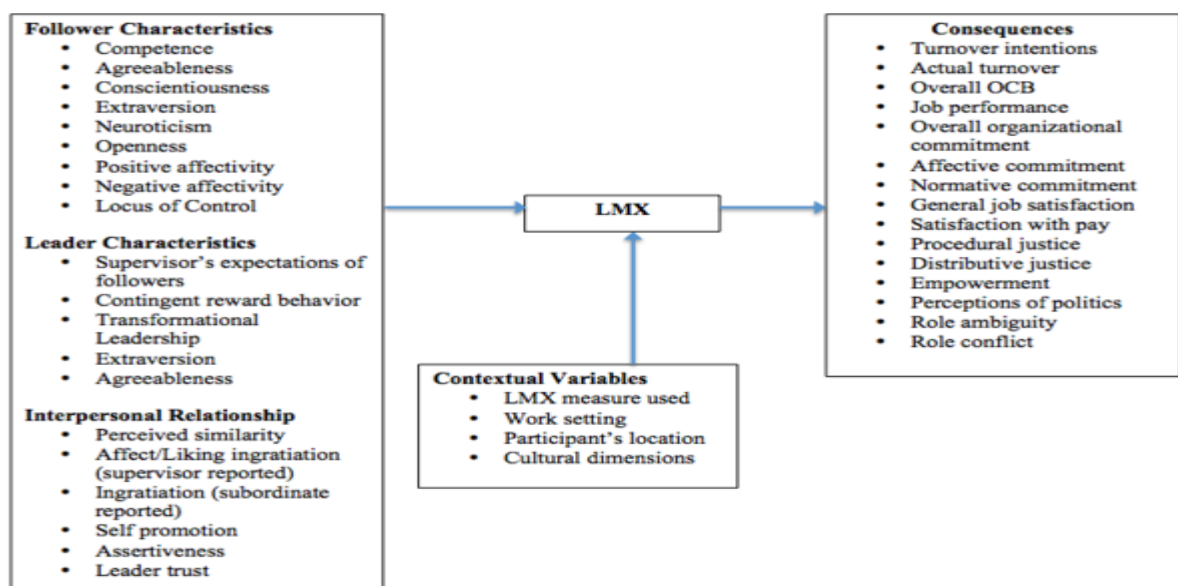
#### **5.2.9 Leader-member exchange theory**

The leader-member exchange (LMX) theory is based on the relationship between the leader and the member (Akdol and Arikboga, 2017:525-535). The assumption made

here is that because leaders lead people, they need to have a relationship with the people they lead. Thus, the theory suggests that good leaders develop a give-and-take (an exchange) with each individual subordinate. This relationship is expected to pay off, with the subordinates becoming responsible, and with access to the leader, the subordinates may be able to get assistance to enable them to perform. Gaudet and Tremblay (2017:663-675) concur and propose that relationships build trust between the two people in the relationship; emotions and respect become the cementing forces that positively affect worker performance. This goes beyond the work environment and may eventually include association outside of the workplace, which further enhances positive employment experiences, resulting in organisational effectiveness.

The LMX theory seeks to explain the effects of the leader-member relationship on production in the organization. Leaders form strong ties with subordinates which result in trust, emotional, and respect-based relationships, and the relationship is generally a one-on-one (Flickinger, Allscher and Fiedler, 2016:46-62). The same relationship may not be experienced with other members of the group or team, or at least not with the same intensity for different subordinates. The theory postulates that leaders never treat subordinates equally, but it is critical to emphasize that work-related attitudes and behaviours of subordinates and followers are influenced by the way they are treated by their leader. The theory is illustrated in the figure 5.15 below.

**Figure 5.15: LMX theory and how it functions**



**Source: Graen, Canedo and Grace (2018:531-535).**

The LMX theory identifies three specific antecedents, namely the leader's characteristics, the characteristics of the follower, and interpersonal relationships. These aspects need to be understood clearly with regard to how they are intertwined and how they impact on follower or subordinate responses (Graen, Canedo and Grace, 2018:531-535). The followers are evaluated on the basis of how their personalities are affected by the LMX theory. The system identifies specific spin-offs of the LMX theory, and the evaluation of the personality traits and how it relates to the effectiveness of the leadership and followership. The evaluations are discussed in table 5.7 below.

**Table 5.7: Spin-offs from LMX theory**

<b>Personality trait</b>	<b>Possible impact</b>
Competence	At this stage, the leadership allows the follower in-group status if the leader believes a person to be especially competent at performing his or her job.
Agreeableness	Means establishing positive interactions with other people; also, agreeable people have traits like trust, courtesy and warmth.
Conscientiousness	Those people have special trait such as being a hard worker, going beyond the work, punctuality, determination and being self-driven.
Extraversion	An individual who provides high quality work and is optimistic, does not have a problem working with others, and is enthusiastic and stable (Hermes,2010:367)
Neuroticism	Emotional stability defined as the limit to which an individual can experience negative emotions.
Openness	Openness is about individual interest and how much the individual can adopt new expectations; the traits of being open-minded, analytical, artistic, complex, independent, creative, courageous and original.
Positive affectivity	This is related to work outcome by improving the LMX relationship with subordinates.
Negative affectivity	Negative affectivity can influence the individual personality by exacerbating neuroticism of the followers and bringing negative influences into the workplace.
Locus of control	Leaders who do not have ability to control their reactions can affect the outcome badly, so they must have the power to control themselves to control the environment.

**Source: Liu (2019:1-19)**

The relationship, like any other relationship, involves bringing together of different personalities with prospects of a good relationship. The relationship should be understood as such, a leader-member exchange, although the leader comes in with more power than the subordinate does. This may allow for some degree of dominance from the leader (Liu, 2019:1-19) in the relationship. The supervisor or leader has expectations, and may reflect the X or Y theory, in which case that also influences the

way the leader relates to the subordinates. The big five personality traits of the leader are also put to the test, together with their experience, levels of emotional intelligence and general leadership understanding and competency. Even though the leader plays a dominant role in the creation of the LMX relationship, the role of the follower cannot be underestimated, considering that the effectiveness of a leader is related to the type of followers and the tasks to be performed (Fan, Mahmood and Uddin, 2019:101-115). Some of the interpersonal relationship variables likely to affect the LMX relationship are liking of leader, integration, self-promotion, assertiveness, and leader trust. The success of the relationship will be determined by the ability of the two to accept each other considering differences or similarities in personalities. It is however important to note that the study suggests that the leader is in a stronger position to initiate the relationship than the subordinate.

### **5.3 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

Stakeholder engagement is critical for effective leadership in an organisation. Bureaucratic leadership is a highly formalized and structured system of governance, and the abilities of the leader are severely hampered. There is not much innovation because of the characteristically rigid rules and processes that are uniform throughout the organisation, and the highly divided labour structure. The pyramid structure is a controlling tool for the maintenance of uniformity and much of the leader's function is merely to implement. Other problems come from the inability of leaders or managers to make decisions on their own, and little innovation is expected of the subordinates. Leaders may try to be what they want to be, but there is little they can change because of the structure. This structure is most appropriate in military structures and government operations where policies are made at the top but implemented at the bottom. Bureaucratic leadership is a leadership style postulated by Max Weber in 1947. It is a system of management whereby employees are made to follow specific rules and lines of authority created by the superiors. The bureaucratic leadership pattern focuses on the administrative needs an organization has. This allows for clear understanding, specifically among the internal stakeholders, the most important of whom are the people who convert strategy to meet objectives. The leader's relationship with the subordinates is one sure way of attending to the stakeholders, and these subordinates determine the success and failure of operations. All the theories studied above, including some that have not been included, are all intended to assist with effectively executing organisational tasks to achieve the intended results.

**CHAPTER SIX**  
**RESEARCH DESIGN, RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND THE DATA**  
**COLLECTION INSTRUMENT AND METHODOLOGY**

**6.1 INTRODUCTION**

Throughout the study numerous definitions of what research is have been used, and they are as many definitions as there are researchers. The scientific world agrees in principle that research is an indispensable activity or undertaking that has enabled humanity to understand unclear phenomenon. There are many questions that have prompted the quest for new knowledge and answers, and increasing research has become the panacea for the identification of solutions to problems. Not all research projects will yield the expected results in one move, but incrementally there has been the eventual understanding which has enabled humanity to mitigate many risky factors. This study focused on the impact of bureaucratic leadership on employee performance in a selected large and departmentalized organization. The preceding chapters provided material from existing literature of the leadership styles and bureaucratic structures and the advantages and disadvantages. This chapter now provides the problem statement, the detailed report on the research objectives, the research questions, the research methodology applied, the population and the sampling of that population, data collection instrument and the methodologies used to collect the data leading to data analysis.

**6.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

As more and more organisations move to management by projects, academic interest has increased tremendously to try and understand this discipline. Though it may be considered in other quarters that management is management, it is known from both practice and research that the demands for the management by projects has outgrown many other interests in management. Because of the structure of the triple constraints and the impact and demand this has in the execution process of projects, it has shown more positive results. Even then, the failure rate of these undertakings remains high even in the presence of all the current technology that should make production more efficient. Contrary to that, the coming and increase in production technology and techniques has done little to solve the problem from organisations. Realizing that the structure of organisations also has much to do with the culture of the organization, the focus was put on bureaucratic structures found in large organisations. The research therefore was focused on the impact (positive or negative) of the bureaucratic leadership style and how it impacts on performance and delivery of the projects.

### **6.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

These are the expectations by the researcher after the undertaking is completed and report, it should satisfy certain aspects hitherto unknown or not clear from the start. The research objectives in this research were classified into two, namely; the primary research objective and secondary research objectives. They are based primarily on what the problem statement says.

#### **6.3.1 Primary research objectives**

- To identify the positive impact of the bureaucratic leadership style in the motivation of project employees to effectively perform.

#### **6.3.2 Secondary research objectives**

Secondary objectives are a more detailed form / elaborated explanation of the main or primary research objective. In a sense, the research objective broken into finer components, namely;

- To identify employee attitude towards a manager who clearly defines exactly what is to be done in detail
- To identify what the employees think about the use of many policies as a means of getting things done correctly and uniformly.
- To identify the thinking of the employees in a work environment where they have many people to go through to get problems solved
- To identify the extent to which the chain of command affects the employees' effectiveness and performance of their tasks
- To identify the impact of the structure pertaining to the subordinates' aspirations to senior positions in the organisation
- To identify the impact of the structure on employees' performance where managers seem to be protected by rules and regulations
- To identify the impact of the bureaucratic structure on the decision making process and impact on performance.

Researchers have discussed extensively the advantages and disadvantages of the bureaucratic structure and leadership style. Whilst much might be said about its positives and negatives, this research seeks to identify, through the subordinates within that system, the impact of this leadership system in terms of delivery of organizational objectives. The objectives therefore suggest as to what questions would be most ideal for the purposes, and this is provided for in the research questions to be answered.

## **6.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

Jowah and Beretu (2019:264-273) posit that the research question is critical in giving directions to a study, as this is the translation of the problem statement in the search for answers. Thus the research questions are themselves aligned to the research objectives which themselves are aligned to the problem statement. The research question(s) has important functions of directing the literature into a format meant to provide all information known, and the conversion of the objectives in answers for the research. This also assists and provide guidance in the development of the research instrument to be used, in this case the questionnaire was used. The research questions have been categorized into two types, namely the main research question and sub-research questions.

### **6.4.1 Main research question**

- What aspects of the bureaucratic leadership style assist in the motivation of subordinates to perform well in a project environment?

### **6.4.2 Sub-questions**

- How do you feel when your manager identifies to the last dot the tasks you are expected to perform during project execution?
- How do you feel about the presence of many rules and policies that govern your operations in the workplace?
- What do you think about the many different management / supervision layers you pass through to get the responses to issues?
- How are you affected by the chain of command in the performance of your daily project tasks?
- What do you think is the impact of the tall structure in a bureaucratic organisation in providing you an opportunity to be promoted?
- What do you think is the impact of the tall structure with the many policies and rules as this relates to the functioning of the manager?
- How does the bureaucratic structure impact on the decision making system and the ability to perform your tasks?
- What advantages of the bureaucratic structure and system that outweigh the negative for you as a subordinate?

These questions sought to provide answers to the problem statement as elaborated by the research objectives from the problem statement. The type of questions provided in a research go beyond giving directions for the literature to be reviewed, but these also assist in deciding on how the research will be conducted. This becomes a critical

element of any investigation – the research design and the research methodologies used to get the required information, relevant to the problem statement.

## **6.5 RESEARCH DESIGN AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

### **6.5.1 Research design**

Research design is essentially the road map or the path to be followed during the investigation – this is about identifying the sequence of events. The researcher has opted to use descriptive research design in view of the nature of the information needed, and the purpose for which the information is to be used. Jowah and Beretu (2019:264-273) defined the descriptive research design as technique of gathering information that is focused on describing the situation and the state of the phenomenon with the ability to use both qualitative and quantitative research methodologies in one research. This allowed for the measurement of central tendency, the correlation between the variables under study and the variations of the situation under examination. It was expected that the descriptive research design will assist with;

- describes events and allows for inferences or causal relationships between the variables
- reports on measures of central tendency using percentages, median, mode, mean, variation and or deviance from mean
- answers to research questions like; who, what, when, where, and how as this relates to the research problem;

There are many other research designs that could have been selected for this study, but the descriptive research was considered most ideal. Some of the benefits considered were the expected ability to help the findings provide understanding of the status quo of the subject of study. This research was conducted under certain conditions as stated by Beretu and Jowah (2018:702-712), namely;

- can be used as a pre-cursor in preparation for more quantitative research on the problem
- assists in pointing out what variables should be, can be ideal or worth for testing quantitatively
- help in identifying limitations to researching on the subject and allow for the development of more focused study.
- can collect data that might assist in the generalisation of the findings and helps in the development of theories.

The descriptive research design has its own weaknesses which were considered in the process of selecting the most ideal research design. It was noted that though it

assists in the identification of the stages and or steps of what should be done and in the formulation of theory, it has limitations in that;

- It is heavily dependent on the use of certain techniques and tools to effectively measure and observe the required information.
- The research design though it can be used for qualitative methodologies data collection the research cannot be repeated with the same results.
- The results from this measurement may not be adequately used to disapprove and or confirm hypotheses to provide answers on “how.”

The choice of this design was with the clear understanding that the research was intended to provide an understanding of the phenomenon of bureaucracy. The design, identifying what was to be done, helped in deciding on what methodology would be most ideal for the effective collection of data.

### **6.5.2 Research methodology**

Defined as how the research itself will be conducted in the best way possible to collect the data in the most relevant and effective way. By implication, there should be a particular method suitable for particular circumstances if the best results are to be found after the research is done. Two different schools of thought have been advanced (Cavanagh and Fisher, 2018:49-66), and these are namely the positivist approach (scientific model) and the anti-positivist approach (non-scientific model) both of which have specific applications. The science model emphasizes objectivity of the research and supposes that there are no reliable results emanating from the non-scientific model. This in a way suggests that the anti-positivist model is inherently subjective and cannot be used for research. Whereas the non-scientific model contends that research involving people should be understood to be socially constructed and not quantifiable (Cavanagh and Fisher, 2018:49-66). These two methods are generally referred to as qualitative and quantitative methodologies, each has its own merits and demerits. The positivists (quantitative proponents identify numerous advantages or merits for the use of this model. The operational and functional differences are illustrated in table 6.1 below.

**Table 6.1: The operational and functional differences of positivism and interpretivism.**

<b>Positivism</b>	<b>Interpretivism</b>
<b>Relationship between society and the individual</b>	
<p style="text-align: center;">Society shapes the individual - <i>'Society consists of 'social facts' which exercise coercive control over individuals'</i></p> <p>People's actions can generally be explained by the social norms they have been exposed to through their socialisation.</p>	<p>Individuals have consciousness and are not just puppets who react to external social forces as Positivists believe.</p> <p>Individuals are intricate and complex and different people experience and understand the same 'objective reality' in different ways</p>
<b>General focus of social research</b>	
<p>The point of research is to uncover the laws that govern human behaviour, just as scientists have discovered the laws that govern the physical world.</p> <p>Prefer quantitative methods which allow for the researcher to remain detached from the respondents.</p>	<p>The point of research is to gain in-depth insight into the lives of respondents, to gain an empathetic understanding of why they act in the way that they do.</p> <p>Prefer qualitative methods which allow for close interaction with respondents.</p>
<b>Preferred research methods</b>	
<p><b>Quantitative</b></p> <p>Require research to be valid, reliable and representativeness</p>	<p><b>Qualitative</b></p> <p>Prepared to sacrifice reliability and representativeness for greater validity</p>

**Source: Irshaidat (2019:1-35).**

The table above differentiates the two schools of thought, and it is from these approaches that the research methodologies come or are derived from these. The research methodologies commonly used are, the qualitative or quantitative methodologies. The table 6.2 below illustrates the fundamental differences between these two methodologies.

**Table 6.2: Comparison of qualitative and quantitative research**

Quantitative [positivist approach]	Qualitative [anti-positivist]
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1.Focus on observable behavior</li> <li>2.Focus on universal relationship laws</li> <li>3.Focus on causes of phenomenon</li> <li>4.Uses the natural science model</li> <li>5.Is aided by firm checks and balances</li> <li>6.emphasis measurement and analysis</li> <li>7. have natural science built structures</li> <li>8. emphasizes causal relationships and the variables</li> <li>9. ideal for objective data with numbers</li> <li>10. uses rigidly structured methods</li> <li>11.tries to understand from outside</li> <li>12. needs a static environment</li> <li>13. uses of particularistic approach</li> <li>14. uses large samples</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1.Focus on laws of relationships</li> <li>2.Focus on human experience</li> <li>3.Focus on experience of phenomena</li> <li>4.Uses the experiential model</li> <li>5.No firm checks and balances</li> <li>6.emphasise investigating processes</li> <li>7.have socially built nature of reality</li> <li>8. focuses on relationship of object to researcher</li> <li>9.uses subjective data from opinions</li> <li>10. uses flexible exploratory methods</li> <li>11.tries to be involved with subjects</li> <li>12 work with non-static realities</li> <li>13. uses holistic [wide data] approach</li> <li>14. samples are small</li> </ol>

**Source: Jowah and Beretu (2019:264-273).**

These differences land themselves in a situation where researchers need to identify what characteristics would enable efficient and effective data collection. It would also be wise for the researcher to establish the difference and impact of these different methodologies in the processes that follow. How the research will be done impacts strongly on both the reliability and validity of the data that will be collected (Zuo, Xu

and Milham, 2019:768-771). To assist in this the researcher looked at the advantages and disadvantages of each of the methodologies considering the type of population as well as type of data required. The merits and demerits are discussed briefly below.

#### **6.5.2.1 Merits of the quantitative system**

1. Can be tested and checked.
2. Straightforward analysis.
3. Prestige because it has statistical data
4. Sign of technical advancement

Though this system or methodology has these advantages or merits, it has its own shortcomings too, shortcomings of which had to be considered in the process of deciding on what methodology was most suitable for the survey. The outstanding demerits for this methodology were identified and classified as illustrated in bullet form below. These are, namely;

#### **6.5.2.2 Demerits of the quantitative system**

1. False focus on numbers.
2. Difficulty setting up a research model.
3. Can be misleading and difficult for generalisation
4. Cannot be repeated with same results
5. Changes with time

The qualitative methodology, commonly used in social studies or studies focusing on human behaviour, is often referred to as subjective and unscientific (Zuo, Xu and Milham, 2019:768-771). Precisely because it does not follow the pattern common in natural sciences, but such interrogation in natural science does not have the same conditions of the societal structures. Zuo, Xu and Milham (2019:768-771) posit that this is applicable in certain structural setups which cannot be controlled and involve the insider view and not the outsider view in natural sciences. The advantages and or merits of this system are highly esteemed by social science, psychology and human relations and behavioural scientist.

#### **6.5.2.3 Merits of the qualitative system**

1. It becomes possible to understand attitudes.
2. It is a content generator.
3. It saves money.

4. It can provide insights that are specific to an industry.
5. It allows creativity to be a driving force.
6. It is a process that is always open-ended.
7. It incorporates the human experience.

Human behavior is highly unpredictable and as such has many nuisance variables that impact on its outlook and unpredictability (Sirithunge, Jayasekara and Chandima, 2019:77308-77327). Yet it is equally important that some knowledge be gathered around this to be able to have some working knowledge of what makes people be what they are. Management sciences and marketing decisions are made largely from the use of these qualitative research methodology (Crick, Crick and Chaudhry, 2020:158-167). Though the methodology has benefited much of the decision making in human sciences, the system itself is inherently weak in other areas. Some of the prominent weaknesses of the qualitative methodology are identified and listed as, namely;

#### **6.5.2.4 Demerits of the qualitative system**

1. It is not a statistically representative form of data collection.
2. It relies upon the experience of the researcher.
4. It may require multiple sessions.
5. It can be difficult to replicate results.

The opponents of this methodology highlight the subjective nature of the methodology and point out the weaknesses as reasons for low reliability and validity (Sagnak and Kazancoglu, 2020:96-103). The argument advanced therefore is trying to balance the impact of the weaknesses and the strengths to see if there is a net gain. Depending of course on who is researching and what exactly do they want to achieve with the research (Alizadeh, 2019:2851-2873), the decision on whether or not to use this will apply.

