

**THE INFLUENCE OF TRANSACTIONAL, TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP
ON LEADER-FOLLOWER VALUE CONGRUENCE
AND LEADERSHIP SUCCESS**

By

Anna Boonzaier

***THESIS PRESENTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR
THE DEGREE OF MASTERS OF COMMERCE (HUMAN RESOURCE
MANAGEMENT) AT THE STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY***



**ECONOMIC & MANAGEMENT SCIENCES
INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY
SUPERVISOR: PROF. A.S. ENGELBRECHT
DECEMBER 2008**

DECLARATION

I, Anna Boonzaier, hereby declare that the work contained in this thesis is my own original work, that I am the owner of the copyright thereof (unless to the extent explicitly otherwise stated) and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

Date: 25 November 2008

ABSTRACT

Effective leadership drives an organisation's members to achieve a common purpose. Leaders must influence followers to work together to achieve one vision. Successful leaders understand their own values and the values of their followers, in order to guide and direct behaviour. Shared values allow organisations to work together and act as one entity. Successful leaders instil a set of commonly held core values to ensure that followers are working towards the same goals.

The purpose of the study was to determine the influence of organisational leadership on leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. The aim of the study was to determine the relationship between transactional and transformational leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. Engelbrecht's (2002) model was used as a theoretical framework.

A literature study of leadership and leadership success, as well as values and value congruence in organisations was conducted. The relationship between these constructs was also analysed in the literature study.

The sample comprised of employees of a large petroleum company in the Western Cape. The sample consisted of 162 leaders and subordinates. The sample comprised of two subordinates for every leader. Each of the respondents completed Bass and Avolio's Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and Langley's Values Scale (VS). Both the MLQ and VS were found reliable for the purpose of the study.

The statistical analysis was conducted through correlation analyses. The results revealed that transactional and transformational leadership have a direct and positive influence on leadership success. Some support was found for the influence of transactional leadership and transformational leadership on leader-follower value congruence. The results also indicated some support for the influence of leader-follower value congruence on leadership success. Some support was found for the

proposition that leader-follower value congruence mediates the relationship between transactional leadership and leadership success.

Conclusions were drawn from the results obtained and recommendations for future research are made.

OPSOMMING

Effektiewe leierskap is die dryfveer wat 'n organisasie se lede 'n gemeenskaplike doel laat verwesenlik. Leiers moet volgelinge beïnvloed sodat hulle saamwerk om 'n gemeenskaplike visie te hê. Suksesvolle leiers verstaan hulle eie waardes, asook die waardes van hulle volgelinge, om optrede te kan bestuur en rigting te kan gee. Gedeelde waardes stel organisasies in staat om saam te werk en eenparig op te tree. Suksesvolle leiers inspireer volgelinge om 'n stel gemeenskaplike kernwaardes te hê sodat volgelinge dieselfde doelwitte nastreef.

Die doel van hierdie studie was om die ooreenstemmende invloed van organisatoriese leierskap op leier-volgeling waarde-kongruensie en leierskap-sukses te bepaal. Die oogmerk van die studie was om die verwantskap tussen transaksionele en transformasionele leierskap, leier-volgeling waarde-kongruensie en leierskap-sukses te bepaal. Engelbrecht (2002) se model is gebruik as teoretiese raamwerk.

'n Literatuurstudie van leierskap en leierskap-sukses, asook waardes en waarde-kongruensie in organisasies, is onderneem. Die verwantskap tussen hierdie konstrakte is ook in die literatuurstudie geanaliseer.

Die steekproef sluit in die werknemers van 'n groot oliemaatskappy in die Wes-Kaap. 162 leiers en ondergeskiktes was betrokke. Daar was twee ondergeskiktes vir elke leier. Elke respondent het Bass en Avolio se 'Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)' en 'Langley se Value Scale (VS)' voltooi. Sowel die MLQ en VS is as betroubaar bevind vir die doel van hierdie studie.

Die statistiese analise is deur middel van korrelasie-analises gedoen. Die resultate het getoon dat transaksionele leierskap wel 'n direkte en positiewe invloed op leierskap-sukses het. Daar blyk 'n mate van staving te wees, vir die invloed van transaksionele en transformasionele leierskap op leier-volgeling waarde-kongruensie. Die resultate het ook 'n mate van staving getoon vir die invloed van leier-volgeling waarde-kongruensie op

leierskap-sukses. Daar blyk verder 'n mate van staving te wees vir die proposisie dat leier-volgeling waarde-kongruensie bemiddelend was in die verwantskap tussen transaksionele leierskap en leierskap-sukses.

Gevolgtrekkings is gemaak op grond van die resultate wat verkry is en aanbevelings vir toekomstige navorsing word verskaf.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I hereby wish to express my gratitude to the following individuals who enabled this document to be completed.

Firstly, I would like to thank my study leader, Professor Amos Engelbrecht, for his guidance and support. The dedication he showed in assisting me to complete my thesis went beyond the call of duty. Thank you to Professor Martin Kidd for completing the statistical analyses, and assisting me when I needed help. To Tonya Barton, thank you for proof reading and editing my thesis. Your assistance is always much appreciated.

To my family, friends and colleagues; I appreciate your patience and support while I was completing the study. The kind words of encouragement helped me to complete the thesis.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	i
ABSTRACT	ii
OPSOMMING	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vi
LIST OF FIGURES	xi
LIST OF TABLES	xii

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1	Background to and Rationale for the study	1
1.1	Background to the study	1
1.2	Rationale for the study	3
1.3	Problem Statement	4
1.4	Objective and Aims of the study	7
1.5	Layout of Chapters	7

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE STUDY

2.1	Introduction	9
2.2	Leadership and Leadership Success	9
2.2.1	Transformational-Transactional Leadership Theory	12
2.2.1.1	Transactional Leadership	13
2.2.1.2	Transformational Leadership	16
2.3	Personal Values	20
2.3.1	Work Values	24
2.3.2	Value Congruence	28
2.4	The Relationship between Leadership, Leader-Follower Value Congruence and Leadership Success	31
2.4.1	Leadership and Leader-Follower Value Congruence	32

2.4.2	Leader-Follower Value Congruence and Leadership Success.....	36
2.4.3	Leadership and Leadership Success.....	39
2.5	Conclusion.....	44

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1	Introduction.....	46
3.2	Research Method.....	46
3.3	Hypotheses.....	48
3.4	Measuring Instruments.....	48
3.4.1	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire.....	49
3.4.2	South African Values Scale.....	52
3.5	Calculation of Leader-Follower Value Congruence.....	55
3.6	Sampling Design and Procedure.....	57
3.6.1	Sampling Technique.....	57
3.6.2	Sample Size.....	58
3.7	Data Collection.....	59
3.8	Data Preparation.....	59
3.9	Data Analysis.....	60
3.10	Ethical Considerations.....	63
3.11	Conclusion.....	64

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH RESULTS

4.1	Introduction.....	65
4.2	Missing Values.....	65
4.3	Reliability Results.....	66
4.4	Hypothesis Testing.....	83
4.4.1	The Relationship between Transactional Leadership and Leader-Follower Value Congruence.....	84

4.4.2	The Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Leader-Follower Value Congruence.....	89
4.4.3	The Relationship between Leader-Follower Value Congruence and Leadership Success.....	93
4.4.4	The Mediating Effect of Value Congruence on Transactional Leadership and Leadership Success.....	105
4.4.5	The Mediating Effect of Value Congruence on Transformational Leadership and Leadership Success.....	107
4.4.6.	The Relationship between Transactional Leadership and Leadership Success.....	109
4.4.7	The Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Leadership Success.....	112
4.5	Conclusion.....	116

CHAPTER 5: GENERAL CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

5.1	Introduction.....	119
5.2	General Conclusions of the study.....	119
5.2.1	Reliability Analysis.....	120
5.2.2	Hypotheses of the study.....	120
5.2.2.1	The Relationship between Transactional Leadership and Leader-follower Value Congruence.....	121
5.2.2.2	The Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Leader-follower Value Congruence.....	123
5.2.2.3	The Relationship between Leader-Follower Value Congruence and Leadership Success.....	125
5.2.2.4	The Mediating Effect of Leader-Follower Value Congruence on Transactional Leadership and Leadership Success.....	127
5.2.2.5	The Mediating Effect of Leader-follower Value Congruence on Transformational Leadership and Leadership Success.....	129

5.2.2.6	The Relationship between Transactional Leadership and Leadership Success.....	130
5.2.2.7	The Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Leadership Success.....	131
5.3	Shortcomings of the study.....	133
5.4	Relevance of the study.....	136
5.5	Recommendations for future research.....	138
5.6	Conclusion.....	140
	REFERENCES.....	142

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1:	The Structure of Personal Values.....	22
Figure 2:	Model of the influence of Transactional and Transformational Leadership Styles on Leader-Follower Value Congruence and Leadership Success.....	33

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1:	Factors of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5R).....	50
Table 3.2:	The South African Values Scale (VS) dimensions and definitions.....	53
Table 3.3	Descriptive Statistics of the study.....	58
Table 4.1	Reliability of Transactional Leadership (N=162).....	66
Table 4.2	Reliability of Transformational Leadership (N=162).....	68
Table 4.3	Reliability of Leadership success dimensions (N = 162).....	69
Table 4.4	Reliability of Ability Utilization in the Value Scale (N=162).....	71
Table 4.5	Reliability of Achievement in the Value Scale (N = 162).....	71
Table 4.6	Reliability of Advancement in the Value Scale (N = 162).....	72
Table 4.7	Reliability of Aesthetics in the Value Scale (N = 162).....	72
Table 4.8	Reliability of Altruism in the Value Scale (N = 162).....	73
Table 4.9	Reliability of Authority in the Value Scale (N = 162).....	73
Table 4.10	Reliability of Autonomy in the Value Scale (N = 162).....	74
Table 4.11	Adapted Reliability of Autonomy in the Value Scale (N=162)....	75
Table 4.12	Reliability of Creativity in the Value Scale (N = 162).....	75
Table 4.13	Reliability of Cultural Identity in the Value Scale (N = 162).....	76
Table 4.14	Reliability of Economic Rewards in the Value Scale (N = 162)..	76
Table 4.15	Reliability of Economic Security in the Value Scale (N = 162)...	77
Table 4.16	Reliability of Life Style in the Value Scale (N = 162).....	77
Table 4.17	Reliability of Personal Development in the Value Scale (N = 162).....	78
Table 4.18	Reliability of Physical Activities in the Value Scale (N = 162)...	78
Table 4.19	Reliability of Physical Prowess in the Value Scale (N = 162)...	79
Table 4.20	Reliability of Prestige in the Value Scale (N = 162).....	79
Table 4.21	Reliability of Risk in the Value Scale (N = 162).....	80
Table 4.22	Reliability of Social Interaction in the Value Scale (N = 162)....	80
Table 4.23	Reliability of Social Relations in the Value Scale (N = 162).....	81

Table 4.24	Reliability of Spirituality in the Value Scale (N = 162).....	81
Table 4.25	Reliability of Variety in the Value Scale (N = 162).....	82
Table 4.26	Reliability of Working Conditions in the Value Scale (N = 162).	82
Table 4.27	Guilford's Interpretation of the significance of r	83
Table 4.28	The Relationship between Transactional Leadership (Leader Rating) and Leader-Follower Value Congruence (N=54).....	85
Table 4.29	The Relationship between Transactional Leadership (Follower Rating) and Leader-Follower Value Congruence (N = 54).....	87
Table 4.30	The Relationship between Transformational Leadership (Leader Rating) and Leader-Follower Value Congruence (N=54).....	90
Table 4.31	The Relationship between Transformational Leadership (Follower Rating) and Leader-Follower Value Congruence and Extra Effort (Leader Rating).....	92
Table 4.32	The Relationship between Leader-Follower Value Congruence and Extra Effort (Leader Rating).....	95
Table 4.33	The Relationship between Leader-Follower Value Congruence and Extra Effort (Follower Rating).....	97
Table 4.34	The Relationship between Leader-Follower Value Congruence and Satisfaction with the Leader (Leader Rating).....	99
Table 4.35	The Relationship between Leader-Follower Value Congruence and Satisfaction with the Leader (Follower Rating).....	100
Table 4.36	The Relationship between Leader-Follower Value Congruence and Leader Effectiveness (Leader Rating).....	102
Table 4.37	The Relationship between Leader-Follower Value Congruence and Leader Effectiveness (Follower Rating).....	103
Table 4.38	The Relationship between Transactional Leadership (Leader Rating) and Leadership Success.....	109
Table 4.39	The Relationship between Transactional Leadership (Follower Rating) and Leadership Success.....	110
Table 4.40	The Relationship between Transformational Leadership (Leader Rating) and Leadership Success.....	113

Table 4.41	The Relationship between Transformational Leadership (Follower Rating) and Leadership Success.....	115
-------------------	---	------------

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1. Background to and Rationale for the study

1.1. Background to the study

All organisations operate with a purpose. The desire to achieve this purpose effectively and efficiently creates the need for leadership (Kanungo, 2001). The rapidly changing business environment makes leadership in organisations more important than ever before (Bass, Avolio, Jung & Berson, 2003; Krishnan, 2005). Leaders are the drivers of change and are therefore responsible for organisational success in a changing environment (Naidu & van der Walt, 2005). It is the leaders of the organisation who must ensure that all employees are working towards the achievement of the same goals. A dynamic and flexible environment creates a need for good managers that can play an important leadership role in the organisation (Brewster, Carey, Dowling, Grobler, Holland & Wörnich, 2003). To be able to cope, managers must follow a leadership style that will enable organisations to reach their highest levels of accomplishment.

Leadership involves a relationship between a leader and followers in a particular situation. To be effective, leaders must be aware of, and be able to manage, the dynamics of the leader-follower relationship (Beckhard, 1996; Brewster et al., 2003). According to Charlton and Spangenberg (in Grobler, Wörnich, Carrell, Elbert, & Hatfield, 2002) the average South African business leader is out of touch with his/her followers. Because employees are central to the organisation's operations and success it is imperative that there is a fit between the parties involved in the employment relationship. Values are one variable in the employment relationship that can improve such a fit (Swanepoel, Erasmus, Van Wyk, & Schenk, 2003).

Individuals possess values in all areas of their lives. Those linked to the work context are referred to as work values. According to Meglino, Ravlin and Adkins (1991) work values aid in understanding and predicting the reactions and performance of individuals at work. Work

values operate in two distinct ways; firstly, they impact on employee's perceptions, affect and behaviour and, secondly, values impact individual influence through value congruence. Values act as guiding standards that determine the choices people make, and these choices affect their behaviour (Russell, 2001). Values are important when considering leadership, as they explain the focus and direction of individual actions (Fernandez & Hogan, 2002). Values help leaders determine their own actions and can assist in explaining the actions of followers. Values can play an important role in understanding job satisfaction and the emotions individuals' exhibit at work (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987). Work values influence various outcomes through value congruence. Value congruence is the degree to which individual values are similar (Meglino et al., 1991). Individuals are influenced and affected by others if they believe they share their own values. Value congruence is said to be the mechanism that affects organisational outcomes (Kalliath, Bluedorn & Strube, 1999).

McDonald and Gandz (1992) state that shared values have become a competitive advantage in organisations. The process of involving the organisation's members into an integrated whole, capable of meeting the challenges and goals of the future is especially relevant for the South African situation (De Bruyn, 1992). Although employees are responsible for achieving organisational objectives, it is the leader who is ultimately accountable for providing direction and high performance standards for their employees to follow (Spangenberg & Theron, 2004). Leaders use their own values to guide their behaviour and through their values they guide the rest of the employees to achieve the organisation's goals.

Low productivity levels, an uncertain environment, diversity in the workforce and a changing workforce are all characteristics of South African organisations (De Bruyn, 1992). Diversity still remains an issue in South Africa. Shared values can act as the glue that binds individuals together towards a common purpose. Shared values can lead to group cohesion, which can lower interpersonal conflict (Dose & Klimoski, 1999). Value congruence is said to increase productivity, profitability, retention, pride, creativity and resilience (Yates, 2005). Employee satisfaction and commitment have also been proven to be highly related to value congruence (Krishnan, 2005). Heskett and Schlesinger (in Sarros

& Santora, 2001) believe that at the heart of leadership lies the rediscovery of the need to define, shape, and use the commonly held core values of the organisation and its employees. Research surrounding leader and follower values is therefore important in understanding modern leadership practices.

Shared core values between leaders and followers seem to distinguish between successful and unsuccessful organisations. To explore this issue further the study examines leadership, values and value congruence, particularly in the South African context.

1.2 Rationale for the study

The study, as shown below, focuses on the influence of leadership and leader-follower value congruence on leadership success.

The main aim of leadership is to influence organisational members to act in ways that help the organisation achieve its purpose (Kanungo, 2001). The analysis of leader behaviour in organisations and the influence leaders have on followers has led to the identification of two leadership styles: transactional and transformational (Bass, 1997; Burns, 1978). Leaders can display at varying degrees both leadership styles which can complement each other (Brewster et al., 2002; Parry, 1998). According to Parry (1998) transactional leadership is a managerial competency and transformational leadership adds to this by making managers effective as leaders. In order to be successful, managers must be able to assess the organisational situation and respond with the right combination of transactional and transformational leadership (Brewster et al., 2003; Grobler et al., 2002).

According to Engelbrecht (2002) the real relevance in analysing the work values of leaders is to determine the outcomes of leader-follower value congruence. Value congruence allows the leader to move toward achieving the goal of the organisation knowing that the followers are behind him/her (Yates, 2005). Leaders do not act in isolation; rather they require followers to help them achieve the organisation's goals. Transactional leaders set performance goals and standards for followers in exchange for valued outcomes (Bass,

1997). This exchange is based on the current values and motivations of both the leader and the followers (Krishnan, 2004). The leader sets the pace that followers should follow (Naidu & Van Der Walt, 2005).

According to Krishnan (2004) value congruence between a leader and follower could be the uniqueness of the construct of transformational leadership. Transformational leaders add to transactional leadership by creating a vision that represents both the leader's and follower's motivations (Burns, 1978). Goals that started separately become fused through the strong emotional bonds between the leader and follower (Burns, 1978). Leader-follower value congruence forms the strategic and moral foundation of authentic transformational leadership (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999).

Yates (2005) believes that values are central to successful leadership. A leader must build an organisation of shared values in order for employees to come together and act as one entity (Kouzes & Posner, 1996). Successful leaders tap into their followers' core values and ensure that everyone is working towards a common goal (Fernandez & Hogan, 2002). Leadership success can only be achieved when the factors that affect successful leadership are understood. One must examine such behaviour in order to determine whether a leader is successful. Values form the basis for individual action and behaviour. It is therefore critical to look into the effect of individual values, in particular the leader's and followers' values, when determining leadership success.

1.3 Problem Statement

The study of leadership has been a focal point in social sciences for nearly a century (Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). Over the past 20 years a substantial body of research has been based on transactional and transformational leadership, focusing mainly on transformational leadership (Piccolo, 2004; Kanungo, 2001). Many studies have been conducted in order to confirm the reliability and validity of transactional and transformational leadership styles as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1999; Carless, 1998; Den Hartog, Van Muijen & Koopman, 1997; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Odentunde,

2005). Transactional and transformational leadership have been related to organisational outcomes and to employee behaviour and attitudes (Bass, Avolio, Jung & Berson, 2003; Mester, Visser, Roodt & Kellerman, 2003; Vishalli & Mohit, 2004). Furthermore, their effectiveness has also been studied (Berson & Linton, 2005; Hater & Bass, 1988; Homrig, 2003; Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Brommer, 1996; Spinelli, 2006).

Values have been the focus of many studies in organisational behaviour and human resources research (Knoppen, Dolan, Diez-Pinol & Bell, 2006; Ravlin & Meglino, 1989). The values of managers and employees in organisations have been of interest to researchers, practitioners, social critics, and the general public (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998). Specifically, there has been a growing interest in analysing the work values of organisational members (De Bruyn, 1992; Dose, 1997; Elizur, 1984; Elizur, Borg, Hunt & Beck, 1991; Judge & Bretz, 1992; Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss, 1999; Sagie, Elizur & Koslowsky, 1996). Work values have been related to job satisfaction (Brown, 2002; Knoop, 1993; Knoop, 1994), job choice (Judge & Bretz, 1992; Ravlin & Meglino, 1987) and organisational commitment (Putti, Aryee & Liang, 1989).

Although both leadership and value research have received much separate attention, there have been few attempts to integrate the effects of leadership and values. Some studies have aimed at discovering the link between leadership and values (Fenandez & Hogan, 2002; Sarros & Santora, 2001; Yates, 2005). Leadership and ethical values have been a topic of research in past years (Engelbrecht, Van Aswegen & Theron, 2005; Kanungo, 2001; Spangenberg & Theron, 2004). Studies have also focused on the specific values that transactional and transformational leaders possess (Engelbrecht, 2001; Krishnan, 2001)

Value congruence is a central theme in a number of areas of organisational practice and research. Value congruence has become an important area of study in recent years (Knoppen, Dolan, Diez-Pinol & Bell, 2006; Schwegker, 1999). This is primarily because values are relatively enduring and describe characteristics of individuals and organisations that remain relatively stable over time (Klenke, 2005). A review of the literature on value congruence indicated that the bulk of research is dedicated to the person-organisation fit

(Posner, 1992; Sagnak, 2005; Schwepker, 1999) and organisational culture (McDonald, & Gandz, 1992; Meglino, Ravlin & Adkins, 1989) rather than the congruence between leader and follower values.

A review of the literature on leadership and values revealed that there is a gap when it comes to transactional, transformational leadership styles and leader-follower value congruence. There has been little research in the integration of leadership, value congruence and leadership success (Engelbrecht, Van Aswegen & Theron, 2005). This is especially evident in South African research. However, research relating to leader-follower value congruence, although minor, has shown some positive findings. Meglino, Ravlin and Adkins (1989) found that followers were more satisfied with their leader when their values were congruent with their supervisor's while Meglino et al. (1991) found that leader-follower value congruence was associated with greater employee satisfaction with the leader.

Krishnan (2005) found that transformational leadership enhanced leader-follower value congruence, while Krishnan (2005) found that the effect of transformational leadership on value congruence was moderated by the duration of the relationship between the leader and follower. Jung and Avolio (2000) studied the effects of transactional and transformational leadership and the mediating effects of trust and value congruence on employee performance and found that value congruence mediated the effect of transformational leadership on employee performance. According to Engelbrecht (2002) literature on both leadership and work values lack a theoretical framework on how leadership and value congruence should be combined.

The researcher began to investigate the role value congruence played in leadership and leadership success, after taking the research regarding leadership and leadership success and the literature pertaining to values and value congruence into consideration. The study served to close the gap between the theoretical, conceptual and empirical arguments surrounding the influence of leadership on leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. The research question thus formulated was: what influence does organisational leadership have on leader-follower value congruence and leadership success?

1.4 Objective and Aims of the study

The purpose of the study was to determine the influence of leadership on leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. Engelbrecht (2002) proposed a theoretical model of the influence of leadership on value congruence and leadership success. The objective of the study was to use Engelbrecht's (2002) model as a theoretical framework to determine the influence of leadership on leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. The main aim of the study was to determine whether leader-follower value congruence in transactional and transformational leaders related to leadership success. Another aim of the study was to determine the effectiveness or success of transactional and transformational leadership.

A review of the literature concerning the main topics of the study led to the development of the hypothesised relationships between transactional leadership and leader-follower value congruence; transformational leadership and leader-follower value congruence; leader-follower value congruence and leadership success; transactional leadership and leadership success; and transformational leadership and leadership success.

1.5 Layout of Chapters

The literature study follows in Chapter 2, where the main concepts of the study are discussed in detail. The literature includes three sections, namely, leadership, values and the relationships between leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. Leadership is discussed in terms of Bass's transactional-transformational leadership theory. The section on values provides a definition, classification and structure of personal values. Work values are then discussed, which leads to the section on leader-follower value congruence. The last section of the literature incorporates Engelbrecht's (2002) model of the relationships between leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success.

Chapter 3 outlines the research method. The research design of the study is discussed. This includes the key concepts and variables of the study. The hypotheses and sample information of the study are provided. The measuring instruments used in the study are discussed. The manner in which the data were collected, prepared, and analysed is presented. Ethical considerations of the research are highlighted.

The main findings of the study are presented in the fourth chapter. The reliability coefficients of the measuring instruments are provided. The results of the tested hypotheses are discussed and outlined in the relevant tables. The method used to test each hypothesis is specified.

The final chapter, Chapter 5, discusses the main findings of the study. General conclusions of the research are provided. The shortcomings of the study are given and recommendations for future research are discussed.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE STUDY
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP, VALUE CONGRUENCE AND
LEADERSHIP SUCCESS

2.1 Introduction

The study aims to determine the relationship between organisational leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. In order to gain a clear understanding of this relationship, each variable must be discussed. The literature includes three sections, namely, leadership, values, and the relationship between leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success.

The leadership section includes leadership definitions, leadership success and Bass's transactional-transformational leadership theory. The literature on the leadership theory provides a detailed description of transactional and transformational leadership. The section on values provides a definition, classification and structure of personal values. Work values are then discussed, followed by a section on leader-follower value congruence. The last section of the literature incorporates Engelbrecht's (2002) model of the relationship between leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. The model is explained in detail and each hypothesis of the study is substantiated theoretically.

2.2 Leadership and Leadership Success

There is no single agreed-upon definition of leadership (Bass, 1990; Laka-Mathebula, 2004; Naidu & Van der Walt, 2005; Yukl, 2006). Leadership has been classified in terms of individual traits, personality, leader behaviour, interaction patterns, role relationships, follower perceptions, inducing compliance, persuasion, a power relation, influence over followers, influence on task goals, influence on organisational culture, and a combination of these definitions (Bass, 1990; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). The main differences in the definitions of leadership include differences in who exerts influence, why influence is attempted and how it is

exerted (Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). What the definitions do have in common is that leadership involves “the intentional influence exerted by one person over others to guide, structure and facilitate activities in a group or organisation“ (Yukl, 2006, P. 8).

Burns (1978) described leadership as the process of developing interrelationships where leaders influence their followers and modify their behaviour according to follower’s resistance or responsiveness. Yukl (2006, p. 8) defined leadership as “the process of influencing others to understand and agree upon what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish and achieve common objectives”. Bass’s (1990) definition described leadership as “the interaction between two or more members of a group that involves the structuring or restructuring of a situation, and the perceptions and expectations of members (p. 19)”. Yukl and Van Fleet (1992) defined leadership broadly as a process that includes influencing the objectives and strategies of a group or organisation; influencing members of an organisation to implement strategies and achieve objectives; influencing group maintenance and identification; and influencing the organisation’s culture. Yates (2005) provides a framework of activities against which leaders can evaluate themselves. Leadership involves having followers and requires value congruence between the leader and followers. It is an organisational process which involves successfully dealing with complex tasks and change (Yates, 2005).

The business environment is constantly changing, which makes leadership increasingly important (Krishnan, 2005). Leaders are the initiators, implementers and evaluators of change (Naidu & van der Walt, 2005). According to Vishalli and Mohit (2004) the main challenge for leaders is not only to cope with change but also to change the competencies of their followers. An integral part of improving an organisation’s leadership is to identify the individuals who have the capability to be successful leaders at all levels (Spinelli, 2006).

Densten (2003) describes leadership success according to four statements. These are, firstly, leadership success is a function of the followers’ satisfaction with the job behaviours and activities of the leader as well as with the leader’s reputation; secondly, leadership success is influenced by the leader’s management of his/her impression and image; thirdly, leadership

success is moderated by the followers' dependence on the leader to provide direction and resources; and finally, leadership success is moderated by the leader's dependence on followers to complete activities in order for success to be achieved.

Yukl (2006) defines leadership success according to the effect of the leader's actions on the followers and/or the organisation's stakeholders. These outcomes can include performance and growth of the group or organisation; the group's ability to deal with change and crises; follower commitment to the group's objectives; commitment to the organisation; organisational citizenship; the psychological well-being and development of followers; the leader's retention of high status in the group; the leader's advancement to higher positions in the organisation; and follower satisfaction with the leader. The most common measure of leadership success is the degree to which the leader's followers perform their tasks successfully and achieves their goals (Yukl, 2006; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). Examples include sales increases, market share, net profit and profit margins (Yukl, 2006).

The attitude of the followers towards the leader is also an indicator of leadership success (Yukl, 2006). Leadership style is an important consideration as it influences employee attitudes and behaviour (Mester, Visser, Roodt & Kellerman, 2003). Laka-Mathebula (2004) describes leadership style as the manner in which a leader interacts with others. Leaders must pay attention to how their followers perceive their effectiveness (Densten, 2003). The followers' assessment of their leader relates to the confidence they have in their leader. In turn the leader's confidence is a key attribute in leadership success, as it fosters respect, admiration, commitment and confidence in the followers. Close attention must therefore be given to the ongoing process of the followers' evaluations of their leader (Densten, 2003).

The importance of the leader as opposed to the follower in the accomplishment of the organisation's mission has been the basis of many leadership theories (Mester et al., 2003). To be effective, the leader must influence and have an impact on his/her followers. Leaders must be aware of, and be able to, manage the dynamics of the leader-follower relationship (Beckhard, 1996; Brewster et al., 2003). Many leadership theories have been developed to predict the effect that leaders' behaviours have on followers; as well as investigate and

understand leaders' behaviours that increase effectiveness. The one theory that attempts to create a better understanding of these concepts is Transformational-transactional leadership theory (Bass et al., 2003; Kanungo, 2001; Mester et al., 2003; Odentunde, 2005; Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Brommer, 1996).

2.2.1 Transformational-Transactional Leadership Theory

Burns (1978) introduced the paradigm of the transformational leader as opposed to the transactional leader in a political setting. He defined leadership as "stimulating followers to reach certain goals that represent the values and motivations held by the leader and follower". (Homrig, 2003: www.leadership.au.af.mil). Leaders were viewed as either transactional or transformational and could involve anyone in an organisation in any position (Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). Burns differentiated between transactional and transformational leaders in terms of what they could offer one another (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Transactional leaders motivated followers through exchanges that appealed to followers' self-interests. Transformational leaders raised followers to become their 'better selves' by transcending short term goals and appealing to their higher order needs (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992).

Bass (1985) built on and modified Burns' (1978) work and developed a more detailed theory of leadership. Bass developed a model of a full range of leadership styles ranging from non-transactional (*laissez-faire*) to transactional and transformational (Beukman, 2005). According to Bass and Avolio (1994) all leaders display transactional, transformational and *laissez-faire* leadership styles to some degree. The essence of Bass's theory is that leadership was defined in terms of the leader behaviours used to influence followers and the effects the behaviour had on followers (Yukl, 2006). The focus is on the differences between transactional and transformational approaches and how these leadership styles influence follower behaviour and organisational effectiveness (Beukman, 2005). Transactional and transformational leaders are conceptualised as two distinct leadership styles that could be displayed by the same leader (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Madzar, 2001; Yukl, 2006). Transformational leadership is defined in terms of the leader's influence on the followers and transactional leadership is defined as the use of incentives to influence effort as well as the clarification of work goals (Bass, 1997; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). Bass proposed that transformational leadership expands on transactional

leadership through the efforts, satisfaction and effectiveness of followers (Bass, 1985; Bass, 1990). Today, research on leadership identifies transactional and transformational leadership as the two most dominant leadership styles (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Naidu & Van der Walt, 2005).

