

**INTEGRATING LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT
IN
NIGERIAN'S INDUSTRIAL-ORGANISATIONS
(A TEST OF THE DML MODEL)**

BY

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis is a record of my original research work and to the best of my knowledge, no part of it has been presented to any other institution for the award of any higher degree.

Augustine Ebiai

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This project work is dedicated to THE ALMIGHTY GOD and to my late father of blessed memory LATE CHIEF F. A. PAUL-EBIAI who prayed for me, but passed on to glory at the peak of my research work.

May his soul rest in perfect peace, Amen.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CONTENTS	PAGES
TITLE PAGE	i
CERTIFICATION	ii
DECLARATION	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv-v
DEDICATION	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vii-xii
LIST OF TABLES	xiii-xviii
LIST OF FIGURES	xix
ABSTRACT	xx-xxi
 CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	
1.1 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM	4-8
1.2 FOCUS	8-13
1.3 PURPOSE	13-21
1.4 DEFINITION OF MAJOR CONCEPTS OF DML	21
1.4.1 DEFINITION OF DML	21-22
1.4.2 LEADERSHIP	22-23
1.4.3 MANAGEMENT	23-26
1.4.4 MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS	26-28
1.4.5 MOTIVATION	28-29

1.4.6 DML: INTRODUCED AND CONCEPUALISED	29-30
1.4.7 ENVIRONMENTAL/ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE	30-31
1.4.8 PERSONALITY	31-35
1.5 TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT (TQM) AND DYNAMIC MANAGERIAL LEADERSHIP (DML) – A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS	35
1.5.1 DEFINITION OF TQM	35-37
1.5.2 ELEMENT OF TQM.....	37-39
1.5.3 THE DML FACTORS AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP TO THE TQM FACTORS	39
1.5.4 DML FACTORS FOCUS IN THE FOLLOWING	39-41
1.5.5 A CRITICAL REVIEW OF DML AND TQM CONCEPTS	41-44
1.6 MANAGEMENT BY OBJECTIVES (MBO)	44
1.6.1 DEFINITION OF MANAGEMENT BY OBJECTIVES (MBO)	44-45
1.6.2 MANAGEMENT BY OBJECTIVES (MBO) AND DYNAMIC MANAGERIAL-LEADERSHIP-A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS.....	46-49
1.6.3 CRITICAL EVALUATION OF MBO	49-55
1.7 RESEARCH DESIGN.....	55-60
1.9 RESEARCH QUESTIONS	61

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 GENERAL INTRODUCTION TO THE REVIEW OF LITERATURE.....	62-63
2.2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON DML AND TQM	63-71
2.3 REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT.....	71-92
2.4 REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON THE INTERACTION BETWEEN LEADERSHIP PERSONALITY FACTORS, MANAGEMENT PERSONALITY FACTORS AND PERFORMANCE	93-103
2.5 REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON THE INTERACTION BETWEEN LEADERSHIP ENVIRONMENT, MANAGEMENT ENVIRONMENT AND ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE	103-135
2.6 OVERVIEW OF LEADERSHIP THEORIES	135-151
2.7 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY	151-152
2.8 THE DML MODEL: ELABORATIONAND VERIFICATION	152-153
2.8.1 DML PERSONALITY INTEGRATION AND URGE	153-154
2.8.2 DML ENVIRONMENTAL INTEGRATION AND URGE	155-158
2.8.3 THE THESIS	158-161
2.9 RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS	161-162

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.1 STUDY LOCATION	163-164
3.2 PARTICIPANTS (MAIN STUDY)	164-165
3.2.1 Participants For The Moontent Production.....	165
3.2.2. Experimental Group	166
3.2.3. Control Group	166-168
3.3.1 Participants For The SWCC Production.....	168
3.3.2 Experimental Group	168-169
3.3.3 CONTROL GROUP	169-171
3.4 RESEARCH EXERCISES	171
3.4.1 The Moontent Production Exercises	171-174
3.4.2 The Shallow-Water Cargo Carrier (SWCC) Production Exercise	174-176
3.5 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS	177
3.5.1 Moontent Questionnaire	177-178
3.5.2 Shallow-Water Cargo Carrier (SWCC) Questionnaire .	178-179
3.5.3 Biographical Information Questionnaire (BIQ).....	179
3.5.4 Stop-Watch	179
3.6 EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN	179
3.7 SCORING, DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS PROCEDURE	180
3.7.1 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)	180-181