#### **6.5.2.5 Mixed research methodology**

A detailed analysis of the merits and demerits of both systems was made and many factors were taken into consideration. Numerous factors were identified which assisted in mapping out the most ideal research strategy, and methodologies that would allow for the best result. The many factors contributing to the uniqueness of the subject, namely;

- the type of population to be studied – the followers affected by the system
- what exactly was to be researched and what the expected outcome was to be
- what techniques and tools would be relevant to understand the perceptions
- what method would allow both measurability and the opening up of the minds

- the purpose for the research project was conducted and use of the findings
- the immediacy of the findings and the importance of the research findings

Though these two types of research methodologies are fundamentally different and in a sense diabolically opposed to each other, they are complementary. The interdependence stems from the fact that the differences allow for new information to be used in further research by using both methods (McKendrick, 2020:125-131). The depth and breadth of the phenomenon can therefore be broaden with the use of this mixed research method, and this was why the researcher opted for this method.

#### **6.5.2.6 Disadvantages of mixed research methodology**

It is not without opponents even though increasingly the scientists have found these complementary. Some of the problems highlighted are, namely;

1. So, quantitative methods give a reliable, statistically verified result.
2. The quality of work of the researcher in such methods can be easily verified,
3. The qualitative methods allow you to understand other phenomena.
4. They provide you with the opportunity to use the mind to assess

These two forms of research have fundamental differences dependent largely on who or what you are investigating. Though they are radically different, there has been a gradual shift in the thinking of researchers, from thinking of quantitative research as the best form of research (Leitner, Wittern, Spillner and Hummer, 2019:340-359). Qualitative research increasingly has become more regular and in many instances these two forms of research complement each other. As illustrated in table 6.1 above, the major differences of these research methodologies are in the “how” approaches, in the differences between natural science and social science. This study involves human behaviour which may not be put into a laboratory and put under specific conditions to develop theory. Besides, some of the knowledge required in the research may not be quantifiable, like intelligence, attitude, dislike, belief, opinion, hatred, love, anger, (O’Reilly, Wang and Sabatini, 2019:1344-1351) etc.

#### **6.5.2.7 Advantages of mixed research methods**

The gradual coming together of these methods signal an increased awareness of how they can be used together. Whilst qualitative is an insider’s perspective and quantitative is an outsider’s perspective, use of both enhances the understanding of phenomenon (Shekhar, Prince, Finelli, Demonbrun and Waters, 2019:6-18). Extensive research undertaking has noted that these two methodologies, though widely different and sometimes considered to contradict in each in the principles used, they are actually complementary. The use of both (mixed methods) has become the norm in most of the

research projects undertaken in the management and social sciences (Shekhar et al 2019:6-18). To take advantage of these complementary properties of the two methods, the two were used in the research. The advantages sought were;

- Increase on the depth of the research through quantitative
- Increase on the breadth of the research through qualitative

Considering these positives, regardless of the other weaknesses earlier highlighted, the researcher decided to use the mixed research methodology. It was clearly the only method, compatible with descriptive research that could be able to bring out both depth and breadth to the study. Consideration was also made on the type of population under study and the prevailing circumstances in line with the theory of contingency (Ivankova and Wingo, 2018:978-997). The differences between qualitative and quantitative research is the form of data collection, analysis and presentation are palpable. Quantitative statistical research results are represented in numerical or statistical data format, whereas qualitative research results are a descriptive narration presented in words (Kim, Sefcik and Bradway, 2017:23-42).

#### **6.5.2.8 Target population**

Population; this is defined as the total assembly of persons from which the sample might be taken (Weinhardt and Stamm, 2019:186-221). In this study the population targeted was all the subordinates (anyone who reported to someone involved in decision making) in this bureaucratic structure. The target population in the study was the objects or the people in the employment of these bureaucratic structures who were involved in projects. All the supervisors and below were the focus of this study. These were those with specific characteristics consisting of the total collection of the prospective respondents from which the study was conducted. These were the sets of all measurements which were of interest to the researcher, people of which fitted the researcher's definition of the objects to be studied.

#### **6.5.2.9 Use of survey methods**

Surveys are the most commonly used methods in social and management sciences that deal with human beings. These have been established as methods that are able to provide knowledge on characteristics that are impossible to observe, like; perceptions, beliefs, anger and or attitudes (Daina, Sivakumar and Polak, 2017:447-460). A survey method was used in the research by the use of a questionnaire administered on randomly selected practitioners (sample) in the organisation. Samples are used in research based on the theory that a sample that adequately represents all the characteristics of the population under study can allow for a generalisation about

the population (Daina, Sivakumar and Polak, 2017:447-460). The researcher took a few points into consideration, namely;

- it would allow direct contact with the employees who are most affected by the structural issues of bureaucracy.
- the respondents would be able to tell first-hand the way they are impacted on by these bureaucratic structures
- give an opportunity to the respondents to provide extra information that may not have been included in the questionnaire
- allow for a considerable rate of return of the research questionnaires that were given or presented to the respondents.
- allow the respondents to ask questions or clarification about issues around the subject on bureaucratic structures and purposes

#### **6.5.2.10 Sampling frames, sampling and sample size**

The sample frame; was identified here as all the people who constituted correctly the listing of those people with the characteristics under study. Reichel and Morales (2017:1) define the sample frame as a list of all the matters in your population. In this study therefore all individuals who fitted into the category of the engineering field, including construction, architecture, building, civil engineering and electrical engineering. These specifically have well developed project structures were part of the sample frame.

**Sample;** is defined as a part or a portion or segment of the whole population that meets the requirements of the population characteristics. This was a part of the population that was selected for the study, and this part represented the population understudy.

#### **6.5.2.11 Sample size**

Sample size; this was defined as the number of precise samples measured or the observations that were used in an investigation or experimentation (Trafimow, Wang and Wang, 2019:129-150). The total population was given as 600 individuals fitting into this category, and from this approximately one third (33%) were selected for the survey. A total of 200 individuals participated in the research project, and this number was considered high enough to allow for generalization. Redmiles, Kross and Mazurek, 2019:1326-1343) postulated that 10% of a well selected target population with all the characteristics represented is good enough to allow for generalization. Sample size determination is one of critical aspects of any research process because the numbers that are selected to represent the entire population understudy would matter. The size of the sample may decide between objective and or subjective

research, and that the larger the sample the higher the probability of getting a more accurate answer. Winter and Depaoli (2020:371-382) provided an 8 point guide on the process to be followed to decide on the sample size. The factors that were used to determine the sample size are illustrated in table 6.2 below.

**Table 6.2: 8 stages to determine sample size**

1. type of research,	2. research hypotheses,
3. financial constraints,	4. importance of the results,
5. number of variables to be studied,	6. methods of data collection,
7. the levels of accuracy required	8. the size of the population.

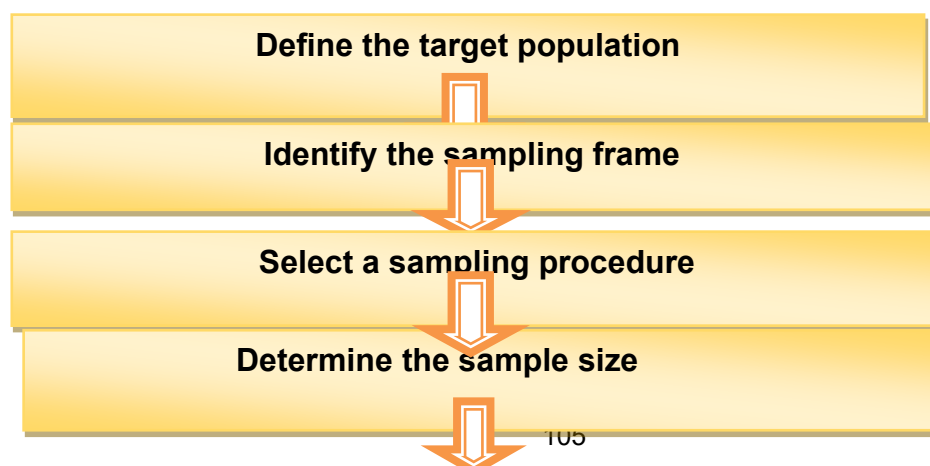
**Source: adopted from Winter and Depaoli (2020:371-382)**

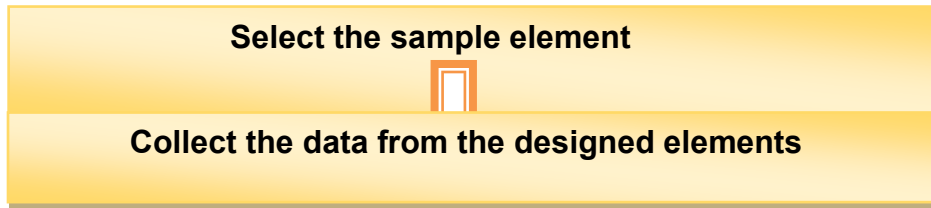
The size was considered to be critical in that it would affect the validity and reliability of the findings and the decisions to be made. Therefore the factors above were considered to be effective guiding principles in the determining of the size of the sample to be used for the study. The understanding of the researcher was that a good size sample, correctly selected and appropriately representative of the population characteristics would give the same results with a census.

#### **6.5.2.12 Sampling method**

A correctly and appropriately representative sample will adequately provide the expected validity and reliability of the findings. Research is generally conducted to provide information for decision making, the researcher used Iacobucci and Churchill's (2009:283) guide on which postulates six steps that will provide a scientific approach to decide on sampling methods. This is illustrated in figure 6.1 below.

**Figure 6.1: The six-step procedure for drawing a sample**





**Source; Iacobucci and Churchill's (2009:283)**

**Step 1;** definition of the population – there was need for clarity on who exactly was the population to be studied considering the nature of the problem statement.

**Step 2;** defined and identified the sample frame to enable the result to focus on the relevant population to be studied by identifying all the factors, elements and or characteristics of that population.

**Step 3;** defined and selected a sampling procedure deemed ideal for effectively executing the research problems with low if not zero margins of error.

**Step 4;** defined and selected sample size using Winter and Depaoli (2020:371-382) 5 types of size determination approaches, namely; the arbitrary approach, conventional approach, the cost basis approach, statistical analysis approach, and confidence approach

**Step 5;** defined and selected the sample elements – these were the sample properties which in this case was establishing the positions / levels of the respondents. In this research these were people involved in projects, reported to someone in a bureaucratic organisation.

**Step 6;** data was to be collected (and was collected) from the designated elements – by use of a structured questionnaire with sections of open ended questions to be answered by the respondents.

The sampling method adopted from this process was; systematic random sampling was used to select participants, every third individual who qualified as part of the target population was selected. This applied only to those who were at work that day, were interested in taking part and had time to go through the questionnaire with the research assistants. The sampling method that was adopted was purely to provide equal chances of being selected for the individual project practitioners who would eventually participate.

#### **6.5.2.13 Data collection instrument – the questionnaire**

The decision to use a descriptive research design and mixed research methodologies immediately informed on the type of data collection to be used. It was deemed that the primary research had to be with the use of data collection instrument, and thus the

need for a questionnaire. The weaknesses and strengths of using the questionnaire were considered and it was decided that the strengths outweighed the weaknesses, thus the decision to use the questionnaire.

#### **6.5.2.14 Disadvantages of using a questionnaire**

Few weaknesses or negatives of using the questionnaire route were identified, these were, namely;

- ✓ Deceitful answers.
- ✓ Unreciprocated questions.
- ✓ Variances in understanding and clarification.
- ✓ Difficult to express feelings and sentiments.
- ✓ Certain questions were challenging to analyze.

#### **6.5.2.15 Advantages of using a questionnaire;**

On the other hand the strengths of using the questionnaire were identified and noted as, namely;

- ✓ They are economical.
- ✓ Questionnaires are pragmatic.
- ✓ They provide a rapid way to obtain results.
- ✓ Stress-free analysis and conception.
- ✓ Questionnaires provide actionable data.
- ✓ Respondent remains secrecy.

After careful consideration, the researcher decided to resort to the use of questionnaires as this was thought to have more benefits. A questionnaire was thus constructed to assist with the collection of data to be analysed later in the form of illustrations for easy understanding of the relationship between the variables.

A structured questionnaire was constructed, sent in for field trials and then reconstructed to the final format, this involved assistance from a statistician. The final document had or was divided into three sections, namely; Section A – Biography, Section B- Likert scale and Section C – open ended questions.

**Section A – Biography;** this section allows the researcher to identify the type of people who responded to the questions. Those who did not qualify, but responded or participated in the research, their questionnaires were removed from the final count during the editing and cleaning process.

**Section B- Likert scale;** the Likert scale seeks to measure the perceptions and or feelings of the respondents in respect of specific statements. Essentially the respondents will be ranking the statements on a scale of 1- 5 (1= strongly disagree, 2

= disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree and 5 = strongly agree). It is not possible to measure (quantify) attitudes, perceptions and beliefs, hence the use of the Likert scale.

**Section C – Open ended questions;** in this section, topics relating to aspects of the research (as taken from the literature review) was discussed. The respondents were able to discuss, state and explain openly any information they are able to recall or are willing to discuss.

This questionnaire was therefore used to collect the data required for the research, take note that the questionnaire was derived from the research questions. Research questions of which were developed from the research objectives that had been constructed from the problem statement. Guided by the literature reviewed, the questionnaire requested for information on the basis of the known theories and the perceptions and feelings of the respondents. This document was used for the training of the research assistants who would later help with the collection of the required data.

#### **6.5.2.16 Data collection method**

The randomly selected respondents were given questionnaire to fill in, the trained research assistants help with all the other housekeeping issue. Clarity was provided to the respondents where they needed it, those not willing to participate were informed of their rights including all the ethical considerations. The decision to use or administer the research instrument directly using research assistants was deliberately opted for to allow for convenience to the respondents. That also helped cut down drastically on the time that was taken to bring back the filled in questionnaires as well as a high rate of return of the questionnaires. All the respondents who needed assistance in and of any form (around the research) were attended to and no questionnaires were left behind.

#### **6.5.2.17 Data analysis**

The questionnaires were brought into one centre, and an operational strategy was put in place for the efficient processes of the data. The initial stage involved the cleaning and editing of data for errors and any other forms that would constitute a spoiled questionnaire. Then the 100 questionnaires were coded and the information was captured onto an Excel Spreadsheet (ES) for construction into different illustrations. The illustrations constructed from this were graphs, histograms, bar-pie charts, frequency polygons and many other illustrations. The use of the ES was primarily because of availability (at no cost) and its effectiveness in providing the needed diagrams. It was important to convert the data into these illustrations for easy comparison of the variables that were under investigation. These illustrations helped

with the reporting on the findings of the research and allowed for inferences to be drawn from the study.

## **6.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION**

Okpo (2020:16-31) suggests that including ethics (ethical considerations) may serve as a deterrent against possible disregard for the respondents' morality and values. It is always critical that ethical issues be considered. The research abided by all known standards of ethical conduct, and specifically three ethical issues were considered.

- **Respect for respondents** – participation was voluntary and the respondents were free to withdraw at any time or stage during the research. They were also free to skip questions that they were not comfortable with, without having to explain to the researcher or their representative.
- **Beneficence** – the respondents were not forced or persuaded to say what they did not want to say in response to the questions. Their identification was not allowed on the questionnaire, nor any marks that would identify them or their unit – they were protected.
- **Justice** – the sampling method used assured of anonymity and it would not be easy for authorities to identify who participated. Everyone in the population had the same chance of being selected or left out, making it fair and removing possible bias.

## **6.7 LIMITATIONS TO THE STUDY**

The study was restricted to large provincial government departments in the Western Cape specifically in the Cape Metropolis. This was due to many considerations, the cost of covering larger and or national departments would have been unbearable. Besides, the time span within which the academic report also limited the time available for an extensive and detailed research into this. Government operational systems are considered to be generally similar because they all are controlled from the top and a managed as to top to down approach.

## **6.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

The study on leadership and its relevance to effectively executing tasks to reach the organisational objectives has been going on for a long time. Each study seems to add on, subtract from, contradict and or agree with previous findings, making this a marry-go-round and never ending process. The main reason for these anomalies are largely because of the differences in tasks to be performed, but chief among them would be because the effectiveness of leadership is directly a function of the type of the

followership involved (Jawah, 2013:708-719). Thus, the tasks to be performed, the people to be led, the prevailing culture of both the individuals and the organisation will differ from environment to environment. This study helped to determine the impact of bureaucratic structures on project execution processes in the Cape Metropolis. The knowledge gained will assist tremendously in the training of project leaders in bureaucratic structures as well as informed on some unnecessary bureaucracies that do not add value to organizational objectives.

## **6.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

Leadership is one of the extensively studied fields by academics, research after research continues to try to understand this difficult-to-know subject. The reasons why there have no clear cut answer, or one-size-fits-all is because of the unpredictable nature of human beings. The one thing all researchers and practitioners alike agree on is that leadership is about dealing with people. The heterogeneous structure of human beings complicates the process of leading, making it difficult to have a cut-in-the-stone leadership formula. The different styles of leadership practiced by different people are determined largely by the circumstances the people (leaders) find themselves in, the culture they come from, their previous experiences and the diverse nature of the people to be led. The bureaucratic structure (leading to the bureaucratic leadership style) is a unique one on its own. There is a need for further research on how these large organisations should be able to effectively execute tasks in line with the known field of project management and the benefits this leadership brings to productivity.

## **CHAPTER SEVEN DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS**

### **7.1 INTRODUCTION**

The previous chapter explained the research design as well as the methodology that was followed to gather data relevant to respond to the research questions and achieve the objectives of the study. The present chapter is a presentation of the results of the study and the analysis of the results. The analysis and presentation in this chapter consist of several sections in line with the study questions that were set in the first chapter. In addition, the data collection instrument that was used for data collection was a questionnaire that was made up of both closed and open questions. As such,

the closed questions were analysed quantitatively while the open questions were analysed qualitatively. The analysis was mainly based on the presentation of frequencies and observing the modal score as well as observing the skewness of the distribution of responses. The analysis provided directions on the general position of respondents on various issues related to hierarchical structures and bureaucratic organisational arrangements.

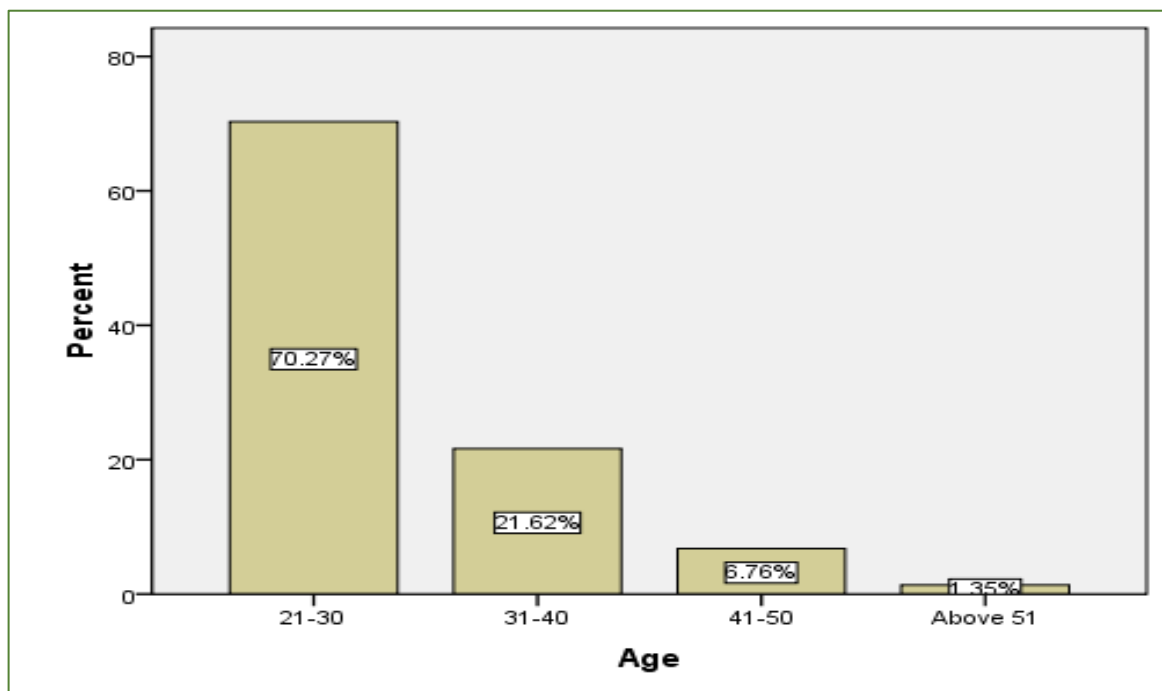
### **Biographical details of respondents**

Demographical information collected is discussed in this section. Researchers contend that demographical details of respondents allow better understanding and appreciation of the context in which the study was conducted. The following paragraphs discuss the demographical information of the respondents.

#### **Age of respondents**

The age distribution of the respondents reflected a youthful workforce. This is shown in Figure 7.1.

