THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLE, EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION AND POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY FUNCTIONING IN A MANUFACTURING COMPANY IN THE DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF CONGO

By

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DECLARATION

I JEREMY MITONGA MONGA, student number 45019916, declare that the dissertation, titled "***the relationship between leadership style, employee participation and positive psychology functioning in a manufucturing company in the Democratic Republic of Congo***" is my own work which is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requerements for the degree of Master of Administration in the subject, Industrial and Organisational Psychology. All sources used are acknowleged as references.

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SIGNATURE **DATE**

MR JEREMY MITONGA MONGA

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My Lord and Creator for giving me life and granting me an opportunity to be human.

SUMMARY

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLE, EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION AND POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY FUNCTIONING IN A MANUFACTURING COMPANY IN THE DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF CONGO

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The objective of this study was to explore the relationship between the perceived leadership style, employee participation, and positive psychology functioning. Such functioning includes a sense of coherence, engagement in work and avoiding burnout.

The Leader Behavior Descriptive Questionnaire, the Employee Participation Survey, the Orientation to Life Questionnaire the Utrecht Work Engagement Survey and Maslash Burnout Inventory General Survey were applied to a sample of 200 permanent employees of the manufacturing.

The results indicate significant relationships between all the variables and the way in which employee participation is predicted by perceived leadership style, sense of coherence, and work engagement. Significant differences were found between perceived leadership style and educational levels, and functional department; employee participation and educational level, and functional department; sense of coherence and educational level; work engagement and age, and educational level; burnout and age, and educational level.

The study has contributed valuable new knowledge that may be used to inform human resources practitioners and psychologist in the development and coaching of leaders and employees in manufacturing companies.

KEY TERMS:

Leadership; leadership style; employee participation; sense of coherence; work engagement; burnout.

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CHAPTER 1

SCIENTIFIC ORIENTATION TO THE RESEARCH

This dissertation focuses on the relationship between leadership style, employee participation and positive psychology functioning. The aim of this chapter is to provide the background to and motivation for the research. The problem statement is discussed and the aims highlighted. The paradigm perspectives of the research are also given. Thereafter, the research design and methodology are presented, as well as the chapter layout. This chapter ends with a summary.

1.1 BACKGROUND TO AND MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEACH

This research project explores the relationship between perceived leadership, employee participation and positive psychology constructs in a manufacturing company in the Democratic Republic of Congo.

The term ‘leadership’ has become a buzz word in the context of both nation states and corporations. Leaders play an essential role in ensuring that the workforce and resources are integrated, in order to achieve the organisation’s goals. According to De Beer, Rossouw, Moulman and Labuschagne (1998, p.196), leadership refers to the relationship between one person, the leader, and other members of the team (subordinates). The nature of this relationship is such that the members of the team cooperate voluntarily, in order to achieve the objectives which the leader has set for each member, as well as for the group. The relationships between the leader and employee, as well as the quality of employees’ performance, are greatly affected by the leadership style adopted by the leader. However, the culture in which leaders find themselves also plays a significant role in terms of how they will lead their organisations. For instance, Robbins and Decenzo (2008, p. 310) argued that national culture affects leadership style because leaders cannot choose their styles at will. Leaders are constrained by the cultural conditions that their followers have come to expect.

In this regard, Moran, Harris and Moran (2007, p. 6) state that culture impacts on behaviour, morale and productivity at work. The differences in culture cause leaders to adopt different styles of leadership, with the objective of influencing their subordinates and satisfying the latter's expectations. According to Wall and Lischeron (1977), IDE (1981) and Drago and Wooden (1991), employees value good pay and working conditions, as well as employment security, but they also value the opportunity to use their abilities, good relationships with leaders and jobs that allow them to use their initiative. Ramsey (1977) indicates that we are now in the midst of the fourth wave of interest in participation. Marchington (1995, p. 270-271) aptly comments that "employees are attracted to the general concept of involvement and participation, indeed it will be remarkable if they were not, given that the alternative is to argue for autocratic and non-communicative management style." In spite of this, international leadership theories consider the role of employees to be one of a passive nature. Hollander and Offerman (1990, p.182) point out that "although the study of leadership has always presumed the existence of followers, their roles were viewed as essentially passive". However, Van Vugt, Hogan and Kaiser (2008) clarified that leaders tend to ignore the essential role of employees. In today's context, people are no longer expected to accept decisions without having some opportunity to influence the final outcome (Marchington, 1980, p.1).

Blumberg (1968), in a classic review of international experiences with various forms of participation, concludes that they were highly positive in their impact on attitudes and performance. Walton (1985); Rose (1989); Gallie; White; Cheng and Tomlinson (1998) have sought to link increased skills with employees' growing propensity to seek greater influence in the workplace, as well as pointing to the negative consequences for commitment and performance if traditional control strategies fail to alter in line with changing employee priorities.

According to Marchington (1980, p. 95), the success of participation depends on the behaviour and attitudes of leaders or managers. Taylor (1998); Glisson and Durick (1988); and Bučiūnienė and Škudienė (2008) confirm that employee participation in an

organisation is affected by leaders' behaviour. It is therefore essential to examine in some detail the way in which leaders react to increased employee participation in areas which have traditionally been located within management's preserve.

Thus, Coetzee and Viviers (2007) and Linley, Joseph, Harrington and Wood (2006) hold the view that positive psychology is the study of the scientifically optimal human functioning which aims to redress the imbalance in psychological research and practice by focusing on the positive aspects of human functioning and experience. The research focusing on positive psychology constructs is crucial and important, in that it helps us understand the potential positive impact on employees in the work setting that can occur when leaders strive to demonstrate a high level of involving followers in issues concerning the organisation. The positive psychology constructs are variables that provides a better perceptibility or comprehensibility of what makes life more meanigful and what constitutes the wisdom, skills, creativity, and all of the laudable organisational gaols (Resnick, Warmoth and Serlin, 2001; Seligman, 1999). Although numerous studies have been conducted with regard to leadership, employee participation and positive psychology, the development of constructs has experienced limitations in terms of methodology (Bryman, 1986). One of the limitations includes the use of subjects who are not in current leadership roles.

Kabacoff (2000) and Vinnicombe and Colwill (1995) argue that most studies focus on laboratory and academic rather than business organisations. This research attempts to investigate this aspect which is lacking in existing literature with regard to leadership and employee participation studies. This has been done by conducting a study in a work environment (manufacturing company) rather than an academic or laboratory setting.

Against this backdrop, the findings of this research will benefit the field of industrial and organisational psychology by providing managers, entrepreneurs and those interested in improving productivity and efficiency in manufacturing companies in the Democratic Republic of Congo with insights into possible leadership styles, and will enable them to choose the one that is best suited to their particular environment. This will also enable

them to improve the commitment of their staff to the achievement of organisational goals. Insights gained from this study will have positive implications for leadership development, employee satisfaction and performance, as well as organisational development as a whole and in particular positive psychology functioning.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Increasingly, the fast-changing and competitive business environment demands better and more responsible leadership and greater employee participation in order to accomplish an organisation's goals. Berman (1997) states that employee participation has become a sustained competitive advantage for organisations in today's flexible environment. Positive psychology constructs, once applied to the domain of manufacturing companies or organisations, would provide an expanded view of how companies can create this sustained competitive advantage (Coetzee & Viviers, 2007). On a daily basis, leader strategies, actions and behaviours can have a marked impact on the team, and make it essential for leaders to build positive relationships and work effectively with others. This could be an essential part of enhancing the performance and motivation of the people with whom a leader is working.

Heifetz (2007) suggests that leaders do not have all the answers and that some leadership tasks must be shared between leaders and subordinates. Leaders cannot do everything alone; these functions need to be dispersed and involve sharing power and engaging others' talents through empowerment (Hollander & Offerman, 1990). The debate regarding leadership approaches or styles and employee participation is an ongoing one, while there is general agreement that in order to implement participative management, numerous barriers must be faced.

The implementation of participation in the US consisted of a few experiments scattered across time and industries. Strauss and Rosenstein (1970) indicate that some countries, such as Israel, Yugoslavia and West Germany, have implemented participation on a fairly broad scale, motivated mainly by a desire to reconcile theory with practice. However, in these countries, participation has largely consisted of establishing

employee committees or councils that participate in the decision making process. In such cases, the feeling of having some influence rests primarily with the committee members, rather than with the work force as a whole (Blauner, 1964).

According to Anthony (1984), many managers hold misconceptions regarding participative management, and believe that it is a management style that translates into leaders having little power or influence over subordinates. In contrast, employees actually have more interest and direct say in matters affecting their own domain (their job, work group, department, etc) than in any joint decision making power with management (Blumberg, 1968; Marchington, 1995; Wall & Lischeron, 1977).

According to Munro (2008), today employees move across functional boundaries to solve problems, implement new programs or collaborate with external partners. This is quite different from a traditional work group led by a single person who is responsible for getting the job done. In a networked organisation, the assignment is shared, leadership is shared, problems and decisions are shared. When leaders and subordinates share authority, a synergetic effect occurs. The authority of the leader and group becomes greater than the combined authority of the leader or manager and the group when viewed separately (Anthony, 1984).

The issue of the relationship between perceived leadership style, employee participation and positive psychology functioning is not an easy one. In fact, for all leaders, it seems to be easy to make decisions and identify goals by themselves. Research shows that it is more difficul to choose the appropriate practice or style of leadership. Sagie and Koslowsky (2000) wrote that how much initiative he (the leader) would take, how persuasive he\she should attempt to be, and at what point his clear enthusiasm for certain goals becomes a personal authoritarian insistence that those goals are the right ones whatever the members of the group may think, are all questions calculated to frustrate the well-intentioned leader. If he takes no initiative, he is no leader. If he takes too much, he becomes a dictator.

The reality of the relationship between perceived leadership styles, employee participation and positive psychology functioning is that it is not constant, and may be affected by factors such as differences in culture, as well as the environments in which both leaders and employees work. Thus, the study of optimal human functioning at the psychological level and pragmatic level may play a stimulating guideline in proceeding from a non-constant relationship to a constant one.

In global and large Congolese (DRC) manufacturing companies, research involving perceived leadership styles, employee participation and positive psychology functioning requires a lot of energy. In everything related to the identification of rules of good leadership, one can clearly see that research in this area is still in an exploratory stage. In general, these manufacturing companies experience difficulties that impede their operation and lead to the non-achievement of goals at various points of their existence. These difficulties can be eliminated or at least substantially reduced if leaders take cognizance of the fact that such difficulties can interrupt the accomplishment of tasks. In adopting participative management, which involves a shift of power from leaders to subordinates, leaders can provide employees with the means to restructure their work so as to better meet their needs and those of the job:

Based on the above discussion, this study will attempt to address the following research question:

What is the relationship between perceived leadership style, employee participation and positive psychology functioning in the identified manufacturing company in the Democratic Republic of Congo?

1.3 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

Given the above research question, the aims of this study are formulated below.

1.3.1 General aim

The general aim of this study was to determine whether there is a relationship between perceived leadership style, employee participation and positive psychology functioning in a manufacturing company in the Democratic Republic of Congo.

1.3.2 Specific aims

The specific aims of this study in terms of the literature review are:

- To conceptualise leadership and leadership styles;
- To conceptualise employee participation;
- To conceptualise the three chosen constructs of positive psychology functioning;
- To integrate the theory of the relationship between perceived leadership styles; employee participation, and positive psychology functioning.

The specific aims in terms of the empirical study are as follows:

- To describe the biographical variables
- To describe the psychometric relationships between the chosen behavioural constructs;
- To describe the predictive value of the behavioural constructs;
- To describe the significance of differences between behavioural constructs;
- To formulate recommendations for future research with regard to the literature review, the empirical study and the manufacturing company.

1.4 THE PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE

With reference to the paradigm perspective adopted by this research, the disciplinary relationship, applicable psychological paradigms, models and theories, applicable concepts, the research hypothesis and methodological convictions were considered.

1.4.1 Disciplinary Relationship

In the disciplinary relationship context, the focus of this research was placed on industrial psychology (IP), which, according to Gerard, Hodgkinson and Ford (2010), is the scientific study of human behaviour and psychological conditions in the production, distribution and consumption of goods and services, which attempts to use this knowledge to minimise problems.

According to Bergh and Theron (2009), the main areas in industrial psychology are organisational, personal, occupational psychology and psychometrics. Industrial tasks include running human resource departments, working to improve staff morale and attitudes in order to increase job satisfaction and productivity, examining organisational structures and procedures, and making recommendations for improvements (Cascio & Aguinis, 2008).

The subdisciplinary aspect on which this research was focused is organisational psychology. Spencer (2005) defines this as the study of the behaviour of people in business, corporate, professional and educational organisations. According to Ivancevich and Matteson (1999), organisational psychology is the study of human behaviour, attitudes and performance within an organisational setting. This subdiscipline draws its theory, methods and principles from disciplines such as psychology, sociology and cultural anthropology. Organisational psychology is concerned with work organizations as systems involving individual employees work groups, as well as the structure and dynamics of organisations. This discipline includes fields within organisational theory and models, leadership and decision-making, organisational development, organisational culture, employment relations and, recently, analyses the effects of the external environment on the organisation, human resources, missions, objectives and strategies (Bergh & Theron, 2009). The importance of studying organisational psychology is that this field is performance-oriented and improves productivity in organisations (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1999).

1.4.2 Applicable psychological paradigms

The phrase “paradigm” was coined by Thomas Kuhn (1970) in order to refer to established research traditions in a particular discipline. A paradigm in social sciences will include accepted theories, models, bodies of research and methodologies (Mouton, 2001). The positivist, behaviourist, humanist, and positive psychology paradigms are applicable to this study.

The research paradigm used in the present study is positivism (Wisker, 2008). Ontologically, the assumptions are that behaviour in the organizations is measurable by means of standardized psychometric instruments, which provide an accurate and objective description of the facts. It relies on the control and manipulation of reality and argues that knowledge and truth exist in so far as they can be proved.

Leadership style was studied primarily from the behaviourist paradigm (Hutchison, 2008; Pastorino & Portillo, 2006; Punch, 2005; Weiten, 2007). This paradigm is based on the assumption that human behaviour can be objectively observed, studied and measured when the subject interacts with the environment. It postulates that an individual’s behaviour is directly related to stimuli in the environment, and that behaviour develops and maintains its strength through a system of rewards or reinforcers and punishment, and behaviour change must also be relevant to individuals.

Employee participation was studied from a humanistic paradigm perspective (Ivey & Simek-Downing, 1980). This paradigm is based on the assumption that an individual exists in a private world of experience and is responsible for the choices he/she can make within the limits of freedom, and also has the capacity to change him/ herself. Human behaviour is driven by a desire for growth, personal meaning and competence, and by a need to experience a bond with others (Hutchison, 2008; Pastorino & Portillo, 2005; Punch, 2005; Weiten, 2007). According to Maslow (1970), human relations is the integration of people into a work situation that motivates them to work productively, cooperatively and achieve economic, psychological and social satisfaction. To gain

employee support, one needs to understand the basic needs shared by all employees, regardless of their position within the company.

Positive psychology has its essence or roots in humanistic psychology (Resnick, Warmoth, & Serlin, 2001), which studied the whole functioning person (Rogers, 1961), self-actualisation and healthy individuals (Linley, Joseph, Harrington & Wood, 2006; Maslow, 1968). Seligman and Csikzentmihalyi (2000) define “positive psychology” as a scientific study of subjective experiences such as happiness, emotions, autonomy and determinism. Cilliers and Coetzee (2003) indicate that positive psychology includes traits such as optimism, wisdom and humanity, and positive institutions such as democracy, organisation and family. This paradigm will be based on three constructs, namely: sense of coherence (SOC), engagement (WE) and burnout (BO). Burnout is a positive opposite of work engagement (Maslach & Leiter, 2008; Van der Colf & Rothmann, 2009), and it will be helpful to obtain information about the relationship between its behavioural dimensions and the relevant variables being studied (leadership and participation). This paradigm generally reflects an interest in what is good about human beings and their lives, as well as optimal human functioning (Linley and Joseph, 2004; Coetzee & Viviers, 2007).

The empirical findings will be presented from a functionalist paradigm perspective (Morgan, 1980; Spencer, 2005). This paradigm is based on the assumption that society is concrete and real, as well as systematic or orderly. Behaviour is seen as contextual, and there is a belief that objective observations can be made and conclusions drawn. This paradigm is crucial to this study because the research attempts to draw objective conclusions by minimising errors through statistical data analysis.

1.4.3 Models and theories

Mouton and Marais (1990) define the term “model” as an attempt to present the dynamic aspects of the phenomenon by illustrating the relationships between the major elements of that phenomenon in a simplified form. The theories applicable to this

research include the leadership style, employee participation, and positive psychology functioning.

1.4.4 Applicable concepts and constructs

The following concepts are applicable to this research: perceived leadership styles, employee participation, sense of coherence, work engagement, burnout and biographical variables.

Research hypothesis

The hypothesis of this study is that a relationship exists between perceived leadership styles, employee participation, and positive psychology functioning and biographical variables in a manufacturing company in the Democratic Republic of Congo.

1.4.5 Methodological approach

Data concerning perceived leadership styles, employee participation and positive psychology functioning in a certain manufacturing company in the D.R.C, was collected by means of questionnaires.

1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN

As part of the research design, the research variables, types of research, unit of analysis and methods to ensure validity and reliability were considered.

1.5.1 Research Variables

The research variables applicable to this study are perceived leadership styles, employee participation and positive psychology functioning. These three can be described as follows:

- The independent variable, which is perceived leadership style, positive psychology functioning and biographical variables.
- The dependent variable, which is employee participation.

1.5.2 Type of research

This research was conducted using the quantitative approach (Mouton, 1996). This study is also two-fold, in the sense that it is both descriptive and exploratory (Cohen, Manson & Morrison, 2007). The differences and similarities between employees with regard to the perceived leadership style, employee participation and positive psychology functioning are described by means of a literature review, after which the relationship between the behaviour exhibited by leaders, employee participation and positive psychology functioning is explored in the empirical part of the research. A cross-sectional survey was used together with the information about the sample to achieve the research objective. The cross-sectional designs are appropriate where groups of subjects at various stages of development are studied simultaneously, whereby the survey technique of data collection gathers information from the target population by means of questionnaires (Burns & Grove, 1993).

1.5.3 Unit of analysis

The measuring unit of analysis is the individual (Mouton, 1996). The “individual” refers to the employees permanently employed by the manufacturing company in the Democratic Republic of Congo. The interpretive unit of analysis is the group (sample) of employees.

1.5.4 Methods of ensuring validity and reliability

The method that was used in order to ensure validity and reliability is considered in the following section.

1.5.4.1 Reliability

According to Mouton (1996), reliability refers to the notion that different research participants being tested by the same instrument at different times should respond identically to the instrument. In this study, the reliability of the literature review was ensured by using existing literature sources, theories and models that are available to other interested academics. In the empirical study, it will not be possible to test the participants twice in order to confirm test-retest reliability. However, the data gathered are used to confirm consistency. Inter-item correlation was used in order to determine the reliability of the items contained in the questionnaire. In this way, the overall reliability of the research is improved (Mouton, 1990).

1.5.4.2 Validity

Mouton (1996) indicates that validity can also be perceived as a synonym for 'best approximation to the truth'. The researcher attempted to ensure that the overall research process is valid by also ensuring the validity of different stages in the validity framework (Mouton, 1996). During the conceptualisation stage, an attempt to achieve theoretical validity has been made through the clarification of the concepts used in the literature review (chapters 2 and 3). Secondly, during the operationalisation stage, the researcher used questionnaires that have already been validated.

The research also made use of inter-item correlation in order to establish whether or not the leadership style constructs and employee participation presently measure that which they intended to during the data processing and interpretation stages.
Conclusions and recommendations were based on results obtained. Table 1.1 serves as a framework for ensuring validity, and was followed consistently throughout the research process.

1.5.5 Methods of ensuring adherence to ethical research principles

Ethical considerations come into play at three stages of a research project: when participants are recruited, during the intervention and/or measurement procedure to which they are subjected, and in the publication of research findings (Welman & Kruger, 2001, p. 171). For the purposes of this research, the following ethical principle was discussed: beneficence and nonmaleficence, confidentiality, informed consent, and dissemination of research findings. Strydom and Delport (2003, p. 71) state that "the finding of the study must be introduced to the reading public in written form otherwise even a scientific investigation, if not made public, will mean very little and not be viewed as research."

Figure 1.1

The validity framework (Mouton, 1996, p. 111)

Stage in the research process	Sources of error	Methodological "move" or "strategy" (objective research)	Outcome/goal/ end-product	Epistemic (validity-related) quality or criterion
Conceptualisation (conceptual analysis)	Complex notions Vagueness Ambiguity Abstract concepts	→ Thorough literature review → Clear and logical definitions	Concepts/ definitions	Theoretical validity (clarity/scope)
Operationalisation	Poor sampling of items Leading questions Scaling errors	→ Scale validation → Face validity → Pilot test	Measuring instruments	Measurement validity (construct validity)
Sampling	Bias Heterogeneous populations Incomplete sampling frame	→ Probability → Sampling → Stratification → Optimal sample size	Sample	Representativeness
Data collection	Observation effects Interviewer bias Respondent bias Context effects	→ Multi-method → Proper training of fieldworkers	Data sets	Reliability
Analysis/ interpretation	Competing/rival conclusions or explanations	→ Appropriate tech-niques of analysis → Thorough → Understanding	Conclusions/ results/findings	Inferential validity

1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research method was divided into three phases: the literature review, empirical study and the conclusions, limitations and recommendations for the organisation as well as for future research.

Phase 1: Literature review

The three variables being researched are perceived leadership styles, employee participation and positive psychology functioning, as well as an examination of the theoretical integration of these three variables.

Phase 2: Empirical study

The following section serves to explain the different steps that have been followed in the empirical study.

Step 1: Determining the population and sample. Data was collected from a large manufacturing company in the Democratic Republic of Congo. This company is a national one with operations mainly in Kinshasa. The total population comprised 360 employees; the sample was made up of the lower level employees who responded to the invitation requesting their participation in the research project. A sample of N=200 was regarded as large enough to ensure useful data.

Step 2: Measuring instruments. The Leader Behavior Descriptive Questionnaire (LBDQ) developed by Stogdill in (1963) was used to measure leader behavior or leadership styles. The Employee Participation Survey (EPS) developed by Berman in (1997) is used to measure employee participation. The Orientation of Life Questionnaire (OLQ) developed by Antonovsky in (1987) was used to measure those personality factors

which promote coping and well-being. The Utrecht Work Engagement Scales (UWES) developed by Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Roma and Bakker in (2002) is used to measure work engagement. The Maslash Burnout Inventory General Survey (MBI-GS) developed by Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslash and Jackson in (1996) is used to measure burnout.

Step 3: Data collection and administration. Permission was obtained from the management of the said company to administer the instruments. Employees were invited to complete the instruments.

Step 4: Statistical analysis. The data was analysed according to the requirements for each analysis. Descriptive statistics in the form of mean and standard deviations were used because of their comprising a pertinent vital part of statistical analysis. This enabled the researcher to analyse the data. The psychometric relationship between behavioural constructs was measured. The predictive value and significance differences were analysed to describe both predictive and significance differences between psychometric behavioural constructs. Statistical analysis was carried out by Mr Andries Masenge from the UNISA Bureau Market and Research using the SPSS programme (Statistical Package for Social Sciences, version 18, 2009).

Step 5: Hypothesis

The hypothesis was formulated to be revisited after the reporting of the results.

Step 6: Results

The results were reported and interpreted according to the empirical aim.

Step 7: Conclusions

The conclusions were drawn with reference to the literature review and empirical study.

Step 8: Limitations

The limitations of the research were formulated.

Step 9: Recommendations

Recommendations were made with reference to this particular company, the field of industrial and organizational psychology and future research.

1.7 CHAPTER DIVISION

Chapter 1: Scientific orientation to the research

Chapter 2: Leadership styles

Chapter 3: Employee participation

Chapter 4: Positive psychology functioning

THEORETICAL INTEGRATION

Chapter 5: Research methodology

Chapter 6: Results

Chapter 7: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

1.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The purpose of this research is to determine whether there is a relationship between leadership styles and employee participation in a manufacturing company in the Republic Democratic of Congo. This chapter began by describing the background to and motivation for the research. The aim of the study was subsequently discussed and the paradigm perspective, research design, research methodology and flow of the research were explained. The chapter concluded by providing an outline of the chapters in the study. Chapter 2 represents the first step in the literature study, which discusses leadership and leadership styles.

CHAPTER 2

LEADERSHIP STYLES

In this chapter, leadership style is discussed, starting with the rationale for studying such styles, the conceptualisation and models of these styles, and factors influencing the choice of a style, followed by research on styles of this nature, and ending with the summary.

2.1 RATIONALE FOR STUDYING LEADERSHIP STYLE

Research on leadership dates back to Galton (1869), whose research focused on two main perspectives that have come to inform, and sometimes misinform, popular notions of leadership. The first of these defines leadership as a unique characteristic of extraordinary individuals, whose decisions are sometimes capable of changing the course of history. The second focuses on the unique attributes of such individuals in their inherited or genetic makeup (Zaccaro, 2007). The practical implication of this point of view is that leadership quality is immutable and therefore not amenable to development intervention. This perspective, popularly known as the trait-based approach, was evident up to the early 1950s. However, many researchers have discarded the trait-based leadership approaches as being insufficient as a means to explain leadership and leader effectiveness (Zaccaro, 2007).

Leader-trait approaches were rejected and challenged through research carried out by a new movement in leadership during the 1950s and 1960s. This research was primarily located in two universities: the Ohio State University and the University of Michigan, whose charismatic and transformational models rose to a position of prominence in the leadership literature. The common feature of both studies was their focus on how leaders behave (Vroom & Jago, 2007). For the purposes of this study, it has been found necessary to investigate these models further, in particular leadership behaviour and its effect on employees.

The Ohio State University and University of Michigan gave an impetus to the exploration of various styles of leadership, namely democratic versus autocratic leadership, directive versus participative decision-making, task versus relationship, and initiation versus consideration (Howell & Costley, 2006; Lussier & Achua, 2001; Mullins, 2008; Nelson & Simmons, 2003; Papa, Daniels & Spiker, 2008; Oshagbeni & Ocholi, 2006).

According to Adler (2002), leaders need to choose a style that will transcend the boundaries of the past within the present turbulent environment. Mullins (2008) suggests that the development of behavioural science has drawn attention to the process of interpersonal interaction in the work situation and the effects of leadership on those being led. Leadership style, therefore, becomes the most important factor in enhancing an organisation's performance and maintaining a competitive advantage (Byrne & Bradley, 2007).

2.2 CONCEPTUALISATION OF LEADERSHIP AND LEADERSHIP STYLES

Although the concept of leadership has been used since the beginning of the 19th century, there has been no consensus regarding how to conceptualise the nature and consequences of successful leadership (Bass & Bass, 2008). Hackman and Wageman (2007) point out that leadership is extraordinarily important as both a social phenomenon and a subject for scholarly investigation. Many authors have studied this topic, but there is no generally accepted definition of what leadership is, no dominant paradigm for studying it, and little agreement regarding the best strategies for developing and exercising it (Bennis, 2007; Hackman & Wageman, 2007; Vroom & Jago, 2007).

2.2.1 Definition of leadership

According to Mullins (2007), over 400 definitions of leadership exist. I will highlight a few of these definitions. Korabik and Ayman (2007) define it as a transaction between one person (leader) and another person (subordinate), whilst Ngodo (2008) perceives

leadership as a reciprocal process of social influence, in which leaders and subordinates influence each other in order to achieve organisational goals. Erkutlu (2008) describes it as managing the social influence involved in determining the group or organisation's objectives, encouraging subordinates to pursue these objectives, and helping them to maintain the organisational culture.

Vroom and Jago (2007) define leadership as not only influencing others, but also doing so in a manner that enables the organisation to achieve its goals. Jacques and Clement (2000, p. 3) define it as "that process by which one person sets the purpose or direction for one or more persons, and gets them to move along together with him or her and with one another in that direction with competence and full commitment". Leadership in all these definitions is presented as a transaction in which everyone, leaders and subordinates alike, is involved in engineering the success of an organisation. These definitions serve as a foundation for the conceptualisation of leadership and leadership styles.

According to Humphries (2003), there are many ways in which to do so. One of the best and most relevant ways is through the analysis of behaviour in leadership situations. This author views leadership as a set of behaviour by individuals in the context of the group or organisation to which they belong (Humphries, 2003). The concept of leadership has demonstrated that leaders are individuals who, through their actions, facilitate the movement of subordinates or groups towards common or shared goals. Based on the above definitions, it can be concluded that leadership involves a process of influencing a group of people towards the achievement of a goal. Gibson, Ivancevich, Donelly and Konopaske (2009) indicate that leaders appear to play a role in helping subordinates and groups to achieve performance goals. However, leadership is also perceived as a function, which means that leaders are viewed as individuals. Leaders create an environment that encourages trust and builds a culture in which accountability allows for public disclosure of the leader's behaviour (Wood & Winston, 2005).

According to Hersey, Blanchard and Dewey (2008, p. 74), “leadership seems to be a reflexion of the earliest schools of thought in organizational theory – scientific management and human relations”. The first school of thought emphasised a concern for tasks, and was consequently criticised for viewing people as instruments or machines to be manipulated by their leaders. The second school of thought focused on relationships with people. It is people who can give a temporary competitive advantage to the organisation, and who constitute its intellectual value (Smit, Cronje, Ross & Virba, 2007).

O’Brien (1996, p. 23) states that “People, we now know, are the life force that propels companies ahead”. Recognising the way in which these behaviours are combined in order to influence subordinates is the central purpose of leadership style. According to Puccio (2007), leadership style therefore refers to the way in which leaders use their influence to lead those with whom they work through formal or informal interactions. According to Marturano and Gosling (2008), leadership theories can be grouped into three main categories namely, leadership as personality (trait); leadership as behaviour and action; and leadership as symbol (how leaders or their actions are perceived).

The assumptions regarding the foundations of leadership traits and leadership behaviours are fundamentally different (Kao & Kao, 2007). Mullins (2002, p. 261) believes that “leaders are born and not made”. Others, such as Hersey and his associates, accept the fact that a “leadership trait can be acquired through learning and experience” (Hersey, Blanchard & Dewey, 2008, p.189). This gave rise to the trait approach which has attempted to identify the qualities and characteristics of leaders – in other words, their personality traits. The studies that have attempted to identify such traits are also referred to as ‘great man’ theories. The reality of these studies is that they have concentrated their efforts on the leader, without taking the context of subordinates into account (Valenzuela, 2008), that is how the leader behaves towards his/her subordinates in various contexts.

This dimension of looking at leadership has over time made the style one of the most critical aspects of leadership (Bergh & Theron, 2003). In earlier years, Hersey and Blanchard (1977) stated that leaders were thought to have developed their style over a period of time from experience, education and training, a phenomenon to which Northouse (2004) attributes the expansion of the study of leadership styles to the behaviour of a leader towards his/her subordinates in various contexts or situations. According to Hersey, Blanchard and Dewey (2001, p. 145), the leadership style of an individual constitutes the behavioural pattern that he/she exhibits while attempting to influence the activities of his/her subordinates. To this Lepelley (2001) adds that leadership style is the pattern of behaviour that leaders adopt in order to plan, organise, motivate and control others. It also includes the extent to which he/she listens, establishes goals and standards, develops plans of action, directs others, provides feedback, rewards, punishes and develops employees, and establishes relationships with other employees.

From the above views about leadership and leadership style, leadership can therefore be regarded as a process (Nelson & Campbell, 2006). It is the behaviour or manner in which leaders choose to interact and lead, and is developed over a period of time, depending on the experiences, education and training to which leaders have been exposed. However, Lussier and Achua (2004) perceive leadership style as the combination of traits, skills and behaviours that leaders use when interacting with their followers, which means there is a variation in leadership style (Marturano & Gosling, 2008). The assumptions of how leaders have to achieve results through other people guide their behaviour. The leaders' personality, motivation and attitudes could explain differences in their behaviour. According to Marturano and Gosling (2008), differences in attitude can result in different leadership styles.

For the purposes of this study, leadership is defined as a process of influence, whereas leadership style refers to the behaviour or manner in which a leader chooses to carry out the functions of leadership. This can be developed over a period of time, depending

on the experiences to which he/she has been exposed. The following section discusses the models of leadership style

2.3 MODELS OF LEADERSHIP STYLE

In the following section, various models of such leadership are explored. Current leadership styles and leadership models have been greatly influenced by early models, such as the classic leadership model, the Ohio State University model, and previous models such as managerial Grid, Fiedler's contingency model of leadership and Hersey and Blanchard's model. Most of the actual studies have focused on current leadership models, namely transformational and transactional leadership, and often consider the classic leadership model and the Ohio State university model to be outdated. Despite being dated, these two models are still relevant and necessary for contemporary investigations such as this study. The models are presented in relation to the behaviourist paradigm discussed in Chapter 1, section 1.4.2.

2.3.1 Classic leadership styles

In an early leadership study, Lewin, Lippett and White (1939) researched three styles of leadership and labelled these authoritarian, democratic and laissez-faire. McDaniel and Gitman (2008), describes authoritarian leaders as directive leaders, allowing very little input from subordinates. This kind of leader prefers to make decisions and solve problems alone, and expects subordinates to implement solutions according to very specific flows in one direction, from manager to subordinate. The subordinate is considered to be an executive who strives to apply what the leader wants him/her to do. Therefore the authoritarian style is based on the assumption that the leader is the most knowledgeable and experienced person in the organisation, and should therefore exert control over the important aspects of its operations (Bense, 2006). In this regard, followers are viewed as being less capable than the leader and in need of both direction and control. Leaders have a high level of involvement with the content of the work being performed, but relatively little involvement in relationship elements.

The authoritarian style has been described as the best way to obtain results and get people to work, and the leader may even threaten disciplinary action, including dismissal, if a subordinate does not perform as required (Leonard & Hilgert, 2007). For instance, Montgomery (2005) argues that the authoritarian style is characterised by rigidity, a complete lack of input from subordinates and leader-centredness, and considers subordinates to be replaceable. The authoritarian style was more common and accepted during the first half of the twentieth century. Since then, it has become less popular and acceptable. Nevertheless, in times of crisis or when major change is imperative, people often expect a stronger style of leadership, and in this case an authoritarian style may be considered to be appropriate as a short-term approach.

Northouse (2009) describes the democratic style as one in which the leader encourages subordinates to communicate openly, participate actively in the decision-making process, and work together as a team. This style has led to a focus on the idea that there is perhaps one best way of approaching any decision, and that leadership style is the most important variable (Stodgill, 1974). Employees should be consulted in those areas in which they can express constructive ideas and opinions, and in which they can draw on their knowledge (Leonard & Higert, 2007). The leadership functions are shared with members of the group, and the leader is more a part of the team. The group members have a greater say in decision-making, determination of policy and implementation of systems and procedures (Mullins, 2007). The leader who uses a democratic style is collaborative in nature, responsive, interactive in communication with his/her subordinates, and emphasises rules and regulations to a lesser extent than the autocratic leader (Nelson & Campbell, 2006).

The laissez-faire leadership style is described by Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt and Van Engen (2003) as one in which the leader generally fails to take responsibility for managing subordinates. This constitutes a non-transactional factor, which indicates the absence or non-existence of leadership, avoidance of intervention, or both (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt & Van Engen, 2003). With the laissez-faire leadership style, decisions are often delayed, while feedback, rewards and participation or involvement of

subordinates are absent. The leader makes no efforts to motivate others or to recognise and satisfy their needs (Govender, 2007). This is notably quite different to the autocratic and democratic styles. According to Nelson and Campbell (2006), the behavioural perspective arose from the leadership research programme conducted at the Ohio State University, as well as the University of Michigan study and the Managerial Grid, already mentioned.

2.3.2 Ohio State University model

The Ohio State University studies identified two main styles of leadership behaviour: the task-oriented and relationship-oriented leadership styles (Euwema, Wendit & Van Emmerik, 2007). These styles are also referred to as initiating structure and consideration (Judge, Piccolo & Ilies, 2004). These have received substantial attention in most cross-cultural studies (Judge, Piccolo & Ilies, 2004). They have been found to have a positive impact on employees' satisfaction with their leaders (Dorfman, Hangers & Brodbeck, 2004). Leadership theories have also looked beyond the initiating structure and consideration. These styles were considered and still regarded as the best classification in terms of leader behaviours (Yukl, Gordon & Taber, 2002). Zaccaro (2007) qualified the initiating structure and consideration as the most stable leadership styles. As such, Judge, Piccolo and Ilies (2004) conclude that researchers should include these two styles of leadership in contemporary research. A description of each of these follows.

2.3.2.1 The initiating structure leadership style

The initiating structure style represents the extent to which leaders define and structure their subordinates' roles for the purpose of goal attainment (Yukl, 2002). Initiating involves "task-oriented" leader behaviour, which is instrumental for the efficient use of resources to achieve organisational goals (Yukl, 2002). In the initiating structure style, the leader becomes heavily involved in directing and monitoring the group's activities by devoting the members' time to the processes of planning, scheduling and

communicating information (Otley & Pierce, 1995). Some of the more typical leader actions related to this leadership style are “criticizing poor work, emphasizing the importance of meeting deadlines, assigning subordinates to task, maintaining definite standards of performance, asking subordinates to follow standard operating procedures, offering new approaches to problems, coordinating the activities of subordinates, and seeing that subordinates are working up to capacity” (Adler & Reid, 2008, p. 25).

2.3.2.2 The consideration leadership style

Judge, Piccolo and Ilies (2004) describe consideration as observable leader behaviour concentrating on the comfort, well-being, respect, needs and satisfaction of followers. It refers to the socio-emotional, people-focused aspects of leadership (Judge et al., 2004). This reflects the extent to which the leader’s behaviour towards group members is characterised by mutual trust, development of good relations, sensitivity towards the feelings of group members, and openness to their suggestions (Drenth, Henk & De Wolff, 1998).