3.7.2 The Two-Independent Statistical Test (t-test).....	181-182
3.7.3 Cost, Profit, Assembly Times, Production Decisions and Quality Control Steps	182
3.8 PROCEDURE CONTROLS AND DATA COLLECTION FOR THE MOONTENT PRODUCTION	183
3.8.1 Company Formation And Organisation (10 Minutes).....	183
3.8.2 STEP 1: Formation of the Moontent Company	183-184
3.8.3 Experimental Group	184
3.8.4 Control Groups	184-187
3.8.5 STEP 2: Preparation For The Moontent Company... .	187-193
3.9 PROCEDURE CONTROLS AND DATA COLLECTION FOR THE SHALLOW-WATER CARGO CARRIER (SWCC) PRODUCTION	193
3.9.1 Company Formations And Organisation (10 Minutes).....	193
3.9.2 STEP 1: Formation Of The Shallow-Water Cargo Carrier (SWCC) Company	193-194
3.9.3 Experimental Group	194-195
3.9.4 Control Groups	195-197
3.9.5 STEP 2: Preparation for the Swallow-Water Cargo Carrier (SWCC).....	197-204

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

4.1 TESTING OF HYPOTHESES	205-231
4.2 VALIDATION VS. REGULATION OF EXPECTATION	231

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 DISCUSSION	232-238
5.2 GENERAL IMPLICATIONS AND DIRECTIONS OF THE RESEARCH	239
5.3 OVERVIEW AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE PROJECT ...	240-241
5.4 CONCLUSIONS	242-243
5.5 THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS	243-245
5.6 PRACTICAL POLICY IMPLICATIONS	245-246
5.7 DIFFICULTIES	247-248
5.8 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH	248-250
SUMMARY OF RESULTS	251
CONTRIBUTIONS TO KNOWLEDGE	252
REFERENCES	253-299
APPENDICES.....	300-340

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
Table 1: High Performing Business Organisations in Nigerian Taken From the Nigerian Stock Exchange Unaudited Trading Performance record of listed Companies in 1995 and during the first half of 1996	9
Table 2: Medium Performing Organisations in Nigeria Taken From Nigerian Stock Exchange Unaudited Trading Performance records of listed Companies in 1995 and During the first half of 1996	10
Table 3: Low Performing Business Organisations in Nigeria Taken From Nigerian Stock Exchange unaudited Trading Performance records of listed Companies in 1995 and During the first of 1996	11
Table 4: Summary of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Significant Values at F and P in all the Levels of Treatment (Measures) Amongst Leaders in the Four Principled Companies	206

Table 5: Summary of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Significant Values at F and P in all the Levels of Treatment (Measures) Amongst General Workers in the Four Principled Companies.....	207
Table 6: Summary of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Significant Values at F and P in all the Levels of Treatment Amongst Leaders and General Workers on the Exercises: Moontent and SWCC variations	208
Table 7: 2x2 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to Test the Significant Differences Amongst the Participants that Represents the Leaders in the Four Principled Organisations in Average Assembly Times	210
Table 8: 2x2 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to Test the Significant Differences Amongst the Participants that Represents the General Workers in the Four Principled Organisations in Average Assembly Times	211

Table 9: 2x2 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to Test the Significant Differences Amongst the Participants that Represents the Leaders in the Four Principled Organisations in Number of Quality Products..... 213

Table 10: 2x2 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to Test the Significant Differences Amongst the Participants that Form the General Workers in the Four Principled Organisations in the Number of Quality Products..... 214

Table 11: 2x2 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to Test the Significant Differences Amongst the Participants that Represents the Leaders in the Four Principled Organisations in Amount of Profit Recorded 216