**Figure 7.1: The age distribution of the respondents**



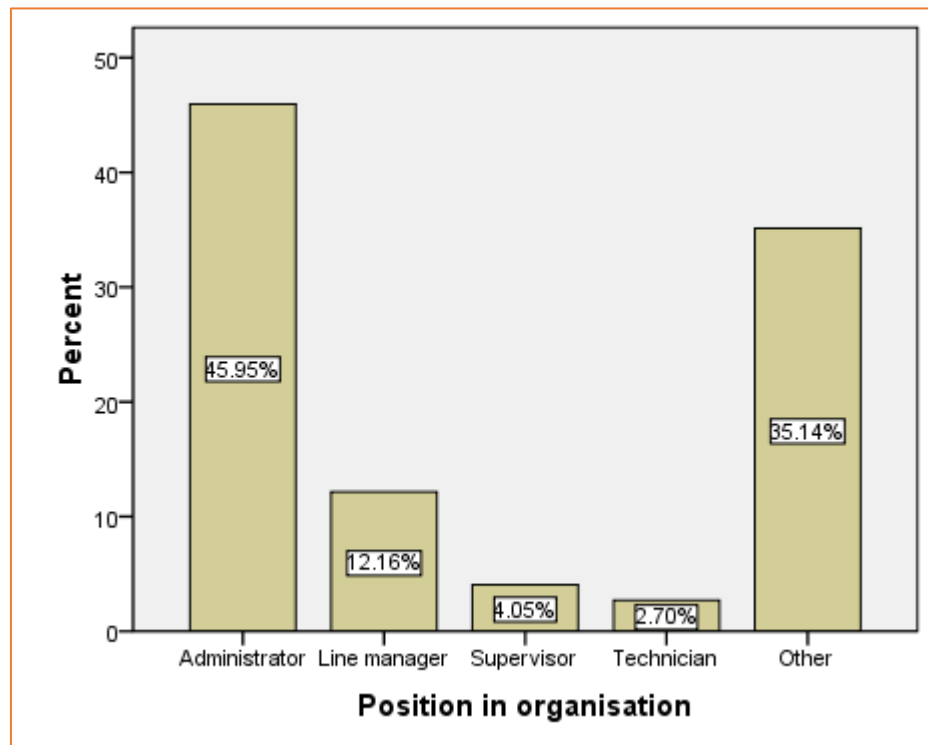
As shown in Figure 7.1, the 21-30 group was the modal age group (70%). The age distribution was also negatively skewed, suggesting that all measure of central tendencies reflected that the respondents were youthful. Only four percent of the respondents were above fifty-one years. In management literature, bureaucracies and hierarchical organisations are often seen as traditional styles, attributed to such initial management scholars as Fayol and Weber. It is also still dominant in many

government entities and military settings. As such, older employees may be argued to be more receptive of such structures.

### **Position in organisation**

The study also considered the position of the participants in their respective organisations. Generally, the study was formulated to focus on employees at the lower levels of the management hierarchy. The information on the position of the participants in their organisations is shown in Figure 7.2

**Figure 7.2: Respondents' positions in their organisations**

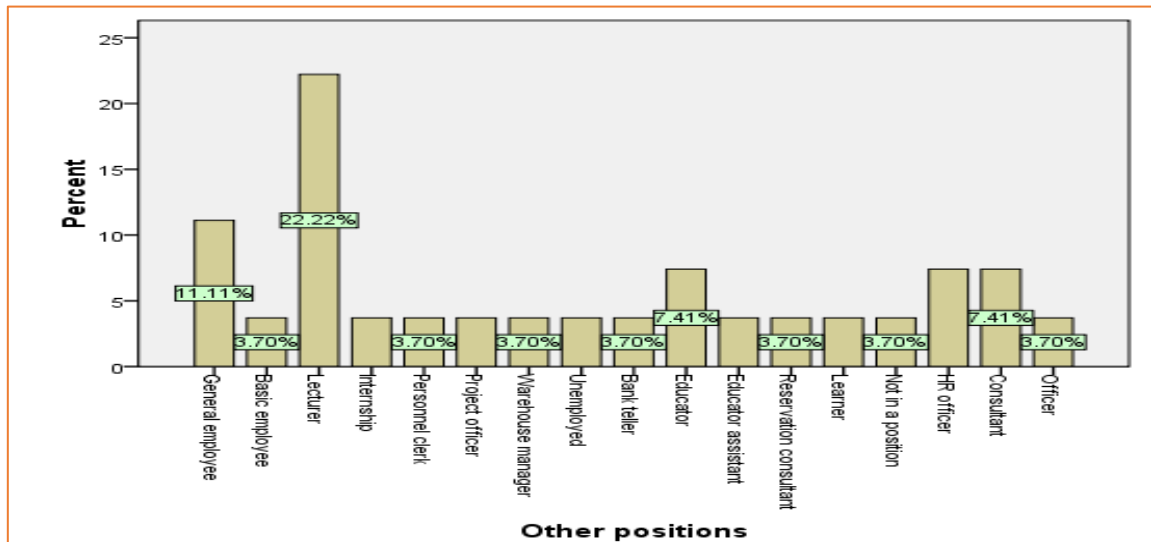


As indicated in Figure 7.2, the majority (46%) of the respondents were administrators in their organisations, 12% were line managers, 4% were supervisors, 3% were technicians while 35% held other positions, as shown in Figure 7.3

### **Other positions**

Respondents who indicated that they held positions other than those shown in Figure 7.2 were required to indicate their positions and the various responses that they provided are shown in Figure 7.3

**Figure 7.3: Other positions held by the respondents**



**Total years in employment**

The study also considered the number of years that the respondents have been employed either in their current organisations or in any other organisation. The responses are presented in Figure 7.4. The information in Figure 7.4 shows that 74% of the respondents had been in employment for five or fewer years while the rest had been in employment for more than five years.

**Figure 7.4: Total years in employment**

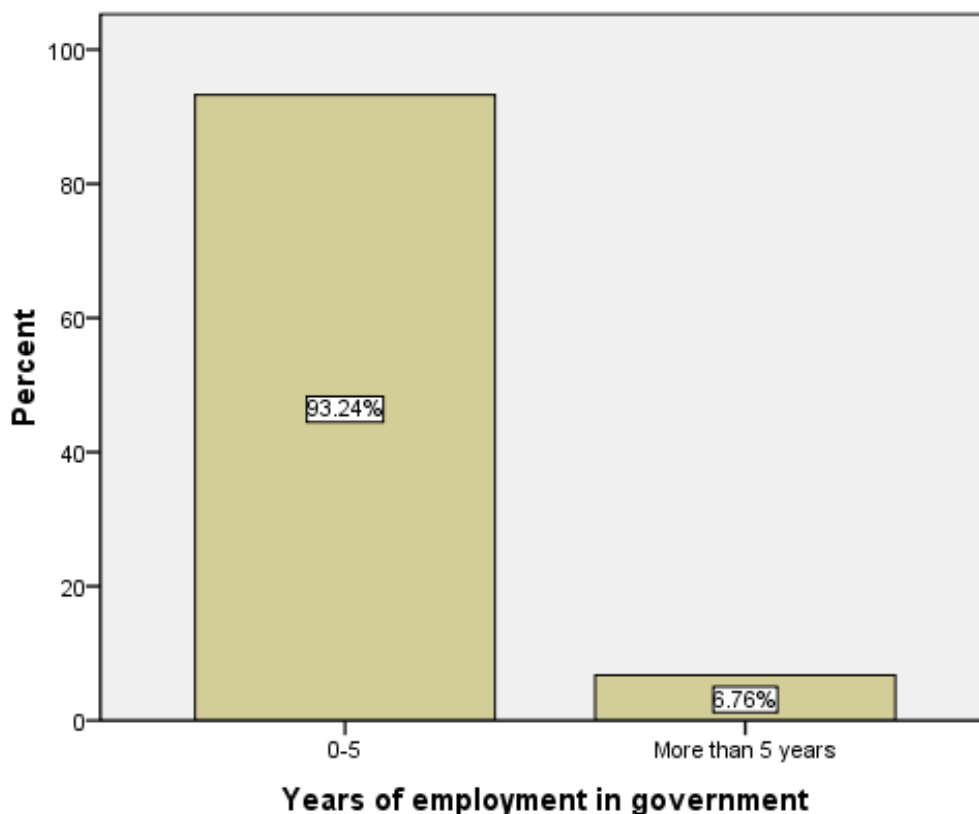


**Years of employment in government**

In particular, Figure 7.5 shows that 93% of the respondents have been employed in government departments five years or less while the rest have been employed for more

than five years. This shows that the respondents had been exposed to bureaucracies and hierarchical organisations of some sort, which increases the reliability of the results presented in this report.

**Figure 7.5: Years of employment in government**



### **Reporting**

The respondents were required to indicate to whom they reported in their organisations. Their responses are shown in Table 7.1. The majority of them (49%) reported to their supervisors, 16% reported to the director of their organisations while 11% reported to a deputy director and 23% reported to other superiors.

**Table 7.1: Who respondents reported to in the hierarchy of their organisations**

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**Report to**

		Frequen cy	Percen t	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Supervisor	37	49.3	50.0	50.0
	Director	12	16.0	16.2	66.2
	Deputy director	8	10.7	10.8	77.0
	Other	17	22.7	23.0	100.0
	Total	74	98.7	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.3		
Total		75	100.0		

Despite the reporting indications shown in Table 7.1, there were other reporting lines which were indicated, and further information is shown in Table 7.2.

**Table 7.2: Other reporting authorities**

		Reporting to other			
		Frequen cy	Percen t	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Officer	1	1.3	5.9	5.9
	Line manager	3	4.0	17.6	23.5
	Faculty manager	1	1.3	5.9	29.4
	Academic manager	3	4.0	17.6	47.1
	Head of department	1	1.3	5.9	52.9
	Operations manager	2	2.7	11.8	64.7
	I do not work for the government	1	1.3	5.9	70.6
	Manager	2	2.7	11.8	82.4
	Unemployed	1	1.3	5.9	88.2
	Team leader	1	1.3	5.9	94.1
	School principal	1	1.3	5.9	100.0
	Total		17	22.7	100.0
Missin g	System	58	77.3		
Total		75	100.0		

### Decision making styles in the organisations

The respondents were required to indicate the decision-making styles that were prevalent in their organisations. The responses are shown in Table 7.3. The modal decision-making style seemed to involve some discussion (43%). This shows that there could be some form of discussion that is associated with bureaucracies and hierarchical organisations. A notable number of respondents (28%) indicated that following policy was also a dominant decision-making style in the organisations.

**Table 7.3: Decision making styles in the respondents' organisations**

Decision making		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	We discuss	32	42.7	43.2	43.2
	We refer to senior management for policy	11	14.7	14.9	58.1
	We follow policy	21	28.0	28.4	86.5
	Other	3	4.0	4.1	90.5
	We discuss and refer to senior management	1	1.3	1.4	91.9
	We discuss, follow policy, refer to senior management	6	8.0	8.1	100.0
	Total	74	98.7	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.3		
Total		75	100.0		

### Respondents' perspective of the working system of their organisations

Respondents were required to comment on the working system of their organisations. This was a qualitative question and the comments provided by the respondents are

provided in Table 7.3. The majority (21%) of the respondents indicated that they did not have any comment on the organisations' working system. In other words, respondents appeared reluctant to provide information on the working system of their organisations. While the reasons for this were beyond the scope of this study, this suggests some deep-rooted issues associated with the working system that require a more detailed ethnographically rooted style of research so as to get more knowledge on contextual factors associated with the working systems of the organisations.

**Table 7.4: The organisation's working system**

<b>Anything to say about organisation's working system</b>		<b>Frequen</b>	<b>Percen</b>	<b>Valid</b>	<b>Cumulative</b>
		<b>cy</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>Percent</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Valid	It's great. we have a working system	1	1.3	2.3	2.3
	No	16	21.3	36.4	38.6
	Nothing	2	2.7	4.5	43.2
	The system is very unclear	1	1.3	2.3	45.5
	Racist	1	1.3	2.3	47.7
	System is very poor	1	1.3	2.3	50.0
	Principle management	1	1.3	2.3	52.3
	Most decisions are made by top management	2	2.7	4.5	56.8
	Adopt a people-oriented approach	1	1.3	2.3	59.1

Any decision requires a process to follow	1	1.3	2.3	61.4
The system does not work	1	1.3	2.3	63.6
System is organised hierarchically	1	1.3	2.3	65.9
Practical	1	1.3	2.3	68.2
Works effectively though need to be adjusted	1	1.3	2.3	70.5
Involve others in decision making	2	2.7	4.5	75.0
Disregard subordinates	1	1.3	2.3	77.3
Little consultation	1	1.3	2.3	79.5
It's not well structured and no order	1	1.3	2.3	81.8
Not from me	1	1.3	2.3	84.1
None	1	1.3	2.3	86.4
New decision come each day	1	1.3	2.3	88.6
Traditional leadership does not work	1	1.3	2.3	90.9
Work according to the book	1	1.3	2.3	93.2
Everyone is consulted	1	1.3	2.3	95.5
Yes	1	1.3	2.3	97.7
System is poor with no training	1	1.3	2.3	100.0

	and staff			
	development			
	Total	44	58.7	100.0
Mis	System	31	41.3	
sing				
Total		75	100.0	

### **Quantitative analysis**

The questionnaire that was issued to respondents contained sections involving five-point Likert scales. Respondents were required to indicate their level of agreement with certain statements using the Likert scale. The statements were all linked to the research questions which were formulated in Chapter One. The Likert responses are analysed in the sections below. The analysis mainly involves the discussion of key measures of central tendency as well as frequencies.

### **Impact of the bureaucratic leadership style on employee performance**

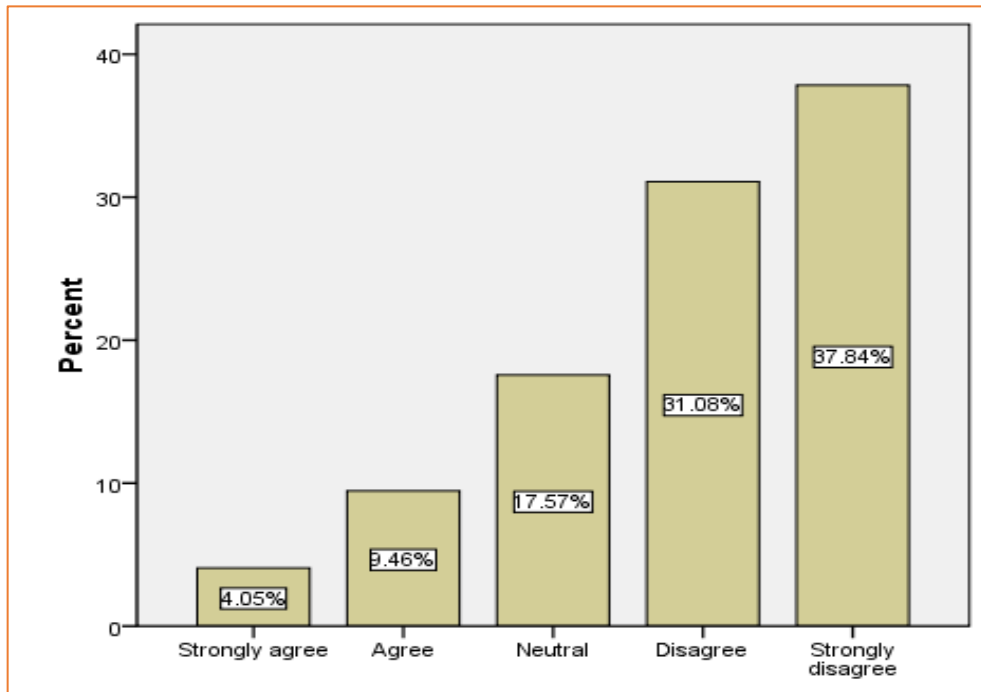
As emphasised in Chapter One, the study was crafted to explore the impact of the bureaucratic leadership style on employee performance. The final goal was to establish if employee performance is affected by bureaucratic leadership in organisations.

### **Delayed management responses**

It should be noted that bureaucratic leadership styles often involve various management levels which are hierarchically referred to in making decisions in the organisation. As a result, there is a general observation that there is delayed decision making in bureaucratic leadership environments.

Respondents were required to respond to the level at which they had a problem with managers who delay responses. Figure 7.6 shows respondents' perceptions in this regard.

### **Figure 7.6: Responses to the statement - I have no problem with managers who delay responses**

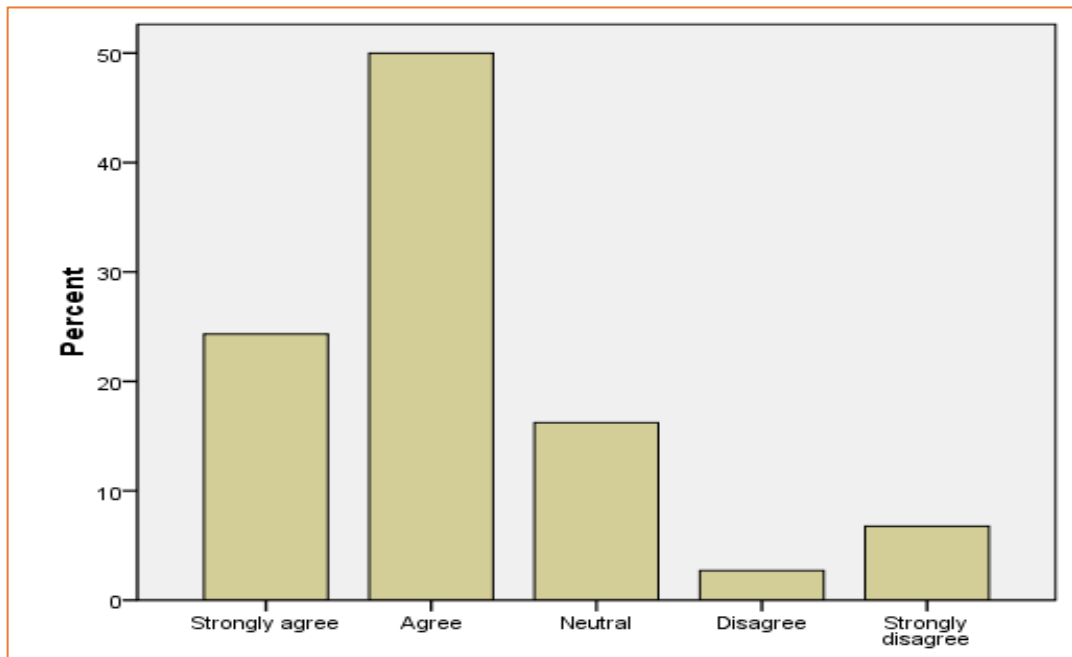


As shown in Figure 7.6, the modal response was a strong disagreement (38%) that there is no problem with managers who delay responses. There was also a linear trend line showing that the percentage of respondents increased as disagreement becomes stronger. The lowest percentage (4%) of respondents agreed that they have no problem with managers who delay responses. It can be commented that bureaucratic leadership styles tend to be associated with delays in managerial responses to subordinate issues. This was a big problem among the subordinates and is likely to affect performance.

### **Hierarchical order**

Responses were required to indicate their level of agreement that every level of the hierarchy must be conducted in order. As shown in Figure 7.7, 50% of the respondents agreed while twenty four percent (24%) strongly agreed. The lowest percentage (3%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement. Therefore subordinates appear to suggest that they can perform better if the hierarchy is in order.

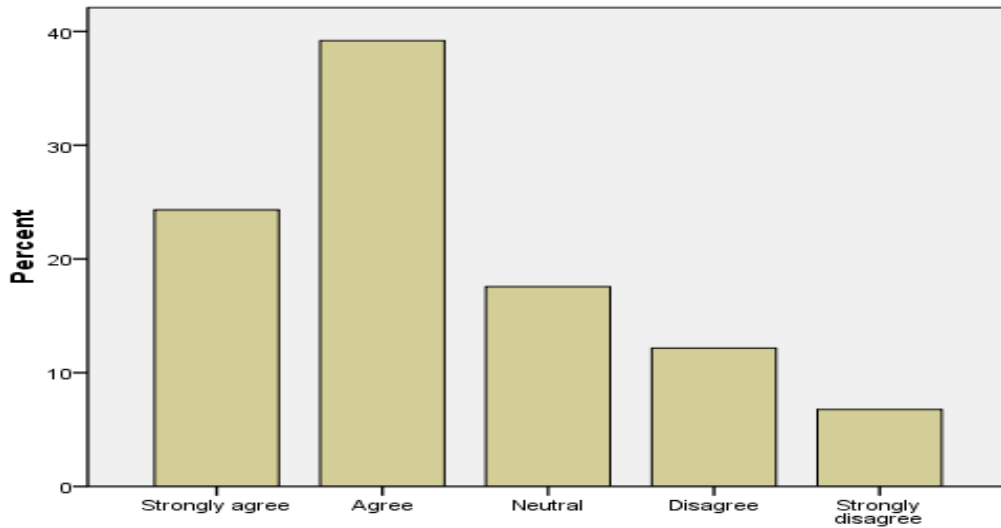
**Figure 7.7: Responses to the statement – Every level of the hierarchy must be conducted in order**



### **Skipping management hierarchies**

Respondents were required to indicate their level of agreement that management hierarchies should be respected, and subordinates should not skip management levels by referring issues to a higher manager while skipping other management levels. Figure 7.8 shows the distribution of responses to the assertion that employees must never skip management levels to a higher manager. It should be noted that strict bureaucratic systems do not allow or support the skipping of management levels within a hierarchy. Therefore, the forty-eight percent (48%) respondents who stressed that employees should never skip management hierarchies were in support of the bureaucratic leadership style. Twenty-five percent (25%) strongly agreed that the skipping of management hierarchies should not be practised. Only six percent (6%) strongly disagreed with the assertion.