2.2.1.1 Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership is based on an exchange between the leader and the followers, where followers receive valued outcomes when they act in accordance with the leader's performance expectations (Den Hartog, Van Muijen & Koopman, 1997; Odentunde, 2005; Mester et al., 2003). There is an exchange of rewards or punishment from the leader to the followers for the work performed, and in exchange the leader expects effort, productivity and loyalty (Laka-Mathebula, 2004; Naidu & Van der Walt, 2005). The leader and the followers must agree, accept and comply with the terms and provisions of the exchange of rewards for the work performed (Bass, Avolio, Jung & Berson, 2003; Beukman, 2005). The exchange forms the foundation of the leader-follower relationship (Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999), and only lasts as long as the exchange remains mutually satisfying for both parties (Brewster et al., 2003; Vishalli & Mohit, 2004).

The leader focuses on task completion and compliance. Methods, techniques and mechanisms rather than the purpose of the tasks are stressed (Kanungo, 2001). Role expectations, assignments and task-oriented goals are clarified. The leader clarifies what is expected of followers regarding performance standards. Rewards in exchange for performance are also clarified (Mester et al., 2003; Naidu & Van der Walt, 2005). Follower behaviour is rewarded or punished based on the sufficiency of performance (Beukman, 2005). Followers learn how they must perform in order to receive rewards or avoid punishment. Therefore, transactional leadership fits well in an organisation with a reinforcement strategy (Waldman, Bass & Einstein, 1987). The reinforcement can be materialistic or symbolic, immediate or delayed, partial or whole, and in the form of rewards or resources (Bass, 1997). The leader focuses his/her attention on routine organisational activities such as allocating resources, rewards and incentives; monitoring and regulating followers to achieve tasks and organisational goals; as

well as on taking corrective action to avoid future mistakes (Kanungo, 2001; Naidu & Van der Walt, 2005). Performance appraisals, performance-related pay, job descriptions, management-by-objectives, and job grading are recognised processes used by transactional leaders (Vishalli & Mohit, 2004).

The transactional leader takes on a traditional bureaucratic authority and legitimacy role (Naidu & Van der Walt, 2005). Thus this leader, in order to fulfil his/her own self interests, uses control strategies, in the form of valued outcomes, to get followers to behave in the preferred manner (Kanungo, 2001). The leader's power stems from his/her ability to provide rewards (Bass, 1997; Naidu & Van der Walt, 2005). The use of rewards, sanctions, authority and position of power to display the desired commitment and loyalty to the organisation influence followers (Kanungo, 2001). Transactional leaders motivate followers through setting goals and providing rewards on the achievement of these goals (Beukman, 2005; Yammarino & Bass, 1990). The motivation to work provides direction and energises followers to reach the agreed upon objectives (Yammarino & Bass, 1990). The leader must rely on his/her behaviour to keep the followers content when their work and working environment do not direct, satisfy and motivate (Den Hartog et al., 1997; Mester et al., 2003).

The original formulation of Bass's (1985) leadership theory included two dimensions of transactional leadership, these being contingent reward and passive management-by-exception (Yukl, 2006). Current literature on the theory now includes three dimensions, namely contingent reward, active management-by-exception and passive management-by-exception (Mester et al., 2003; Yukl, 2006). Contingent reward represents proactive leadership behaviour that clarifies the link between the employee's reward and effort through the process of negotiation (Densten, 2003; Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999; Yammarino & Bass, 1990). It describes the work-for-pay agreement in the employment relationship. There is an agreement about what must be done and what rewards followers will receive if they honour the agreement (Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1999; Berson & Linton, 2005). Employees are told what tasks they must complete and how to complete them in order to receive a reward upon the correct completion of the tasks (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bass et al., 2003; Den Hartog et al., 1997; Odentunde, 2005). The leader makes use of incentives, contingent rewards, promises, praise or

punishment to motivate followers to achieve performance levels (Mester et al., 2003; Yukl, 2006). The leader clarifies expectations; exchanges promises and resources for support; arranges mutual satisfying agreements; negotiates resources; exchanges assistance for performance; and provides rewards for successful performance (Bass, 1997). In essence, contingent reward facilitates what followers do, the amount of effort they put into their work, and the rewards they receive for their performance (Beukman, 2005).

Management-by-exception (active and passive) describes how leaders react to their followers' errors (Odentunde, 2005). A corrective transaction where leaders stress the mistakes that followers should avoid is applied (Berson & Linton, 2005). Leaders monitor subordinate behaviour and take corrective action when followers fail to meet performance standards (Bass, 1994; Laka-Mathebula, 2004). The leader works according to the rule, 'if it isn't broken, don't fix it'. If the performance goals are met, no changes are made (Den Hartog et al., 1997; Madzar, 2001). Active management-by-exception is characterised by the leader specifying the standards of compliance, identifying ineffective performance, monitoring the performance of followers, and taking corrective action when problems arise and irregularities occur (Bass et al., 2003; Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999; Mester et al., 2003). The leader checks for errors in performance that have or might arise and takes corrective action to avoid future mistakes (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Beukman, 2005; Yukl, 2006). In passive management-by-exception, the leader waits for problems to occur before taking corrective action such as negative feedback and reproach (Bass et al., 2003; Beukman, 2005; Laka-Mathebula, 2004; Mester et al., 2003). Passive management-by-exception is closely associated with traditional, bureaucratic and authoritarian leadership (Densten, 2003). Conditional punishments and other corrective action are used to rectify deviations from performance standards (Yukl, 2006). Passive management-by-exception is also characterised by the leader avoiding decision making (Avolio et al., 1999). The difference between active and passive management-by-exception lies in the timing of the leader's response to mistakes (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). In active management-by-exception the leader searches for errors, whereas in passive management-by-exception the leader waits for errors to occur (Den Hartog et al., 1997). According to Bass and Avolio (1994) management-by-exception is less effective than contingent reward but is necessary in certain instances.

A manager is often viewed as a transactional leader who analyses followers' lower order needs and aims to keep the organisation at the status quo (Odentunde, 2005). Transactional leadership is seen as a major contributor to leadership success where many complex tasks must be completed (Bass et al., 2003). Just as transactional leadership can be effective, it can also be ineffective. The leader may not be in a position to provide the expected rewards due to a lack of organisational resources, ineffective appraisal systems, and time pressures. The leader may lack the skills needed to effectively utilise positive reinforcement (Yammarino & Bass, 1990). Bass (1985) states that transactional leadership can limit followers' efforts toward reaching organisational goals and job satisfaction. Transactional leadership can produce the required performance outcome, but enthusiasm and commitment to task activities is not likely (Yukl, 2006). A leader that motivates followers to perform beyond their goals and expectations is needed. Transformational leadership is said to enhance the impact of transactional leadership on follower outcome variables by increasing trust, respect and motivation among the leader and followers (Odentunde, 2005; Podsakoff et al., 1996).

2.2.1.2 Transformational Leadership

According to Bass et al. (2003) the rapid rate of change in all organisations is calling for more adaptable and flexible leadership. The leader must be able to make sense of the challenges faced by both the leader and his/her followers. The type of leadership style needed is transformational. Transformational leadership tends to emerge during crises or social change (Madzar, 2001). 'Transformational leadership energizes groups to persist in unpredictable, difficult and stressful environments' (Bass et al., 2003, p. 216). Transformational leaders direct their followers toward the future and create organisational cultures of creative change and growth (Beukman, 2005).

In transactional leadership the leader motivates the followers to perform according to standards and expectations while transformational leadership inspires followers to exceed their own expectations for the good of the company (Den Hartog et al., 1997; Mester et al., 2003; Podsakoff et al., 1996; Naidu & Van der Walt, 2005). Transformational leaders develop strong emotional bonds with their followers through the use of individual attention, vision and inspiration (Beukman, 2005). Transformational leaders energise and enlighten followers to

deliver their best efforts and ideas for organisational objectives (Vishalli & Mohit, 2004). This is achieved through increasing followers' confidence in achieving current goals and directing followers to achieve higher levels of accomplishment (Waldman et al., 1987).

According to Burns (197, p. 20) transformational leadership occurs 'when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that the leader and followers raise themselves to higher levels of motivation and morality'. Bass described transformational leadership in terms of the degree to which the leader could influence followers (Krishnan, 2005). According to Bass and Avolio (1994) transformational leadership occurs when the leader motivates followers to view their work from different angles, creates awareness among followers of the vision for the group and organisation, develops followers to higher levels of abilities and potential, and inspires followers to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the group or organisation. It is about recognising the value of individuals, networks and relationships; while providing energy and inspiration to followers in order to achieve the organisation's objectives (Vishalli & Mohit, 2004).

The main aim of the transformational leader is to develop and express a vision that articulates the organisation's mission and lays the foundation for the organisation's strategies, policies and procedures (Kanungo, 2001). Another aim is to develop the needs of followers to become aligned with the goals of the leader (Madzar, 2001). The transformational leader appeals to followers' higher order ideals and values such as liberty, justice, equality, peace and humanitarianism (Densten, 2003). Influencing strategies are used to empower followers and help them reach their higher order growth needs, while changing their values, norms and attitudes to be consistent with the leader's vision. An environment is created where the followers can decide for themselves whether to commit to the vision (Kanungo, 2001). The influencing strategies used by the leader are considered ethical as the focus is on empowering followers. Empowering strategies used by transformational leaders include modelling ideal behaviours, being confident in followers' abilities, and providing verbal support to followers (Kanungo, 2001).

The transformational leader-follower relationship is one of mutual stimulation (Odentunde, 2005; Madzar, 2001). The relationship goes beyond the self-interest exchange of work for pay (Den Hartog et al., 1997). Transformational leaders direct, inspire, and serve as examples in

order to develop their followers to their full potential, while solving problems and performing at higher standards for the organisation (Beukman, 2005). The leader transforms and motivates his/her followers by making them aware of the value and importance of task outcomes; encouraging them to go beyond their own self-interest for the good of the group or organisation; and stimulating their higher order needs (Laka-Mathebula, 2004; Yammarino & Bass, 1990; Yukl, 2006; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). The leader's transforming influence results in followers feeling trust and respect toward the leader and being motivated to go beyond expectations (Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992).

Transformational leaders increase performance levels by influencing followers' values, goals and higher order needs to meet the group's mission. Followers are challenged to think in new ways, inspired to accomplish goals which were previously out of reach, and motivated to keep values and moral standards in mind when performing (Bass et al., 2003). Followers trust, admire, and show loyalty and commitment toward their leader and organisation as they are motivated to do more than they originally thought they could (Yukl, 2006). Followers identify with the organisation's values, mission and vision, which allows for the organisations culture to be changed (Bass et al., 2003; Krishnan, 2005; Mester et al., 2003; Odentunde, 2005; Podsakoff et al., 1996).

The original theory of transformational leadership included three dimensions. These were charisma, individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation (Yukl, 2006). The revised theory added inspirational motivation to transformational leadership behaviour. In the first dimension, charisma, the leader conveys a clear vision for the future and is confident that goals will be achieved. The vision and mission are understood and the performance standards are set. Strong follower emotions such as admiration, faith, pride, trust and respect are aroused (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). The followers also begin to identify with the leader and want to emulate him/her (Bass, 1994; Densten, 2003; Laka-Mathebula, 2004; Yukl, 2006). The leader, in turn, excites, arouses and inspires the followers to achieve the vision. The leader shares in risks with followers and is consistent in his/her behaviour regarding ethical principles and values. The leader considers the needs of his/her followers before his/her own (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bass et al., 2003; Berson & Linton, 2005; Den Hartog et al., 1997; Naidu & Van der Walt, 2003).

In the second dimension, individualised consideration, the leader recognises each follower's individual uniqueness (Berson & Linton, 2005). Leaders work with followers on a one-to-one basis to evaluate goals and develop skills (Laka-Mathebula, 2004). Followers' needs are linked to the needs of the organisation. There is a developmental orientation for all followers to respond to their individual needs (Avolio et al., 1999). The aim is for followers to develop to their higher potential. The leader serves as an advisor, coach and mentor to followers, and provides achievement, growth and new learning opportunities (Bass, 1994). The leader provides followers with tasks in order to help them develop. Tasks are monitored to provide followers direction where needed. Continuous feedback and support is also offered by the leader (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bass et al. 2003; Densten, 2003; Den Hartog et al., 1997; Laka-Mathebula, 2004; Mester *et al.*, 2003; Odentunde, 2005; Naidu & Van der Walt, 2003; Yammarino & Bass, 1990; Yukl, 2006).

Intellectual stimulation is a process whereby the leader creates an awareness of problems, encourages followers to find new methods and different techniques for solving problems and carrying out daily activities (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Laka-Mathebula, 2004; Yukl, 2006; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). The leader challenges the status quo and encourages followers to be creative and imaginative; to change their thinking patterns; as well as question their beliefs and solve problems by themselves. Followers are encouraged to be innovative and are not ridiculed or criticised by their mistakes. Ideas that differ from that of the leader are not criticised but taken into consideration (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bass et al., 2003; Berson & Linton, 2005; Densten, 2003; Laka-Mathebula, 2004; Mester et al., 2003; Odentunde, 2005; Naidu & Van der Walt, 2003).

The inspirational motivation dimension is the fundamental factor in the transformational leadership process (Odentunde, 2005), and is closely related to idealised influence (Laka-Mathebula, 2004). The leader motivates and inspires followers by providing meaning and challenge to their work. Followers accept demanding goals, while the leader provides challenges and meaning and engenders team spirit (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Laka-Mathebula, 2004). The leader emphasises values, beliefs, morals and trust in working towards a common goal. Focus is on the leader's capacity to act as a role model, communicate the vision, and use symbols to focus efforts (Bass, 1994; Laka-Mathebula, 2004; Yukl, 2006). The leader envisions

attractive future states to get followers involved, and shows commitment to those future states. Expectations that followers must meet are clearly communicated (Bass & Avolio, 1994). The leader inspires followers and in turn they feel an emotional attachment towards the leader. The leader instils pride, faith, enthusiasm and optimism in followers; and gains the followers' respect and trust (Bass et al., 2003; Den Hartog et al., 1997; Mester et al., 2003; Odentunde, 2005; Naidu & van der Walt, 2003).

Overall, transformational leadership is characterised by leaders delegating responsibility and authority; eliminating bureaucratic restrictions; providing coaching and training necessary for followers to take initiative and solve problems; encouraging participation in decision making; encouraging the sharing of ideas, concerns and information; promoting teamwork and cooperation; and encouraging problem solving to settle conflicts. In addition, transformational leaders empower followers and aim to change the organisation to represent key values (Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992).

2.3 Personal Values

Individuals possess deeply rooted values throughout their lives. Researchers studying values have associated values with beliefs, needs, attitudes, interests, motivations, goals, criteria for choosing goals, and personality types (Dose, 1997; Meglino & Ravlin, 1998). The different associations have been the cause of many different definitions of values (Dose, 1997). What researchers do agree on is that values are standards/criteria for choosing goals/actions that remain relatively stable and enduring over time (Dose, 1997; Hellriegel, Jackson, Slocum & Staude, 2004).

Rokeach (1973, p. 5) defines values as 'enduring beliefs that a particular mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite mode of conduct or end-state of existence'. De Bruyn (1992) defines values as underlying forces that shape attitudes and behaviour, and transcend specific situations. Super (in Dose, 1997) states that values are derived from needs and are more general than interests. According to Kluckhohn (1951) values specify individuals' personal beliefs about how they 'should' or 'ought' to behave. Blakeley (in Yates 2005) defines values as personal needs that motivate actions, and justify

what is right and wrong morally. Schwartz (1999) describes values as desirable states, objects, goals or behaviours that go beyond specific situations, and are used as standards to judge and choose among alternative modes of behaviour, that vary in importance (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Elizur, 1984; Ng, Lee & Soutar, 2007; Sagie & Elizur, 1996; Sarros & Santora, 2001). Schwartz (1999) defines values in terms of individual and cultural values. At the individual level, sets of value priorities reveal the trade-offs an individual makes in order to pursue a particular value (Ng, Lee & Soutar, 2007). The individual determines which values are important and down-plays the less important values. By doing this the individual ranks the values into a value system. At the cultural level, values describe the different solutions that cultures may use to solve universal problems (Ng, Lee & Soutar, 2007).

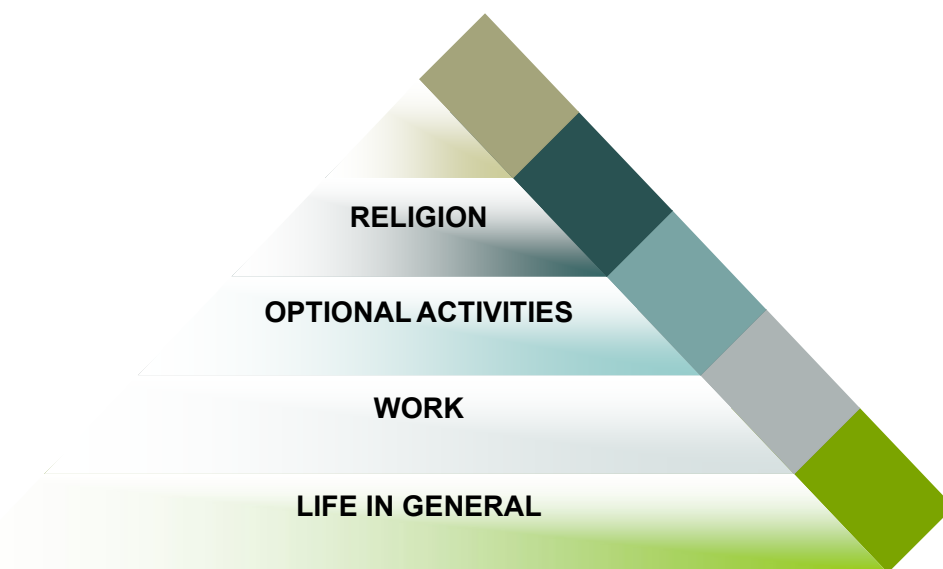
Five assumptions underline the nature of human values. Firstly, all individuals possess a relatively small total number of values. Secondly, all individuals possess the same values but in varying degrees. Thirdly, an individual's values are organised into value systems. Fourthly, background relating to an individual's values can be traced back to his/her culture, society and personality. Lastly, the effect of human values manifests in virtually all phenomena of interest to social scientists (Dose, 1997; Rokeach, 1973).

Values are labelled according to two criteria. Only on the recognition of both criteria can an item be labelled a value. The domain of the item must assess the degree of importance assigned to a goal or behaviour in a particular area of life. Furthermore, the range must be ordered from very important to very unimportant (Elizur, 1984; Sagie & Elizur, 1996). For the item to be a value, its importance as a goal in an individual's life must be estimated and then ranked into a value system.

Values can be conceptualised in two distinct ways, namely, ipsative and non-ipsative. In the ipsative method, values are rank ordered, while in the non-ipsative method they are measured independently (Krishnan, 2004). Krishnan (2001) states that values are interrelated and should not be looked at separately, but rather in comparison to one another. Only when values are considered in their ranking order can the unique value orientation of an individual be determined (Krishnan, 2001). A value system is a stable organisation of values along a

continuum of relative importance (Rokeach, 1973). It is a cluster of values that interrelate and together form a larger value concept (Knoop, 1994). Together the values of the value system provide criteria individuals use to evaluate and define actions and events in order to choose among alternative modes of behaviour (George & Jones, 1997). It is not the individual values that matter, but rather the order in which an individual places his/her values (Krishnan, 2001).

Individual values are relevant in all aspects of life or life areas. Each life area refers to a field of human activity, for example, religion, sports or work (Sagie & Elizur, 1996; Sagie, Elizur & Koslowsky, 1996). Life areas differ from each other regarding the importance they place on certain values. Values and the life areas they pertain to form the structure of personal values. Sagie and Elizur (1996) found four layers in the structure of human values (Refer to Figure 1). The first two layers (life in general and work) represent two obligatory life areas. Life in general relates to home and family values, whereas work pertains to work values. The third layer, optional activities, relates to values in the life areas of sports and culture. Religion is the last layer of personal values and is a distinct layer as it is obligatory for some individuals while optional for others (Sagie & Elizur, 1996). For the relevance of the study only work values will be discussed which follows in the next section.



(Sagie & Elizur, 1996)

Figure 1: The Structure of Personal Values

Values vary in importance across situations and serve as guiding principles throughout an individual's life (Perrewe & Hochwarter, 2001; Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss, 1999). They are general in nature, relatively stable and are central to an individual's identity (Dose & Klimoski, 1999). Values originate through culture, society, experience and personality. Values are learnt from parents, teachers, peers and significant others; and are modified on the basis of experience (Sagie et al., 1996). Values remain relatively permanent, but are capable of being changed in certain circumstances (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998). The importance of values can change over time through external stimuli and everyday experiences (Judge & Bretz, 1992). Once an individual develops his/her value system, the values become more resistant to change. Values that originate through society are more susceptible to change than values originating through personality and experience (Dose & Klimoski, 1999; Meglino & Ravlin, 1998). While the structure of values can remain relatively stable, the importance of certain values may fluctuate (Sagie et al., 1996).

Values represent important goals that are consciously chosen to meet biological, societal and social interaction needs (Nosse & Sagiv, 2005; Ros et al., 1999). Values are classified according to the type of motivational goals they express and these imply that these values lead to behavioural intention as well as subsequent behaviour (Dose & Klimoski, 1999). Values act as guiding standards that determine the choices people make, and the choices people make affects their behaviour (Russell, 2001). Therefore, values are important constructs in understanding human behaviour (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987).

The great interest in values and their effect has been the focus of many research studies to date (Elizur, 1984; Sagie & Elizur, 1996). This interest could stem from the fact that values guide the selection and evaluation of an individual's behaviour and decision making (Ashkanasy & O'Connor, 1997; Cable & Edwards, 2004; Ravlin & Meglino, 1987). How people behave depends on what they value and believe about themselves (Nosse & Sagiv, 2005). Values also have the ability to influence how an individual perceives environmental stimuli (Perrewe & Hochwarter, 2001; Ravlin & Meglino, 1987). Values can play an important part in many organisational issues, given the effect that they have on the behaviour of individuals.

According to Dose and Klimoski (1999) values may be more prudent predictors of organisational phenomena than variables such as attitudes, perceptions and personality traits.

2.3.1 Work Values

Values determine the meaning of work for individuals (Perrewe & Hochwarter, 2001). Work values are derived from an individual's general value system (George & Jones, 1997), but are narrower in their scope, as they pertain only to the work setting (Dose & Klimoski, 1999). They are specific expressions of general values in the work setting (Ros et al., 1999). Work values represent personal values that individuals believe should be satisfied in the workplace (Brown, 2002). These values represent the degree of worth, importance and desirability individuals place on what happens in the work situation (Knoop, 1993; Sagie & Elizur, 1996). Work values form standards that individuals use to interpret their work experiences (George & Jones, 1997). They embody what individuals consciously or unconsciously desire and want from their work (Knoop, 1994) and relate to what they desire from work rather than from a particular job (Beukman, 2005; Ros et al., 1999).

Even though work values have been the scope of much research, a consistent definition of work values has not been established (Dose, 1997; Ravlin & Meglino, 1989). Work values have been defined as the importance placed on certain outcomes obtained in the work context (Elizur, 1984; Sagie & Elizur, 1996). Super (in Dose, 1997) defines work values as goals that an individual aims to achieve in order to satisfy a need in the workplace. As defined in Ravlin and Meglino (1989) work values are preferences for various modes of behaviour, in particular behaviour that is socially desirable. Dose (1997) defines work values as standards relating to work and the work environment which individuals use to distinguish what is right or to assess the importance of preferences for certain outcomes or actions (Dose, 1997; Dose & Klimoski, 1999). The various definitions of work values include values as beliefs, needs, goals and preferences. When comparing the definitions it is evident that an individual's attitude or orientation towards work in general is central to the concept of work values (Beukman, 2005). Beutell and Brenner (1986) combined the definitions to form four main qualities that work values exhibit, namely, work values are qualities that individuals desire in their work; they

reflect a correlation between needs and satisfaction; they indicate preferences and finally; they are more fundamental than interests.

Many approaches that aim to determine the components of work values exist (Beukman, 2005). The most widely used approach classifies work values as either intrinsic or extrinsic (Sagie et al., 1996). Researchers have used different definitions for intrinsic/ self-actualisation values and extrinsic/security/material values (Elizur, 1984). Intrinsic work values refer to end-states that occur through work activities that are dependent on the content of work. Sense of accomplishment is an example of an intrinsic work value (George & Jones, 1997). Extrinsic work values relate to end states that occur as a consequence of work while extrinsic values operate regardless of the work content. An example of an extrinsic work value is family security (George & Jones, 1997). Saleh and Grygier (in Dyer & Parker, 1975, p. 446) define intrinsic values as 'values directly related to the actual performance of a job', while extrinsic work values 'related to the environment in which the job occurs'. Deci (in Dyer & Parker, 1975, p. 219) on the other hand defines intrinsic values as 'those values mediated by an individual himself' and extrinsic work values as 'values mediated by an individual other than himself'. Axelrod, Ginsburg, Ginzberg and Herman added social/relational/concurrent values to the intrinsic-extrinsic approach (Beukman, 2005; Elizur, 1984). According to these authors, intrinsic work values related to achieving goals in the workplace (i.e. self actualisation and responsibility), while extrinsic work values related to the rewards of working (i.e. pay and prestige). Social work values related to the work situation rather than the work itself, and focused on interpersonal relationships (Beukman, 2005). The various definitions of intrinsic and extrinsic work values created inconsistency in the classification of values (Dyer & Parker, 1975). This led researchers to question the adequacy of the intrinsic-extrinsic work values approach (Elizur, 1984; Sagie et al., 1996).

Elizur (1984) determined another approach to the structure of work values. He distinguished between two facets of work values: modality of outcome and system performance contingency. The first facet, modality of outcome, relates to the various outcomes of work. These work outcomes could be instrumental, affective or cognitive in nature. Instrumental work outcomes were material in that they were concrete and practical (Elizur, 1984; Sagie & Elizur, 1996). Pay

was a concrete instrumental work outcome, whereas benefits and working hours were examples of outcomes that had direct practical consequences. Affective outcomes dealt with feelings and emotions (Elizur, 1984; Sagie & Elizur, 1996). They consisted of interrelations with people such as colleagues and supervisors in the work setting. Examples included love, friendship and spirituality (Elizur, 1984; Sagie & Elizur, 1996). Cognitive outcomes included interest, achievement, responsibility and independence. Cognitive outcomes related to belief systems regarding appropriate behaviour (Sagie et al., 1996).

The second facet of work values concerned the relationship of outcomes to task performance. This facet was broken down into outcomes that were contingent upon membership in the organisation (resources) and outcomes contingent upon performance (rewards) (Sagie et al., 1996). Organisations provide incentives to employees to motivate them. Certain incentives are given before task performance and are not conditional to the performance outcome. They include working conditions, transportation and subsidised meals and were referred to as resources and are system rewards earned merely through membership of an organisation. Other incentives are provided to employees only on completion of a task and in exchange for the task performed. These include pay, recognition, achievement and status. These incentives were referred to as rewards. Resources and rewards therefore made up the second facet of work values: system performance contingency (Elizur, 1984; Elizur, Borg, Hunt & Beck, 1991; Sagie & Elizur, 1996).

Ros et al. (1999) further divided Elizur's cognitive modality facet into intrinsic and prestige value types. The work values considered intrinsic represented values that added to a sense of personal growth. The attainment of intrinsic values was derived directly from the nature of the work experience. These values included meaningfulness, responsibility and ability utilisation. Those giving prestige represented values whose attainment involved a comparison of the self and others that implied personal superiority. Prestige values, therefore, included achievement, advancement, status, recognition and independence. Secondary data analysis revealed support for the prestige work value (Ros et al., 1999).

These various approaches appear to overlap when compared with each other. . Elizur's classification of work values relates to the intrinsic, extrinsic and social classifications (Ros et al., 1999). Intrinsic values relate to the cognitive modality of outcome, extrinsic values relate to the instrumental modality of outcome and social values relate to the affective modality of outcome (Elizur, 1984). The intrinsic-extrinsic classification may overlap with the modality of outcome facet of work values, but does not include the system performance contingency facet. This may imply that Elizur's facets of work values are more extensive than the intrinsic-extrinsic approach (Elizur, 1984).

Work values are important constructs for understanding and predicting the reactions and performance of employees in the work situation (Meglino, Ravlin & Adkins, 1991). Work values have been identified as a critical element in career development, as they describe what employees are striving to become in their work or what they are hoping to attain through working (Brown, 2002; George & Jones, 1997). They are applied at both individual and organisational levels. At the individual, employee level, values determine behaviour (George & Jones, 1997; Judge & Bretz, 1992; Sagnak, 2005). Individuals determine which rewards are important according to their values (Putti, Ayree & Liang, 1989). Values can play an important role in understanding job satisfaction and emotions individuals exhibit at work (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987). Work values can influence an employee's decision to remain in a work position or move to another one (De Bruyn, 1992; George & Jones, 1997; Judge & Bretz, 1992). The effective implementation of work values can contribute to the integration of employees (De Bruyn, 1992). Values have implications for interpersonal interaction, and have been related to team relations and success (Dose & Klimoski, 1999). Work values provide common ground among employees; are closely linked to employee roles within an organisation; and provide an insight that can empower employees to develop themselves (De Bruyn, 1992).

At the organisational level, values are the most practical and measurable elements in an organisation's culture (Sagnak, 2005). They have been linked to the materialisation of an organisation's culture (Judge & Bretz, 1992; Ravlin & Meglino, 1987). Also work values can have implications for organisational performance, communication and managerial actions (Dose, 1997). Organisational commitment has also been related to the employees' work values

(Putti, Ayree & Liang, 1989). If individual values are held throughout an organisation, they will affect the way in which customers are perceived and treated; employees are viewed and rewarded; and how the future is foreseen and managed (Boxx, Odom & Dunn, 1991). Values can therefore play an important role in the success of an organisation.

Research on work values has been driven by an interest in the motivation of employees and also by the recognition of the importance of complementary values among employees and supervisors (Dose, 1997). Work values impact employees in two distinct ways. Firstly, they impact on employee's perceptions, affect and behaviour. Secondly, they influence various forms of affect through value congruence (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998; Meglino et al., 1991).

2.3.2 Value Congruence

Value congruence refers to the sharing of values among individuals, between an individual and organisation, as well as between all the members of an organisation (Knoppen, Dolan, Diez-Pinol & Bell, 2006). The latter describes value congruence as the degree to which an individual's and organisational culture's values are the same (Erdogan, Kraimer & Liden, 2004; Kalliath, Bluedorn & Strube, 1999; Sagnak, 2005). It is seen in the similarity between an employee's values and the cultural value system of an organisation (Cable & Edwards, 2004). Value congruence is a form of person-organisation fit (Erdogan et al., 2004). Person-organisation fit is defined as the congruence between the norms and values of organisations and the values of individuals (Sagnak, 2005; Schwepker, 1999). At the group level value congruence has been defined as the degree to which all members of a group agree on the values regarding group processes and work and its effect on intra-group conflict (Jehn, Chadwick & Thatcher, 1997). At the individual level, Meglino, Ravlin and Adkins (1992) describe value congruence as the extent to which two work values or value systems are seen to be similar to one another. Value congruence has also been described as the level of agreement between a leader's value system and followers' value system (Krishnan, 2005). Knoppen, Dolan, Diez-Pinol and Bell (2006) broadly define value congruence as shared values between individuals or groups at a specific time. Krishnan (2004) defines value congruence as the extent to which the value system of a leader and followers are in agreement.