As Yukl (2002) indicates, some actions that typify this leadership style are: doing personal favours for employees, finding time to listen to employees’ problems, backing up or going to bat for a subordinate, consulting with employees on important matters before going ahead, being willing to accept employees’ suggestions, and treating employees as equal partners. Such leaders are expected to exert a strong positive influence on followers’ motivation and ability to accomplish or even surpass goals (Barbuto, 2005; Burke & Cooper, 2008; Freinberg, Ostroff & Burke, 2005). These leaders strive to encourage subordinates to become part of the overall organisational environment and culture, and express controversial views without fear of punishment or ridicule (Stone, Russel & Patterson, 2003).

2.3.2.3 Discussion of the Ohio State Leadership Style Quadrants

According to Sagie and Koslowsky (2000), the consideration style roughly parallels participation, while the initiating structure style resembles direction. Nonetheless, the

Ohio State University researchers did not consider consideration and initiating structure to be two opposites but, rather, components of a particular leadership style. The combination of low-consideration and low-initiating structure was viewed as the poorest leadership style, while high-high levels of both styles were regarded as the best (Sagie & Koslowsky, 2000). Figure 2.1 below depicts the four leadership styles that are possible with these two dimensions, namely initiating structure and consideration.

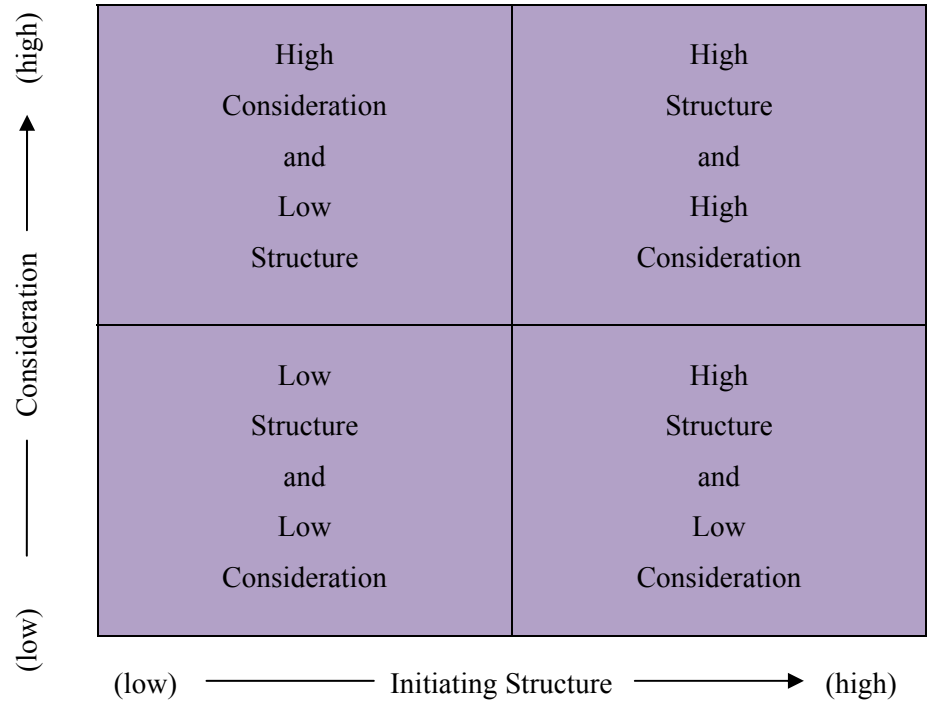


Figure 2.1 The Ohio State Leadership style Quadrants. Source: Hersey, Blanchard and Dewey, 2008, p.81.

2.3.2.4 Styles

Initiating structure represents the degree to which the leader defines work relationships, work schedules, work methods and accomplishment for subordinates (Vroom & Jago, 2007), which ranges from low to high. According to Newstrom (2007), this style includes

structuring, establishing and maintaining standards, setting deadlines, selecting goals, deciding how tasks will be performed, and other direct, goal-oriented activities.

Consideration represents the degree to which the leader shows concern for the welfare of group members. According to Vroom and Jago (2007), this includes the establishment of mutual trust, two-way communication, treating subordinates with respect, gaining subordinates' approval or participation for job satisfaction, and establishing productive interpersonal relationships. These styles are in direct contrast to the inconsiderate leader, who criticises employees publicly, shows little respect for them, expresses no interest in their ideas, and shows no concern for their feelings (Newstrom, 2007). However, in the Ohio State leadership style quadrants, Newstrom and Davis (2002) refer to four leadership styles, namely low structure/low consideration; high structure/low consideration; low structure/high consideration, and high structure/ high consideration. Researchers have regarded consideration and initiating structure as two independent styles. Thus, leaders could be high on both or low on both. However, the two styles contain elements of all four of the leadership styles mentioned above (Fleishman & Harris, 1962; Wright, 2007). According to Judge, Piccolo and Ilies (2004), the initiating structure and consideration are forgotten styles. However, Keller (2006) indicates that both initiating structure and consideration are useful predictors of performance and satisfaction outcomes, and therefore remain important leadership styles in today's competitive world.

It could be concluded that consideration leaders typically deal with the establishment of mutual trust, communication, rapport and concern for the employee as a human being, both within and outside of the work setting, whilst initiating structure leaders typically strive to define the working relationship and to stipulate what work must be done and how it must be done.

2.3.3 The University of Michigan model

As in the Ohio State University studies, the University of Michigan researchers sought to identify behavioural differences between effective and ineffective leaders. Researchers identified two broadly different styles of leadership: employee-centred and job-centred styles. These behavioural styles parallel the consideration and initiating structure styles identified by the Ohio group (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2004).

2.3.3.1 The employee-centred leadership style

According to Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (2008), the employee-centred style includes consideration and support for subordinates. Within the premise of this style, the leader focuses on the people doing the work, and believes in delegating decision-making and helping followers to satisfy their needs by creating a supportive work environment. Employee-centred leaders concern themselves with followers' personal advancement, growth and achievement (Ivancevich & Donelly, 2006). The University of Michigan studies support the concept that there is no single behavioural category of leadership which prevails (Mullins, 2008).

2.3.3.2 The job-centred leadership style

With the job-centred style, the leader focuses on completing the task and uses close supervision so that subordinates perform their tasks according to specified procedures (Ivancevich & Donelly, 2006). In this regard, the leader relies on coercion, reward and legitimate power to influence the behaviour and performance of followers. Leaders exhibiting this leadership style seem to view concern for people as an important luxury that they cannot always afford (Ivancevich & Donelly, 2006). According to Northouse (2009), the employee centred and the job centred leadership styles correspond closely with the initiating structure and consideration styles (Fleishman & Harris, 1962). The initiating and consideration leadership style significantly influences various performance criteria. Criteria such as productivity, absenteeism, attitudes, turnover and defective

units (quality control) were found to be more favourable from an organisational perspective when the employee-centred approach was utilised (Likert, 1967). Both the Ohio State University and University of Michigan studies support the idea that there is no single behavioural category of leadership which prevails (Mullins, 2008).

2.3.4 The managerial grid model

The managerial grid (Blake & McCanse, 1991; Blake & Mouton, 1981) is based on similar notions to those of the Ohio State University model. In the managerial grid, concern for production is substituted for initiating structure (roughly parallel to direction) and concern for people replaces consideration (parallel to participation). According to Nelson and Campbell (2006), these two attitudinal styles are independent of each other, and in different combinations form various leadership styles. These two styles form a matrix, which in effect identifies five leadership styles. The grid depicted in Figure 2.2 below illustrates the two dimensions of concern for production and concern for people. In other words, concern for production and concern for people involve attitudes and patterns of thinking, as well as specific behaviours.

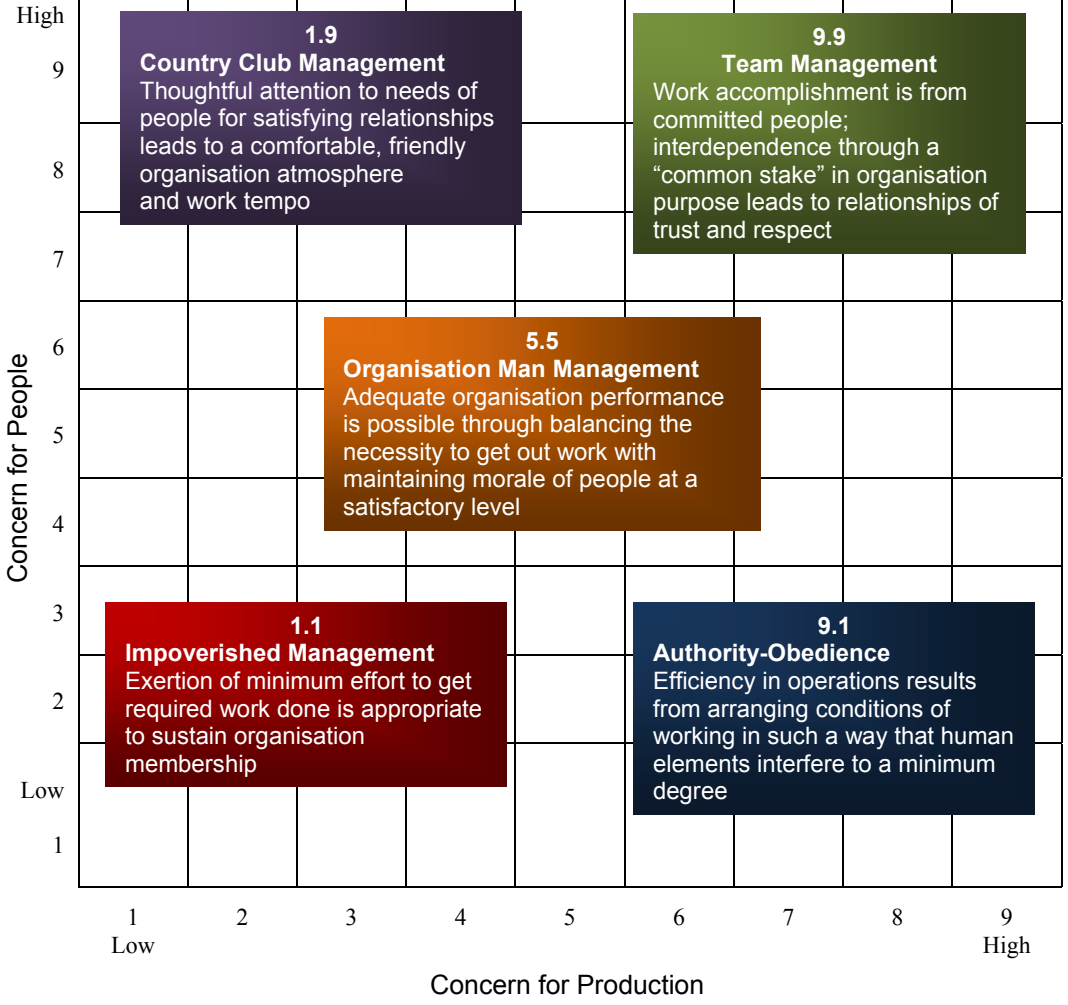


Figure 2.2 **The Leadership Grid.** Source: Adapted from Blake & McCanse, (1991, p. 29).

2.3.4.1 Styles

According to Newstrom (2007), concern for production style represents the degree to which leaders are concerned about getting a job or task done. This may include maximising production, adding new accounts or generating a number of creative ideas. This concern is portrayed on a scale from 1 (low) to 9 (high). However, concern for people represents the degree to which leaders are concerned about the human

elements of an organisation (Newstrom, 2007). This can include establishing and monitoring good work relationships, ensuring fair and equitable decisions, and building interpersonal trust. This is also presented on a 1-to-9 scale from low to high concern (Marturano & Gosling, 2008). Most leaders' behaviour is located within five management styles (Hersey, Blanchard & Dewey, 2008; Marturano & Gosling, 2008; Newstom & Davis, 2002):

2.3.4.2 Different styles

Blake and McCanse cited by Marturano and Gosling (2008) discuss five different types of management styles.

a. Authority-obedience management (9, 1). The lower right-hand corner of the grid represents the management style of the leader who is extremely production-oriented and minimally concerned about people. This is the type of leader who believes that there is a fundamental conflict between the needs of people and those of the organisation, and that this requires the minimisation of any human concern in favour of production.

b. Country club management (1, 9). The country club management type leader displays a very low concern for production and a very high concern for people. This leader is focused on the personal, social and welfare needs of his or her subordinates and believes that production will take care of itself. This type of leader assumes that happy workers are, by definition, productive ones, and that if employees are satisfied they will work hard. The country club manager helps subordinates cope with any reasonable demands of the organisation. In return, this leader expects loyalty, acceptance and understanding.

c. Impoverished management (1, 1). This type of manager does not take any interest in people or production, and is the antithesis of the 9, 9 leader. The 1, 1 leader has accepted defeat, and powerlessness. This manager sticks to the

rules, goes by the book and does the minimum in order to survive. This type of leader fits in well in a highly bureaucratic setting, where decision-making is reserved for top managers. Subordinates have little opportunity to contribute their ideas and, consequently, take little interest in the organisation, its goals or its people. The impoverished manager does not want to do any more than is necessary to survive.

d. Organisation-man management (5, 5). At the middle of the figure is shown the type of manager who exhibits an intermediate concern for production combined with a moderate concern for people. A contradiction between production and people's needs is presumed by this grid style: that is, the 5, 5 manager's solution to the production-people dilemma is to trade off - to give up half of one in order to gain the other half. The underlying assumption is that extreme positions promote conflict and should be avoided. Steady progress comes from compromise and a willingness to sacrifice some advantages in order to gain others. The result is that a 5, 5-oriented manager is unlikely to seek the best position for either production or people, but rather to find an equilibrium that is somewhere in between.

e. Team management (9, 9). The team management leader exhibits a high concern for both people and production. This is, in many ways, the ideal. This manager believes that there should not be any conflict between the human needs of employees and the production needs of the organisation. This leader seeks to fully utilise the potential of employees in a joint effort to attain the highest possible level of production. Accomplishment and contribution are perceived as the driving forces behind both organisational performance and individual satisfaction (Newstrom, 2007). Marturano and Gosling (2008) criticise this approach as failing to comprehensively consider and incorporate the situational context.

2.3.5 Fiedler's contingency model

Fiedler (1967) quoted by Sternberg (2007) and Vroom and Jago (2007) postulated that the performance of subordinates largely depends on situational favourability and leadership style. Ivancevich and Donelly (2006) and Spector (2008) perceives the situational favourableness in terms of three empirical derived dimensions, namely, the leader-member relationship, the degree of task structure and the leader's position power. The task-oriented leaders tend to perform best in group situations that are either highly favourable or highly unfavourable to them. Relationship-oriented leaders tend to perform best in situations that are intermediate in terms of favourability (Ivancevich, Konopaske & Matterson, 2010; Spector, 2008). Contingency theories could raise the controversial issue of whether or not leaders actually differ in leadership style.

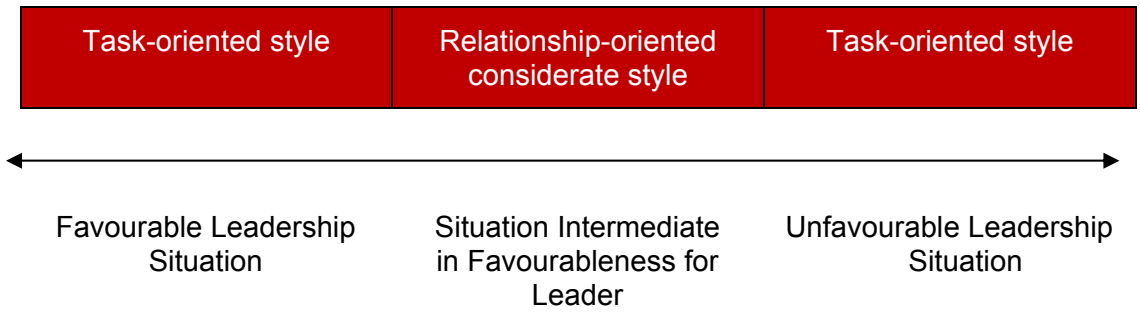


Figure 2.3 **Fiedler's Contingency Model (Hersey & Blanchard, 2008, p.98).** Source: Adapted from Fred E. Fiedler, *A theory of leadership effectiveness*

Fiedler's contingency model has received both support and criticism. Some critics, according to Govender (2007), have found that the variables advocated by Fiedler are not precisely defined. For example, at what point does a structured task become an unstructured one (Ivancevich, Konopaske & Matterson, 2010)? Fiedler has, however, played one of the most significant roles in terms of encouraging the scientific study of leadership in work settings (Ivancevich et al., 2010). Others suggest that Fiedler's model is useful and seems to be reverting to a single continuum of leader behaviour,

suggesting that there are only two basic leader behaviour styles namely, task-oriented and relationship-oriented (Hersey, Blanchard & Dewey, 2008).

2.3.6 Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership Model

The situational leadership model emphasises the appropriateness and effectiveness of leadership styles according to the task-relevant maturity of followers, which is composed of two elements: job maturity and psychological maturity (Montgomery, 2005). Maturity is defined as the willingness (motivation and confidence) and ability (competence) to perform a task (Blake, 1982; Ivancevich & Matteson, 1999; Montgomery, 2005). As the group or follower begins to move to an above average level of maturity, it becomes necessary for leaders to decrease not only task behaviour, but also relationship behaviour. Montgomery (2005) indicates that maturity is composed of experience, education and capacity. The individual or group is not only mature in terms of the performance of the task, but also psychologically mature. This occurs over the long-term — however, as the workers become highly competent and embrace professional values, their commitment increases (Montgomery, 2005). The group is able to provide its own reinforcement, and a great deal of socio-emotional support from the leader is no longer necessary (Hersey, Blanchard & Dewey, 2001). When leaders increase delegation, this is generally perceived by the subordinate and group as being a positive indication of trust and confidence (Govender, 2007).

Some investigators argue that the most effective leaders pay equal attention to the task and relationship aspects of their leadership role. However, Hersey, Blanchard and Dewey (2008) disagree, saying that the ratio of task to leadership behaviours must shift at different stages in order to ensure leadership effectiveness (Wheelan, 2005). Hence, this model focuses on the effectiveness of leadership styles according to the task-relevant maturity of followers. Figure 2.4 below illustrates this model.

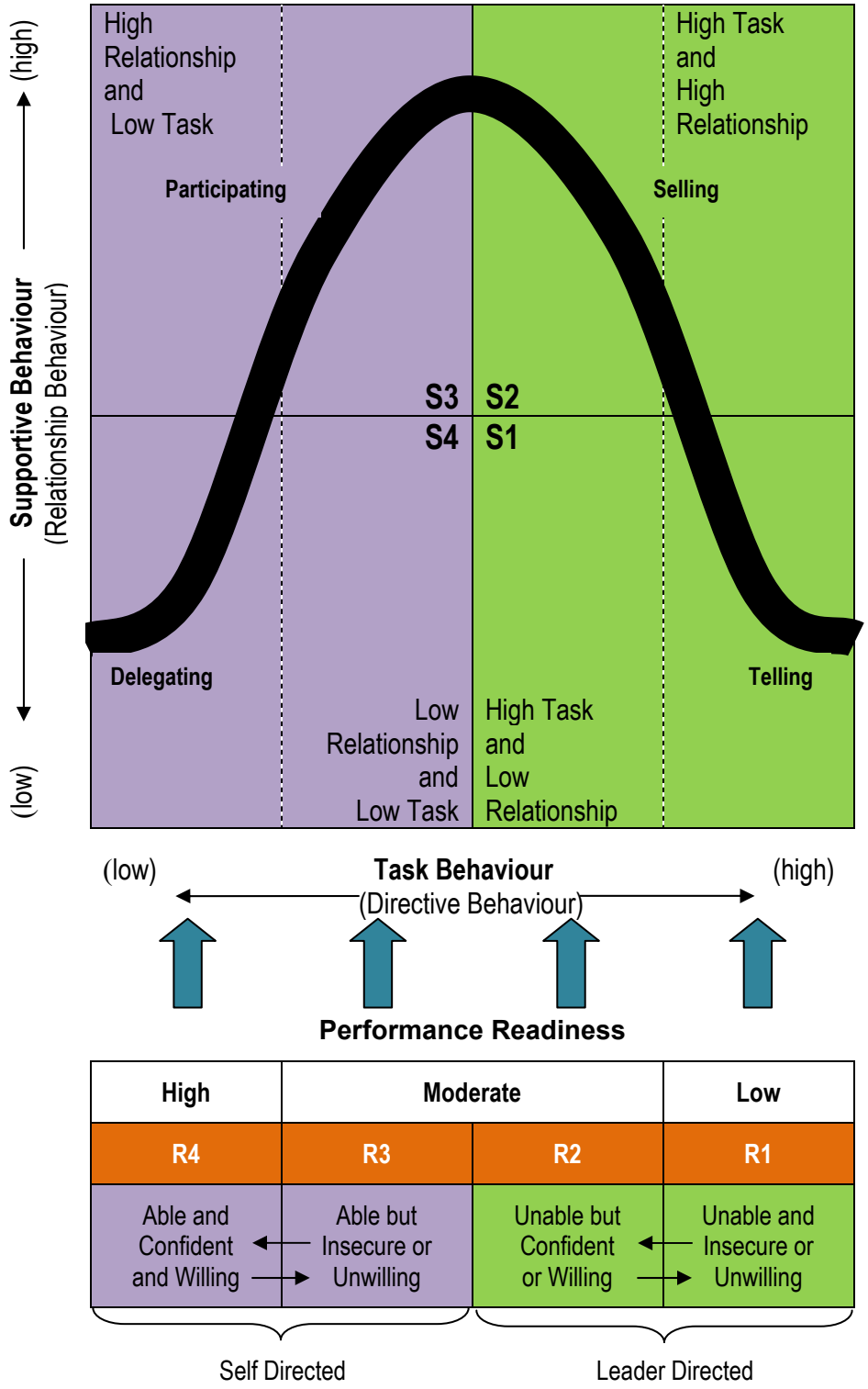


Figure 2.4 **Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership Model**

Source: Adapted from (Hersey, Blanchard & Dewey, 2008, p. 98)

Hersey, Blanchard and Dewey (2008) proposed the following leadership styles: telling (S1), selling (S2), participating (S3) and delegating (S4), as illustrated in Figure 2.4 above. These styles can easily be applied to any given situation, depending on followers' maturity levels. By combining followers' ability and willingness, four levels of follower maturity and leadership styles are produced. The leadership style of "*telling*" occurs when the leader defines the roles required to accomplish the job and tells followers what, where, how and when to accomplish the task. The "*selling*" style is based on a high level of concern for both people and tasks. In this approach, the leader explains decisions and gives subordinates a chance to ask questions and gain clarity about work tasks (Daft & Marcis, 2009). The "*participating*" style is used by the leader who displays a combination of high concern for people and relationships and low concern for production tasks. The leader shares ideas with subordinates, gives them a chance to participate, and facilitates decision making (Daft & Marcis, 2009). The fourth style, "*delegating*", refers to the style employed by the leader who provides little specific or close direction and personal support to followers. Hence, depending on the maturity of followers, in this case, leaders will adjust their style to suit the situation (Daft & Marcis, 2009)

Essentially, situational leadership model theorists conclude that the exercise of leadership is controlled by the situation, and that no two situations are the same – thus, no "best" leadership style exists. Hersey, Blanchard and Dewey (2001) support the contention that there is no normative best style of leadership. Leaders need to adapt their leadership styles to the needs of each specific situation (Gibson, Ivancevich, Donnelley & Konopaske, 2009). Other researchers and theorists, however, have placed their emphasis on leadership as a behavioural category, and have highlighted the importance of leadership style. Blake and Mouton (1981) and McCanse and McGregor (1991) quoted by Hersey, Blanchard and Dewey (2008, p. 116) indicate that "there is no one best style of leadership" that individual leaders tend to use more often than any other.

2.4 FACTORS DETERMINING THE CHOICE OF LEADERSHIP STYLE

Several factors have been highlighted by previous studies as being key determinants of the appropriate leadership style. The first of these is noted by Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958), who identify three forces that affect the choice of the appropriate style: those in the leader, those in subordinates and those in the situation. Yousef (1998) and Yukl (2002) describe a number of factors that could influence the choice of leadership style: the level of the authority hierarchy, the function of the organisational unit, the size of the organisational unit, the task characteristics and technology, the lateral interdependence, the crisis situations, the stages in the organisation's lifecycle, and finally, the subordinates' competence and performance. According to Randeree and Chaudhry (2007), the task also plays a significant role in determining the appropriate leadership style. The same authors argue that the choice of leadership style depends on the leader, experience of subordinates, culture of the organisation, preferences of subordinates and time available for task completion (Randeree & Chaudhry, 2007).

Randeree and Chaudhry (2007) further state that leadership style itself and eventual task outcome exert a strong impact on the perception of the appropriateness of a leadership style, whereas gender and organisational setting make no substantive impact. Thus, the type of industry sector (e.g. private or public) and an organisation's size also play important roles in the determination of the effectiveness of leadership style (Buckham, 1990). Robbins and DeCenzo (2008, p. 261) describe the factors that can determine leadership style and say that "national culture plays an important role in determining the leadership style". Thus, Adler (1991) concludes that national boundaries cause considerable differences in leadership style; so does Bass (1990), that culture definitely influences leadership style. The leader generally exhibits various behaviours in the work setting. This behaviour can have a direct effect on employee outcomes, which may result in higher levels of employee satisfaction, performance, commitment and productivity. Therefore, effective use of leader behaviour will increase the effectiveness of both the leader and the organisation (Erkutlu, 2008).

Mujtaba (2007) indicates that in the global environment, leaders with diverse value systems are generally people who mostly manage followers of diverse beliefs. In order to operate in a setting that consists of different cultures, it is crucial for both leader and follower to understand the cultures with which they are working in order to act independently within these cultures (Ayman & Korabik, 2010). Mujtaba (2007) maintains that there is no single best approach to leadership in an environment that presents mixed cultures. In this case, an effective leader must have the skills to evaluate and the flexibility to adapt to cultural differences, and must combine various degrees of task and relationship behaviours, depending on the followers' ability and willingness to perform the task (Mujtaba, 2007). Ayman and Korabik (2010, p. 160) add that "in a diverse workforce, people from different cultural or social groups must constantly interact with each other".

Thus, in today's world of work, leadership styles are dependent, to a degree, on people and their culture at a given point in time. Harris, Moran and Moran (2004) indicate that the present work environment needs more participative and group orientated management that can rapidly respond to the changing situation. In this emerging context, the changing of organisational culture and leadership opportunities are shared with educated, competent and knowledgeable followers, regardless of gender, race, religion and nationality. The purpose is to empower followers so that they will in turn develop the organisation and their own potential (Moran, Harris & Moran, 2007).

Moran, Harris and Moran (2007) emphasise the strong connection between culture and leadership style, and describe culture as having a positive impact on the choice of leadership style. They conclude that leadership style should be situational — that is, appropriate to the time, place, and culture, as well as the people in question (Moran et al., 2007).

2.5 RESEARCH ON LEADERSHIP STYLE

According to Bass and Bass (2008), research on leadership style, specifically initiating structure and consideration, has been inconclusive. Judge, Piccolo and Ilies' (2004) study shows that neither is consistently related to subordinates' performance. The relationship between leader performance and subordinate satisfaction is also mixed – sometimes, subordinates are more satisfied with a leader who is high on initiating structure, and sometimes they are less satisfied or unaffected (Judge, Piccolo & Ilies, 2004). The results for consideration are somewhat more consistent. Subordinates usually report greater satisfaction with a leader who is considerate than one who is inconsiderate (Randeree & Chaudhry, 2007). Recent research on effective mergers has emphasised both the importance of leaders' caring, concern and close interpersonal relationships, and systematic planning and attention to detail (Randeree & Chaudhry, 2007).

Empirical research conducted by Dale and Fox (2008) concluded that initiating structure and consideration were positively related to organisational commitment. However, the two dimensions were negatively related to role stress. The correlation coefficient between employee-oriented and task-oriented dimensions of leadership style and employee satisfaction showed that the most positive coefficient was between supervision and employee-oriented dimensions. Secondly, a negative coefficient was found between supervision and task-oriented dimensions of leadership style exhibited by leaders (Mosadegh Rad & Yarmohamadian, 2006). Thus, Yukl, Gordon and Taber (2002) examined the relationship between leadership behaviour and various indicators of leadership effectiveness. They found that consideration and initiating structure were correlated with criteria of leadership effectiveness, such as subordinate satisfaction and performance. Judge, Piccolo and Ilies (2004) found consideration to be strongly related to follower satisfaction and motivation. The initiating structure was strongly related to job performance. However, Van Emmerik, Euwama and Wendit (2008) found consideration and initiating structure to be negatively correlated with satisfaction and performance. The study conducted by Van Emmerik et al. (2008) on the joint effects of gender and

culture found women to be higher in both initiating structure and consideration than men. Studies on gender and leadership behaviour have been conducted from the social interaction leadership perspective by comparing the leadership behavior of men and women. The results of these studies found that men and women do not differ in their considerate or structuring behaviour (Aymen & Korabik, 2010).

2.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed leadership styles, the rationale for studying these and their conceptualisation, as well as the models of and factors influencing the choice of leadership style, followed by research into such styles. By this means, the first literature aim has been achieved.

CHAPTER 3

EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION

In this chapter, employee participation is discussed. It begins with the rationale for studying employee participation, and then examines the conceptualisation and models of employee participation, as well as factors influencing it. This is followed by an exploration of the research on employee participation, ending with a summary of the chapter.

3.1 RATIONALE FOR STUDYING EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION

The importance of employee participation as a business strategy was first stressed in the late 1920s and early 1930s with the Hawthorne studies. These (Mayo, 1933) gave rise to an increasing interest in the human determinants of productivity (Cabrera, Ortega & Cabrera, 2003). Ang (2002) indicates that these studies showed how employees influenced each other's attitudes and behaviours which led to attention being paid to the human relations aspects of managing an organisation. Cabrera et al. (2003) views the said aspects in terms of the honest communication between employees and leaders, noting also that there is lack of strong empirical research support for these theories, a situation that could turn into mild scepticism. There is growing evidence that participation can increase effort, commitment, which subsequently "improves efficiency and productivity (Cabrera et al., 2003, p. 44).

The notion of employee participation is further discussed by Royer, Waterhouse, Brown and Festing (2008), who perceive such participation as a means of sustained competitive advantage for organisations in today's changing business environment. For this reason, many large ones have tried some form of it (Berman, 1997). Employee participation, as described by Nerdinger (2008), includes a variety of forms and organisational techniques: participative leadership, workplace democracy, representative participation, empowerment, quality circles and employee ownership, participation in problem solving and quality of work life. The common feature of these

forms is that, by allowing employees to participate in decisions that affect them, their autonomy and control over their work will increase their commitment and responsibility. Ultimately, they will become more motivated to work, as well as being more committed to the organisation and satisfied with their jobs (Nerdinger, 2008). Research in the field of employee participation has a long history and is far-reaching. In this study, it has therefore been found necessary, in order to understand human relations theory, to investigate employee participation not only as a pragmatic approach, but also as a multidimensional or multiform concept (Ang, 2002).

3.2 CONCEPTUALISATION OF EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION

The concept of employee participation has been widely accepted in theoretical and empirical studies. The related literature is vast, diverse and at times dissonant, making the writing of a review of the literature on it a difficult task (Berman, 1997). According to Sagie and Koslowsky (2000), employee participation can imply that employees are part of the organisation's board ("employee participation in management"), hold shares or stocks in the firm ("employee ownership"), or receive revenues ("gainsharing"). Writers and researchers have, at various times, used either 'employee participation' or 'employee involvement', which has led to the term being accorded many different definitions.

3.2.1 Definition of employee participation

According to Leana and Florkowski (1994), there are as many definitions of employee participation and/or employee involvement as there are researchers in the field. Webster's Dictionary (Merriam Webster, 2006) defines the noun 'participation' as the act of taking part or sharing in something or the act or state of participating or sharing in common with others. It defines the noun 'involvement' as the act of involving, or the state of being involved, and the verb 'to involve' as to engage as a participant or to occupy or engage the interest of participants. For Ang (2002), these definitions show that the two terms give meaning to each other. Therefore, there is no significant

difference in terms of the concepts conveyed by them. Most of the literature indicates that the use of both terms by different researchers is not related to any significant difference between the two concepts in terms of their meanings (Ang, 2002).

A few writers have, however, attempted to identify perceived differences between participation and involvement. Kaler (1999) for example contends that, in the organisational context, participation is any arrangement whereby employees have some share in aspects of the organisation, and is not a specific kind of employee involvement. Drehmer, Belohlav and Coye (2000) refer to employee participation firstly as a programmatic approach within the context of the traditional participative leadership.

Drehemer et al., (2000, p. 6) described the involvement and participation terms as programmatic approach and traditional participative leadership. The programmatic approach views involvement as a function of several basic organisational processes such as information sharing, training, decision-making, and rewards. The traditional participative leadership literature often tends to view the programme separately from other organisational processes. However, employee participation implies that a greater degree of mutuality is present in the organisational relationships. The traditional participative leadership typically takes a programmatic approach to employee participation.

According to Ang (2002), employee involvement is used to describe managerially inspired initiatives aimed at obtaining employee commitment, as part of the practices of industrial democracy, whose aim is to increase the rights of employees to participate in leadership decisions. Employee involvement is therefore defined as “a management approach encompassing activities which employees in an organization participate in, either individually or collectively lead to, or demonstrate the value of and rationale for locating workplace improvement actions, problem solving, and decisions-making, at the lowest possible levels in the organization” (Ang, 2002, p. 196).

Ang (2002) further notes that involvement is achieved through a process consisting of five essential steps: informing, consulting, sharing, delegating and empowering. Other authors indicate that involvement motivates employees to contribute (Newstrom & Davis, 2002). They are empowered to release their own and others' potential and creativity in order to achieve the objectives of the organisation. Owusu (1999, p. 10) defines involvement as "the participation of the entire firm's workforce to improve the working environment, product quality, equipment productivity, and eventually, organization competiveness".

Participation refers to the extent to which a person's knowledge, opinions and ideas are included in the decision-making process (Gibson, Ivancevish, Donelly & Konopaska, 2009). Participation is perceived as the mental and emotional involvement of employees in group situations, which encourages them to share responsibility and contribute efficiently and effectively to the group's goals (Newstrom & Davis, 2002). Wall and Lischeron, quoted by Roche and Geary (2006), indicate that participation refers to the influence over decision-making that is exerted through a process of interaction between employees and leaders, and which is based upon information-sharing. A specific application of information-sharing is perceived in such a way that once employees are empowered by being provided with information, they will perform their activities better (Pant, 2001; Winder, 2008).

According to Delaney and Huselid (1996), the term 'participation' has been used to refer to the existence of organisational structures or mechanisms that give employees a voice in workplace decisions, and to describe a wide variety of employee involvement programmes. Turner (1998) indicates that participation takes the form of being involved, included and consulted in the formulation and implementation of the organisation's broader activities, which means that employees are included in the formulation of standards, decision-making and implementation of the organisation's goals. Beyond this general definition, however, there are many definitions of employee participation. Kalleberg, Nesheim and Olsen (2009) highlight two definitions of participation: online participation and off-line participation. In the first, employees make decisions as part of

their daily responsibilities, and in the second, they make suggestions to the leadership. This makes participation a team's duty, and participative leadership to work in such a way that the team collaborates and shares responsibility for planning and achieving outcomes (Kanter, 1982).

Wallace (1979) has identified three areas of participation, the first of which is the way in which employees influence or are involved in the decision-making process of the organisation. The second is job satisfaction and work organisation, which improves the quality of jobs, making work, as well as the social organisation of work units, more interesting. The third area relates to financial participation, which may include profit-sharing and employee shareholding, but is essentially about getting the monetary balance right.

Wallace (1979)'s view is shared by Anstey, quoted in Nel, Swanepoel, Kirsten, Erasmus and Tsabadi (2005), that employee participation recognises employees' right to be individually and collectively involved with leaders in the areas of organisational decision-making beyond those usually associated with collective bargaining. This means that employees claim the right to have a greater say in matters that affect their working lives. From this point of view, participation is perceived in relation to the concept of "influencing" each other in making certain plans, policies, decisions and leading. Lichtenstein, McCarthy and Wells (2004) describe participation and influence as influence-sharing.

The influence-sharing process becomes successful when employees are given the opportunity to make certain decisions, and possess the knowledge and skills to make such decisions effectively. Strauss (1998, p. 192) points out that "the influence sharing works if conditions are appropriate". The decisive factor for these appropriate conditions seems to be the corporate culture (Erko, Pundt & Nerdinger, 2005).

The term corporate culture “is still not clear, however, even after a few decades of research” (Nerdinger, 2008, p. 108). According to Schein (2004), it may be understood as a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learns as it solves its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, which has worked well enough to be considered valid and therefore to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to these problems. For instance, the assumption that human beings are fundamentally active and strive for responsibility will lead to valuing participation in an organisation, which in turn leads to the implementation of diverse forms and instruments of participation (Nerdinger, 2008).

Howell and Costley (2001, p. 50) introduced the concept of corporate culture or culture of participation. Erko, Pundt and Nerdinger (2005) indicate that a company has a culture of participation if it uses forms of employee participation permanently, intentionally and preferentially to solve opening and integration problems. The advocates of a culture of participation call upon leaders to involve employees more in decision-making related to their work, and give them enlarged and enriched jobs that could help to mitigate the negative consequences of work in mass production (Marsden & Cañibano, 2009). Cross-cultural corporate research suggests that the participation of employees varies among countries. This difference is demonstrated in general studies on culture variations, such as Hofstede’s (1980) work on power distance (i.e. the degree to which leaders of an organisation expect power to be unequally shared among their employees).

It serves as a predictive factor for the degree of employee involvement (Szabo, 2006). One can hypothesise that once employees are allowed to participate in the decision-making process, they will be able to provide valuable input in terms of information, which would otherwise be lacking, to the leadership (Szabo, 2006). Blanco, Albert, Olshansky and Chang (2009) maintain that employee participation entails the involvement of the subordinate in the organisation, planning of work processes, establishment of present and future procedures, and the decision-making process at different levels of the organisation.

For the purpose of this study, employee involvement is defined as the process of informing, consulting, sharing, delegating and empowering. Employee participation refers to the influence over decision-making that is exerted through a process of interaction between leaders and employees, and which is based upon information-sharing.