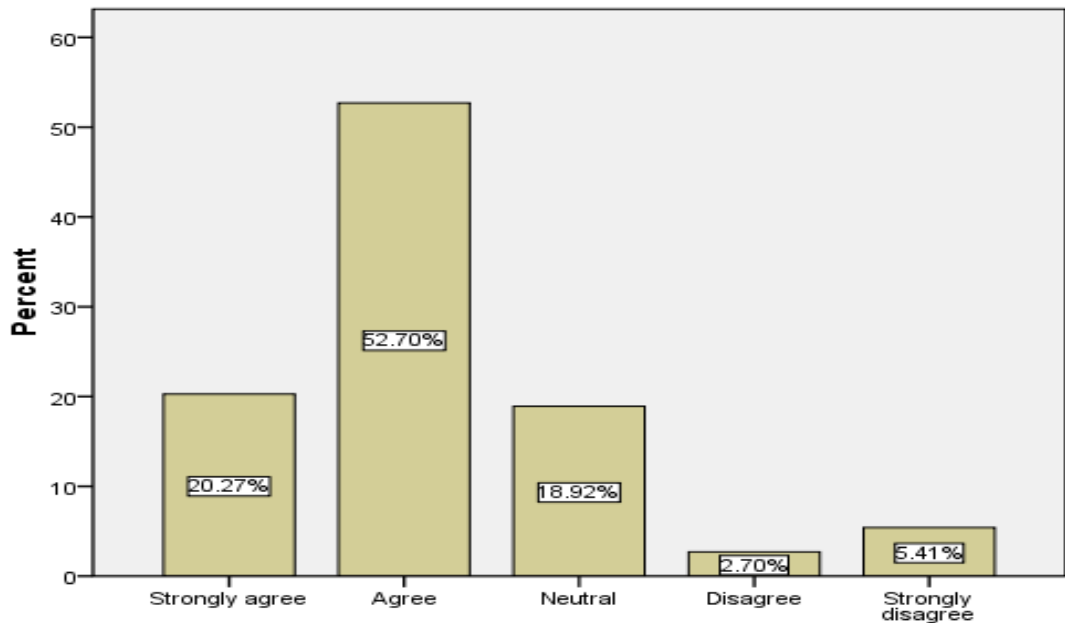
**Figure 7.8: Responses to the statement – employees must never skip a manager to a higher manager.**



### The need for management hierarchy in effective management

Respondents were required to comment on the degree to which they agreed that management and leadership hierarchies are essential for effective running of organisations. The majority (53%) of the respondents agreed that leadership hierarchies are essential in running organisations, twenty percent (20%) strongly agreed. Lower percentages of respondents disagreed (3%) and strongly disagreed (5%). These results are shown in Figure 7.9.

**Figure 7.9: Responses to statement – the hierarchy is essential in running the organisation**



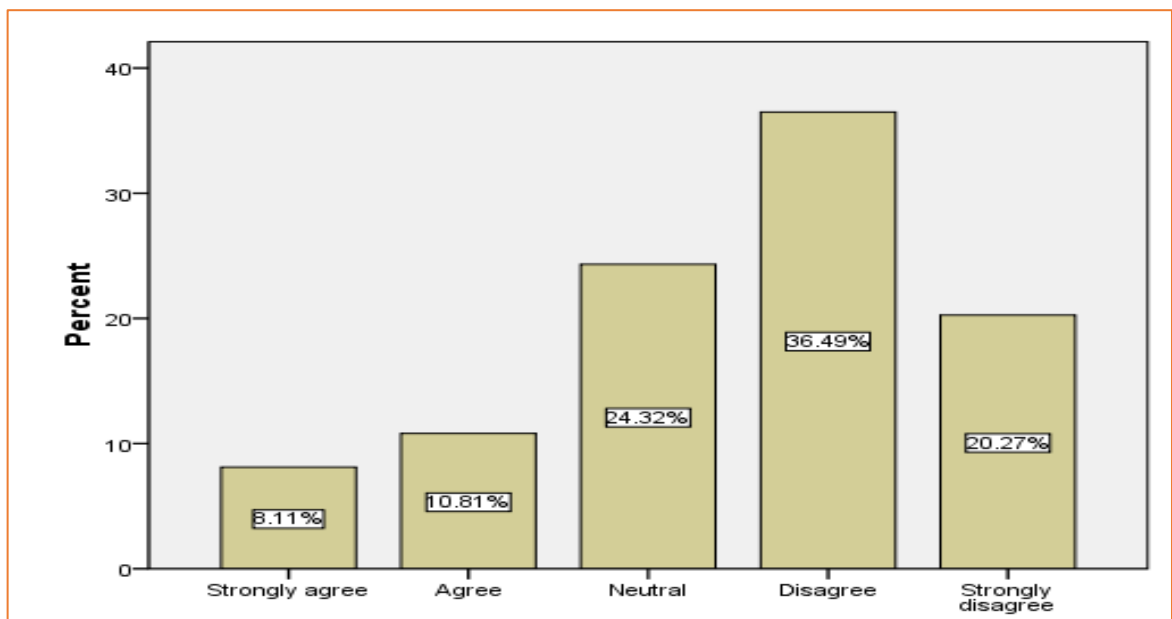
## Attitudes towards managers who clearly define exactly what is to be done in detail

In bureaucratic leadership situations, managers tend to ensure that the performance goals and targets of subordinates are clearly defined and demarcated. In this section, statements that relate to the level of agreement that goal specification is important in management are discussed.

### Managerial knowledge of employees' needs

It was noted in this study that managers in bureaucratic leadership situations need to know the needs of organisational employees in order to be able to clearly define exactly what the subordinates should do. Figure 7.10 shows the responses provided to the statement that managers know every employee's needs better. As shown in Figure 10, the responses of the participants were skewed towards disagreement. Thirty-six percent (36%) disagreed while twenty percent (20%) strongly disagreed, and twenty-four percent (24%) were neutral. There were very low levels of agreement with this assertion with only eight percent (8%) strongly agreeing to the statement.

**Figure 7.10: Responses to the statement – managers know every employee's needs better**



### The managers is never late but is delayed

Critical leadership researchers have pointed out the dark side of leadership. In such cases, subordinates may religiously follow the leader despite the leader demonstrating certain negative, destructive or toxic tendencies. In bureaucratic organisations, the leader is likely to assume the superman status which is associated with being considered right all the time. Respondents in this study were required to provide their view on the assertion that the manager is never late but is delayed by someone. The responses are shown in Figure 7.11.

**Figure 7.11: Responses to the statement – managers are never late but they are delayed by someone.**

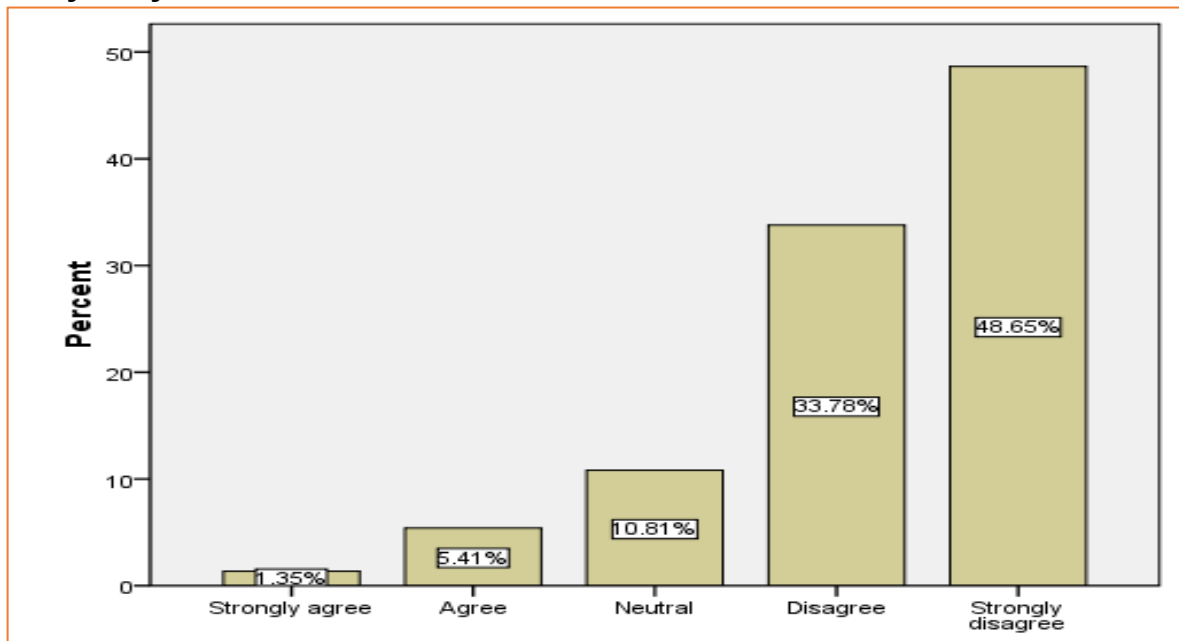


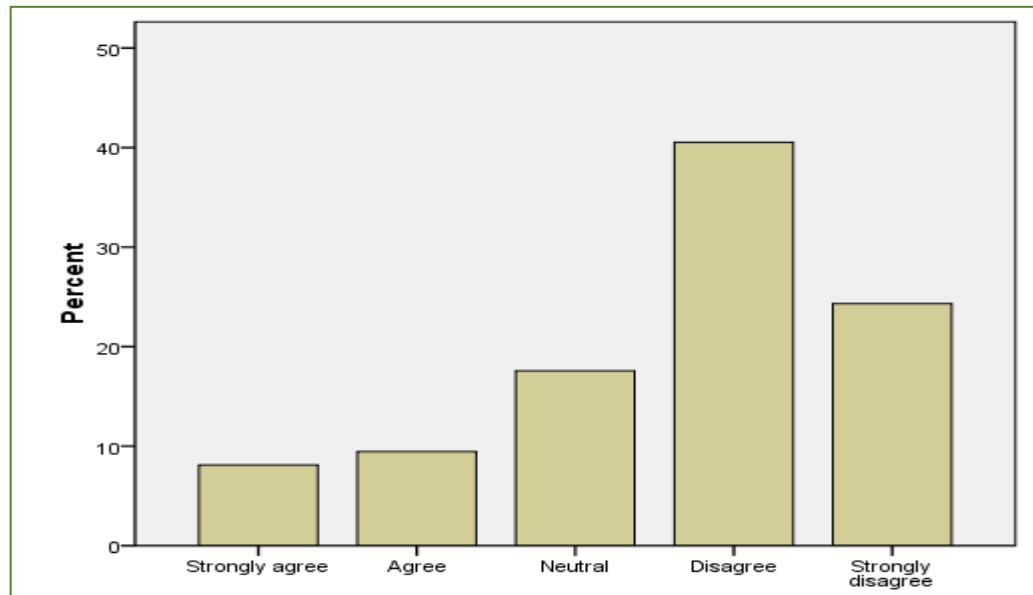
Figure 7.11 shows that the participants' responses were more disposed to disagree than to agree. The majority (49%) strongly disagreed, while thirty four percent (34%) disagreed, eleven percent (11%) were neutral and six percent (6%) agreed. The lowest (1%) number of respondents strongly agreed with the assertion. This shows that subordinates did not follow their leaders blindly as can be witnessed in some bureaucratic situations.

### Subordinates cannot be managers.

In the same way as the previous statement which inquired into the level to which subordinates agreed that managers are never late, the respondents were required to gauge the level to which they agree that subordinates should know that they cannot be managers. In leadership studies, agreement with this statement is likely to imply blind followership. As in the previous statement, most respondents (40%) disagreed while the second largest percent of respondents strongly disagreed (21%). A small

percentages of respondents agreed to this assertion. These results are shown in Figure 7.12.

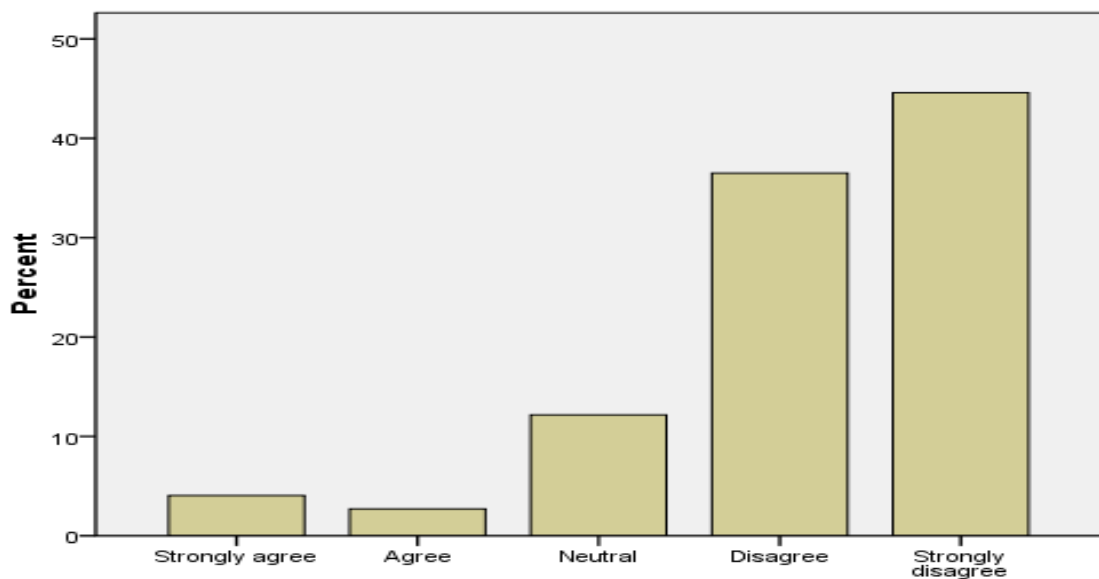
**Figure 7.12: Responses to the statement – Subordinates should know that they cannot be managers**



### **Association of age with experience and work insights**

As bureaucratic leadership styles are often considered to be traditional, there is the impression that older employees have more experience and work insight than younger employees. The modal responses were strong disagreement that old people have more experience and insight. These findings are shown in Figure 7.13. The responses were clearly skewed towards disagreement with forty-five percent (45%) of the respondents strongly disagreeing, thirty-five percent (35%) disagreeing and less than twenty per cent (20%) being on the neutral and agreement side.

**Figure 7.13: Responses to the statement - older people always have more experience and insights**



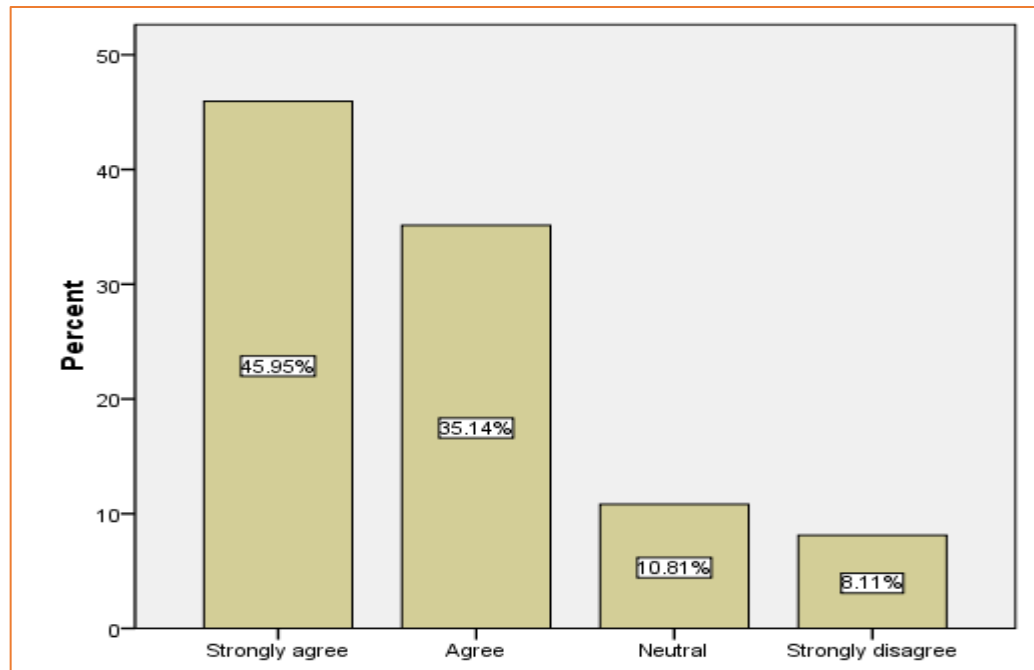
**Use of many policies to get things done correctly and uniformly.**

It has been observed in the literature that most bureaucratic arrangements involve the significant use of policies that guide behaviour and actions of members. The respondents were assessed on various attributes that are associated with use of policies in bureaucratic work arrangements.

**Clarity of powers**

Respondents were required to respond with their opinion on the assertion that powers must be clear for people not to override one another within bureaucratic work arrangements. As shown in Figure 7.14, the modal (46%) response was 'strongly agree.' There was a clear tendency that a very low percentage of respondents disagreed (8%).

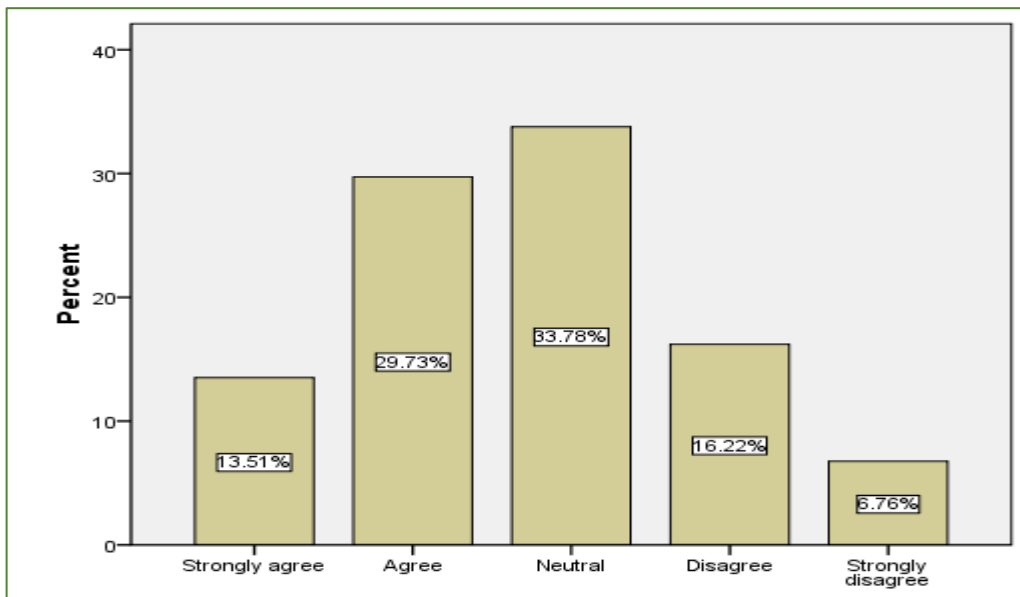
**Figure 7.14: Responses to the statement – Powers must be clear for people not to override each other.**



### **Promotion of employees based on education**

The literature has suggested that bureaucratic work arrangements are based on other criteria such as loyalty to and relationships with superiors for promotion. Respondents in this study were required to indicate their level of agreement that education should be the criteria for promotion of employees. The results are shown in Figure 7.15. The majority (34%) were neutral on the assertion while thirty percent (30%) agreed, fourteen percent (14%) strongly agreed, and sixteen percent (16%) disagreed. This shows that promotion based on education in bureaucratic settings seem to involve some other variables and issues which possibly resulted in the high neutral response.

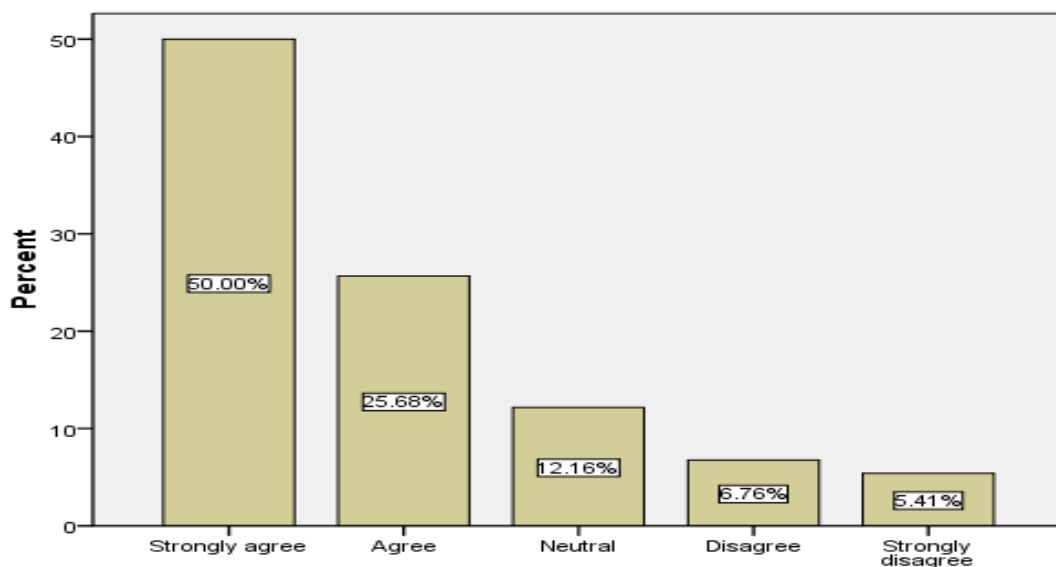
**Figure 7.15: Responses to the statement – Education should be the criteria for promoting employees**



**Promotion based on performance**

While promotion based on education seem to be associated with other contextual factors, it was clear from the respondents that promotion should be based on performance. This is shown in Figure 7.16 where the majority (50%) strongly agreed that people should be promoted based on their performance. The tendency to disagree was very low.