There are two outlooks of value congruence (Enz, 1988). One of these is perceived value congruence. Here value congruence is treated as a perceptual construct that describes the espoused, recognised, explicitly stated and socially defined levels of similarity between values. For perceived value congruence employees must make comparisons between their own values and the perceived values of the organisation (Enz, 1988). Perceived value congruence has been related to work attitudes (Erdogan et al., 2004). The second is latent value congruence. This outlook congruence is determined indirectly by comparing the values of employees to the values of the organisation or top management (Knoppen et al., 2006). Latent congruence is not a speculation of similarity made by employees. Rather, latent value congruence captures the underlying, unrecognised, yet similar values of employees and top managers (Enz, 1988). Latent value congruence has been positively related to job satisfaction and commitment (Erdogan et al., 2004). According to Meglino, Ravlin and Adkins (1989) perceived value congruence is limited, as it assumes that employees know the values of their supervisor or organisation. Due to this limitation latent value congruence seems to be the more appropriate method for determining value congruence (Knoppen et al., 2006).

Value congruence is said to be the mechanism by which organisational and individual values affect employee's organisational outcomes (Kalliath et al., 1999). Value congruence can affect organisations at organisational, group and individual levels. At an organisational level, it can provide an organisation with a competitive advantage (McDonald & Gandz, 1992). An organisation's culture is a function of shared values. Individuals enter organisations with their own personal values, norms, history, experience and expectations, which all have to be aligned with the organisation's culture (De Bruyn, 1992). Values form the basic building blocks of an organisation's culture and value congruence is an important approach to understanding and measuring an organisation's culture (Meglino et al., 1991; Posner, 1992). Value congruence generates a culture that facilitates the interactions necessary to work toward common goals (Sagnak, 2005). Shared values between the individual and organisation provide meaning to the activities of the individual and the organisation (De Bruyn, 1992). Value congruence has also been related to organisational commitment and turnover (Kalliath et al., 1999; Slabbert, Theron & Roodt, 2001). Higher productivity, profitability, employee retention,

pride, increased creativity and resilience are other organisational outcomes associated with value congruence (Slabbert et al., 2001; Yates, 2005).

At group level value congruence has been linked to the effective functioning of work groups. Shared values lead to group cohesion, which results in low levels of interpersonal conflict, the perception of shared goals, similarity of preferences in team regulation and a commitment to tasks. Better quality work groups have also been linked to value congruence (Dose & Klimoski, 1999; Jehn et al., 1997). At the individual level, Posner (1992) found that value congruence was significantly related to employee attitudes toward work. People are attracted to organisations and choose jobs that they perceive match their own values (De Bruyn, 1992; Judge & Bretz, 1992; Posner, 1992; Sagie et al., 1996; Yates, 2005). Erdogan et al. (2004) found that value congruence positively correlated with job and career satisfaction. Work value congruence has also been linked to better trust relationships and internal communication (Dose & Klimoski, 1999).

Two mechanisms aim to explain the effects of value congruence. Schein (In Meglino et al., 1989) describes these as external adaptation and internal integration. In external adaptation individual values shape behaviour (Meglino et al., 1989; Meglino et al., 1991; Sagnak, 2005). Individuals that share values tend to behave in a similar way. Shared values allow a person to predict the behaviour of others. Predictability in interpersonal interactions reduces role ambiguity and conflict, thus improving the efficiency of social interaction. Individuals tend to be attracted and more trusting toward people who share their values (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Knoppen, et al., 2006; Meglino et al., 1989; Sagnak, 2005). Employees find it more comfortable to work in organisations made up of individuals who share similar values (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Kalliath et al., 1999; Meglino et al., 1991; Sagnak, 2005). The second mechanism, internal integration explains the effects of value congruence in that individuals with shared values have corresponding cognitive processes. This leads individuals to interpret and classify external events or stimuli in a similar manner. This common method of interpreting events and reducing uncertainty improves interpersonal communications (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Kalliath et al., 1999; Knoppen, et al., 2006; Meglino et al., 1989; Meglino et al., 1991; Sagnak, 2005).

Some researchers have predicted that with the positive effects it can have for organisations, congruence in employee's work values can lead to homogeneity in interpreting and responding to events. This can, in turn, inhibit performance through less innovation, a lack of new ideas, less creativity, and less adaptability to change (Erdogan et al., 2004). Value congruence in groups can lead to complacency and group-think (Jehn et al., 1997). A number of alternatives have been suggested to counteract these drawbacks.

According to Ros et al. (1999) actions taken in pursuit of values have psychological, practical, and social consequences that may be compatible or in conflict with the pursuit of other values. Examples of compatible values are security and power, as both of this aim to avoid uncertainty by controlling relationships and resources. The pursuit of achievement and benevolence values can conflict each other. Seeking personal success for oneself can inhibit actions aimed at enhancing the welfare of others (Ros et al., 1999). Rather than value congruence, members of an organisation should have compatible values.

Kalliath et al. (1999) state that value fulfilment is the link between values and satisfaction. The more an individual's values are fulfilled, the more satisfied the individual will be. The idea is that individual values should be fulfilled through work and not merely met by the organisation or direct supervisors. Another assumption made by Kalliath et al. (1999) is related to the economy. Members in a tight economy may believe that having any job at all is more important than having a job in an organisation that shares their values.

2.4 The Relationship between Leadership, Leader-Follower Value Congruence and Leadership Success

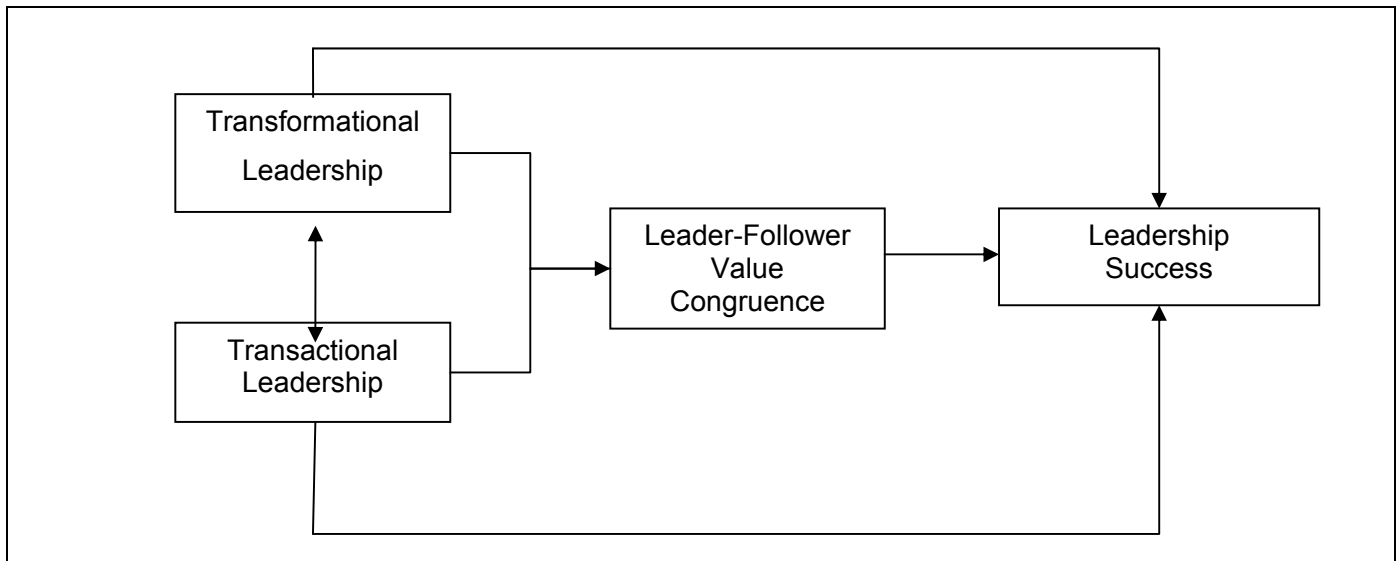
Engelbrecht (2002) developed a model outlining the effect of leadership on leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. An adapted model is provided to simplify his model which only includes variables that are relevant to the study. The model (refer to Figure 2) outlines the effect of value congruence in transactional and transformational leadership on leadership success. It describes how transactional and transformational leadership influences leader-follower value congruence. The model further describes how leader-follower value

congruence can serve as a mediator between transactional and transformational leadership and leadership success. Lastly, the model examines the link between transactional and transformational leadership and leadership success. The model will be discussed in detail in the sections that follow.

2.4.1 Leadership and Leader-Follower Value Congruence

Values are the focus and direction of individual action (Fernandez & Hogan, 2002). Leader values and shared values are the driving forces of organisations (Russell, 2001). Leader values impacts on leader behaviour and performance and, ultimately, organisational performance (Sarros & Santora, 2001). According to Woodward (in Russell, 2001) leaders lead followers by their values and beliefs. The values of top management guide and direct the perceptions and interpretations of the organisation and its environment. Leaders of today must change and create a new kind of organisation. A clear vision, effective strategies, clear organisational structures, empowered and energised followers, as well as a set of shared values are needed (Laburn, 1994; Yates, 2005). A leader must build an organisation of shared values in order for employees to come together and act as one entity (Kouzes & Posner, 1996). Haas of Levi Strauss (in McDonald & Gandz, 1992, p. 64) believes that 'values provide a common language for aligning a company's leadership and its employees'. Shared values align individuals and allow them to act independently and interdependently (Russell, 2001). Individuals act according to their own ideologies and values, as well as the ideologies and values of powerful superiors (Posner, 1992).

Leaders must achieve value congruence with their followers for all parties to be satisfied emotionally (Homrig, 2003). Without some shared values the leader-follower relationship will disappear (Fernandez & Hogan, 2002). A leader's values have a significant effect on leader-follower relationships (Russell, 2001). Values affect the leader's behaviour; and leader behaviour influences followers. It is the leader's values that form the basis of the leader's influence over his/her followers (Russell, 2001). Leadership should in effect induce followers to pursue joint purposes that represent the motivations of both the leader and followers (Burns, 1978).



(Adapted from Engelbrecht, 2002)

Figure 2: Model of the influence of Transactional and Transformational Leadership Styles on Leader-Follower Value Congruence and Leadership Success

Values help individuals differentiate between right, wrong and important behaviour, and ultimately shapes their performance in an organisation (Bass, 1990; Brewster et al., 2003). Superiors have a strong influence on the ethical values of their subordinates. It is ultimately the leader's responsibility to create, instil and embody the organisation's ethical values (Schwepker, 1999). Leaders need to understand and be aware of their own ethical values before they can influence other's values (Russell, 2001).

According to Selznick (in Enz, 1988) the true task of leadership is to create a social structure that represents select values. The leader should identify those values that they and their followers possess and ensure that these values are compatible (Parry, 1998). In addition, after the leader establishes the selected values, the organisation should work to maintain them in a changing environment (Dose, 1997). The leader should strive to select a set of core values to be shared among all the members of an organisation and then maintain value congruence in a changing environment. Leaders must communicate the core values of the organisation to employees in order to shape behaviour and direct the organisation (Enz, 1988). Only when leaders are aware of the shared values and points of dissonance can they move ahead knowing that their followers are behind them (Yates, 2005).

According to Burns (1978) for leaders to have the greatest impact they should motivate followers to act by appealing to their shared values. The significance of studying work values of leaders lies in the positive outcomes that result when the leader's values are in congruence with those of his/her followers (Engelbrecht, 2001; Engelbrecht, 2002). A study conducted by Meglino et al. (1989) found that the object of value congruence was found in the values of the supervisor, rather than in the cultural values of the organisation. Value congruence was found to be the product of the values of the leader, rather than the values of the organisation.

Value congruence is created by systems which allow individuals choices and in turn make those choices visible and difficult to counteract (Posner, 1992). Leaders can promote value congruence in a number of ways. Firstly, the leader is involved in selecting team members, and can stress certain shared values in early group activities. The leader is also instrumental in guiding discussions, establishing normative structures, as well as bringing shared values to the surface (Dose & Klimoski, 1999; Jehn et al., 1997). If the leader is not involved in the formulation of work teams, he/she can regulate value congruence by identifying the values within the group and manage any conflict that may occur due to differences in values (Jehn et al., 1997).

Leaders can generate aligned values by inspiring a shared vision, demonstrating their commitment to the values of the organisation and by rewarding individuals for behaviour that is consistent with core values (Posner, 1992). If employees lack value congruence the leader should make a collaborative effort to change the culture of the organisation or else the level of value incongruence will remain relatively stable during the employee's tenure in the organisation (Erdogan et al., 2004).

According to Burns (1978) leaders persuade followers to act for certain goals that represent both the leader and followers' values and motivations. The values of management and the values of employees have an influence on the managerial style prevalent in an organisation (De Bruyn, 1992). According to Connor and Becker (in Engelbrecht, 2002) when considering value congruence it is important to consider the linkage between value congruence and leadership style.

According to Krishnan (2004) the exchange characteristic of transactional leadership is based on the current motivations and values of both the leader and followers. Transactional leaders work with followers as a means to achieve personal, established goals (Madzar, 2001). The leader and followers should agree, accept and comply with the terms and provisions of the agreed upon goals (Bass et al., 2003). This is achieved through interactive goal setting (Naidu & van der Walt, 2005). Transactional leaders use control strategies to ensure that the exchange agreement is satisfactorily met (Bass & Avolio, 1994). They look out for deviations from rules and regulations, correct problems when they occur, and follow these up to ensure that performance standards are being met. Through the use of these control strategies, transactional leaders can over time align the attitudes and values of their followers. The followers identify with the leader in recognising the negative consequences that will arise if they do not correspond with the leader's goals (Engelbrecht, 2001).

Transformational leadership includes a relationship between the leader's and followers' goals and purposes (Krishnan, 2005). These goals might have started off as being separate from each other, but through transformational leadership they become fused, leading to greater value congruence. The transformational leader creates a vision that acts as a unifying force that brings the leader and followers beliefs and values together (Krishnan, 2004). The transformational leader aligns follower values with his/her own values, resulting in value congruence (Engelbrecht, van Aswegen & Theron, 2005). The leader uncovers contradictions among values; between values and practice; and realigns follower values to suit his/her own values (Krishnan, 2004). According to House and Shamir (in Engelbrecht, 2002) followers of transformational leaders are motivated by the belief that their deeply held values are shared by their leader.

A study by Krishnan (2005) confirmed that transformational leadership enhances value congruence. For leaders to adopt a transformational style their values should align with those of their followers (Homrig, 2003). When evaluating the impact of transformational leadership on follower development and performance it is important to consider value congruence and trust (Jung & Avolio, 2000). Transformational leaders change the attitudes and values of their followers through empowerment strategies (Engelbrecht, 2001). Transformational leaders

motivate followers through creating awareness about the importance and value of desired outcomes, and by changing followers' values to align with the vision of the organisation (Jung & Avolio, 2000; Kanungo, 2001; Parry, 1998). Value congruence is achieved through the leader aligning values and followers demonstrating trust in their leader, and should be considered as mediating aspects of transformational leadership (Shamir, House & Arthur in Jung & Avolio, 2000).

The following propositions were formulated when considering the theoretical link between transactional leadership and value congruence, as well as the theoretical link between transformational leadership and value congruence:

- A positive relationship exists between transactional leadership and leader-follower value congruence,
- A positive relationship exists between transformational leadership and leader-follower value congruence.

2.4.2 Leader-Follower Value Congruence and Leadership Success

According to Dowd, Houghton and Snyder (1994) shared vision; shared values and the courage to act on them are three leadership characteristics that differentiate successful companies. Laburn (1994) adds to this by stating that vision, shared values and empowerment emanate successful leaders. When individuals are empowered to act as effective leaders and followers based on shared core values, the potential for extraordinary outcomes is enhanced (Homrig, 2003). The best leaders are able to identify with the attitudes, beliefs and values of those above them and those below them (Bass, 1990).

England and Lee (in Bass 1990) suggest five reasons for the influence of values on leader performance: Values shape leader perceptions of specific situations and problems; influence leader decisions regarding solutions to problems; affect leader perceptions of other individuals, individual success and organisational success; determine the extent to which a leader will accept or resist organisational pressures; and determine what is and what is not ethical behaviour.

Leadership is a relational activity. Successful leadership depends on acting on the values exhibited by the group (Fernandez & Hogan, 2002). In order to be effective the leader should have knowledge of his/her own values and the values of his/her followers. The understanding of values includes knowledge of the nature of the values, the degree of flexibility, the degree of harmony, the achievement of values, their clarification, and the role values play in the day-to-day decisions of the leader (Klenke, 2005). Individuals will only follow their leader if his/her core values are aligned with their own. Values can serve as a unifying force when leader and follower values are congruent. Shared values bind individuals together as they move toward the achievement of organisation goals. Conversely, when leader and follower values are in conflict, they can cause stress and friction that undermine leadership (Klenke, 2005). Effective leaders should tap into followers' core values to ensure that all players are striving towards the same goal (Fernandez & Hogan, 2002). Connor and Becker (in Engelbrecht, 2002) state that the degree of congruence between the values of a leader and his/her followers is directly related to leadership success.

According to Brewster et al. (2003) leadership success is judged by five factors: profitability, customer satisfaction, employee attitudes/satisfaction, sales revenue increases and company reputation. Values that are aligned throughout an organisation will eventually affect the perception and treatment of customers, the perceptions and rewards of employees' contributions, and the anticipation and management of the future (Boxx et al., 1991). Leader-follower value congruence can therefore lead to certain aspects of leadership success.

According to Bass (1990) leader satisfaction and success is related to the identification of subordinates' attitudes, beliefs and values. Meglino et al. (1991) studied the relationship between satisfaction with a leader and value congruence and found that work value congruence was related to interpersonal affect. The subjects were found to show greater satisfaction toward their leader when the values examined were closer to their own. The findings of the study suggested that in organisations with strong cultures and shared values leaders' actions increase subordinate satisfaction with the leader if the actions reflect the shared values held by the organisation.

The attitude of followers towards the leader is an indicator of leadership success (Yukl, 2006). The followers' assessment of their leader relates to leadership success (Densten, 2003). Value congruence results in followers perceiving their leaders as more considerate, competent and successful (Engelbrecht, 2002; Homrig, 2003). Posner (1992) found that perceived leader-follower value congruence was related to positive work outcomes.

Meglino et al. (1989) examined various relationships involving value congruence. The aim of their study was to determine whether value congruence between employees and their supervisors would lead to greater satisfaction, organisational commitment and higher levels of performance. One major finding of the study was that worker-supervisor value congruence was related to greater overall job satisfaction, commitment and a reduction in lateness. The researchers also suggested the effects of value congruence increased over time. Furthermore, satisfaction with the supervisor was only observed when the supervisor's perceived management values were used to calculate value congruence rather than their actual values (Meglino et al., 1989).

Effective leaders are determined by the influence and impact they have on their followers. Leaders should be aware of and be able to manage the dynamics of the leader-follower relationship (Beckhard, 1996; Brewster et al., 2003). Erdogan et al. (2004), found a positive relationship between work value congruence and leader-member exchange. In the study, employees found it easier to form high leader-member exchanges when their values overlapped with those of their leader. Ashkanasy and O'Connor (1997) found value congruence related to leader-member exchange relationships. They concluded that values were associated with either the acceptance of a leader by a subordinate or the recognition of a subordinate's independence by the leader.

Jung and Avolio (2000) studied the mediating effects of value congruence and trust in transformational and transactional leadership in predicting performance. Transformational leadership had a positive impact on trust and value congruence, and was directly related to performance. Transactional leadership also impacted on follower trust and value congruence, but to a lesser extent. The results indicated that value congruence mediated the impact of transformational leadership on performance. Interestingly, transactional leadership was only

found to impact performance when it was mediated by value congruence and follower's trust in the leader (Jung & Avolio, 2000).

The following propositions were developed based on the literature on value congruence and leadership success:

- A positive relationship exists between leader-follower value congruence and leadership success
- Value congruence mediates the relationship between transactional leadership and leadership success
- Value congruence mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and leadership success.

2.4.3 Leadership and Leadership Success

Leadership has become central to the success or failure of organisations (Mester et al., 2003; Naidu & Van der Walt, 2005). Effective leadership is important to all organisations (Densten, 2003). In fact, the main reason for studying leadership is to determine effective leadership (Engelbrecht, 2002). Leaders have different leadership styles and some styles may be more effective than others in certain circumstances. Successful leaders need to be able to implement the right leadership style with the right people at the right time (Naidu & Van der Walt, 2005).

According to Bass and Avolio (1994) transactional and transformational leadership styles share a common characteristic in that the more active the leader, the more effective he/she will be. The three leadership styles in the transactional-transformational leadership theory can be placed on a continuum according to their activity and effectiveness (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Burns, 1978). At the bottom of the continuum is laissez faire leadership or the avoidance of leadership. In the middle is transactional leadership and on the top of the continuum is transformational leadership. The placement of the leadership styles imply that transformational leadership is the most active and most successful leadership style in terms of motivating followers (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Burns, 1978).

Spinelli (2006) studied the relationship between perceived leadership style and exerting extra effort, satisfaction with leader and leader effectiveness. Laissez-faire was negatively related to the leadership success outcomes. Transactional contingent reward was positively related to exerting extra effort, satisfaction with leader and leader effectiveness, whereas management-by-exception was negatively related to the outcomes. The relationship between transformational leadership style and the outcome factors were more significantly related than transactional leadership. The more followers perceived the leader to be transformational, the more effort they exerted, the more satisfied they were with their leader, and the more they believed the leader to be effective (Spinelli, 2006). Yammarino and Bass's (1990) findings also coincided with the transactional-transformational continuum. Transformational leadership was significantly related to effectiveness, satisfaction and extra effort; transactional leaders to a lesser degree; and laissez-faire leadership was negatively related to the leadership outcomes (Yammarino & Bass, 1990).

Burns (1978) believed that transformational leadership should add to the lower order transactional leadership in predicting performance. Transactional leaders motivate followers by exchanging rewards for the performance rendered. These leaders clarify followers' goals and plan rewards to encourage followers to reach performance standards. Transformational leaders, on the other hand, raise followers' performance above the required standards. Followers that are motivated to perform beyond performance expectations cannot be accomplished through transactional leadership alone (Bass, 1985). Transformational leadership should build on and extend transactional leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Mester et al., 2003). Transactional leadership provides effective pay-offs in the short term, but transformational leadership builds on and generate more effort, creativity and productivity to be effective in the long run (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Transactional leadership serves as the base for successful leadership (Bass, 1990). Successful transformational leaders build strong relationships with their followers based on a contractual agreement created using their transactional leadership skills (Berson & Linton, 2005). Leader and follower goals that are separate become related through transactional leadership, and eventually become fused through transformational leadership (Krishnan, 2001).

Successful leaders develop an understanding and agreement between their roles and those of their followers. Transactional leaders contribute to this understanding and agreement by clarifying what is expected of employees, explaining how to meet expectations, clarifying the criteria for evaluation of effective performance, providing feedback, and allocating rewards that are dependant on the achievement of objectives (Bass, 1990). Transactional leadership is seen as a major contributor to leadership success where many complex tasks must be completed and has been positively related to followers' commitment, satisfaction, performance and organisational citizenship (Bass et al., 2003). Transactional leaders focus on current needs and aim to satisfy those needs by providing desired rewards in exchange for performance (Jung & Avolio, 2000). If the leader honours and abides by the exchange agreements over time transactional leadership can form the basis for structuring development expectations and building trust (Avolio et al., 1999).

In transactional leadership there is a lack of personal development and followers do not feel strong emotional attachment toward their leader (Jung & Avolio, 2000). This results in followers delivering only what is expected of them. There is no motivation to exert extra effort to perform above performance standards (Beukman, 2005; Spinelli, 2006). The transactional style can be successful for as long as rewards are provided and agreements are honoured. Contingent reward is only effective if the leader controls the rewards and the rewards are valued (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Yammarino & Bass, 1990). According to Bass (1985) purely transactional leaders limit the amount of extra effort exerted by followers, limit the satisfaction with the exchange agreement and limit the extent to which followers will contribute to the organisation's objectives. Transformational leadership is required to overcome these limitations in follower effort, satisfaction and effectiveness.

When comparing transactional and transformational leaders Deluga (in Vishalli & Mohit, 2004) found that transformational leaders were seen by their followers as satisfying and effective. Transformational leaders caused followers to exert more extra effort than transactional leaders. Hater and Bass (1988) found the correlation variables predicting effectiveness and satisfaction in transformational leaders considerably higher than the moderate correlation for transactional leaders. Thus transformational leadership added to a follower's ratings of leader effectiveness

and satisfaction with the leader, beyond that of the transactional leader. Beukman (2005) found that followers performed better under a more transformational leadership approach. Berson and Linton (2005) found transformational leadership related to quality and overall satisfaction among followers. Transactional contingent reward was independently related to quality and satisfaction.

Transformational leadership arouses the followers' concerns from needs for existence to needs for personal achievement and growth (Vishalli & Mohit, 2004). Leaders are more successful when they are motivated by a concern for others and when their behaviours are aimed at benefiting others (Engelbrecht, van Aswegen & Theron, 2005). Transformational leaders motivate followers by taking their personal needs into consideration and helping them reach goals that were previously beyond their reach. Transformational leadership goes beyond a form of leadership that satisfies the current needs of followers through transactions or exchanges. It expands on transactional leadership by attempting to achieve superior results through idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Densten (2003) conducted a study that predicted the effectiveness of transactional and transformational leaders. With regard to transactional leaders, management by exception was positively related to effectiveness. Idealised influence, inspirational motivation and individualised consideration in transformational leaders were found to be related to leadership effectiveness. In addition, Singer and Singer (1989) found the same transformational dimensions correlated with follower satisfaction with a leader, although no significant correlations were found for transactional contingent reward and management-by-exception. Waldman et al. (1987) found positive correlations between transformational individualised consideration, inspirational motivation and performance ratings, while no significant correlations were found with transactional contingent reward and management-by-exception. In contrast, Judge and Piccolo (2004) found transactional contingent reward and management-by-exception were both significant predictors of leadership outcomes. Jung and Avolio (2000) found that transformational leadership had a positive effect on satisfaction. Avolio and Bass (1994) found the transactional contingent reward dimension to be reasonably effective, but

transformational leadership motivated followers to achieve higher levels of development and performance.

Transactional and transformational leadership are described in terms of the leader and follower interaction (Madzar, 2001) and are both linked to the achievement of a goal or objective (Hater & Bass, 1988). The vast difference between the two leadership styles lies in the way in which they motivate their followers and in the type of goals they set (Hater & Bass, 1988). In the past formal agreements, legislation, rules and regulations were the main systems used to manage the employment relationship. Today, increasing attention should be given to soft systems characterised by interactive accountability, involvement, participation, codetermination, empowerment, transparency, and communication (Slabbert et al., 2001). Transformational leadership should be used to manage the employment relationship, rather than the more formal transactional leadership.

According to Vishalli and Mohit (2004) a new kind of leadership is needed in an ever changing business environment. The new business environment requires levels of integration and interdependence that transactional leadership alone cannot provide (Avolio, et al., 1999). The leadership style that is needed is transformational. Superior leadership occurs when leaders raise follower's interests and generate awareness and acceptance of the organisation's mission and purpose (Beukman, 2005). Transformational leaders inspire followers to exceed their own expectations for the good of the company (Den Hartog et al., 1997). Podsakoff et al. (1996) state that successful leaders can change the basic values, beliefs and attitudes of their followers while helping the followers perform above the minimum standards set by the organisation. Truly successful leadership is the ability to transform the whole person of the follower, rather than making some adjustments (Krishnan, 2005). Leaders should use their own behaviour to influence their followers. Leaders can change the behaviour of their followers by stimulating their higher-order needs and encouraging followers to go beyond their own self interest for the benefit of the company (Densten, 2003; Podsakoff et al., 1996). For leaders to be able to do this they must be transformational and demonstrate this by having an understanding of what influences followers' attitudes, role perceptions, and performance, and how to shape these variables should be in place (Densten, 2003; Krishnan, 2005; Laburn, 2004; Podsakoff et al., 1996; Vishalli & Mohit, 2004).

Transformational leadership may extend transactional leadership, but it does not replace it (Homrig, 2003). Even though transformational leadership may be more successful in changing times and in increasing motivation and performance, both leadership styles are needed in combination for a leader to be effective overall (Yukl, 2006). Transformational leadership needs transactional leadership to clarify performance expectancies and indicate rewards in order to be successful (Mester et al., 2003). The best leaders are both transactional and transformational (Burns, 1978). Leaders must display the right combination of the leadership styles at the right time with the right people (Mester et al., 2003). Transformational and transactional leadership should complement each other, rather than be at odds with one another (Homrig, 2003). Leaders who understand and use both styles will be the most effective overall (Bass, 1990). In the full range model of leadership it is indicated that both transactional and transformational leadership should be used, depending on the situation.

The literature on transactional leadership, transformational leadership and leadership success resulted in the following propositions:

- A positive relationship exists between transactional leadership and leadership success
- A positive relationship exists between transformational leadership and leadership success

2.5 Conclusion

This chapter was dedicated to theoretically substantiating the relationship between leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. Leadership was defined in terms of the influence leaders have on followers and leadership success. Leadership theory introduced the most widely used leadership styles in research, namely transactional and transformational leadership.

Personal values were defined as criteria for choosing goals that transcend specific situations. The structure of values differentiated life values, work values, optional values and religion values. Values pertaining to work were reviewed which lead to value congruence in

organisations. Value congruence was defined as the degree to which a leader and followers values are similar.

Engelbrecht's (2002) model was explained in detail, and the relationship between leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success was clarified theoretically. Theoretically, transactional and transformational leaders influence leader-follower value congruence. In previous literature, value congruence has led to leadership success in transactional and transformational leaders. Transformational leaders have been found to be more effective than transactional leaders overall, but the most successful leaders are both transactional and transformational.

Propositions were formulated from the literature and theoretical model to explain the relationship between leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. The next chapter relates to the methodology of the study and includes the hypotheses formulated to test the relationships between leadership, value congruence and leadership success.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the literature on transactional and transformational leadership; values and leader-follower value congruence; leadership success; and the relationship between these constructs. Propositions were formulated based on the literature discussing the relationship between leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. Research was conducted in order to statistically analyse and test the hypotheses of the study. The current chapter outlines the research design and methodology followed during the study.

The study's research method, including its variables and key concepts, is presented in this chapter, and its hypotheses and sample information are provided. The measuring instruments used are also discussed. Furthermore, the manner in which the data were collected, prepared, and analysed is presented. Lastly, the chapter highlights the ethical considerations of the research.

3.2 Research Method

The research question, 'What influence does leadership have on leader-follower value congruence and leadership success?' aimed to determine whether a positive relationship existed between transactional leadership, transformational leadership and leadership success. The research question also aimed to establish whether leader-follower value congruence mediated the relationship between leadership (transactional and transformational) and leadership success.

The purpose of the study was to determine the influence of leadership on leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. For this purpose Engelbrecht's (2002) model of

the relationship between leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success was used as a theoretical framework.

The main aim of the study was to determine whether leader-follower value congruence regarding transactional and transformational leaders is related to leadership success. To determine whether leader-follower value congruence mediated the relationship between leadership and leadership success; two relationships had to be found significant. In the first instance a significant and positive relationship needed to exist between leadership (transactional and transformational) and leader-follower value congruence. Secondly, a significant and positive relationship needed to be found between leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. Another aim of the study was to determine the degree to which transactional and transformational leadership are successful.

In considering the main aims of the study, it is clear that its main concepts were leadership (transactional and transformational), values and leader-follower value congruence, as well as leadership success. A careful consideration of the literature ensured that the most appropriate definitions were chosen to best fit the aims of the study.