3.3 MODELS OF EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION

In the following section, various models of employee participation are explored. Cassar (1999) indicates that participation may take different forms. In fact, Cotton, Vollrath, Froggatt, Lengnick-Hall and Jennings (1988) state that different forms or models of participation may exist, and that not all of them are significantly correlated with positive outcomes. These are direct participation, indirect participation, participation in the organisation, employee participation and values, assumptions and ethics. Hollander and Offerman (1990), quoted by Cassar (1999), argue that non-participation of employees in matters that concern them within the organisation may cause great damage, and participation in the work environment therefore becomes an ethical imperative. Once employees are involved in work-related issues, they will become motivated, productive and cooperative, and will thus obtain economic, psychological and social satisfaction (Maslow, 1970).

3.3.1 Direct Participation

Busck, Knudsen and Lind (2010) define direct participation as the opportunities which leadership provides or initiatives to which it lends its support, at the workplace level, for consultation, delegation of responsibilities and authority for decision-making to its employees, individually or collectively, related to the immediate work task, work organisation and/or working conditions. Cabrera, Ortega and Cabrera (2003) argue that direct participation enables employees to have an immediate personal involvement in the decision-making and goal-setting processes related to their work. Busck et al. (2010) posit that direct participation has changed over time, but that its features have

remained constant. On the other hand, Cabrera et al. (2003) perceive the change in direct participation to occur in terms of both its cognitive and affective effects. Cognitive participation effects can be used once employees become involved in organisational matters. This may encourage them to freely contribute their ideas and suggestions, and to share information, which will result in higher levels of performance. However, as a result of the effects of affective participation, employees are involved in such a manner that their higher-order needs are fulfilled, which leads directly to greater levels of satisfaction, which in turn increases motivation and has a positive effect on productivity (Cabrera, Ortega & Cabrera, 2003). According to Geary and Sisson (1994), direct participation includes four main forms: participation in decision-making, consultative participation, delegative participation and short-term participation.

3.3.1.1 Participation in decision-making

Participation in decision-making refers to the process in which influence or decision-making is shared between leaders and their employees. Bordia, Hobman, Jones, Gollois and Callan (2004) posit that participation in decision-making is a communicative activity. Thus, Grebici, Blanco and Rieu (2006) conclude that the levels of participation may vary from one context to another (Duflo & Sagez, 2002). For example, participation may be forced or voluntary, formal or informal, direct (individual participation) or indirect (representation on committees), and full authority or minimal consultation (Bordia et al., 2004). These differences suggest that the effects of participation may depend upon the degree of it (Bordia, 2004).

3.3.1.2 Consultative participation

Consultative participation refers to the situation in which employees engage in long-term, formal and direct participation, and where the content of participative decision-making is focused on work issues (Leung, Chu, & Lu, 2003). Cabrera, Ortega and Cabrera (2003) maintain that consultative participation refers to the practice whereby management encourages followers to share their ideas and opinions regarding work-

related concerns, but has the final right to make decisions. Consultative participation includes regular meetings with leaders, attitude surveys, and employees' suggestion plans. However, Ramsay, Scholarios and Harley (2000) note that consultation may lead to work intensification, increased stress levels, and redundancies.

3.3.1.3 Delegative participation

Delegative participation refers to employees' ability to increase responsibility and autonomy in order to organise and perform their jobs as they see fit (Cabrera, Ortega & Cabrera, 2003). In its purest sense, delegative participation describes the granting of autonomy to employees by leadership to design and prepare work schedules, and to monitor and control their own tasks and methods of working (Geary & Sisson, 1994). Geary and Sisson (1994) indicate that there may be considerable flexibility between different skill categories, to the extent that skilled workers do unskilled tasks when required, while formerly unskilled workers will receive additional training to enable them to correctly assume their responsibility for more skilled tasks.

3.3.1.4 Short-term participation

This form of participation is of limited duration, and may be characterised as formal, direct and concerned with work itself: through it, employees have a full say in certain organisational matters, particularly the decision-making process (Leung et al., 2003). Cotton et al. (1988) posit that short-term participation is closely related to that of identified participation in work decisions, except for differences in temporal duration. Short-term participation effects have generally focused on four dependent variables: performance, satisfaction or other attitudes, motivation or goal properties, and perceived influence (Leung et al., 2003).

3.3.2 Indirect participation

According to Leung et al. (2003, p. 7), indirect participation refers to “the process in which employees do not participate directly, but do so through representatives elected to a governing council or, perhaps, through representatives on the board of directors”. This form of participation takes place through intermediary employee representative bodies, such as work councils or trade unions (Cabrera, Ortega & Cabrera, 2003). Work councils are part of a broader industrial relations system, which is characterised by a dual structure of worker representation through work councils and unions (Hübler & Jirjahn, 2003). According to Nel, Swanepoel, Kirsten, Erasmus, and Tsabadi (2005, p. 40), a “union is regarded as a continuing permanent organisation created by workers to protect themselves at their work, to improve the conditions of their work through collective bargaining, to seek to better the conditions of their lives, to provide a means of expression for the employees’ views on the matters concerning the organization”. However, Jirjahn and Smith (2006) perceive a work council as an institution with a collective voice which may contribute to cooperative industrial relations by improving the information flow between management and employees. Work councils are institutionalised bodies of employee representation with functions that are distinct from those of unions. For instance, they do not have the right to strike according to the works council’s act, which does not allow wage negotiations; the objective is to restrict distributional conflicts on establishment level. However, works councils are required by law to cooperate with management “in a spirit of mutual trust for the good of the employee and of the establishment” (Jirjahn & Smith, 2006, p. 67).

3.3.2.1 Representative participation

The representative form of participation is classified as formal, indirect and of medium to low influence. In this form, employees do not participate directly, but are represented through an elected governing body, namely a council, which represents their interests on the board of directors. Representative participation is similar to employee ownership, except for the fact that the influence of employees is generally lower. Representative

participation therefore covers all areas of content, because worker councils or a board of directors can focus on any issues that concern the workforce and organisation (Busck, Knudsen & Lind, 2010; Cotton, Vollrath, Froggatt, Lengnick-Hall & Jennings, 1988).

3.3.2.2 Employee ownership

According to Cotton, Vollrath, Froggath, Lengnick-Hall and Jennings (1988), employee ownership may be classified as both a formal and an informal form of participation. It is formal because the employee has the full right to be involved, as any stakeholder does. The same author argues that employee ownership is also an indirect form of participation — although most of these organisations are owned by subordinates, they are usually run by leaders who make daily and strategic decisions (Cotton et al., 1988). Employee ownership has been shown to have a positive relationship with measures of organisational performance.

Nerdinger (2008) indicates that employee participation can be divided into material and immaterial forms where the material form of participation includes all forms of financial participation of subordinates in the organisation's capital, profits or gains. However, Foci (2004) considers that the immaterial form of employee participation includes employees being involved in information, coordination and decision-making processes within the organisation. Pierce, Kostova and Dirks (2001) conclude that most of the abovementioned forms of participation seem to have the potential to increase employee job satisfaction and work motivation. However, in order to release this potential, subordinates need to experience psychological ownership (Nerdinger, 2008). The diverse forms of employee participation and their different outcomes are illustrated in Figure 3.1 below. In this regard, Cotton et al. (1988) investigated whether or not different forms of employee participation were associated with different outcomes.

Participation Forms	Productivity Outcomes	Job Satisfaction Outcomes
Participation in work decisions (formal, direct, long-term, high influence, work decisions)	Positive	Mixed
Consultative participation (formal, direct, long-term, moderate influence, work decisions)	Inconclusive	Inconclusive
Short-term participation (formal, direct, short-term, high influence, work decisions)	No effect	No effect
Informal participation (informal indirect, long-term, unknown influence, unknown content)	Positive	Positive
Employee ownership (formal, indirect, long-term, high influence, unknown content)	Positive	Positive
Representative participation (formal, indirect, long-term, moderate-low influence, any content)	No effect	No effect

Figure 3.1 **Participation Outcomes according to Participation Forms.** Source: Adapted from Cotton et al. (1988, p.11)

3.3.3 Participation in Organisations

Much of Lawler's research (1986; 1988; 1992) is devoted to defining, describing and documenting an approach to participation that responds to many of the difficulties of

participation described in the literature. It is a systems approach to participation known as “high involvement management”. High involvement management is an organisational design in which information, power, knowledge and rewards are located at the lowest practical level in the organisation (Macky & Boxall, 2008). These authors argue that a high level of involvement is generally believed to improve employee relations and increase organisational performance and profitability through quality communication and consultation between both leaders and employees (Gollan, David & Hamberger, 2005).

Lawler (1990, p. 87) states that in order for participation to be effective, “four elements must be in the hands of the individuals performing the work”: the information process, quality, customer feedback and business results. These must be shared with all employees in the work setting. The knowledge of the work, business and the total work system is taught to all employees. This confers on employees the power to act and make decisions about work in all its aspects (Lawler, Mohrman & Ledford, 1992). According to Jones, Kalmi and Kauttanen (2010), today’s employees may possess valuable information about the production process (service process) that management may not know. Leaders are thus called upon to encourage employees to use their knowledge to benefit the organisation.

3.3.4 Employee Participation Systems

The term ‘employee participation’ also refers to an organisational design or system of managing. One example of a participative organisational design is high involvement management (Berman, 1997). An organisation that enhances and promotes the flow of information, power, knowledge and rewards at the lowest level of the organisation is considered to be practising high involvement (Lawler, 1990). According to Appelbaum, Bailey, Berg and Kalleberg (2000) and Doellgast (2008), an organisation which adopts a coherent set of workplace practices that increase employee participation and discretion, such as teamwork and job rotation to maximise horizontal fit, should have superior performance.

Macky and Boxall (2008) identify eight organisational design elements of high involvement management: organisation and work design, physical layout design, information system, leader's role, reward system, training and development, staffing, and personnel policies. Berman (1997, p. 13) argues that the "critical success factor of high involvement management is that all design elements are mutually reinforcing to support and facilitate involvement".

According to Lawler (1992), high involvement management is a way of structuring an organisation so that people at the lowest level are involved not only in their jobs, but also in the performance of the entire organisation. One example of a high involvement system of managing is open book management. This, as explained by Berman (1997) is based on four principles of participative management:

- Information — all employees must know what is going on in the organisation. In open book management, financial and operational projections and results are shared with all employees on a regular and frequent basis.

- Business literacy — all employees must be taught how to understand and use information. This means teaching the basics of business, such as accounting and finance principles.

- Empowerment — once employees have understood the information, participation in decision-making can work. Systems of responsibility and accountability are implemented, such as participative goal-setting (at the organisational, unit and individual level), group-based goals and rewards, and continual feedback regarding milestones and results.

- Stake in success —all employees have a stake in the company's success and share directly in this or the risk of failure.

3.3.5 Employee Participation Activities

The term ‘employee participation’ is also used to indicate one or more activities that involve employees in some way. Lawler, Mohrman and Ledford (1992) have focused on four categories of activities: sharing information, developing knowledge, rewarding performance and redistributing power.

3.3.5.1 Sharing information

This activity focuses on sharing information about an organisation’s overall operating results, the unit’s operating results, new technologies, business plans and goals (Cooper & Branwell, 1992). Pant (2001) indicated that employees can be empowered by being provided with information about the cost implications of the activities they perform.

3.3.5.2 Developing knowledge

This activity focuses on developing knowledge, such as training in group decision-making and problem-solving, leadership, understanding the business (accounting and finance), quality/statistical analysis, team building, job skills and cross-cultural training (Wynder, 2008).

3.3.5.3 Rewarding performance

This activity focuses on rewarding performance through all salaried pay systems, knowledge/skill-based pay, profit-sharing, gain-sharing, individual incentives, work group or team incentives, non-monetary recognition awards for performance, employee stock ownership plans, flexible, cafeteria-style benefits, employment security, open pay information and stock option plans (Park, Appelbaum & Kruse, 2010).

3.3.5.4 Redistributing power

This activity focuses on redistributing power through suggestion systems, survey feedback, job enrichment or redesign, quality circles, employee participation groups, union-management quality of work life committees, mini-business units, self-managing work teams, and employee committees concerned with policy and/or strategy (Kennedy, Loughry, Klammer & Beyerlein, 2009).

3.3.6 Values, Assumptions and Ethics

This issue evokes numerous responses from employee participation researchers. This may be because to some, it is a values and ethics question, while to others it is a business question (Berman, 1997). Nelson and Campbell (2006) state that values, assumptions and ethics are the essential components of culture. The values are perceived as conscious and affective desires of the organisation, the kind of behaviour it wants to promote and reward. These values are usually embedded in every organisation's culture values through some artifacts like written symbols or slogans and publications in various media. However, Gupta (2009) indicates that the true values can only be tested within the organisation, through the employees, based on their collective opinion about the experience of the values. Ethics is the code of moral principles and values that distinguishes right behaviour from wrong (Gupta, 2009). The study of employee participation in an ethical value setting helps to improve employees' affective commitment and socially responsible behaviour that is aligned with the ethical values set out in the organisation (Palazzo & Bashu, 2007).

Cludts (1999) asserts that employee participation in decision making is based on the theory of ethics and on the understanding of the role and the impact of participation in the organisation. Participation in aspects such as social and organisational ones, posits Cassar (1999), must include all individuals from top to bottom line in the organisation. Participation in the context of organisations is based in part on assumptions about human nature and social institutions in the United States, where participatory

democracy has functioned as a social value (Dachler & Wilpert, 1978). Nelson and Campbell (2006) claim that these assumptions are the deep beliefs that guide the behaviour of employees and tell them what to think about things. Participation is an ethical imperative, and adopts the minimal ethical position of not doing any active harm to other people (Berman, 1997; Sashkin, 1984).

3.3.7 Factors influencing the success of employee participation

According to Berman (1997), the success of such participation can be determined at the individual level (intervening mechanisms, cognitive and affective models, motivation models), as well as the organisational level. At the individual level, the advocates of participation have classified the intervening mechanisms according to three general types, the first of which is “increased value attainment”, which is brought about by employee participation, such as self-expression, respect, influence, independence, equality and money. This leads to increased morale, motivation and satisfaction, organisational commitment, positive mental health and improved performance, which can result in reduced employee absenteeism, turnover and conflict (Scott-Ladd, Travaglione & Marshall, 2006).

The second intervention mechanism is based on “cognitive factors”, which focuses on better communication and utilisation of information, and leads directly to creative ideas which in turn result in increased productivity, lower costs and reduced conflict. Taken together, cognitive and motivational factors include an aligning of the goals and interests of employees with those of the organisation, as well as the retention and optimal use of human capital (Cordery, Morrison, Wright & Wall, 2009).

The third intervening mechanism consists of “motivational factors”, which include trust and a sense of control; these may lead to lower resistance of employees to change, which ultimately results in the same level of productivity as the cognitive factors (Berman, 1997). Research addressing how participation operates at the organisational level has focused on the impact or effect of participation on how employees perform their tasks within the organisation.

Lawler (1993) states that at the organisational level, participation alters the way in which decisions are made, ideas are generated and changes are implemented. Participation encourages employees to solve problems and respond to change, leading to innovation and the acceptance of change. Finally, at the organisational level, the participative approach allows employees to respond to environmental issues or customer demands (Berman, 1997).

Newstrom and Davis (2002) indicate that in many situations, participative programmes result in mental and emotional involvement, which produces favourable outcomes for both employees and the organisation. Involved or participative employees are generally satisfied with their direct work and leaders, and their self-efficacy is enhanced as a result of their new-found empowerment. Figure 3.2 below illustrates the participative process and its outcomes.

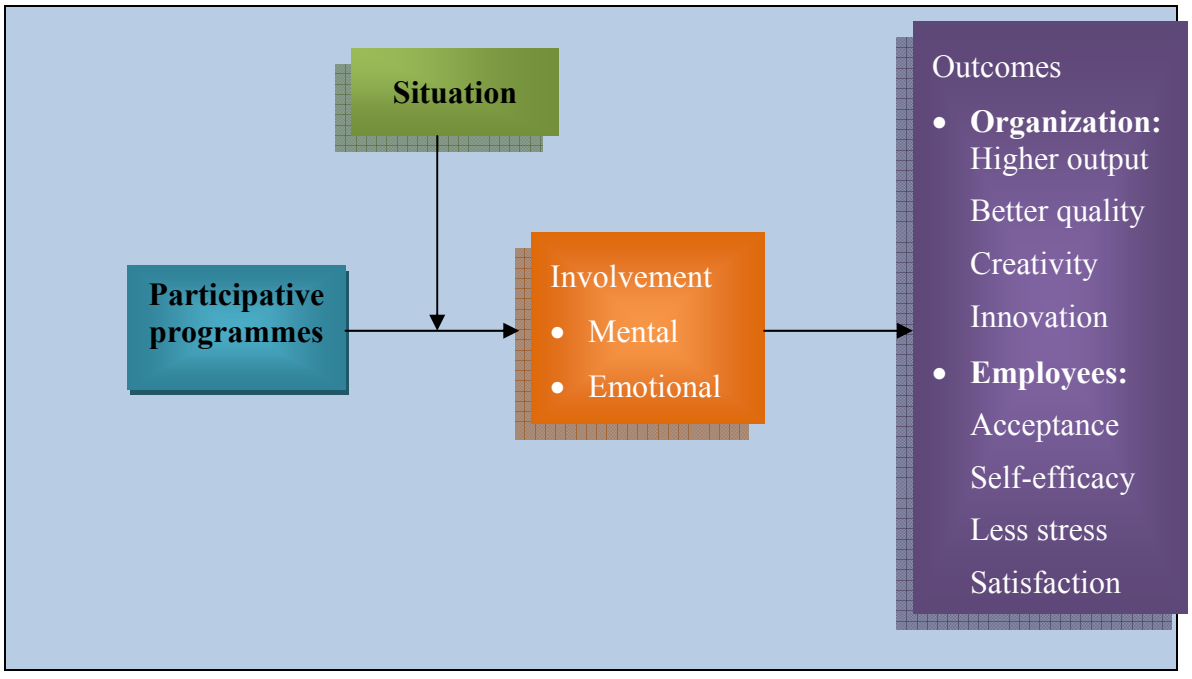


Figure 3.2 **Participative Process in organisation.** Source: Newstrom and Davis (2002).

3.4 FACTORS INFLUENCING EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION

Cree (2000) describes some factors that influence employee participation. These include perceptions of authenticity and past experiences with regard to participation within the organisation. There is very little research investigating the factors that could influence whether or not employees participate in matters related to change initiatives or decision-making in general. The meaningfulness of participation is thought to exert an influence on the effectiveness of participation (Cree, 2000).

Kanter, quoted in Cree (2000), introduces the concept of “inauthentic participation”, stipulating that the effectiveness of a participation programme depends upon whether or not subordinates perceive the participation to be authentic or meaningful. Its authenticity is based on whether or not they feel that their leaders perceive the merit of having subordinates participate, rather than feeling that leaders are indifferent to subordinates’ views. When leaders are authentic in terms of participation, employees will believe that their input is valued by their leaders, and will therefore perform their tasks better, but if they realise that their leaders do not allow them to participate in matters related to their jobs, they will limit their involvement. Participation that is not authentic is thus unlikely to be effective (Kanter, 1983; Cree, 2000).

Another factor influencing the appropriateness of participation is employees’ job experiences (Greller, 1998). According to Cree (2000), the biggest determinant of whether or not subordinates perceive participation to be authentic is generally based on the authenticity of their past experiences. Cree (2000, p. 26) argues that “if employees realized that their contributions were not considered or valued in the past, they will be less likely to perceive future tentative offers of participation as authentic and therefore likely to be involved”.

Marchington, Wilkinson, Ackers and Goodman (1994) found that employees’ attitudes towards their involvement were dependent upon their experiences in this regard. Thus, subordinates who have never been given the opportunity to participate in the past may

be less likely to perceive this opportunity as being authentic, as employee participation will still be incongruent with the organisational culture. An employee who has been accorded the opportunity to be involved in the past, on the other hand, will perceive future participation as being authentic, and will be encouraged to perform well in his/her job. The next section will explore the research that has already been conducted on employee participation.

3.5 RESEARCH ON EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION

Over the last few decades, such research has reached different conclusions. Wilkinson, Gollan and Marchington (2010) reviewed various forms of employee participation, such as participative decision-making, consultative and delegative participation, and found most of them to be very positive in terms of their impact on employees' attitudes and performance. Newstrom and Davis (2002) established that participation tended to improve employee performance and satisfaction. Research conducted by Joesson (2008) reports a positive relationship between dimensions of participation and independent variables such as the experienced influence of an individual employee, team or entire group of employees.

Research carried out by Wagne (1994) into the relationship between participation and performance and satisfaction also found that participation had a significant effect on performance and satisfaction; however, the average size of the sample was unfortunately too small to be of any practical significance (Berman, 1997). A study conducted by Kahnweiler and Thompson (2000) on three individual factors which may play an important role in the success or failure of participation programmes, namely age, educational level and gender, established that gender and age had a significant effect on employees' desire for participation in the decision-making process. These authors also found that highly educated employees (i.e. those with college degrees) wanted to be involved in decision-making. On the other hand, Freeman and Roger (2006) reported that educational level was not a factor in the desire for participation or involvement.

Scott-Ladd, Travaglione and Marchall (2006) explored the relationship between participation in decision-making, task characteristics, rewards and performance efforts, and the outcomes of job satisfaction and affective commitment. This study found a high correlation between the constructs of job satisfaction and participation in decision-making. However, Cassar (1999) reported participation to be significantly correlated with both the dimensions of leader direction and all work-related outcomes, namely job satisfaction and intrinsic motivation. Macky et al. (2008) conducted a study on high involvement in work processes, work intensification and employee well-being, and found a positive relationship between high involvement variables such as power, autonomy, information provision, rewards, knowledge and training, and teamwork and job satisfaction. However, these variables were negatively correlated with fatigue, job stress and work-life imbalance. Hasle and Møller (2005) performed a study on representative participation and work environment, and reported the positive relationship between these as a whole. However, Kristensen and Smith-Hasen (2003) conducted a study on direct participation and found direct participation to be positively correlated with good health and well-being and negatively correlated with stress but positively connected with a high quality work environment.

3.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has discussed employee participation, the rationale for studying this topic, and its conceptualisation, as well as the models of and factors influencing employee participation, followed by research into it. Using this method, the second aim has been achieved.

CHAPTER 4

POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY FUNCTIONING

In this chapter, positive psychology functioning is discussed, starting with the rationale for studying it, as well as its conceptualisation and models. This is followed by a discussion of the factors influencing positive psychology functioning, research on positive psychology, ending with the summary.

4.1 RATIONALE FOR STUDYING POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY FUNCTIONING

Research on positive psychology can be traced back to Seligman's address to the American Psychological Association (Seligman, 1999). According to Joseph and Linley (2006), this address was followed by a moment of epiphany when gardening with his daughter Nikki. Seligman (2002) realised that psychology had largely focused on the last two of its three pre-World War II missions. These missions emphasized on curing mental illness, helping people to lead more productive and fulfilling lives, and nurturing talent (Joseph & Linley, 2006). The advocates of Administration in 1946 and the National Institute of Mental Health in 1947 had largely perceived psychology as a healing discipline based on the disease model and illness ideology (Maddux, Snyder & Lopez, 2004). Maslow (1954, p. 354) posits that "the science of psychology has been far more successful on the negative than the positive side". To understand problems in life, a significant amount of time and money has been spent over the years documenting the various ways in which people suffer psychologically, as is evidenced by the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders published by the American Psychiatric Association (2000). Advocates such as Joseph and Linley (2006, p.2), have noted that the same effort may be used to "understand what makes life worth living, enjoyable, and meaningful".

According to Joseph and Linley (2005), the interest in what is good about human beings and their lives in terms of optimal human functioning has been apparent for many years. From Aristotle's treatises on endaimonia, through Aquinas' writings about virtue during

the time of the Renaissance, to the inquiries of modern psychology, the humanistic psychology or positive psychology interest in human beings' potential for fulfillment have always existed. With the origin of modern psychology, James (1902) was interested in the role that transcendent experiences could play in stimulating optimal human functioning (Rathunde, 2001). The concept of individuation is strongly related to the idea of people becoming all that they can be (Jung, 1933). It represents seminal thinking about what might constitute mental health in the true sense of the term (Johoda, 1958). Similarly, the humanistic psychology movement speaks to our inherent potential as human beings (Bugental, 1963), self-actualisation (Maslow, 1968), and research that focuses on the fully functioning person (Cilliers, 2004; Rogers, 1961). These research trajectories typically have attracted diverse, less integrated and still wider recognition (Joseph & Linley, 2005).

Positive psychology refers to others' constructs that affect the optimal human functioning and help them to deal positively with difficult situations or stressors. Breed, Cilliers and Visser (2006) indicate that positive psychology includes many behavioural constructs, such as self-actualisation (Maslow, 1968), sense of coherence (Antonovosky, 1972), hardiness (Kobasa, 1979), potency (Ben-Sira, 1985), self-efficacy (Bandura, 1982), learned resourcefulness, internal locus of control (Strümpfer, 1990), coping (Somerfield & McCrae, 2000), wellbeing (Lyubomirsky, 2001), creativity and flow (Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2001; Simonton, 2000), resilience (Masten, 2001), emotional intelligence (Lopez & Snyder, 2003), engagement (Rothmann & Van Rensburg, 2002), authenticism (Seligman, 2003), happiness (Diener, 2000), humour (Fredrickson, 2001), positive affect (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2000), courage, gratitude (Lopez & Sneyder, 2003), faith and optimism (Peterson, 2000). These constructs are of fundamental importance to research and practice in health psychology. Strümpfer (1990, p. 265) posits that these constructs' primary concern "is with the maintenance and enhancement of wellness, in addition to the prevention and treatment of illness". It is therefore necessary, in this study, in order to understand what makes life worth living, enjoyable and meaningful for both leaders and employees, to investigate three relevant behavioural constructs of positive psychology, namely: sense of coherence, work

engagement/burnout. These are most relevant to this study in that they could explain better the behaviour of the individuals.

4.2 CONCEPTUALISATION OF POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY FUNCTIONING

In recent years, increasing attention has been directed towards positive psychology (Seligman, 1998; Seligman & Csikzentmihalyi, 2000). Positive psychology in the work environment has begun to foster change in the study of both leaders and employees, by directing increased attention to the importance of building on employees' strengths and abilities as a means of promoting positive outcomes (Karrie, Lopez, Wehmeyer, Little & Presgrove, 2010). It can be observed that research has tended to focus on leaders and employees' problem behaviour and the prevention of negative outcomes, such as non-attainment of goals, turnover, absenteeism, and stress, rather than the promotion of positive outcomes such as participation, satisfaction, commitment and performance, happiness, resilience, and positive emotion. According to Karrie et al., (2010), positive psychology research is still in its infancy and, to some degree, still occurs in relative isolation. Thus, Judge (2003, p. 3) asserts that "someone may be doing a research program on one trait or characteristic and someone else may be carrying on a parallel research program . . . One really can't build on the other unless the commonality between them is acknowledged . . . It makes it very difficult to make sense of the literature, and what the relationship is among these traits". Positive psychology is related to other organisational constructs such as leadership, employee participation, job satisfaction, performance and organisational commitment. Snyder and Lopez (2002) affirm that there is much more research that examines these commonalities than in the past. However, for future research on positive psychology, Snyder and Lopez (2002, p. 756) suggest that "greater attention needs to be paid to the overlap of constructs so as to ascertain shared operative process and the shared variance in optimal functioning". Snyder and Lopez (2002) describe a constellation of behaviour constructs which are the outcome of subjective wellbeing. These behaviour constructs are for example resilience, subjective well-being, positive emotion, positive affect, flow, coping, emotional intelligence, optimism, hope, and fortitude. Thus, Peterson and Seligman (2004) and

Seligman, Steen, Park and Peterson (2005) identified six virtues and twenty four character strengths as follows: wisdom and knowledge, courage, humility, justice, temperance and transcendence.

No research could be unearthed that investigates organisational constructs such as leadership style and employee participation, combined with some work-related constructs such as sense of coherence, work engagement/burnout, in general in the context of the Democratic Republic of Congo as applied in this study.

4.3 MODEL OF POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY FUCTIONING

In the following section, the three models of positive psychology functioning, as noted earlier are explored.These models are namely, sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout. These are discussed according to the humanistic paradigm described in Chapter 1 (Section 1.4.2).

4.3 1 Sense of coherence (SOC)

4.3.1.1 Development of sense of coherence

The concept of a sense of coherence dates back to Antonovsky (1979), who developed the salutogenic model to contribute substantially to the understanding of stressors, coping, health and health-related quality of life. Sense of coherence as a model refers to the resources that promote health and facilitate successful coping. This model primarily emphasises the limitations of the pathogenic perspective in understanding illness (Antonovsky, 1979). Rothmann, Steyn and Mostert (2005) and Wiesmann and Hannich (2010) indicate that the pathogenic perspective focused on the cause of diseases their treatment and prevention. This resulted in the emergence of a salutogenic orientation, which was aimed at demonstrating the hidden secret of the healthy end of the health ease or disease continuum (Antonovsky, 1996). In the salutogenic approach, Antonovsky linked more variables, such as wealth, ego, strength, cultural stability and

social support, in order to determine their commonalities and demonstrate how and why they promote health (Antonovsky, 1993a). According to Pillay (2008), the answer led to the emergence of sense of coherence.

4.3.1.2 Definition of sense of coherence (SOC)

Antonovsky (1987, p. 19) defines sense of coherence as "… a global orientation that expresses the extent to which one has a pervasive, enduring through dynamic feeling of confidence that (1) the stimuli deriving from one's internal and external environments in the course of living are structured, predictable and explicable [comprehensibility]; (2) The resources available to one meet the demands posed by these stimuli [manageability]; and (3) these demands are challenges, worthy of investment and engagement [meaningfulness]".

Rothmann, Jackson and Kruger (2003) define sense of coherence as a coping mechanism that tends to moderate life's stressess by influencing one's cognitive and emotional stimuli. To which Johnson (2004) adds that sense of coherence is an orientation to one's life that is indicative of one's confidence, self-esteem and control in approaching life events as challenging and effectively engaging internal resources, in order to cope with adversities.

Sense of coherence is a way of perceiving the world, both cognitively and emotionally, which is generally associated with coping and health-enhancing behaviours that result in more positive and better social adjustment to life situations. Sense of coherence, according to Cilliers (2001), is not a unique coping style, but rather a disposition that allows individuals to choose the most appropriate strategies for facing and dealing with stressors and anxiety. People with a high sense of coherence are more likely to demonstrate a readiness and willingness to utilise the resources that they have at their disposal (Antovosky, 1987). Feldt, Leskinen and Kinnunen (2005) indicates that people with a high SOC experience greater well-being in their workplace environment and avoid stressors and burnout, which are generally low in score with regard to SOC.

The construct of SOC includes three dimensions. Comprehensibility which refers to the extent to which the individual perceives stimuli deriving from internal and external environments to make cognitive sense - as information that is ordered, structured and clear, rather than noisy, chaotic, disordered and inexplicable (Antonovsky, 1987; Cilliers, 2001). The second dimension is manageability, which describes the global expectations of the individual with regard to the availability of adequate resources to cope with a wide variety of demands. Höge and Büssing (2004) indicate that these resources can be under one's own control or under the legitimate, powerful control of others. While comprehensibility and manageability are characterised as cognitive concepts, the third component, meaningfulness, is generally related to emotion and motivation. It refers to the extent to which an individual believes that life makes sense. Motivation, problems and anxieties posed by life are perceived as challenges, stimulating individuals to invest energy and become committed and engaged. The individual perceives life to be meaningful; events are viewed as challenges worthy of emotional investment and commitment (Antonovsky, 1987; Cilliers, 2001).

Antonovsky (1987, 1993) viewed the emotional component of sense of coherence, namely meaningfulness, as being the most important of the three components. Antonovsky (1979) proposed that a high level of meaningfulness would enable individuals to transform their coping or generalised resistance resources (GRRs) from potential to actual usefulness. This would lead to a high level of sense of coherence, which would provide individuals with good health and well-being. These GRRs are defined as any characteristic of individuals that facilitates the avoidance or combating of a wide variety of stressors (Cilliers & Ngokha, 2006). According to Antonovsky (1979) and Strümpfer (1990), GRRs play a significant role in the successful development of sense of coherence. Volanen, Lahelma, Silventoinen and Suominenl (2004) link GRRs with the three core elements of comprehensibility, manageability and meaningfulness, which emerge to foster a strong sense of coherence.

4.3.1.3 Application of sense of coherence

The construct of sense of coherence is a core concept that indicates individual salutogenic functioning in the workplace environment (Cilliers & Coetze, 2003; Strümpfer, 1990). It is important to note that sense of coherence is not only the study of how people live and stay healthy, but also influences the way in which the work is approached and performed (Strümpfer, 1990). SOC is the state of positive dispositional orientation in the environment in which the individual interacts. The individual with a high sense of coherence can face, combat, avoid and lower levels of stressors and burnout due to work demands, and other stressors such as restructuring and retrenchment (Basson & Rothmann, 2002; Dhaniram & Cilliers, 2004; Strümpfer, 1995).

Coetzee and Rothmann (2007) postulated that a strong sense of coherence results in the individual making cognitive sense of workplace, perceiving its stimulation as clear, ordered, structured, consistent and predictable information. The individual making emotional and motivational sense of work demands, regards them as welcome challenges, worthy of engaging in and investigating energy in. Thus, Naidoo and Le Roux (2003) asserted that once an individual's sense of coherence has been assessed, organisations should ensure that they correctly manage the change that the organisation faces and ensure that employees view these changes as meaningful and manageable on an individual level. Otherwise, stressful events could discourage them from becoming engaged and committed. The construct of work engagement is discussed later in this chapter.

4.3.1.4 Research on sense of coherence

Research on sense of coherence is classified in two ways: a negative relationship is a weak sense of coherence is correlated with certain variables, or a positive relationship is a strong sense of coherence is correlated with other variables. Scholars have established a negative relationship between sense of coherence and some measures of negative emotions, such as anxiety (Flannery & Flannery, 1990); job stress (Feldt,

1997); burnout (Rothmann, Jackson & Kruger, 2003), and work stress (Dhaniram & Cilliers, 2004), While a negative correlation is present between SOC and external locus of control and the criterion of variable stress (Oosthuizen & van Lill, 2007). In subsequent studies, a positive relationship was found between sense of coherence and some measures of individual attitudes towards work, especially performance, job satisfaction and commitment.

The study conducted by Viviers and Cilliers (1999) indicates a high correlation between sense of coherence, hardiness and learned resourcefulness. The same researchers found a positive correlation between a strong sense of coherence and some work orientation constructs such as participation, commitment and job satisfaction. Other studies have reported a positive relationship between sense of coherence and job satisfaction (Rothmann, 2001), quality of work life (Coetzee, 2004), affective coping (Redlinghuys & Rothmann, 2004), general well being (Feldt, 1997), and emotional stability (Strümpfer & Mlonzi, 2001).

Strümpfer et al. (2001) found no significant relationship between sense of coherence and biographical characteristics. However, Naidoo and Le Roux (2003) concluded that there was a significant positive relationship between sense of coherence and biographical information such as age and education. In the same study, these researchers suggested that the individual who has been working in an organisation for a long time generally possesses a stronger sense of coherence than one who has not worked there for long.

4.3.2 Work Engagement

Work engagement will be discussed next.

4.3.2.1 Development of work engagement

Recently, there has been a shift in focus from the early pathogenic paradigm to studying and understanding behaviour in terms of psychological well-being and health promotion (Antonovsky, 1996; Coetzee & Cilliers, 2001; Strümpfer, 1990). The emerging trend towards a positive psychology focuses on human strength and optimal functioning, rather than on weaknesses and malfunctioning (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). According to Pillay (2008), the field of industrial and organisational psychology has always experienced a gradual shift from the negative study of burnout, stress, insecurity and substance abuse, to a greater focus on positive concepts such as job satisfaction, involvement, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour and motivation (Rothmann & Storm, 2003).

Turner, Barling and Zacharatos (2002, p. 715) affirm that "it is time to extend our research focus and explore all the positive aspects in order to obtain a full understanding of the meaning and effects of working". This special need responds to the call for further investigation into positive psychology, by focusing on work engagement, which is considered to be the antithesis of burnout (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter & Taris, 2008). Presently, little attention has been paid to engagement – although this is gradually changing. Since engagement is currently being viewed as the opposite of burnout, the concept is attracting a lot of attention, especially from burnout experts (Pillay, 2008).

The development of this important field is significant in that it has served as the most consistent construct focusing on employees' experience of their work activities. However, over the past decades, the engagement construct has not reached any consensus with regard to its meaning. Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter and Taris (2008) indicate that various definitions of engagement have considered the construct to be a case of 'old wine in new bottles'. According to these authors, the concept of engagement was confusing, and they thus proposed the construct of engagement as an

inclusive term for different types of engagement, such as trait engagement, state engagement and behavioural engagement.

Macey and Schneider (2008) have conceptualized employee engagement as trait engagement, state engagement and behavioural engagement. For example they see personality as trait engagement, involvement or participation as state engagement and organisational citizenship behaviour as behavioural engagement. This statement can be better understood by referring to Figure 4.1 below, which illustrates the framework for a deeper understanding of the various components of the engagement construct.