Table 12: 2x2 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to Test the Significant Differences Amongst the Participants that Represents the General Workers in the Four Principled Organisations in Amount of Profit Recorded 217

Table 13: 2x2 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to Test the Significant Differences Amongst the Participants that Represents the Leaders in the Four Principled Organisations in Production Decisions	218
Table 14: 2x2 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to Test the Significant Differences Amongst the Participants that form the General Workers in the Four Principled Organisations in Production Decisions	219
Table 15: 2x2 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to Test the Significant Differences Amongst the Participants that Represents the Leaders in the Four Principled Organisations in Satisfaction Ratings	221
Table 16: 2x2 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to Test the Significant Differences Amongst the Participants that form the General Workers in the Four Principled Organisations in Satisfaction Ratings	222

Table 17: 2x2 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to Test the Significant Differences Amongst the Participants that Represents the Leaders in the Four Principled Organisations in Productivity Ratings	224
Table 18: 2x2 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to Test the Significant Differences Amongst the Participants that Form the General Workers in the Four Principled Organisations in Productivity Ratings	225
Table 19: T-test Analysis to Find out Significant Differences Between Male and Female Participants in Satisfaction Ratings in the Moontent Production Exercises	227
Table 20: T-test Analysis to find out Significant Differences Between Male and Female Participants in Satisfaction Ratings in the SWCC Production Exercises	228
Table 21: T-test Analysis to find out Significant Differences in Productivity Ratings Between Male and Female Participants in the Moontent Production Exercises..	229

Table 22: T-test Analysis to find out Significant Differences in Productivity Ratings Between Male and Female Participants in the SWCC Production Exercises	230
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LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE	PAGE
Fig 1: The Process and Adaptive Nature of the Dynamic Managerial Leadership (DML) Model	16
Fig 2: The Independent and Dependent Variables of the DML Research Model	58
Fig 3: Research Design: The General Research Design of the DML with the Interaction of the Independent Variables And the Dependent Variables	59
Fig 4: (I-xiv) Steps: Preparation for the Moontent Company	187-192
Fig 5:(1-14) Steps Preparation for the Swallow-Water Cargo Carrier (SWCC) Company	198-203

ABSTRACT

The present research tested the significance of the Dynamic Managerial Leadership model in Nigerian Industrial-Organisations.

It was hypothesised that DML Organisations will outperform NON-DML Organisations in Assembly times. Quality of products, Profit ratio, Production decisions, Satisfaction and Productivity ratings.

The Participants for the main study consisted of 192 University students: 96 males and 96 females, randomly selected from the part three and four classes of Department of Sociology and Anthropology, University of Maidugiri. The Participants were involved in two phases of the research, which comprised of the “Moontent Production” exercise and “Shallow Water Cargo Carrier” (SWCC) production exercise. A total of 96 subjects were involved in the Moontent Production exercise. Ninety-six others were involved in the SWCC Production exercise.

Four groups were formed into four mock organisations each for the Moontent and the SWCC exercises. 24 subjects were in each of the four groups, with equal number of males and females. One of the four groups in the Mock Companies was called the Experimental Group

with DML principles vis-à-vis with high achievement principle, moderate risk taking, immediate and concrete feedback, personal responsibility for their own success and failures, challenging work, relationships and autonomy. This group represented the High Performance Organisation (HPO). The control groups were three in number based on leadership, management and Non-trained principles. Each representing medium, low and Non-performing organisations respectively.

The Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) technique computation was effected separately to find out if there existed a significant difference between the various mock companies, in terms of Assembly times, Quality of products, Profit ratio, Production decisions, Satisfaction and Productivity ratings.

The results showed that DML Organisation outperformed all NON-DML Organisation in each treatment. The implication is that Organisations differs in performance not only due to structure but also due to attitude of their leaders and workers. Again the study has justified the fact that an integration of leadership and management styles will lead to maximum performance.

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The prime determinant of organisational success is the leader or the manager. This is no less true in the world of industrial-organisations, whether in the public sector or in the private business organisation.