Leadership was described in terms of the leader behaviours used to influence followers and the effects such behaviour had on followers (Yukl, 2006). Transactional and transformational leadership were defined in terms of Bass's (1985) full range model of leadership in which transformational leadership was defined in relation to the leader's influence on followers and consisted of charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration. Transactional leadership was defined as the use of incentives to influence effort as well as to clarify work goals, and consisted of contingent reward and management-by-exception (Bass, 1997; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). Values were described in terms of work values and work values were defined as personal values that individuals believe should be satisfied in the workplace (Brown, 2002) Value congruence was defined as the level of agreement between a leader's values and his/her followers' values (Krishnan, 2005). Leadership success was defined in terms of followers'

satisfaction with a leader, a leader's effectiveness and the followers' willingness to exert extra effort.

The study made use of quantitative data that was recorded numerically and analysed statistically. Hypotheses were formulated around the main purpose and aims of the study. The data was collected and statistically analysed in order to test the hypotheses of the study.

3.3 Hypotheses

In order to achieve the purpose of the study, seven research hypotheses were formulated based on the propositions determined in the literature study:

- **H1:** A positive and significant relationship exists between transactional leadership and leader-follower value congruence
- **H2:** A positive and significant relationship exists between transformational leadership and leader-follower value congruence
- **H3:** A positive and significant relationship exists between leader-follower value congruence and leadership success
- **H4:** Leader-follower value congruence mediates the relationship between transactional leadership and leadership success
- **H5:** Leader-follower value congruence mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and leadership success
- **H6:** A direct, positive and significant relationship exists between transactional leadership and leadership success
- **H7:** A direct, positive and significant relationship exists between transformational leadership and leadership success

3.4 Measuring Instruments

Information regarding the main constructs of the study was gathered in order to test the formulated hypotheses. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-Form 5R) and

Langley's (1995) Values Scale (VS) were the measuring instruments used to gather the relevant information. The MLQ was used to measure transactional and transformational leader behaviours and leadership success. Langley's VS was used to determine the work values of the leaders and followers.

3.4.1 Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was developed to provide researchers with a reliable instrument that measures transactional and transformational leadership, leader effectiveness, the extent to which followers exert extra effort, and the degree to which followers are satisfied with their leader. It deals with the type of interactions between leaders and followers, namely the leader's behaviour and followers' reactions (Bass, 1990; Ingram, 1997). The MLQ has been revised many times, and is a widely used leadership measure (Den Hartog et al., 1997). The present study made use of the MLQ (Form 5R) (Bass & Avolio, 1989).

Bass (1985) developed the first version of the MLQ to measure transactional and transformational leadership (Laka-Mathebula, 2004). The MLQ (Form 1) identified three transformational leadership factors, these being charisma, intellectual stimulation and individualised attention, and two transactional leadership factors, namely, contingent reward and management-by-exception (Avolio et al., 1999; Laka-Mathebula, 2004). Hater and Bass (1988) confirmed these factor structures. Bass and his colleagues revised the MLQ and added an additional factor, inspirational motivation, to transformational leadership (Laka-Mathebula, 2004). Laissez-faire leadership was included to encompass the full range model of leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994). The revised measure was known as the MLQ (Form 5R). Table 3.1 describes the dimensions of transactional and transformational leadership as per the MLQ.

Table 3.1: Factors of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5R)

LEADERSHIP	DESCRIPTION
Transformational leadership	
1.1 Charisma/ Idealised Influence	Assesses the degree to which the leader instils pride, displays power and confidence, makes personal sacrifice, considers ethical consequences, and talks about the importance of having a collective sense of mission.
1.2 Inspirational Motivation	Assesses the leader's ability to articulate a compelling vision of the future, as well as the degree to which he/she sets challenging standards and takes a stand on controversial issues.
1.3 Intellectual Stimulation	Concerns the leader's vision and those behaviours that increase follower understanding of problems. Leaders point out problems in current situations and contrast them with the vision of the future.
1.4 Individualised Consideration	Concerns the extent to which leaders treat followers as individuals and the extent to which leaders act as mentors or coaches for their followers.
Transactional Leadership	
2.1 Contingent Reward	The extent to which leaders set goals, make rewards contingent upon performance, obtain necessary resources, and provide rewards when performance standards have been met.
2.2 Management-by- Exception	The degree to which leaders focus on negatives instead of positives, and the degree to which they intervene when mistakes are made.

(Adapted from Bass, 1985)

The MLQ (Form 5R) consists of 80 items and is evaluated on a five point Likert scale. Respondents rate how frequently they or their leader display each item on a scale of 0-4 where, 0 = 'not at all', 1 = 'once in a while', 2 = 'sometimes', 3 = 'fairly often', and 4 = 'frequently, if not always' (Bass, 1990; Hater & Bass, 1988; Ingram, 1997). The first 67 items of the MLQ measure leader behaviours, these being, firstly, laissez-faire leadership (10 items), secondly, two transactional leadership behaviours, being contingent reward (10 items), management-by-exception (10 items), thirdly, four transformational leadership behaviour, these being, charisma (10 items), inspirational motivation (7 items), intellectual stimulation (10 items) and individualised consideration (10 items) (Ingram, 1997). The remaining items relate to leader effectiveness, satisfaction with leader, extra effort, and demographic information (Densten, 2003; Ingram, 1997).

Transactional leadership was defined as the composite mean of the contingent reward and management-by-exception factor means (Ingram, 1997). A typical transactional item is, 'tell me what to do if I want to be rewarded for my effort' (Bass, 1990; Waldman et al., 1987). Transformational leadership was defined as the composite mean of the charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration factor means (Ingram, 1997). A typical transformational question is 'he/she makes me go beyond my self-interests for the good of the group' (Waldman et al., 1987).

The MLQ is made up of two versions of questionnaires, namely a self-administered questionnaire (leader version) completed by the leaders themselves, and a rater questionnaire (rater version) completed by subordinates who rate their leaders. The two questionnaires consist of exactly the same items: the only difference is that one is completed by the leader and the other by the follower about the leader's perceived leadership style (Bass & Avolio, 1989; Hater & Bass, 1988; Hayward, 2006; Ingram, 1997; Spinelli, 2006). The respondents answer the questionnaire by judging how frequently they or their leader display the behaviours described in the questionnaire (Krishnan, 2005). In the leader version, the leader completes the questionnaire describing his/her own leadership style, while in the rater version, the subordinate completes the questionnaire based on the perceived leadership style of his/her leader (Hayward, 2006).

In addition to measuring transactional and transformational leadership, the MLQ was used to measure three dimensions of leadership success (extra effort, leader effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader) (Bass & Avolio, 1989). Leadership success was measured according to the leader and rater versions. Extra effort consisted of three items. In the leader version extra effort was the extent to which the leader believed his/her followers exerted extra effort while the rater version involved followers rating the extent to which they would exert extra effort beyond the ordinary as a consequence of their leader (Bass, 1985). Leader effectiveness consisted of four items. The rater version was assessed by followers rating their own leader on four criteria, namely, meeting the job related needs of followers, representing followers' needs before higher level superiors, and contributing to organisational effectiveness and performance. In the leader version the leaders rated themselves (Bass, 1985). Satisfaction with leader consisted of two items in the MLQ and was also rated by both the leader and followers. Together, the extra effort, leader effectiveness and satisfaction with leader scores formed the overall leadership success score.

The reliability of the MLQ has been tested and confirmed in previous studies (Avolio et al., 1999; Den Hartog et al., 1997; Laka-Mathebula, 2004).

3.4.2 South African Values Scale

The South African Values Scale (VS) was used to measure leader's and followers' work values. The VS was first developed as a result of Super's Work Importance Study (Langley, 1995). The Work Importance Study was conducted by vocational psychologists from countries including the United States, United Kingdom, France, Germany, Switzerland, the Netherlands, Poland, Spain, Portugal, Canada, Australia, Zimbabwe, and South Africa. The original version of the VS was authorised by Super and Neville as part of the Work Importance Study's cross-national research and development work (Vos, 1998). The original version of the VS was American. It measured 21 values. Even though some values of the scale were independent and others were interrelated; all the values of the scale were considered conceptually different (Vos, 1998).

The South African version of the VS was developed at the Institute of Psychological and Edumetric Research (IPER) of the Human Sciences Research Council by Langley (1995). Langley conducted a pilot study with 978 high-school pupils and found that the VS had acceptable properties for the major languages and cultural groups in South Africa. The VS has been standardised in English, Afrikaans, and some of the African languages of South Africa (De Bruin, 2001).

The VS is used to assess the relative importance that an individual places on activities (De Bruin, 2001). There are 22 values included in Langley's Value Scale. Table 3.2 provides the definitions of the 22 values. The questionnaire consists of five items relating to each value, totalling 110 items. Each item begins with 'It is now or will in the future be important to me' followed by a statement. Each item is answered on a 5-point Likert scale where 0 = 'Of no importance', 1 = 'Of little importance', 2 = 'Of some importance', 3 = 'Important', and 4 = 'Very important' (Langley, 1995; Vos, 1998).

Table 3.2: The South African Values Scale (VS) dimensions and definitions

VALUES SCALE (VS)	DEFINITIONS
	<i>The extent to which:</i>
1. Ability Utilization	A person has the opportunity to develop his/her talents and skills
2. Achievement	A person has the feeling that something has been done well
3. Advancement	A person progresses in his/her career, has a better standard of living, lives in a better environment, has a better income
4. Aesthetics	A person adds to and enjoys the beauty of processes, products and surroundings, both natural and manmade
5. Altruism	A person helps others and is concerned about their welfare
6. Authority	A person influences others and urges them to support a particular point of view or policy. This can be done through

	position, power, expertise, charisma or seniority
7. Autonomy	A person makes independent decisions and carries out plans as he/she sees fit, has independence of action within his/her sphere
8. Creativity	A person develops or makes something original. The product may be an object, writing, painting, or some other art work, an idea, a new method or an organisation innovation
9. Cultural Identity	A person has the freedom to conduct himself/herself in public and private life according to the customs of the group he/she belongs to
10. Economic Rewards	A person has a high standard of living with the financial means to support it
11. Economic Security	A person has a stable income and is sure of being able to survive difficult economic times
12. Life Style	A person has the freedom to live his/her own life according to his/her own standards and values, which can be defined in different ways
13. Personal Development	A person develops and has ideas as to what to do with his/her life
14. Physical Activities	A person is physically active and fit
15. Physical Prowess	A person does work that requires physical strength
16. Prestige	A person has social, economic or occupational status which arouses respect, esteem and admiration
17. Risk	A person enjoys the excitement of physical danger, financial gain or loss, and other risks incurred in projects proposed, undertaken or carried out
18. Social Interaction	A person attends to and talks with people as part of his/her job
19. Social Relations	A person values pleasant, friendly contacts with the people whom he/she works or with the people in other

	surroundings
20. Spirituality	A person lives according to religious principles
21. Variety	A person likes change and diversity in what he/she does, whether this relates to tasks, processes, and methods, the rhythm of activity, location or people with whom he/she associates
22. Working Conditions	A person works in a pleasant environment.

(Vos, 1998, pp.126-128)

The reliability of the VS has been tested and found satisfactory in previous studies (Langley, 1995; Vos, 1998).

3.5 Calculation of Leader-Follower Value Congruence

The Value Scale (VS), used to measure work values, did not include leader-follower value congruence. Leader-follower value congruence was therefore calculated. Leader-follower value congruence is the degree of similarity between a leader and his/her followers' values (Krishnan, 2005). Value congruence was determined by calculating the degree to which the leader's and followers' values matched.

Leader-follower value congruence was calculated for each of the 22 values of the Value Scale. A profile similarity index (PSI) was used to calculate leader-follower value congruence. The PSI combines two sets of measures from corresponding entities (e.g. leader and follower values) into a single score that represents overall congruence (leader-follower value congruence) (Edwards, 1993).

Profile similarity indexes can be divided into two categories. The first category represents a correlation between two profiles (Q). Q has been used to represent interpersonal similarity regarding values (Edwards, 1994). When two profiles are correlated, the degree to which the profiles are found to be similar indicates the degree of leader-follower value

congruence. These profile indices share a common interpretation which indicates the similarity of the rank ordering of the elements within each profile (Edwards, 1993). In order to determine leader-follower value congruence, the values of the leader are correlated with the values of the follower. The correlation coefficients are then corrected for skewness by converting them into z-scores. This is achieved by using Fisher's r-to-z transformation. The resulting z-score acts as an index of value similarity, where the higher the z-score, the greater the leader-follower value congruence (Meglino, Ravlin & Adkins, 1989).

There are a number of problems associated with using the correlation between profile elements to calculate value congruence (Edwards, 1993). Q creates ambiguity by its inability to clearly identify the construct underlying the measure. This is because the measures of distinct elements are combined into a single profile. Q represents similarity in profile shape and not the distance between elements. The effects of positive and negative differences are viewed in the same way. It then becomes necessary to consider information regarding the absolute level of both entities and the direction of their difference. This information is lost when correlation between profiles are used. Also, Q does not reflect which elements are responsible for the differences between two entities (Edwards, 1993; Edwards, 1994).

The second category of the PSI is the bivariate congruence index (Edwards, 1994). There are three types of bivariate PSIs, namely, algebraic differences, absolute differences and squared differences (Edwards, 1994). D^1 represents the sum of the algebraic differences between profile elements (leader and follower values); $|D|$ represents the sum of the absolute differences between profile elements; and D^2 represents the sum of squared differences approach, where leader-follower value congruence is calculated by adding the squared differences between profile elements (Edwards, 1993; Edwards, 1994).

The study made use of the sum of absolute differences approach to calculate leader-follower value congruence. Leader-follower value congruence was calculated using a variation of D^1 , namely the sum of the absolute differences ($|D|$).

The following equation was used to calculate leader-follower value congruence:

$$|D| = \sum_{i=1}^k |X_i - Y_i|$$

This congruence index consists of the absolute difference between two composite measures. These indices are a transformation of the algebraic difference index. As with the correlation PSI, the absolute difference PSI also has certain limitations. The bivariate congruence indices collapse two or more component measures into a single difference score index. This causes the interpretability of the original measures to be lost, which confounds their relationship (Kalliath, Bluedorn & Strube, 1999). $|D|$ cannot be unambiguously interpreted, as it is non-directional. The absolute difference between profile elements treats positive and negative differences in the same way (Edwards, 1993; Edwards, 1994). It discards information regarding the direction of the difference between elements. $|D|$ is non-directional, but it yields a geometric interpretation that represents the Euclidean difference between two entities (Edwards, 1993; Edwards, 1994). $|D|$ assigns equal weight to differences of increasing magnitude (Meglino, Ravlin & Adkins; 1992). For example, a difference of one unit in three elements would be treated the same as a difference of three units in one element.

According to Edwards (1994) the absolute differences approach is a commonly used congruence in many studies. Although the absolute differences approach revealed a number of limitations, a review of the other congruence indices indicated similar limitations (Edwards, 1993; Edwards, 1994; Kalliath, Bluedorn & Strube, 1999).

3.6 Sampling Design and Procedure

3.6.1 Sample Technique

The sampling technique describes the original technique used to acquire the sample. Sampling techniques can be classified as probability or non-probability sampling (Malhotra,

2004). The sampling technique used in the study was non-probability sampling. Non-probability sampling relies on personal judgement rather than chance as a sampling technique (Malhotra, 2004). The study made use of purposive sampling in which the sample is 'hand picked' for the research (Van Niekerk, 2005).

3.6.2 Sample Size

The sample group was made up of employees from a large petroleum company in the Western Cape. The sample (N=162) consisted of 54 leaders in high level management positions and two subordinates for each leader. Information relating to the employee's age, work experience, tenure with the organisation, and management level were collected. The mean and standard deviations of the sample information is outlined in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 Descriptive Statistics of the study

	LEADERS (N=54)		SUBORDINATES (N=108)	
	Mean	Std Dev	Mean	Std Dev
Age	43.85185	8.46392	35.38889	9.41944
Work Experience	22.81481	10.19818	14.75000	9.96454
Tenure	16.03704	11.17943	8.54630	8.03309
Years in Management	10.42593	8.72775	3.05556	4.837226

The mean age of the subordinates was 35.4 years while for the leaders it was 43.9 years. The tenure of the respondents varied, with some being in the organisation for less than a year and others for 42 years. On average the leaders had spent 16.0 years with the organisation, whereas the subordinates had an average tenure of 8.5 years. The subordinates had on average 14.8 years work experience, whereas the leaders had an average of 22.8 years. The total sample consisted of first line managers (13%), middle managers (17%), senior managers (25%), top managers (5%) and employees not in management positions (40%). The leaders of the study had spent on average 10.4 years in management.

3.7 Data Collection

An existing data set was used. The data set was obtained from the supervisor of the research in March 2006. The data set included 162 completed MLQ-5R questionnaires and 162 completed Values Scale questionnaires. The questionnaires were received in raw format and had to be coded before being transcribed into computer data.

The sample consisted of respondents who had completed the MLQ-5R as well as the Values Scale. The instruments were administered to two subordinates for every leader. The leader respondents completed the MLQ-5R leader version as well as the Values Scale. The subordinates completed the MLQ-5R rater version as well as the Values Scale.

The advantages of using an existing data set include the saving of time and costs while limitations included not being able to avoid data collection errors. There was also a limit to the amount of information that could be gathered from the data.

3.8 Data Preparation

The first stage of data analysis includes preparing the raw data and transforming it into a machine readable format (Van Niekerk, 2005). Data preparation includes the editing, coding, transcription, and verification of data (Malhotra, 2004).

The first step, editing, refers to a review of the questionnaires with the objective of increasing accuracy and precision (Malhotra, 2004). All the responses were completed correctly and fully. The responses were made up of 54 leaders and two subordinates per leader, with a total sample of 162 respondents.

The coding process included assigning a code, usually a number, to each possible response to each questionnaire (Malhotra, 2004). The questionnaires were coded after the existing data set was received. Each questionnaire was given a number. The leader was given the first number; each subordinate was given a sub-section of that number, and so

on. The first leader questionnaire was labelled 1, and the two subordinates for the leader were 1.1 and 1.2 respectively. The following leader was labelled 2 and the subordinates were 2.1 and 2.2. All the questionnaires were labelled in this manner up to leader 54 and subordinates 54.1 and 54.2.

Each item of each questionnaire was coded. Both the MLQ-5R and VS were answered on a Likert Scale, ranging from 0-4. The responses were coded according to the number that was assigned to the item. The respondents' responses for each item in the MLQ were recorded. Demographic information regarding age, education, work experience, tenure with the organisation, years in management and number of subordinates reporting to the leader were also coded. Each item of the VS was coded and the respondents' responses to each item were recorded. When the coding of the questionnaires was complete, the coded data was transcribed.

Transcribing data involves transferring data from a questionnaire into a computer (Malhotra, 2004). The coded data was transcribed onto a Microsoft Excel Worksheet. A worksheet was created that summarised which data was included in the study and in which columns the data could be found. Consistency checks using data filters were carried out to identify any data that was out of range or had extreme values. The scores were then recorded in the Excel spreadsheet and imported into STATISTICA, a data analysis computer programme.

3.9 Data Analysis

Data analysis necessarily involves the 'breaking up' of data into manageable themes, patterns, trends and relationships (Mouton, 2001). The Centre for Statistical Consultation at the University of Stellenbosch conducted the statistical analyses of the study. STATISTICA computer software was used to perform the data analyses. Once the data was imported into STATISTICA the leadership factors were calculated using the MLQ scoring key. The leadership dimension scores were obtained using the sum of the relevant items. Transactional and transformational leadership factors were developed from the six leadership dimensions and transactional leadership was calculated as the sum of

contingent reward and management-by-exception items. Transformational leadership was calculated as the sum of inspirational motivation, individualised consideration, intellectual stimulation and charisma items. In order to determine leadership success scores for leader effectiveness, satisfaction with the leader, and exerting extra effort were also calculated for each respondent.

The VS was analysed to produce 22 value scores for each respondent. These were calculated using the sum of the five relevant items for each value. Leader-follower value congruence between each leader and his/her two subordinates was calculated using a profile similarity index (PSI). Leader-follower value congruence was determined as the sum of the absolute differences between the leader's values and follower's values. Leader-follower value congruence was calculated for each value of the VS.

Reliabilities were calculated to determine internal consistency for the main variables of the study, namely transactional and transformational leadership; values; and leadership success. The reliability of the MLQ and VS were calculated by using Cronbach's alpha. According to Nunnally (1978) coefficient alphas above 0.7 are acceptable, and indicate internal consistency. Malhotra (2004), on the other hand, states that coefficient alphas above 0.6 are acceptable. The study made use of Malhotra's standard for the purpose of determining the internal consistency of the MLQ and VS. Item-total correlations were calculated for each item of the MLQ and VS. Item-total correlations found to be above 0.2 were deemed acceptable (Nunnally, 1978). Only items that revealed total-item correlations below 0.2 qualified for elimination.

Inferential statistics were used to study the sample and test the hypotheses of the study. The study made use of correlation coefficients to test these hypotheses and to verify Engelbrecht's (2002) theoretical model. First the relationship between leadership (transactional and transformational) and leader-follower value congruence was determined. Transactional and transformational leadership was correlated with leader-follower value congruence for each value of the values of the VS. Similarly, the relationship between leader-follower value congruence and leadership success was determined. All 22 separate

leader-follower value congruencies were correlated with the dimensions of leadership success, namely, satisfaction with the leader, leader effectiveness and extra effort. Lastly, the relationship between leadership (transactional and transformational) and leadership success was determined. Each dimension of leadership success (extra effort, satisfaction with the leader, leader effectiveness) was correlated with transactional and transformational leadership. The strength and consistency of the relationships were calculated using correlation coefficients (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2002).

Pearson product-moment correlations measured the degree and direction of the linear relationship between variables (leadership, values and leadership success), and was represented by Pearson r . Pearson product moment correlations were used to test the seven hypotheses of the study and therefore measure the relationship between leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success.

Individuals are unique and therefore respond to the VS differently. These individual differences in the scale responses could produce changes or moderate the relationship between leadership, value congruence and leadership success. Partial correlations were used to correct for the effect of individual differences on scale use and were calculated to correct for the individual differences between the VS responses. This established controls for outlying scores which could skew the results of the correlations (Schwartz, 2008).

The respondents' average score for each value of the VS was used as the control variable (covariate) in the partial correlation. The average score of all the responses was calculated for each value of the VS by calculating the mean for all responses of each value. Leader-follower value congruence was partially correlated with transactional leadership, transformational leadership and leadership success while using the average value scores as a covariate. For example, ability utilization value congruence was partially correlated with transactional leadership while establishing controls for the mean ability utilization score of all the respondents. The partial correlation measured these relationships while controlling for the individual differences among the VS responses. In order to avoid confusion, partial correlation was represented by Partial r .

The product-moment correlation coefficients (Pearson r) and partial correlation coefficient (Partial r) measure the degree of the relationships on a scale from 0.00 to 1.00. The correlation coefficient ranged from -1.00 to 1.00, depending on the direction of the relationship. The closer it (r , Partial r) was to 1, the stronger the positive correlation between the variables. The closer it (r , Partial r) was to -1, the stronger the negative correlation between the variables. The observed significance level (p -value) was calculated using the correlation coefficient (r) and partial correlation coefficient (Partial r). The p -value measured the significance of the correlation and indicated the probability of the correlation actually existing, and its significance (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2002; Malhotra, 2004). The correlation was deemed significant where $p < 0.05$.

The following factors (in Gravetter & Wallnau, 2002) were taken into consideration when analysing the data. The correlations only described the relationships between the variables and not the reasons for the relationships. The value of the correlation could be greatly affected by the range of scores represented in the data. One or two extreme responses or data points could have large effects on the value of the correlation. The correlation should not be interpreted as a proportion. For example, if $r = 1.00$, it does not indicate a 100% predictable relationship. The proportion of the explained variance was determined by squaring the correlation (r^2).

3.10 Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations relate to what is wrong and what is right in conducting of research (Mouton, 2001). All research undertaken must be ethical. The study made ethical considerations in order to keep to the proper ethical practices of research.

The data of the study was used solely for the purpose of the research. The respondents remained anonymous. The researcher did not at any time know the identification of the respondents, as the demographic information provided in the measuring instruments related only to the respondent's age, educational level, managerial level, tenure with the organisation, years in management, years work experience, and number of subordinates.

3.11 Conclusion

This chapter highlighted the methodology of the research as well as the process of gathering and interpreting the data. First the research method/design was discussed which included the main concepts of the study. The hypotheses of the study were provided. The measurement instruments used were discussed where the MLQ-5R and VS were examined in detail. The manner in which leader-follower value congruence was calculated to perform the data analyses was explained. Information regarding the sampling technique and sample size was also provided. The data collection, preparation and analysis were reviewed. The ethical considerations of the study were provided.

The previous chapter discussed the theoretical literature behind the hypotheses of the study. This chapter discussed the method and process of the research. The next chapter contains the presentation and interpretation of the results of the data analysis.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

The theoretical background and framework of the study was discussed in Chapter 2 in which research propositions were formulated. The research method and statistical methods used to test the hypotheses of the study were discussed in Chapter 3. The current chapter reports the results of the statistical analyses used to test the reliability of the constructs and the formulated hypotheses.

The first section of the chapter describes the missing values of the data. The reliabilities of the measuring instruments are then discussed. The chapter outlines the reliability coefficients for the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and the South African Value Scale (VS).

The results of the tested hypotheses are discussed based on the procedures outlined in the previous chapter. The method used to test each hypothesis is specified and the results tabulated. The statistical analyses were conducted by the Centre for Statistical Consultation at the University of Stellenbosch.

The chapter ends with a summary of the results of the study and leads to the next chapter which discusses the main findings of the study in detail and provides possible rationales for the results.

4.2 Missing Values

Before the data set was analysed the missing values of the data had to be addressed. Missing values did not present a problem in the statistical analyses. An existing data set was used. A total of 164 completed questionnaires were received. All the responses were completed correctly and were complete. The data set was made up of one leader for every

two subordinates. The data set that was used for statistical analyses was made up of 54 leaders and 108 subordinates. The total sample constituted 162 respondents.

4.3 Reliability Results

Reliability is the extent to which a measuring instrument produces consistent results if repeated measurements are made (Malhotra, 2004). It is the consistency with which measuring instruments measure what they are intended to measure. Reliabilities were calculated for the main variables of the study, namely transactional and transformational leadership; values; and leadership success. The items of the VS and MLQ were found reliable according to the standards set out by Malhotra (2004), where a reliability score of less than 0.6 indicates a lack of internal consistency. Coefficient alphas greater than 0.6 were found to be internally consistent and reliable. Item-total correlations were calculated for each item of the MLQ and VS. Item-total correlations found to be above 0.2 were deemed acceptable (Nunnally, 1978). Only items that revealed total-item correlations below 0.2 qualified for elimination.

Table 4.1 and Table 4.2 present the results of the Cronbach's alpha and item-total correlations for the leadership constructs. The MLQ consisted of twenty items that related to transactional leadership. The reliabilities for each item were calculated and are provided in Table 4.1. The coefficient alpha for the total transactional leadership variable was 0.831. The transactional leadership construct was deemed reliable for the purpose of the study.

Table 4.1 Reliability of Transactional Leadership (N=162)

Transactional Leadership (Item)	Scale Mean If deleted	Std Dev If deleted	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach Alpha if deleted
TAL (L5)	44.679	11.098	0.551	0.817
TAL (L6)	44.574	11.506	0.163	0.834
TAL (L12)	44.531	11.184	0.486	0.820
TAL (L13)	44.691	11.356	0.291	0.829

TAL (L19)	44.981	11.095	0.492	0.819
TAL (L20)	44.784	11.306	0.351	0.826
TAL (L26)	45.698	10.967	0.503	0.819
TAL (L27)	45.870	10.976	0.516	0.818
TAL (L33)	44.458	11.193	0.516	0.820
TAL (L34)	44.716	11.338	0.295	0.829
TAL (L40)	45.525	10.821	0.657	0.810
TAL (L41)	45.759	11.567	0.080	0.839
TAL (L47)	45.574	10.866	0.648	0.811
TAL (L48)	45.691	11.163	0.370	0.826
TAL (L54)	45.179	11.119	0.449	0.822
TAL (L55)	46.167	11.570	0.078	0.840
TAL (L61)	45.815	10.989	0.588	0.815
TAL (L62)	46.173	11.408	0.210	0.833
TAL (L68)	44.549	11.101	0.514	0.819
TAL (L69)	44.963	11.309	0.400	0.824

Items L6, L41 and L55 revealed item-total correlations below 0.2. These items were not considered for elimination, as the removal of the items would only marginally increase the Cronbach alpha. Also, when the items were included, the reliability of Transactional Leadership was above the acceptable mark ($\alpha > 0.6$).

The reliability of Transformational Leadership was tested using Cronbach's alpha. Thirty-seven items of the MLQ related to Transformational Leadership. Coefficient alphas for each of the 37 items were calculated. Table 4.2 provides the reliability coefficients of the Transformational Leadership items.

Transformational leadership revealed an overall Cronbach alpha of 0.972. The item- total correlations were all above the satisfactory mark of 0.2. The Transformational leadership construct was deemed reliable for the purpose of the study, as the Transformational leadership subscale revealed an alpha above 0.6.

Table 4.2 Reliability of Transformational Leadership (N=162)

Transformational Leadership (Items)	Scale Mean If deleted	Std Dev If deleted	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach Alpha if deleted
TFL (L1)	103.821	26.502	0.695	0.971
TFL (L2)	103.469	26.647	0.610	0.972
TFL (L3)	104.111	26.452	0.685	0.971
TFL (L4)	104.617	26.418	0.714	0.971
TFL (L8)	103.814	26.373	0.719	0.971
TFL (L9)	104.000	26.178	0.765	0.971
TFL (L10)	103.914	26.374	0.728	0.971
TFL (L11)	103.790	26.348	0.780	0.971
TFL (L15)	103.827	26.381	0.695	0.971
TFL (L16)	103.704	26.655	0.576	0.972
TFL (L17)	104.117	26.454	0.670	0.971
TFL (L18)	104.161	26.395	0.693	0.971
TFL (L22)	104.420	26.480	0.654	0.972
TFL (L23)	104.247	26.271	0.821	0.971
TFL (L24)	104.303	26.302	0.736	0.971
TFL (L25)	103.321	26.608	0.620	0.971
TFL (L29)	104.228	26.623	0.466	0.972
TFL (L30)	104.716	26.555	0.485	0.972
TFL (L31)	104.080	26.572	0.474	0.973
TFL (L32)	104.148	26.290	0.749	0.971
TFL (L36)	103.519	26.481	0.721	0.971
TFL (L37)	104.198	26.253	0.752	0.971
TFL (L38)	103.568	26.709	0.523	0.972
TFL (L39)	103.617	26.339	0.802	0.971
TFL (L43)	103.907	26.408	0.779	0.971
TFL (L44)	103.759	26.441	0.699	0.971

TFL (L45)	103.938	26.320	0.740	0.971
TFL (L46)	104.105	26.342	0.677	0.972
TFL (L50)	103.907	26.350	0.754	0.971
TFL (L52)	104.086	26.348	0.716	0.971
TFL (L53)	103.796	26.302	0.786	0.971
TFL (L57)	104.093	26.401	0.755	0.971
TFL (L59)	103.944	26.387	0.743	0.971
TFL (L60)	103.790	26.375	0.698	0.971
TFL (L64)	103.870	26.487	0.663	0.972
TFL (L66)	103.790	26.370	0.748	0.971
TFL (L67)	103.858	26.539	0.590	0.972

The reliability of leadership success, also measured by the MLQ, was calculated using Cronbach's alpha. The reliabilities of the three leadership success dimensions were calculated separately. Table 4.3 presents the reliabilities for the three leadership success dimensions.