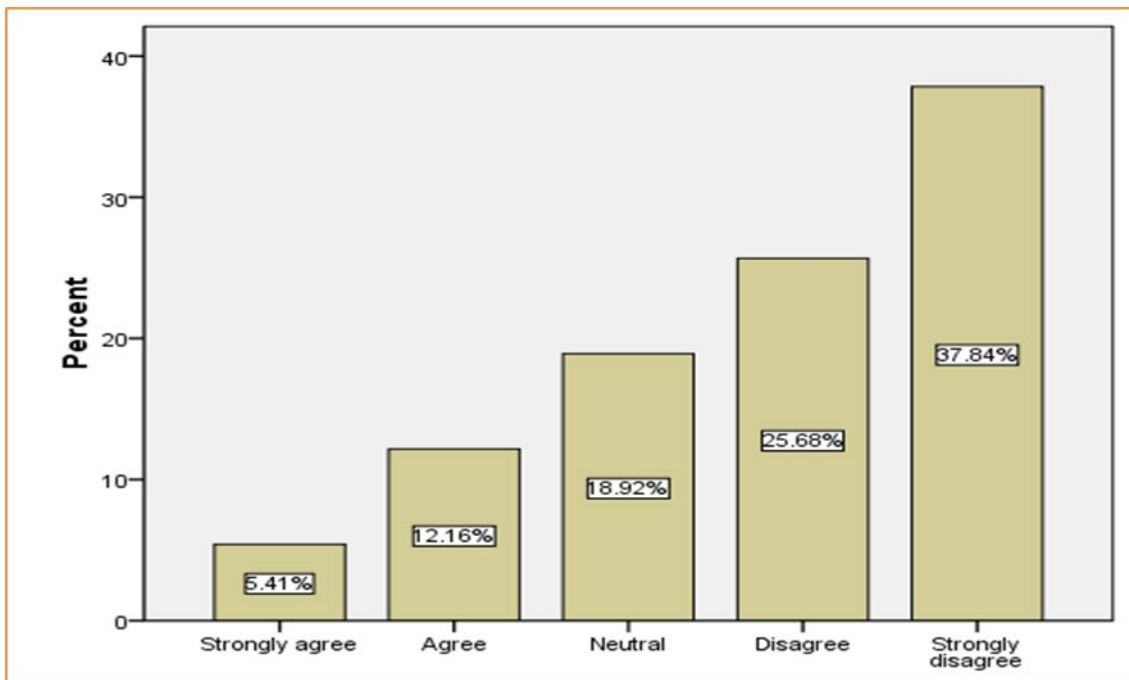
**Figure 7.16: Responses to the statement - We should promote people based on performance**



### Promotion based on the organisational hierarchy

Figure 7.17 shows that thirty-eight percent (38%) of the respondents strongly disagreed with the view that people should be promoted based on the hierarchy of the firm. Twenty-six percent disagreed with the view, nineteen percent (19%) were neutral while twelve percent (12%) agreed and only five percent (5%) strongly agreed. These results showed that employees do not support a policy of promotion by hierarchy in bureaucratically led organisations.

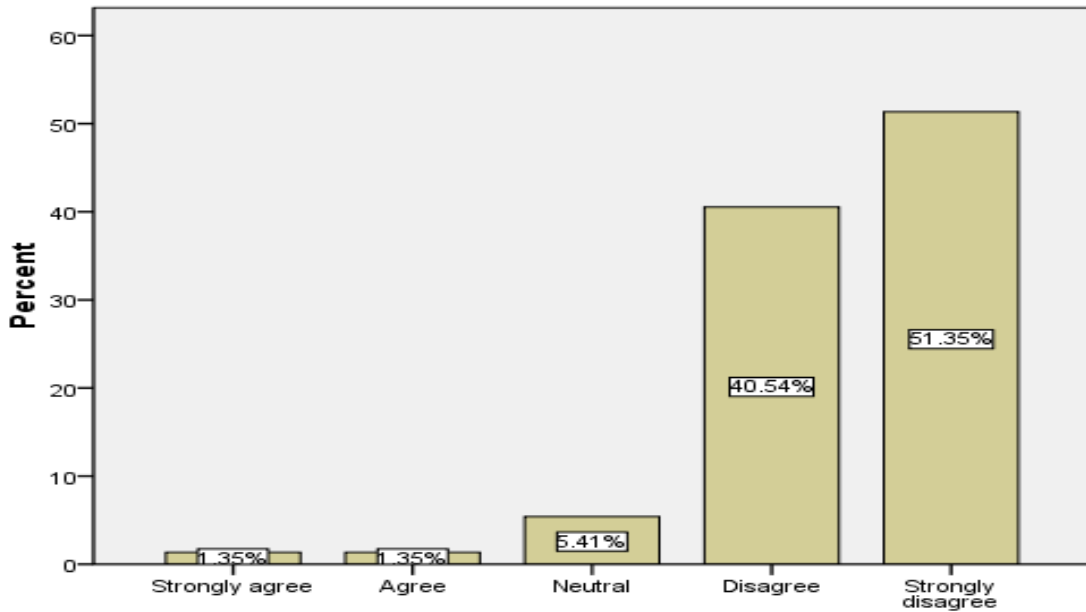
**Figure 7.17: Responses to the statement – People should be promoted based on the hierarchy in the firm**



### Promotion of older people first

On the question of promoting older people first, the results shown in Figure 7.18 suggest that the majority (51%) strongly disagree. The second modal response was 'disagree' (41%) while very small percentages of respondents were neutral or were in agreement with the statement. This shows that employees from these organisations appear to favour performance-based promotion as opposed to all other bases for promotion that were considered in this study.

**Figure 7.18: Responses to the statement – It is proper to promote older employees before others.**



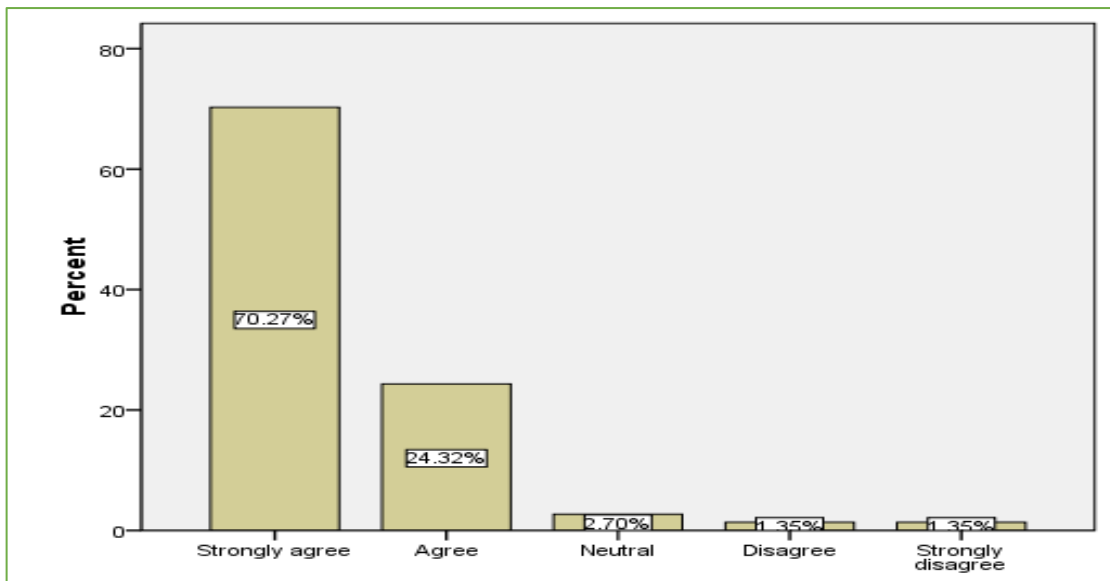
**Attitudes towards hierarchical environments in solving organisational problems**

Bureaucratic organisational arrangements are often associated with long hierarchies and many people involved in solving problems as issues move vertically along the levels. Respondents were required to provide their opinions on issues associated with many people in the hierarchies of bureaucratic systems

**Clear definition of jobs and strict adherence**

There was strong agreement that bureaucratic systems should possess clearly defined jobs which must be strictly followed. Seventy percent (70%) strongly agreed while twenty four-percent (24%) agreed. Very small percentages were associated with the other responses. These findings are shown in Figure 7.19.

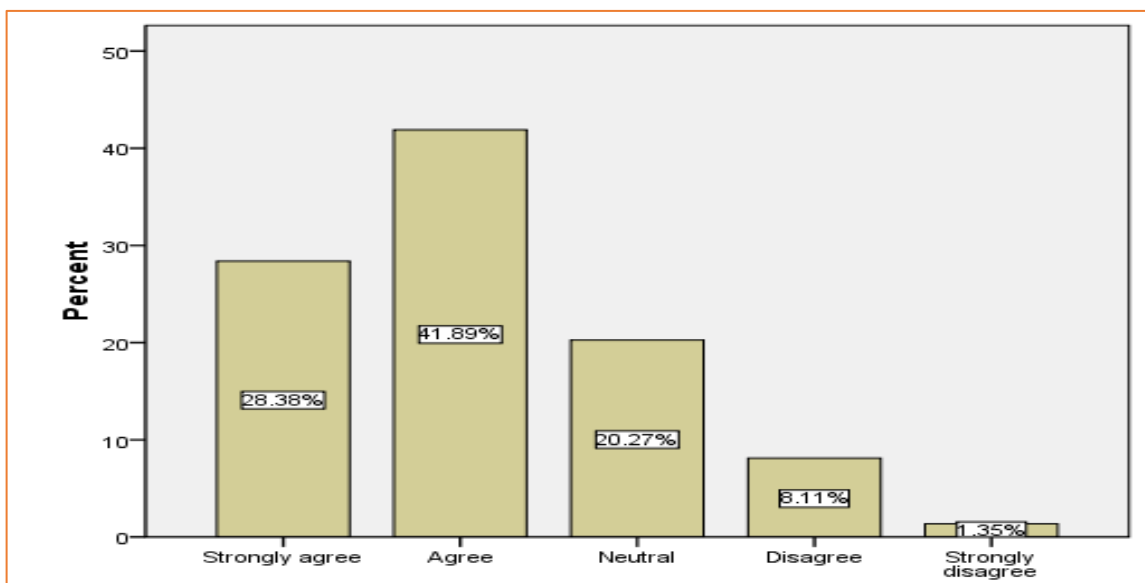
**Figure 7.19: Responses to the statement – People’s jobs must be clearly defined and followed**



**Supervision and inspection**

Figure 7.20 shows the respondents provided by the participants on the statement that people must not spend time looking at other people’s jobs. It is shown that the majority (42%) agreed that people must not spend time looking at other people’s jobs and twenty-eight percent (28%) strongly agreed with the assertion. Twenty percent (20%) were neutral while eight percent (8%) disagreed, and one percent (1%) strongly disagreed with the assertion.

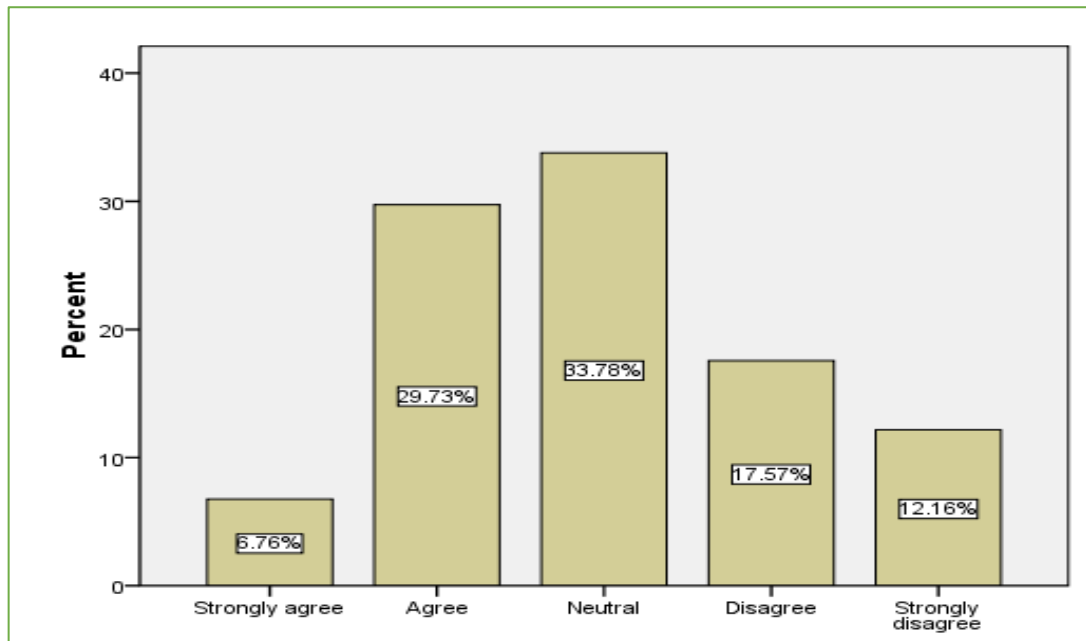
**Figure 7.20: Responses to the statement – People must not spend time looking at other people’s jobs**



### Availability of leaders to solve problems

In bureaucratic organisations, there are many people spread across hierarchical levels and at times managers are not available to assist their subordinates to solve work-based problems. Respondents were asked to provide their opinion on whether project leaders are always available to solve problems. The results are shown in Figure 7.

**Figure 7.21: Responses to the statement – The project leaders are always available to solve any problems**



As shown in Figure 7.21, there was greater tendency to be neutral (34%) on the availability of managers suggesting that there could be underlying issues associated with this issue. Thirty percent (30%) of the respondents agreed, six percent (6%) strongly agreed while eighteen percent (18%) disagreed and twelve percent (12%) strongly disagreed.

### Effects of the chain of command on employees' effectiveness and performance of their tasks

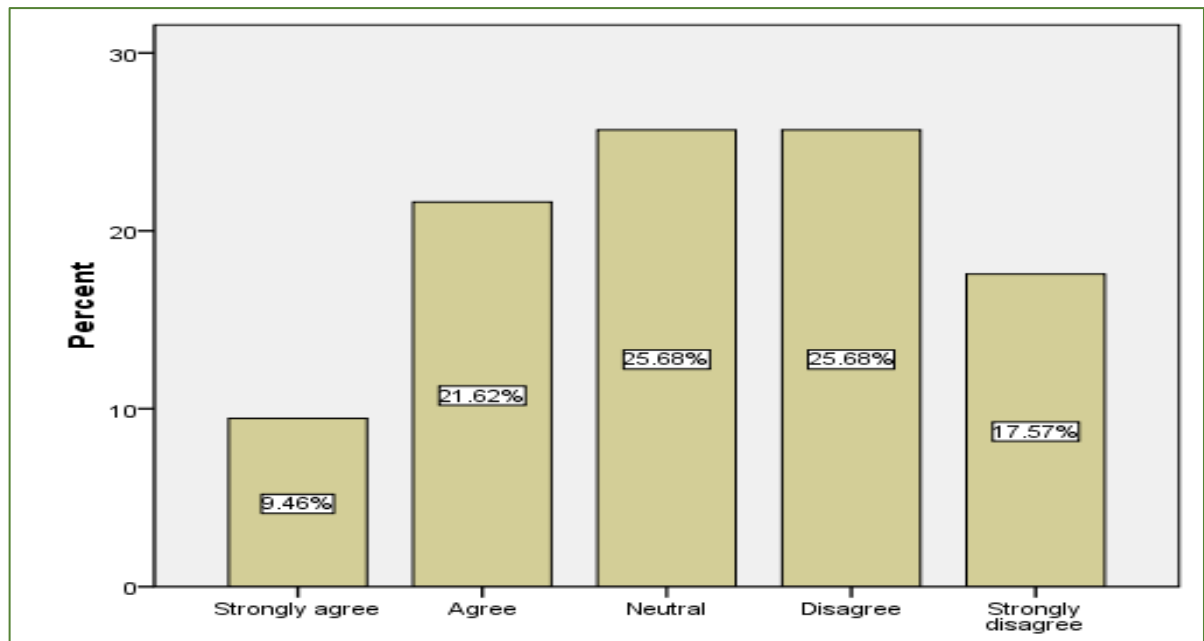
A key feature of bureaucratic leadership is the strict adherence and reliance on a chain of command. This study sought to explore a number of issues associated with chains of command and how these affect effective performance among employees.

### Knowledge tasks and strict task performance

Figure 7.22 shows the responses provided to the assertion that good employees know and keep to their tasks. The distribution of the responses was bimodal between the neutral and the disagree responses (26%). As shown in Figure 7.22, twenty-two percent (22%) agreed and nine percent (9%) strongly agreed while eighteen percent

(18%) strongly disagreed. This study could not make a firm conclusion on this statement.

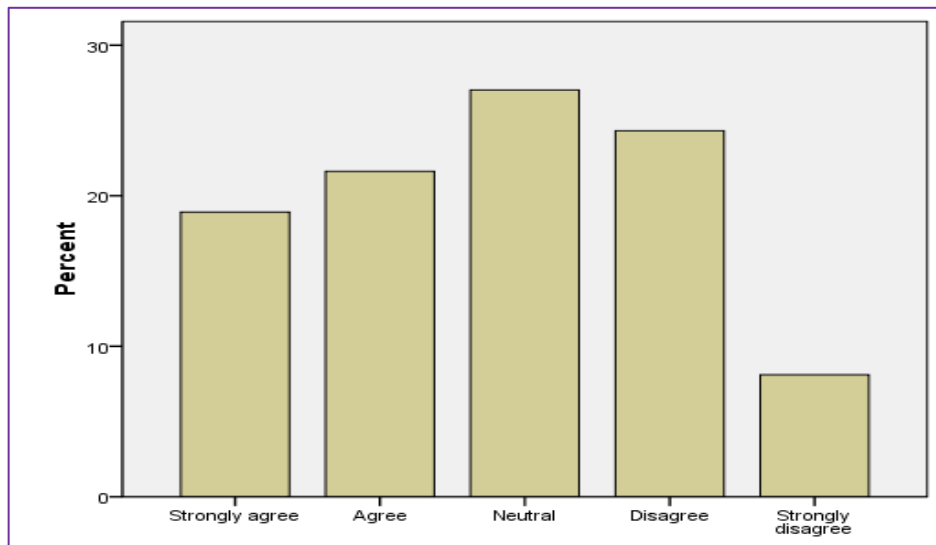
**Figure 7.22: Responses to the statement – Good employees know and keep to their tasks only**



### **Focus on one task and performance**

Chains of command are often associated with task specialisation. Respondents were required to provide their opinion on the assertion that too much focus on one task leads to poor performance. The results seem to have been dominated by the neutral response (29%), with no clear difference between the agreement side and the disagreement side, although there was a marginal alienation of respondents to agree with the assertion. These findings are displayed in Figure 7.23.

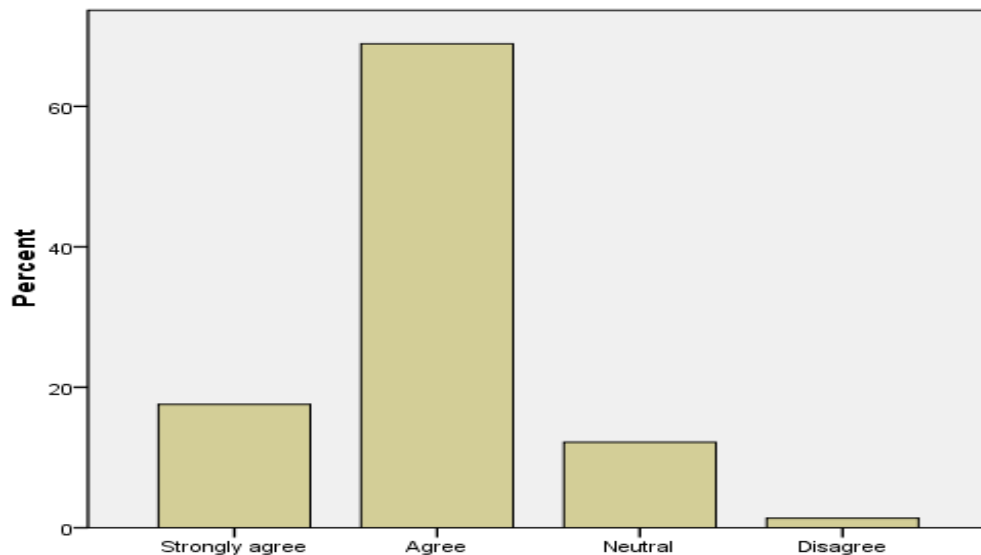
**Figure 7.23: Responses to the statement – Too much focus on one task lead to poor performance**



**Chain of command and productivity**

The study investigated the respondents’ perception of whether the chain of command in organisations negatively affect employee productivity. The results are shown in Figure 7.24. There was strong agreement (67%) that the chain of command negatively affects productivity, nineteen percent (19%) strongly agreed and fifteen percent (15%) were neutral.