Leadership in industrial-organisations requires challenging combination of managerial competence, technical competence, political savvy, organisational vision, communication and human relations skill. Therefore, in the search for maximum productivity in Nigerian Industrial-Organisations, management development system employed long lasting psychological effects on Chief executives who rose from the ranks. In the past efficiency was the criterion for success and the aim of management was to maximise earnings and enjoy leisure. This philosophy has led to the failure of many chief executives and organisational management practitioners to emphasise leadership in management.

Though managers know a great deal about leadership, many reasons have been alleged for their failure to integrate leadership into management. The reasons are significant and have to do with the political realities surrounding the selection of leaders, Hogan, Curphy

and Hogan (1994), the technological advancement of organisations, Whrenberg (1985), rigid corporate cultures of some managers, Levinson, (1994). For example that of Mercedes – Benz and IBM, Miller and Aeppel (1993). Other reasons alleged are chief executives commitment to excellence in their products and services and to carrying out their corporate responsibilities towards their community and as such are mostly profit makers, Fajana (1994). Leadership transcends international boundaries, Shultz (1985), Haire, Ghiselli, and Porter (1966).

Leadership also addresses the possibilities of the concept of organisational competitiveness and of building markets, Sparrow and Pettigrew (1987). Leadership is persuasion and not domination, Hogan et al (1994), and it requires subordinate acceptance. Researches by Hogan, Raskin and Fazzini (1990) noted that organisational climate studies from the mid 1950s to 1990 routinely show that 60% to 75% of the employees in any organisation no matter when or where the survey was completed and no matter what occupational group was involved – report that the worst or most stressful aspect of their job is their immediate supervisor. Large organisations are established in nature and management considers

the expensive services of training leaders in organisations, Sparrow and Pettigrew (1987). Leaders have vision and are trustworthy, Nwachukwu (1994). Leadership activity is aligning people, Kotter (1990).

Most significantly is the inability of chief executive officers in organisations to utilize the standardised and well validated methods developed by psychologists, and even when used are only in a tiny fraction of cases, Hogan et al (1994). Chief executive officers are unaware of psychological testings, Levinon (1994) and even when they are aware organisations are afraid of psychological testing and extended psychological interviews for high-level candidates and high-level officers like senior executive officers, Levinson (1994). Management considers the expensive nature of psychological services, Hogan et al (1994). They therefore over look the costs of making poor selection decisions. The leadership failure rate is between 50 to 60%, Hogan et al (1994).

1.1 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

To the best of my knowledge, little research has been done in Nigeria towards formulating a theory of managerial-leader that can be tested

and focused upon as the right form of human being that can bring forth the highest form of organisational performance. No doubt, some researchers have looked at leadership and management problems in organisations (Levinson, 1994; Hogan Curphy and Hogan, 1994; Nwachukwu, 1994; Eze, 1995),

Nevertheless, we are far from extricating ourselves from mere looking at leadership problem alone or management problem on its own. This does not mean that we have not made any contributions. For example, Eze (1985) designed to investigate motivation and attitudes as a correlate of managerial decision making in Nigerian Industrial-Organisations, selected fifteen motivators out of the historical cultural backgrounds of the participants, grouped into lower- order and higher-order motivators, and constructed 86 indigenous items to measure them. The result of the data analysis indicate that Nigerian management participants used for the study were less influenced by the lower-order motivators than by the higher-order motivators. Other studies have sort to investigate into leadership and management problems in organisations.

Some have argued that management has contributed to the failure of

organisations in general and industrial organisations in particular (Eze, 1995; Anikpo, 1994). There are those who have argued that whenever industrial failures economic failures and recessions occur in Africa, Asia, Europe, Latin America or in America, management is to be blamed, (Sparow and Pettigrew, 1987; Meades and Whittaker, 1967). Some have even argued that the concept of management has outlived its usefulness (Curphy, 1993, House, Woyce and Spangler, 1991).