Table 4.3 Reliability of Leadership Success dimensions (N = 162)

Leadership success (Item)	Scale Mean If deleted	Std Dev If deleted	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach Alpha if deleted
Extra Effort (L51)	5.549	2.105	0.544	0.882
Extra effort (L58)	5.333	1.975	0.813	0.611
Extra Effort (L65)	5.216	2.030	0.680	0.743
Leader Effectiveness (L71)	8.364	2.279	0.616	0.830
Leader Effectiveness (L72)	8.395	2.071	0.716	0.790
Leader Effectiveness (L73)	8.531	2.073	0.726	0.784
Leader Effectiveness (L74)	8.191	2.281	0.695	0.804
Satisfaction with leader (L75)	2.821	1.010	0.735	
Satisfaction with leader (L76)	3.142	0.961	0.735	

Three items of the MLQ were used to measure the Extra Effort exerted by the leader. The item-total correlations for the items were above the minimum mark of 0.2. The total reliability coefficient for extra effort was 0.819, which was deemed acceptable ($\alpha > 0.6$).

The leader effectiveness dimension consisted of four items in the MLQ. Table 4.3 shows that the item-total correlations were above the satisfactory mark (0.2). The total Cronbach alpha for Leader Effectiveness was 0.845. The Leader Effectiveness subscale was therefore deemed reliable ($\alpha > 0.6$).

Satisfaction with the Leader was measured by two items of the MLQ. The reliability coefficient ($\alpha = 0.847$) was acceptable ($\alpha > 0.6$). The item-total correlations were above the satisfactory mark (0.2). The satisfaction with the Leader dimension of leadership success was deemed reliable ($\alpha > 0.6$).

Extra Effort, Leader Effectiveness, and Satisfaction with the Leader yielded acceptable reliability scores ($\alpha > 0.6$). The Leadership Success construct was therefore deemed reliable for the purpose of the study.

Cronbach's alpha was used to calculate the reliability of the VS. Each value of the VS was measured by five items. Table 4.4 to Table 4.26 present the coefficient alphas and item-total correlations for each item of the 22 values of the VS.

Table 4.4 presents the reliability scores for Ability utilization. Ability utilization revealed an overall reliability score of 0.692. Item-total correlations were above the satisfactory mark (0.2). Ability utilization was therefore deemed reliable for the purpose of the study ($\alpha > 0.6$).

Table 4.4 Reliability of Ability Utilization in the Value Scale (N=162)

Value	Scale Mean If deleted	Std Dev If deleted	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach Alpha if deleted
Ability Utilization (V1)	14.136	1.741	0.216	0.723
Ability Utilization (V23)	14.259	1.534	0.474	0.631
Ability Utilization (V45)	14.185	1.596	0.506	0.623
Ability Utilization (V67)	14.278	1.516	0.571	0.588
Ability Utilization (V89)	14.549	1.470	0.491	0.626

Item V1 was considered for possible elimination but it was argued that removal of the item would only marginally increase Cronbach's alpha. The item-total correlation for the item was above 0.2. Nunnally (1978) stated that only those items with item-total correlations below 0.2 should be eliminated. It was therefore decided to retain the item.

Table 4.5 presents the reliability scores for the Achievement value of the VS. The overall Achievement value was found to be reliable as the alpha ($\alpha = 0.670$) was above 0.6 (Malhotra, 2004). The item-total correlations for the items were acceptable. The value of Achievement was considered reliable for the purpose of the study.

Table 4.5 Reliability of Achievement in the Value Scale (N = 162)

Value	Scale Mean If deleted	Std Dev If deleted	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach Alpha if deleted
Achievement (V2)	14.414	1.546	0.470	0.599
Achievement (V24)	14.821	1.383	0.404	0.664
Achievement (V 46)	14.364	1.655	0.348	0.651
Achievement (V68)	14.444	1.563	0.510	0.588
Achievement (V90)	14.475	1.552	0.478	0.597

Table 4.6 presents the reliability coefficients of Advancement. The item-total correlations were acceptable. The reliability of Advancement was considered high ($\alpha=0.881$), as the coefficient alpha was high above the acceptable mark ($\alpha > 0.6$). The advancement value of the VS was found reliable for the purpose of the study.

Table 4.6 Reliability of Advancement in the Value Scale (N = 162)

Value	Scale Mean If deleted	Std Dev If deleted	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach Alpha if deleted
Advancement (V3)	13.358	2.663	0.777	0.842
Advancement (V25)	13.685	2.779	0.711	0.858
Advancement (V47)	13.370	2.624	0.799	0.836
Advancement (V69)	13.451	2.692	0.836	0.828
Advancement (V91)	13.296	3.043	0.475	0.904

Table 4.7 presents the results of Cronbach's alpha for the Aesthetics value of the VS. The reliability of Aesthetics ($\alpha = 0.816$) was considered high, as the coefficient alpha was high above the acceptable mark ($\alpha > 0.6$). The item-total correlations were acceptable. The Aesthetics value of the VS was found to be reliable for the purpose of the study.

Table 4.7 Reliability of Aesthetics in the Value Scale (N = 162)

Value	Scale Mean If deleted	Std Dev If deleted	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach Alpha if deleted
Aesthetics (V4)	10.531	3.015	0.512	0.805
Aesthetics (V26)	10.747	2.915	0.625	0.776
Aesthetics (V48)	11.370	2.769	0.627	0.774
Aesthetics (V70)	11.568	8.221	0.561	0.794
Aesthetics (V92)	11.265	7.405	0.717	0.744

Table 4.8 indicates the reliability coefficient of Altruism. The item-total correlations were acceptable. The overall coefficient alpha for Altruism was 0.874. The reliability of Altruism was considered high, as the coefficient alpha was high above the acceptable mark ($\alpha > 0.6$). Altruism was found to be reliable for the purpose of the study.

Table 4.8 Reliability of Altruism in the Value Scale (N = 162)

Value	Scale Mean If deleted	Std Dev If deleted	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach Alpha if deleted
Altruism (V5)	12.000	2.917	0.657	0.859
Altruism (V27)	12.284	2.718	0.753	0.835
Altruism (V49)	12.099	2.898	0.610	0.869
Altruism (V71)	12.265	2.742	0.751	0.836
Altruism (V93)	12.562	2.719	0.751	0.836

Table 4.9 indicates the results of the reliability scores for Authority. The item-total correlations were acceptable. Authority revealed an overall reliability score of 0.784. The Authority subscale was found reliable for the purpose of the study, as the reliability coefficient was above the acceptable mark ($\alpha > 0.6$).

Table 4.9 Reliability of Authority in the Value Scale (N = 162)

Value	Scale Mean If deleted	Std Dev If deleted	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach Alpha if deleted
Authority (V6)	11.296	2.848	0.454	0.782
Authority (V28)	10.062	2.841	0.607	0.731
Authority (V50)	10.383	2.774	0.628	0.722
Authority (V72)	10.525	2.857	0.580	0.739
Authority (V94)	10.969	2.774	0.555	0.747

The reliability coefficient for the value of Autonomy in the VS revealed unacceptable results (refer to Table 4.10). The overall coefficient alpha was below Malhotra's (2004) general standard of 0.6.

Table 4.10 Reliability of Autonomy in the Value Scale (N = 162)

Value	Scale Mean If deleted	Std Dev If deleted	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach Alpha if deleted
Autonomy (V7)	12.019	2.498	0.152	0.627
Autonomy (V29)	11.802	2.357	0.504	0.475
Autonomy (V51)	11.846	2.410	0.384	0.522
Autonomy (V73)	12.290	2.069	0.572	0.384
Autonomy (V95)	13.006	2.235	0.241	0.621

Item V7 (Table 4.10) was considered for elimination. The item-total correlation score was below the acceptable score of 0.2. According to Nunnally (1978), only those items with item-total correlations below 0.2 should be eliminated. If V7 was eliminated, then the Autonomy value would become reliable for the purpose of the study. In accordance with Nunnally (1978), and in order to ensure that all the variables of the study were reliable, item V7 was eliminated. Table 4.11 outlines the adapted reliability for the Autonomy value of the VS. Autonomy revealed an overall reliability score of 0.627. Autonomy was found reliable for the purpose of the study.

Table 4.11 Adapted Reliability of Autonomy in the Value Scale (N=162)

Value	Scale Mean If deleted	Std Dev If deleted	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach Alpha if deleted
Autonomy (V29)	8.580	2.113	0.462	0.543
Autonomy (V51)	8.623	2.137	0.389	0.579
Autonomy (V73)	9.068	1.789	0.579	0.413
Autonomy (V95)	9.784	1.885	0.301	0.681

The coefficient alphas for the value of Creativity are shown in Table 4.12. The item-total correlations of the items were acceptable. The coefficient alpha for the overall Creativity value was 0.821. This reliability score was considered high ($\alpha > 0.6$) above the acceptable mark. The Creativity value of the VS was considered reliable for the purpose of the study.

Table 4.12 Reliability of Creativity in the Value Scale (N = 162)

Value	Scale Mean If deleted	Std Dev If deleted	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach Alpha if deleted
Creativity (V8)	12.531	2.561	0.545	0.806
Creativity (V30)	12.438	2.587	0.651	0.780
Creativity (V52)	12.284	2.747	0.545	0.812
Creativity (V74)	13.062	2.252	0.690	0.773
Creativity (V96)	12.846	2.418	0.731	0.750

Table 4.13 represents the coefficient alphas for the Cultural Identity value. Cultural Identity revealed an overall Cronbach alpha of 0.814. The item-total correlations were above the satisfactory mark of 0.2. The Cultural Identity value of the VS was deemed reliable for the purpose of the study.

Table 4.13 Reliability of Cultural Identity in the Value Scale (N = 162)

Value	Scale Mean If deleted	Std Dev If deleted	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach Alpha if deleted
Cultural Identity (V9)	9.074	3.837	0.595	0.783
Cultural Identity (V31)	8.901	3.955	0.559	0.792
Cultural Identity (V53)	8.414	3.895	0.650	0.764
Cultural Identity (V75)	8.944	3.913	0.659	0.763
Cultural Identity (V97)	8.469	4.040	0.565	0.790

Table 4.14 revealed the coefficient alphas for the Economic Rewards subscale. Economic Rewards revealed an overall alpha of 0.786 (refer to Table 4.14). The item-total correlation was found acceptable. The Economic Reward value of the VS was found reliable for the purpose of the study.

Table 4.14 Reliability of Economic Rewards in the Value Scale (N = 162)

Value	Scale Mean If deleted	Std Dev If deleted	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach Alpha if deleted
Economic Rewards (V10)	13.444	2.140	0.420	0.769
Economic Rewards (V32)	13.031	2.161	0.489	0.742
Economic Rewards (V54)	13.062	2.090	0.645	0.692
Economic Rewards (V76)	13.117	2.138	0.565	0.719
Economic Rewards (V98)	13.395	1.983	0.604	0.702

Table 4.15 represents the coefficient alphas for Economic Security. Economic Security revealed an overall alpha of 0.750. The item-total correlations were found acceptable for all items. The Economic Security value of the VS was found reliable for the purpose of the study.

Table 4.15 Reliability of Economic Security in the Value Scale (N = 162)

Value	Scale Mean If deleted	Std Dev If deleted	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach Alpha if deleted
Economic Security (V11)	13.815	1.954	0.443	0.730
Economic Security (V33)	13.790	1.897	0.573	0.687
Economic Security (V55)	13.765	1.824	0.601	0.673
Economic Security (V77)	14.167	1.816	0.496	0.718
Economic Security (V99)	13.969	1.196	0.480	0.718

The results of Cronbach's alpha for the Life Style value are outlined in Table 4.16. Life Style revealed an overall reliability score ($\alpha = 0.672$) that was above the acceptable mark ($\alpha < 0.7$). Item-total correlations were found to be acceptable. The Life Style value of the VS was deemed reliable for the purpose of the study.

Table 4.16 Reliability of Life Style in the Value Scale (N = 162)

Value	Scale Mean If deleted	Std Dev If deleted	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach Alpha if deleted
Life Style (V12)	12.222	2.434	0.433	0.619
Life Style (V34)	12.134	2.466	0.418	0.626
Life Style (V56)	12.809	2.289	0.466	0.604
Life Style (V78)	12.883	2.193	0.492	0.591
Life Style (V100)	12.123	2.586	0.351	0.654

Table 4.17 provides the reliability coefficients for the Personal Development subscale. The overall coefficient alpha for Personal Development was 0.761. Item-total correlations for all the Personal Development items were acceptable. The Personal Development value of the VS was deemed reliable for the purpose of the study.

Table 4.17 Reliability of Personal Development in the Value Scale (N = 162)

Value	Scale Mean If deleted	Std Dev If deleted	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach Alpha if deleted
Personal Development (V13)	14.698	1.512	0.551	0.711
Personal Development (V35)	14.833	1.483	0.488	0.734
Personal Development (V57)	14.673	1.539	0.559	0.711
Personal Development (V79)	14.864	1.451	0.567	0.704
Personal Development (V101)	14.784	1.506	0.498	0.729

Table 4.18 presents the reliability coefficients for the Physical Activeness subscale. The overall coefficient alpha for physical activeness was 0.848. The reliability of Physical Activeness was considered high, as the alpha was above the acceptable mark ($\alpha > 0.6$). The item-total correlations were acceptable. Physical Activeness was considered reliable for the purpose of the study.

Table 4.18 Reliability of Physical Activities in the Value Scale (N = 162)

Value	Scale Mean If deleted	Std Dev If deleted	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach Alpha if deleted
Physical Activeness (V14)	9.920	3.464	0.732	0.799
Physical Activeness (V36)	10.093	3.508	0.657	0.817
Physical Activeness (V58)	10.562	3.590	0.420	0.886
Physical Activeness (V80)	9.772	3.432	0.776	0.788
Physical Activeness (V102)	10.494	3.311	0.763	0.786

Table 4.19 provides the reliability coefficients for the Physical Prowess subscale. The overall coefficient alpha for personal development was 0.802. Item-total correlations for all the personal development items were acceptable. The Physical Prowess value of the VS was deemed reliable for the purpose of the study.

Table 4.19 Reliability of Physical Prowess in the Value Scale (N = 162)

Value	Scale Mean If deleted	Std Dev If deleted	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach Alpha if deleted
Physical Prowess (V15)	4.475	3.519	0.485	0.797
Physical Prowess (V37)	5.710	3.608	0.469	0.799
Physical Prowess (V59)	5.562	3.373	0.648	0.744
Physical Prowess (V81)	5.692	3.484	0.671	0.741
Physical Prowess (V103)	5.377	3.363	0.678	0.734

The results of Cronbach's alpha for the value of Prestige are presented in Table 4.20. The overall reliability for Prestige was deemed acceptable ($\alpha = 0.797$). Item-total correlations for the items were above the satisfactory level of 0.2. The Prestige value of the VS was deemed reliable for the purpose of the study.

Table 4.20 Reliability of Prestige in the Value Scale (N = 162)

Value	Scale Mean If deleted	Std Dev If deleted	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach Alpha if deleted
Prestige (V16)	12.290	2.935	0.651	0.734
Prestige (V38)	11.907	3.038	0.632	0.744
Prestige (V60)	11.975	3.024	0.515	0.780
Prestige (V82)	12.698	2.940	0.525	0.781
Prestige (V104)	12.043	3.102	0.608	0.754

The reliability coefficients for the risk value are outlined in Table 4.21. The overall Risk value coefficient alpha was 0.801. The reliability of Risk was considered high, as the alpha was above the acceptable mark ($\alpha > 0.6$). The item-total correlations were acceptable. The Risk value was considered reliable at a satisfactorily level for the purpose of the study.

Table 4.21 Reliability of Risk in the Value Scale (N = 162)

Value	Scale Mean If deleted	Std Dev If deleted	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach Alpha if deleted
Risk (V17)	7.228	3.747	0.541	0.776
Risk (V39)	7.333	3.494	0.623	0.751
Risk (V61)	7.469	3.554	0.583	0.765
Risk (V83)	8.025	3.628	0.660	0.740
Risk (V105)	6.710	3.840	0.532	0.779

The coefficient alphas of Social Interaction are depicted in Table 4.22. The overall coefficient alpha was at the acceptable mark ($\alpha=0.703$). Item-total correlations were satisfactory, as they were above 0.2. The Social Interaction value was found to be reliable for the purpose of the study.

Table 4.22 Reliability of Social Interaction in the Value Scale (N = 162)

Value	Scale Mean If deleted	Std Dev If deleted	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach Alpha if deleted
Social Interaction (V18)	10.660	2.724	0.385	0.683
Social Interaction (V40)	11.481	2.510	0.441	0.670
Social Interaction (V62)	11.506	2.510	0.527	0.623
Social Interaction (V84)	10.636	2.723	0.456	0.657
Social Interaction (V106)	10.679	2.712	0.533	0.635

Table 4.23 represents the coefficient alphas for the Social Relations value of the VS. Social Relations revealed an overall alpha of 0.756 Item-total correlations were found acceptable for all items. The Social Relations value of the VS was found reliable at an acceptable level ($\alpha > 0.6$) for the purpose of the study.

Table 4.23 Reliability of Social Relations in the Value Scale (N = 162)

Value	Scale Mean If deleted	Std Dev If deleted	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach Alpha if deleted
Social Relations (V19)	10.105	2.593	0.519	0.715
Social Relations (V41)	10.352	2.797	0.579	0.691
Social Relations (V63)	11.173	2.808	0.466	0.742
Social Relations (V85)	10.364	2.882	0.510	0.718
Social Relations (V107)	10.080	2.977	0.587	0.700

Table 4.24 outlined the coefficient alphas for the Spirituality value of the VS. Spirituality indicated a coefficient alpha ($\alpha=0.814$) that was high above the acceptable level ($\alpha > 0.6$). Item-total correlations were acceptable. The Spirituality value of the VS was found to be reliable for the purpose of the study.

Table 4.24 Reliability of Spirituality in the Value Scale (N = 162)

Value	Scale Mean If deleted	Std Dev If deleted	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach Alpha if deleted
Spirituality (V20)	11.278	3.620	0.581	0.793
Spirituality (V42)	12.086	3.171	0.540	0.818
Spirituality (V64)	11.580	3.485	0.590	0.784
Spirituality (V86)	11.444	3.401	0.728	0.750
Spirituality (V108)	11.981	3.122	0.710	0.744

The results of Cronbach's alpha for Variety are outlined in Table 4.25. All the items relating to variety yielded acceptable coefficient alphas ($\alpha > 0.6$). The overall coefficient alpha for Variety was acceptable ($\alpha= 0.769$). Item-total correlations for the variety items were satisfactory. The value of Variety was deemed reliable for the purpose of the study, as the coefficient alpha was above the acceptable mark.

Table 4.25 Reliability of Variety in the Value Scale (N = 162)

Value	Scale Mean If deleted	Std Dev If deleted	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach Alpha if deleted
Variety (V21)	11.019	2.736	0.558	0.721
Variety (V43)	10.895	2.761	0.511	0.736
Variety (V65)	11.537	2.497	0.603	0.707
Variety (V87)	10.981	2.689	0.526	0.731
Variety (V109)	10.827	2.821	0.525	0.734

The results of the Cronbach's alpha for Working Conditions are outlined in Table 4.26. Working Conditions revealed an overall reliability score ($\alpha = 0.703$) that was above the acceptable mark ($\alpha > 0.6$). Item-total correlations were acceptable. The Working Conditions subscale was considered reliable for the purpose of the study.

Table 4.26 Reliability of Working Conditions in the Value Scale (N = 162)

Value	Scale Mean If deleted	Std Dev If deleted	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach Alpha if deleted
Working Conditions (V22)	10.809	2.894	0.387	0.682
Working Conditions (V44)	11.012	2.608	0.550	0.614
Working Conditions (V66)	11.512	2.743	0.350	0.710
Working Conditions (V88)	11.253	2.656	0.598	0.596
Working Conditions (V110)	11.340	2.842	0.450	0.660

The Ability utilization, Achievement, Advancement, Aesthetics, Altruism, Authority, Autonomy, Creativity, Cultural identity, Economic Rewards, Economic Security, Life Style, Personal Development, Physical Activities, Physical Prowess, Prestige, Risk, Social Interactions, Social Relations, Spirituality, Variety and Working Conditions were found to be reliable at an acceptable level ($\alpha > 0.6$) for the purpose of the study.

According to Malhotra (2004), coefficient alphas greater than 0.6 indicate internal consistency of a measure. The coefficient alphas were not found to be unreliable, as all the values revealed coefficient alphas greater than 0.6. When the Cronbach alphas for all the items of the autonomy value were calculated, the subscale was not found to be reliable. In order to allow the subscale to be reliable for the purpose of the study, item V7 of the VS was eliminated. The items of both the MLQ and VS were considered reliable for the purpose of the study.

4.4 Hypothesis Testing

The literature study outlined the theoretical basis for the model of the relationship between leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. Seven hypotheses were formulated to explain Engelbrecht's (2002) model of the relationship between leadership (transactional and transformational), leader-follower value congruence and leadership success; as outlined in Figure 2.2. This section focuses on the results of the seven tested hypotheses.

Table 4.27 Guilford's Interpretation of the Significance of r

Absolute value of r	Interpretation
< 0.19	Slight; almost no relationship
0.20 – 0.39	Low correlation; definite but small relationship
0.40 – 0.69	Moderate correlation; substantial relationship
0.70 – 0.89	High correlation; strong relationship
0.90 – 1.00	Very high correlation; very dependable relationship

The hypotheses were tested using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients (Pearson r) with a 5% level of significance (p). Partial correlations (Partial r) were also calculated in order to control for the effects of individual differences in the VS scores. Correlations were considered significant, and not related by accident or chance, where $p < 0.05$ (Malhotra, 2004). The results of the correlations were interpreted in terms of

Guilford's (in Scheps, 2003) interpretation of the magnitude of the significance of r . The interpretation guidelines are outlined in Table 4.27.

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated to determine the nature of the relationships between transactional leadership and leader-follower value congruence, transformational leadership and leader-follower value congruence, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success, transactional leadership and leadership success, as well as transformational leadership and leadership success. Partial correlations were calculated to determine the nature of the relationships between transactional leadership and leader-follower value congruence, transformational leadership and leader-follower value congruence, as well as leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. The results of the tested hypotheses are conveyed in Tables 4.28 - 4.39 in the sections that follow.

Leadership was calculated according to the leader rating and follower rating of the leader. Separate results are shown for leadership as rated by the leaders and leadership as rated by the followers. Leadership success was also calculated separately for the leader and follower rating.

4.4.1 The Relationship between Transactional Leadership and Leader-Follower Value Congruence

The first hypothesis of the study postulated that a positive relationship would exist between transactional leadership and leader-follower value congruence. The hypothesis was tested by correlating transactional leadership with leader-follower value congruence for each of the 22 values of the Value Scale. The relationship was determined in terms of transactional leadership as rated by the leaders themselves (Table 4.28) and in terms of transactional leadership as rated by the followers (Table 4.29). Pearson product-moment correlations were conducted in order to test the strength of the relationship between transactional leadership and leader-follower value congruence. Partial correlations also measured the relationship while correcting for scale use.

Table 4.28 presents the results of the correlations between transactional leadership and leader-follower value congruence when transactional leadership was rated by the leaders. Cultural identity value congruence revealed a low (Pearson $r = -0.269$), yet significant ($p < 0.05$) relationship with transactional leadership, when leadership was determined by the leaders themselves. Approximately 7% of the variance in cultural identity value congruence could be explained by the variance in transactional leadership. This finding suggested that transactional leadership influenced the degree to which the leader and followers cultural identity values were similar.

Table 4.28 The Relationship between Transactional Leadership (Leader Rating) and Leader-Follower Value Congruence (N=54)

Value Congruence	TAL - Leader Rating			
	Pearson (r)	P-Value	Partial (r)	P-Value
Ability utilization	-0.209	0.130	-0.200	0.151
Achievement	-0.086	0.538	-0.053	0.706
Advancement	0.135	0.331	0.149	0.286
Aesthetics	-0.142	0.304	-0.100	0.475
Altruism	-0.163	0.240	-0.102	0.469
Authority	0.188	0.173	0.158	0.259
Autonomy	0.156	0.259	0.000	0.998
Creativity	-0.016	0.910	-0.139	0.321
Cultural identity	-0.269	0.049	-0.164	0.241
Economic rewards	-0.175	0.207	0.016	0.909
Economic security	-0.055	0.691	0.129	0.358
Life style	-0.167	0.227	-0.229	0.099
Personal development	0.042	0.761	0.074	0.600
Physical activities	0.116	0.404	0.046	0.743
Physical prowess	0.075	0.588	-0.053	0.707
Prestige	0.100	0.470	0.144	0.305

Risk	0.391	0.003	0.160	0.251
Social interaction	0.243	0.076	0.223	0.108
Social relations	-0.077	0.583	-0.189	0.175
Spirituality	-0.265	0.053	-0.325	0.018
Variety	0.070	0.614	0.145	0.299
Working conditions	-0.164	0.237	-0.154	0.271

A low (Pearson $r = 0.391$) yet significant ($p < 0.05$) relationship was found when risk value congruence was correlated with transactional leadership. Approximately 15% of the variance in risk value congruence could be explained by the variance in transactional leadership. This finding suggested that transactional leadership influenced the degree to which the leader and followers risk values were similar. The remaining Pearson correlations between the values of the VS and transactional leadership were not significant. No significant correlations were found between ability utilization value congruence, achievement value congruence, advancement value congruence, aesthetics value congruence, altruism value congruence, authority value congruence, autonomy value congruence, creativity value congruence, economic rewards value congruence, economic security value congruence, life style value congruence, personal development value congruence, physical activities value congruence, physical prowess value congruence, prestige value congruence; social interaction value congruence, social relations value congruence, spirituality value congruence, variety value congruence, working conditions value congruence and transactional leadership.

The partial correlations revealed that a low and negative (Partial $r = -0.325$), yet significant relationship exists between spirituality value congruence and transactional leadership. Approximately 11% of the variance in spirituality value congruence could be explained by the variance in transactional leadership. This finding suggests that transactional leadership has a negative influence on spirituality value congruence when transactional leadership was rated by the leaders themselves. Less value congruence was found between the leader's and followers' spirituality values when the leaders used a highly transactional leadership

style. The remaining partial correlations between transactional leadership and leader-follower value congruence were not significant.

Table 4.29 outlines the results of the correlations between leader-follower value congruence and transactional leadership when leadership was rated by the followers.

Table 4.29 The Relationship between Transactional Leadership (Follower Rating) and Leader-Follower Value Congruence (N = 54)

Value Congruence	TAL– Follower Rating			
	Pearson (r)	P-Value	Partial (r)	P-Value
Ability utilization	-0.205	0.137	-0.022	0.878
Achievement	0.058	0.677	0.029	0.835
Advancement	0.397	0.003	-0.030	0.833
Aesthetics	0.010	0.945	-0.211	0.129
Altruism	-0.143	0.303	0.008	0.953
Authority	0.193	0.163	-0.022	0.879
Autonomy	0.192	0.165	0.042	0.763
Creativity	-0.211	0.125	-0.228	0.101
Cultural identity	-0.008	0.955	0.059	0.674
Economic rewards	0.107	0.439	0.021	0.883
Economic security	0.045	0.747	-0.034	0.812
Life style	0.007	0.961	-0.051	0.715
Personal development	-0.206	0.135	-0.158	0.259
Physical activities	0.226	0.100	0.067	0.633
Physical prowess	-0.099	0.476	0.002	0.991
Prestige	-0.127	0.362	-0.059	0.678
Risk	0.283	0.038	0.191	0.171
Social interaction	0.331	0.014	0.147	0.294
Social relations	0.129	0.353	-0.133	0.342

Spirituality	-0.339	0.012	-0.221	0.112
Variety	0.146	0.294	0.061	0.663
Working conditions	0.063	0.650	-0.061	0.665

Advancement value congruence revealed a low (Pearson $r = 0.397$), yet significant, ($p < 0.05$) correlation with transactional leadership when the leaders were rated by the followers. Approximately 16% of the variance in advancement value congruence could be explained by the variance in transactional leadership (follower rating). This finding suggests that transactional leaders impacted the degree to which the leader's and the follower's advancement values were congruent. Similarly, social interaction value congruence indicated a low (Pearson $r = 0.331$) and significant ($p < 0.05$) correlation with transactional leadership when rated by the followers. Approximately 11% of the variance in social interactions value congruence could be explained by the variance in transactional leadership (when rated by followers). This finding suggests that a transactional leadership style could influence the degree to which a leader's and their followers' social interaction values were similar. A low, negative (Pearson $r = -0.339$) and significant ($p < 0.05$) correlation was found between transactional leadership (follower rating) and spirituality value congruence. Approximately 11% of the variance in spirituality value congruence could be explained by the variance in transactional leadership (follower rating). A low (Pearson $r = 0.283$) and significant ($p < 0.05$) relationship was also found when risk value congruence was correlated with the follower rating of transactional leadership. Approximately 8% of the variance in risk value congruence could be explained by the variance in transactional leadership. This finding suggests that risk value congruence is influenced by transactional leadership when the leadership style is rated by the followers.

The remaining Pearson correlations between transactional leadership and leader-follower value congruence were not significant. No significant correlations were found between ability utilization value congruence, achievement value congruence, aesthetics value congruence, altruism value congruence, authority value congruence, autonomy value congruence, creativity value congruence, cultural identity value congruence, economic rewards value congruence, economic security value congruence, life style value

congruence, personal development value congruence, physical activities value congruence, physical prowess value congruence, prestige value congruence, social interaction value congruence, social relations value congruence, variety value congruence and working conditions value congruence, and transactional leadership. The partial correlations between transactional leadership and leader-follower value congruence were also not significant.

In reviewing the literature it became self-evident that transactional leadership would relate positively to leader-follower value congruence. In order for the first hypothesis to be confirmed transactional leadership had to correlate positively and significantly with leader-follower value congruence. Although some of the values of the VS revealed insignificant correlations with transactional leadership certain value congruencies did reveal positive and significant correlations with transactional leadership. A positive and significant correlation was found between advancement value congruence and transactional leadership (follower rating), social interaction value congruence and transactional leadership (follower rating), as well as risk value congruence and transactional leadership (leader and follower rating). The first hypothesis was therefore supported only when transactional leadership was correlated with advancement value congruence, social interaction value congruence and risk value congruence. Hypothesis 1 was therefore only partially supported.

4.4.2 The Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Leader-Follower Value Congruence

The second hypothesis of the study postulated that a positive relationship would exist between transformational leadership and leader-follower value congruence. The hypothesis was tested by correlating transformational leadership and leader-follower value congruence. The relationship was determined in terms of transformational leadership as rated by the leaders themselves (Table 4.30), and in terms of transformational leadership as rated by the followers (Table 4.31). Pearson product-moment correlations were calculated to establish the strength of the relationship between transformational leadership and leader-follower value congruence. Partial correlations measured the relationship between

transformational leadership and leader-follower value congruence while correcting for scale use.

Table 4.30 presents the results of the relationship between transformational leadership and leader-follower value congruence when leadership style was rated by the leaders. The results of the correlations indicated that a low (Pearson $r = 0.392$) yet significant ($p > 0.05$) relationship existed between transformational leadership and personal development value congruence. Approximately 15% of the variance in personal development value congruence could be explained by the variance in transformational leadership. This finding suggested that when transformational leadership was determined by the leaders, it impacted the degree to which the leader and follower's personal development values were similar.