**Figure 7.24: Responses to the statement – this chain of command works against productivity**

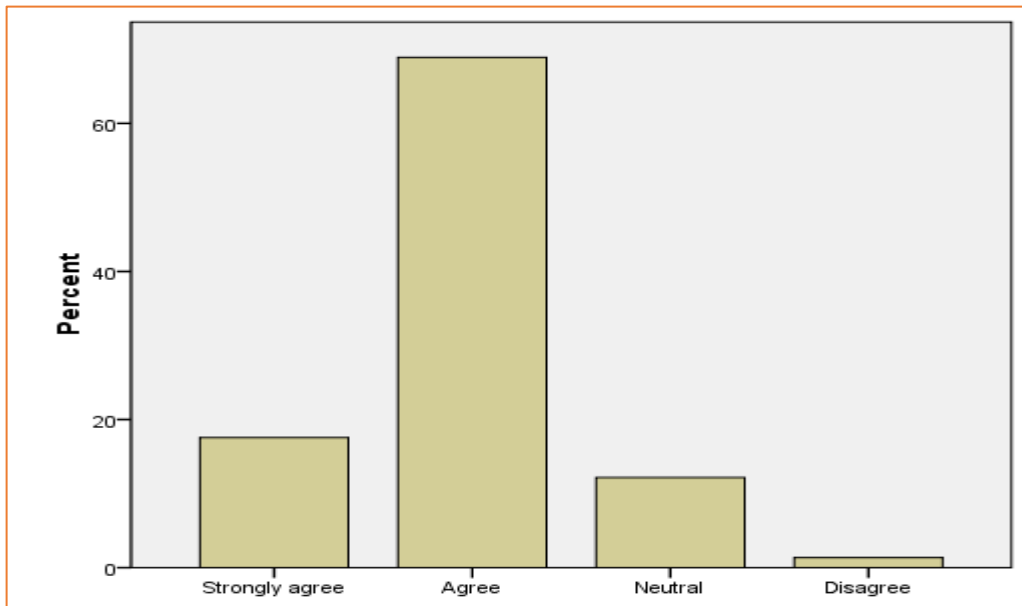


**Respect for the chain of command**

Sixty eight percent (68%) of the respondents agreed that members of an organisation should respect the chain of command while eighteen percent (18%) strongly agreed,

and twelve percent (12%) were neutral. The disagreement responses were clearly insignificant (less than 4%). These findings are shown in Figure 7.25.

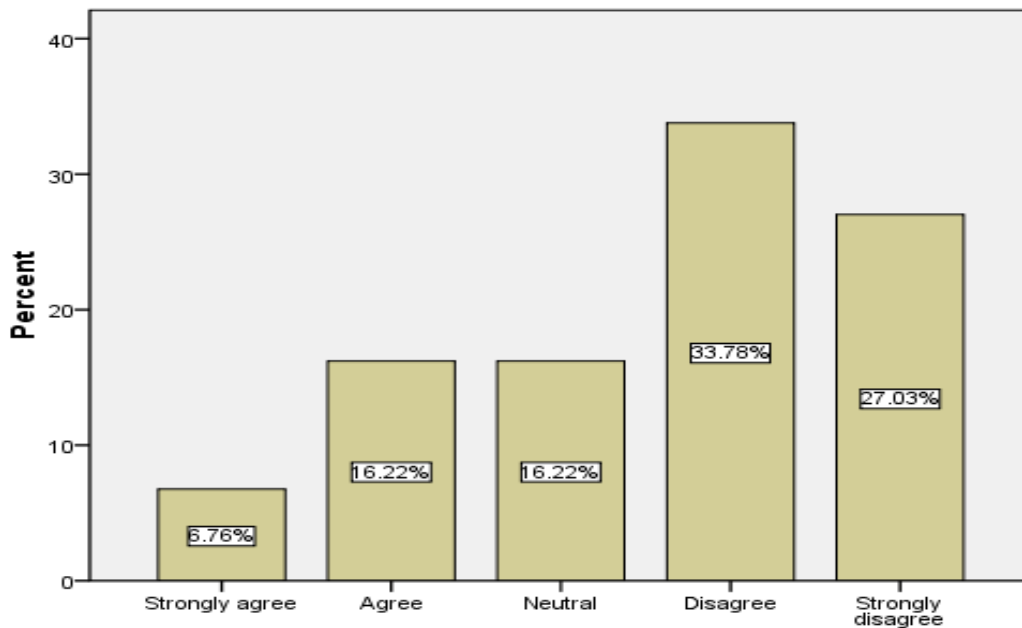
**Figure 7.25: Responses to the statement – subordinates must always respect the chain of command**



#### **Distance between leaders and followers**

The chain of command creates a distance between the lower levels of the hierarchy and the upper levels. Respondents were required to provide their opinion on the assertion that good employees keep a distance between themselves and their managers. As shown in Figure 7.26, the majority (34%) disagreed, twenty-seven percent (27%) strongly disagreed while sixteen percent (16%) were neutral and seven percent (7%) strongly agreed.

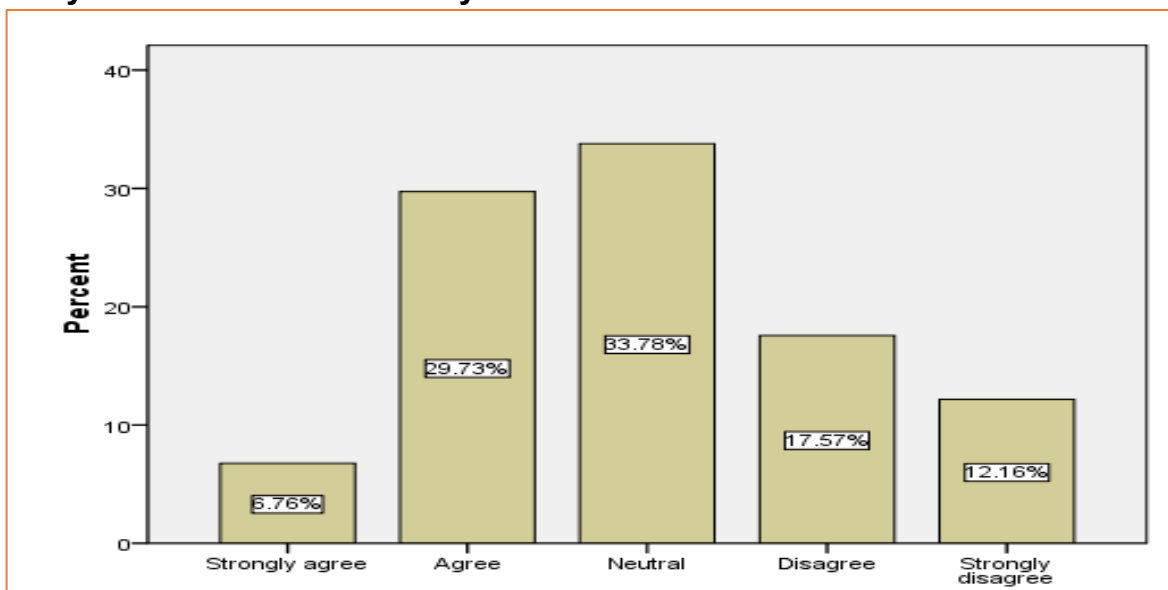
**Figure 7.26: Responses to the statement – Good employees keep a distance between themselves and their managers**



**Attention to requests for meetings**

As shown in Figure 7.27, thirty-four percent (34%) were neutral to the assertion that meeting requests are promptly looked into without delay. Thirty percent (30%) agreed while seven percent (7%) strongly agreed. Eighteen percent disagreed while twelve percent (12%) strongly disagreed.

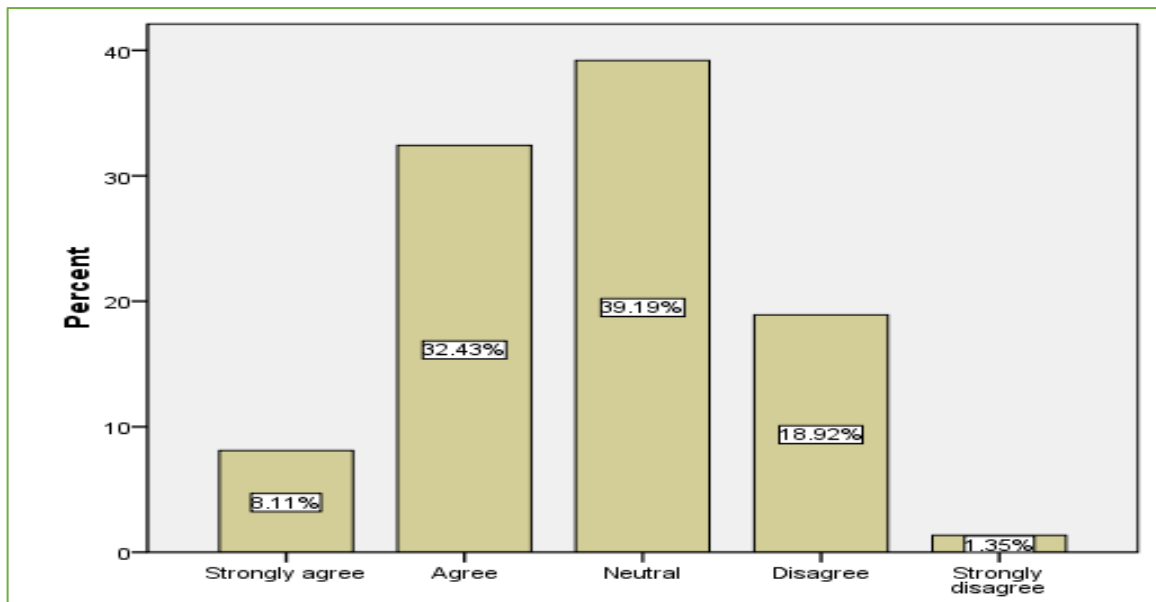
**Figure 7.27: Responses to the statement – Our requests for meetings are quickly looked into without delay**



### Prompt response to requests for resources

Given the hierarchical nature of bureaucracies and hierarchical organisations, there could be delays in attention to requests for resources among organisational members. The results of the data collected are shown in Figure 7.28. Most respondents (39%) were neutral while thirty-two percent (32%) agreed, eight percent (8%) strongly agreed, twenty percent (20%) disagreed and one percent (1%) strongly disagreed. While there was a greater tendency to be neutral, there appear to be some indications of agreement to the assertion

**Figure 7.28: Responses to the statement – All submissions for resources always come timeously**



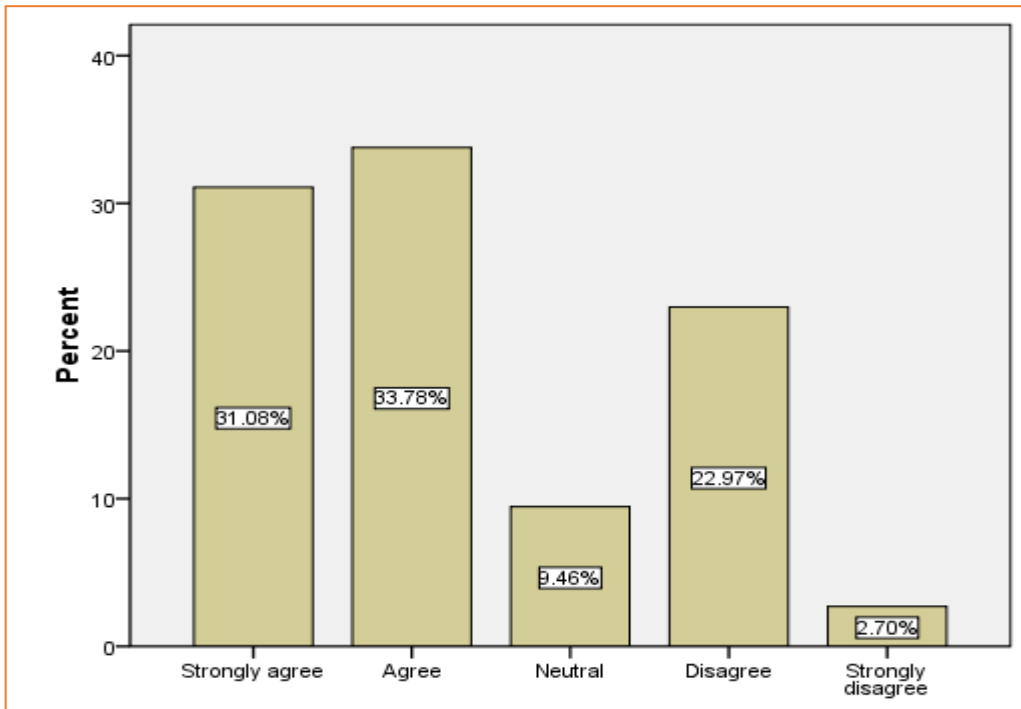
### Impact of a bureaucratic structure on employees' performance

This section considers the aspect of strict rules and regulations which are associated with bureaucratic work environments.

#### Employee motivation and too many rules

The respondents were required to react to the statement that too many rules demotivate employees who want to work. As shown in Figure 7.28, the majority of the respondents (34%) agreed to the assertion while thirty-one percent (31%) strongly agreed. Nine percent (9%) were neutral, twenty three percent (23%) disagreed and three percent (3%) strongly disagreed. It appears that too many rules in bureaucratic leadership situations tend to demotivate employees

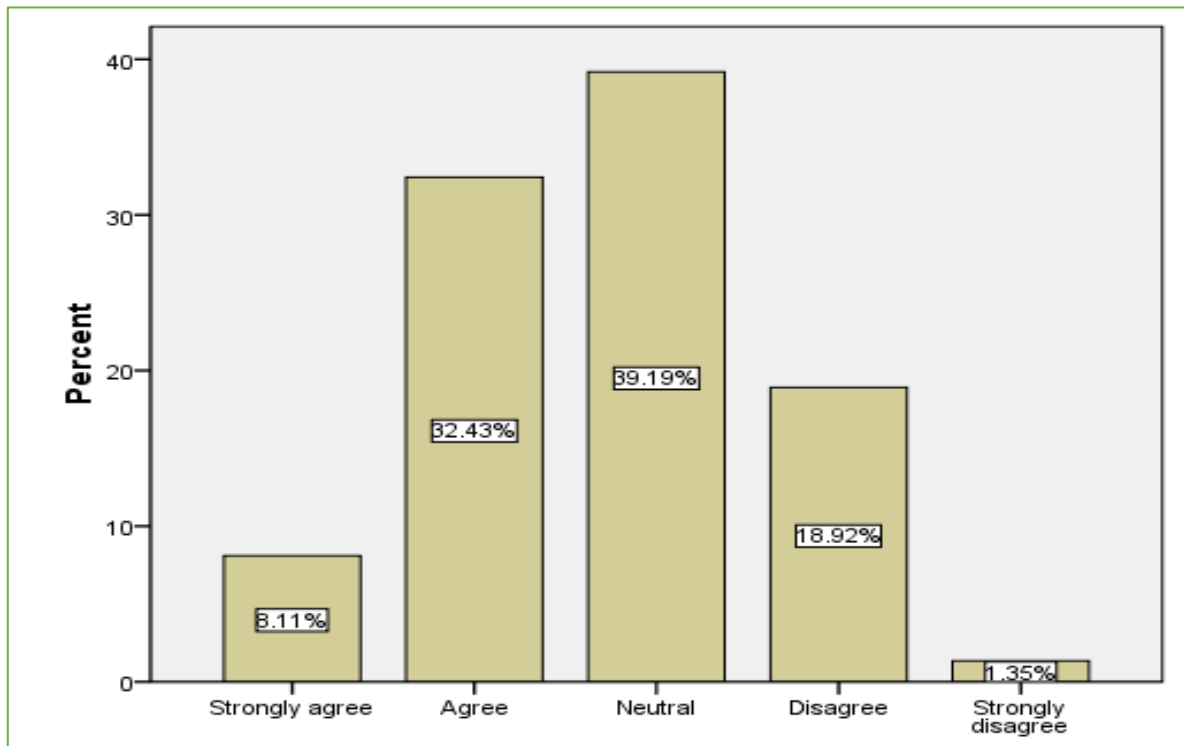
**Figure 7.29: Responses to the statement – Too many rules demotivate employees who want to work**



#### **Impact of too many rules on role clarity**

In addition to the above, the study also considered the impact of too many rules on the clarity of roles performed by employees. The respondents were required to provide their opinion on the statement that too many rules make people go the wrong way. The results as shown in Figure 7.30 indicate that most employees (39%) were neutral while thirty-two percent (32%) agreed and eight percent (8%) strongly agreed. Nineteen percent (19%) disagreed while one percent (1%) strongly disagreed. It appears that respondents tended to be neutral with an inclination to agree with the assertion.

**Figure 7.30: Responses to the statement – Too many rules make people to be on the wrong way**



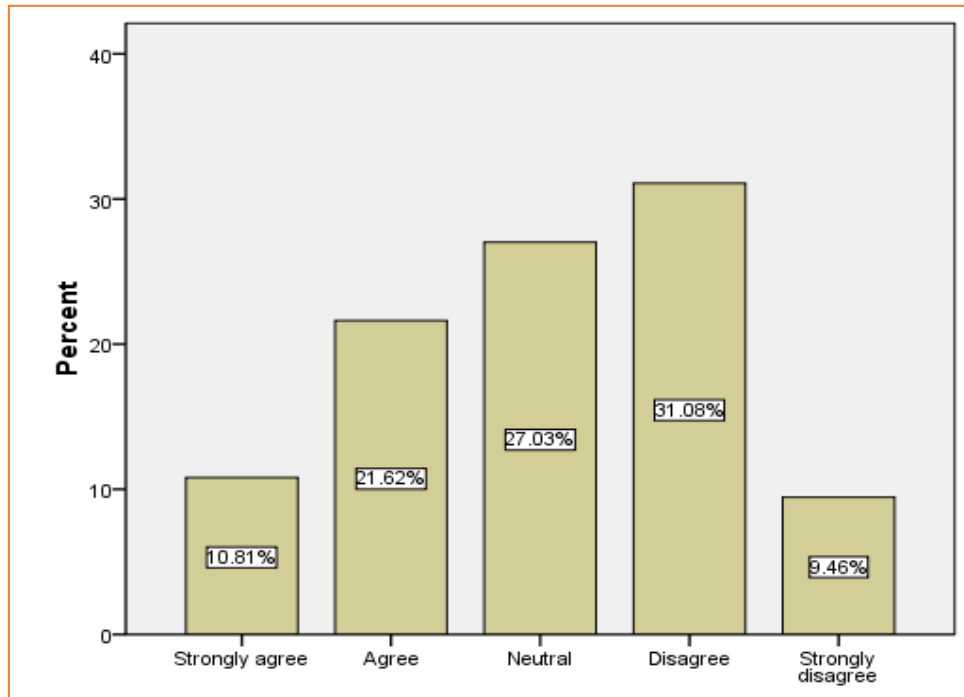
**The effect of bureaucratic structures on the decision-making process and impact on performance**

The sections below considered the view of respondents on bureaucratic structures and the decision-making process and how this impact on the performance of employees

**Impact of hierarchy on effective management**

Figure 7.31 shows that the majority (31%) disagreed that too many management layers improve the management of organisations. However, twenty-seven percent (27%) were neutral while twenty-two percent (22%) agreed. Eleven percent (11%) strongly agreed while nine percent (9%) strongly disagreed. It appears that even though many respondents disagreed, a notable number agreed with the assertion.

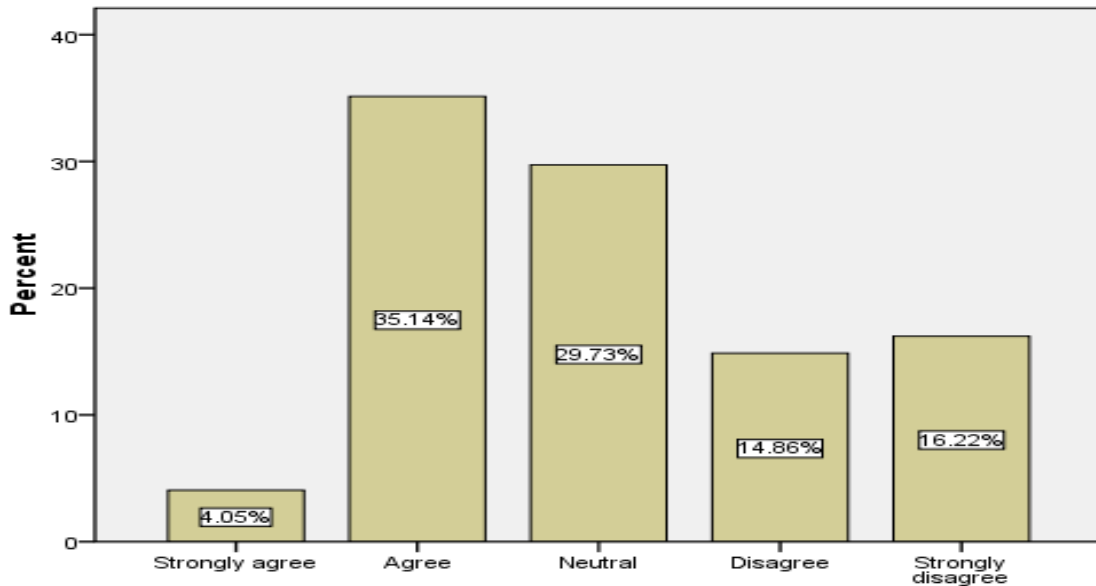
**Figure 7.31: Responses to the statement – Many management layers assist in managing the organisation effectively**



#### **Management and decision making**

Respondents were required to react to the statement that management should make decisions because they are responsible. In Figure 7.32, it is shown that thirty-five percent (35%) of the respondents agreed while thirty percent (30%) were neutral, fifteen percent (15%) disagreed and sixteen percent (16%) strongly disagreed, while only four percent (4%) strongly agreed. It appears that the respondents agreed that management make decision because they are responsible but there was a minority inclination to disagree.