Some have argued further that industrial Organisations have been over managed and under led, (Bennis, 1993; Kotter, 1990), Similarly some have argued that the concept of leadership in industrial organisations have outlived its usefulness (Nwachukwu, 1994; Hallam and Campbell, 1992).

From the trait approach to leadership (Stogdill, 1948, Ghiselli, 1977), through the human relations approach or behavioural approach (Blake and Mouton, 1964; McGregor, 1960) through the situational approach or contingency approach (House, 1971; Fieldler, 1978), through the transactional approach (Peters and Waterman, 1982;

Kanter 1989) and to the transformational approach (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Tichy and De Vanna, 1990) realisation is almost complete that the leadership concept just like the management concept has outlived its usefulness.

This desperate position as it were has led the field of organisational behaviour to a position of a “trash can”, “ the dust bin” and “dumping ground”. Theories and practices of organisational behaviour are now in shambles. Hence it is not surprising that current efforts at showing the way forward have included attempts at reconceptualisation of management and leadership theories.

These attempts in recent times especially since the 1980’s have included major organisational change models such as TQM, ISO, BPR. While the present research is not an attempt to examine critically these recent organisational management and change models, it is pertinent to observe at this point that these models, elegant as they are, are not culture free, because they are based on the ethics of Western and Japanese industrial civilisations (Egwu, 1997). For example, attitudes towards leadership tend to be quite different in various part of the world. Lincoln, Hanada and Olson, (1981) examined cultural orientation for 522 employees of 28 Japanese owned firms in the United States and found that the native

Japanese employees were more likely to value paternalistic company behaviours than were the U.S. counterpart, Lincoln et al (1981). Another study found that Koreans also value such paternalism, Yoo and Lee (1987). However major differences appear in leadership approaches used by the Japanese and those in other localities.

Badawy (1990) study in the Mid-East (Arabian Gulf Region), showed that among 381 managers in the two top levels of 10 multinational organisations that were engaged in either production or marketing in the Arabian Gulf region. The findings showed that almost all managers were operating in a system 3 (participative style), the same approach that is used by their U.S. counterpart.

Hodgetts and Luthans (1991) reported that Kodak world renowned for its film has found that it can eliminate much red tape and quickly bring new products to market by relating teams that cross functional levels and include assembly line workers as well. Interestingly these teams led themselves, Hodgetts and Luthans (1991). They have the authority to design products and then go about getting them to market, through a leadership approach that decentralised authority and gave the work team authority over their own project, the company developed a microfilm that today is competitive world-wide.

In other words visionary leadership not technology seemed to be the major reason for the success of this manufacturing ventures.

1.2 FOCUS:

The concern and focus of this research is an investigation into the role of management and leadership in Nigerian industrial organisations. A critical step in this investigation was taken in 1996 when Nigerian industrial-organisations were classified and categorised into three major groups (See Tables 1,2, and 3 page 10, 11, 12) The Nigerians stock exchange unaudited trading performance average of 32 listed companies in 1995 and during the first half of 1996 shows that the following 11 public limited liability companies with gross profit margin averages can be classified under high performing organisations.

Table 1. Shows High Performing Business Organisations in Nigeria.

S/ NO	NAME OF COMPANY	GROSS PROFIT MARGIN AVERAGE 1995 & FIRST HALF OF 1996	POSITION OF RANKING
1	Oluwa Glass Co. Plc	31.9	1 st
2	The Okomu Oil palm Co.	29.6	2 nd
3	Plc	25.7	3 rd
4	Lever Brothers Nig. Plc	25.3	4 th
5	Delta-Glass Plc	24.95	5 th
6	Union Dicon Salt Plc.	24.3	6 th
7	WTN Plc.	22.45	7 th
8	Sterling Products Plc.	21.1	8 th
9	Nigerian Breweries Plc	19.75	9 th
	Nigerian Yeast & Alcohol	19.05	10 th
10	Man. Tripple Gee and Co.	18.25	11 th
	Plc. Vanleer Containers		
11	Nig. Plc.		

Source: Nigerian Stock Exchange Unaudited Trading Performance of listed companies in 1995 and during the first half of 1996.