Table 4.30 The Relationship between Transformational Leadership (Leader Rating) and Leader-Follower Value Congruence (N=54)

Value Congruence	TFL– Leader Rating			
	Pearson (r)	P-Value	Partial (r)	P-Value
Ability utilization	-0.222	0.106	-0.099	0.483
Achievement	-0.194	0.160	-0.143	0.306
Advancement	0.064	0.645	0.056	0.691
Aesthetics	-0.062	0.656	-0.102	0.465
Altruism	-0.028	0.843	0.005	0.974
Authority	-0.105	0.450	0.150	0.283
Autonomy	0.021	0.879	-0.079	0.574
Creativity	-0.072	0.604	-0.177	0.206
Cultural identity	-0.049	0.728	0.161	0.249
Economic rewards	-0.031	0.825	-0.005	0.970
Economic security	0.106	0.448	0.139	0.322
Life style	-0.001	0.992	-0.110	0.432
Personal development	0.392	0.003	-0.119	0.395
Physical activities	-0.242	0.078	0.115	0.414

Physical prowess	0.143	0.302	-0.070	0.617
Prestige	-0.226	0.100	-0.025	0.861
Risk	-0.031	0.823	0.129	0.358
Social interaction	0.022	0.876	0.058	0.683
Social relations	0.014	0.919	-0.107	0.446
Spirituality	0.039	0.779	-0.115	0.412
Variety	0.010	0.944	0.163	0.243
Working conditions	0.139	0.315	0.123	0.382

The relationship between transformational leadership and leader-follower value congruence was found to be insignificant for the remaining values of the VS. No significant correlations were found between ability utilization value congruence, achievement value congruence, advancement value congruence, aesthetics value congruence, altruism value congruence, authority value congruence, autonomy value congruence, creativity value congruence, cultural identity value congruence, economic rewards value congruence, economic security value congruence, life style value congruence, physical activities value congruence, physical prowess value congruence, prestige value congruence, risk value congruence, social relations value congruence, social relations value congruence, spirituality value congruence, variety value congruence, working conditions value congruence and transformational leadership. Partial correlations did not reveal any significant correlations between transformational leadership and leader-follower value congruence.

Table 4.31 outlines the results of the correlation between leader-follower value congruence and transformational leadership, when leadership style was rated by the followers. A low (Pearson $r = 0.306$) yet significant ($p < 0.05$) correlation was found between social interaction value congruence and transformational leadership when followers rated the leaders' leadership style. Approximately 9% of the variance in social interaction value congruence could be explained by the variance in transformational leadership. This finding suggests that transformational leadership, as determined by the leaders, influenced the degree to which the leader and followers' social interaction values were congruent. No

significant Pearson correlations were found between the remaining 21 value congruencies and transformational leadership.

Table 4.31 The Relationship between Transformational Leadership (Follower Rating) and Leader-Follower Value Congruence (N=54)

Value Congruence	TFL– Follower Rating			
	Pearson (r)	P-Value	Partial (r)	P-Value
Ability utilization	-0.073	0.598	0.043	0.762
Achievement	-0.012	0.933	0.059	0.673
Advancement	0.167	0.228	-0.060	0.669
Aesthetics	-0.021	0.878	-0.241	0.082
Altruism	-0.143	0.301	-0.092	0.512
Authority	0.056	0.686	-0.112	0.426
Autonomy	0.128	0.356	0.063	0.653
Creativity	-0.233	0.090	-0.195	0.161
Cultural identity	0.023	0.868	-0.010	0.942
Economic rewards	0.089	0.523	0.079	0.573
Economic security	0.085	0.543	0.016	0.910
Life style	0.025	0.857	0.000	0.999
Personal development	0.233	0.090	-0.087	0.534
Physical activities	-0.076	0.585	-0.015	0.914
Physical prowess	0.252	0.066	-0.027	0.847
Prestige	-0.117	0.400	0.105	0.456
Risk	-0.137	0.324	0.233	0.093
Social interaction	0.306	0.024	0.138	0.325
Social relations	0.222	0.107	-0.152	0.277
Spirituality	0.094	0.501	-0.286	0.038
Variety	-0.195	0.158	0.028	0.844
Working conditions	0.107	0.440	-0.068	0.629

A low and negative (Partial $r = -0.286$) yet significant ($p < 0.05$) correlation was found between spirituality value congruence and transformational leadership, when leadership style was measured by the followers. Approximately 8% of the variance in spirituality value congruence could be explained by the variance in transformational leadership. This finding suggests that transformational leadership impacted the degree to which the leader and followers spirituality values were similar. No significant Partial correlations were found between the remaining 21 value congruencies and transformational leadership.

The findings of the product-moment correlations imply that transformational leadership impacts personal development value congruence, when the leadership style is rated by the leaders themselves. The findings also suggests that transformational leaders influence social interaction value congruence, when the leadership style is rated by the followers. Similarly, Partial correlations revealed that transformational leadership impacts spirituality value congruence when leadership style was rated by the followers. On review of the literature, transformational leadership was stipulated to bring about leader-follower value congruence, as the leader and followers' values become fused. For the second hypothesis to be confirmed, transformational leadership had to correlate positively and significantly with leader-follower value congruence. The second hypothesis was therefore supported only when transformational leadership was correlated with personal development value congruence, social interaction value congruence and spirituality value congruence. The second hypothesis was therefore only partially supported.

4.4.3 The Relationship between Leader-Follower Value Congruence and Leadership Success

The third hypothesis postulated that a positive relationship would exist between leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. Pearson product-moment correlations were calculated to establish the strength of the relationship between leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. Partial correlations were also calculated to control for the effect of individual differences of the respondents when scoring the VS. The correlations were determined by correlating the leader and followers' value congruence for each value

of the VS with the dimensions of leadership success. The relationships were determined in terms of the leadership success dimensions as rated by the leaders and followers. Table 4.32 to Table 4.37 present the findings of the correlations between leader-follower value congruence and leadership success dimensions.

Table 4.32 outlines the results of the correlations between leader-follower value congruence and extra effort. No significant Pearson product-moment correlations were found between leader-follower value congruence and extra effort when the leaders rated extra effort. A low, negative (Partial $r = -0.291$), yet significant correlation was found between social relations value congruence and extra effort. Approximately 8% of the variance in extra effort could be explained by the variance in social relations value congruence. This finding suggests that when a leader and follower share social relations values, the amount of extra effort exerted is negatively impacted.

The remaining value congruencies, namely ability utilization value congruence; achievement value congruence; advancement value congruence; aesthetics value congruence; altruism value congruence; authority value congruence; autonomy value congruence; creativity value congruence; cultural identity value congruence; economic rewards value congruence; economic security value congruence; life style value congruence; personal development value congruence; physical activities value congruence; physical prowess value congruence; prestige value congruence; risk value congruence; social interaction value congruence; spirituality value congruence; variety value congruence and working conditions value congruence did not correlate significantly with the extra effort dimension of leadership success.

Table 4.32 The Relationship between Leader-Follower Value Congruence and Extra Effort (Leader Rating)

Value Congruence	Leader Rating			
	Pearson r	P-Value	Partial r	P-Value
Ability utilization	-0.229	0.096	-0.178	0.202
Achievement	-0.199	0.149	-0.215	0.122
Advancement	-0.138	0.320	-0.154	0.271
Aesthetics	-0.105	0.451	-0.063	0.653
Altruism	-0.026	0.852	0.058	0.681
Authority	0.066	0.637	0.201	0.149
Autonomy	-0.110	0.431	-0.127	0.365
Creativity	0.063	0.650	0.067	0.635
Cultural identity	-0.039	0.782	0.114	0.418
Economic rewards	-0.105	0.452	-0.142	0.309
Economic security	-0.141	0.310	-0.071	0.612
Life style	-0.139	0.316	-0.249	0.072
Personal development	-0.229	0.096	-0.161	0.250
Physical activities	0.017	0.906	-0.033	0.817
Physical prowess	-0.089	0.523	-0.005	0.974
Prestige	-0.061	0.663	0.062	0.662
Risk	0.007	0.958	0.107	0.447
Social interaction	-0.048	0.728	-0.094	0.503
Social relations	-0.090	0.516	-0.291	0.035
Spirituality	-0.077	0.579	-0.008	0.955
Variety	-0.142	0.307	-0.042	0.765
Working conditions	0.000	0.998	-0.124	0.378

Table 4.33 outlines the results of the correlations between leader-follower value congruence and extra effort, when the leadership success dimension was rated by the followers. The

results indicated a low (Pearson $r = 0.293$), yet significant ($p < 0.05$) correlation between risk value congruence and extra effort. Approximately 9% of the variance in the extra effort could be explained by the variance in risk value congruence. This finding implies that leader-follower risk value congruence impacts the degree to which followers perceive the leaders as exerting extra effort.

No significant Pearson product-moment correlations were found between the remaining value congruencies (namely, ability utilization value congruence; achievement value congruence; advancement value congruence; aesthetics value congruence; altruism value congruence; authority value congruence; autonomy value congruence; creativity value congruence; cultural identity value congruence; economic rewards value congruence; economic security value congruence; life style value congruence; personal development value congruence; physical activities value congruence; physical prowess value congruence; prestige value congruence; social interaction value congruence; social relations value congruence; spirituality value congruence; variety value congruence and working conditions value congruence) and the extra effort dimension.

After controlling for the individual differences in the responses to the VS, the Partial correlations revealed a low, negative (Partial $r = -0.383$), yet significant ($p < 0.05$) correlation between aesthetics value congruence and the extra effort leadership success dimension. Approximately 15% of the variance in extra effort could be explained by the variance in aesthetics value congruence. This finding suggests that when individual differences are controlled, aesthetics value congruence between a leader and follower impacts the amount of extra effort exerted by the leader. The more the leader and follower share aesthetics values, the less extra effort is exerted by the leader. A negative, low (Partial $r = -0.361$), yet significant ($p < 0.05$), correlation was found between spirituality value congruence and extra effort. Approximately 13% of the variance in extra effort could be explained by the variance in spirituality value congruence. This finding suggests that leader and follower spirituality value congruence impacts on the amount of extra effort exerted by the leader. The more the leader and follower share spirituality values, the less extra effort is exerted by the leader.

Table 4.33 The Relationship between Leader-Follower Value Congruence and Extra Effort (Follower Rating)

Value Congruence	Follower Rating			
	Pearson r	P-Value	Partial r	P-Value
Ability utilization	0.004	0.979	0.020	0.887
Achievement	-0.125	0.367	-0.053	0.705
Advancement	-0.056	0.686	-0.094	0.501
Aesthetics	-0.154	0.266	-0.383	0.005
Altruism	-0.226	0.101	-0.181	0.194
Authority	0.024	0.862	-0.112	0.424
Autonomy	0.103	0.458	0.104	0.460
Creativity	-0.141	0.308	-0.142	0.310
Cultural identity	0.058	0.678	-0.045	0.748
Economic rewards	-0.050	0.718	-0.008	0.955
Economic security	0.117	0.400	0.023	0.871
Life style	0.146	0.294	0.108	0.440
Personal development	-0.051	0.712	-0.102	0.466
Physical activities	0.244	0.076	0.035	0.804
Physical prowess	-0.070	0.615	-0.096	0.494
Prestige	-0.101	0.467	0.105	0.456
Risk	0.293	0.031	0.261	0.059
Social interaction	0.095	0.496	0.119	0.395
Social relations	0.107	0.439	-0.140	0.317
Spirituality	-0.216	0.118	-0.361	0.008
Variety	0.086	0.536	0.023	0.870
Working conditions	-0.067	0.629	-0.190	0.174

The remaining Partial correlations between leader-follower value congruence and extra effort did not correlate significantly. No significant correlations were found between ability utilization value congruence, achievement value congruence, advancement value congruence, altruism value congruence, authority value congruence, autonomy value

congruence, creativity value congruence, cultural identity value congruence, economic rewards value congruence, economic security value congruence, life style value congruence, personal development value congruence, physical activities value congruence, physical prowess value congruence, prestige value congruence, social interaction value congruence, social relations value congruence, risk value congruence, variety value congruence and working conditions value congruence, and the extra effort dimension.

Table 4.34 outlines the results of the correlations between leader-follower value congruence and the satisfaction with the leader dimension of leadership success; when leadership success was rated by the leaders. A low, negative (Pearson $r = -0.376$) and significant correlation ($p < 0.05$) was found between personal development value congruence and satisfaction with the leader. Approximately 14% of the variance in satisfaction with the leader could be explained by the variance in personal development value congruence. This finding implies that personal development value congruence influenced the degree to which leaders perceived their followers as being satisfied with their leadership. The more the leader and followers shared personal development values, the less satisfied the followers were with the leaders.

The partial correlation between personal development and satisfaction with the leader also indicated a low, negative (Partial $r = -0.331$), yet significant ($p < 0.05$), correlation. Approximately 11% of the variance in satisfaction with the leader could be explained by the variance in personal development value congruence. This finding suggests that the degree of satisfaction with the leader is influenced negatively, when leaders and followers share personal development values.

The remaining value congruencies, namely, ability utilization value congruence, achievement value congruence, advancement value congruence, altruism value congruence, authority value congruence, autonomy value congruence, creativity value congruence, cultural identity value congruence, economic rewards value congruence, economic security value congruence, life style value congruence, physical activities value congruence, physical prowess value congruence, prestige value congruence, social interaction value congruence, social relations value congruence, spirituality value

congruence, risk value congruence, variety value congruence and working conditions value congruence did not correlate significantly with satisfaction with the leader.

Table 4.34 The Relationship between Leader-Follower Value Congruence and Satisfaction with the Leader (Leader Rating)

Value Congruence	Leader Rating			
	Pearson r	P-Value	Partial r	P-value
Ability utilization	-0.059	0.672	0.057	0.686
Achievement	-0.064	0.648	-0.022	0.878
Advancement	0.149	0.283	-0.117	0.402
Aesthetics	0.219	0.112	0.069	0.622
Altruism	-0.057	0.681	0.008	0.954
Authority	0.121	0.383	-0.006	0.964
Autonomy	0.013	0.927	0.101	0.471
Creativity	-0.158	0.255	-0.132	0.348
Cultural identity	-0.048	0.733	0.012	0.932
Economic rewards	0.040	0.774	-0.144	0.305
Economic security	0.122	0.380	-0.025	0.857
Life style	0.017	0.902	-0.034	0.810
Personal development	-0.376	0.005	-0.331	0.016
Physical activities	-0.055	0.693	-0.030	0.829
Physical prowess	-0.147	0.289	-0.134	0.340
Prestige	-0.026	0.854	-0.076	0.587
Risk	-0.142	0.307	-0.134	0.338
Social interaction	0.002	0.990	-0.195	0.161
Social relations	0.077	0.578	-0.234	0.092
Spirituality	-0.235	0.088	-0.113	0.419
Variety	0.017	0.902	-0.041	0.770
Working conditions	0.261	0.056	0.140	0.318

Table 4.35 outlines the results of the correlations between leader-follower value congruence and satisfaction with the leader (follower rating). A moderate (Pearson $r = 0.429$) and significant ($p < 0.05$) relationship was found between physical activities value congruence and satisfaction with the leader. Approximately 18% of the variance in satisfaction with the leader could be explained by the variance in physical activities value congruence. This finding suggests that the value congruence of physical activities values influences followers' satisfaction with their leader. A low (Pearson $r = 0.306$), yet significant, ($p < 0.05$) correlation was found between risk value congruence and satisfaction with the leader when the followers rated satisfaction with the leader. Approximately 9% of the variance in satisfaction with the leader could be explained by the variance in risk value congruence.

The remaining value congruencies, namely, ability utilization value congruence, achievement value congruence, advancement value congruence, aesthetics value congruence, altruism value congruence, authority value congruence, autonomy value congruence, creativity value congruence, cultural identity value congruence, economic rewards value congruence, economic security value congruence, life style value congruence, physical prowess value congruence, prestige value congruence, social relations value congruence, spirituality value congruence and variety value congruence and working conditions value congruence did not correlate significantly with satisfaction with the leader. After making adjustments for the individual differences of the respondents' VS scores the results of the Partial correlations did not reveal any significant correlations between leader-follower value congruence and satisfaction with the leader.

Table 4.35 The Relationship between Leader-Follower Value Congruence and Satisfaction with the Leader (Follower Rating)

Value Congruence	Follower Rating			
	Pearson r	P-Value	Partial r	P-value
Ability utilization	-0.019	0.892	0.013	0.926
Achievement	0.043	0.760	0.103	0.464
Advancement	0.036	0.795	0.016	0.908

Aesthetics	-0.008	0.954	-0.212	0.127
Altruism	-0.079	0.570	-0.141	0.314
Authority	0.036	0.797	-0.084	0.550
Autonomy	0.032	0.819	-0.092	0.515
Creativity	-0.056	0.689	-0.140	0.317
Cultural identity	0.008	0.955	-0.037	0.790
Economic rewards	0.016	0.910	0.127	0.366
Economic security	0.134	0.332	0.092	0.510
Life style	0.080	0.565	0.015	0.918
Personal development	0.028	0.841	0.014	0.923
Physical activities	0.429	0.001	0.100	0.478
Physical prowess	-0.047	0.739	-0.044	0.755
Prestige	-0.071	0.610	0.205	0.140
Risk	0.306	0.025	0.170	0.223
Social interaction	0.119	0.391	0.073	0.602
Social relations	0.138	0.322	-0.077	0.585
Spirituality	0.030	0.830	-0.169	0.225
Variety	0.171	0.216	0.155	0.268
Working conditions	0.033	0.816	-0.102	0.470

Table 4.36 outlines the results of the correlations between leader-follower value congruence and leader effectiveness rated by the leaders. A low, negative ($r=0.283$), but significant ($p<0.05$) correlation was found between leader effectiveness and personal development value congruence. Approximately 8% of the variance in the leader's effectiveness could be explained by the variance in personal development value congruence. Similarly, Partial correlations revealed a low, negative (Partial $r = -0.282$), yet significant ($p<0.05$), correlation with leader effectiveness. Approximately 8% of the variance in the leader's effectiveness could be explained by the variance in personal development value congruence. These findings suggest that when leaders and followers share personal development values this has an influence on the leaders' effectiveness.

The product-moment correlations as well as the partial correlations did not reveal significant correlations with the remaining value congruencies. Ability utilization value congruence, achievement value congruence, advancement value congruence,; aesthetics value congruence, altruism value congruence, authority value congruence, autonomy value congruence, creativity value congruence, cultural identity value congruence, economic rewards value congruence, economic security value congruence, life style value congruence, physical prowess value congruence, prestige value congruence, social relations value congruence, social interactions value congruence, spirituality value congruence, variety value congruence and working conditions value congruence were not significantly related to leader effectiveness when the dimension was rated by the leaders.

Table 4.36 The Relationship between Leader-Follower Value Congruence and Leader Effectiveness (Leader Rating)

Value Congruence	Leader Rating		Follower Rating	
	Pearson r	P-Value	Partial r	P-Value
Ability utilization	-0.129	0.353	-0.048	0.733
Achievement	0.061	0.659	0.097	0.491
Advancement	0.042	0.761	-0.052	0.711
Aesthetics	0.123	0.375	-0.106	0.449
Altruism	-0.021	0.882	0.022	0.874
Authority	-0.011	0.939	-0.064	0.648
Autonomy	0.002	0.990	0.031	0.825
Creativity	-0.148	0.287	-0.149	0.288
Cultural identity	-0.039	0.778	-0.153	0.274
Economic rewards	-0.042	0.763	-0.077	0.582
Economic security	0.132	0.343	0.101	0.471
Life style	-0.165	0.234	-0.227	0.103
Personal development	-0.283	0.038	-0.282	0.041
Physical activities	0.113	0.416	0.151	0.280

Physical prowess	-0.138	0.321	-0.066	0.638
Prestige	-0.087	0.533	-0.037	0.791
Risk	0.091	0.513	0.036	0.797
Social interaction	0.073	0.601	-0.100	0.477
Social relations	0.058	0.676	-0.147	0.293
Spirituality	-0.093	0.502	-0.243	0.080
Variety	0.088	0.527	-0.003	0.984
Working conditions	0.148	0.287	0.095	0.500

Table 4.37 outlines the correlations between leader-follower value congruence and leader effectiveness, when the leadership success dimension was rated by the followers. A low (Pearson $r = 0.284$), yet significant, ($p < 0.05$) correlation was found between risk value congruence and leader effectiveness. Approximately 8% of the variance in leader effectiveness could be explained by the variance in risk value congruence. This finding suggests that risk value congruence has an influence on followers' perception of leader effectiveness.

Table 4.37 The Relationship between Leader-Follower Value Congruence and Leader Effectiveness (Follower Rating)

Value Congruence	Follower Rating			
	Pearson r	P-Value	Partial r	P-Value
Ability utilization	0.075	0.589	0.042	0.765
Achievement	-0.088	0.526	0.024	0.865
Advancement	0.046	0.742	-0.122	0.384
Aesthetics	-0.103	0.459	-0.210	0.132
Altruism	-0.184	0.184	-0.225	0.106
Authority	0.010	0.943	-0.201	0.148
Autonomy	0.004	0.976	0.042	0.765
Creativity	-0.144	0.300	-0.100	0.477

Cultural identity	0.096	0.490	0.043	0.758
Economic rewards	0.107	0.441	0.106	0.450
Economic security	0.220	0.109	0.119	0.398
Life style	0.038	0.783	0.067	0.635
Personal development	0.016	0.908	-0.022	0.875
Physical activities	0.249	0.070	-0.116	0.407
Physical prowess	-0.109	0.434	-0.140	0.317
Prestige	-0.111	0.426	0.127	0.363
Risk	0.284	0.037	0.110	0.434
Social interaction	0.012	0.932	0.080	0.569
Social relations	0.149	0.281	-0.084	0.549
Spirituality	-0.053	0.703	-0.243	0.080
Variety	0.065	0.642	-0.014	0.918
Working conditions	0.084	0.545	-0.071	0.614

The remaining product-moment correlations between leader effectiveness and leader-follower value congruence did not reveal significant results. Ability utilization value congruence, achievement value congruence, advancement value congruence, aesthetics value congruence, altruism value congruence, authority value congruence, autonomy value congruence, creativity value congruence, cultural identity value congruence, economic rewards value congruence, economic security value congruence, life style value congruence, physical prowess value congruence, prestige value congruence, social relations value congruence, social interactions value congruence, spirituality value congruence, variety value congruence and working conditions value congruence did not correlate significantly with leader effectiveness dimension of leadership success. After making adjustments for the individual differences in scoring the VS no significant partial correlations were found between leader-follower value congruence and leadership effectiveness.

The third hypothesis postulated that leader-follower value congruence is positively related to leadership success. In order for the third hypothesis to be confirmed leader-follower value congruence had to correlate positively and significantly with leadership success.

Although some of the correlations revealed significant results leader-follower value congruence was mostly found to have a negative correlation with leadership success.

Value congruencies that did correlate positively and significantly with leadership success included physical activities value congruence and risk value congruence. The product-moment correlations revealed that risk value congruence correlated significantly ($p < 0.05$) with all three dimensions of leadership success (namely, extra effort, satisfaction with the leader and leadership effectiveness) when the followers rated the leadership success dimensions. The product-moment correlations revealed a positive and significant relationship between physical activities value congruence and satisfaction with the leader when satisfaction with the leader was rated by the followers. After making adjustments for the individual differences in the response, the partial correlations did not reveal any correlations that were positive and significant.

The third hypothesis was therefore confirmed only when physical activities value congruence and risk value congruence was correlated with leadership success as rated by the followers. The third hypothesis could therefore only be partially supported.

4.4.4 The Mediating Effect of Leader-Follower Value Congruence on Transactional Leadership and Leadership Success

The fourth hypothesis of the study postulated that leader-follower value congruence would mediate the relationship between transactional leadership and leadership success. The hypothesis was tested by combining the results of the first and third hypotheses. The fourth hypothesis was tested by determining whether the results of both Hypotheses 1 and 3 yielded positive and significant correlations for the same value congruencies.

Hypothesis 1 postulated that a positive and significant relationship would exist between transactional leadership and leader-follower value congruence. In order for the first hypothesis to be confirmed, transactional leadership had to correlate positively and significantly with leader-follower value congruence. Tables 4.28 to 4.29 outline the results of the tested hypothesis. The product-moment correlations indicated a positive and significant

correlation (Pearson $r = 0.397$; $p < 0.05$) between transactional leadership and advancement value congruence, when transactional leadership was rated by the followers. Similarly, a positive and significant correlation was found between social interaction value congruence and transactional leadership (Pearson $r = 0.331$; $p < 0.05$) when transactional leadership was rated by the followers. Product-moment correlations also revealed that transactional leadership correlated positively and significantly with risk value congruence when transactional leadership was determined by the leaders (Pearson $r = 0.391$; $p < 0.05$) and when transactional leadership was determined by the followers (Pearson $r = 0.283$; $p < 0.05$). The first hypothesis was therefore supported only when transactional leadership was correlated with advancement value congruence, social interaction value congruence and risk value congruence. Hypothesis 1 was therefore only partially supported.

The results of Hypothesis 3 are outlined in Table 4.32 to 4.37. This hypothesis postulated that leader-follower value congruence would correlate positively and significantly with leadership success. The results indicated a positive and significant relationship (Pearson $r = 0.429$; $p < 0.05$) between physical activities value congruence and satisfaction with the leader as rated by the followers. Risk value congruence correlated positively and significantly ($p < 0.05$) with all three dimensions of leadership success, namely extra effort (Pearson $r = 0.293$, $p < 0.05$), satisfaction with the leader (Pearson $r = 0.306$, $p < 0.05$), and leader effectiveness (Pearson $r = 0.284$, $p < 0.05$) when followers rated the dimensions. The third hypothesis was therefore supported only when physical activities value congruence and risk value congruence were correlated with leadership success. The third hypothesis could therefore only be partially supported.

With the results of Hypotheses 1 and 3, the mediating effect of leader-follower value congruence on transactional leadership and leadership success could be examined. If a positive and significant relationship exists between transactional leadership and leader-follower value congruence as well as between leader-follower value congruence and leadership success with the same values, then it can be assumed that leader-follower value congruence mediates the effect transactional leadership has on leadership success. Transactional leadership must influence leader-follower value congruence, and leader-follower value congruence must influence leadership success if Hypothesis 4 is to be

supported. A positive and significant correlation was found between transactional leadership and risk value congruence. Hypothesis 1 was therefore partially confirmed when transactional leadership was correlated with risk value congruence. In addition, a positive and significant relationship was found between risk value congruence and the dimensions of leadership success. The third hypothesis was therefore supported only when risk value congruence was correlated with leadership success.

A positive and significant relationship was found between transactional leadership and risk value congruence as well as between risk value congruence and leadership success. It can therefore be assumed that risk value congruence mediates the relationship between transactional leadership and leadership success. The fourth hypothesis was therefore supported only when risk value congruence was correlated with transactional leadership as well as the leadership success dimensions. The fourth hypothesis was therefore only partially supported.

4.4.5 The Mediating Effect of Leader-Follower Value Congruence on Transformational Leadership and Leadership Success

The fifth hypothesis of the study postulated that leader-follower value congruence mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and leadership success. The hypothesis was tested by combining the results of the second and the third hypotheses. In order for Hypothesis 5 to be supported both Hypotheses 2 and 3 had to yield positive and significant correlations for the same value congruencies.

The second hypothesis postulated that a positive and significant relationship would exist between transformational leadership and leader-follower value congruence. Tables 4.30 and 4.31 outline the results of the correlation between transformational leadership and leader-follower value congruence. The results indicated a positive and significant (Pearson $r = 0.392$; $p < 0.05$) correlation between transformational leadership and personal development value congruence. Similarly, social interaction value congruence was also found to correlate positively and significantly (Pearson $r = 0.306$; $p < 0.05$) with

transformational leadership. Hypothesis 2 was therefore supported only when transformational leadership was correlated with personal development value congruence and social interaction value congruence. Thus hypothesis 2 was therefore only partially supported.

The results of Hypothesis 3 are outlined in Tables 4.32 to 4.37. The third hypothesis postulated that leader-follower value congruence would correlate positively and significantly with leadership success. The results indicated a positive and significant relationship (Pearson $r = 0.429$; $p < 0.05$) between physical activities value congruence and satisfaction with the leader as rated by the followers. Risk value congruence correlated positively and significantly ($p < 0.05$) with all three dimensions of leadership success, namely extra effort (Pearson $r = 0.293$, $p < 0.05$), satisfaction with the leader (Pearson $r = 0.306$, $p < 0.05$) and leader effectiveness (Pearson $r = 0.284$, $p < 0.05$) when followers rated the dimensions. Thus the third hypothesis was supported only when physical activities value congruence and risk value congruence were correlated with leadership success. The third hypothesis could therefore only be partially supported.

To support the fifth hypothesis a positive and significant relationship should exist between transformational leadership and leader-follower value congruence, as well as leader-follower value congruence and leadership success, for the same values. If transformational leadership influences leader-follower value congruence; and leader-follower value congruence influences leadership success, for the same values, then it can be assumed that leader-follower value congruence mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and leadership success.

In Hypothesis 2 a positive and significant correlation was found between personal development value congruence and transformational leadership, as well as social interaction value congruence and transformational leadership. In hypothesis 3 a positive and significant correlation was found between physical activities value congruence and leadership success, as well as between risk value congruence and leadership success. Although partial support was found for the first and third hypotheses the values of the value

congruencies were not the same for the two relationships. The fifth hypothesis of the study was therefore not supported.

4.4.6. The Relationship between Transactional Leadership and Leadership Success

The sixth hypothesis of the study postulated that a direct and positive relationship would exist between transactional leadership and leadership success. Pearson product-moment correlations were calculated in order to establish the nature of the relationship between transactional leadership and leadership success (extra effort, satisfaction with the leader and leader effectiveness). Tables 4.38 and 4.39 present the findings of the correlations between transactional leadership, extra effort, satisfaction with the leader; and leader effectiveness. The results of the correlations are presented in terms of the leader ratings and follower ratings for transactional leadership, as well as the leader ratings and follower ratings for leadership success.

Table 4.38 The Relationship between Transactional Leadership (Leader Rating) and Leadership Success

	Transactional Leadership (Leader Rating)	
	Pearson r	P-value
Leader Rating		
Leader Effectiveness	- 0.542	0.697
Extra Effort	0.103	0.460
Satisfaction with leader	0.268	0.847
Follower Rating		
Leader Effectiveness	0.124	0.374
Extra Effort	0.056	0.690
Satisfaction with leader	0.333	0.811

Table 4.38 outlines the results of the correlations between transactional leadership, as rated by the leaders and leadership success (leader and follower rating). The results indicate that transactional leadership did not correlate significantly ($p > 0.05$) with the leadership success dimensions (leader effectiveness, extra effort, satisfaction with leader) when transactional leadership was rated by the leaders themselves. Significant relationships ($p < 0.05$) were however found when transactional leadership was rated by the followers.

Table 4.39 The Relationship between Transactional Leadership (Follower Rating) and Leadership Success

	Transactional Leadership (Follower Rating)	
	Pearson r	P-value
Leader Rating		
Leader Effectiveness	0.469	0.000
Extra Effort	0.591	0.000
Satisfaction with leader	0.563	0.000
Follower Rating		
Leader Effectiveness	0.205	0.137
Extra Effort	0.346	0.010
Satisfaction with leader	0.348	0.809

Table 4.39 outlines the results of the correlation between transactional leadership, as rated by the followers and leadership success (leader and follower rating). A moderate (Person $r = 0.469$) and significant ($p < 0.05$) relationship was found between transactional leadership and leader effectiveness, when leadership success was measured by the leaders. Approximately 22% of the variance in leader effectiveness could be explained by the variance in transactional leadership. This finding was supported in the literature. It suggests that transactional leadership can influence a leader's perceptions of leader effectiveness. Transactional leadership did not reveal significant correlations with leader effectiveness when the leadership success dimension was rated by the followers.