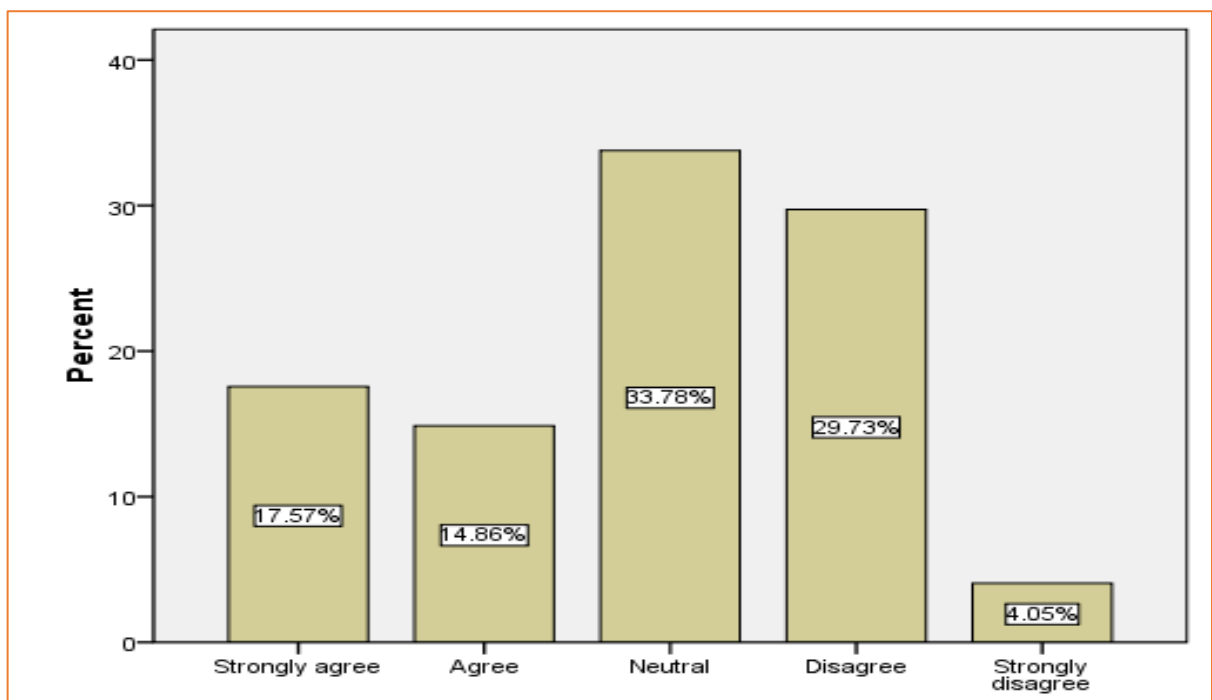
**Figure 7.32: Responses to the assertion - Managers should make decisions because they are responsible**



**Everyone in the organisation should make decisions**

Participants' views on whether everyone in the organisation should make decisions are shown in Figure 7.33. The majority (34%) were neutral to the assertion that everyone in the organisation should make decisions. Thirty percent (30%) disagreed, five percent (5%) strongly disagreed, fifteen percent (15%) agreed while eighteen percent (18%) strongly agreed.

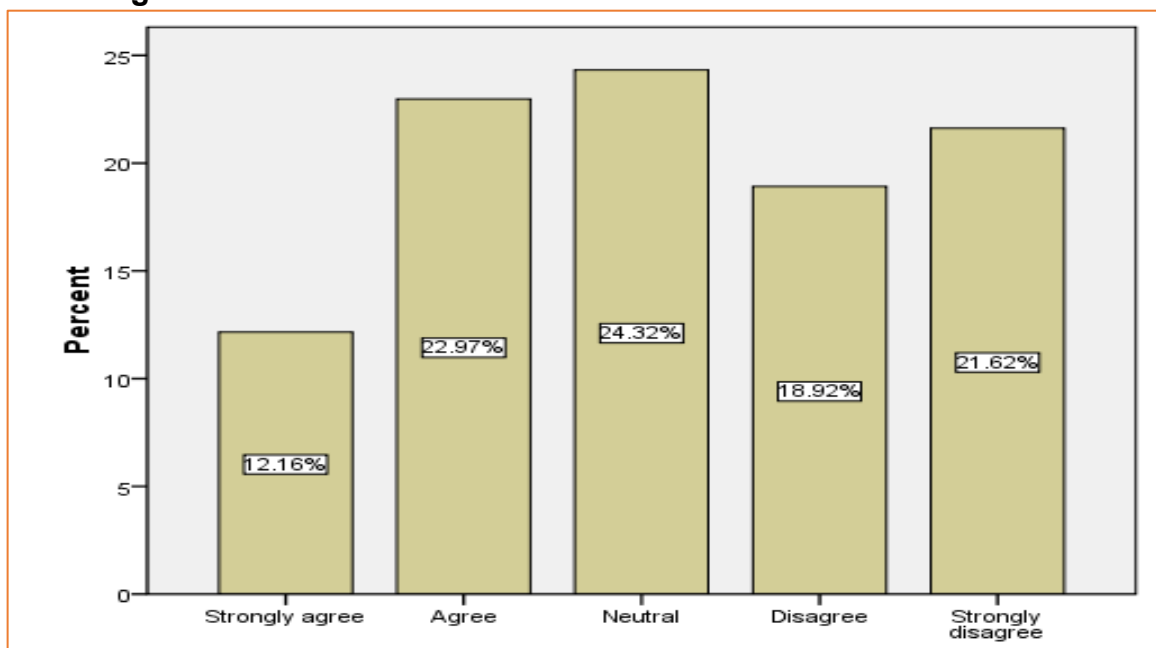
**Figure 7.33: Responses to the statement - Everyone in the organisation should make decisions**



### Use of directives

There is a high likelihood that bureaucracies and hierarchical organisations rely more on directives where communication is mainly from top to bottom. Participants were required to provide their views on the assertion that employees should only be informed of management decisions. The results, as shown in Figure 7.34, shows that twenty-four percent (24%) were neutral while twenty-three percent (23%) agreed. Nineteen percent (19%) disagreed and twenty-two (22%) percent strongly disagreed while twelve percent (12%) strongly agreed.

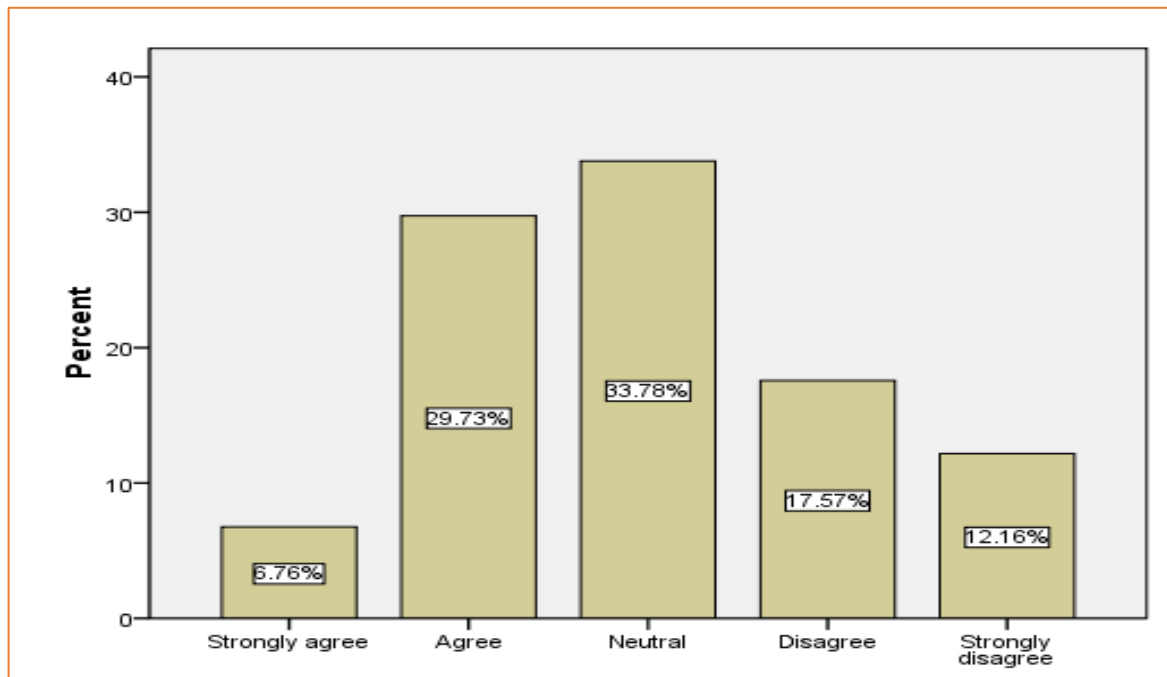
**Figure 7.34: Responses to the statement – Employees should only be informed of a management decision.**



### Prompt conflict resolution

The study considered the promptness of conflict resolution in hierarchical organisations. As shown in Figure 7.35, the majority (34%) were neutral while thirty percent (30%) agreed that conflict resolution is inclusive and prompt at all times. Seven percent (7%) strongly agreed, eighteen percent (18%) disagreed while twelve percent (12%) felt that conflict resolution occurs promptly at all times.

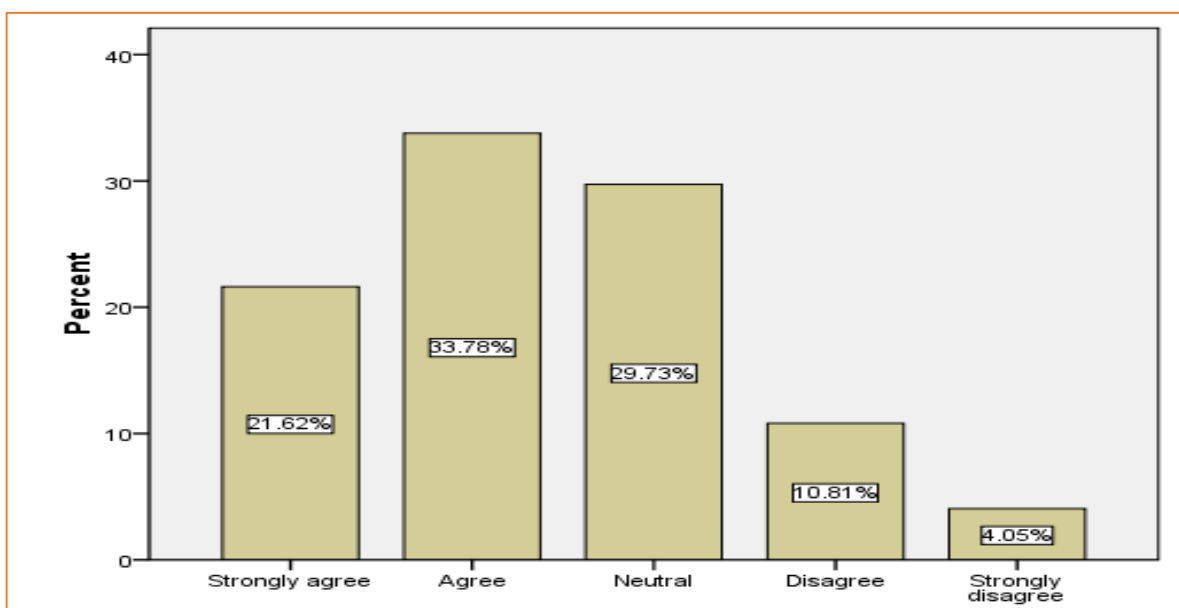
**Figure 7.35: Responses to the statement - Conflict resolution is inclusive and prompt at all times**



**Strict implementation of policies to ensure order**

In most bureaucracies there is strict implementation of policies to ensure order. Respondents were required to provide their views on the strict implementation of policies to ensure order. Thirty-four percent (34%) agreed to this assertion while thirty percent (30%) were neutral. Twenty-two percent (22%) strongly agreed and eleven percent (11%) disagreed. Only four percent (4%) strongly disagreed. These results are shown in Figure 7.36

**Figure 7.36: Responses to the statement – managers must implement policies strictly in order to bring about order**



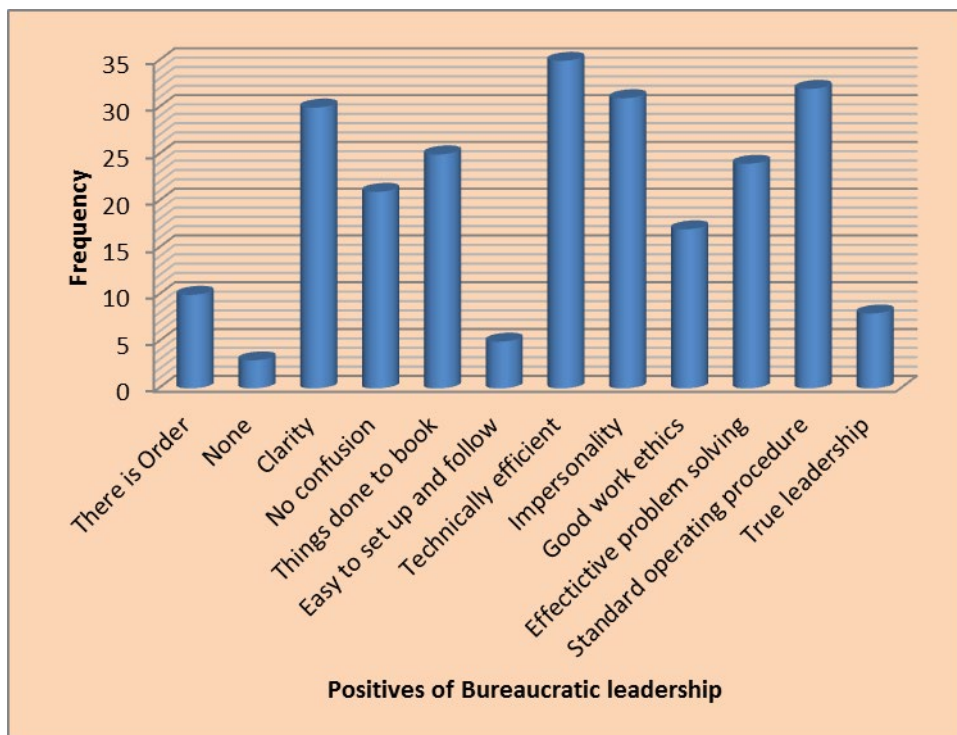
### Quantitative analysis of qualitative data

As explained earlier, the questionnaire that was used to collect data in this study contained some sections that required qualitative data. Quantitative content analysis was employed to summarise and infer meaning from the data. The main objective of the study was to explore the impact of bureaucratic leadership on the performance of employees. The analysis in the previous sections pointed to both positive and negative impacts of bureaucratic leadership style. It was clear that bureaucratic leadership is not exclusively positive or negative for employee performance in organisations.

### Positive consequences of bureaucratic leadership

Respondents were required to indicate the favourable attributes of bureaucratic leadership that they have observed in their organisations. These consequences and their relative frequencies among the respondents are shown in Figure 7.37. Quantitative content analysis was employed to establish the significance of these positive consequences through the analysis of frequencies. As shown in Figure 7.37, the main positive consequence of bureaucratic leadership was its technical efficiency arising from its emphasis on formal rules and policy within a hierarchical structure. It is also observed that bureaucratic leadership organisations enjoy clarity, order and the impersonality arising from the reliance on readily prepared policies and a standard operating procedure.

**Figure 7.37: Positive consequences of bureaucratic leadership**



### Negative consequences of bureaucratic leadership

Respondents were also required to provide details on what they disliked about bureaucratic leadership. This was in line with the observation stated earlier that previous analysis has pointed to the existence of both positive and negative consequences of bureaucratic leadership. The results were also analysed using quantitative content analysis and are shown in Table 7.6. The majority (75%) of the respondents felt that the main negative consequence of bureaucratic leadership relate to the inefficiencies of time associated with hierarchical arrangements, adherence to policy and regulations, and long chains of command. The rigidity of bureaucratic leadership systems was also seen to be a major negative consequence. The literature contends that bureaucracies are a combination of the structure, the policies, types of techniques and procedures, embedded and controlled by protocols which put in restrictions (Belabas and Gerrits, 2017:54). Bureaucracies are often rigid and not flexible, reducing their change capacity as well as innovativeness and creativity. Some respondents also pointed that bureaucracies suffer from red tape, nepotism and the abuse of power which make them unfavourable to many employees. These findings are in line with the findings of Martela (2019:1-23) who found that bureaucratic structures are generally meant to provide standardised procedures in the system in view of the distance between the operations and senior management. It can also be seen that some employees saw bureaucratic arrangements as cost-ineffective and low in productive efficiencies. It was also reported that bureaucracies have limited value for people and suffer from poor communication and poor decision-making

**Table 7.5: Negative consequences of bureaucratic leadership styles**

Case Processing Summary						
	Cases					
	Included		Excluded		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Micromanagement and poor decision making	6	30.0%	14	70.0%	20	100.0%
Time inefficiencies	15	75.0%	5	25.0%	20	100.0%
Limited innovativeness and creativity	8	40.0%	12	60.0%	20	100.0%
Rigidity	11	55.0%	9	45.0%	20	100.0%
Traditional and outmoded	8	40.0%	12	60.0%	20	100.0%

Low productivity	10	50.0%	10	50.0%	20	100.0%
Cost inefficiencies	5	25.0%	15	75.0%	20	100.0%
Communication inefficiencies	8	40.0%	12	60.0%	20	100.0%
Abuse of power	10	50.0%	10	50.0%	20	100.0%
Limited value for people	10	50.0%	10	50.0%	20	100.0%

a. Limited to first 100 cases.

**Summary of findings**

The study was set up to attend to specific research objectives and research questions which arose from a research problem. All these were enunciated in Chapter One. The analysis presented in this chapter attended to the research objectives and research questions. This section seeks to address these research questions and objectives in relation to the findings and the literature that was reviewed earlier in previous chapters. Table 7.6 Shows a summary of the results of this study in line with the objectives set out in Chapter One.

**Table 7.6: Summary of objectives and findings**

Research objective	Results
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To identify employee attitude towards a manager who clearly defines exactly what is to be done in detail</li> </ul>	The findings of this study provided mixed results. While a notable number of employees possessed a positive attitude, there was also a significant number of respondents who presented a negative value
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To identify what the employees think about the use of many policies as a means of getting things done correctly and uniformly.</li> </ul>	The results were mixed. The study was not conclusive as one group of employees thought that the use of strict rules and policies was good while another group did not think so
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To identify the thinking of the employees in a work environment where they have many people to go through to get problems solved</li> </ul>	Some employees thought such a work environment was good while others felt that the environment was not good. It seems that more studies are required to seek conclusive data on this issue

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• To identify the extent to which the chain of command affects the employees' effectiveness and performance of their tasks</li> </ul>	Chain of commands were found to delay the decision-making process and were found to be largely unfavorable
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• To identify the impact of the structure pertaining to the subordinates' aspirations to senior positions in the organisation</li> </ul>	Respondents felt that promotions in bureaucratic settings were not properly implemented because they relied on wrong criteria such as age and position
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• To identify the impact of the structure on employees' performance where managers seem to be protected by rules and regulations</li> </ul>	Results were mixed with some employees reporting that bureaucratic structures were favorable while others felt that they were not favorable
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• To identify the impact of the bureaucratic structure on the decision-making process and impact on performance.</li> </ul>	Respondents felt that bureaucracies were not time effective in decision making and the decision making was not inclusive. A number of respondents felt that the decision making was poor
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• To identify the aspects of the bureaucratic systems that are considered positively by the subordinates.</li> </ul>	Order, clarity, impersonality, technical efficiency and better productivity were some of the responses provided by respondents on the positives of bureaucratic leadership

As emphasised earlier, the analysis presented in this chapter was founded on specific research questions. Table 7.7 shows the research questions set for this study in line with the results of the analysis and presentation of results that were presented in this chapter.