Table 2. Shows Medium Performing Business Organisations in

Nigeria

S/NO	NAME OF COMPANY	GROSS PROFIT MARGIN AVERAGE 1995 & FIRST HALF OF	POSITION OF RANKING
1	P.Z. Industries Plc.	15.3	12 th
2	Mobile Oil Nig. Plc	14.85	13 th
3	Smithklin Beecham Nig. Plc	14.35	14 th
4	National Oil Plc	13.2	15 th
5	Nestle Foods nig. Plc.	12.6	16 th
6	Nigerian Tabacco Co. Plc.	12.55	17 th
7	Total Nig. Plc.	12.4	18 th
8	John Holt Plc.	11.8	19 th
9	Undeofison Garment Factory Nig. Plc.	11.8	20 th
10	Carnaudmetal Box Nig. Plc.	11.65	21 st

Source: Nigerian Stock Exchange Unaudited Trading Performance of listed companies in 1995 and during the first half of 1996.

Table 3. Shows Low Performing Business Organisations in Nigeria.

S/ NO	NAME OF COMPANY	GROSS PROFIT MARGIN AVERAGE 1995 & FIRST HALF OF	POSITION OF RANKING
1	Guinness Nig. Plc.	11.05	22 nd
2	Ashaka Cement Plc.	10.0	23 rd
3	Lenard Nig. Plc.	9.8	24 th
4	Unipetrol Nig. Plc.	9.1	25 th
5	Livestock Feeds Plc	8.45	26 th
6	U.A.C. of Nig. Plc.	8.3	27 th
7	Golden Guinea Breweries Plc	6.95	28 th
8	Vono Products Plc.	5.95	29 th
9	Agip Nigeria Plc.	4.1	30 th
10	C.F.O.A. Nig. Plc.	3.95	31 st
11	U.T.C. Nig. Plc.	2.65	32 nd

Source: Nigerian Stock Exchange Unaudited Trading Performance of listed companies in 1995 and during the first half of 1996.

It is often said that every research stands on two legs: the theoretical leg and the empirical leg. While the theoretical leg for this research is the current disenchantment with the field of organisational theory especially as it relates to the concepts of management and leadership, the practical leg of this research flows from our field observations.

These observations have led us to the following tentative conclusions.

- (1) The third category of industrial-organisations which we call Non-Performing Organisations (NPO) were heavily characterised in terms of corporate Governance, by MANAGEMENT:- management styles, management concept; management practice e.g. Taylor (1911); Fayol (1917); Urwick (1950); Weber (1948).
- (ii) The second category of organisations, which we now called the Medium Performing Organisations (MPO) were characterized in terms of Corporate Governance by LEADERSHIP:- Leadership principles and styles, leadership practice, e.g. Yukl (1989), McGregor (1960), Tannebaum and Schmidt (1958), Argyris (1964), Adair (1968), Fiedler (1967) Peters and Waterman (1982) Kanter (1989).
- (iii) What is surprising and most interesting is that the first category of organisations was neither characterised distinctively by management or by leadership. These organisations are indeed characterised in terms of Corporate Governance by the combination or integration of management and leadership characteristics, styles and practice. This group of organisations from the indicators of performance; production and profit we call High Performing

Organisation (HPO). These observations have led to the conceptualisation of the DML model (Dynamic Managerial Leadership) in organisational behaviour, which this project has set out to test empirically.

1.3 PURPOSE

The purpose of the investigation was to test the significance of the DML model in organisational performance through the experimental exploration of the variables contained in the research models on page 14 of the present work.

DML (DYNAMIC MANAGERIAL LEADERSHIP) MODEL

We present DML in this thesis as both a process and a dynamic adaptive system. As a process DML operates as a change management technique whereby workers and managers in high performing organisation are exposed (from our investigations) to an entirely different organisational culture and climate, managerial values, leadership values, motivational strategies, reinforcement and feedback strategies which are lacking in the other two kinds of organisations

As an adaptive dynamic system, DML is comprised of a set of components; input, throughout, output which when operationalised through change management techniques are sufficient to improve or

maintain high performance standards in industrial organisations (See figure 1, page 17).