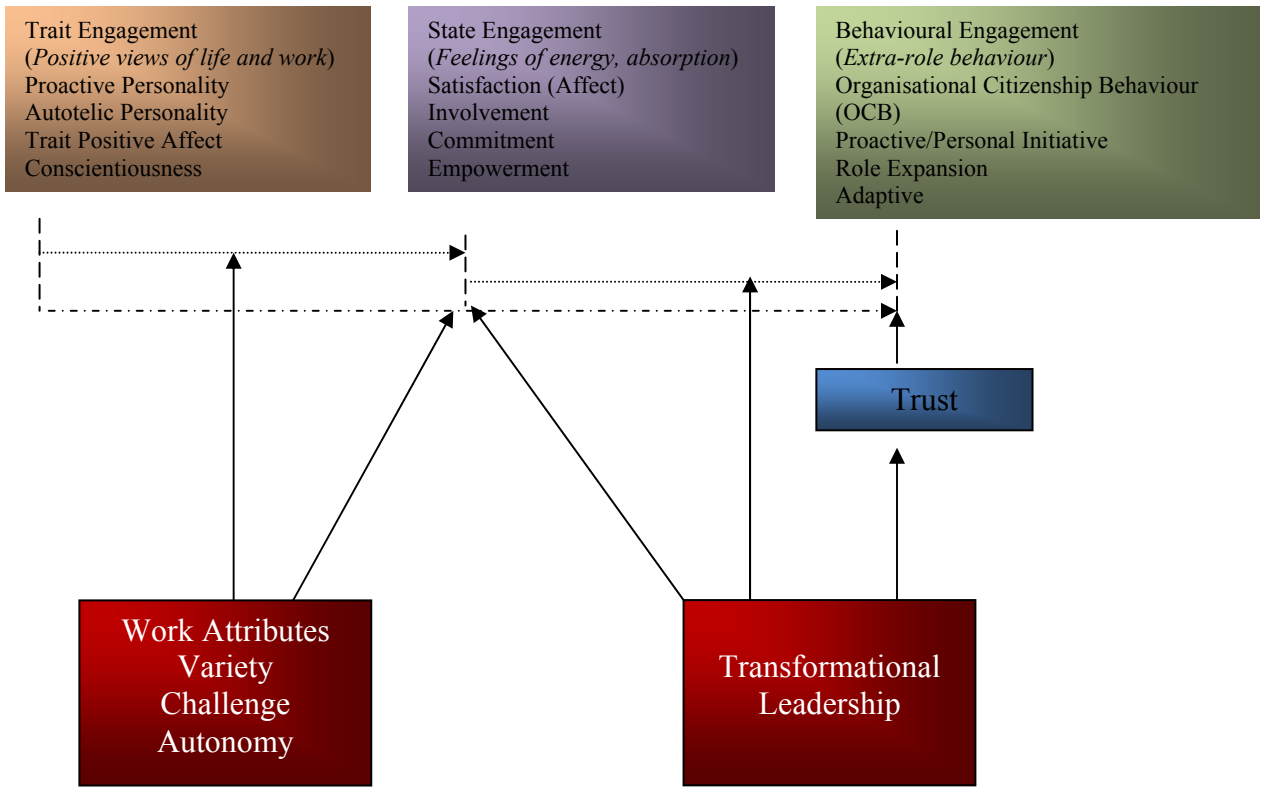


Figure 4.1 **Framework for understanding the components of the engagement construct.** Source: (Macey & Schneider, 2008, p.6).

The abovementioned figure demonstrates both the direct and the indirect effects of the workplace on state and behavioural engagement (Macey & Schneider, 2008). The

nature of work (e.g, challenge, variety and the nature of leadership, especially transformational leadership) are the conditions that most interest this research. The figure above shows for example, that work has direct effects on state engagement and indirect effects as boundary conditions (moderators) of the relationship between trait and state engagement. With regard to the leadership, the figure shows it having a direct effect on trust and an indirect effect through the creation of trust as regards behavioural engagement (Kahn, 1990; Macey & Schneider, 2008).

4.3.2.2 Definition of work engagement

Researchers have defined engagement as “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication, and absorption” (Schaufeli, Gonzalez-Romá & Bakker, 2002, p. 72). Coetzee and Roythorne-Jacobs (2007, p. 54) add that engagement, as “… a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind, is characterized by (1) high levels of energy and mental resilience while working; the willingness to invest effort in one’s work; persistence even in the face of adversities [vigor]; (2) feeling enthusiastic and proud about one’s job; feelling inspired and challenged by one’s job [dedication]; and (3) being happily immersed in one’s work [absorption]”.However, for Khan (1990) and Rothbard (2001, p. 656) engagement is more than just a physical feeling, it has to do with psychological presence and includes two critical components, namely attention and absorption. Attention refers to the “cognitive ability and the amount of time one spends thinking about a role”, while absorption “means being engrossed in a role and refers to the intensity of one’s focus on a role”.

These definitions imply that work engagement is characterised by energy, involvement and efficacy (Coetzee & Rothmann, 2007). Engaged employees are assumed to have a sense of energetic and effective connection with their work activities, and they see themselves as being able to deal completely with the demands of work. Work engagement is not a momentary specific state, but a more persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state that is not focused on a particular object, event, individual or

behaviour (Coetzee & Rothmann, 2007; Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá & Bakker, 2002).

Based on this understanding, Coetzee and De Villiers (2010) describe work engagement as being related to the harnessing of organisational members' selves to the work roles in which they are employed and express themselves physically, cognitively and emotionally during role performances. In other words, the employees are engaged. Engaged employees become physically involved in their tasks, cognitively alert and emotionally connected to others when performing their job. In contrast, disengaged employees become disconnected from their jobs and hide their true identity, thoughts and feelings during role performances (Coetzee & De Villiers, 2010; Kahn, 1990; Olivier & Rothmann, 2007). Disengagment as Kahn (1990, p. 694) indicates, refers to "the uncoupling of selves from work role. In disengagement, employees withdraw and defend themselves physically, cognitively, or emotionally during role performance". Kahn (1996) indicates that engagement means being psychologically present when working and performing an organisational task.

The work engagement construct includes the following three dimensions. Firstly, vigour, which, according to Schaufeli and Salanova (2007), refers to the extent to which an individual experiences high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, his/her willingness to invest effort in his/her work, and persistence in the face of difficulties. The second dimension is dedication. Bakker, Demerouti and Schaufeli (2005) indicate that this refers to having a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride and challenge. Dedication is composed of strong involvement and feelings of pride (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008; Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte & Lens, 2008). The dimensions of vigour and dedication are directed, positive opposites of both dimensions of burnout, namely exhaustion and cynicism. The third dimension, absorption, is characterised by full concentration on or engrossment in one's work, and finding it difficult to detach oneself from one's work (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá & Bakker, 2002).

The component of absorption comes close to the concept of “movement “ or “flow”, which is generally characterised by an optimal state in which focused attention, a clear mind, harmony of body and mind, effortless concentration, complete control, loss of self-conscientiousness, time distortion and intrinsic enjoyment are experienced (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997; Van der Colff & Rothmann, 2009). Theoretically speaking, the construct of engagement is generally considered to be the opposite of the burnout construct, which can only be measured independently of the Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Van der Colff & Rothmann, 2009).

4.3.2.3 Application of work engagement

The construct of work engagement is generally conceptualised as issues that seem to make sense when considering the “flow” theory (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). The “flow” experiences are highly enjoyable because they bring with them an acute sense of discovery, an increase of skills, and the “stretching” of one’s capabilities. Wildermuth and Pauken (2009) indicate that the combination of high levels of skills and challenges can make some employees happy and create in them a high need for achievement. However, other employees might prefer comfortable tasks and routine responsibilities. Thus, any employee could be engaged or disengaged, in a state of “flow” or in a state of acute stress (Wildermuth & Pauken, 2009). According to Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter and Taris (2008), it is evident that the construct of engagement not only refers to engaged employees who demonstrate high levels of energy in their work, but also shows how employees are proactive and show initiative, take responsibility with the aim of developing themselves professionally, and are committed to high quality performance standards. The concept of engagement often makes a difference to employees and offers a competitive advantage to the organisation (Bakker, in press; Demerouti & Cropanzano, in press).

All of the above views and findings have positive consequences for organisational outcomes, such as a high level of performance, as well as the satisfaction and commitment of employees to their organisation. Harter, Schmidt and Hayers (2002)

conclude that there is a relationship between employee engagement and business outcomes.

4.3.2.4 Research on work engagement

Research on work engagement has been conducted in various contexts, including the workplace environment. Most researchers have come to the conclusion that the construct of engagement is sometimes referred to as job engagement or employee engagement. The construct is said to be correlated with both positive and negative aspects of work achievement (Kirpatrick, 2007; Milner & Hoy, 2002; Muano, Kinnen & Ruokolainen, 2007). A study was conducted on workplace resources such as social support from colleagues and leaders, performance feedback, skill variety, autonomy and learning opportunities, and positively associated these with work engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Bakker, Schaufili, Leiter & Taris, 2008). Another study conducted on the motivational role of job resources showed a positive relationship between them and work engagement (Halbesleben, in press). A positive relationship was found between three job resources (performance feedback, social support and supervisory coaching) and work engagement (vigour, dedication and absorption) (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Hakanen, Bakker and Schaufeli (2006) replicated this study in a sample of Finnish teachers and established job control, information, supervisory support, innovative climate and social climate to be positively related to work engagement.

Rothmann and Storm (2003) investigated the relationship between personal resources and work engagement in a cross-sectional study among 1910 South African police officers, and found that engaged police officers had active coping styles (Rothmann et al., 2003). They were problem-focused, taking active steps to attempt to remove or rearrange stressors (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter & Taris, 2008). Only a few studies have examined the relationship between work engagement and job performance. For example, Schaufeli, Taris and Bakker (2006) reported work engagement to be positively related to in-role performance. Work engagement was positively correlated with job

satisfaction and negatively correlated with burnout and strain (Shimazu, Schaufeli, Kosugi, Suzuki, Nashiwa, Kato et al., 2008). Research conducted by Sonnentag (2003) and Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, Kantas (in press) found that work engagement had positive effects over both the short and long-term (Muano et al., 2007; Schaufeli et al., 2008). The work engagement construct is best predicted by conscientiousness, emotional stability and low stress levels as a result of job demands (Mostert & Rothmann, 2006). The individuals who demonstrated a strong sense of coherence were also found to experience more work engagement. In a study conducted by Rothmann et al (2003) it was found that the availability of job resources (i.e. when distress in relation to job resources is low) and personal resources (i.e. when sense of coherence is strong) increased work engagement levels (Naudé & Rothmann, 2006; Van der Colff & Rothmann, 2009).

Research on demographic characteristics with regard to engagement has shown that age, gender and occupational type are related to engagement. However, other studies have indicated that the relationship between age, gender and engagement is small or inconclusive (Hermsen & Rosser, 2008). The occupational type findings indicate that managers have a higher level of engagement than blue-collar workers (Schaufeli et al., 2006; Schaufeli, Bakker & Salanova, 2006). To date no, research on work engagement in the context of the Democratic Republic of Congo has been empirically conducted.

4.3.3 Burnout

Burnout will be discussed next.

4.3.3.1 Development of burnout

Recently, burnout research has shifted its focus from the psychological strain often experienced by employees in the human service professions, such as nurses, police officers, social workers and schoolteachers (Cooper, Dewe & Driscoll, 2001; Freudenberger, 1974) to the positive aspects, such as job engagement. Cherniss

(1980) indicates that the work environment and characteristics of the individual generally function as sources of strain. Ashtari, Farhady and Khodaee (2009) affirm that one of the reasons for mental tension and stress is an individual's job or work environment. Savicki (2002) adds that burnout is experienced as a result of chronic mismatches between people and their work environment in terms of workload, control, reward, fairness and values. However, Cooper et al (2001) assert that individual characteristics and coping strategies play an important role in the level of burnout. An individual might experience a number of employment practices occurring within an organisation which tend to promote the development of the syndrome. Among these practices are limited participation by employees in the decision-making process, disproportionate workloads among employees with similar job descriptions, the inability of employees to reach career goals (such as promotion and recognition), poor communication between leadership and employees, dysfunctional support systems, a de-emphasis on relaxation programmes, and inadequate matching of personal characteristics to job demands (Cooper, Dewe & Driscoll, 2001).

According to Antoniou, Cooper, Chrousos, Spielberger and Eysenck (2009, p. 241), an organisational setting that has structures, policies and procedures has an impact on people's experiences of work and of themselves. This means that people contribute their time and effort to meet the requirements or demands of their jobs. With the full effect of their talents and abilities, they respond to work demands (Antoniou et al., 2009). The construct of burnout can occur in any area of a profession, in which excessive demands for hard work are required, or physical danger and other kinds of endurance exist which lead to problems in one's working environment. Ashtari et al., (2009, p. 71) states that these are viewed as "stressors or job tensions or phenomenon related to job burnout". Halbesleben and Demerouti (2005) indicate that burnout is a psychological response to chronic work stress while Perlman and Hartman (1982) perceive burnout to be closely related to stress. However, for Cherniss (1980) burnout is the manifestation of a prolonged state of stress, with different meanings, people and cultures. As noted by Williams and Cooper (2002, p. 1) stress can damage people and

organisations; it can be pervasive and affect people in all occupations and of all ages, irrespective of gender, nationality, educational background or role.

The concept of stress is perceived as any circumstance that threatens one's well-being and taxes one's coping abilities (Weiten, 2007). Savicki (2002) indicate that burnout includes the effects of stress on the psychological functioning of human beings. Job stress has been recognised as a significant occupational harzard that can impair physical health, psychological well-being and work performance (see Kahn & Byosiere, 1992; Maslash & Leiter, 2008). This means that stress is not negligible, in that it allows people to develop new ways of approaching problems, new skills, new insights, and new personal strengths (Shiron, 2003). Based on this understanding of stress, Shiron (2003) perceives burnout to be a multidimensional construct that goes beyond mere exhaustion.

4.3.3.2 Definition of burnout

According to Rogelberg (2007, p. 177), burnout is perceived as a set of negative human reactions to prolonged stress experienced at work, especially in terms of exposure to stressors in the work environment. As mentioned above, burnout forms part of the effects of stress on psychological functioning, and may hold different meanings for different people and cultures (Cherniss, 1980; Pienaar & Willemse, 2008; Weallens, 2003). The construct of burnout is concerned with both the well-being of the individual and his/her success in performing at work, just like many other important topics in the field of industrial and organisational psychology.

Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998, p. 36) define burnout as "a persistent, negative, work-related state of mind in normal individuals that is primarily characterised by exhaustion, which is accompanied by distress, a sense of reduced effectiveness, decreased motivation, and the development of dysfunctional attitudes and behaviours at work" (Rothmann & Joubert, 2007).

Schaufeli and Salanova (2007, p. 177) indicate that “burnout to be a chronic syndrome characterised by the draining of emotional resources [emotional exhaustion], a negative, callous attitude towards patients, clients, students or customers [depersonalisation or cynicism], and the tendency to feel incompetent and to assess one’s work with other people in a negative way [personal accomplishment or professional efficacy], which can occur among individuals who do people work”. Maslash (1982, p. 3) states that “it is a response to the chronic emotional strain of dealing extensively with other human being, particularly when they are troubled or having problems”.

From the above definitions, it can be concluded that burnout is a chronic syndrome that an individual experiences after being exposed to a prolonged state of stress and physical, mental and emotional strain in the workplace. The construct of burnout includes the following dimensions.

Emotional exhaustion, which represents the individual stress dimension of burnout, and refers to the feelings of depleted physical and emotional resources, and causes employees to distance themselves emotionally and cognitively from their work, presumably as a way of coping with work overload (Van der Colff & Rothmann, 2009). The second dimension is depersonalisation or cynicism, which refers to the degree of unfeeling, cynical or impersonal responses towards the recipients of one’s services. The third dimension, reduced personal accomplishment or professional efficacy, refers to the extent to which there is a tendency to evaluate oneself negatively, particularly with regard to work with clients (Hakanen, Schaufeli & Ahola, 2008). Shaufeli and Taris (2005) assert that the burnout syndrome consists of emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation, whereas reduced accomplishment seems to develop largely independently of exhaustion and depersonalisation.

4.3.3.3 Application of burnout

The construct of burnout emerged predominantly in caregiving and/or people-oriented roles such as nursing, social work, teaching and policing (Cooper et al., 2001).

Researchers have contended that burnout is applicable to a wide range of occupational groups, including those who do not have direct contact with clients (Golembiewski, Munzenrider & Carter, 1983). Thus, Hobfoll and Shirom (1993) indicate that current measures of burnout do seem to be more applicable to human service occupations, and other samples may experience this phenomenon, albeit with different manifestations. The limited application of the construct to human service samples is generally due to the depersonalisation component, which cannot readily be applied in other settings (Cooper et al., 2001). Burnout is a more pervasive phenomenon and may indeed be found in a variety of occupational groups, not only in those associated with providing services to clients (Cordes, Douglas & Blum, 1997).

4.3.3.4 Research on burnout

Leiter and Maslash (1988) conducted research on the relationship between job demands and burnout, and reported job demands to be more strongly related to emotional exhaustion than the other components (Brenninkmeijer & Van Yperen, 2003; Van den Broeck et al., 2008). The construct of burnout was studied by Schaufeli and Salanova (2007) by comparing inefficacy and efficacy; they found that inefficacy has a stronger correlation than efficacy with exhaustion and cynicism. Another study conducted by Den De Hoodgh and Den Hartog (2009) on the relationship between leader behaviour and burnout showed a positive correlation between leader charisma and outcomes such as commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour. Yet another study on the correlation between demographic variables (such as age and gender) and burnout established that women experienced higher levels of burnout due to greater workloads and inter-role conflict, such as that existing between job and family (Cooper, Dewe, & O'Driscoll, 2001). However, Shaufeli and Buunk (1996) found that men reported higher levels of depersonalisation. Lee and Ashforth (1996) found that job satisfaction was significantly correlated with the depersonalisation component of burnout. According to Cooper et al. (2001), in organisations that possess a culture characterised by teamwork participation and autonomy, employees will display less burnout because they work under more favourable conditions. Participation in multiple

social roles has a positive effect in significantly reducing stress in the work environment (Strümpfer, 1995).

4.4 FACTORS INFLUENCING POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY FUNCTIONING

The study of positive psychology seeks to understand an individual and institutional feature that "promises to improve quality of life and prevent the pathologies that arise when life is barren and meaningless" (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000, p. 5). The factors influencing positive psychology functioning are embedded in the second pillar of positive psychology, which focuses on the actor's positive traits, characteristics or abilities. According to Seligman (1998), the traits and characteristics that positive leaders possess could enable positive events to occur in employees' lives. These traits and characteristics are the following: love and intimacy, satisfaction, work, altruism, citizenship, spirituality, leadership, aesthetic appreciation, depth and breadth, integrity, creativity, playfulness, feeling of subjective well-being, courage, future-mindedness, individuality, self-regulation and wisdom (Thye & Lawer, 2006). These core groups of positive traits and processes generally exist across cultures, and are manifested in different ways for different purposes in different cultures (Snyder & Lopez, 2009).

Snyder and Lopez (2009) indicate that research and practice are conducted at the intersection of the professional's culture and the research participant's or client's culture. The same authors argue that the "cultural values of the researcher and practitioner influence positive psychology" (Snyder & Lopez, 2009, p. 88). They have considered the negative psychology of leadership to be a factor that decreases perspective-taking ability, devalues subordinates, and negatively impacts subordinates' commitment and well-being (Kipnis, 1972; Kipnis, 1976). This means that once the level of positive psychology is already low, leaders who adopt a traditional behaviour or leadership style will negatively influence subordinates' actions (Thye & Lawer, 2006), increase employee stress (Offerman & Hellman, 1996), and result in high levels of subordinate retaliation (Townsend, Phillips, & Elkins, 2000) and aggression (Dupre & Berling, 2006).

Thye and Lower (2006) indicate that positive psychology is a factor that enables individuals to enjoy more positive attention from leadership researchers, particularly those from the personality and applied areas of psychology. From the above discussion, one can argue that the higher the level of positive psychology, the more leaders will strive towards adopting a good leadership style when dealing with matters and employees in the workplace environment. In this way, an appropriate leadership style can have a positive impact on employees' development, performance and satisfaction (Dvir, Eden, Avolio, Shamir & Dvir, 2002), as well as subordinate empowerment or participation (Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003). The following section discusses research on positive psychology constructs.

4.5 RESEARCH ON POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY FUNCTIONING

Over the last few decades, research on positive psychology constructs, such as sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout, has reached different conclusions. Rothmann and Van Rensberg (2002) conducted a study on psychological strengths, coping and suicide ideation in the South African police services in the North West Province, and found a practically significant (negative) correlation between suicide ideation and sense of coherence. A practically significant correlation of medium effect was reported between sense of coherence and generalised self-efficacy, internal locus of control and job satisfaction.

Rothmann, Steyn and Mostert (2005) conducted a study on job stress, sense of coherence and work wellness in an electricity supply organisation, and established sense of coherence to be negatively related to stress–job demands and stress-lack of support (practically significant, medium effect). Sense of coherence was also negatively related to exhaustion, cynicism and work engagement (practically significant, medium effect). Stress, lack of support and stress job demands were found to be practically significantly related to both exhaustion and cynicism (medium effect), and statistically significantly related to work engagement (Rothmann, Steyn & Mostert, 2005).

Thereafter, Van der Colff and Rothmann (2009) conducted a study on the occupational stress, sense of coherence, coping, burnout and work engagement of registered nurses in South Africa, and found emotional exhaustion to be strongly related to depersonalisation and moderately related to organisational support, job demands, and the focus on and ventilation of emotions. Emotional exhaustion was moderately negatively related to work engagement and sense of coherence. The same study established the cynicism dimension of burnout to be moderately and negatively related to professional efficacy, work engagement and sense of coherence. However, professional efficacy was found to be moderately related to work engagement and sense of coherence, whereas work engagement was moderately related to coping style and sense of coherence (Van der Colff & Rothmann, 2009).

Coetzee and Rothmann (2007) conducted a study on job demands, job resources and work engagement of employees in a manufacturing organisation, and found work engagement to be positively, statistically and practically significantly related to organisational support and growth opportunities. Schaufeli and van Dierendonck (2000) conducted a study on the relationship between the three dimensions of burnout – exhaustion, cynicism and professional inefficacy – and work engagement. They discovered that burnout and engagement were negatively correlated, especially as far as vigour, exhaustion, dedication and cynicism were concerned. Burnout and work engagement have been perceived as outcomes of job stress and moderate individual differences (Nelson & Simmons, 2003).

Levert, Lucas, and Ortlepp (2000) found a significant correlation between both dimensions of burnout (exhaustion and cynicism) and sense of coherence in a group of psychiatric nurses in South Africa. Rothmann, Malan and Rothmann (2001) reported significant correlations between sense of coherence and exhaustion, cynicism and professional efficacy. Rothmann, Steyn and Mostert (2005) found a negative relationship to exist between sense of coherence and burnout.

4.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has discussed positive psychology functioning, including the rationale for studying positive psychology functioning constructs and their conceptualisation, as well as looking at the models of and factors influencing positive psychology functioning, followed by research on positive psychology fuctioning. By so doing, the third literature aim has been achieved (See Chapter 1 Section 1.3.2). In the following section an intergration of the theoretical perspectives discussed so far is presented.

THEORETICAL INTEGRATION

In this section the three research variables conceptualized above, namely leadership style, employee participation and positive psychology functioning are integrated in order to build and test the empirical hypotheses.

Firstly, leadership is viewed as a social influence that involves determining the organisational's objectives, encouraging employees to pursue their objectives, and helping the group or organisation to maintain its culture. Leadership is also perceived as a means not only to influence employees to perform in a manner that enables the organisation to attain its goals, but as a process of influencing, motivating and encouraging employees to collaborate with leaders in order to accomplish greater things. It is also considered to be a strong indication of organisational effectiveness. Leadership style, on the other hand, is the behaviour of leaders or the manner in which they choose to carry out their function of leadership. Furthermore, leaders who influence, participate, motivate and enable others to contribute towards the effectiveness and success of an organisation are viewed as possessive an effective leadership style.

Secondly, employee participation is viewed as the mental involvement of employees in a group situation, which encourages them to share responsibility and contribute effectively to the group or organisational goals. Employee participation is also

associated with enhancing employees' positive attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. It entails the involvement of the present subordinate in the organisation in terms of the planning of work processes, establishment of present and future procedures, and decision-making processes at different levels of the organisation. Employees who participate in decision-making are more productive and committed to organisational goals. Furthermore, employees who are participating experience better mental health, and are encouraged to use problem-solving skill when necessary.

Thirdly positive psychology functioning comprises such constructs as sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout. Sense of coherence is viewed as a relatively stable disposition or health resource, which employees can use to make sense of and deal with experiences at work. Sense of coherence helps employees to deal with adversities, by selecting the appropriate resources and investing energy in stressors, because they are seen as challenges. Furthermore, employees with a strong sense of coherence are less likely to avoid or neglect stressful situations. Sense of coherence assists employees to perform complex tasks in terms of their personal boundaries, and to expect that the outcome will be reasonably successful.

Work engagement can be viewed as a positive, fulfilling work-related state of mind that employees seek to achieve through self-expression at work. Work engagement can also be viewed as an emerging trend towards a positive psychology that focuses on human strengths and optimal functioning. Engaged employees are assumed to possess a high level of energy and affective connection with their work activities, and see themselves as being able to deal successfully with the demands of work. Furthermore, employees with a high level of engagement participate enthusiastically in organisational matters.

Burnout can be viewed as a set of negative human reactions to prolonged stress experienced at work, especially in terms of exposure to stressors in the workplace environment. It includes symptoms such as low energy levels, and negative attitudes towards work, oneself and others. Furthermore, burnout can be viewed as a result of chronic mismatches between people and their work environment in terms of workload,

control, rewards, community, fairness and values. Employees with a high level of burnout experience stressful situations, while those with a low burnout level are constructively or actively problem-focused.

Within the chosen positive psychology paradigm, an integration of the positive behavioural aspects of all the above constructs, led to the following employee profile,

On the cognitive level employees make sense of the environment, comprehend challenges, and can order and structure information in a clear and organised manner. They use mental energy to think about their role, to concentrate effectively with a clear mind, and focus attention on control and harmony. Decision-making is based on knowledge, opinions and ideas.

On the affective level employees make emotional sense of life, are emotionally invested, feel pride when they experience achievement, they sometimes experience their feelings as stimulating and energising challenges, they are positively engaged, and committed to their organisation.

On the motivational level employees perceive life to be manageable and they possess the internal resources needed to reach their goals. They are willing to work, challenge the environment and their tasks, and believe that they can influence their environment in a positive manner.

On the interpersonal level employees develop quality relationships with colleagues leading to favourable work-related interactions. They show a strong interest in others, prefer to be close to others, open to participation and the sharing of information concerning the organisation. They are inspired and strive to be involved and engaged in problem solving with the objective of creating a more positive workplace environment for all involved.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, the research methodology is discussed. The population, the sample, the measuring instruments, the data collection and statistical analysis, as well as the formulation of the hypothesis are described.

5.1 POPULATION AND SAMPLE

The compilation and characteristics of the population, organisation and sample are considered in the following sections. The biographical profile of the sample is presented in section 5.4.1.

5.1.1 The population

One manufacturing company was researched in this study, namely the Minoterie de Matadi (MIDEMA). It is situated in Kinshasa in the Democratic Republic of Congo. Its primary task is to produce semolina and poultry. The population consisted of lower-level females and males in permanent employment at MIDEMA between November, 2008 and January, 2009. The entire population of 360 employees was invited to participate in this study.

5.1.2 The sample

Strydom, Fouché and Delport (2003) describe a sample as comprising the elements of the population considered for actual inclusion in a study. According to Mouton (1996), sampling is the process of selecting items, objects or elements from the population, so that by studying and understanding the properties or characteristics of the subjects, the researcher is able to generalise these to the larger population.

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) describe two categories of sampling, namely probability and nonprobability sampling. In the former, the researcher determines in advance that each element of the population will be represented in the sample. In the latter, the researcher has no way of guaranteeing that each element of the population will be represented in the sample.

This study utilised probability sampling, as well as a specific method called stratified random sampling, which forms part of probability sampling (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2006). This was used to ensure the inclusion of all employees in the functional departments of human resources, financial management, distribution and sales, technical management, project management, and exploitation management. These sampling methods identify a subset of and give each element of the population being studied a chance of being selected (Cohen et al, 2007).

The population target was N=360, but only 201 responded to the request to participate; of these, 200 questionnaires could be used. One questionnaire was submitted in an incorrect format, which made it impossible to encode. The percentage of the sample that responded was thus 55%. Pallant (2001) indicates that for this type of research, the minimum number of respondents required would be 150. A total of 200 respondents was therefore deemed to constitute an acceptable response rate.

5.2 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The following measuring instruments were selected and used in this study.

5.2.1 Biographical Questionnaire

A biographical questionnaire was used for the purpose of obtaining the personal information needed for the statistical analysis of data. This information included gender, age, educational level, and functional department, tenure of service with the company and tenure of service in terms of the organisation. The decision to include this

information was based on the theoretical review of variables that might have an impact on empirical results. The results are discussed in section 6.1.

5.2.2 Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ-XII)

The LBDQ-XII is discussed in terms of the development of the instrument, as well as the dimensions of the questionnaire, followed by a look at the administration of the instrument and its interpretation. Finally, a discussion of the validity and reliability of the questionnaire is presented.

5.2.2.1 Development of the instrument

The LBDQ-XII was developed by Stogdill (1963) based on the original Ohio State leadership studies conducted during the 1950s (Yukl, 2002). While the LBDQ-XII was developed in order to measure behaviour, Rush, Thomas and Lord's (1977) study revealed that evaluations of leaders are strongly related to individual prototypes constructed from the perception of traits. Thus, the LBDQ-XII essentially measures the perception of leadership behaviour, not the actual behaviour exhibited by a leader (Rush et al, 1977). Yukl (2002) indicates that initiating Structure and Consideration are often perceived as dichotomous, bi-polar dimensions. This author argues that leadership behaviour can independently range from continuums of high to low on each scale (Yukl, 2002). The LBDQ-XII has since enjoyed much attention and interest, and has been applied widely in the US context (Yukl, 2002).

5.2.2.2 LBDQ-XII Dimensions

The LBDQ-XII consists of 20 items in a five-point Likert scale format (Stogdill, 1963). It measures 10 Initiating Structure and 10 Consideration items. On each of these subscales, behaviour is assessed on the perception of the frequency of behaviour. Respondents are required to rate leaders' behaviour ranging from a high of five, in which the leader "always" displays this behaviour, to a low of one, where the leader

"never" exhibits the described behavior. Three of the items are constructed negatively, and have to be reversed in a scoring process (Judge, Piccolo & Ilies, 2004; Stogdill, 1963; Yukl, 2002). The two core concepts can be defined as follows:

- Initiating structure dimension

The initiating structure dimension measures the extent to which leaders initiated and organised activities within the group, and defines the way in which work must be carried out. This dimension includes such behaviours as insisting on maintaining standards, meeting deadlines, and deciding in detail what must be done and how it should be done. The leader's own role in terms of this dimension is to concentrate and focus on defining and structuring activities for employees towards goal achievement (Bass, 1981; Dale & Fox, 2008).

- Consideration dimension

This dimension measures the extent to which leaders demonstrated a strong concern for the welfare of the other members of the group. Considerate leaders express appreciation for good work, stress the importance of job satisfaction, and maintain and strengthen the self-esteem of employees by treating them as equals (Bass, 1981; Dale & Fox, 2008). Table 5.1 below illustrates which items are included in which dimension.

Table 5.1

LBDQ items per dimension

Dimensions	Items
LBDQ-XII $_{\text{Initiating Structure}}$	1,3,5,7,9,11,13,15,17,19
LBDQ –XII $_{\text{Consideration}}$	2,4,6,8,10,12,14,16,18,20
LBDQ –XII $_{\text{Total}}$	1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,1,10,11,12,13,14,15,16,17,18,19,20

Items 12, 18 and 20 are negatively formulated, which means that a high score in these would indicate a low level of consideration.

5.2.2.3 Administration of the LBDQ-XII

The LBDQ-XII is self-reporting and easy for respondents to complete, as well as being anonymous. It takes approximately 15 to 20 minutes to complete and sets no time limits. The total score is reflected in the sum of the two subscales, and the initiating structure and consideration leadership styles are also presented as an independent score. The scores of Initiating structure and consideration are furthermore added together, to compute a total, overall score for the construct LBDQ-XII (Judge, Picollo, & Ilies, 2004).

5.2.2.4 Interpretation of the LBDQ-XII

The total score reflects employees' perceptions of their leader's behaviour. The highest obtainable score is 100 (Judge, Piccolo & Ilies, 2004). The two dimensions provide a profile of employees' descriptions of their leader's behaviour. Respondents with high scores in the one could have lower scores in the other, or have high scores in both. In addition, a total score (overall score) the participants reported their perceptions of their leadership's behavior and two subscores are calculated (Bass, 1981). To avoid a large volume of statistics, only the results of the total perceived leadership style were interpreted.

5.2.2.5 Reliability and validity

The reliability estimates for the LBDQ-XII were found by Schriesheim and Stogdill (1974) to be internal reliability coefficients of both dimensions, ranging from 0.90 for consideration to 0.78 for initiating structure. Szilagyi and Keller (1976) obtained a Spearman-Brown internal reliability coefficient of 0.89 for consideration and 0.87 for initiating structure. Significant ($p < .05$) test-retest reliabilities of between 0.68 and 0.78

(N=103) for consideration and 0.58 to 0.73 (N=103) for initiating structure were reported by Greene (1995) over a period of three months.

The LBDQ-XII has been demonstrated to be a valid measure of leadership behaviour. In research conducted by Stogdill (1969), scenarios were created reflecting each subscale description in the LBDQ-XII. Stogdill (1969) found the description of leaders' behaviour to be congruent with the coordinating subscales. These results support the validity of the LBDQ-XII subscales for measuring corresponding leadership behaviours. In addition, Schereisheim and Stogdill (1974) factor analysed three of the most frequently used leadership behaviour questionnaires, namely the Supervisor Behavior Descriptive Questionnaire (SBDQ), Leader Behavior Descriptive Questionnaire, and the LBDQ-XII. These authors found that the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire LBDQ-XII was reliable and valid.

The results of the abovementioned research led to the conclusion that the LBDQ-XII is valid and contains significantly less arbitrary questions than the SBDQ. The questionnaire used to measure initiating structure and consideration leadership styles in this study was developed by Stogdill's (1963) LBDQ-XII measures of leader relationships and task behaviour, and has acceptable reliability and validity. Stogdill (1963) indicates that there is evidence to warrant the tentative conclusion that the LBDQ-XII is an adequate representation of the leadership style construct. Therefore, the LBDQ-XII is considered to be appropriate for this study.

5.2.3 Employee Participation Survey (EPS)

The EPS is discussed in terms of the development of the survey, as well as the dimensions of the survey, followed by a consideration of the administration of the survey and its interpretation. Finally, a discussion of the validity and reliability of the survey is presented.

5.2.3.1 Development of the EPS instrument

The EPS was developed by Berman (1997), based on original studies into employee participation. Berman deliberately developed an instrument that included each item which expresses employees' opinions about participating in terms of the job, quality of work life, decision-making and problem solving, ideas, suggestions and change, and the business (Berman, 1997). Nelson, Cooper, and Jackson's (1995) study revealed that high levels of employee participation are related to individuals' increased level of control and reduced level of uncertainty. Thus, EPS essentially measures employees' opinions regarding their participation in different matters that concern the organisation. The EPS has since enjoyed much attention and interest, and has been applied widely in the US context (Berman, 1997).

5.2.3.2 EPS Dimensions

The EPS consists of 26-items in a four-point Likert-type scale format (Berman, 1997). It measures three items for the job, five for quality of work life, eight for decision-making and problem solving, five for ideas, suggestions and change, and five for business. The five dimensions can be defined as follows:

- Job

This dimension measures the extent to which employees understand the purpose and duties of their jobs, have the freedom to make decisions about the best way to get the job done, and are given enough time to produce quality work (Berman, 1997).

- Quality of work life

This dimension measures the extent to which employees are involved in organisational matters, and are satisfied with a variety of needs such as their working conditions, health and safety needs, economic and family needs, social needs, as well as esteem

needs derived from the employee's participation in the workplace. It also measures the extent to which employees can enhance their personal lives through their work environment and experiences (Rethinam & Ismail, 2008).

- Decision-making and problem solving

This dimension measures the level of influence that employees possess in the process of decision-making. Employees who are able to influence decisions affecting them are more likely to value the outcome (Cotton et al., 1988; Scott-Ladd, Travaglione & Marchall, 2006).

- Ideas, suggestions and change

This dimension measures the extent to which employees propose ideas and suggestions for change within the organisation to their leaders. In addition, employee suggestion measures the extent to which employees are encouraged and are able to offer suggestions relating to the business (Berman, 1997).

- Business

This dimension measures the extent to which employees understand the various ways in which their jobs impact on profitability and influence costs, as well as the impact of their functional department on the organisation's financial position (Berman, 1997). Table 5.2 below illustrates which items are included in which dimension.

Table 5.2 ***EPS item per dimension***

Dimensions	Items
EPS $_{\text{Job}}$	1,2,3
EPS $_{\text{Quality of work life}}$	4,5,6,7,8
EPS $_{\text{Decision-making and Problem Solving}}$	9,10,11,12,13,14,15,16
EPS $_{\text{Ideas, Suggestions and Change}}$	17,18,19,20,21
EPS $_{\text{Business}}$	22,23,24,25,26
EPS $_{\text{Total}}$	1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14,15, 16,17,18,19,20,21,22,23,24,25,26

All items on the EPS were positively constructed (Berman, 1997).

5.2.3.3 Administration of the EPS

The EPS is self-reporting and easy for respondents to complete, as well as being anonymous. It takes approximately 15 to 20 minutes to complete and imposes no time limit. The total score is reflected in the sum of the five subscales (the job, quality of work life, decision-making and problem solving, ideas, suggestions and change, and the business). The scores of the following dimensions are also combined in order to obtain an overall score for the EPS construct, according to Berman (1997).

5.2.3.4 Interpretation of the EPS

The total score reflects employees' level of participation. The highest obtainable score is 104 (Berman, 1993). Respondents with high scores reflect high levels of participation, while those with low scores reflect low levels. Berman (1997) indicates that employees with high levels of participation are motivated, committed and satisfied. Furthermore, they perform better in their jobs than those with low levels of participation. A total score of the sample opinions of their participation and the five subscores is calculated (Berman, 1997). To avoid a large volume of data, only the result of the total employee participation was interpreted.

5.2.3.5 Reliability and validity

Berman (1997) reports alpha coefficients ranging from 0.75 to 0.80 and test-retest reliability ranging from 0.57 to 0.93. However, Buchholz (1978), Cotton (1993) and Wagne (1982) report an internal consistency reliability of 0.82 to 0.80. In a review of various studies on employee participation, Kahnweiler and Thompson (2000) reported an internal consistency ranging from 0.78 to 0.93.

The EPS was empirically derived and confirmed by two consecutive independent analyses (Berman, 1997). Hence, the EPS has been proven to be a reliable, valid and cross-culturally acceptable instrument. The high levels of reliability and validity reported are strong motivational factors in the decision to use the EPS.