When the leadership success dimension was rated by the leaders a moderate (Pearson $r = 0.591$) and significant ($p < 0.05$) correlation was found between transactional leadership and extra effort. Approximately 35% of the variance in extra effort was explained by the variance in transactional leadership. The finding suggest that transactional leadership influences the amount of extra effort exerted by the leader. A low (Pearson $r=0.346$), yet significant ($p<0.05$), relationship was found between transactional leadership and extra effort when extra effort was determined by the followers. This finding suggests that transactional leadership can influence follower's perceptions of the amount of effort exerted by the leader.

The results in Table 4.39 indicate that satisfaction with the leader (leader rating) revealed a moderate (Pearson $r = 0.563$) and significant ($p < 0.05$) correlation with transactional leadership. Approximately 32% of the variance in satisfaction with the leader (leader rating) was explained in terms of the variance in transactional leadership. This finding suggests that transactional leadership can impact on follower's satisfaction with the leader. No significant correlations between transactional leadership and satisfaction with the leader were found when the leadership success dimension was rated by the followers.

Transactional leadership had to reveal positive and significant correlations with leadership success for the sixth hypothesis to be supported .It revealed positive and significant correlations only when the transactional leadership style was rated by the followers. Transactional leadership revealed positive and significant correlations with all the leadership success dimensions when leadership success was rated by the leaders. A positive and significant correlation was also found between transactional leadership and extra effort, when the leadership success dimension was rated by the followers. Hypothesis 6 was supported only when transactional leadership was determined by the followers and leadership success was determined by the leaders; as well as when extra effort dimension was determined by the followers. Hypothesis 6 was therefore only partially supported.

4.4.7 The Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Leadership Success

Hypothesis 7 postulated that a direct and positive relationship would exist between transformational leadership and leadership success. The hypothesis was tested by correlating transformational leadership and the leadership success dimensions (leader effectiveness, extra effort, and satisfaction with the leader). Pearson product-moment correlations were calculated in order to establish the nature of the relationship between transformational leadership and leadership success. The results of the correlations are presented in terms of the leader ratings (Table 4.40) and follower ratings (Table 4.41) for transformational leadership, as well as the leader ratings and follower ratings for leadership success.

Table 4.40 outlines the results of the correlations between transformational leadership and leadership success when transformational leadership was determined by the leaders. A low (Pearson $r = 0.314$), yet significant ($p < 0.05$), correlation was found between satisfaction with the leader and transformational leadership when leadership style and leadership success was determined by the leaders. Approximately 10% of the variance in satisfaction with the leader could be explained by the variance in transformational leadership. This finding suggests that a transformational leadership can have an impact on the amount of satisfaction a follower has with his/her leader.

Transformational leadership related significantly to the success dimensions when leadership success was rated by the followers. Leader effectiveness revealed a low, yet significant (Pearson $r = 0.285$, $p < 0.05$), correlation with transformational leadership. Approximately 8% of the variance in leader effectiveness could be explained by the variance in transformational leadership. The results of the correlation between transformational leadership and leader effectiveness suggest that transformational leadership has a positive influence on leader effectiveness.

Table 4.40 The Relationship between Transformational Leadership (Leader Rating) and Leadership Success

	Transformational Leadership (Leader Rating)	
	Pearson r	P-value
Leader Rating		
Leader Effectiveness	0.169	0.223
Extra Effort	0.212	0.124
Satisfaction with leader	0.314	0.021
Follower Rating		
Leader Effectiveness	0.285	0.037
Extra Effort	0.756	0.000
Satisfaction with leader	0.394	0.003

A high (Pearson $r = 0.756$), and significant ($p < 0.001$), correlation was found between transformational leadership and the extra effort dimension of leadership success. Approximately 57% of the variance in extra effort could be explained by the variance in transformational leadership. This finding suggests that a strong relationship exists between transformational leadership style and extra effort. Transformational leadership has a strong and positive influence on the extra effort exerted by followers.

Satisfaction with the leader revealed a low (Pearson $r = 0,394$), and significant ($p < 0.05$), correlation with transformational leadership when leadership success was rated by the followers. The results suggest that a definite, but small, relationship exists between transformational leadership and satisfaction with the leader. This implies that transformational leadership has a positive influence on satisfaction with the leader.

Table 4.41 outlines the results of the correlations between transformational leadership and leadership success, when leadership style was rated by the followers. Transformational leadership was found to correlate significantly with leadership success regardless of

whether the leadership success dimensions were rated by the leaders themselves or the followers. When leadership success was rated by the leaders a high, and significant (Pearson $r = 0.823$, $p < 0.001$), correlation was found between transformational leadership and leader effectiveness. Approximately 68% of the variance in leader effectiveness was explained by the variance in transformational leadership. This finding suggests that a leader with a transformational leadership style can have a positive impact on the effectiveness of the leader.

When leadership success was measured by the leaders a high (Pearson $r = 0.879$), and significant ($p < 0.001$), correlation was found between transformational leadership and extra effort. Approximately 77% of the variance in extra effort could be explained by the variance in transformational leadership. This finding suggests that transformational leadership has a positive impact on the amount of extra effort exerted by followers. A high ($r = 0.848$) and significant ($p < 0.001$) correlation was found between transformational leadership and satisfaction with the leader. Approximately 72% of the variance in follower's satisfaction with the leader was explained by the variance in transformational leadership. This finding suggests that a strong positive relationship exists between transformational leadership and satisfaction with the leader. Transformational leadership has a positive influence on follower's satisfaction with the leader.

Table 4.41 indicates that when transformational leadership and leadership success were rated by the followers positive and significant results were also found between transformational leadership and leadership success. Transformational leadership revealed a low, yet significant (Pearson $r = 0.303$, $p < 0.05$), correlation with leader effectiveness, when leadership success was rated by the followers. Approximately 9% of the variance in leader effectiveness could be explained by the variance in transformational leadership. This finding suggests that a small, but definite, relationship exists between transformational leadership and leader effectiveness. When leader effectiveness is rated by the followers leadership has a positive impact on leader effectiveness.

A low (Pearson $r = 0.289$), yet significant ($p < 0.05$), correlation was found between transformational leadership and extra effort when both variables were determined by the followers. Approximately 8% of the variance in extra effort could be explained by the variance in transformational leadership. The results of the correlation suggest that transformational leadership has a small, but definite, relationship with extra effort. When extra effort is rated by the followers a leader's transformational style has a positive influence on the extra effort exerted by the followers. Satisfaction with the leader also revealed a low, yet significant (Pearson $r = 0.284$, $p < 0.05$), correlation with transformational leadership, when both variables were determined by the followers. Approximately 8% of the variance in transformational leadership could explain the variance in the follower's satisfaction with the leader. This finding suggests that transformational leadership has a small, but definite, relationship with satisfaction with the leader when satisfaction with the leader is rated by the followers. Transformational leadership has a positive influence on follower's satisfaction with the leader.

Table 4.41 The Relationship between Transformational Leadership (Follower Rating) and Leadership Success

	Transformational Leadership (Follower Rating)	
	Pearson r	P-value
Leader Rating		
Leader Effectiveness	0.823	0.000
Extra Effort	0.879	0.000
Satisfaction with leader	0.848	0.000
Follower Rating		
Leader Effectiveness	0.303	0.026
Extra Effort	0.289	0.034
Satisfaction with leader	0.284	0.038

Transformational leadership had to correlate positively and significantly with the leadership success dimensions (extra effort, satisfaction with the leader, leader effectiveness). For

Hypothesis 7 to be supported, the results in Tables 4.40 and 4.41 indicate that positive and significant relationships exist between transformational leadership and leadership success. This corroborates with the theory in the literature review. The strong and significant correlations found between transformational leadership and the leader success dimensions indicated that a direct, positive relationship existed between transformational leadership and leadership success. When transformational leadership was rated by the leaders and leadership success was rated by the followers significant correlations were found between transformational leadership and leadership success. Transformational leadership revealed significant correlations with leadership success (leader and follower ratings) when transformational leadership was rated by the followers. The seventh hypothesis of the study was therefore partially supported.

4.5 Conclusion

The chapter highlighted the results of the statistical analyses of the study. The sample consisted of 162 responses which were made up of 54 leaders and 108 followers.

The reliability of the main variables of the study was discussed. The reliability of the constructs was determined using coefficient alphas. The leadership constructs (transactional and transformational leadership) were measured by the MLQ, and were found reliable for the purpose of the study. The VS measured leader and follower values. Ability utilisation, achievement, advancement, aesthetics, altruism, authority, creativity, cultural identity, economic rewards, economic security, life style, personal development, physical activities, physical prowess, prestige, risk, social interaction, social relations, spirituality, variety and working conditions were found to be reliable according to Maholtra's (2004) general standard ($\alpha > 0.6$). Autonomy did not yield an acceptable reliability coefficient, as the overall coefficient alpha was below Malhotra's (2004) general standard of 0.6. Autonomy Item V7 (Table 4.10) was considered for elimination. In accordance with Nunnally (1978), and in order to ensure that all the variables of the study were reliable, item V7 was eliminated. The adapted reliability coefficient for autonomy (Table 4.11) was found reliable according to Maholtra's (2004) general standard ($\alpha > 0.6$). The leadership success

constructs were measured by the MLQ. Extra effort, satisfaction with the leader and leader effectiveness were found reliable for the purpose of the study.

The seven hypotheses of the study were tested and their results were outlined in the chapter. Pearson product-moment correlations were used to test the hypotheses of the study. Partial correlations were also calculated in order to adjust for individual differences in the scoring of the VS. The relationships were expressed in terms of the leader and follower ratings for transactional leadership, transformational leadership and leadership success.

The first hypothesis postulated that a direct, positive relationship exists between transactional leadership and leader-follower value congruence. A positive and significant correlation was found between transactional leadership and advancement value congruence; social interaction value congruence; and risk value congruence. Hypothesis 1 was partially supported.

The second hypothesis postulated that a direct, positive relationship exists between transformational leadership and leader-follower value congruence. A positive and significant correlation was found between transformational leadership and personal development value congruence, as well as transformational leadership and social interaction value congruence. The second hypothesis was partially supported.

The third hypothesis postulated that a direct, positive relationship exists between leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. Correlations were determined between leader-follower value congruence and extra effort, satisfaction with the leader and leader effectiveness. A positive and significant correlation was found between physical activities value congruence and satisfaction with the leader. Risk value congruence correlated significantly with all three dimensions of leadership success. The third hypothesis was partially confirmed.

The fourth hypothesis postulated that value congruence between a leader and follower mediates the relationship between transactional leadership and leadership success. The

hypothesis was tested by combining the findings for Hypotheses 1 and 3. A positive and significant relationship was found between transactional leadership and risk value congruence; as well as between risk value congruence and leadership success. The fourth hypothesis was partially supported.

The fifth hypothesis postulated that value congruence between a leader and follower mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and leadership success. The hypothesis was tested by combining the findings for Hypotheses 2 and 3. Although partial support was found for the first and third hypotheses, the relationships were not for the same values. The fifth hypothesis was not supported.

The sixth hypothesis postulated that a direct, positive relationship exists between transactional leadership and leadership success. Positive and significant correlations were found between transactional leadership and leadership success dimensions, namely leader effectiveness, extra effort and satisfaction with the leader. Hypothesis 6 was partially supported.

The seventh hypothesis postulated that a direct, positive relationship would exist between transformational leadership and leadership success. The results indicated that positive and significant relationships exist between transformational leadership and leadership success; namely leader effectiveness, extra effort and satisfaction with the leader. The seventh hypothesis of the study was partially supported.

The chapter that follows discusses the results and findings of the study in more detail and highlights possible explanations for the results. Recommendations for future research are provided.

CHAPTER 5

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

5.1 Introduction

The preceding chapters outlined the main parts of the study. Chapter 2 provided insight into the existing literature on leadership, values and leadership success. A theoretical foundation was laid down, using Engelbrecht's (2002) model on the relationship between transactional leadership, transformational leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. Research propositions were formulated based on the theoretical relationships. Chapter 3 outlined the methods by which the research was conducted as well as the measuring instruments of the study. The manner in which the research hypotheses were tested and analysed was also discussed. Chapter 4 presented the results of the statistical analyses. The reliability results and tested hypotheses were presented in the form of tables.

The current chapter discusses the main findings of the study, by linking the theoretical foundation provided in the literature and the results of the statistical analyses. General conclusions of the research are provided. The limitations of the study are given and recommendations for future research are discussed. The chapter ends with a conclusion which summarises the study.

5.2 General Conclusions of the study

The study aimed to answer the research question, 'What influence does leadership have on leader-follower value congruence and leadership success?' In an attempt to answer this question seven hypotheses were formulated. Following the discussion of the results in the previous chapter (Chapter 4), the sections that follow provide the general conclusions made regarding the reliability analyses and the analysis of the relationship between leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. Although the study did not wholly confirm the hypothesised relationships it brought some insight into understanding the role that values play in leadership and creating successful leadership.

5.2.1 Reliability Analysis

The reliability coefficients of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and Values Scale (VS) were determined to test whether the instruments were consistent measures for the purpose of gathering information. According to Nunnally (1978), only instruments with a modest reliability can be used to gather information to test hypotheses. Reliability coefficients greater than 0.6 were considered acceptable for the purpose of the study (Malhotra, 2004). Item-total correlations were calculated to determine whether items should be considered for possible elimination. Item-total correlations above 0.2 were considered satisfactory and did not qualify for elimination.

The item analyses produced satisfactory results when these guidelines were used. All the subscales of the MLQ (transactional leadership, transformational leadership, extra effort, satisfaction with the leader and leader effectiveness) revealed reliability coefficients at the satisfactory level ($\alpha > 0.7$). This was in line with past studies (Avolio et al., 1999; Den Hartog et al., 1997; Laka-Mathebula, 2004). The reliability results of the VS were not as satisfactory as the MLQ. The item analyses revealed a limited number of items that were considered for possible elimination. Autonomy revealed a reliability coefficient below the general standard ($\alpha < 0.6$). It was decided to eliminate Item V7 of Autonomy in order to ensure consistency. The remaining values of the VS were found reliable for the purpose of the study. The MLQ and VS were considered reliable for gathering information to test the hypotheses of the study.

5.2.2 Hypotheses of the study

Seven hypotheses were formulated to determine the nature of the relationship between leadership; leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. Engelbrecht's (2002) model of the relationship between leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership effectiveness was used as a theoretical framework (refer to Figure 2.2). Pearson product-moment correlations and partial correlations were calculated to test the hypotheses. Partial correlations were calculated to adjust for the effect of individual differences in the scoring of the Value Scale (VS).

The correlations were used to determine the nature and direction of the relationship between transactional leadership, transformational leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. Guilford's interpretation of the significance of r (in Scheps, 2003) was used to interpret the correlation coefficients. It must be noted that significant correlations only describe the degree of the relationship between variables and not the reasons behind the relationship. It is therefore necessary to theoretically substantiate possible reasons for significant relationships. The sections that follow provide the general conclusions regarding the hypothesised relationships. An explanation for the nature of the relationships is provided by taking the existing literature into consideration.

5.2.2.1 The Relationship between Transactional Leadership and Leader-Follower Value Congruence

Transactional leadership is based on an exchange between the leader and follower. The leader and follower must agree on the terms of the exchange of rewards for performance (Bass, et al., 2003). The leader uses control strategies to align the attitudes and values of followers (Engelbrecht, 2001). Over time the leader and follower create a relationship of shared values that forms the basis of the exchange relationship (Fernandez & Hogan, 2002). On review of the literature, it became apparent that transactional leaders may influence follower's values to become similar to their own, through the continuous exchange of rewards for performance. A leader that sets goals and provides valued rewards on their achievement can influence followers to adopt their work values. Work values relate to goals that individuals want to achieve at work. The exchange relationship fuses the leader and followers goals, resulting in the leader and follower's work goals or values coming together. Hypothesis 1 thus postulated that a positive and significant relationship would exist between transactional leadership and leader-follower value congruence.

The hypothesis was tested by correlating transactional leadership with leader-follower value congruence. The finding revealed that a leader who displays a transactional leadership style contributes to the leader and follower's advancement, social interaction and/or risk values becoming similar. Hypothesis 1 was partially supported. A positive and significant correlation was found between transactional leadership and advancement value congruence. This finding implies that a transactional leadership style has a positive impact on the degree to which a leader and

follower share values of advancement. Advancement was defined as the extent to which a person progresses in his/her career (Vos, 1998). The leader and followers in the transactional exchange relationship work towards achieving common goals. Transactional leaders motivate followers through setting goals and providing rewards on the achievement of these goals (Beukman, 2005). The rewards energise followers to progress according to the leader's performance expectations. This may form the basis of aligning the leaders and followers advancement values. The leader and follower both agree on the goals that they aim to satisfy through the exchange relationship.

Transactional leadership also revealed a positive and significant relationship with social interaction value congruence. This finding implied that transactional leadership influenced the degree to which the leader and followers valued social interaction as part of their work. Transactional leadership is based on a relationship between the leader and follower where valued outcomes are exchanged for performance. The exchange forms the basis of the leader-follower relationship and only lasts as long as it remains mutually satisfying for both parties. The continuous exchange relationship of setting mutually satisfying goals relies on the leader and follower interacting with one another.

A positive and significant relationship was found between transactional leadership and risk value congruence. The extent to which the leader and follower enjoyed risks incurred in projects was influenced by the transactional leadership style. In transactional leadership the leader motivates followers to perform by setting goals and providing satisfying rewards on achievement of the goals. The leader uses incentives, promises and praise to motivate followers to achieve the set targets (Mester et al., 2003). The transactional leader could influence the followers' value for taking risks through setting goals that could lead to financial gain or loss and, on successful achievement could lead to valued rewards.

Although a review of the literature explained the link between transactional leadership and leader-follower value congruence the relationship was only partially supported statistically. A possible explanation for the results could be that trust is required between the leader and follower before the follower will align his/her values to that of the leader. It may be that trust mediates the relationship between transactional leadership and leader-follower value congruence. Also, the duration of the relationship between the leader and follower may influence the degree to which the

leader and follower's values become similar. It may be that over time the mutually satisfying exchange relationship assists in joining the leader and follower's values.

Although the hypothesis was only partially confirmed organisations should still take notice of the influence transactional leaders can have on follower values. The relationship that exists between transactional leadership and leader-follower value congruence emphasises the importance of transactional leadership in influencing shared values in an organisation.

5.2.2.2 The Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Leader-Follower Value Congruence

Transformational leaders create inspiring visions that act as a unifying force to bring the leader and the follower's values together (Krishnan, 2004). Followers are motivated by the belief that their leader shares their values. Transformational leaders create value congruence through empowerment strategies (Engelbrecht, 2001). The leader acts in the best interest of the follower. This increases the likelihood that the followers will align their values to that of their leader. It was postulated that by creating the link between transformational leadership and leader-follower value congruence theoretically a positive relationship would exist between transformational leadership and leader-follower value congruence. The second hypothesis of the study postulated that transformational leaders would have a direct, positive and significant influence on leader-follower value congruence. The second hypothesis was tested by calculating the product-moment correlation coefficients of transformational leadership and leader-follower value congruence.

The results of the statistical analyses revealed a positive and significant relationship between transformational leadership and personal development value congruence. This finding suggests that the more transformational a leader, the more the leader and follower share personal development values. Transformational leaders direct their followers toward the future and focus their attention on creative change and growth (Beukman, 2005). Followers are inspired to exceed their own expectations and are empowered to present their best ideas and efforts at work. Transformational leaders develop their followers to higher levels of abilities and potential (Bass & Avolio, 1994). The transformational leader appeals to the followers higher order ideals and values.

The leader uses influencing strategies to help followers reach their potential while changing the follower's values to be consistent with the leader's vision.

Transformational leadership was also found to relate positively and significantly to social interaction value congruence. This finding suggests that transformational leadership style influences the degree to which the leader and followers value social interaction as part of their work. Transformational leaders develop strong emotional bonds with their followers through the use of individual attention, vision and inspiration (Beukman, 2005). Followers trust and respect the transformational leader and want to emulate him/her (Bass, 1994). The leader works with followers on a one-to-one basis and also arouses team spirit in followers. This may create an alignment between the leader and follower regarding the importance placed on interacting with people as part of one's work.

Although the literature explained the link between transformational leadership and leader-follower value congruence only partial statistical support was found for the relationship between transformational leadership and leader-follower value congruence. This seems to be in contrast to previous research studies (Krishnan, 2005). As with transactional leadership a trust relationship may need to be present between the leader and followers before the followers will align their values to that of the leader. A possible explanation for the results may be that trust mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and leader-follower value congruence. Furthermore the duration of the relationship between the leader and follower may influence the degree to which the leader and follower's values become similar. It may be that over time the transformational leader influences followers to align their own value with the leader's values.

The significant relationships that were found between transformational leadership and value congruence emphasise the importance of the role of transformational leadership in developing an organisation of shared values. A leader that inspires a vision and focuses on follower as well as organisational growth provides a common purpose and influences the values of the followers. For leaders to have an effect on values of their followers they should adopt a transformational leadership style.

5.2.2.3 The Relationship between Leader-Follower Value Congruence and Leadership Success

Leader's values and shared values are the driving forces of organisations (Russell, 2001). Organisations are striving to create an element of fit between employee values and the values of the organisation. Leader values guide and direct the organisation. Leaders need to get their followers to share their values in order to ensure that everyone is moving in the same direction, and towards the same goals (Fernandez & Hogan, 2002). The leader must understand his/her own values and have an understanding of followers' values in order to determine behaviour. According to Yates (2005), leadership involves influencing followers and requires value congruence between the leader and followers. Followers will only follow their leader if their core values are in alignment. It is shared values that align individuals to each other and allows them to act independently and interdependently. For leaders to have the greatest impact they should therefore motivate followers through shared values (Burns, 1978). A review of the literature has indicated that leader-follower value congruence would have a positive influence on leadership success. The third hypothesis postulated that leader-follower value congruence would have a direct, positive and significant relationship with leadership success.

Product-moment correlations were used to test the relationship between leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. Partial correlations were calculated in order to control for the individual differences in scoring the VS. The results of the product-moment correlations revealed that risk value congruence significantly related to all the dimensions of leadership success, namely, extra effort, satisfaction with the leader and leader effectiveness. Risk value congruence significantly explained the variance in leadership success. This finding suggested that the degree to which leaders and followers shared risk values positively influenced the leader's success. This suggests that when the excitement of risks incurred in projects is shared among a leader and his/her follower, the leader tends to be perceived as more successful. It could therefore be deduced that leader-follower risk value congruence led to improved leadership success in terms of the extra effort exerted by the followers, the followers' satisfaction with the leader and the perception of the leader effectiveness. Leaders that take large risks are seen as more successful by their followers. Followers perceive leaders who take on projects with high financial gain or loss

and large risk as more successful. This may be because projects with high risk tend to involve more money and skill and achievement of these projects leads to more success.

Physical activities value congruence revealed a positive and significant correlation with followers' satisfaction with the leader. This finding suggests that when both the leader and follower place the same importance on the degree to which one is physically active and fit in the workplace the leaders' success will be positively influenced. The more the leader's and the followers' physical activities values are the same the more satisfied the followers are with the leader. When a leader and follower both value being physically active and fit it influences the degree to which the follower is satisfied with the leader. This could be due to the fact that the shared physical activities values could serve as a common point of reference for the individuals to build strong relationships and work together.

These results of the present study coincided with that of past studies. This suggests that leader-follower value congruence leads to leadership success (Erdogan et al., 2004; Meglino et al., 1989; Meglino et al., 1991; Posner, 1992). The positive and significant relationship found between leader-follower value congruence and leadership success dimensions suggests that when leader and followers share values it impacts leadership success. Leadership success is enabled when leader and followers share similar values, resulting in followers being more satisfied with their leader, exerting extra effort and perceiving their leader to be more effective. This could be because followers are more likely to follow their leader when they are striving to satisfy the same values. Organisations need to understand the emphasis of shared values in influencing leadership success. The leader should make his/her values visible in the organisation to determine shared values which would influence leadership success.

The findings of the study imply that the more the leader and followers share risk and physical activities values, the more successful the leader. Hypothesis 3 was only partially confirmed. A possible explanation for the partial support for the relationship between leader-follower value congruence and leadership success may lie in the degree of similarity of values. According to Kalliath et al. (1999) individuals seek to satisfy their values rather than find individuals with the same or similar values. It may be that followers will perceive their leaders as more successful,

when the leaders satisfy their values rather than display the same values. Although shared values do influence leadership success, it may be the combination of shared values and the leader's power to satisfy shared values that strengthens the relationship between leader-follower value congruence and leadership success.

5.2.2.4 The Mediating Effect of Leader-Follower Value Congruence on Transactional Leadership and Leadership Success

Hypothesis 4 postulated that leader-follower value congruence would mediate the relationship between transactional leadership and leadership success. Product-moment correlations and partial correlations were calculated to determine whether leader-follower value congruence influenced the degree to which transactional leaders were successful. The results of Hypotheses 1 and 2 were combined to test the fourth hypothesis. If both hypotheses were supported for the same values then Hypothesis 4 could be supported.

Hypothesis 1 postulated that transactional leadership would relate positively and significantly with leader-follower value congruence. Transactional leadership is based on an exchange between the leader and follower. The follower receives valued outcomes when they act in accordance with the leader's performance expectations. The leader identifies follower's work values when determining valued outcomes by appealing to followers' self-interests (Den Hartog, Van Muijen & Koopman, 1997; Odentunde, 2005; Mester et al., 2003). The leader focuses on task completion and uses rewards and punishment to get followers to behave in the preferred manner and achieve goals. Leader and follower goals that were separate become related through transactional leadership (Krishnan, 2001). Over time the leader generates aligned values through the use of control strategies, by rewarding individuals for behaviour that is consistent with core values (Posner, 1992). Hypothesis 1 was only partially supported. The results indicated that transactional leadership significantly explained the variance in advancement, social interaction and risk value congruence. These findings implied that transactional leaders influenced the degree to which their followers' advancement, social interaction and risk values were similar to their own.

Hypothesis 3 postulated that leader-follower value congruence would relate positively and significantly with leadership success. According to the literature shared values lead to group

cohesion which results in low levels of interpersonal conflict, the perception of shared goals and commitment to tasks. This leads to higher productivity - a measure of leadership success. The most common measure of leadership success is the degree to which the leader's followers perform their tasks successfully and achieve their goals (Yukl, 2006; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). Hypothesis 3 was partly supported. The results revealed that physical activities and risk value congruence was related to leadership success. This finding implies that when the values of leader and follower were similar, the leader was perceived as more successful.

Hypothesis 4 could be supported when the results of Hypotheses 1 and 3 are combined. Specifically, if transactional leadership had a positive impact on leader-follower value congruence and leader follower value congruence had a positive impact on leadership success in respect of the same values; it could then be assumed that leader-follower value congruence mediates the relationship between transactional leadership and leadership success. Since Hypotheses 1 and 3 were partially confirmed when transactional leadership was related to risk value congruence, and risk value congruence was related to leadership success, the fourth hypothesis of the study was also partially confirmed. The positive relationship between transactional leadership and leader-follower value congruence, together with the positive relationship between leader-follower value congruence and leadership success, suggested that leader-follower value congruence mediated the relationship between transactional leadership and leadership success. Thus, the proposed relationship between transactional leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success was partially supported.

The positive relationship between transactional leadership, risk value congruence and leadership success emphasises the importance of transactional leadership and values in leadership success. In order for transactional leaders to be successful, leaders must understand their values and follower values. In fact, the shared values of the leader and follower impact on the degree to which transactional leaders are viewed as successful.

5.2.2.5 The Mediating Effect of Leader-Follower Value Congruence on Transformational Leadership and Leadership Success

The fifth hypothesis of the study postulated that leader-follower value congruence would mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and leadership success. Product-moment correlations and partial correlations were used to determine whether leader-follower value congruence influenced the relationship between transformational leadership and leadership success. The results of Hypotheses 2 and 3 were combined to test the fifth hypothesis. If both hypotheses were supported for the same values then Hypothesis 5 could be supported.

Hypothesis 2 postulated that transformational leadership would have a positive and significant influence on leader-follower value congruence. Transformational leaders lead followers by their values and beliefs. They create a vision that acts as a unifying force that brings the leaders and followers' beliefs and values together (Krishnan, 2004). The transformational leader takes the followers' higher order needs into consideration. Followers are motivated by the belief that their deeply held values are shared by their leader (Engelbrecht, 2002). Transformational leaders change their followers' values to align with their own values and vision through empowerment strategies (Jung & Avolio; 2000; Kanungo, 2001; Parry, 1998). Once the leader and his/her follower's values are aligned the followers will try to reach the vision knowing that it aligns with their own core values. Hypothesis 2 was partially supported. Transformational leadership was found to have an impact on personal development and social interaction value congruence. The finding implies that transformational leadership was prerequisite for personal development and social interaction value congruence.

The third hypothesis of the study postulated that leader-follower value congruence would relate positively and significantly with leadership success. According to the literature transformational leaders' influence followers to adapt to their own values (Jung & Avolio; 2000; Kanungo, 2001; Parry, 1998). Once shared values between a leader and follower are established the result is increased performance, as followers are motivated to work beyond their own expectations to achieve the vision. This leads to higher productivity which is a measure of leadership success. The most common measure of leadership success is the degree to which followers perform their tasks

successfully and achieves their goals (Yukl, 2006; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). Hypothesis 2 was partly supported. The results revealed that physical activities and risk value congruence was related to leadership success. This finding implied that the leader was perceived as more successful when physical activities and risk values of leader and follower were similar.

A review of the literature supported the notion that leader-follower value congruence mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and leadership success. This could only be supported if Hypotheses 2 and 3 were supported for the same values. Partial support was found for Hypotheses 2 and 3. Transformational leadership was found to have an influence on leader-follower value congruence. Also, leader-follower value congruence was found to influence leadership success. The values for the relationships were however not the same. The fifth hypothesis of the study could therefore not be supported. Thus, the proposed relationship between transformational leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success could not be supported.

5.2.2.6 The Relationship between Transactional Leadership and Leadership Success

The sixth hypothesis of the study postulated that transactional leadership would have a direct, positive and significant influence on leadership success. The hypothesis was tested by calculating the product-moment correlation coefficients between transactional leadership and the leadership success dimensions, namely, extra effort, satisfaction with the leader and leader effectiveness.

Yukl (2006) defines leadership as the process of facilitating individual efforts to accomplish common goals. Transactional leadership is based on an exchange of valued rewards for predetermined performance objectives. The leader and follower set specific goals for performance which clarifies what is expected in exchange for the performance the follower receives a valued outcome. Strong relationships are built between the leader and follower through the continuous exchange of rewards for performance (Berson & Linton, 2005). The leader and follower must agree on the tasks to be performed. The common goals and valued rewards the follower receives, creates a certain level of commitment to goal attainment. Also, the leader displays a high task orientation in the leader-follower relationship. The outcome of common goal setting and task

orientation is follower commitment to objectives and successful task completion. These are both measures of leadership success. Transactional leadership can be very effective when complex tasks must be performed. The leader clearly defines the task requirements and measures of performance. Transactional leaders are effective as they clarify the leader and follower roles. The follower understands what he/she must perform in order to receive the valued outcomes. Control strategies are used to ensure that followers stay in line with performance expectations. The link between transactional leadership, goal setting and performance lead to the postulation that transactional leadership would have a direct, positive influence on leadership success.