The input components of the DML are made up of personality variables such as; surgency, emotional stability, conscientiousness, agreeableness and intelligence (see the explanation of these concepts on pages 33-37). The components when matched with the throughput components such as technology, cultural changes, political changes, people and structure, produce an increase in output.

BASIC ASSUMPTIONS

- 1- Leadership has the qualities of a relevant people's leadership.
- 2- Self awareness is achieved.
- 3- Freedom and independence are achieved.
- 4- IST are developed
- 5- Environment and society are normal.
- 6- Capital senses are instilled.

The DML behaviour is largely a function of personality and environment. This largely has been the general conception of behaviour, which Lewin (1939) asserted, as in the following formula:

$$B = F (P \times E)$$

DML Behaviour (B) = Planning and organising, informing and communication, supporting and consulting, managing and solving problems, motivating and rewarding. Is a function of:

DML Personality (P) = Surgency, emotional stability, conscientiousness agreeableness, intelligence, and:

DML Environment (E) = Technology, cultural changes, political changes people and structural changes.

From the above premise, we derive the equation that organisational behaviour (OB) is a function of the DML personality (DMLP) and the DML environment (DMLE).

$$OB = F (DMLP \times DMLE).$$

The DML behaviour has five major characteristics, which are planning and organising in a dynamic and adaptive system, giving immediate and concrete feedback by constantly informing and communicating at all levels and consulting subordinates and customers at all levels

through feedback strategies. DML manages conflicts by involving in moderate risk. DML motivates and reward through challenging and autonomous work groups which were identified from the pilot work (Ebiai, 1997). This was carried out by utilising the 14 leadership characteristics of Yukl, Wall and Lepsinger (1990) which include planning and organising, problem solving, classifying, informing, monitoring, motivating, consulting, recognising, supporting, managing conflict and team building, networking, delegating, developing, mentoring and rewarding and the 14 management principles of Fayol (1917) which include division of work or specialisation authority and communication, discipline, unity of direction, subordination of the individual interest to the general interest, remuneration, centralisation, order, equity, stability of tenure of personnel, initiative, ***esprit de corps*** or harmony.

From the foregoing, five major characteristics, the DML Model were identified as follows:

1. DML plans and organises through a dynamic and adaptive system.
2. DML informs and communicates utilising immediate and concrete feedback.
3. DML supports and consults subordinates and customers at all

levels.

4. DML manages conflicts and solve problems by taking minimal risk.
5. DML motivates and rewards by giving challenging and autonomous task.

The above five characteristics emerged from the results of the pilot report (Ebiai, 1997) that investigated the importance of the 14 leadership characteristics and 14 management principles in the 32 listed Business Organisations in Nigeria with published profit records by the Nigerian Stock Exchange in 1995 and during the first half of 1996. A Likert open ended questionnaire was developed by the researcher and distributed to managers, supervisors and subordinates to rate their leaders on the various leadership characteristics identified by Yukl, Wall and Lepsinger (1990) and the 14 management principles by Fayol (1917).

Six out of the 32 listed companies in the Nigerian Stock Exchange unaudited trading performance report of 1995 and during the first half of 1996, were selected after classifying the companies into high, medium and low categories, due to their performance in terms of gross profit average records. Two of the companies are in the high

category another 2 are in the medium category and 2 are in the low category. The result showed that the variables considered most important are planning and organising; 12.5%, informing and communicating; 13%, supporting and consulting; 14%, managing conflict and solving problems; 14.5%, motivating and rewarding; 14%. Integrating these characteristics by merging the highly rated qualities of management and leadership shows that there were some merits in executive performance, because, managers, supervisors and workers in the high performing organisations (HPO) rate these characteristics far higher than the other characteristics.

MAJOR PRINCIPLES OF THE DML

- i. It explores sources of motive satisfaction in work
- ii. DML serves as an eye opener to managers who have shortfall in some leadership skills in relation to their managerial functions.
- iii. It helps to integrate growth in managerial-leadership skills and improves organisational goals and productivity.
- iv. DML is one of the best ways to integrate managerial and leadership functions.