5.2.4 Orientation to Life Questionnaire (OLQ)

The OLQ is presented in terms of the development of the questionnaire, as well as the latter's dimensions, followed by a consideration of the administration of the instrument and its interpretation. Finally, the validity and reliability of the questionnaire are discussed.

5.2.4.1 Development of the instrument

The OLQ was developed by Antonovsky (1987) on the basis of the sense of coherence construct. The designing of the scale was guided by Guttman's theory (Antonovsky, 1993a). According to Pillay (2008), Antonovsky deliberately chose to have each scale item include four facets which describes a stimulus, and a fifth, the SOC facet, which expresses comprehensibility, manageability and meaningfulness (Antonovsky, 1993a). From this, the 29-item sense of coherence scale (SOC-29) and a 13-item short form of the scale (SOC-13) emerged (Matsuzaki, Sagara, Ohshita, Nagase, Ogino, Eboshida, Sasahara & Nakamura, 2007). Respondents are required to choose from a seven-point semantic differential scale with two anchoring phases (Antonovsky, 1993a). Antonovsky (1993a) indicates that the abovementioned three dimensions of SOC are not viewed as distinct constructs, because they were developed to measure a global orientation, which is sense of coherence, and which comprises comprehensibility, manageability and meaningfulness. The questionnaire has received much attention and interest, and has been widely applied (Pillay, 2008).

The OLQ was developed with the aim, firstly, of operationalising the sense of coherence construct and, secondly, to provide a way of testing the hypothesis that one's inner and outer environments significantly determine one's location and movement on the health ease/disease continuum (Antonovsky, 1993a; Pillay, 2008). The scale is constructed to measure the extent to which an individual experiences a pervasive, enduring feeling of confidence that (1) the stimuli deriving from one's internal and external environments in the course of living are structured, predictable and explicable [comprehensibility], that (2) the resources available to one meet the demands posed by these stimuli [manageability] and that (3) these demands are challenges worthy of investment and engagement [meaningfulness] (Antonovsky, 1993a; Van Schalkwyk & Rothmann, 2008).

5.2.4.2 OLQ Dimensions

The OLQ consists of 29 five-facet items on a seven-point Likert-type scale format (Antonovsky, 1987). It measures 11 comprehensibility, 10 manageability and 8 meaningfulness items (Antonovsky, 1987; Dhaniram & Cilliers, 2003). The three core dimensions can be defined as follows:

- Comprehensibility

Comprehensibility refers to the extent to which the individual perceives stimuli deriving from internal and external environments to make cognitive sense: as information that is ordered, structured and clear, rather than noisy, chaotic, disordered and inexplicable (Antonovsky, 1987; Cilliers, 2001).

- Manageability

Manageability refers to the belief that resources for coping are at one's disposal (Antonovsky, 1996; Cilliers & Coetzee, 2003). It therefore refers to the extent to which

an individual experiences events in life as situations that are endurable or manageable and that can even be perceived as new challenges (Rothmann, Steyn & Mostert, 2005).

- Meaningfulness

Meaningfulness is generally related to the individual's emotions and motivation to cope (Antonovsky, 1996). It therefore refers to the extent to which an individual believes that life makes sense. Motivation, problems and anxieties posed by life are perceived as challenges, stimulating individuals to invest energy and become committed and engaged (Rothmann, Steyn & Mostert, 2005). Table 5.3 below illustrates which items are included in which dimension.

Table 5.3

OLQ items per dimension

Dimensions	Items
OLQ $_{\text{Comprehensibility}}$	1,3,5,10,12, 15, 17, 19,21, 24 & 26
OLQ $_{\text{Manageability}}$	2, 6, 9, 13, 18, 20, 23, 25, 27 & 29
OLQ $_{\text{Meaningfulness}}$	4, 7, 8, 11, 14, 16, 22 & 28
OLQ $_{\text{Total}}$	1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14,15,16,17, 18,19,20,21,22,23,24,25,26,27,28,29

Items 1,4,5,6,7,11,13,14,16, 20, 23 and 27 are negatively formulated, which means that a high score in these would indicate a low OLQ.

5.2.4.3 Administration of the OLQ

The OLQ is self-explanatory and easy for respondents to complete, as well as being anonymous. It takes approximately 15 to 20 minutes to complete and sets no time limit. The total score is reflected in the sum of the three independent subscales comprehensibility, manageability and meaningfulness (Antonovsky, 1987; Dhaniram & Cilliers, 2003). The scores for comprehensibility, manageability and meaningfulness are

also combined in order to obtain an overall score for the OLQ construct (Frenz, Carey & Jorgensen, 1993).

5.2.4.4 Interpretation of the OLQ

The total score reflects the individual's level of sense of coherence. The highest obtainable score is 203 (Frenz et al., 1993). The three dimensions provide a profile of the respondent's sense of coherence. Respondents with a high score reflect high levels of sense of coherence, whereas those with low scores reflect low levels of this dimension. Rothmann, Malan and Rothmann (2001) indicate that an individual with a strong SOC will better understand the nature and elements of an acute stressor, and will be able to cope. Such an individual will regard the stressful situation or adversity as manageable, and will be able to use resources under his/her control, as opposed to feeling helpless (Rothmann et al., 2001). In this study a total score of the sample's OLQ and the three dimension scores are calculated (Rothmann & Storm, 2003). To avoid too great a volume of data, only the result of the total sense of coherence was interpreted in this study.

5.2.4.5 Reliability and validity

Antonovsky (1993) reported alpha coefficients ranging from 0.82 and 0.95, and test-retest reliability ranging from 0.52 to 0.97. However, Rothmann et al (2001) reported alpha coefficients ranging from 0.85 to 0.91 and test-retest reliability ranging from 0.41 to 0.97. In a review of various studies on the OLQ, Cilliers and Coetzee (2003) established an internal consistency ranging from 0.82 to 0.95, a construct validity ranging from 0.38 to 0.72, and a test-retest reliability of 0.54. Similar results for reliability and validity in various South African studies were confirmed (Strümpfer & Wissing, 1998; Wissing & Van Eeden, 2002).

Rothmann and Storm (2003) commented on the construct validity, in which there was a negative relationship between the OLQ and stress. They also indicated that the OLQ

was negatively correlated with anxiety and depression. However, Eriksson and Lindström (2008) found the OLQ to be valid, reliable, psychometrically sound and applicable to different social classes, ethnic groups, gender and age groups, as well as to the working environment.

5.2.5 Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)

The UWES is discussed in terms of the development of the instrument, as well as the dimensions of the scale, followed by a consideration of the administration of the instrument and its interpretation. Finally, a discussion of the validity and reliability of the scale will be included.

5.2.5.1 Development of the instrument

The UWES was developed by Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Roma and Bakker (2002b). This instrument emerged after burnout researchers became exhausted by their exclusive emphasis on negative and illness-perpetuating results. They strove to discover the positive antithesis of burnout (Schaufeli et al., 2002b), which would focus on human strengths and optimal functioning, rather than weakness and malfunctioning (Joseph & Linley, 2006; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). This culminated in the construction of the UWES.

In contrast to individuals who suffer from burnout, engaged individuals have characteristically high levels of energy and an affective connection to work-related activities, and believe in their ability to cope well with the demands of their job (Schaufeli Taris & Bakker, 2006). From this point of view, work engagement can be defined as a positive, fulfilling and work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2002). The UWES is therefore constructed to measure vigour, which is characterised by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one's work, not being easily fatigued, and persistence even in the face of adversities; dedication, which is characterised by deriving a sense of significance from one's work, and feeling inspired and challenged by

it, and absorption, which means being totally and happily immersed in one's work and detaching oneself from difficulties (Coetzee & Rothmann, 2007). In this regard, time passes quickly and one forgets everything happening around one.

5.2.5.2 UWES Dimensions

The UWES consists of 17 items, which are scored on a seven-point Likert-type scale. The scale measures how individuals feel and react at work. It measures 6 items for vigour, 5 items for dedication, and 6 items for absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2002b). The three core dimensions can be defined as follows:

- Vigour

Vigour is characterised by high levels of energy and mental resilience, a willingness to invest effort, and persistence in the face of difficulties (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

- Dedication

Dedication is characterised by the individual's enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, challenges and sense of significance (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

- Absorption

Absorption is characterised by being completely engaged and happily absorbed in one's work, having difficulty detaching oneself from one's work, and not being aware of how quickly time goes by (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) Table 5.4 below illustrates which items are included in which dimensions.

Table 5.4

UWES items per dimension

Dimensions	Statements in Questionnaire
UWES $_{Vigour}$	1,4,8,12,15,17
UWES $_{Dedication}$	2,5,7,10,13
UWES $_{Absorption}$	3,6,9,11,14,16
UWES $_{Total}$	1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14,15,16,17

All items on the UWES are positively constructed (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003).

5.2.5.3 Administration of the UWES

The UWES is a self-reporting questionnaire, which can be administered in groups or individually, and is easy for respondents to complete, as well as being anonymous (Schaufeli et al., 2006). It takes approximately 15 to 20 minutes to complete and imposes no time limit. The total score is reflected on the sum of the three independent subscales vigour, dedication and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2002). The scores for vigour, dedication and absorption are also combined in order to obtain an overall score for the UWES construct (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003).

5.2.5.4 Interpretation of the UWES

The total score indicates the individual's level of work engagement. The highest possible score is 102. The three dimensions mentioned provide a profile of a respondent's level of work engagement. Respondents with high scores exhibit high levels of work engagement, while those with low scores have lower levels (Storm & Rothmann, 2003). Similarly, the respondents with high levels of work engagement will score higher on the questionnaire, and those with low levels will obtain lower scores. To avoid a large volume of data, only the result of the total work engagement was interpreted.

5.2.5.5 Reliability and Validity

Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) reported an alpha coefficient ranging from 0.88 to 0.95 for the 17 items version, and a test-retest reliability ranging from 0.63 to 0.72. Rothmann, Malan and Rothmann (2001) reported an adequate Cronbach alpha as follows: Vigour (6 items), α= 0.73 and 0.72; Dedication (5 items), α= 0.84 and 0.89, and Absorption (6 items), α= 0.73 and 0.72, in the South African context (Barkhuizen & Rothmann, 2006). However, Seppälä, Muano, Feldt, Hakenen, Kinnunen, Tolvanene and Schaufeli (2008) reported in a confirmatory factor analysis that the three factors of work engagement in the 17 items did not remain the same across samples and times. Welfald and Downey's (2009) study did not confirm the 3 factors of work engagement. However, these authors state that the engagement construct can be significantly correlated with other constructs such as satisfaction, leadership and participation (Welfald & Downey, 2009).

The UWES has been translated into different languages including French. Cross-cultural studies have demonstrated that its construct validity is generally satisfactory and can be applied to other cultures (Schaufeli & Salanova, in press). The validity of UWES was confirmed by Storm and Rothmann's (2003) study in the South African context, in particular that of the Police Services.

The validity of the UWE or the internal consistency, the factorial validity, structural equivalence and bias of the UWES was studied in the South African context (Storm & Rothmann, 2003). Although the structural equation modelling supported the three-factor model of work engagement in both studies, the correlations between vigour, dedication and absorption dimensions were high, suggesting the possibility that work engagement (as measured by the UWES) is a one dimensional construct. According to Storm and Rothmann (2003) the UWES has not yet been standardised for all professions. Therefore, it is necessary to validate the UWES for all professions in the African context (Storm & Rothmann, 2003).

5.2.6 Maslash Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS)

The MBI-GS is discussed in terms of the development of the survey, as well as the dimensions of the survey, followed by a consideration of the administration of the instrument and its interpretation. Finally, a discussion of the validity and reliability of the survey will be presented.

5.2.6.1 Development of the instrument

The MBI-GS was developed by Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslash and Jackson (1996) on the basis of the burnout construct. Originally, Leiter and Schaufeli (1996) used the Maslash Burnout Inventory (MBI) for professionals who work with people, and as a result, the MBI was restricted to workers in the human services domain (health care, education and social work). The apparent need for the scale and the unsatisfactory nature of compromises using MBI prompted the development of the MBI-GS, which can be used in all occupational fields (Marais, Mostert & Rothmann, 2009). The self-report survey requires the respondents to make a choice from the seven-point frequency rating scale, varying from 0 (Never) to 6 (always). The scale was developed in Spanish and English (Schaufeli et al., 1996). In addition, the scale can be found in several other languages, including Afrikaans and Setswana (Jackson & Rothmann, 2005). According to Schaufeli and Greenglas (2001), the goal of this survey was to adapt the MBI to occupations that do not have direct personal contact with service recipients or casual contact with people.

5.2.6.2 MBI-GS Dimensions

The MBI-GS consists of 16 items that are scored on a seven-point Likert-type scale. The scale measures how individuals feel and react at work. It measures 5 items for emotional exhaustion, 5 items for cynicism and 6 items for professional efficacy (Maslash, Jackson & Leiter, 1996). The three core dimensions can be defined as follows:

- Emotional exhaustion

Emotional exhaustion represents the individual stress dimension of burnout, refers to feelings of depleted physical and emotional resources, and prompts workers to distance themselves emotionally and cognitively from their work, presumably as a way of coping with work overload (Schaufeli et al., 1996).

- Cynicism

Cynicism refers to individuals' indifference towards and distance from their work, but not necessarily with regard to other individuals (Schaufeli et al., 1996).

- Professional efficacy

Professional efficacy refers to the self-evaluation dimension of burnout, and is a feeling of competence, productivity and achievement at work (Schaufeli et al., 1996). Table 5.5 below illustrates which items are included in which dimensions.

Table 5.5

MBI-GS items per dimensions

Dimensions	Items
MBI-GS $_{\text{Exhaustion}}$	1,2,3,4,6
MBI-GS $_{\text{cynicism}}$	8,9,13,14,15
MBI-GS $_{\text{Professional Efficacy}}$	5,7,10,11,12,16
MBI-GS $_{\text{Total}}$	1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14,15,16

5.2.6.3 Administration of the MBI-GS

The MBI-GS is a self-report survey that can be administered in groups or individually and is easy for respondents to complete, as well as being anonymous (Schaufeli &

Leiter, 1996). It takes approximately 5 to 15 minutes to complete and sets no time limit. The total score is reflected on the sum of the three independent subscales exhaustion, cynicism and professional efficacy (Schaufeli et al., 1996). The scores for the exhaustion, cynicism and professional efficacy are also combined in order to obtain an overall score for the MBI-GS construct (Schaufeli, Leiter & Jackson, 1996).

5.2.6.4 Interpretation of the MBI-GS

The total score indicates the individual's level of burnout. The highest possible score is 96. The three dimensions mentioned provide a profile of the respondent's level of burnout. Respondents with high scores on exhaustion and cynicism and low scores on professional efficacy are indicative of burnout (Storm & Rothmann, 2003). Respondents with a high score on professional efficacy and a low score on both emotional exhaustion and cynicism are not indicative of burnout (Rothmann, 2008). In this study a total score of the sample's level of burnout and three dimension scores is calculated (Leiter, Maslash & Jackson, 1996, Rothmann, 2008). To avoid too great a volume of data, only the result of the total burnout was interpreted.

5.2.6.5 Reliability and Validity

Langbelle, Falkum, Innstrand and Aasland (2006) reported an alpha coefficient ranging from 0.83 to 0.87 for exhaustion, whereas the corresponding ranges for cynicism and professional efficacy were 0.84 to 0.85 and 0.66 to 0.78 respectively. However, Rothmann (2008) found that internal consistencies or Cronbach's alpha coefficients varied from 0.87 to 0.89 for exhaustion, and 0.73 to 0.84 for cynicism. Test-retest figures after one year were 0.65 for exhaustion and 0.60 for cynicism (Maslash et al., 1996). The three factors of the MBI-GS were confirmed in a sample of SAPS members by Storm and Rothmann (2003). Professional efficacy was not included in the related study, because it was viewed as a personality disposition rather than a wellness dimension (Rothmann, 2008).

The validity of the MBI-GS was, as expected, consistently related to other constructs. A series of principal dimension analyses found that exhaustion was associated with mental and physical strain, work overload, and role conflict at work. Professional efficacy was related to satisfaction, organisational commitment, job involvement and lack of resources. However, cynicism was related to the same constructs as exhaustion, but negatively associated with the attitudinal constructs that are related to professional efficacy (Schaufeli, Leiter & Kalimo, 1995). Gil Monte (2005) concluded that the MBI-GS is valid and reliable across cultures. The three-factor structure of the MBI-GS has been confirmed both internationally (Roelofs et al., 2005; Schaufeli et al., 2002) and in the South African context (Jackson & Rothmann, 2005; Storm & Rothmann, 2003).

5.3 DATA COLLECTION

According to Watkins (2006), data collection provides the reader with insight into “how” data is collected and subsequently analysed.

Approval for the necessary psychometric assessment was obtained from the Human Resource Director at MIDEMA. Ten research assistants (Honours students) were trained within a week and a half by two lecturers in the Department of Management at the Protestant University of Congo in Kinshasa. These assistants were trained on the ethics of conducting research in a manufacturing organisation, as well as how to administer the psychometric assessment. Their task consisted of explaining the objectives of the study, how to answer the questionnaire, and the issue of confidentiality.

All male and female lower-level employees in the abovementioned company received, by hand, an introductory letter, as well as a letter of permission and the psychometric assessment (consisting of the various questionnaires) from the research assistants, inviting them to participate in the research. The first round of psychometric assessments was carried out during November 2009 in the Human Resources, Finance, Distribution and Sales, Technical Management, Project Management and Exploitation departments.

In order to improve the response rate, a follow-up second round of assessment was conducted by the research assistants in January 2010.

The questionnaires were returned to the research assistants, who then mailed them to the researcher in a hardcopy format.

5.4 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Statistical analysis was carried out with the help of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) computer program for Windows version 18.0 (2010). Prior to commencement of the analysis, the data from the LBDQ, EPS, SOC, UWES, and MBI-GS were transformed into aggregate scores using procedures to control for missing values.

5.4.1 Biographical profile of the sample

The biographical profile of the sample was constructed to gather information on participants' gender, age, educational levels, functional department, tenure of service in terms of the task, and tenure of service in terms of service with the organisation.

5.4.2 Psychometric characteristics of instruments

Descriptive statistics were calculated. Means and standard deviations were used to describe and compare results, the three main measures of central tendency being the mean, median and mode (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007; Gravetter & Wallnaun, 2007). These measures are epitomes of the sets of measures from which they are calculated. They indicate that the sets of measures "are like" an average, but are also compared to test relations. Moreover, individual scores can be usefully compared to them in order to assess the status of the individual (Huysamen, 2001; Van Jaarsveld, 2009). In this study, the mean is used as a measure of central tendency. The standard deviation approximates the average distance of the individual scores from the mean.

The higher the standard deviation, the greater the distances are on average from the mean (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2007).

Cronbach's alpha coefficient is computed in order to assess the internal consistency reliability of the questionnaire scoring and responses scales (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). Huysamen (2001) indicates that this index is indicative of the extent to which all items in the scales are measuring the same characteristics. High internal consistency implies a high generalisability of items in the test, as well as items in parallel (Van Jaarsveld, 2009).

5.4.3 Psychometric relationship between behavioural constructs

Inter-item correlation coefficients are used to ensure that the internal consistency of measuring instruments is not so high that it affects validity (Mitchell & Jolley, 2010). An inter-item correlation ranging between 0.15 and 0.50 is acceptable (Clark & Watson, 1995).

The product-moment correlation (r) is used to determine the relationship between variables. This correlation is generally used to calculate indices of relationship between sets of ordered pairs, in order to obtain more precise estimates of the direction and degree of relations between variables. Low and near-zero values are indicative of a weak relationship, while those nearest to +1 or -1 suggest a stronger one (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). However, Clark and Watson (1995) explain that if any relationship exists between variables, it can be termed a positive one. A negative relationship occurs when a decrease in the measurement of one variable leads to an increase in the other variable (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007).

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) posit that researchers need to increase their effort to interpret results according to effect sizes and practical significance, rather than statistical significance. In statistical significance tests, p-values are used to determine the significance of the results. Small p-values of less than 0.05 are generally viewed as

sufficient evidence that results are of statistical significance. Statistical significance of 10 has come to be seen as acceptable (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). In order to assess whether the results are of any practical significance, the researcher must calculate the effect size. Cohen (1992) indicates that some conventional effect sizes are the cut-off point for the practical significance of the correlation coefficient between behavioural constructs:

r = 0.15 small effect
r = 0.30 medium effect
r = 0.50 large effect

In this study, r≥ 0.10 – 0.029 (small effect), r≥ 0.30- 0.49 (medium effect), and r≥ 0.50 (large effect) is considered to be practically significant.

5.4.4 Predictive value of behavioural constructs

Multiple regressions are used to calculate the effect of the independent variables leadership style, sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout on the dependent variable employee participation (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). These multiple regressions enable the researcher to predict or weigh the relationship between more explanatory or independent and explained or dependent variables. The multiple correlations coefficient is one of the links that bind together the various aspects of multiple regressions and analysis of variance. R is the highest possible correlation between a least squares linear composite of the independent variable and the observed dependent variable (Huysamen, 2001).

5.4.5 The significance of differences between behavioural constructs

The T-test is used to determine whether or not there are statistically significant differences between the means of two groups, using parametric data drawn from the random sample with a normal distribution (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). The

analysis of variance (ANOVA) is a statistical technique for the listing of differences in the means of several groups (Conn, 2006). It currently enjoys the status of being probably the most used statistical technique in psychological research. The popularity and usefulness of this technique can be attributed to two facts. First of all, the analysis of variance, like the t-test, deals with differences between sample means, but unlike the t-test, places no restriction on the number of means. Secondly, the analysis of variance enables researchers to deal with two or more variables simultaneously, asking not only about the individual effects of each variable separately, but also about the integrating effects of two or more variables (Conn, 2006). In this study, the ANOVA test was used to evaluate the relationship between the different variables namely, leadership style, employee participation, sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout. It was also used for the biographical profile of the sample on gender, age, educational level and functional department (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007).

5.4.6 Bonferroni post-hoc test (pair-wise multiple comparison)

The post-hoc tests of comparison were used to control for the family-wise error rate. This test helped to compare each pair at a certain significance level (alpha), so that the probability of a type I error (incorrect rejection of the null hypothesis of equality of means) could be guaranteed not to exceed alpha, although only individually, for each pair-wise comparison, but not for the whole family (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). To ensure that the probability of incorrectly rejecting the null hypothesis for any of the pair-wise comparisons in the family does not exceed alpha, multiple comparisons that control the family-wise error rate (FWE) need to be used. For this purpose, the Bonferroni test was employed to examine the underlying differences in the means with respect to the variables being researched, as well as the biographical variables (Cohen et al, 2007).

5.5 STATISTICAL SIGNIFICANCE

Statistical significance refers to the probability that the observed result could have occurred randomly if it has no true underlying effect. Procedures can be utilised to test the significance of any contrast or comparison. The significance level is the criterion mostly used for rejecting the null hypothesis (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). In the case of significance, the decision to reject or fail to reject the null hypothesis is based on a comparison with the significance level. If the rejection region's approach to significance testing is considered, the Ho will be rejected. If, however, the test statistic is in the rejection region, which is determined by the significance level, some values of the sampling distribution defined by Ho will fall in the rejection region by chance. Consequently, the Ho could be rejected even though it is true. This will result in a type I error (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). The calculation of the probability of a type II error is more complicated. A type II error is the error of accepting a null hypothesis when the alternative hypothesis is the true state of things. In other words, this is the error of failing to observe a difference when in truth there is one. This type of error can only occur when the researcher or statistician accepts the null hypothesis (Lachenicht, 2002).

Table 5.6

Level of significance (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002)

Probability	Level	Significance
P	0.10	Significance of exploratory research with regard to a small sample
P	0.01 to 0.05	Significant
P	0.001 to 0.01	Very significant
p	0.001	Extremely significant

5.6 FORMULATION OF HYPOTHESES

The following hypotheses are based on the theoretical integration and will be tested in the empirical study.

Ho1: There is no significant relationship between perceived leadership style, employee participation and positive psychology functioning in a manufacturing company in the Democratic Republic of Congo.

H1: There is a significant relationship between perceived leadership styles, employee participation and positive psychology functioning in a manufacturing company in the Democratic Republic of Congo.

Ho2: Employee participation is not predicted by perceived leadership style, sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout.

H2: Employee participation is predicted by perceived leadership style, sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout.

Ho3: There is no difference between perceived leadership style, employee participation and positive psychology functioning and biographical variables (gender, age, educational levels and functional department).

H3: There is a difference between perceived leadership style, employee participation and positive psychology constructs and biographical variables (gender, age, educational levels and functional department).

These hypotheses were tested by analysing the relationship, predictiveness and differences between each variable under investigation, and then testing the relationship between all relevant variables in the manufacturing company in question.

5.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the research methodology, population and sample, measuring instruments, as well as data collection and data processing, followed by the formulation of hypotheses and a summary of the chapter. By so doing, the first research objective has been achieved (See Chapter 1, Section 1.3.2).

CHAPTER 6

RESULTS

In this chapter, the results obtained from the empirical study are discussed, starting with the biographical profile of the sample, the psychometric relationship, the predictive value and significant differences between behavioural constructs, followed by a discussion and integration of results.

6.1 BIOGRAPHICAL PROFILE OF THE SAMPLE

The biographical information is reported as individual characteristics (gender, age, educational level) and work environment (functional department, tenure, service) in the organisation.

6.1.1 Individual characteristics

The biographical data is reported for individual characteristics such as gender, age, educational level and work environment which involves functional department, tenure of service in terms of task, and tenure of service in the organisation.

Table 6.1 below indicates that there are more males in the sample than females. According to table 6.1, almost 60% of the sample consists of males. The sample could therefore be described as a male-dominated group, containing 40% females.

Table 6.1

Gender distribution

Characteristic	Category	Frequency	Percentages (%)
1	Male	120	60 %
2	Female	80	40 %
TOTAL		200	100%

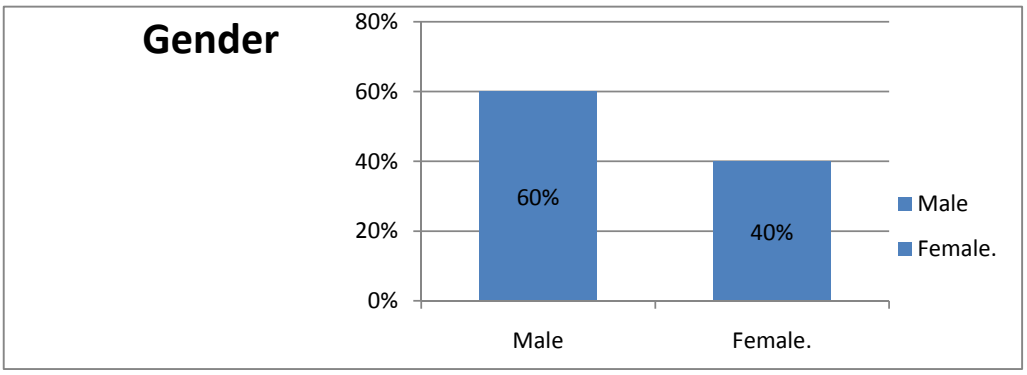


Figure 6.1 **Gender distribution of the sample (N = 200**)

Table 6.2 below shows that approximately 90% of the sample is between the ages of 25 and 55. The respondents from the largest group fell between the ages of 40 and 55 years. Only 11% of the respondents are less than 25 or 55 and above.

Table 6.2

Age distribution

Characteristic	Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	Less than 25	12	6%
2	25-40	85	43%
3	40-55	93	46%
4	55 and more	10	5%
TOTAL		200	100%

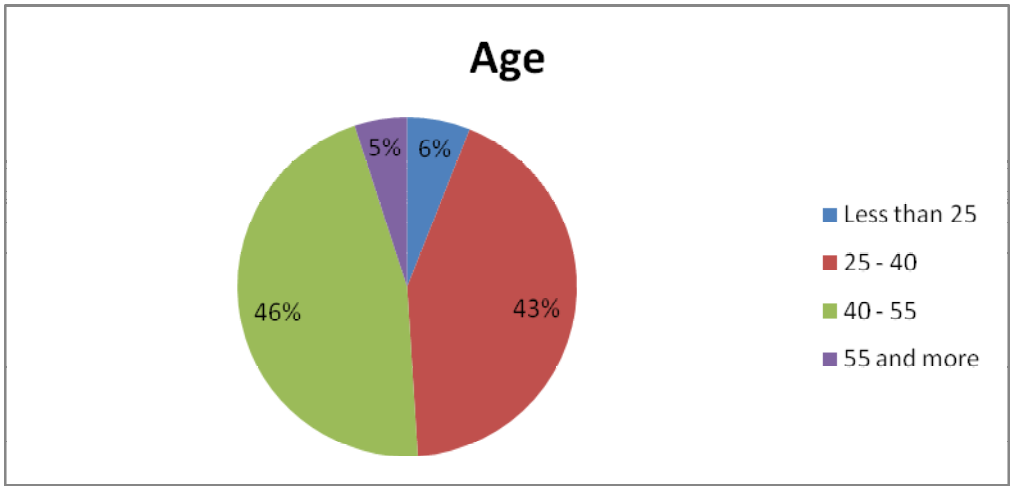


Figure 6.2 **Age distribution of the sample (N = 200)**

Table 6.3 below shows that approximately 21% of the sample had, in addition to a Bachelor's degree, also obtained a Masters or Doctoral educational level degree. 19% of the sample had, primary or secondary educational level.

Table 6.3

Educational levels distribution

Characteristic	Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	Primary education	7	4%
2	Secondary education	30	15%
3	University (bachelor)	121	61%
4	M&D	42	21%
TOTAL		200	100%

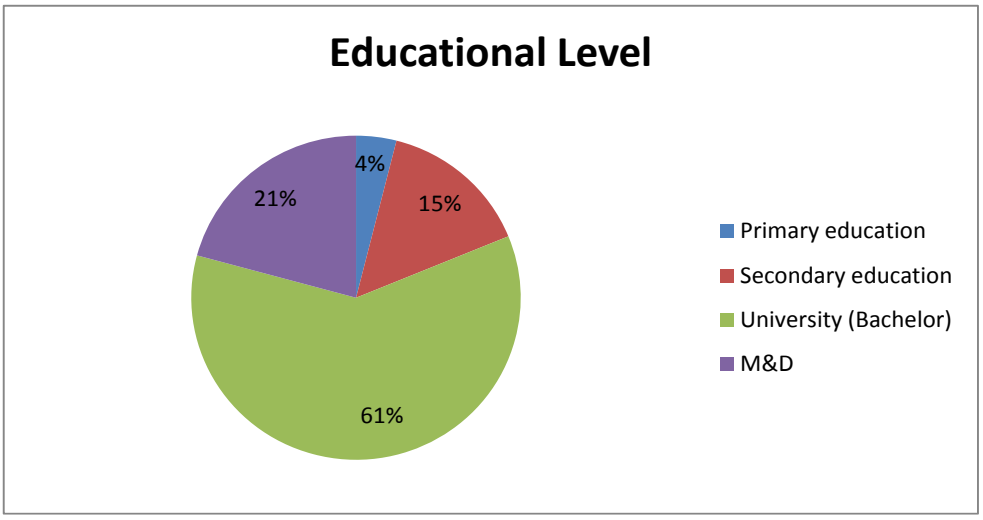


Figure 6.3 **Educational level distribution of the sample (N = 200)**

6.1.2 Work environment

The work environments of the respondents are presented according to functional department and tenure.

Table 6.4 below shows that the functional departments of Human Resources, Financial, Distribution and Sales, Technical and Project management departments each recorded 17% participation, while only 16% of the sample came from Exploitation Management.

Table 6.4

Functional department distribution

Characteristic	Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	Human Resources	33	17%
2	Financial Management	33	17%
3	Distribution & Sales	34	17%
4	Technical Management	34	17%
5	Project Management	34	17%
6	Exploitation Management	32	16%
TOTAL		200	100%

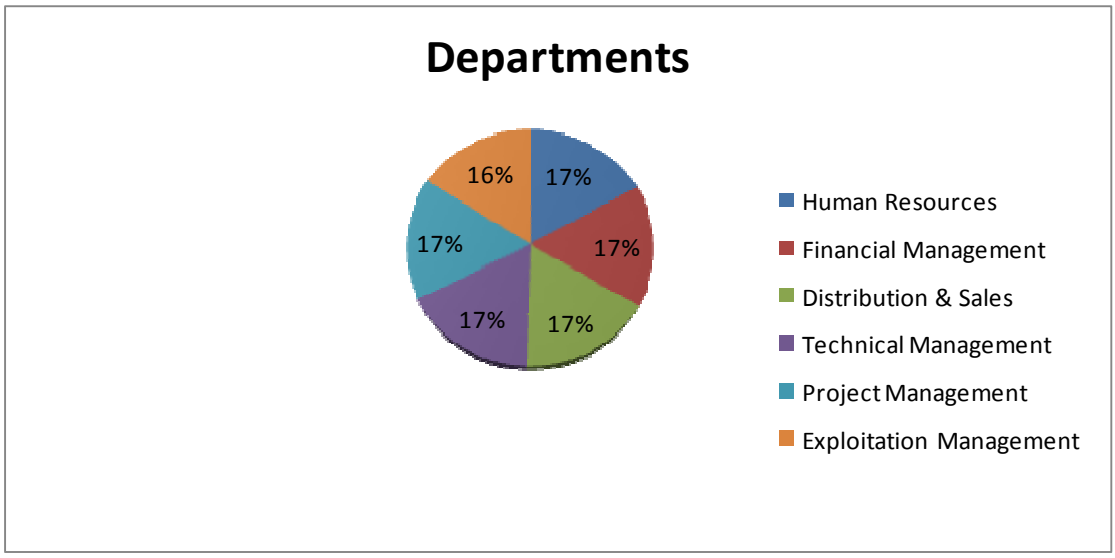


Figure 6.4 **Functional department distribution of the sample (N= 200)**

Table 6.5 below indicates that approximately 52% of the sample had worked on the task for less than 5 years. The second largest group, with 44%, had worked for 5 - 20 years. Only 4% of the samples have worked for 20 - 35 years in their task.

Table 6.5

Tenure of service in terms of the task

Characteristic	Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	Lesser than 5	104	52%
2	5-20	88	44%
3	20-35	8	4%
4	35-40	-	-
5	40 and more	-	-
TOTAL		200	100%

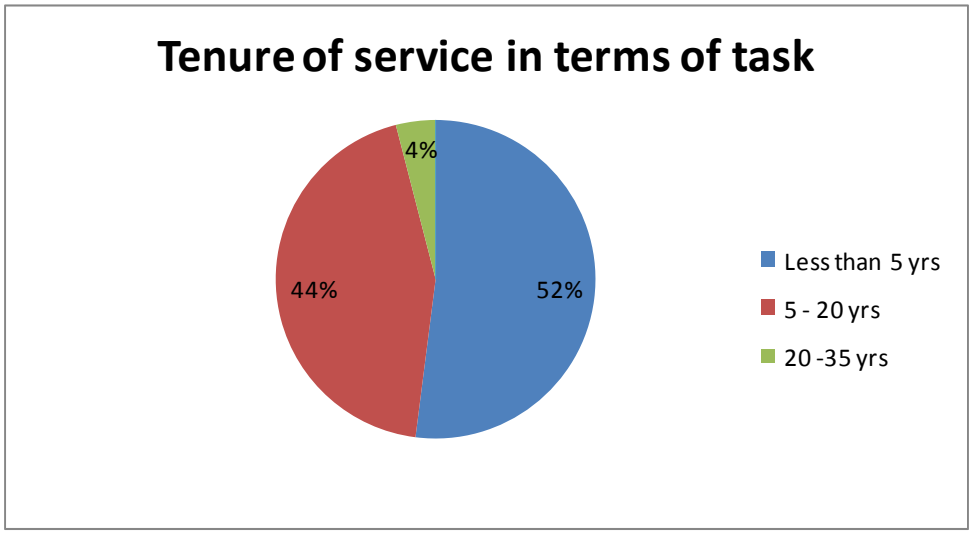


Figure 6.5 **Tenure of service in terms of task in the sample (N = 200)**

Table 6.6 below shows that approximately 47% of the sample consisted of employees had been with the manufacturing company for 5 to 20 years, while 45% of the sample reported less than 5 years of service with the company.

Table 6.6

Tenure of service in the organisation

Characteristic	Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	Lesser than 5	89	44.5%
2	5-20	94	47%
3	20-35	16	8%
4	35-40	1	5%
5	40 and more	-	-
TOTAL		200	100%

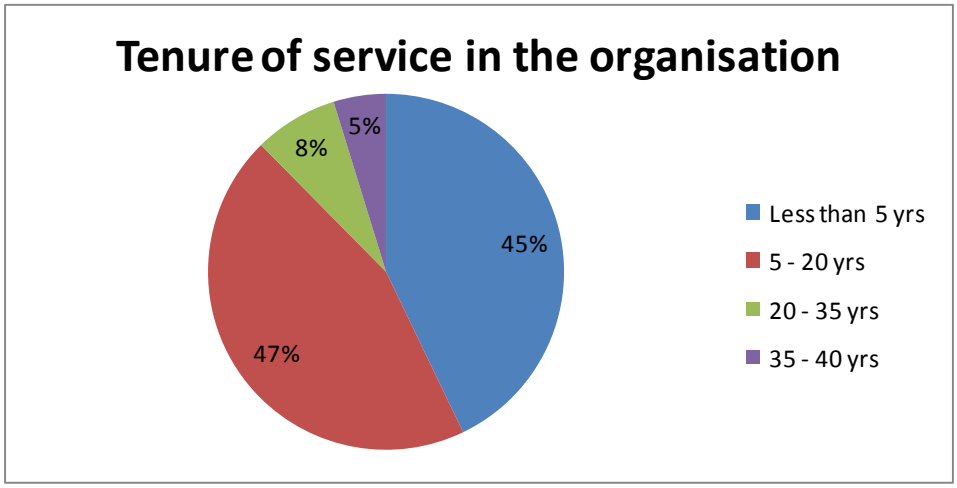


Figure 6.6 **Tenure of service in the organisation in the sample (N = 200)**

6.1.3 Discussion of the sample profile

The frequency distribution indicates that 60% of the respondents were males with a mean age of 25 – 55 years (47%). 61% of the respondents were in possession of a university (bachelor's) degree. Only 17% of respondents were working in different functional departments, with less than 5 years of tenure in terms of the task (52%). Some respondents (47%) had been in the organisation for more than 5–20 years.