The results of the study indicate a moderate and significant relationship between transactional leadership and leadership success. Significant correlations were found between transactional leadership and leader effectiveness, satisfaction with the leader and extra effort. These findings support the findings in the literature which suggest that transactional leadership has a direct impact on leadership success (Bass, 1990; Bass et al. 2003; Berson & Linton, 2005; Densten, 2003; Spinelli, 2006; Yammarino & Bass, 1990). The findings imply that transactional leadership influences leadership success. The sixth hypothesis was therefore partially confirmed.

The significant relationship between transactional leadership and leadership success emphasises the importance of transactional leadership style in creating successful leadership. If a leader displays a transactional leadership style, that leader will be perceived as successful in terms of satisfaction with the leader, the amount of extra effort exerted, and leader effectiveness. Leaders in organisations should adopt a transactional leadership style to be perceived as successful. This is especially relevant when followers are required to perform complex tasks. A leader who sets clear and specific goals and provides valued outcomes to followers on the achievement of these goals will be perceived as more successful.

5.2.2.7 The Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Leadership Success

Hypothesis 7 postulated that transformational leadership would have a direct, positive and significant relationship with leadership success. The hypothesis was tested by calculating product-

moment correlation coefficients between transformational leadership and the leadership success dimensions, namely extra effort, satisfaction with the leader and leader effectiveness.

Transformational leadership is based on the amount of influence the leader has on the followers. The leader inspires followers to raise their interests for the greater good (Beukman, 2005). This leads to higher performance beyond what followers thought possible. Transformational leaders use empowerment strategies to motivate employees in unpredictable and stressful business environments. Transformational leaders arouse follower's concerns from needs of existence to needs for personal achievement and growth. The followers begin to follow their personal paths while aligning to the company's vision. The result is followers who perform above their own expectations for the good of the company. The transformational leader is able to influence followers to reach their full potential while achieving the company's vision. On reviewing of the literature it was postulated that transformational leadership would have a positive, significant impact on leadership success.

The results of the study indicate a positive and significant relationship between transformational leadership and leadership success. High and significant correlations were found between transformational leadership and leader effectiveness, extra effort and satisfaction with the leader. The seventh hypothesis of the study was therefore partially supported. The findings of the study are in agreement with past research (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Beukman, 2005; Hater & Bass, 1988; Spinelli, 2006; Yammarino & Bass, 1990). These findings implied that the more transformational the leader, the more the leader was perceived as successful. This implies that transformational leadership is a prerequisite for leadership success. Transformational leadership influences the degree to which a leader is successful. Organisations therefore need to encourage leaders to adopt a transformational leadership style, if they want the leadership to be successful. If leaders inspire followers to follow a common vision and encourage them to perform beyond what they thought possible followers will perceive them as being successful.

When comparing the results of Hypotheses 6 and 7 it was evident that transformational leadership correlated more significantly with leadership success. Bass (1990) proposes that transformational leadership extends transactional leadership through the leadership success dimensions. The

findings relate to the continuum of effective leadership where transformational leadership is more active and effective than transactional leadership. In transformational leadership, the leader is more actively involved with followers than transactional leadership. The followers therefore view the transformational leaders as more effective, are more satisfied with these leaders and exert more effort for them.

The findings support Burn's (1978) theory that transformational leadership adds to transactional leadership when predicting performance. The results of the correlations between leadership style and leadership success suggest that although both transactional and transformational leadership are successful; transformational leaders are perceived as more successful than transactional leaders. This finding supports the research of Spinelli (2006) that found transformational leadership correlated more significantly with leadership success outcomes than transactional leadership.

Transactional leadership helps followers to reach the *status quo* (the expected level of performance) while transformational leadership allows followers to grow further. It can therefore be said that transactional leadership is the starting block for transformational leadership. Both styles are required in organisations but transactional leadership is important over the short term and transformational leadership important over the long term. Leaders should therefore practice both leadership styles in order to become truly effective. Leaders should be able to adapt to the situation and determine the appropriate leadership style in order to be successful. Organisations therefore need to find the leaders with the right combination of transactional and transformational leadership in order for the leaders to be successful and ultimately the organisation to be successful.

5.3 Shortcomings of the study

As the study progressed certain limitations were identified. This section outlines the main limitations of the study. The study analysed the relationships between leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success.

An existing data set was used to conduct the analyses of the study. This provided some limitations as there was no control over the information gathered. The questionnaires that were received were edited to check for any omissions to improve the accuracy and precision of the data. Due to the lack of control of the information gathered no information regarding the race or gender of the respondents was known. This limited the ability of the study to be generalised to the greater population. This limitation was overseen as the study aimed to determine the relationship between leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success, and did not include cultural or gender differences. Also leadership success and leader-follower value congruence should not be affected by race and gender. The sample did include information about the leaders' various managerial levels in the organisation as well as information regarding the leaders' and followers' tenure and work experience with the organisation.

The size of the data set used also limited the analyses of the study. The sample (N=162) was made up of 54 leaders and two subordinates for each leader, i.e. 108 subordinates. This small amount of leaders limited the amount of statistical techniques that could be used to test the data. Factor analyses could not be performed due to the small size of the sample.

A profile similarity index (PSI) was used to calculate value congruence. Edwards (1993, 1994) states that using this index can have certain limitations. The PSI creates conceptual ambiguity by combining profiles from separate entities. The entities were separate because they were drawn from separate sources, namely, the leader values and subordinate values. Another limitation was that the PSI did not include the identification of the elements which contributed to the differences between the values. Edwards and his colleagues (1994) developed the polynomial regression approach to calculating congruence to avoid the problems associated with the profile similarity indices. In spite of its limitations the study made use of the absolute difference approach to calculate leader-follower value congruence. Even though the value congruence concept was supported theoretically the limitations of the congruence indices meant the information gained could not be viewed as conclusive.

The measuring instruments used to gather the information were the MLQ and Value Scale (VS). The validity and reliability of existing instruments is a common source of error in research studies. The reliabilities of both instruments were tested in the present study. The VS did not reveal

satisfactory reliability coefficients although the reliability and validity of both tests were previously proven satisfactory in numerous studies. One item of the VS was eliminated in order to create consistency. The MLQ 5R that was used in the study was also relatively outdated. A more recent version of the MLQ should have been used.

Individuals differ according to their value systems rather than individual values. The study only considered values independently and did not rank the values into an individual value system. The values of the leaders and followers should have been ranked into value systems to create larger differences or similarities between the leader and followers. After value congruence was calculated it was found that all the leaders' and followers' values were highly congruent. The congruencies of the leaders and followers were not spread over a continuum of high and low. Most of the respondents were clustered in the upper levels of value congruence. The leaders and followers all seemed to have a high level of leader-follower value congruence. This weakened the congruence tests by limiting the ability to examine outcomes at all levels of value dimensions and for all combinations of leader and follower values. Due to a lack of variance in value scores a detailed comparison could not be made between high leader-follower value congruence and low leader-follower value congruence. The study made use of partial correlations to control for the potential individual differences in respondents scores for the VS. It may have been more relevant to make use of Schwartz's Value Survey (1992) to gather the information, as the values would have been ranked according to their importance.

The model that was developed did not take into account all the possible relationships between leadership, leader-follower value congruence, and leadership success. The dimensions of transactional leadership (contingent reward and management-by-exception) were not taken into consideration when transactional leadership was correlated with leader-follower value congruence. Similarly, when transformational leadership was correlated with leader-follower value congruence, its dimensions (idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration) were not taken into consideration. The model did not take any external factors into consideration when relating leadership to leader-follower value congruence. Trust may be a variable that needs to be in place, before the followers will align their values with

the leader. The tenure of the relationship between the leader and follower may also influence followers aligning their values to that of the leader.

The study only determined the actual (latent) value congruence of the leaders and followers and did not take the perceived congruence into account. The follower respondents were not asked to describe the degree to which they believed their values were congruent with the leader's values. The perception of value congruence was not studied. This was a shortcoming to the research as the perceptions of individuals can sometimes have a larger impact than reality. Valuable information could have been gathered if followers were asked to describe what they perceived their leaders values to be and then evaluate how similar they viewed their values with their leaders' values. This would have made the followers think about the degree to which their values were congruent to their leaders; which may have influenced their perception of leadership success.

Despite the fact that the study uncovered some limitations the research still provided some new information to the literature on leadership and values and it is argued that the study made a vital contribution to research in leader-follower value congruence and leadership success, as there was a lack of literature (especially in South Africa) on the subject.

5.4 Relevance of the study

The study analysed the relationships between transactional leadership and leader-follower value congruence, transformational leadership and leader-follower value congruence, transactional leadership and leadership success, transformational leadership and leadership success as well as the mediating effect of leader-follower value congruence on the relationship between organisational leadership and leadership success. The main goal of the study was to investigate the adapted model of the relationship between leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success.

The study provided some insight into the relationship between transactional and transformational leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. Not all the relationships

outlined in the model were supported. No convincing support was found for the relationship between leadership and leader-follower value congruence. Although the study did not confirm all the hypothesised relationships, it still provided valuable insight into the role value congruence plays in leadership and leadership success. The study emphasises the importance of leadership style and values, specifically shared values for organisations that wish to produce successful leadership.

Leader-follower value congruence was found to influence leadership success. This was an important contribution, as it indicates that when leaders and followers share similar values, the leader is perceived as more successful. It is therefore important for a leader to identify follower values and aim to align them with his/her values, in order to be perceived as successful. This is especially important in organisations, as successful leadership is of utmost importance to organisational effectiveness. All individuals bring personal values to the workplace, and it now seems that if individuals in the workplace can align their values with those of the leader, then the leadership will be perceived as more successful. This means that in order for leaders to be successful they must understand the differences and similarities of their own values and the values of their followers and aim to bring them closer together.

Another positive contribution of the research was the validation that transactional and transformational leadership styles influence leadership success. This finding was similar to that of previous research, and confirmed Bass's (1985) transactional-transformational leadership theory. The positive relationship between transactional and transformational leadership and leadership success emphasised the importance of understanding individual leadership styles when determining leadership success in an organisation. Leadership style can make a significant impact on leadership success. The findings of the study indicate that transformational leadership has a more significant impact on leadership success than transactional leadership. Leaders should therefore consider the individual needs of their followers and aim to develop them, rather than purely setting organisational goals and rewarding individuals for their performance. The employees will be motivated to perform above the expected levels if the leader sets goals for the followers that develop the individual while helping the organisation and then provides rewards based on performance.

Organisations that aim to prosper in the future through successful leadership should identify and understand two core concepts. First of all there should be an understanding of the leadership style used by the leaders and how this relates to leader success. Secondly, the values of employees throughout the organisation should be identified and leaders should aim to align the values of the followers with their own.

5.5 Recommendations for future research

The study provided some insight into the relationship between leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. Further research is required in order to provide a more comprehensive view of these relationships. The limitations of the study helped determine much of the research that still needs to be conducted in the future.

To validate the full theoretical model (Engelbrecht, 2002) that underlies the relationships between organisational leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success, an in-depth study must be undertaken. The study should use a large sample, one that is representative of the general South African population. Future research should investigate value congruence according to a value system of ranked ordered values. This would possibly reveal more significant results. Many individuals may have the same values, but the difference lies in the importance they place on these, whereby ranking them into a value system. It is suggested that Swartz's (1999) Value Survey be used on future research to study the value systems of individuals.

Edwards (1993; 1994) developed a method to calculate value congruence that is said to overcome the limitations of congruence indices. This method is polynomial regression analyses. Future research should test the relationships between organisational leadership, leader-follower value congruence, and leadership success by calculating value congruence through means of polynomial regression.

It is recommended that a further study be undertaken to investigate the relationships between leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. The dimensions of

transactional and transformational leadership should be included in the model and their relationships to leader-follower value congruence and leadership success should be explored. Also, whether certain external influences impact the degree to which followers will align their values with their leader should be investigated. Trust and the duration of the relationship may impact value congruence. Future research should therefore study whether trust and tenure of the leader-follower relationship mediates the relationship between leadership and leader-follower value congruence.

Future research should also explore whether other leadership styles influence leader-follower value congruence. Charismatic leadership and servant leadership should be examined in relation to leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. It may be that the nature of charismatic leadership draws followers to the leaders' values. Also, the way in which the servant leaders put their followers' needs before their own may inspire followers to become more like the servant leader and adopt their values. Future research could also compare the impact of Westernised leadership as opposed to African leadership on value congruence and leadership success.

The power of individual perceptions of value congruence should be explored in future studies. Research should be undertaken to determine the effect that perceived value congruence of followers has on their perceptions of leadership success. Research that determines the degree to which followers perceive their leader and their own values to be congruent and how this perceived value congruence affects leadership success should be carried out. Future research should be conducted that compares the impact of perceived value congruence and latent (actual) value congruence on leadership success.

Alternatives to value congruence should also be examined in future research. Future studies should investigate whether it is shared values or the fulfilment of values that impact leadership success, and whether individuals are looking for leaders that share their values or leaders that have the power to fulfil the followers' values. Research should also be conducted regarding compatible values and the impact that occurs when a leader's and a follower's values are compatible, rather than the same or similar.

Specifically, in South Africa more research should be conducted in the field of leadership and values. Although much research has been conducted separately on the constructs there is nevertheless a lack of South African research that joins leadership and values. Research in this domain is particularly important, as leadership is the fundamental determinant of organisational success, and South Africans distinguish themselves from the rest of the world by their espoused values, such as ubuntu.

5.6 Conclusion

The study analysed the relationships between transactional leadership and leader-follower value congruence, transformational leadership and leader-follower value congruence, transactional leadership and leadership success, transformational leadership and leadership success as well as the mediating effect of leader-follower value congruence on leadership style and leadership success. The main goal of the study was to investigate the adapted model of the relationship between organisational leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. Although the study did not confirm all the hypothesised relationships, valuable information was obtained that will aid future research in validating the relationship between leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success.

The positive effect of leader-follower value congruence on leadership success revealed that when the leader's and followers' values are aligned, the followers perceive their leader as more successful. The positive relationship between transactional leadership and leadership success strengthened past research. It also implies that in order for leaders to be successful, they should display some transactional leadership qualities. Specifically, the leader and follower should continuously set goals. The exchange of valued rewards for the achievement of agreed upon goals should form the basis of the leader-follower relationship. Transformational leadership also related significantly to leadership success which revealed that transformational leadership has a strong impact on leadership success. The importance of creating a shared vision and follower development should be taken into consideration when aiming to improve leadership success.

The literature review created the basis of the hypothesised relationship between leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success. Engelbrecht's 2002 model was used as a theoretical framework for the study of the relationship. The study did not support all the hypotheses and thus the postulated relationships between leadership, leader-follower value congruence and leadership success were not confirmed. Future research is required to study these relationships in more depth and unpack the nature of each relationship in more detail.

The study made a valuable contribution to the field of organisational psychology. The vast theories in the field of values and leadership signifies its importance in organisations and life itself. All individuals possess values that guide their behaviour and explain their actions. If leaders want to influence followers they should determine the most appropriate leadership style and understand their own and their followers values. Leadership should use the identified values and convert them into shared values in order to be successful, and lead the organisation to effectiveness and ultimately survival.

REFERENCES

- Ashkanasy, N.M. & O'Connor, C. (1997). Value congruence in leader-member exchange. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 137 (5), 647-662.
- Avolio, B.J., Bass, B.M. & Jung, D.I. (1999). Re-examining the components of transformational and transactional leadership using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 72, 441-461.
- Bass B.M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York: The Free Press.
- Bass, B.M. (1990). *Bass & Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research and managerial applications* (3rd ed.). New York: Collier Macmillan.
- Bass, B.M. (1994). Transformational leadership critical for South Africa. *Human Resource Management*, 10(1), 10-13.
- Bass, B.M. (1997). Does the transactional-transformational leadership paradigm transcend organizational and national boundaries? *American Psychologist*, 52 (2), 130-139.
- Bass, B.M. & Avolio, B.J. (1989). *Manual for the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*. Binghamton, USA: Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.
- Bass, B.M. & Avolio, B.J. (1994). Introduction. In Avolio, B.J. & Bass, B.M. (Eds.), *Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership* (pp 1-9). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Bass, B.M., Avolio, B.J., Jung, D.I. & Berson, Y. (2003). Predicting unit performance by assessing transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88 (2), 207-218.

- Bass, B.M. & Steidlmeier, P. (1999). Ethics, character, and authentic transformational leadership behaviour, *Leadership Quarterly*, 10 (2), 181-217.
- Beckhard, R. (1996). On future leaders. In R. Beckhard, M. Goldsmith & F. Hesselbein (Eds.), *The leader of the future* (pp. 125-130). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Berson, Y. & Linton, J.D. (2005). An examination of the relationship between leadership style, quality, and employee satisfaction in R&D versus administrative environments. *R&D Management*, 35 (1), 51-60.
- Beukman, T.L. (2005). *The effect of selected variables on leadership behaviour within the framework of a transformational organisation paradigm*. D.Litt et Phil Thesis. Faculty of Management & Economic Sciences, University of Pretoria.
- Beutell, N.J. & Brenner, O.C. (1986). Sex differences in work values. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 28, 29-41
- Boxx, W.R., Odom, R.Y. & Dunn, M.G. (1991). Organizational values and value congruency and their impact on satisfaction, commitment and cohesion: An empirical examination within the public sector. *Public Personnel Management*, 20 (2), 195-203.
- Brewster, C., Carey, L., Dowling, P., Grobler, P., Holland, P. & Wörnich, S. (2003). *Contemporary issues in human resource management* (2nd ed.). Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- Brown, D. (2002). The role of work and cultural values in occupational choice, satisfaction, and success: A theoretical statement. *Journal of Counselling and Development*, 80, 48-55.
- Burns, J.M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Cable, D.M. & Edwards, J.R. (2004). Complementary and supplementary fit: A theoretical and empirical integration. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89 (5), 822-834.

- Carless, S.A. (1998). Assessing the discriminant validity of transformational leader behaviour as measured by the MLQ. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 71(4), 353-358
- De Bruin, G.P. (2001). Career counselling assessment. In C. Foxcroft & G. Roodt (Eds.). Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- De Bruyn, F. (1992). Work values a key to finding common ground. *Human Resource Management*, 20-24.
- Den Hartog, D.N., Van Muijen, J.J. & Koopman, P.L. (1997). Transactional versus transformational leadership: An analysis of the MLQ. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 70 (1), 19-34.
- Densten, I.L. (2003). Senior police leadership: Does rank matter? *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 26 (3), 400-418.
- Dose, J.J. (1997). Work values: An integrative framework and illustrative application to organizational socialization. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 70, 219-240.
- Dose, J.J. & Klimoski, R.J. (1999). The diversity of diversity: Work values effects on formative team processes. *Human Resource Management Review*, 9 (1), 83-108.
- Dowd, J.J., Houghton, D.M. & Snyder, N.H. (1994). *Vision, values and courage: Leadership for quality management*. Toronto: Maxwell Macmillan International.
- Dyer, L. & Parker, D.F. (1975). Classifying outcomes in work motivation research: An examination of the intrinsic-extrinsic dichotomy. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 60 (4), 455-458.
- Edwards, J.R. (1993). Problems with the use of profile similarity indices in the study of congruence in organization research. *Personnel Psychology*, 46, 641-665.

- Edwards, J.R. (1994). The study of congruence in organizational behavior research: Critique and a proposed alternative. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 58, 51-100.
- Elizur, D. (1984). Facets of work values: A structural analysis of work outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69 (3), 379-389.
- Elizur, D., Borg, I., Hunt, R. & Beck, M. (1991). The structure of work values: A cross-cultural comparison. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 12, 21-38.
- Engelbrecht, A.S. (2001). Core values underlying transformational and transactional leadership. *Management Dynamics*, 10 (3), 56-80.
- Engelbrecht, A.S. (2002). The effect of organisational leadership on value congruence and effectiveness: An integrated model. *South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences*, 5 (3), 589-606.
- Engelbrecht, A.S., van Aswegen, A.S., & Theron, C.C. (2005). The effect of values on transformational leadership and ethical climate in organisations. *South African Journal of Business Management*, 36(2), 19-26.
- Enz, C. (1988). The role of value congruity in intraorganizational power. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 33, 284-304.
- Erdogan, B., Kraimer, M.L. & Liden, R.C. (2004). Work value congruence and intrinsic career success. *Personnel Psychology*, 57 (2), 305-332.
- Fernandez, J.E & Hogan, R.T. (2002). Values-based leadership. *The Journal for Quality and Participation*, 25 (4), 25-27
- George J.M. & Jones, G.R. (1997). Experiencing work values, attitudes, and moods. *Human Relations*, 50 (4), 393-415.

- Grobler, P.A., Wörnich, S., Carrell, M.R., Elbert, N.F. & Hatfield, R.D. (2002). *Human resource management in South Africa*, (2nd ed.). Bedford Row, London: Thomson Learning.
- Hater, J.J. & Bass, B.M. (1988). Superior's evaluations and subordinates' perceptions of transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 73 (4), 695-702.
- Hayward, B.A. (2006). *Relationship between employee performance, leadership and emotional intelligence in a South African parastatal organisation*. M. Thesis. Faculty of Commerce, Rhodes University.
- Hellriegel, D., Jackson, S.E., Slocum, J. & Staude, G. (2004). *Management (SA ed.)*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press South Africa.
- Homrig, M.A. (2003) Transformational leadership, Available from <http://leadership.au.af.mil/documents/homrig.htm> > Internet accessed 19 March 2006
- Howell, J.M. & Hall-Merenda, K.E. (1999). The ties that bind: The impact of leader-member exchange, transformational and transactional leadership, and distance on predicting follower performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84 (5), 680-694.
- Ingram, P.D. (1997). Leadership behaviours of principals in inclusive educational settings. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 35 (5), 411-427.
- Jehn, K.A., Chadwick, C. & Thatcher, S.M.B. (1997). To agree or not to agree: The effects of value congruence and conflict on workgroup outcomes. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 8 (4), 287-105.
- Judge, T.A. & Bretz, R.D., Jr. (1992). Effects of work values on job choice decisions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77 (3), 261-271.

- Judge, T.A. & Piccolo, R.F. (2004). Transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89 (5), 755-768.
- Jung, D.I. & Avolio, B.J. (2000). Opening the black box: An experimental investigation of the mediating effects of trust and value congruence on transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 21, 949-964.
- Kalliath, T.J., Bluedorn, A.C. & Strube, M.J. (1999). A test of value congruence effects. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 20 (7), 1175-1198.
- Kanungo, R.N. (2001) Ethical values of transactional and transformational leaders. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences*, 18 (4), 257-265.
- Klenke, K. (2005). Corporate values as multi-level, multi-domain antecedents of leader behaviours. *International Journal of Manpower*, 26 (1), 50-66.
- Kluckhohn, C. (1951). Values and value-orientations in the theory of action. In T. Parsons & E. Shils (Eds.), *Toward a general theory of action* (pp 327-397). Cambridge, MA: Harvard Press.
- Knoop, R. (1993). Work values and job satisfaction. *The Journal of Psychology*, 128 (6), 683-690.
- Knoop, R. (1994). The relationship between importance and achievement of work values and job satisfaction. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 79 (1), 595-605.
- Knoppen, D., Dolan, S.L., Diez-Pinol, M. & Bell, R. (2006). A triangulation analysis of value congruency in corporate Spain: American dream or Spanish reality? *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 17 (3), 539-558

- Kouzes, J.M. & Posner, B.Z. (1996). Seven lessons for leading the voyage to the future. In R. Beckhard, M. Goldsmith & F. Hesselbein (Eds.), *The leader of the future* (pp. 99-110). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Krishnan, V.R. (2001). Value systems of transformational leaders. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 22(3), 126-132.
- Krishnan, V.R. (2004). Impact of transformational leadership on followers' influence strategies. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 25 (1), 58-72.
- Krishnan, V.R. (2005). Transformational leadership and outcomes: Role of relationship duration. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 26 (6), 442-457.
- Laburn, P. (1994). The new leadership paradigm. *Human Resource Management*, 10(7), 26-27.
- Laka-Mathebula, M.R. (2004). *Modelling the relationship between organizational commitment, leadership style, human resources management practices and organizational trust*. D.Litt et Phil Thesis. Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences, University of Pretoria.
- Langley, R. (1995). The South African work importance study. In Super, C.M., Super, D. & Sverko, B. (Eds.), *Life roles, values and careers: International findings of the work importance study* (pp 188-203). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Malhotra, N.K. (2004). *Marketing research: An applied orientation* (4th Ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education Inc.
- Madzar, S. (2001). Subordinate's information inquiry: Exploring the effect of leadership style and individual differences. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 74 (2), 221-222.
- McDonald, P. & Gandz, J. (1992). Getting value from shared values. *Organizational Dynamics*, 20 (3), 64-77.

- Meglino, B.M. & Ravlin, E.C. (1998). Individual values in organizations: Concepts, controversies, and research. *Journal of Management*, 24 (3), 351-389.
- Meglino, B.M., Ravlin, E.C. & Adkins, C.L. (1989). A work values approach to corporate culture: A field test of the value congruence process and its relationship to individual outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74 (3), 424-432.
- Meglino, B.M., Ravlin, E.C. & Adkins, C.L. (1991). Value congruence and satisfaction with leader: An examination of the role of interaction. *Human Relations*, 44 (5), 481-496.
- Meglino, B.M., Ravlin, E.C. & Adkins, C.L. (1992). The measurement of work value congruence: A field study comparison. *Journal of Management*, 18 (1), 33-43.
- Mester, C., Visser, D., Roodt, G. & Kellerman, R. (2003). Leadership style and its relation to employee attitudes and behaviour. *S.A. Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 29 (2), 72-82.
- Mouton, J. (2001). *How to succeed in your master's and doctoral studies: A South African guide and resource book*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.
- Naidu, J. & van der Walt, M.S. (2005). An exploration of the relationship between leadership styles and the implementation of transformation interventions. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 3 (2), 1-10.
- Ng, S.I., Lee, J.A. & Soutar, G.N. (2007). Are Hofstede's and Schwartz's value frameworks congruent? *International Marketing Review*, 24 (2), 164-180.
- Nosse, L.J. & Sagiv, L. (2005). Theory-based study of the basic values of 565 physical therapists. *Physical Therapy*, 85 (9), 834-849.
- Nunnally, J.C. (1978). *Psychometric Theory* (2nd Ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

- Odentunde, O.J. (2005). Transformational and transactional leadership conceptualization: Empirical valid in the Nigerian applied settings. *Ife Psychologia: An International Journal*, 13(2), 73-92.
- Parry, K.W. (1998). *Leadership profiles beyond 2000: How Australian leadership is different*. Address to the Senior Executive Service of the Australian Public Service; National Press Club, Canberra. Available from, <<http://www.apsc.gov.au/media/parry160498.htm>> Internet accessed 19 March 2006
- Perrewe, P.L. & Hochwarter, W.A. (2001). Can we really have it all? The attainment of work and family values. *American Psychological Society*, 10 (1), 29-33.
- Podsakoff, P.M., MacKenzie, S.B., & Brommer, W.H. (1996). Transformational leader behaviours and substitutes for leadership as determinants of employee satisfaction, commitment, trust, and organizational citizenship behaviours. *Journal of Management*, 22 (2), 259-298.
- Politis, J.D. (2001). The relationship of various leadership styles to knowledge management. *Leadership & Organisation Development Journal*, 22(8),
- Posner, B.Z. (1992). Person-organization values congruence: No support for individual differences as a moderating influence. *Human Relations*, 45 (4), 351-362.
- Putti, J.M., Aryee, S. & Liang, T.K. (1989). Work values and organizational commitment: A study in the Asian context. *Human Relations*, 42 (3), 275-288.
- Ravlin, E.C. & Meglino, B.M. (1987). Effects of values on perception and decision making: A study of alternative work measures. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 72 (4), 666-673.

- Ravlin, E.C. & Meglino, B.M. (1989). The transitivity of work values: Hierarchical preference ordering of socially desirable stimuli. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Process*, 44, 494-508.
- Rokeach, M. (1973). *The nature of human values*. New York: Free Press.
- Ros, M., Schwatz, S.H. & Surkiss, S. (1999). Basic individual values, work values, and the meaning of work. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 48 (1), 49-71.
- Russell, R.F. (2001). The role of values in servant leadership. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 22(2), 76-84.
- Sagie, A. & Elizur, D. (1996). The structure of personal values: A conical representation of multiple life areas. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 17, 573-586.
- Sagie, A., Elizur, D. & Koslowsky, M. (1996). Work values: A theoretical overview and a model of their effects. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 17, 503-514.
- Sagnak, M. (2005). The value congruence levels of principals and teachers at primary schools. *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice*, 5 (1), 221-228.
- Sarros, J.C. & Santora, J.C. (2001). Leaders and values: A cross-cultural study. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 22(5), 243-248.
- Scheps, A. (2003). *The influence of ethical values on transformational leadership and ethical climate in organisations: An exploratory study*. M.Thesis. Faculty of Management and Economic Sciences, University of Stellenbosch.
- Schwartz, S.H. (1999). A theory of cultural values and some implications for work, *Applied Psychology: An International Review* 48 (1999) (1), pp. 12-47.

- Schwartz, S.H. (2008). *Personal Communication*, electronic mail received on 16 April 2008.
- Schwepker, C.H. Jr. (1999). Research note: The relationship between ethical conflict, organizational commitment and turnover intentions in the salesforce. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 19 (1), 43-49.
- Singer, M.S. & Singer, A.E. (1989). Situational constraints on transformational versus transactional leadership behaviour, subordinate's leadership preference, and satisfaction. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 130 (3), 385-396.
- Slabbert, J.A., Theron, E. & Roodt, G. (2001). The role of a values driven leadership culture in a company pursuit of "world-class" status: A case study of a financial institution. *South African Journal of Labour Relations*, 25 (1&2), 35- 56.
- Spangenberg, H.H. & Theron, C. (2004). Development of a questionnaire for assessing work unit performance. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 30(1), 19-28.
- Spinelli, R.J. (2006). The applicability of Bass's model of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership in the hospital administrative environment. *HOSPITAL TOPICS: Research and Perspectives on Healthcare*, 84 (2), 11-18.
- Swanepoel, B.J. (ed.), Erasmus, B., Van Wyk, M. & Schenk, H. (2003). *South African human resource management: Theory and practice* (3rd ed.). Lansdowne: Juta.
- Van Niekerk, M.M. (2005). *Transformational leadership at a higher education institution*. M.Thesis. School of Management Sciences, University of South Africa.
- Vishalli, D.K.K & Mohit, P.K. (2004). Augmenting subordinates' competencies. *Journal of Management Research*, 4 (3), 164-170.

- Vos, H.D. (1998). *An Industrial Psychological study of the diversity phenomenon amongst managers in selected organisations*. D.Litt et Phil Thesis. Faculty of Management and Economic Sciences, University of Stellenbosch.
- Waldman, D.A., Bass, B.M. & Einstein, W.O. (1987). Leadership and outcomes of performance appraisal processes. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 60, 177-186.
- Yammarino, F.J. & Bass, B.M. (1990). Long-term forecasting of transformational leadership and its effects among Naval Officers: Some preliminary findings. In K.E. Clark & M.B. Clark (Eds.), *Measures of leadership* (pp. 151-169). West Orange, NJ: Leadership Library of America.
- Yates, M. (2005). Values in action. In *AMED's Organisations and People Journal*, 12 (1). Available from <<http://leader-values.com/Content/detail.asp?>> Internet accessed 19 March 2006.
- Yukl, G. (2006). *Leadership in organizations* (6th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education Inc.
- Yukl, G. & Van Fleet, D.D. (1992). Theory and research on leadership in organizations. In M.D. Dunnette & L.M. Hough (Eds.). *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (2nd ed.), Vol. 3, pp. 147-197. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.