**Table 7.7: Results of the study in line with research questions**

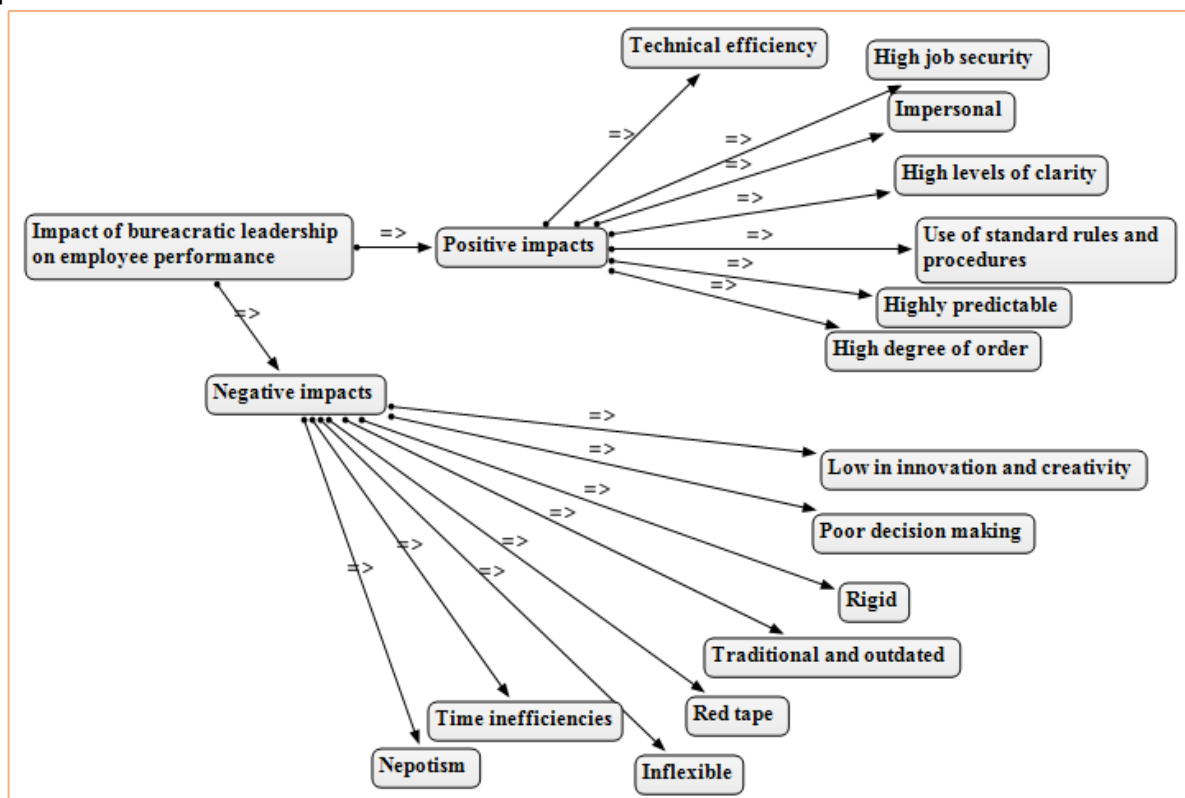
Research question	Results
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What aspects of the bureaucratic leadership style assist in the motivation of subordinates to</li> </ul>	Order, clarity, technical efficiency and focus on specific tasks were

<p>perform well in a project environment?</p>	<p>mentioned as motivators by the respondents</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How do you feel when your manager identifies to the last detail the tasks you are expected to perform during project execution?</li> </ul>	<p>Some respondents felt that this was good and essential while others felt that it was bad and demotivating</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How do you feel about the presence of many rules and policies that govern your operations in the workplace?</li> </ul>	<p>The results were mixed and inconclusive. To some respondents, this was welcome while to others it was considered unfavourable</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What do you think about the many different management / supervision layers you pass through to get the responses to issues?</li> </ul>	<p>Mixed results were observed. To some employees, this was favourable but to others this was seen as problematic</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How are you affected by the chain of command in the performance of your daily project tasks?</li> </ul>	<p>Many employees felt that the long chain of command negatively affected creativity and time efficiencies</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What do you think is the impact of the vertical structure in a bureaucratic organisation in providing you an opportunity to be promoted?</li> </ul>	<p>New and younger employees felt that they lacked opportunities while older and experienced employees appeared to have more opportunities</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What do you think is the impact of the vertical structure with the many policies and rules as this relates to the functioning of the manager?</li> </ul>	<p>Time inefficiencies, rigidity, lack of creativity and innovativeness were associated with vertical strict bureaucratic structures</p>

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How does the bureaucratic structure impact on the decision making system and the ability to perform your tasks?</li> </ul>	<p>Respondents felt that bureaucratic structures are associated with delay in decision making and negatively affect task performance</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What advantages of the bureaucratic structure and system outweigh the negative for you as a subordinate?</li> </ul>	<p>Clearly set procedures, job security, creates predictability and consistence and creates order and clarity</p>

In consideration of the results of this study as shown in Table 7.7 and table 7.8, Figure 7.38 provides a summary of this study. It summarises the fact that the study has established both positive and negative impacts of bureaucratic leadership and organisational environments

**Figure 7.38. Summary of the impacts of bureaucratic leadership on employee performance**



**Source: Own construction**

From figure 7.38 above, the effects of bureaucratic leadership on employee performance have been given as it positively and negatively affects the performance of employees. Amongst the positive effects are things such as high job security, high

levels of clarity as one knows what to do, and high order. On the other hand, the negative effects are as follows: favouritism as those in power tend to hire their families or doing favours for certain individuals, and a very strict structure which minimises creativity and results in poor decision-making.

## **7.2 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

The findings of this study provided mixed results. While a notable number of employees possessed a positive attitude, there was also a significant number of respondents who held a negative value. The study was not conclusive as one side of employees thought that the use of strict rules and policies was good while another group of respondents did not think so. Some employees thought such a work environment was good while others felt that the environment was not good. It seems that more studies are required to seek conclusive data on this issue.

This chapter has provided an analysis of the data that was collected to respond to the objectives and research questions that were set out in Chapter One. The analysis of the data was done in relation to the literature that was earlier reviewed. The chapter that follows will provide more detailed analysis of the whole study and summaries of the major findings of this study. It also provides the recommendations and, limitations and directions for future research.

## **CHAPTER EIGHT CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND PROSPECTS FOR FUTURE STUDY**

### **8.1 INTRODUCTION**

This study was anchored in the business management sciences with a special focus on the search for best management practices. It considered the bureaucratic leadership style as one of the most prominent managerial styles in public institutions and its effectiveness. This style has a rich history especially when considering the ideas and views of the classic management scholar, Henri Fayol. The study emanated from a problem that was based on the lack of scientific conclusion on the efficacy of the bureaucratic management style in boosting employee performance. The study was inspired by the observation that the failure rate of project initiatives remains high. While many reasons for project failure have been considered, this study focused on bureaucratic leadership style as a factor that impacts project success and failure. The study was also based on certain specific research objectives and questions which were stated in Chapter One. After the formulation of the study and its breakdown into research problem, questions and objectives, a literature review was conducted. Based on the observations emanating from the literature review chapters, data was collected as a critical part in the search for answers to the research questions. After the collection of data, presentation and analysis of findings was the main focus of the previous chapter. The present chapter will sum up all chapters and siphon out the main ideas and findings from each one. The final aim is to ensure that tangible concluding remarks for the whole study are explicitly stated so as to consider the study in relation to other studies as well as to inform future researchers on related matters.

### **8.2 A BRIEF SUMMARY OF PRECEDING CHAPTERS**

This section provides brief summaries of the preceding chapters.

#### **8.2.1 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER ONE**

Chapter One reflected on the essential role of leadership styles on the success of business projects. It emphasised that leaders influence the performance of subordinates in many ways. A number of leadership styles were identified in the chapter and the focus of the study was placed on the bureaucratic style of leadership and how it impacts on the failure and success of project operations. The problem statement for the study was formulated on the premise that the failure rate of projects

is high despite the observation that project management techniques have become essential in many organizational settings. In stating the problem, it was observed that the human element appear to be one single factor that has a greater impact on project success given the many advances in technology and other techniques of project management. From the problem statement, specific research objectives and research questions were then developed to focus the study in a manner that attends to the research problem.

### **8.2.2 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER TWO**

Chapter Two formed the initial chapter of the literature review section of the entire research. The basis of Chapter Two is that it was important to foster a detailed understanding of all leadership styles. The chapter explored the autocratic and democratic leadership styles. It defined leadership and proceeded to clarify the concepts of autocratic and democratic leadership styles.

### **8.2.3 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER THREE**

Chapter Three broadened the scope on leadership styles in reference to the study. It discussed the transformational and transactional leadership styles. These two styles dominate much of contemporary leadership literature and it was important in this study to review some of the main features of these styles and how they affect employee performance. It was found that the transformational leader ensures performance through the use of such powerful mechanisms as charisma and vision. On the other hand, the transactional leader views the leadership-follower relationship as one of exchange. In other words, the leader exchanges certain benefits for the subordinates' performance. These reviews, however, suggest that there is no one best leadership style and leaders do not necessarily adhere to one type of leadership style. In other words, a leader may be capable of leading in many different ways. Furthermore, subordinates' comments on their leadership preferences vary, and a leader who may not be liked by one subordinate may be admirable to another.

### **8.2.4 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER FOUR**

The focus of Chapter Four was to consider bureaucratic structures as well as types of bureaucratic organizations. The chapter observed that there are many types of bureaucratic arrangements depending on the nature of organizations. It was noted that bureaucracies arose from the need to foster organizational performance through better and more structured arrangements. Some bureaucracies are run through the use of strict, rigid and well defined policies and rules while others are centered on direct control. It was observed that bureaucratic structures resemble much of the traditional

principles of administrative management that involves hierarchical arrangements, the use of authority and responsibility, order, chain of command and span of control.

#### **8.2.5 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER FIVE**

In Chapter Five a wide review of available literature on leadership was put in focus. The chapter noted that the practice of leadership has long historical roots, and many leaders have influenced people in many different circumstances. Research on leadership exploded following the recognition that leadership in organizations is essential. As a result, a lot has been written on leadership, a large volume of research has been conducted on leadership and many theories exist to explain the phenomenon. The chapter sought to discuss current leadership practices and the theories that anchor them. It has been observed that today leadership is a field that benefits from a wide scope of literature and there is a broad spectrum of researchers that informs leadership practices across nations.

#### **8.2.6 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER SIX**

Chapter Six was devoted to an exposition of the empirical premises of the study as well as how this was executed. The research design and data collection for the study was detailed. Researchers are often aligned to certain worldviews and philosophies which form the paradigms from which the design of a study emerges. In Chapter Six, these were explained including the data collection instruments, target population, sampling and the ethical considerations. Data for this study was collected using a questionnaire which consisted of five point Likert response statements as well as some open-ended questions.

#### **8.2.7 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER SEVEN**

In Chapter Seven, data was presented and analysed. Chapter Seven was hinged on the research problem, objectives and questions as stated in Chapter One. Data was presented in terms of figure and tables which were generated and analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). This analysis was done to investigate the patterns emerging in relation to the impact of the bureaucratic leadership style on the performance of subordinates. Likert type questions were analysed first and the open-ended questions provided more information for the interpretation of the emerging results.

### **8.3 CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY**

The study was based on certain research objectives and research questions. The conclusion reached on each objective are provided in the paragraphs that follow

## 8.4 CONCLUSION ON THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

Table 8.1 is a summary of the conclusions reached for each of the research objectives that were set out in Chapter One

**Table 8.1: Summary of conclusions reached for the research objectives**

Research objective	Results
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To identify employee attitude towards a manager who clearly defines exactly what is to be done in detail.</li> </ul>	Subordinates hold both positive and negative attitudes towards managers who clearly define exactly what is to be done.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To identify what employees think about the use of many policies as a means of getting things done correctly and uniformly.</li> </ul>	While some employees thought that the use of many policies as a means of getting things done correctly and uniformly was good, others thought it was not good.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To identify the thinking of the employees in a work environment where they have many people to go through to get problems solved.</li> </ul>	Some employees thought that such a work environment was good while others felt that the environment was not good. It seems that more studies are required to seek conclusive data on this issue.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To identify the extent to which the chain of command affects the employees' effectiveness and performance of their tasks.</li> </ul>	Chain of commands were found to delay decision-making processes and were found to be largely unfavorable.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To identify the impact of the structure pertaining to the subordinates' aspirations to senior positions in the organisation.</li> </ul>	It was found that promotions in bureaucratic settings were not properly done because they relied on wrong criteria such as age and position.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To identify the impact of the structure on employees' performance where managers seem to be protected by rules and regulations.</li> </ul>	Some employees provided that bureaucratic structures were favorable while others felt that they were not favorable.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To identify the impact of the bureaucratic structure on the decision-making process and impact on performance.</li> </ul>	Evidence collected suggests that bureaucratic structures were not time-effective in decision making and the decision making was not discursive. A number of respondents felt that the decision making was poor.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To identify the aspects of the bureaucratic systems that are considered positively by the subordinates.</li> </ul>	Order, clarity, impersonality, technical efficiency and better productivity were some of the responses provided by

respondents on the positives of bureaucratic leadership

## 8.5 CONCLUSION ON THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research questions and the conclusions reached for each of the research question are provided in Table 8.2

**Table 8.2: Summary of conclusions reached for the research objectives**

Research question	Results
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What aspects of the bureaucratic leadership style assist in the motivation of subordinates to perform well in a project environment?</li> </ul>	<p>Order, clarity, technical efficiency and focus on specific tasks were mentioned as motivators by the respondents.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How do you feel when your manager identifies to the last detail the tasks you are expected to perform during project execution?</li> </ul>	<p>Some respondents felt that this was good and essential while others felt that it was bad and demotivating.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How do you feel about the presence of many rules and policies that govern your operations in the workplace?</li> </ul>	<p>The results were mixed and not conclusive. To some respondents, this was welcome while to others it was considered unfavourable.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What do you think about the many different management / supervision layers you pass through to get the responses to issues?</li> </ul>	<p>Mixed results were observed. To some employees, this was favourable but to others this was seen as problematic.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How are you affected by the chain of command in the performance of your daily project tasks?</li> </ul>	<p>Many employees felt that the long chain of command affected creativity and time efficiencies.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What do you think is the impact of the vertical structure in a bureaucratic organisation in providing you an opportunity to be promoted?</li> </ul>	<p>New and younger employees felt that they lacked opportunities while older and experienced employees appeared to have more opportunities.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What do you think is the impact of the vertical structure with the many policies and rules as this relates to the functioning of the manager?</li> </ul>	<p>Time inefficiencies, rigidity, lack of creativity and innovativeness were associated with vertical, strict bureaucratic structures.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How does the bureaucratic structure impact on the decision-making system and the ability to perform your tasks?</li> </ul>	<p>Respondents felt that bureaucratic structures are associated with delay in decision-making and negatively affect task performance</p>

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What advantages of the bureaucratic structure and system outweigh the negative for you as a subordinate?</li> </ul>	<p>Clear set procedures, job security, creates predictability and consistency and creates order and clarity</p>
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## 8.6 RECOMMENDATIONS

This study has established that bureaucratic leadership has both positive and negative impacts on the performance of members of an organization. Based on the findings and conclusions reached in this study, the following recommendations can be provided:

- Bureaucratic organisations should conduct organizational culture surveys periodically to assess employee satisfaction with bureaucratic leadership.
- Bureaucratic organizations should ensure time efficiency. Employees tend to have problems with the delays and time inefficiencies associated with hierarchical bureaucracies.
- There is need to blend bureaucratic organisational leadership with other forms of leadership such as transformational and transactional styles to ensure satisfaction of as many employees as possible and the realization of desired performance.
- The form and type of bureaucracy that is practiced in any organization should be matched with the vision and mission of the organization to ensure that desired employee performance is achieved.

## 8.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study was limited in scope. Seventy-four (74) respondents provided the data that was analysed in this study. In addition, most of the respondents were from the Cape Town geographical area. The study was also limited in terms of the type of data collected. It was mainly based on Likert scale responses with a few open-ended questions. This limited on the amount and nature of information collected. The data collected could have lacked some important contextually reliant data.

## 8.8 FUTURE RESEARCH

Future studies on the impact of bureaucratic leadership and employee performance should take a broad approach with a larger scope. It is important to consider larger sample sizes to increase the power of any findings. Future studies should also appeal to a wider geographical area as well as engage a large number of organizations. It is also important for future studies to consider blended leadership styles where bureaucracy is blended with other styles of leadership such as democratic, autocratic, transformational and transactional. Another possible area of future research is the changes in bureaucratic leadership styles that are suitable for today's environment.

The present study observed that leadership practices and thought have been dynamic over the years and it is important to appreciate changes in bureaucratic leadership over the years and which changes are necessary for current times. In addition, the present business environment is characterized by a need to rebuild and remodel after the Covid-19 global pandemic as well as changes associated with the Fourth Industrial Revolution. It is important for future research to consider how bureaucratic leadership can play a role in rebuilding organizations affected by the Covid-19 pandemic as well as those affected by recent changes in technology.

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**APPENDIX: QUESTIONNAIRE**

**QUESTIONNAIRE**

**AN EVALUATION OF BUREAUCRATIC LEADERSHIP AS A PANACEA FOR EFFECTIVE PERFORMANCE AMONG SUBORDINATES**

**Dear Respondent:** This is an academic exercise investigating observations by subordinates on their organisation’s bureaucratic management style. You are one of more than a hundred other people to be interviewed, and the information you’ll provide will be one among many. **Please do not write** your name nor that of your organisation, to protect you and keep your response confidential we undertake to protect you by not giving this information to any one including your managers – you are protected.

**SECTION A – Biography**

**Please cross the applicable boxes below**

1. How old are you?

Less than 20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51+
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2. What is your position in the organisation? Please state in the space below.

Line manager	Administrator	Supervisor	Technician	Other
--------------	---------------	------------	------------	-------

3. If other, please specify.....

4. How long have you been working – total number of years working – employed?

0-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	16+ years
-----------	------------	-------------	-----------

5. How long have you been working for the government?

0-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	16+ years
-----------	------------	-------------	-----------

6. Who do you report to at work?

Director	Deputy director	Supervisor	Other
----------	-----------------	------------	-------

7. If other please explain .....

8. How are the decisions made / taken in your unit when there are problems?

We discuss	Follow policy	Refer senior management for policy	Other
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9. If other, please specify.....

10. Is there anything you want to say around your organisation’s working system?

- .....
- .....
- .....
- .....

## SECTION B Likert scale

The following statements are derived from the literature reviewed for this study. You are requested to rank the statements on a scale of 1-5, 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree.

		Strongly	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly
	<b>JOBS, TASKS &amp; POWERS DESCRIBED</b>	1	2	3	4	5
1	People's jobs and tasks must be clearly defined and followed	1	2	3	4	5
2	Powers must be clear for people not to override each other	1	2	3	4	5
3	People should not spend time looking at other peoples jobs	1	2	3	4	5
4	Good employees know and keep to their tasks only	1	2	3	4	5
5	Too much focus on one task makes performance poor	1	2	3	4	5
0	<b>WORK RULES AND PROCESSES BY MANAGEMENT</b>	1	2	3	4	5
6	Too many management layers assist in working efficiently	1	2	3	4	5
7	Every employee must abide by the rules of the company	1	2	3	4	5
8	Too many rules makes people to be on the wrong always	1	2	3	4	5
9	Managers must implement policies strictly to bring order	1	2	3	4	5
10	Too many rules demotivate employees who want to innovate	1	2	3	4	5
0	<b>CHAIN OF COMMAND AND EFFICIENCY</b>	1	2	3	4	5
11	The hierarchy is very essential in the running of organisations	1	2	3	4	5
12	Subordinates must respect the chain of command	1	2	3	4	5
13	Employees should never skip a manager to a higher manager	1	2	3	4	5
14	Every level of the hierarchy must be contacted in their order	1	2	3	4	5
15	These chains of command work against employee productivity	1	2	3	4	5
0	<b>DISTANCE - MANAGER &amp; SUBORDINATES.</b>	1	2	3	4	5
16	Subordinates should know that they can't be managers	1	2	3	4	5
17	Always there is a need to show the difference between levels	1	2	3	4	5
18	Managers are never wrong but may be misinformed	1	2	3	4	5
19	Managers are never late but may be delayed by someone	1	2	3	4	5
20	Good employees keep distance between them and the manager	1	2	3	4	5
0	<b>PROMOTIONS - PERFORMANCE AND AGE:</b>	1	2	3	4	5
21	It is proper to promote older people first before others	1	2	3	4	5
22	Older people always have more experience and insight	1	2	3	4	5
23	We should promote people according to performance	1	2	3	4	5
24	Education should be the criteria for promotion	1	2	3	4	5
25	People should be promoted based on the hierarchy in the firm	1	2	3	4	5
0	<b>EMPLOYEES – DECISION MAKING PROCESS</b>	1	2	3	4	5
26	Managers know better what every employee needs	1	2	3	4	5
27	Managers should make decisions because they are responsible	1	2	3	4	5
28	Employees should only be informed of management decision	1	2	3	4	5
29	Everyone in the organisation should make decisions	1	2	3	4	5
30	Employees should be consulted before making decisions	1	2	3	4	5
0	<b>RESPONSIVENESS -</b>	0	0	0	0	0
31	All submissions for material resources come timeously always	1	2	3	4	5
32	Our requests for meetings are quickly looked into without delay	1	2	3	4	5
33	The project leaders are always available to solve any problems	1	2	3	4	5
34	Conflicts resolution is inclusive and prompt for all the times	1	2	3	4	5
35	I have no problem with a manager that delays with responses	1	2	3	4	5

**SECTION C: OPEN-ENDED**

Please provide the requested information below – list as many as you can.

1. Please list 5 things you like most about organisations with bureaucratic structures where the reporting system is clearly outlined.

- .....
- .....
- .....
- .....

2. Please list 5 things you dislike most about organisations with bureaucratic structures where the reporting system is clearly outlined.

- .....
- .....
- .....
- .....
- .....

3. Discuss the communication / feedback processes in an organisation where there are many layers [managers] between you and senior management.

- .....
- .....
- .....
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4. State here anything you may consider important pertaining to this study on the impact of bureaucratic structures.

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**5. Anything else you may want to say – please write that in point form below**

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- .....

**6. State five things / advantages you see in the bureaucratic system you are in**

- .....
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- .....
- .....

**THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING IN THE SURVEY – YOU ARE PROTECTED**