6.2 THE PSYCHOMETRIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE INSTRUMENTS

Next, the descriptive statistics and reliability for the instruments are reported.

6.2.1 Descriptive statistics for the LBDQ-XII

The highest possible score that can be achieved on this instrument is 100, which means that any score close to this maximum represents the level of perception of an individual of the behaviour of the leader in terms of consideration and initiating structure. Table 6.7 below indicates that the scores of the participants ranged from 10 to 100, with a mean score of 71.63 for the total LBDQ-XII, 37.44 and 34.19 respectively for initiating structure and consideration.

Table 6.7

Descriptive statistics for the LBDQ

Instrument	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
LBDQ $_{\text{Consideration}}$	200	10	50	34.19	5.272
LBDQ $_{\text{Initiating Structure}}$	200	10	50	37.44	5.696
LBDQ $_{\text{Total}}$	200	20	100	71.63	9.544

The results for leadership style in this study were measured on a scale of 1 to 5 - with 1 to 2 reflecting below average levels, 3 average levels, and 4 to 5 above average levels (See Appendix A, Scale 1). This means that according to the perception of the

participants, leaders in the manufacturing company in question were more likely to use both styles of leadership, namely initiating structure and consideration, in order to influence their employees to achieve the organisation's goals. The consideration leadership style fell within the average level, indicating that leaders who were perceived to use this style demonstrate a concern and respect for employees, look out for their welfare, and express appreciation and support. The initiating structure leadership style was above average levels, meaning that leaders, who were perceived to exhibit this style, were oriented towards goal attainment, established well-defined channels of communication with their subordinates, focused on the tasks, and did not care about the well-being of their employees.

The mean scores given above can be regarded as being comparable with other research results provided by previous studies. Judge, Piccolo and Ilies (2004) conducted a study on the validity of the LBDQ-XII, and found mean scores ranging from m= 48 and SD= 26 to m= 29 and SD= 21 for consideration and initiating structure respectively. Euwema, Weldt and Emmerik (2008) reported a mean of 4.09 and a standard deviation of 0.67, and a mean of 2.94 and a standard deviation of 0.69 for initiating structure and consideration. Willis (2007) conducted research on the perception of leadership behaviour for male and female leaders; he found a mean of 38.63 and a standard deviation of 5.51, and a mean of 36.8 and a standard deviation of 5.95 for initiating structure and consideration.

6.2.2 Reliability of the LBDQ

The Cronbach alpha of the two dimensions in Stogdill's LBDQ is indicated in Table 6.8 below.

Table 6.8

Reliability coefficients

Measuring Instrument	Cronbach alpha	Reliability
LBDQ $_{\text{Initiating structure}}$	0.708	High
LBDQ $_{\text{Consideration}}$	0.550	Moderate
LBDQ $_{\text{Total}}$	0.754	High

According to Nunnally and Bernstein (2010), a Cronbach alpha coefficient of between 0.5 and 0.6 is acceptable for basic research purposes, while coefficients of 0.8 and higher are considered to be important or ideal. From the abovementioned table, the entire instrument has been shown to have maintained an acceptable level of internal consistency, with the coefficients ranging from moderate to high. This means that the chosen instrument has measured the construct reliably. The coefficients correspond with research on the reliability of this instrument, as reported in other studies (Bass, 1990; Euwema, Weldt & Emmerik, 2008; Judge, Piccolo & Ilies, 2004).

Table 6.9

Item analysis for the LBDQ

Item	Crobach's Alpha if item was deleted	Item	Cronbach's Alpha if item was deleted
1	0.735	11	0.750
2	0.760	12	0.738
3	0.730	13	0.742
4	0.743	14	0.746
5	0.751	15	0.738
6	0.727	16	0.747
7	0.734	17	0.741
8	0.747	18	0.761
9	0.739	19	0.764
10	0.750	20	0.747

All the items contributed significantly to the overall Cronbach alpha of 0.754, which was a good indication of reliability. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison's (2007) guidelines, the reliability results for LBDQ were consistent.

6.2.3 Descriptive statistics for the EPS

The highest possible score that can be achieved on this instrument is 104, which means that any score close to this maximum depicts an individual who experiences participation in his/her job, quality of work life, decision-making and problem solving, ideas, suggestions and change, and the business. Table 6.10 below indicates the score of the participants, ranging from 26 to 104, a mean score of 75.44 for the total EPS, 9.46 for job, 14.40 for quality of work life, 21.47 for decision-making and problem solving, 14.40 for ideas, suggestions and change, and 15.71 for business.

Table 6.10

Descriptive statistics for the EPS

Instrument	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
EPS Your job	200	3	12	9.46	1.744
EPS Quality of work life	200	5	20	14.40	2.705
EPS Decision-making & problem solving	200	8	32	21.47	3.967
EPS Ideas, suggestions & change	200	5	20	14.40	2.514
EPS The business	200	5	20	15.71	2.625
EPS Total	200	26	104	75.44	8.381

The results for employee participation in this study were measured on a scale of 1 to 4, with 1 to 2 reflecting below average levels, between 2 and 3 averages, and 3 to 4 above average (see appendix A Scale 2). This indicates that according to the perception of

participants, employees' knowledge, opinions and ideas in the manufacturing company in question were included in the decision-making process. The employees were also mentally and emotionally involved in the group situations, which encouraged them to share responsibility and contribute efficiently to the organisation's goals. The job dimension fell within the above average level, which means that the employees understand the purpose and duties of their jobs and possess the freedom to make decisions about the best way to get the job done. The quality of work life was below average, which means that employees were less involved and demonstrated a low level of satisfaction with the working conditions in the company. The decision-making and problem solving fell below average, indicating that employees were not able to influence decisions that affect them. The ideas, suggestions for change fell below average, which means that only a few ideas and suggestions for change that employees proposed were considered in the company.

The mean scores given above can be compared with the research results of other studies. In his study on the effectiveness of employee participation, Berman (1997) found a mean of 9.84 for the job component, 17.80 for quality of work life, 18.05 for ideas, suggestions and change, 11.66 for decision-making and problem solving, and 16.55 for the business component. In their study on the effect of participation on decision-making, Pereira and Osburn (2007) reported a mean of 12 and a standard deviation of .29. In a study on why participation works, Bouma (2009) found a mean of 2.21 and a standard deviation of 1.14 for all employee participation constructs.

6.2.4 Reliability of the EPS

The Cronbach alphas for the five dimensions in Berman's EPS are presented in Table 6.11 below.

Table 6.11

Reliability coefficients for the EPS

Measuring Instruments	Cronbach alpha	Reliability
EPS_{Job}	0.513	Moderate
$EPS_{Quality\ of\ wok\ life}$	0.566	Moderate
$EPS_{Decision\ making\ and\ problem\ solving}$	0.649	Moderate
$EPS_{Ideas,\ suggestions\ and\ change}$	0.545	Moderate
$EPS_{Business}$	0.629	Moderate
EPS_{Total}	0.747	High

According to Nunnally and Bernstein (2010), a Cronbach alpha ranging from 0.5 to 0.6 is acceptable for basic research purposes, while an alpha coefficient of 0.80 and higher is considered to be ideal. Therefore, from the abovementioned table, the entire instrument has been shown to have maintained an acceptable level of internal consistency, with the coefficients ranging from moderate to high. In other words, the selected instruments have measured the constructs reliably. The coefficient also corresponds with research on the reliability of this instrument as reported in the study conducted by Berman (1997).

Table 6.12

Item analysis for the EPS

Item	Crobach's Alpha if item was deleted	Item	Cronbach's Alpha if item was deleted
1	0.742	14	0.742
2	0.739	15	0.745
3	0.737	16	0.749
4	0.735	17	0.737
5	0.757	18	0.740
6	0.737	19	0.740
7	0.738	20	0.739
8	0.740	21	0.735
9	0.729	22	0.735
10	0.729	23	0.751
11	0.734	24	0.737
12	0.736	25	0.739
13	0.747	26	0.736

All the items contributed significantly to the overall Cronbach alpha of 0.747, which was a good indication of reliability. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison's (2007) guidelines, the reliability results for EPS were consistent.

6.2.5 Descriptive statistics for the OLQ

The highest score that can be achieved with this instrument is 203, which means that any score that comes close to this maximum represents an individual who perceives the world as being comprehensible, manageable and meaningful.

Table 6.17 below indicates the scores of the participants, ranging from 84 to 180, with a mean score of 131.70 for the total OLQ, 47.14 for comprehensibility, 43.38 for

manageability and 38.13 for meaningfulness. The SD scores for comprehensibility, manageability and meaningfulness were 8.165, 7.284 and 6.573 respectively.

Table 6.13

Descriptive results for the OLQ

Instrument	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
OLQ $_{\text{Comprehensibility}}$	200	11	77	47.14	8.165
OLQ $_{\text{Manageability}}$	200	10	70	43.38	7.284
OLQ $_{\text{Meaningfulness}}$	200	8	56	38.13	6.573
OLQ $_{\text{Total}}$	200	29	203	131.70	18.753

The results for the sense of coherence in this study were measured on a scale of 1 to 7 with 1 to 3 indicating below average levels, 3 to 5 average, and 5 to 7 above average levels (see Appendix A, Scale 3). The results indicated a level of OLQ of 3 to 5, which can be interpreted as an average overall level of OLQ. This means that employees in the company in question feel that the world makes cognitive sense and perceive situations that confront them as consistent, structured, clear and predictable. These employees hold the conviction that they possess enough of the required resources to deal with the situations, and feel motivated to face life's difficult situations as worthwhile challenges. The comprehensibility fell within the average level on this subscale, which means that the employees perceive stimuli deriving from internal and external environments to make cognitive sense. The manageability and meaningfulness are both displayed at above average levels, which may be explained as the possibility that the employees, given their current context, see themselves as having enough resources and motivation to deal with life's difficult situations.

The mean scores' average compares favourably with other related studies. In their study on job stress, sense of coherence and work wellness in an electricity supply organisation, Rothmann, Steyn and Mostert (2005) reported a mean of 134.90 and a standard deviation of 20.61. In another instance, Gana and Ganier (2001) conducted a

study in a latent structure of the sense of coherence scale with a French sample, and found a mean score ranging from 133.66 (SD= 20.36). In their research into novel methods for the analysis of multifaceted personality scales, Huttner (2000) found a mean of 131.0 (SD= 28.2). Togari, Yamakazi, Nakayama, Kimura, Yamaki, Sasaki and Takayami (2008), in their study on the effects of sense of coherence and well-being after two years in a Japanese university, indicated a mean of 117.9 and a standard deviation of 20.6. However, in their study on psychological strengths, coping and suicide ideation in the South African police services in the North West province, Rothmann and Van Rensburg (2002) reported a mean of 133.35 and a standard deviation of 24.51.

6.2.6 Reliability of the OLQ

The Cronbach alphas for the three dimensions in Antonovsky's sense of coherence scale are indicated in Table 6.14 below.

Table 6.14

Reliability coefficient for the OLQ

Measuring Instrument	Cronbach alpha	Reliability
$OLQ_{Comprehensibility}$	0.295	Low
$OLQ_{anageability}$	0.417	Low
$OLQ_{Meaningfulness}$	0.478	Low
OLQ_{Total}	0.652	Moderate

According to Nunnaly and Bernstein (2010), a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of between 0.5 and 0.6 is acceptable for basic research purposes, where coefficients of 0.8 and higher are considered to be ideal. From the abovementioned table, however, the scale displayed relatively low reliability on all dimensions. This does not mean that the instrument did not measure what it intended to do. Clark and Watson (1995) state that there is a misconception that the research goal can only be achieved by demonstrating that a scale shows an acceptable level of internal consistency and reliability, as estimated by alpha scores. The same researchers explained that there are no longer

any clear standards regarding what level of reliability is considered to be acceptable (Clark & Watson, 1995). The three dimensions of the OLQ, according to the guideline of 0.15< r < 50, are considered to be acceptable in terms of reliability (Clark & Watson, 1995).

Table 6.15

Item analysis for the OLQ

Item	Crobach's Alpha if item was deleted	Item	Cronbach's Alpha if item was deleted
1	0.676	16	0.669
2	0.674	17	0.688
3	0.693	18	0.674
4	0.685	19	0.666
5	0.667	20	0.660
6	0.683	21	0.703
7	0.676	22	0.674
8	0.673	23	0.668
9	0.673	24	0.674
10	0.670	25	0.685
11	0.664	26	0.681
12	0.670	27	0.655
13	0.666	28	0.663
14	0.665	29	0.675
15	0.664		

All the items contributed significantly to the overall Cronbach alpha of 0.652, which was a good indication of reliability. According to Clark and Watson's (1995) and Cohen, Manion and Morrison's (2007) guidelines, the reliability results for the OLQ were consistent.

6.2.7 Descriptive statistics for the UWES

The highest score that can be achieved on this instrument is 126, which means that any score that comes close to this maximum represents an individual who is characterised by energy, involvement and efficacy in his/her work. Table 6.16 below indicates scores of participants ranging from 43 to 125, with a mean score of 97.39 for the total UWES, 33.20 for vigour, 32.72 for dedication and 30.92 for absorption. The SD scores for vigour, dedication and absorption were 6.051, 6.016 and 6.063 respectively.

Table 6.16

Descriptive statistics for the UWES

Instrument	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
UWES $_{Vigour}$	200	7	42	28.07	6.05
UWES $_{Dedication}$	200	7	42	22.94	6.02
UWES $_{Absorption}$	200	7	42	26.12	6.06
UWES $_{Total}$	200	21	126	77.16	13.01

The results for work engagement in this study were measured on a scale of 1 to 6 with 1 to 3 reflecting below average levels, 3 to 4 average, and 4 to 6 above average levels (see Appendix A). The results indicated a level of UWES of 3 to 4, which can be interpreted as an above average overall level of UWES, meaning that these employees were characterised by high levels of energy, involvement and efficacy. The vigour dimension is just above 4, which means that employees were characterised by high energy levels and mental resilience when working, the willingness to invest effort in one's work, not becoming fatigued, and persistence even in the face of adversities. The dedication and absorption are both displayed at above average levels, signifying that the employees in the company in question felt enthusiastic, proud and were happily immersed in their work.

This mean scores average compares favourably with other related studies. In their study on psychological empowerment, job insecurity and employee engagement,

Stander and Rothmann (2010) found a mean of 69.68 and a standard deviation of 22.42. In another instance, Fourie, Rothmann and Van Vijver (2007) conducted a study in a model of work wellness for non-professional counsellors in South Africa, and found a mean of 66.61 and a standard deviation of 10.28 for the work engagement. Rothmann (2008) conducted a study on job satisfaction, occupational stress, burnout and work engagement as components of work-related wellbeing, reporting a mean score of 21.39 and a standard deviation of 6.18 for vigour and a mean of 23.98 and a standard deviation of 6.15 for dedication. However, Storm and Rothmann (2003) conducted a psychometric analysis of the UWES in the South African police services, and found a mean of 21.04 and a standard deviation of 6.27 for vigour, a mean of 22.79 and a standard deviation of 6.78 for dedication, and a mean of 20.71 and a standard deviation of 6.37 for absorption.

6.2.8 Reliability of the UWES

The Cronbach alphas for the three dimensions of Schaufeli and Bakker's UWES are indicated in Table 6.17 below.

Table 6.17

Reliability coefficient for the UWES

Instrument	Cronbach alpha	Reliability
UWES $_{Vigour}$	0.555	Moderate
UWES $_{Dedication}$	0.521	Moderate
UWES $_{Absorption}$	0.502	Moderate
UWES $_{Total}$	0.763	High

According to Nannully and Bernstein (2010), a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of between 0.5 and 0.6 is acceptable for basic research purposes, where coefficients of 0.8 and higher are considered to be ideal. From the abovementioned table, the entire instrument has been shown to have maintained an acceptable level of internal consistency, with the coefficients ranging from moderate to high. This means that the chosen instrument

has measured the construct reliably according to the guidelines of 15 < r < 50 (Clark & Watson, 1995).

Table 6.18

22 Item analysis for the UWES

Item	Cronbach's Alpha if item was deleted	Item	Cronbach's Alpha if item was deleted
1	0.764	10	0.742
2	0.758	11	0.753
3	0.777	12	0.749
4	0.750	13	0.744
5	0.753	14	0.751
6	0.748	15	0.741
7	0.749	16	0.747
8	0.739	17	0.764
9	0.743		

All the items contributed significantly to the overall Cronbach's alpha of 0.763, which was a good indication of reliability. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison's (2007) guidelines, the reliability of the UWES was consistent.

6.2.9 Descriptive statistics for the MBI-GS

The highest score that can be achieved with this instrument is 96, which means that any score that comes close to this maximum represents an individual who experiences fatigue, an attitude of distance towards work in general, and who has a feeling of competence, productivity and achievement at work. Table 6.23 below indicates scores of participants ranging from 16 to 96, with a mean score of 42.52 for the total MBI-GS, 16.33 for exhaustion, 14.70 for cynicism, and 11.50 for professional efficacy. The SD scores for exhaustion, cynicism and professional efficacy were 7.762, 6.061 and 4.801 respectively.

Table 6.19

Descriptive statistics for the MBI-GS

Instrument	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
MBI-GS $_{Exhaustion}$	200	5	30	16.33	7.762
MBI-GS $_{Cynicism}$	200	5	30	14.70	6.061
MBI-GS$_{Professional\ Efficacy}$	200	6	36	11.50	4.801
MBI-GS $_{Total}$	200	16	96	42.52	13.155

The results for burnout in this study were measured on a scale of 1 to 6 – with 1 to 3 reflecting below average levels, 3 to 4 average, and 4 to 6 above average levels (see Appendix A). The results indicated a level of MBI-GS of 3, which can be interpreted as a below average overall level of MBI-GS, meaning that these employees are experiencing low levels of burnout. The exhaustion dimension is just above 3, which means that employees fall within the average level in this subscale. In other words, employees are sometimes depleted and drained of emotional resources and have a feeling of being overextended. The cynicism dimension is just below average, 3, signifying that employees are detached from various aspects of the job. The professional efficacy dimension is just below average, which means that employees are competent, productive, participated, and performed well at work. The high level of cynicism according to Bezuidenhout (2008) could reduce the personal efficacy dimension.

The mean scores average compares favourably with other related studies. Rothmann and Joubert (2007) conducted a study on the job demands, job resources, burnout and work engagement of managers, finding a mean of 13.84 and a standard deviation of 5.25 for exhaustion, and a mean of 7.80 and a standard deviation of 5.25 for cynicism. Rothmann, Steyn and Mostert (2005) conducted research into job stress, sense of coherence and work wellness in an electricity supply organisation, and established a mean of 12.09 and a standard deviation of 7.50, and a mean of 8.37 and a standard deviation of 5.64 for exhaustion and cynicism respectively. Rothmann, Jackson and Kruger (2003) conducted a study on job stress in local government, and found a mean

of 11.92 and a standard deviation of 7.77 for exhaustion, a mean of 7.17 and a standard deviation of 5.68 for cynicism, and a mean of 28.34 and a standard deviation of 6.42, for professional efficacy.

6.2.10 Reliability of the MBI-GS

The Cronbach alphas for the three components of the Maslach Burnout Inventory General Survey are indicated in Table 6.20 below.

Table 6.20

Reliability coefficients for the MBI-GS

Instrument	Cronbach Alpha	Reliability
MBI-GS $_{\text{Exhaustion}}$	0.748	High
MBI-GS $_{\text{Cynicism}}$	0.427	Low
MBI-GS $_{\text{Professional efficacy}}$	0.570	Moderate
MBI-GS $_{\text{Total}}$	0.694	Moderate

According to Nunnally and Bernstein (2010), a Cronbach alpha coefficient of between 0.5 and 0.6 is acceptable for basic research purposes, while coefficients of 0.80 and higher are ideal. From the abovementioned table, the entire instrument has been shown to have maintained an acceptable level of internal consistency, with the coefficients ranging from low, moderate and high. According to Clark and Watson's (1995) guidelines of $15 < r < 50$, the chosen instrument has measured the construct reliably.

Table 6.21

Item analysis for the MBI-GS

Item	Crobach's Alpha if item was deleted	Item	Cronbach's Alpha if item was deleted
1	0.657	9	0.668
2	0.673	10	0.685
3	0.648	11	0.680
4	0.637	12	0.702
5	0.715	13	0.729
6	0.674	14	0.677
7	0.685	15	0.670
8	0.666	16	0.687

All the items contributed significantly to the overall Cronbach's alpha of 0.652, which was a good indication of reliability. According to Clark and Watson's (1995) guidelines, the reliability results for the MBI-GS were consistent.

6.2.11 Discussion on the psychometric characteristics of the instruments

The total value for Cronbach's alpha of the leader Behavior Descriptive Questionnaire (LBDQ), Employee participation survey (EPS), and Work Engagement (UWES) were above 0.7, while the Cronbach's alpha values of the Orientation to Life Questionnaire (OLQ) and Maslash Burnout Inventory General Survey (MBI – GS) were just below 0.7. Therefore, the instrument chosen for this study is considered to be sufficiently reliable and valid to examine the current sample. According to Clark and Watson's (1995) guidelines, the alpha coefficients for various subdimensions obtained in the present study were therefore considered acceptable for further analysis.

6.3 PSYCHOMETRIC RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BEHAVIOURAL CONSTRUCTS

In this section, Pearson product-moment correlations are reported for the purpose of understanding the relationship between the constructs. The significant correlations are reported and then discussed below.

6.3.1 The psychometric relationship between perceived leadership styles and employee participation

The psychometric relationship between perceived leadership styles and employee participation is presented in Table 6.22 below

Table 6.22 ***Psychometric relationship between perceived leadership styles and employee participation***

	LBDQ $_{\text{Total}}$	**LBDQ** $_{\text{Consideration}}$	**LBDQ** $_{\text{Initiating structure}}$
LBDQ $_{\text{Total}}$	1		
LBDQ $_{\text{Consideration}}$	0.86**	1	
	+++		
LBDQ $_{\text{Initiating structure}}$	0.88**	0.51**	1
	+++	++	
EPS $_{\text{Total}}$	0.38**	0.34**	0.32**
	+	+	+
EPS $_{\text{Your job}}$	0.26*	0.21*	0.25*
	+	+	+
EPS $_{\text{Quality of work life}}$	0.18*	0.20*	-
	+	+	
EPS $_{\text{Decision-making}}$	0.25*	0.22*	0.21*
	+	+	+
EPS $_{\text{Ideas, suggestions}}$	0.27*	0.22*	0.25*
	+	+	+
EPS $_{\text{Business}}$	0.21*	0.18*	0.19*
		+	+

*** $p \leq 0.001$ ** $p \leq 0.01$ * $p \leq 0.05$ (two – tailed)

+++ $r \geq 0.05$ (large practical effect size) ++ $r \geq 0.30$ (medium practical effect size)+ $r \geq 0.29$ (small practical effect size)

The results demonstrate that the total LBDQ possesses a significantly positive relationship with employee participation. In terms of effect size, most of the relationships between perceived leadership style and employee participation were significantly positive ($p < 0.05$ and $p < 0.01$), while some dimensions of both variables (LBDQ and EPS) were of small, medium and large effect in their total variance.

The perceived LBDQ consideration leadership style recorded a significant positive relationship of large effect with initiating structure and showed a significant positive relationship of small effect with all dimensions of EPS. However, the perceived LBDQ initiating structure leadership style showed a significant positive relationship of large effect with the perceived LBDQ consideration leadership style and all EPS dimensions, except for quality of work life, which exhibited no significant relationship.

6.3.2 The psychometric relationship between perceived leadership styles, sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout

The psychometric relationship between the perceived leadership styles, sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout is presented in Table 6.23 below.

Table 6.23 ***Psychometric relationship between perceived leadership styles, sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout***

	$LBDQ_{Total}$	$LBDQ_{Initiating\ Structure}$	$LBDQ_{Consideration}$
LBDQ Total	1		
LBDQ Initiating Structure	0.86**	1	
	+++		
LBDQ Consideration	0.88**	0.51**	1
	+++	+++	
OLQ Total	0.34**	0.31**	0.28*
	++	++	+
OLQ Comprehensibility	0.17*	0.17*	-
	+	+	
OLQ Manageability	0.34**	0.27*	0.30**
	++	+	++
OLQ Meaningfulness	0.28*	0.27*	0.20*
	+	+	+
UWES Total	0.19*	0.17*	0.17*
	+	+	+
UWES Vigour	0.14*	0.13*	0.14*
	+	+	+
UWES Dedication	0.25*	0.24*	0.19*
	+	+	+
UWES Absorption	-	-	-
MBI-GS Total	-0.22*	-0.23*	-
		+	
MBI-GS Exhaustion	-0.24*	-0.27*	-
	+	+	
MBI-GS Cynicism	-0.21**	-0.23*	-0.14*
	+	+	+
MBI-GS Professional	-	-	-

*** $p \leq 0.001$ ** $p \leq 0.01$ * $p \leq 0.05$ (two – tailed)

+++ $r \geq 0.05$ (large practical effect size) ++ $r \geq 0.30$ (medium practical effect size) + $r \geq 0.29$ (small practical effect size)

The results indicated the total LBDQ to have a significant positive relationship of medium effect with the total OLQ, a significant positive relationship of small effect with the total UWES and a significant negative relationship of small effect with the total MBI-GS. The perceived LBDQ consideration leadership style exhibited a significant positive relationship of medium effect with the total OLQ and a significant positive relationship of small effect with all three dimensions of OLQ (comprehensibility, manageability and meaningfulness).

Both the perceived LBDQ consideration and initiating structure leadership style recorded a significant positive relationship of small effect with the vigour and dedication dimensions of UWES, while the perceived LBDQ consideration leadership style showed a significant negative relationship of small effect with the absorption dimension of UWES. However, the perceived LBDQ consideration and initiating structure had no significant relationship with the professional efficacy dimension of MBI-GS and the absorption dimension of UWES. The perceived LBDQ Consideration and initiating structure leadership style displayed a significant negative relationship with both dimensions of MBI-GS, namely exhaustion and cynicism.

The results demonstrated that the perceived LBDQ initiating structure leadership style had a significant positive relationship with all the other constructs, except the UWES dimension of absorption and the MBI-GS dimension of professional efficacy, and a significant negative relationship with both the MBI-GS dimensions of cynicism and exhaustion.

6.3.3 Psychometric relationship between employee participation, sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout

The psychometric relationship between employee participation, sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout is presented in Table 6.24 below.

Table 6.24 ***Psychometric relationship between employee participation, sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout***

	EPS Total	EPS Job	EPS Quality of work life	EPS Decision Making & Problem Solving	EPS Ideas, Suggestion & Change	EPS Business
EPS Total	**1**					
EPS Job	0.52** +++	**1**				
EPS Quality of work life	0.56** +++	-	**1**			
EPS Decision Making & Problem Solving	0.72** +++	0.27** +	0.16* +	**1**		
EPS Ideas, Suggestion & Change	0.85** ++	0.16* +	0.27* ++	0.33** ++	**1**	
EPS Business	0.57** +++	0.32** ++	0.21* +	-	0.25* +	**1**
OLQ Total	0.30** ++	0.21* +	-	0.19* +	0.15* +	0.27* +
OLQ Comprehensibility	-	0.15* +	-	-	-	-
OLQ Manageability	0.37** ++	0.22* +	0.19* +	0.23* +	0.18* +	0.33** ++
OLQ Meaningfulness	0.19*	-	-	-	-	0.26* +
UWES Total	0.19*	-	-	-	-	0.23* +

Table 6.24 ***Psychometric relationship Continuous***

	EPS Total	EPS Job	EPS Quality of work life	EPS Decision Making & Problem Solving	EPS Ideas, Suggestion & Change	EPS Business
UWES Total	0.19* +	-	-	-	-	0.23* +
UWES Vigour	0.20* +	0.17* +	-	0.56** ++	-	0.33** ++
UWES Dedication	0.21* +	-	-	0.19* +	-	0.18* +
UWES Absorption	-	-	-	-	-	-
MBI-GS Total	-	-	-	-	-	-0.19* +
MBI-GS Exhaustion	-	-	0.15* +	-	-	-
MBI-GS Cynicism	-	-	-	-	-	-
MBI-GS Professional	-	-	-	-	-	-

With the exception of the UWES dimension of absorption, and the MBI-GS dimensions of exhaustion, cynicism, and professional efficacy, the results in the table above indicated a significant positive relationship of medium, large and small effect between the EPS dimensions and all dimensions of the OLQ and UWES and a significant negative relationship with both MBI-GS dimensions of exhaustion and cynicism.

Although it exhibited a significant relationship with all the other constructs, the EPS dimension of job did not have a significant relationship with the UWES as a whole, nor with the dimensions of dedication and absorption. The EPS job dimension indicated a significant positive relationship of small effect with the MBI-GS dimensions of exhaustion, cynicism and professional efficacy. The EPS dimension of quality of work life reflected a significant relationship of small effect with manageability, with the exception of the comprehensibility and meaningfulness dimensions of OLQ. The vigour and absorption dimensions of UWES and the MBI-GS dimension of cynicism showed a significant negative relationship of small effect with the MBI-GS dimension of professional efficacy. Similarly, the EPS dimension of decision making indicated a significant positive relationship of small effect with all dimensions, except for the comprehensibility dimension of OLQ, the vigour and absorption dimensions of UWES, and both MBI-GS dimensions of cynicism and professional efficacy.

The EPS dimension of ideas, suggestions and change only indicated a significant positive relationship of small effect with the business dimension and the manageability dimension of OLQ. Other dimensions did not reflect any significant relationship. The EPS dimension of business recorded a significant positive relationship of small effect with both total OLQ and UWES, except for the OLQ dimension of comprehensibility and the absorption dimension of UWES. However, the EPS dimension of business indicated a significant negative relationship of small effect with the total MBI-GS and its professional efficacy dimension.

6.3.4 Psychometric relationship between sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout

The psychometric relationship between sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout is presented in Table 6.25 below.

Table 6.25 ***Psychometric relationship between sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout***

	OLQ Total	OLQ Comprehensibility	OLQ Manageability	OLQ Meaningfulness
OLQ Total	1			
OLQ Comprehensibility	0.75** +++	1		
OLQ Manageability	0.83** +++	0.40* ++	1	
OLQ Meaningfulness	0.77** +++	0.34** ++	0.53** +++	**1**
UWES Total	-	-	0.17* +	0.23* +
UWES Vigour	0.19* +	-	0.21* +	0.26* =
UWES Dedication	0.11* +	-	0.14* +	0.22* +
UWES Absorption	-	-0.26* +	-	-
MBI-GS Total	-0.47** ++	-0.28*	-0.35** ++	-0.40** ++
MBI-GS Exhaustion	-0.37** ++	-0.26* +	-0.28* +	-0.33** ++
MBI-GS Cynicism	-0.35** ++	-0.17* +	-0.32** ++	-0.32** ++
MBI-GS Professional	-0.16** +	-	-	-0.16** +

The results demonstrated the total OLQ to possess a significant positive relationship of large effect with all its dimensions. The comprehensibility dimension of OLQ does not display any significant relationship with the vigour and dedication dimensions of UWES. The OLQ dimension of comprehensibility, however, indicates a significant negative relationship of small effect with the exhaustion, cynicism and professional efficacy dimensions of MBI-GS. Similarly, the manageability dimension of OLQ indicated a significant positive relationship of large effect with both manageability and meaningfulness OLQ dimensions. The comprehensibility dimension of OLQ reflected a significant positive relationship of small effect with vigour and dedication dimensions of the UWES, and a significant negative relationship of small effect with the MBI-GS dimensions of exhaustion and cynicism (significance – medium effect). The OLQ dimension of meaningfulness had a significant relationship of medium effect with both the vigour and dedication dimensions of UWES, with the exception of the absorption dimension. The OLQ dimension of meaningfulness also indicated a significant negative relationship of small effect with the exhaustion, cynicism, and professional efficacy dimensions of MBI-GS.

6.3.5 Psychometric relationship between work engagement and burnout

The psychometric relationship between work engagement and burnout is presented in Table 6.26 below.

Table 6.26

Psychometric relationship between work engagement and burnout

	UWES Total	UWES Vigour	UWES Dedication	UWES Absorption
UWES Total	1			
UWES Vigour	0.82** +++	1		
UWES Dedication	0.82** +++	0.54** +++	1	
UWES Absorption	0.82** +++	0.46** ++	-	**1**
MBI-GS Total	-0.25* +	0.32** ++	0.53** +++	-
MBI-GS Exhaustion	-	-	-0.36** ++	0.20* ++
MBI-GS Cynicism	-0.18* +	-0.20** +	-0.24* +	-
MBI-GS Professional	0.39** ++	-0.40** ++	-0.39** ++	-0.18* +

The results demonstrated that the total UWES had a significant positive relationship of large effect with the vigour, dedication and absorption dimensions. The vigour dimension reflects a significant positive relationship with the dedication and absorption dimensions, and a significant negative relationship with the total MBI-GS. The UWES dimension of vigour, however, indicates a significant negative relationship of medium effect with the total MBI-GS and a negative relationship of small effect with other dimensions, except for the exhaustion dimension of MBI-GS. The UWES dimension of dedication relfected a significant negative relationship of small effect with cynicism and a significant negative relationship of medium effect with the professional efficacy dimensions of MBI-GS. The UWES dimension of absorption indicates a significant positive relationship of small effect with the MBI-GS dimension of exhaustion, and a significant negative relationship of small effect with the professional efficacy dimension of MBI-GS.

6.3.6 Discussion of psychometric relationships

A graphic illustration of the significant relationships between the perceived leadership style, employee participation and positive psychology functioning is presented in Figure 6.7 below.

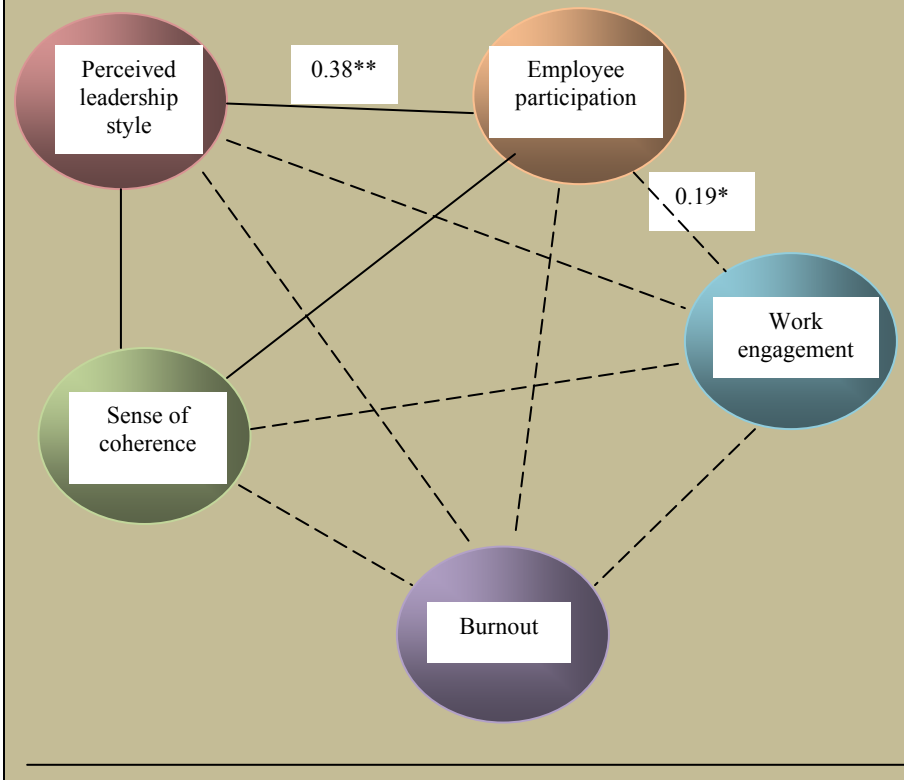


***Figure 6.7* Graphic illustrations of the significant relationships between behavioural constructs**

***p≤0.001 **p≤0.01 *p≤0.05 (two-tailed)

+++ r≥ 0.50 (large practical effect size) ++ r ≥ 0.30 ≤ 0.49 (medium practical effect size) + r ≤ 0.29 (small practical effect size)

6.3.6.1 Perceived leadership style and employee participation

As depicted in figure 6.7, the total perceived leadership style is related to the total employee participation. In other words, the more strongly the employee perceived

his/her leaders' style to be positive, the more he/she tends to participate in his/her work. The results suggest that the employee who perceives his/her leaders to be negative tends to experience low levels of participation, life satisfaction and commitment. This implies that the employee with a positive perception of his/her leaders' style, understands the purpose and duties of his/her job and has the freedom to make decisions regarding the best way to get the job done.

Conversely, if the employee is unable to understand the purpose and duties of his/her job, he/she will be less willing to participate in decision-making and problem solving and experience a low level of participation: this is associated with a negative perception of leadership style. Low employee participation implies that the employee may be vulnerable to experiencing loss of motivation, and reduction of interpersonal relationship.

6.3.6.2 The perceived leadership style and positive psychology functioning

As evident in figure 6.7, the total perceived leadership style is significantly related to the total sense of coherence and work engagement and inversely related to the total burnout score. This implies that the higher the perceived leadership style, the stronger the sense of coherence whiles the higher the work engagement of the employee, the lower the burnout experienced will be. The results suggest that employees with a weak sense of coherence, and low work engagement, will be more vulnerable to the development of burnout and to perceiving his/her leaders' style to be negative. The reported results imply that the employee who perceives his/her leaders' style to be positive, and who is confident that his/her internal and external environments are structured, predictable, who feels vigorous, full of energy, seems to be more dedicated to doing a better job and has the ability to become totally absorbed in the tasks he/she is busy with, is less likely to become exhausted and feel overextended. The employee who perceives his leaders' style as positive, with a high sense of coherence and high level of engagement, is less likely to perceive a crisis in his/her relationship with work and people at work.

Conversely, if employees are unable to perceive their leaders' style as positive, they tend to see the world as less unstructured, unpredictable, and inexplicable (low sense of coherence) and also tend to feel less vigorous, less energetic (low work engagement) and tend to experience a higher level of burnout. These employees also tend to perceive their leaders' style to be negative. A low sense of coherence implies that the employee is vulnerable to the experience of a loss of energy, depletion and fatigue. Psychologically, a loss of feeling and concern, trust, interest and spirit will be experienced. These feelings cause the employee to be prone to feeling exhausted, cynical and ineffective in the job (Bezuidenhout, 2008).

The reported relationship between leadership style, sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout, in the present study, suggests that employees who perceive their leaders' style as positive demonstrate a strong sense of coherence, perceive their world as being ordered, organised, consistent and predictable, appear to be able to make sense of their environment, and could be motivated to see their leader's behaviour as a challenge. In more precise terms, the results suggest that employees who display a high level of control and confidence in coping with and managing stressful demands (manageability) also perceive the leaders' style as comprising some of the events and challenges that can be controlled by them.

The results imply that the perceived positive leadership style is related to employees' engagement. The participants who perceived their leaders to be oriented towards goal attainment, to establishing well-defined channels of communication and focusing on the task (initiating structure), to demonstrating a higher level of consideration with regard to the welfare of employees, and to supporting and respecting them (consideration) seemed to demonstrate a high level of engagement. This is indicative of employees facing their daily tasks with emotional sense, mental resilience, motivation and perseverance (vigour), and enjoying what they are doing to the point of becoming completely absorbed.

The reported results with regard to the relationship between perceived leadership style and burnout suggest that the employees perceived their leaders' style as negative. This confirms that employees who score high in burnout will score low in perceived leadership and vice versa. The employee who experiences a high level of burnout will not perceive his/her leaders to be positive, to demonstrate high levels of consideration, mutual trust, and respect.

Conversely, it seems that the employee who perceives his/her leaders' style as positive will experience a low level of burnout. Cartwright and Cooper (1994) as well as Sosik and Godshalk (2000) suggest that leaders who are perceived as negative, often adopt a controlling instead of a supportive style, while those who fail to clarify responsibilities, provide supportive feedback or exert pressure may expect subordinates who report high levels of burnout. However, leaders who are perceived as positive could motivate their employees and create a context which decreases burnout.

6.3.6.3 Employee participation and positive psychology functioning

As evident in figure 6.7 the total employee participation, sense of coherence, work engagement are related. However, the quality of work life dimension of employee participation is inversely related to the exhaustion dimension of burnout, implying that the higher the level of employees' participation, the stronger the sense of coherence, and the higher the work engagement the lower the burnout level will be. The results suggest that the employee with a low level of participation in his/her work, with a weak sense of coherence, and a low level of engagement may be more vulnerable to the development of burnout. This could imply that employees who demonstrate a strong sense of coherence may feel that the world makes cognitive sense and perceive situations that confront them as consistent, structured, clear and predictable. The employees hold the conviction that they possess enough of the required resources to deal with the situation, and feel motivated to face life's difficult situations as worthwhile challenges. The employee who feels vigorous and full of energy is likely to participate in the work, and regard working conditions as satisfying, understand how he/she is

affecting profitability and influencing costs as well as graspinghis/her impact on the organisation. The result further suggest that an employee with a high level of participation in the work, a high sense of coherence, and a high level of engagement is not likely to perceive a crisis in his/her interpersonal relationship. Rothmann, Steyn and Mostert (2005) indicate that employees who demonstrate a strong sense of coherence generally experience less burnout and more engagement. They also posit that this is presumably because stimuli from the environment are perceived as making cognitive sense (comprehensible), as being under the control of both employees and legitimate others (manageable), and as being motivationally relevant and meaningful (meaningfulness). Thus, employees who display a weak sense of coherence could experience difficulties in structuring their work in order for it to be understandable, orderly and consistent (Rothmann et al., 2005).

6.3.6.4 Sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout

As shown in figure 6.1 the total sense of coherence and the vigour and dedication dimensions of work engagement are related and inversely related to the total burnout score, implying that the stronger the sense of coherence, the higher the level of work engagement of the employee, the lower the burnout level experienced will be. The results suggest that the employee with a weak sense of coherence may be more exposed to the development of burnout. This implies that the employee who understands the demands of his/her job feels that he/she is able to manage the demands set before him/her and is able to find meaning in his/her work-life, will feel vigorous, full of energy, be dedicated to doing a great job and possess the ability to become totally absorbed in the tasks he/she is busy with.

The results seem to suggest that an employee with a low sense of coherence will not score highly on work engagement. Employees with a low sense of coherence will not be happily engrossed in their work, forget about the passing of time, nor find pleasure in their daily job.

Since all relationships are significant, large, medium and small interactions between the constructs of positive psychology functioning exist. It is clear that the sense of coherence is related to both levels of burnout and work engagement in a negative and positive direction.

6.3.6.5 Work engagement and burnout

As depicted in figure 6.7 the results for the relationship between burnout and work engagement reflect a negative relationship. This confirms that employees who score high on burnout will score low on work engagement, and vice versa. The employee who experiences burnout symptoms such as a loss of energy, depletion, debilitation, fatigue, concern, trust and interest, will not exhibit vigour, dedication or be engrossed in his/her job.

Conversely, it appears that the employee who experiences high levels of work engagement, and who demonstrates full energy, feels dedicated to his/her job, and has the ability to become absorbed in his/her work, will not feel exhausted, chronically fatigued, cynical and inefficient in his/her in his work. Howard (2008) perceived sense of coherence as a relatively stable personality orientation, which develops early on in one's work career. Sense of coherence has been found to be positively related to well-being and negatively related to both stress and burnout (Hakanen, 2004; Levert, Lucus & Ortlepp, 2000; Rothmann, Malan & Rothmann, 2001). These findings support Strümpfer's (1990) view that an individual with a strong sense of coherence will be able to develop mechanisms to cope by applying resources within his or her or another individual's control, rather than by becoming helpless. These findings support Rothmann, Steyn and Mostert's (2005) view that employees who demonstrate a high level of engagement experience a low level of burnout. Therefore, the findings of Schaufeli, Martinez, Pinto, Salanova and Bakker (2002), that burnout and engagement are related but distinct concepts, were confirmed in the present study.

6.4 PREDICTIVE VALUE OF BEHAVIOURAL CONSTRUCTS

Multiple regressions analyses are now reported in examining the predictive value of the behavioural constructs of leadership styles, sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout as regards employee participation.

6.4.1 Predictive value of leadership styles, sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout for employee participation

The predictive value, for employee participation, of leadership styles, sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout is presented in Tables 6.27, 6.28, and 6.29 below.

6.4.1.1 Summary of the R, R Square and Adjusted R in the predictive value of the behavioural constructs

A summary of the R, R Square and Adjusted R in the predictive value of the behavioural constructs is presented in Table 6.27 below.

Table 6.27 ***A summary of the R, R Square and Adjusted R in predictive value of the behavioural constructs***

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	SE of the estimate
1	0,438	0,192	0,175	7.616

a. Predictors: (constant) leadership style, sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout

6.4.1.2 The significance level in the predictive value of the behavioural constructs

The significance level in the predictive value of the behavioural constructs is presented in Table 6.28 below.

Table 6.28

Significance level in the predictive value of the behavioural constructs

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	2680.814	4	670.204	11.556	0,000
Regression	11309.566	195	57.998		
Residual	13990.380	199			
Total					

Predictors: leadership style, sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout

Dependent Variable: Employee participation

6.4.1.3 The Beta coefficients in the predictive value of the behavioural constructs

The Beta coefficients in the predictive value of the behavioural constructs are presented in Table 6.29 below.

Table 6.29

Beta coefficients in the predictive value of the behavioural constructs

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	34.775	7.220		4.817	0,000
Leadership style	0,260	0,061	0,296	4.269	0,000
SenseofCoherence	0,098	0,033	0,218	2.941	0,004
Work engagement	0,071	0,037	0,128	1.903	0,059
Burnout	0,052	0,047	0,082	1.116	0,269

Dependent Variable: Employee participation

***ρ≤0.001 **ρ≤0.05 + R2≤0.12 (small practical effect size) ++R2≥0.13≤0.25 (medium practical effect size)

The multiple regressions formula for predicting employee participation (EPS) can be written as follows:

EP= 34.775 + 0.26 (perceived leadership style) + 0.098 (sense of coherence) + 0.071(work engagement).

The adjusted R square is very low indeed (0, 192), indicating that 19.2 per cent of the variance in the dependent variable can be explained by the independent variables (Table 6.27 above). Similarly, the analysis of variance is highly statistically significant (0,000), indicating that the relationship between leadership styles, sense of coherence, work engagement, burnout and employee participation is very strong.

Table 6.27 above reflects the Beta (β) weighting of the four independent variables. In observing the "Standardised Coefficients", it is important to note that the Beta weightings for all of the independent variables are calculated relative to each other, rather than independent of each other. With regard to Table 6.27, the following is worth noting:

- The independent variable of perceived leadership style predicted the dependent variable of employee participation (β=0.296, ρ >0.001), and this is a statistically modest significance of 0,000, which is considered to be stronger than 0,001.

- The independent variable of sense of coherence predicted the dependent variable of employee participation (β=0.218), and is statistically significant (at 0.004, ρ > 0.05).

- The independent variable of work engagement predicted the dependent variable of employee participation (β=0.128), and is statistically significant (at 0.059, ρ > 0.10).

- The independent variable of burnout has not predicted the dependent variable of employee participation (β= 0.082), and is not statistically significant (at 0.266, ρ > 0.05).

From the above interpretations, one can observe that, relative to each other, perceived leadership style predicted more accurately as regards the level of employee participation, followed by sense of coherence and work engagement. Burnout did not exert any influence and was statistically insignificant.

6.4.2 Discussion of the predictive value of behavioural constructs

An illustration of the predictive value of behavioural constructs is given in Figure 6.8 below.

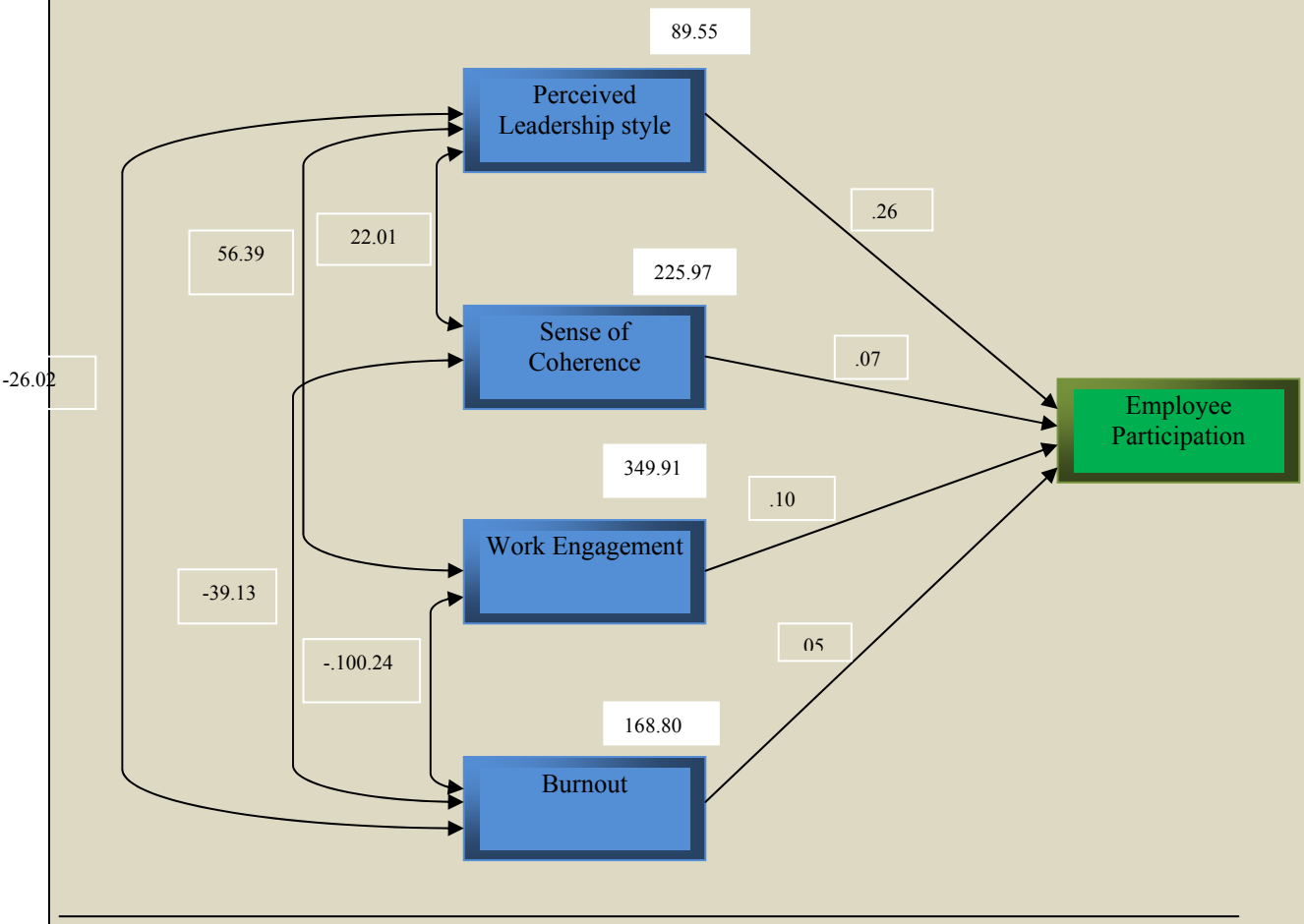


Figure 6.8 **Discussion of the predictive value of behavioural constructs**

***ρ≤0.001 **ρ≤0.05 + R2≤0.12 (small practical effect size) ++R2≥0.13≤0.25 (medium practical effect size)

The empirical research in this study proved that perceived leadership style, sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout explain 19.2% of the variance in employee participation.

As shown in figure 6.8 the perceived leadership styles, sense of coherence, work engagement were found to be significant predictors of employee participation. These three independent variables together accounted for 19.2% of the variance in this

dependent variable. Burnout did not contribute significantly to the employee participation model.

The results demonstrate that perceived leadership style, work engagement and sense of coherence contribute significantly to explaining employees' participation in the work. The participating employee who perceives his/her leaders' style as positive, who felt more engaged, felt vigorous and full of energy (high work engagement), and who is confident that his/her internal and external environments are structured, predictable, and explicable (high sense of coherence), seems to be more willing to participate in his/her work. The employee who is willing to participate in his/her work will increase effort, which consequently improves efficiency and productivity and commitment (Cabrera, Ortega & Cabrera, 2003).

The results further indicate that an employee who fails to perceive his/her leaders' style as positive, who felt less engaged, who sees his/her internal and external environments as unstructured, unpredictable and unexplainable, and who feels less vigorous, seems to be less likely to participate in the work.

6.5 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN BEHAVIOURAL CONSTRUCTS

The ANOVA was reported in order to compare the differences in mean scores between leadership styles, employee participation, and sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout with regard to the biographical constructs (gender, age, educational levels, and functional department).

6.5.1 The significance of differences between the behavioural constructs with regard to gender

The significance of differences between perceived leadership styles, employee participation, sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout with gender is presented in Table 6.30 below.

Table 6.30

The significance of differences between behavioural constructs according to gender

Variables	Gender	N	Std. Deviation	df	Significance
Leadership styles	Male	120	10.463	1	0.512
	Female	80	8.030	1	
Employee participation	Male	120	8.583	1	0.596
	Female	80	8.099	1	
Sense of coherence	Male	120	19.644	1	0.894
	female	80	17.451	1	
Work engagement	Male	120	14.533	1	0.621
	Female	80	15.879	1	
Burnout	Male	120	12.818	1	0.065*
	Female	20	13.454	1	

**Statistically significant: p-value below 0, 05

* Statistical significant: p- value below 0.10

Table 6.30 above indicates that a statistically significant difference was found between the biographical profile of gender and the burnout variables (p=0.65 at p < .010). In terms of the means, females reported a higher level of burnout, with a mean of 109.74, than males did, with a mean of 94.34. No statistically significant difference was found between the biographical profile of gender and leadership style, employee participation or sense of coherence.

6.5.2 Bonferroni post-hoc test of comparisons between work engagement and burnout and biographical variables

A summary of the Bonferroni post-hoc test of comparisons between the behavioural constructs of work engagement and burnout and the biographical variable of age is presented in Table 6.31 below. Only age was found to be significantly different.

Table 6.31

Summary of the Bonferroni pair-wise multiple comparisons of work engagement and burnout with regard to age

Variables	Age	Less than 25 years	25 - 40	40 – 55	55 and more
Work Engagement	Less than 25 years		0.079*		
	25 – 40				
	40 – 55				
	55 and more				
Burnout	Less than 25 years				
	25 – 40	0.079*			
	40 – 55				0.085*
	55 and more			0.085*	

Significance levels: * *p ≤ 0.05

*p ≤ 0.10

The ANOVA results of the post hoc test using the Bonferroni test(see appendix C) indicate that there are five variables that differ significantly with regard to age groups, educational level and functional department, and perceived leadership style, employee participation and positive psychology functioning. Table 6.31 above indicates that for burnout, employees younger than 25 years of age differed significantly from the 25-40 year age group (p-value 0.079 at 0.10 levels), with a mean difference of 7.141*. The score for burnout in the first group was significantly higher than that for employees in the 25-40 year age group.

The results of work engagement indicate that there are significant differences between employees in the 40-55 year age group and those of 55 years and more (p-value 0.079 at 0.10) with a mean difference of 8.654* for work engagement in the 40-55 year age group which was significantly higher than in the 55 years and over age group. The score for work engagement in the age group of 40–55 was significantly higher than that for employees in the 55 and older age group.

6.5.3 Bonferroni post-hoc test comparisons between behavioural constructs and educational levels

A summary of the Bonferroni post-hoc test of comparisons between perceived leadership styles, employee participation, and sense of coherence, work engagement, burnout and educational levels is presented in Table 6.32 below.

Table 6.32

Summary of Bonferroni pairwise multiple comparisons between behavioural constructs and the biographical variable of educational level

Variables	Educational levels	Primary educational level	Secondary education level	University (Bachelor) educational level	Masters & Doctorate level
Leadership styles	Primary educational				0.60*
	Secondary educational				054*
	University (bachelor)				0.89*
	masters & doctorate	0.16**	0.54*	0.89*	
Employee participation	Primary educational				0.17**
	Secondary educational	0.90*			
	University (bachelor)				0.14**
	masters & doctorate			0.14**	
Sense of Coherence	Primary educational				0.30**
	Secondary educational				0.22**
	University (bachelor)				0.35**
	masters & doctorate	0.39**	0.22**	0.35**	
Work engagement	Primary educational		0.60*	0.05**	0.29**
	Secondary educational				
	University (bachelor)				
	masters & doctorate	0.28**			
Burnout	Primary educational				0.22**
	Secondary educational				0.17**
	University (bachelor)				0.23**
	masters & doctorate	0.22**	017**	0.23**	

Significance levels: **p ≤ 0.05

*p ≤ 0.10

Table 6.32 above demonstrates that for perceived leadership style, employees with a primary level of education differed significantly from those employees who had attained

a masters or doctoral educational level (p-value 0.060 at 0.10 level), with a mean difference of 7.286*. The scores for the perceived leadership styles amongst employees with a masters or doctoral educational level were significantly higher than those of employees with a secondary educational level (p- value 0.054 at 0.10 level), with a mean difference of 4.424*.

The results for employee participation and educational level indicated that employees who had attained a primary educational level differed significantly from employees with a masters or doctoral educational level in terms of participation. Those with the latter (p-value 0.017 at 0.05 levels) had a mean difference of 8.095**. The scores for employees with a bachelor's degree level of education differed significantly from those of employees with a masters or doctoral educational level. Those with a masters or doctoral educational level (p-value 0.014 at 0.05 levels) had a mean difference of 3.656**. The score for participation of employees who had attained such an educational level was significantly higher than for those employees with a primary and bachelor's level of education.

The results for work engagement and educational level showed that employees possessing a primary educational level differed significantly from those with a secondary, bachelor's, and masters or doctoral educational level in terms of work engagement. Those with a secondary educational level (p-value 0.060 at 0.10 level) recorded a mean difference of 11.793*, while those with a bachelor's degree (p-value 0.005 at 0.05 level) had a mean difference of 16.197**, and those with a masters or doctoral educational level (p-value 0.029 at 0.05 level) recorded a mean difference of 13.333**. The work engagement score of employees with a bachelor's qualification was higher than the scores of employees with primary, secondary and masters and doctoral educational levels.

The results for burnout and educational level indicated that employees who had attained a masters or doctoral degree differed significantly from those with a primary educational level (p-value 0.022 at 0.05 level), who had a mean difference of 12.238**, while those

with a secondary educational level (p-value 0.017 at 0.05 level) had a mean difference of 7.548**, and those with a bachelor's educational level (p-value 0.023 at 0.05 level), a mean difference of 5.295**. The burnout scores of employees with a primary educational level were higher than those of employees who had attained secondary, bachelors, masters and doctoral educational levels.

6.5.4 Bonferroni Post-hoc test comparisons between perceived leadership styles, employee participation and functional department

A summary of the Bonferroni post-hoc test comparisons between perceived leadership styles, employee participation and functional department is presented in Table 6.33 below.

Table 6.33

Summary of Bonferroni pairwise multiple comparisons between behavioural constructs of leadership style and employee participation and biographical variable of functional department

Variables	Functional Departments	Human Resources	Financial management	Distribution & Sales	Technical management	Project management	Exploitation management
Leadership styles	H. Resources				0.045**	0.095*	
	Financial						0.079*
	Dist & Sales						0.010**
	Technical	0.045**					0.002**
	Project	0.095*	0.060*	0.022**			0.059*
	Exploitation		0.079*	0.010**	0.002**	0.059*	
Employee participation	H. Resources						
	Financial					0.060*	
	Dist. & Sales					0.052*	
	Technical					0.022**	0.092*
	Project						
	Exploitation				0.092*		

Significance levels: **p ≤ 0.05

*p ≤ 0.10

Table 6.33 above contains summaries of the Bonferroni multiple comparisons between perceived leadership style and employee participation, and the six functional departments. The post hoc test table indicates that for the perceived leadership style, employees working in the human resources department differed significantly from those working in the technical department (p-value 0.045 at 0.05 level), with a mean difference of 4.622*. Employees working in the financial management department differed significantly from those in the exploitation management department (p-value 0.079 at 0.10 level), with a mean difference of 4.113*. Employees in the distribution and sales department differed significantly from those in the exploitation management department (p-value 0.010 at 0.05 level), with a mean difference of 6.013**. Employees in the technical management department differed significantly from those in the exploitation management department (p-value 0.002 at 0.05 level), with a mean difference of 7.189**. Those in the project management department differed significantly from employees in the exploitation management department (p-value 0.059 at 0.10 level), with a mean difference of 4.395*. The perceived leadership style scores of those in the exploitation management department were higher than the scores of employees in the human resources, financial, technical and project management departments.

The results demonstrated that as regards employee participation, those working in the human resources department differed significantly from those in the project management department (p-value 0.095 at 0.10 level), with a mean difference of 3.416*. Those in the financial management department differed significantly from those in the project management department (p-value 0.060 at 0.10 level), with a mean difference of 3.840*. Employees working in the project management department differed significantly from those in the distribution and sales department (p-value 0.052 at 0.10 level), with a mean difference of 3.941*. Those in the project management department differed significantly from those in the technical management department (p-value 0.022 at 0.05 level), with a mean difference of 4.676**. Those in the exploitation management department differed significantly from those in the technical management department (p-value 0.092 at 0.10 level), with a mean difference of 3.474*. The employee participation scores of employees in the project management department were higher

than the scores of those working in the exploitation management, human resources, financial management, distribution and sales, and technical management departments.

6.5.5 Discussion of significance of differences between behavioural constructs

In the next section the significances of differences between behavioural constructs and gender, age, educational levels and functional departments are discussed.

6.5.5.1 Gender

The results in table 6.28 suggest that female employees experienced higher levels of burnout than males. This implies that female employees seem to be more exhausted and feel more overextended than male counterparts. The results further indicate that female employees are more likely to perceive a crisis in their relationships with work and people at work than males are. Cooper, Dewe and O'Driscoll (2001) as well as Norlund, Reuterwall, Höög, Lindahl Janlert and Birgander (2010) indicate that females in the workplace experience stressful situations such as greater workloads and inter-role conflicts, especially those existing between work and family. However, males seem more likely to feel depersonalised and callous emotions about the people they work with. These findings support Stein and Murray's (1998) view that men cope better with stressful situations than women do.

6.5.5.2 Age

The results in table 6.29 show that for burnout employees in the younger than 25 years old age group differ significantly from those in the age group of 25-44. Employees who are less than 25 years old tend to experience a higher level of burnout compared to employees in the age group of 25-40 years. Burnout is greatest when employees are younger, while it is lower for older employees. As their age increases people become stable and mature, adopt a more balanced perspective on life and are less prone to the excesses of burnout (Bezuidenhout, 2008).

Younger employees seem to experience burnout symptoms such as a loss of energy, depleted resources, debilitation, fatigue, concern and trust more than employees between 25-40 years old. Schaufeli and Enzumann (1998) found, in this regard, that younger employees with fewer years of experience generally reflect lower levels of engagement. Maslash, Jackson and Leiter (1996) are of the view that high levels of burnout are present among younger employees with fewer years of experience. This implies that employees who are less than 25 years old seem to experience more burnout symptoms as regards work experience.

6.5.5.3 Educational level

The results indicate that employees who have attained a primary educational level differ from those with higher degrees with regards to the perceived leadership style. The latter obtained higher mean scores on the perceived leadership style, compared to those with primary education. This indicates that employees at higher educational levels perceive their leaders' style as more positive compared to those with primary education.

The results further showed that employees with primary education differ from those who have attained bachelor's, masters and doctorate educational levels. Employees at the masters and doctoral level scored higher in employee participation compared to employees who had reached primary and bachelor's educational levels. This implies that employees with a higher level of education tend to understand the purpose of the job better, as well as possessing the freedom to make decisions regarding how to perform their job and produce quality work.

The results indicated that employees at primary, secondary and bachelor's educational levels differ from those with masters and doctoral degrees in terms of the sense of coherence. Employees with masters and doctoral qualifications scored higher in the sense of coherence compared to employees at primary, secondary and bachelor's educational levels. The employees with a bachelor's degree also scored higher than

those who had reached secondary and primary educational levels. This seems to indicate that an employee with a masters, doctoral or bachelor's degree who is confident that her/his external and internal environments are structured, predictable, explicable tends to be more likely to view a stressor as being a welcome challenge, and to feel confident that he/she can handle it (Feldt, 1997). These findings support Jackson's (1992) view that sense of coherence increases with educational level.

The reported results indicate that employees at primary, secondary; masters and doctoral educational levels differ from those with a bachelor's degree in terms of work engagement: the last mentioned scored highest. The results seem to suggest that such an employee experiences a high level of work engagement, and is consequently full of energy, feels dedicated to his/her job and has the ability to become totally absorbed in his/her work compared to those at other levels. These findings support Schaufeli and Bakker's (2003) view that differences in levels of engagement between occupational groups exist, but these are also not of any practical significance. Professions that typically display high levels of work engagement are managers, entrepreneurs and farmers. Professions that typically manifest low levels of work engagement are blue-collar, police officers and home care staff (Bezuidenhout, 2008).

The results indicated that employees with a masters or doctoral degree differ from those at other levels. Employees at the primary educational level scored higher than employees at all other levels in terms of the burnout construct. This seems to indicate that employees at this educational level tend to experience burnout symptoms such as loss of energy, debility, fatigue, concern, lower trust and interest. However, the findings were inconsistent with a previous study by Maslash (1982), which indicated that employees with a higher level of education are more prone to burnout.

6.5.5.4 Functional department

Overall, the results suggest that in terms of the perceived leadership style, an employee working in the human resources department differs from employees in the technical

management department, financial management department, distribution and sales management department, project and exploitation management departments. Those working in the exploitation management department scored higher than those in the human resources, technical, financial, distribution and sales, and project management departments. The results indicated that employees in the exploitation management department perceived their leaders' style as being positive compared to those working in the human resources department, technical, financial, distribution and sales, and project management department. This implies that employees in the exploitation management department perceived their leaders' style as tending to demonstrate high levels of mutual trust and respect for his/her employees, and to allow them to participate in decision making.

The reported results also seem to indicate that employees working in the project management department differ from those in the human resources, technical management, financial management, distribution and sales and exploitation management departments in terms of employees' participation. Employees working in the project management department obtained higher mean scores than those in other departments. This implies that they tend to demonstrate a high level of participation in the work, seem to understand the purpose and duties of their job and have the freedom to decide how to better perform their job.

With regard to the significant differences between behavioural constructs and educational level, the findings indicate that these exist between the perceived leadership styles, employee participation, sense of coherence, work engagement, and burnout and educational levels.

As regards the significant differences between the behavioural constructs and biographical variable of functional department, the findings indicate that there are partially significant differences between the perceived leadership styles, employee participation and functional departments. Therefore, H3 can be partially accepted for gender and functional department and accepted for educational levels. Thus, the third

objective identified at the beginning of the study has been achieved, namely to describe the significance of differences between behavioural constructs.

SUMMARY

Based on the results it can be concluded that, if women have a higher level of burnout, they will perceive any crisis in their relationship with their work and people at work ok than males. If the employees are less than 25 years (of age), they will experience a high level of burnout. If the employee has attained a masters or doctorate then he/she will perceive leaders more positively, experience more participation and demonstrate a higher sense of coherence. If the employee gained a bachelor's degree, then he/she will demonstrate a higher level of work engagement. However, if the employee is at the primary educational level, he/she will demonstrate a higher level of burnout. If employees are working in the exploitation management department they will perceive their leaders' style as positive while if they are in the project management functional department, they will participate more in their work.

6.6 INTEGRATION OF RESULTS

The next section integrates significant findings of the empirical study (chapter 6) with findings of the literature review (chapters 2, 3 and 4).

Cognitive behaviour.

The empirical results indicate that some of these employees in the given company make cognitive sense of the workplace and perceive it to be clear, ordered, structured, consistent and predictable; perceive challenges in their environment to be bearable; make emotional and motivational sense of demands, and welcome these demands as challenges worthy of engaging in. Decision making is based on knowledge, opinions and ideas. This supports Cilliers and Kossuth's (2002) view that a work environment which is predictable and manageable, and where the employee can participate in

decision making and has a say in regulating his or her work, increases the sense of coherence because work is experienced as being meaningful.

On the cognitive behaviour of these results, it is clear that there is a positive relationship between employee participation, sense of coherence and work engagement. The empirical results indicate that an employee who is confident that his/her internal and external environments are structured, predictable and explicable or who understands the demands of his/her job, who is full of vigour and energy, feels that he is able to manage the demands and tends to participate in his or her work. Strong support was found for the existence of a significant relationship between employee participation, sense of coherence and work engagement in employees in the manufacturing company.

From the empirical results of the predictive values of the behavioural construct, it is evident that sense of coherence and work engagement were predictors of employee participation. Cognitively, an employee who makes sense of his/her environment, comprehends challenges and who can order, structure and organise information in a clear manner, and who feels more engaged, vigorous and full of energy, seems to be more involved in his/her work or wants to participate in his/her work.

Significant differences could be found between employee participation, sense of coherence, and work engagement and educational levels, functional department with regards to the biographical variables. This implies that the higher the educational level (masters and doctorate), the higher the employee's scores on participation and sense of coherence are expected to be. The results also reveal that the higher the educational level ok (bachelor), the higher are the employees' scores on work engagement.

Affective behaviour.

In this regard, employees experience high levels of energy and feel connected to their work environment. Such an employee displays resilience and the willingness to invest

effort in his/her job, and persists in the face of difficulties or adversities; feels pride when experiencing success, and sometimes has his/her feelings challenged by the environment. Employees identify strongly with their work and find it to be meaningful. On the other hand, some employees tend to be unhappy and are not totally immersed in it. This does not completely support Schaufeli and Bakker's (2003) view that engaged employees have a sense of energy and affective connection with their tasks, and see themselves as being able to deal with the demands of their job; experience a sense of significance, enthusiasm and inspiration, are able to concentrate, and are happily engrossed in their work.

A strong significant relationship between employee participation and work engagement and the affective behaviour of employee in the manufacturing company was found. The implication is that an employee with a high level of engagement will indeed participate in his/her work.

The predictive value regarding affective behaviour revealed that work engagement accounted for 3.7% of the variance in the employee participation. Affectively, from these results it can be inferred that an employee who feels vigorous, full of energy, and who is emotionally invested, and feels pride when she/he experiences achievement (high level of engagement), will show willingness to participate in his/her work.

Significant differences were reported between work engagement and educational level. This implies that the higher the educational level (bachelor), the higher the level employees' scores on work engagement, while the higher the educational level (masters and doctorate), the higher the employees' levels of participation are expected to be.

Motivational behaviour.

Employees experienced events in life as situations that are endurable or manageable, or also as a new challenge. They possess the resources to achieve their goals, and

through making use of these resources, develop quality relationships with others, as well as influencing their environment and acting with determination in order to affect what happens to them. They are also able to succeed in challenging tasks.

A strong significant relationship between sense of coherence and work engagement at the motivational behaviour of employee in a manufacturing company was found. The implication is that the employee believes resources are available and possesses the internal resources needed to reach his/her goals, and he/she is motivated to achieve his/her personal and work goals. He/she feels energetic, skilled and able to influence his/her environment positively.

The predictive values on motivational behaviour reveal that the sense of coherence and work engagement contributed to predicting employee participation. Employees are motivated to achieve their personal and work goals, feel vigorous, full of energy, enthusiatic, dedicated and proud of their jobs, and participate in their work.

Significant differences could be found between work engagement and age, and sense of coherence and work engagement with educational levels. This implies that the higher their age is, particularly between 40-55 years, the higher the level of employees' scores on the work engagement will be. Furthermore, the higher their educational levels (masters and doctorate), the higher the employees' scores on the sense of coherence will be. The significant differences reveal also that, the higher the educational level (bachelor), the higher the employees' scores on work engagement will be.

Interpersonal behaviour.

The employee ensures possessing the neccesary information, and developing quality relationships with colleages, which lead him/her to positive work-related interactions. He/she shows a strong interest as well as prefers to be close to other organisational members, being open to participation, and sharing information, communication, cooperation, with the objective of contributing towards a positive workplace

environment. This supports Pant (2001) and Winder's (2008) views that the employee who is motivated, empowered, and provided with information will interact with other members in the organisation, share information and better perform his or her tasks.

A strong significant relationship between employee participation and work engagement at the interpersonal behaviour of employees in the manufacturing company was found. The implication is that the employee feels vigorous and full of energy, possesses the necessary information, develops quality relationships, interacts with his/her colleagues and participates in his/her work.

The predictive values on interpersonal behaviour indicate that work engagement is a good predictor of the employee participation. Interpersonally, the employees feel vigorous and full of energy, are inspired and strive to be involved and engaged and then participate in decision-making and problem-solving.

Significant differences could be found between work engagement and age, and employee participation with educational levels and functional departments. This implies that the higher the age is, between 40–55 years, the higher the employees' scores on the work engagement will be.

The significant differences indicate also that the higher the educational levels (masters and doctorate), the higher the employees' scores on participation will be. The more the employee works in the project management department, the higher the employees' scores on employee participation will be. This concludes the integration of empirical findings and the literature.

6.7 SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The research results in the overall discussion indicated that there is a relationship between perceived leadership styles, employee participation and positive psychology functioning. From the above discussion of the research results, the following summaries of hypotheses are derived in the tables below.

Table 6.34

Restating the hypothesis

Significant relationships between variables	Perceived leadership style	Employee participation	Sense of coherence	Work engagement
Employee participation	H01: rejected/ not rejected H1: **accepted/** rejected H1: There is a significant relationship between perceived leadership style and employee participation			
Sense of coherence	H01: rejected/ not rejected H1**: accepted/** rejected H1: There is a significant relationship between perceived leadership style and sense of coherence	H01: rejected/ not rejected H1**: accepted/** rejected H1: There is a significant relationship between employee participation and sense of coherence		

Table 6.34
Restating the hypothesisContinuous

Significant relationships between variables	Perceived Leadership style	Employee Participation	Sense of coherence	Work engagement
Work engagement	H01: rejected/ not rejected H1**:** **accepted/** rejected H1: There is a significant relationship between perceived leadership style and work engagement	H01: rejected/ not rejected H1**:** **accepted/** rejected H1: There is a significant relationship between employee participation and work engagement	H01: rejected/ not rejected H1**:** **accepted/** rejected H1: There is a significant relationshi p between sense of coherence and work engageme nt	
Burnout	H01: rejected/ not rejected H1: **accepted/** rejected H1: There is a significant relationship negative between perceived leadership style and burnout	H01: rejected/ not rejected H1**:** **accepted/** rejected H1: There is a significant negative relationship between employee participation and burnout	H01: rejected/ not rejected H1**:** **accepted/** rejected H1: There is a significant negative relationshi p between sense of coherence and burnout	H01: rejected/ not rejected H1**:** **accepted/** rejected H1: There is a significant negative relationship between work engagement and burnout

In all cases H01 is a statement that there is no significant relationship between perceived leadership style, employee participation and positive psychology functioning.

*In all cases H1 is a statement that there is a significant relationship between perceived leadership, employee participation and positive psychology functioning.

Table 6.35

Summary of results regarding prediction (regression)

Predictive value of relevant variables on employee participation	Employee participation
Perceived leadership style	H02: rejected/ not rejected H2: **accepted**/ rejected H2: perceived leadership style is a predictor of employee participation
Sense of coherence	H02: rejected/ not rejected H2: **accepted**/ rejected H2: sense of coherence is a predictor of employee participation
Work engagement	H02: rejected/ not rejected H2: **accepted**/ rejected H2: work engagemnet is a predictor of employee participation
Burnout	H02: rejected/ not rejected H2: accepted/ **rejected** H2: burnout is not a predictor of employee participation

*In all cases H02 is a statement that employee participation is not predicted by perceived leadership style, sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout.

* In all cases H2 is a statement that employee participation is predicted by perceived leadership style, sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout

Table 6.36

Results regarding comparison of groups for specific variables (T-test & ANOVA)

Mean Scores of variables compared	2 group (T-test) **Gender**	4 groups (ANOVA) **Age**	4 groups (ANOVA) **Educational level**	6 groups (ANOVA) **Functional Department**
Perceived leadership style	H03: rejected /not rejected H3: accepted / **rejected** **H3:** No sign of differences between gender groups on perceived leadership style	H03: rejected /not rejected H3: accepted / **rejected** **H3:** No sign of differences between age groups on perceived leadership style	H03: rejected /not rejected H3: **accepted** / rejected **H3:** There is a sign of differences between educational level groups on perceived leadership style	H03: rejected /not rejected H3: **accepted** / rejected **H3:** There is a sign of differences between functional department groups on perceived leadership style
Employee participation	H03: rejected /not rejected H3: accepted / **rejected** **H3:** No sign of differences between gender groups on perceived employee participation	H03: rejected /not rejected H3: accepted / **rejected** **H3:** No sign of differences between age groups on employee participation	H03: rejected /not rejected H3: **accepted** / rejected **H3:** There is a sign of differences between educational level groups on employee participation	H03: rejected /not rejected H3: **accepted /** rejected **H3:** There is a sign. of differences between functional department groups on employee participation
Sense of coherence	H03: rejected / not rejected H3: accepted /**rejected** **H3:** No sign of differences between gender groups on sense of coherence	H03: rejected /not rejected H3: accepted / **rejected** **H3:** No sign of differences between age groups on sense of coherence	H03: rejected /not rejected H3: **accepted** / rejected) **H3:** There is a sign of differences between educational level groups on sense of coherence	H03: rejected /not rejected H3: accepted / **rejected** **H3:** No sign of differences between functional department groups on sense of coherence

Table 6.36
Results regarding comparison of group Continuous

Mean Scores of variables compared	2 group (T-test) Gender	4 groups (ANOVA) Age	4 groups (ANOVA) Educational level	6 groups (ANOVA) Functional Department
Work engagement	H03: rejected /not rejected H3: accepted **/ rejected** **H3:** No sign of differences between gender groups on work engagement	H03: rejected /not rejected H3: **accepted** / rejected **H3:** There is a sign of differences between age groups on work engagement	H03: rejected /not rejected H3: **accepted** / rejected **H3:** There is a sign of differences between educational level on work engagement	H03: rejected /not rejected H3: accepted / **rejected** **H3:** No sign of differences between functional department on work engagement
Burnout	H03: rejected / not rejected H3: **accepted** / rejected **H3:** There is a sign of differences between gender groups on burnout	H03: rejected /not rejected H3: **accepted** / rejected **H3:** There is a sign of differences between age groups on burnout	H03: rejected /not rejected H3: **accepted** / rejected **H3:** There is a sign of differences between educational level on	H03: rejected /not rejected H3: accepted / **rejected** **H3**: No sign of differences between functional department groups on burnout

* In all cases H03 is a statement of no significant differences between the men scores of the relevant groups with regard to the specific variable compared.

* In all the cases H3 is a statement of significant differences between the mean scores of the relevant groups with regard to the specific variable compared

6.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presented the results of the empirical study, the biographical profile of the sample, the psychometric relationships, predictive value and significance of differences between behavioural constructs, followed by a discussion and an integration of the results. By this means, the first, second and third research objectives have been achieved (See Chapter 1 Section 1.3.2).

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this chapter, conclusions, based on the literature review and results of the empirical study, are drawn. In addition, the limitations of the present study are discussed, and recommendations for the organisation and future research are made.

7.1 CONCLUSIONS

Conclusions are reached in the following sections in respect of the specific literature objectives and the empirical findings obtained in the present study.

7.1.1 Conclusions in terms of the specific literature objectives of the study

The following conclusions are drawn with regard to the perceived leadership style, employee participation and positive psychology functioning used in this study.

7.1.1.1 First aim

Leadership is conceptualised as a set of tools for the success or failure of organisations and social institutions. Leadership is also a solution to problems regarding collective efforts; it strives to bring both leaders and employees together by combining their efforts, in order to promote success and survival. Leadership style is regarded as a pattern of behaviour that leaders adopt in order to plan, organise, motivate, control, listen, establish goals and standards, develop plans of action, direct others, provide feedback, reward, punish, develop employees and establish relationships with employees. Accordingly, leadership style is the manner in which the leader chooses to carry out the functions of leadership. He/she may be authoritative, democratic or laissez-faire, and may adopt either the initiating structure or consideration leadership style. Accordingly, leadership is a process of influencing, whereas leadership style refers to the behaviour or manner in which a leader chooses to carry out the functions of

leadership. This can be developed over a period of time, depending on the experiences to which he/she has been exposed.

7.1.1.2 Second aim

Employee participation is defined as an influence over decision-making which is exerted through a process of interaction between leaders and employees, and which is characterised by information-sharing. Employee participation, therefore, refers to the existence of an organisational structure or mechanism that gives employees a voice in workplace decisions, and describes a wide variety of employee involvement programmes. Employee participation is also considered to be a buffer for the negative consequences of stress and a promoter of employee wellness and well-being.

7.1.1.3 Third aim

The positive psychology functioning constructs of sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout are conceptualised in the literature as scientific and practical explorations of human strengths, and as promoters of positive functioning.

Sense of coherence is defined in the literature as a dispositional characteristic that helps both leaders and employees to make sense of stressful experiences, select the most appropriate resource at their own or a significant other's disposal, and allocate energy to bad circumstances or adversities which are viewed as challenges. Consequently, it can be deduced that employees with a strong sense of coherence regard the information from their work environment as being comprehensible, manageable and meaningful. A strong sense of coherence helps employees to deal with adverse situations and to handle complex tasks, because demands from the environment are understood and believed to be under their personal control.

Work engagement is regarded in the literature as a fulfilling work-related state of mind that is characterised by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, employees' willingness to invest effort in their work, persistence even in the face of adversities, and enthusiastic feelings about the job. Work engagement also refers to the extent to which employees are involved with, committed to, and enthusiastic and passionate about their work. Consequently, it can be claimed that employees with a high level of engagement feel positive emotions with regard to their work, find it to be personally meaningful, consider their workload to be manageable, and have hope for the future.

Burnout is defined in the literature as a persistent, negative, work-related state of mind developing over time between employees and their work. Burnout refers to the extent to which employees feel overextended, physically and emotionally depleted, or detached from various aspects of their work, and have a tendency to feel incompetent and non-productive at work. It can therefore be concluded that employees with a high level of exhaustion and cynicism are suffering from burnout.

7.1.1.4 Fourth aim

Based on the literature findings, it can be concluded that:

Cognitively, employees make sense of the environment, comprehend challenges, and can order and structure information in a clear and organized manner. They use mental energy to think about their role, to concentrate effectively with a clear mind, and focus attention on control and harmony. Decision-making is based on knowledge, opinions and ideas.

Affectively, employees make emotional sense of life, are emotionally invested, feel pride when they experience achievement, sometimes experience their feelings as stimulating and energizing challenges, are positively engaged in, and committed to, their organisation.

Motivationally, employees perceive life to be manageable and they possess the internal resources needed to reach their goals. They are willing to work, challenge the environment and their tasks, and believe that they can influence their environment in a positive manner.

Interpersonally, employees develop quality relationships with their colleagues leading to favourable work-related interactions. They show a strong interest in others, prefer to be close to others, are open to participation and the sharing of information concerning the organisation. They are inspired and strive to be involved and engaged in problem solving, with the objective of creating a more positive workplace environment for all involved.

7.1.2 Conclusions in terms of the specific empirical objective of the study

In this section the conclusions drawn from the empirical results are discussed. The objective of the empirical study was to determine relationships between leadership style, employee participation, and positive psychology functioning; in other words:

- to describe the psychometric relationship between behavioural constructs
- to describe the predictive value between behavioural constructs
- to describe the significance of differences between behavioural constructs with biographical constructs.

Aim 1: To describe the psychometric relationship between behavioural constructs

Based on the findings, there is a relationship between perceived leadership style, employee participation, and positive psychology functioning. From the above it is concluded that employees perceived leadership styles as oriented towards goal attainment, establishing defined channels of communication for his/her subordinates, focusing on the tasks and demonstrating a high level of consideration with regard to their welfare, evidencing support and respect for them. The results indicate that the

employee with a strong sense of coherence, high work engagement and low level of burnout will participate more in his or her work and be more committed to it.

Aim 2: To describe the predictive value of the behavioural construct

Concerning the predictive value of the perceived leadership style and sense of coherence and work engagement in relation to the employee's participation, the findings in the present study indicated that three independent variables mentioned above predicted 19.2% of the variance of the total employee participation, which is practically significant. The results show that participating employees who perceived the leaders' style as positive, who felt more engaged, vigorous, full of energy, and who indicated a higher level of confidence that their internal and external environments are structured, predictable and explicable (high sense of coherence), scored high in employee participation, in the perceived leadership style and in both sense of coherence and work engagement.

The practical implications of this relationship are that the ability to perceive the leaders' style as positive, to experience a high sense of coherence and high work engagement, may encourage the employee to participate in his/her work. In other word, if the employee perceives his/her leaders' style as positive, and understands the demands of his/her job, he/she will feel able to manage the demands set before him/her and is able to find meaning in his/her life. If he/she feels vigorous, full of energy and dedicated to doing job and has the ability to become totally absorbed in the task he/she is busy with, these may encourage the employee to participate in his/her work.

Aim 3: To describe the significance of differences between behavioural constructs

A number of conclusions were reached, on the strength of the statistical analysis and comparisons between the different demographic groups regarding the perceived leadership style, employee participation, and positive psychology functioning. The aim

was to describe the significance of differences between these constructs. These conclusions are summarised as follows:

There was a difference between burnout and gender. The female employees scored significantly higher in burnout than males.

Regarding the educational level, differences were found between employees with primary educational level and those with masters and doctoral educational levels concerning their level of participation. The last mentioned scored significantly higher than those with a primary education. The higher the educational level, the greater the employees participates and are committed to the organisation.

Differences were established between employees with masters and doctoral degrees and those with a primary educational level with regards to the sense of coherence. The former scored significantly higher than the latter on the sense of coherence. The higher the educational level, the stronger is the sense of coherence. The employee who has attained a masters or doctoral degree comparatively perceives situations that confront him/her as consistent, structured, clear and predictable. He/she commands enough of the required resources to deal with the situation and still feel motivated to face life's difficult situations as worthwhile challenges.

Differences were found between employees at the bachelor's level and those at the primary, masters and doctoral educational levels concerning work engagement. The employees with a bachelor's degree significantly scored higher than both employees with primary and masters and doctoral educational levels on work engagement. The higher the educational level, the higher the level of employees' engagement will be. The employee with a bachelor's degree comparatively demonstrates high levels of energy and resilience, the willingness to invest effort in his/her job, not being easly fatigued and persistence in the face of difficulties, tends to show a strong involvement in his/her work, accompanied by feelings of enthusiasm and significance, inspiration and sense of pride and he/she may feel happy and totally engrossed in his/her work.

The results suggest that there are differences between employees at the primary educational level and those with bachelors, masters and doctoral qualifications concerning burnout. The lower the educational levels, the higher the employee burnout. The employee who has attained a primary educational level comparatively feels exhausted, overextended, both emotionally and physically.

Regarding their functional department, differences were found between employees working in project management and those in the human resources, financial management, distribution and sales, technique and exploitation management departments concerning the perceived leadership style and employee participation. The employees working in the project management department scored higher on the perceived leadership style and participation than those in the human resources, financial, distribution and sales, technique and exploitation management departments. The longer the employee has been working in project management the higher the perceived leadership style and employee participation will be. Comparatively, the employees in the project management department perceived their leaders' style as positive, high in consideration, mutual trust, and respect for employee's ideas. He/she understands the purpose and duties of his/her job, participates freely in the decision-making. He/she was satisfied with the working conditions. Hence the third aim of the empirical study was deemed to have been achieved.

7.2 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The limitations of the study are discussed with regard to the literature review and empirical study.

7.2.1 Limitations: the literature review

One of the limitations of this study is that studies on perceived leadership style, employee participation and positive psychology functioning appear to be few or non-

existent, especially in the context of the Democratic Republic of Congo. This hampered the researcher's efforts to find recent data. Relatively limited literature seems to be available on the relationship between constructs of positive psychology functioning, namely sense of coherence, work engagement and burnout.

7.2.2 Limitations: the empirical study

One of the limitations of this study was the issue of the translation of the five instruments from English to French. Marais (1997) explains that in one instance, translating instruments from one language (Hebrew) to another (English) could possibly mislead the respondents in terms of the original meaning of the question.

Another limitation of this study is that an availability sampling method was used, rather than a randomised group design method, which implies that the findings cannot be generalised and pertain only to the population being investigated in the study. Furthermore, the study population consisted only of employees of one manufacturing company, and is therefore not representative of all such companies in the Democratic Republic of Congo.

A further limitation of this study is the burden confronting the respondents of rating a large number of assessments, which may have been somewhat tiring for them. In addition, the fact that they had been told that the results would not in any way affect them or harm their relationship with their leaders, may have influenced respondents' attitudes to the assessments. The final limitation refers to the fact that respondents were informed that the results would be used for research purposes, which could have influenced the way in which they approached the questionnaires, either positively or negatively.

7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

In the light of the aforementioned conclusions and limitations, the following recommendations can be made.

7.3.1 Recommendations with regard to the literature

It is recommended that future studies address questions concerning consideration and initiating structure in leadership which were not answered specifically, due to the virtual neglect of this topic in past research. In addition, consideration and initiating structure have disappeared from contemporary research. These concepts should be integrated into recent theorising in leadership research, especially in terms of organisational behaviour.

It is also recommended that future studies integrate the Ohio State University's consideration and initiating structure with transformational leadership, which is seen as having an advantage over these two dimensions of leadership. According to Judge, Piccolo and Ilies (2004), there is little discussion of the relationship of the Ohio State leader behaviour to transformational leadership.

Future studies should further investigate the development of positive psychology functioning and how this is related to other work-related attitudes, by including newer constructs such as emotional intelligence, resilience, happiness, optimism and courage.

Due to limited resources, this study could not include all measures of employee participation. It is recommended that future research on both intrinsic and extrinsic forms of employee participation be combined with the abovementioned positive psychology constructs.

Future research should also combine qualitative, quantitative and triangulation methods in order to facilitate a better understanding of the different variables being studied.

Strydom, Fouché and Delport (2003) indicated that this would assist researchers to use multiple measures for the same phenomena. By measuring something in more than one way, they are more likely to see all aspects of it (Strydom et al., 2003).

It is also recommended that future studies focus on the field of positive psychology, which is open to a wide range of new investigations (Strümpfer, 2004), to ascertain the shared operative processes and shared variances in optimal functioning.

7.3.2 Recommendations with regard to the empirical study

Future studies should use a larger sample size consisting of different industries, and in both the private and public sectors, with the aim of providing more information in terms of correlations between demographic variables. This study could be replicated with a focus on the extent to which positive psychology functioning affect leadership style.

Newer concepts of positive psychology functioning, as mentioned above, should be integrated with other constructs such as participation in decision-making and problem solving, job satisfaction, employee performance, turnover intention and absenteeism.

It is recommended that future research use the structural equations model (Teo, 2010) to investigate leadership style, employee participation and positive psychology functioning in different work settings. This will include more flexible assumptions (particularly allowing interpretation even in the face of multicollinearity), and the use of confirmatory factor analysis to reduce measurement error.

7.3.3 Recommendations for the manufacturing company

According to Heifetz (2007), leaders do not possess all the information and answers, and some leadership tasks should be shared between leaders and followers. This reciprocity would enable the organisation to survive in the competitive business world. It is therefore vital for leaders to involve employees in some organisational matters.

Employee participation has become a sustained competitive advantage for organisations or industries in today's flexible environment. However, positive psychology, once applied to the domain of organisations or industries, could provide a clearer understanding of how companies can create this sustained competitive advantage (Berman, 1997; Coetzee & Viviers, 2007).

The typical female employee in a manufacturing company presents a high level of burnout, implying negative detached feelings towards work in general. This tendency is a red flag. It is recommended that this signal should not be ignored by the industrial psychologist, and the management of the manufacturing company.

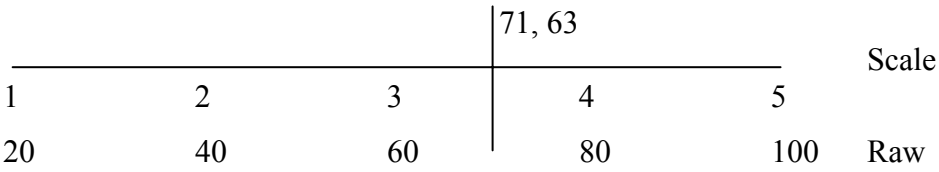
7.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter dealt with the final phase of the study, in which conclusions were drawn, limitations highlighted and recommendations made. Conclusions based on leadership style, employee participation and positive psychology functioning, and the significant relationships, predictive values and significance of differences between the behavioural constructs in relation to biographical factors were drawn. In addition, limitations with regard to the literature review and empirical study were highlighted. Finally, recommendations based on the literature review, empirical study and manufacturing company were made. This concludes steps 1 to 3 of phase 3, as mentioned in chapter 1.

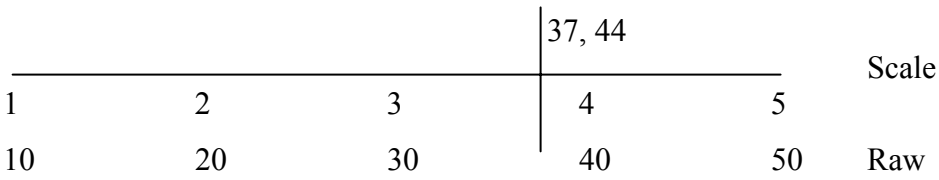
APPENDIX A

Scale 1: LBDQ

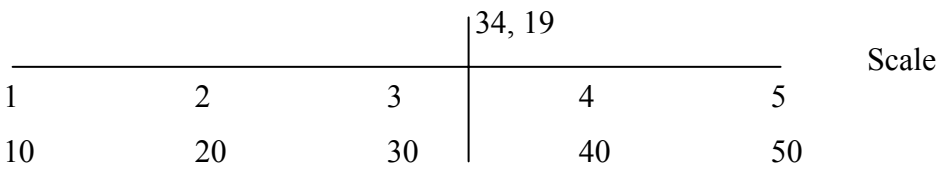
Scale 1.1: $LBDQ_{TOTAL}$



Scale 1.2: $LBDQ_{INITIATING\ STRUCTURE}$

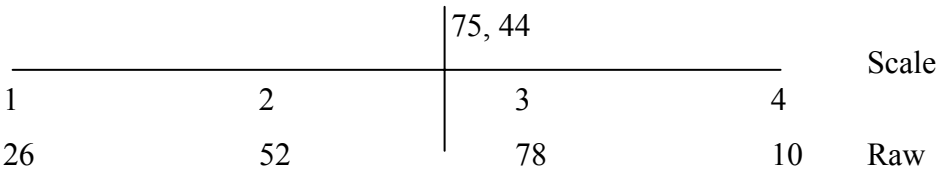


Scale 1.3: $LBDQ_{CONSIDERATION}$

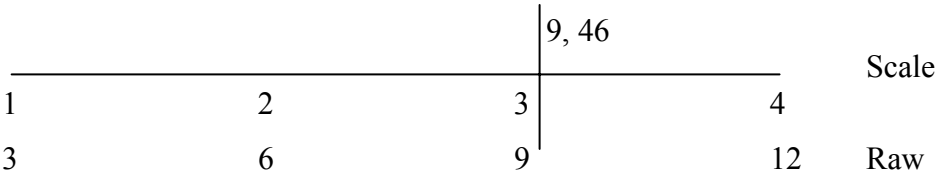


Scale 2: EPS

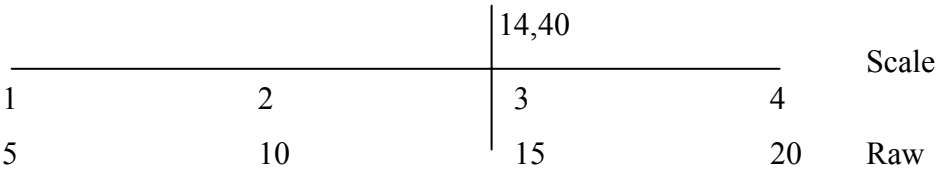
Scale 2.1: EPS_{TOTAL}



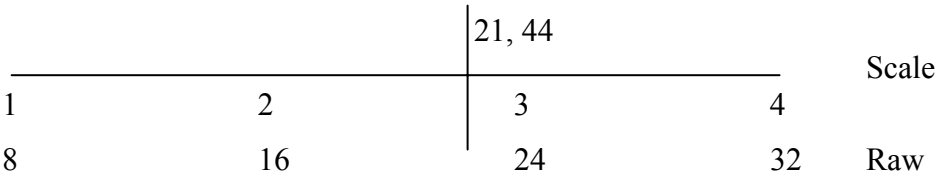
Scale 2.2: EPS_{JOB}



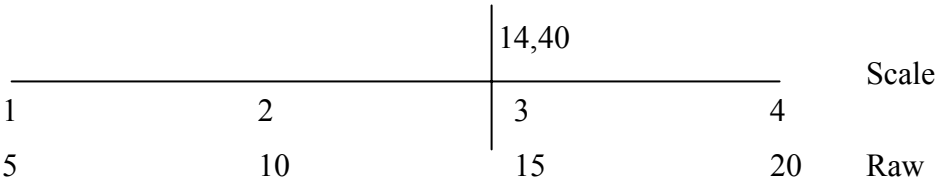
Scale 2.3: $EPS_{QUALITY\ OF\ WORK\ LIFE}$



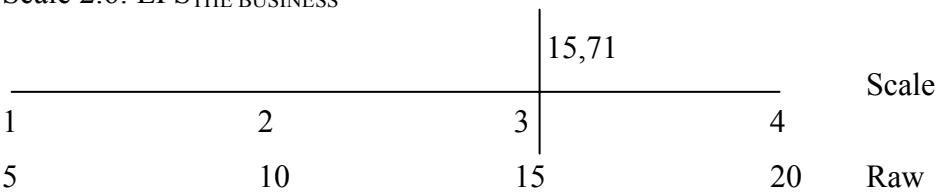
Scale 2.4: $EPS_{DECISION\ MAKING\ \&\ PROBLEM\ SOLVING}$



Scale 2.5: $EPS_{IDEAS\ SUGGESTIONS\ \&\ CHANGE}$



Scale 2.6: $EPS_{THE\ BUSINESS}$



Scale 3: Sense of Coherence

Scale 3.1: SOC_{TOTAL}

				131,70			
							Scale
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
29	58	87	116	145	174	203	Raw

Scale 3.2: $SOC_{COMPREHENSIBILITY}$

			47,14				
							Scale
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
11	22	33	44	55	66	77	Raw

Scale 3.3: $SOC_{MANAGEABILITY}$

			43,38				
							Scale
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
10	20	30	40	50	60	70	Raw

Scale 3.4: $SOC_{MEANFULNESS}$

				38,13			
							Scale
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8	16	24	32	40	48	56	Raw

Scale 4: Work Engagement

Scale 4.1: $UWES_{TOTAL}$

			77,16			
						Scale
1	2	3	4	5	6	
21	42	63	84	105	126	Raw

Scale 4.2: $UWES_{VIGOUR}$

				28,07		
						Scale
1	2	3	4	5	6	
6	12	18	24	30	36	Raw

Scale 4.3: $UWES_{DEDICATION}$

			22,94			
						Scale
1	2	3	4	5	6	
5	10	15	20	25	30	Raw

Scale 4.4: $UWES_{ABSORPTION}$

				26,12		
						Scale
1	2	3	4	5	6	
6	12	18	24	30	36	Raw

Scale 5: Burnout

Scale 5.1: $MBI\text{-}GS_{TOTAL}$

		42,58				
						Scale
1	2	3	4	5	6	
16	32	48	64	80	96	Raw

Scale 5.2: $MBI\text{-}GS_{EXHAUSTION}$

			16,33			
						Scale
1	2	3	4	5	6	
5	10	15	20	25	30	Raw

Scale 5.3: MBI-GS$_{CYNICISM}$

		14.72				
						Scale
1	2	3	4	5	6	
5	10	15	20	25	30	Raw

Scale 5.4: MBI-GS$_{PROFESSIONAL\ EFFICIENCY}$

	11.50					
						Scale
1	2	3	4	5	6	
6	12	18	24	30	36	Raw

APPENDIX B: CORRELATIONS

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Leadership_style	1									
Consideration	.859**	1								
Initiating_Structure	.881**	.513**	1							
Employee_Participation	.376**	.336**	.319**	1						
Your Job	.264**	.210**	.247**	.516**	1					
Quality of Life	.175*	.200**	,107	.561**	,098	1				
Decision Making	.250**	.223**	.212**	.719**	.273**	.157*	1			
Ideas and Suggestion	.270**	.221**	.247**	.651**	.160*	.266**	.332**	1		
The Business	.213**	.181*	.190**	.574**	.324**	.208**	,125	.245**	1	
Sense_of_Coherence	.335**	.310**	.275**	.298**	.211**	,115	.187**	.149*	.272**	1
Comprehension	.169*	.174*	,123	,133	.153*	,050	,086	,097	,049	.747**
Manageability	.338**	.287**	.301**	.369**	.220**	.191**	.228**	.175*	.331**	.829**
Meaningfulness	.280**	.268**	.221**	.188**	,115	,020	,119	,071	.261**	.774**
Work_Engagemnt	.192**	.165*	.169*	.191**	,079	,085	,123	,066	.225**	,121
Vigour	.175*	.165*	.141*	.195**	.170*	,075	,056	,028	.329**	.213**
Dedication	.250**	.244**	.194**	.206**	,004	,104	.187**	,089	.182**	.214**
Absorption	,042	-,013	,082	,089	,045	,013	,075	,043	,087	-,123
Burnout	-.224**	-.255**	-,139	-,110	-,114	,058	-,069	-,053	-.186**	-.432**
Exhaustion	-.236**	-.267**	-.149*	-,079	-,121	.148*	-,121	-,028	-,117	-.367**
Cynicism	-.209**	-.228**	-.139*	-,074	-,040	,065	-,067	-,064	-,117	-.345**
Professional_Efficacy	,033	,021	,036	-,082	-,065	-.164*	,091	-,019	-.173*	-.155*

APPENDIX B: CORRELATIONS CONTINUOUS

	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
Leadership_style											
Consideration											
Initiating_Structure											
Employee_Participation											
Your Job											
Quality of Life											
Decision Making											
Ideas and Suggestion											
The Business											
Sense_of_Coherence											
Comprehension	1										
Manageability	.397**	1									
Meaningfulness	.340**	.525**	1								
Work_Engagemnt	-,096	.167*	.227**	1							
Vigour	-,016	.239**	.287**	.837**	1						
Dedication	,013	.219**	.282**	.863**	.599**	1					
Absorption	-.244**	-,039	,003	.816**	.575**	.544**	1				
Burnout	-.278**	-.345**	-.401**	-.248**	-.305**	-.289**	,041	1			
Exhaustion	-.256**	-.281**	-.333**	-,045	-,126	-,137	.201**	.821**	1		
Cynicism	-.172*	-.324**	-.320**	-.156*	-.179*	-.140*	-,027	.754**	.435**	1	
Professional_Efficacy	-,131	-,082	-.157*	-.410**	-.406**	-.394**	-.178*	.460**	,084	,099	1

APPENDIX C: CONTINUOUS CORRELATIONS

Dependent Variable	(I) Department	(J) Department	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
Leadership style	Human Resources	Financial Management	1.545	2.308	.504	-3.01	6.10
		Distribution & Sales	3.446	2.291	.134	-1.07	7.96
		Technical Management	4.622*	2.291	.045	.10	9.14
		Project Management	1.828	2.291	.426	-2.69	6.35
		Exploitation Management	-2.567	2.326	.271	-7.16	2.02
	Financial Management	Human Resources	-1.545	2.308	.504	-6.10	3.01
		Distribution & Sales	1.900	2.291	.408	-2.62	6.42
		Technical Management	3.077	2.291	.181	-1.44	7.60
		Project Management	.283	2.291	.902	-4.24	4.80
		Exploitation Management	-4.113	2.326	.079	-8.70	.48
	Distribution & Sales	Human Resources	-3.446	2.291	.134	-7.96	1.07
		Financial Management	-1.900	2.291	.408	-6.42	2.62
		Technical Management	1.176	2.274	.606	-3.31	5.66
		Project Management	-1.618	2.274	.478	-6.10	2.87
		Exploitation Management	-6.013*	2.309	.010	-10.57	-1.46
	Technical Management	Human Resources	-4.622*	2.291	.045	-9.14	-.10
		Financial Management	-3.077	2.291	.181	-7.60	1.44
		Distribution & Sales	-1.176	2.274	.606	-5.66	3.31
		Project Management	-2.794	2.274	.221	-7.28	1.69
		Exploitation Management	-7.189*	2.309	.002	-11.74	-2.63
	Project Management	Human Resources	-1.828	2.291	.426	-6.35	2.69
		Financial Management	-.283	2.291	.902	-4.80	4.24
		Distribution & Sales	1.618	2.274	.478	-2.87	6.10
		Technical Management	2.794	2.274	.221	-1.69	7.28
		Exploitation Management	-4.395	2.309	.059	-8.95	.16
	Exploitation Management	Human Resources	-1.828	2.291	.426	-6.35	2.69
		Financial Management	-.283	2.291	.902	-4.80	4.24
		Distribution & Sales	1.618	2.274	.478	-2.87	6.10
		Technical Management	2.794	2.274	.221	-1.69	7.28

		Project Management	-4.395	2.309	.059	-8.95	.16
Employee Participation	Human Resources	Financial Management	.424	2.048	.836	-3.62	4.46
		Distribution & Sales	.525	2.033	.797	-3.49	4.54
		Technical Management	1.260	2.033	.536	-2.75	5.27
		Project Management	-3.416	2.033	.095	-7.43	.59
		Exploitation Management	-2.214	2.064	.285	-6.29	1.86
	Financial Management	Human Resources	-.424	2.048	.836	-4.46	3.62
		Distribution & Sales	.101	2.033	.961	-3.91	4.11
		Technical Management	.836	2.033	.681	-3.17	4.85
		Project Management	-3.840	2.033	.060	-7.85	.17
		Exploitation Management	-2.638	2.064	.203	-6.71	1.43
	Distribution & Sales	Human Resources	-.525	2.033	.797	-4.54	3.49
		Financial Management	-.101	2.033	.961	-4.11	3.91
		Technical Management	.735	2.018	.716	-3.24	4.72
		Project Management	-3.941	2.018	.052	-7.92	.04
		Exploitation Management	-2.739	2.049	.183	-6.78	1.30
	Technical Management	Human Resources	-1.260	2.033	.536	-5.27	2.75
		Financial Management	-.836	2.033	.681	-4.85	3.17
		Distribution & Sales	-.735	2.018	.716	-4.72	3.24
		Project Management	-4.676*	2.018			
		Exploitation Management	-3.474	2.049	.022	-8.66	-.70
					.092	-7.52	.57
	Project Management	Human Resources	3.416	2.033	.095	-.59	7.43
		Financial Management	3.840	2.033	.060	-.17	7.85
		Distribution & Sales	3.941	2.018	.052	-.04	7.92
		Technical Management	4.676*	2.018	.022	.70	8.66
		Exploitation Management	1.202	2.049	.558	-2.84	5.24
	Exploitation Management	Human Resources	2.214	2.064	.285	-1.86	6.29
		Financial Management	2.638	2.064	.203	-1.43	6.71
		Distribution & Sales	2.739	2.049	.183	-1.30	6.78
		Technical Management	3.474	2.049	.092	-.57	7.52
		Project Management	-1.202	2.049	.558	-5.24	2.84

Sense of Coherence	Human Resources	Financial Management	-2.424	4.668	.604	-11.63	6.78
		Distribution & Sales	-1.171	4.633	.801	-10.31	7.97
		Technical Management	1.005	4.633	.828	-8.13	10.14
		Project Management	-.583	4.633	.900	-9.72	8.56
		Exploitation Management	.088	4.704	.985	-9.19	9.37
	Financial Management	Human Resources	2.424	4.668	.604	-6.78	11.63
		Distribution & Sales	1.253	4.633	.787	-7.89	10.39
		Technical Management	3.430	4.633	.460	-5.71	12.57
		Project Management	1.841	4.633	.692	-7.30	10.98
		Exploitation Management	2.512	4.704	.594	-6.77	11.79
	Distribution & Sales	Human Resources	1.171	4.633	.801	-7.97	10.31
		Financial Management	-1.253	4.633	.787	-10.39	7.89
		Technical Management	2.176	4.599	.637	-6.89	11.25
		Project Management	.588	4.599	.898	-8.48	9.66
		Exploitation Management	1.259	4.670	.788	-7.95	10.47
	Technical Management	Human Resources	-1.005	4.633	.828	-10.14	8.13
		Financial Management	-3.430	4.633	.460	-12.57	5.71
		Distribution & Sales	-2.176	4.599	.637	-11.25	6.89
		Project Management	-1.588	4.599	.730	-10.66	7.48
		Exploitation Management	-.917	4.670	.844	-10.13	8.29
	Project Management	Human Resources	.583	4.633	.900	-8.56	9.72
		Financial Management	-1.841	4.633	.692	-10.98	7.30
		Distribution & Sales	-.588	4.599	.898	-9.66	8.48
		Technical Management	1.588	4.599	.730	-7.48	10.66
		Exploitation Management	.671	4.670	.886	-8.54	9.88
	Exploitation Management	Human Resources	-.088	4.704	.985	-9.37	9.19
		Financial Management	-2.512	4.704	.594	-11.79	6.77
		Distribution & Sales	-1.259	4.670	.788	-10.47	7.95
		Technical Management	.917	4.670	.844	-8.29	10.13
		Project Management	-.671	4.670	.886	-9.88	8.54
Work Engagement	Human Resources	Financial Management	-4.303	3.739	.251	-11.68	3.07
		Distribution & Sales	-.179	3.711	.962	-7.50	7.14
		Technical Management	-2.091	3.711	.574	-9.41	5.23
		Project Management	-.414	3.711	.911	-7.73	6.90

		Exploitation Management	-1.966	3.768	.602	-9.40	5.47
	Financial Management	Human Resources	4.303	3.739	.251	-3.07	11.68
		Distribution & Sales	4.124	3.711	.268	-3.20	11.44
		Technical Management	2.212	3.711	.552	-5.11	9.53
		Project Management	3.889	3.711	.296	-3.43	11.21
		Exploitation Management	2.337	3.768	.536	-5.09	9.77
	Distribution & Sales	Human Resources	.179	3.711	.962	-7.14	7.50
		Financial Management	-4.124	3.711	.268	-11.44	3.20
		Technical Management	-1.912	3.683	.604	-9.18	5.35
		Project Management	-.235	3.683	.949	-7.50	7.03
		Exploitation Management	-1.787	3.740	.633	-9.16	5.59
	Technical Management	Human Resources	2.091	3.711	.574	-5.23	9.41
		Financial Management	-2.212	3.711	.552	-9.53	5.11
		Distribution & Sales	1.912	3.683	.604	-5.35	9.18
		Project Management	1.676	3.683	.650	-5.59	8.94
		Exploitation Management	.125	3.740	.973	-7.25	7.50
	Project Management	Human Resources	.414	3.711	.911	-6.90	7.73
		Financial Management	-3.889	3.711	.296	-11.21	3.43
		Distribution & Sales	.235	3.683	.949	-7.03	7.50
		Technical Management	-1.676	3.683	.650	-8.94	5.59
		Exploitation Management	-1.551	3.740	.679	-8.93	5.83
	Exploitation Management	Human Resources	1.966	3.768	.602	-5.47	9.40
		Financial Management	-2.337	3.768	.536	-9.77	5.09
		Distribution & Sales	1.787	3.740	.633	-5.59	9.16
		Technical Management	-.125	3.740	.973	-7.50	7.25
		Project Management	1.551	3.740	.679	-5.83	8.93
Burnout	Human Resources	Financial Management	1.545	3.205	.630	-4.78	7.87
		Distribution & Sales	-6.832*	3.181	.033	-13.11	-.56
		Technical Management	-3.509	3.181	.271	-9.78	2.77
		Project Management	-3.568	3.181	.263	-9.84	2.71
		Exploitation Management	-4.428	3.230	.172	-10.80	1.94

	Financial Management	Human Resources	-1.545	3.205	.630	-7.87	4.78
		Distribution & Sales	-8.378*	3.181	.009	-14.65	-2.10
		Technical Management	-5.054	3.181	.114	-11.33	1.22
		Project Management	-5.113	3.181	.110	-11.39	1.16
		Exploitation Management	-5.973	3.230	.066	-12.34	.40
	Distribution & Sales	Human Resources	6.832*	3.181	.033	.56	13.11
		Financial Management	8.378*	3.181	.009	2.10	14.65
		Technical Management	3.324	3.158	.294	-2.90	9.55
		Project Management	3.265	3.158	.302	-2.96	9.49
		Exploitation Management	2.404	3.207	.454	-3.92	8.73
	Technical Management	Human Resources	3.509	3.181	.271	-2.77	9.78
		Financial Management	5.054	3.181	.114	-1.22	11.33
		Distribution & Sales	-3.324	3.158	.294	-9.55	2.90
		Project Management	-.059	3.158	.985	-6.29	6.17
		Exploitation Management	-.919	3.207	.775	-7.24	5.40
	Project Management	Human Resources	3.568	3.181	.263	-2.71	9.84
		Financial Management	5.113	3.181	.110	-1.16	11.39
		Distribution & Sales	-3.265	3.158	.302	-9.49	2.96
		Technical Management	.059	3.158	.985	-6.17	6.29
		Exploitation Management	-.860	3.207	.789	-7.18	5.46
	Exploitation Management	Human Resources	4.428	3.230	.172	-1.94	10.80
		Financial Management	5.973	3.230	.066	-.40	12.34
		Distribution & Sales	-2.404	3.207	.454	-8.73	3.92
		Technical Management	.919	3.207	.775	-5.40	7.24
		Project Management	.860	3.207	.789	-5.46	7.18

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level
** The mean difference is significant at the 0.10 level

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