- v. DML designs ways of creating a work situation that stimulates achievement.
- vi. DML is a very useful performance technique where managerial-leaders are evaluated on the basis of their contributions to overall goal rather than on such characteristics as personality traits.
- vii. DML can identify the kind of work situation that is most satisfying.

1.4 DEFINITION OF MAJOR RELATED CONCEPTS.

1.4.1 DEFINITION OF DML

The DML is an emotionally stable, conscientious, agreeable and intelligent person who utilises a dynamic and adaptive process in involving subordinates, workers and customers in a socio-technical system culture, with a high need to achieve and to want immediate and concrete feedback on a moderate risk taking basis and through personal responsibility, increase production decisions, quality of products, satisfaction of all concerned in the finished products and thereby improving and maintaining performance standard in Industrial Organisations. This concept of the DML is similar to the concept identified by Stogdill (1974) big five models of Personality,

and the motivational concepts of McClelland (1961), McIntyre (1966), and Litwin and Stringer (1968).

1.4.2 LEADERSHIP

Ugwuegbu (1982:22) refers to leadership as:

“The process of influencing the activities of an organised group in its efforts towards target achievement.” It involves influencing people to exert more efforts in some task or to change group member’s behaviour. An effective leader is involved in co-ordination of efforts of the group, planning the exploration of the resources, determining the goals, the ways and the means of attaining these goals. He takes into consideration the possibilities and consequences of certain decision and reduce the conflicts within the groups he leads to minimum. An effective leadership behaviour also represents the extent to which the leader shows “behaviour that is indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth” (p.22).

Leadership concepts are multi-dimensional. Nevertheless, all the definitions of leadership are aimed at ensuring that group objectives are attained. For example; Nwachukwu (1988:146) refers to leadership as

“A social influencing process for the attainment of goals. A leader is

the most influential person in an organisation who provides direction, guides groups activities and ensures that group objectives are attained” (p.146)

Hogan, Curphy and Hogan (1994:493) refers to leadership as follows:

“Leadership involves persuading other people to set aside for a period of time their individual concerns and to pursue a common goal that is important for the responsibilities and welfare of a group”. (p.493).

1.4.3 MANAGEMENT

Brech (1985:8) refers to management as:

“A social process entailing responsibility for effective and economic planning and regulating of the operation of an exercise in fulfillment of a given purpose, and responsibility, involving:-

a. Judgment and decision in determining plans and the development of data procedures to assist control of performance and progress against plans: and

The guidance, integration, motivation and supervision of the personnel composing the enterprise and carrying out of its operations” (p.8).

The utilisation of the above management process alone has hindered organisational performance in a variety of ways (Eze, 1995) Anikpo, 1984; Okafor; 1986, Nwokolo, 1987, Osuji, 1984; Heigham, 1981; Negandhi 1981. For example, Eze's (1995) study suggested that Nigerians are extrinsically motivated at all times to satisfy their own individual needs (Adair, 1973; Herzberg, 1959). He proposed that motivation satisfaction-involvement model. In the model, it was noted that for a paid worker to be involved in his job, he needs to be consistently satisfied with his job and company over a period of time, more so, he also needs to be motivated.

Anikpo's (1984) Immediate-Ultimate Needs Model holds that the ordering of Nigerian worker's needs should be based on the individual, the time, and the situational circumstances (Fiedler, 1967; House, 1971; Fiedler, 1987; Schein, 1970). He groups the workers' needs into immediate and ultimate goals. The former are both material and psychological, and are necessary and preparatory to the later, which are essentially material desires that workers aspire to all the time, and neither is superior to the other. Although the model did not enumerate the two needs, it states that what the Nigerian worker needs and will continue to need is money (Eze,

1988, 1995; Blunt, 1983), recognition for the job he performs (Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman, 1959, Yukl, Wall and Lepsinger, 1990), pension rights (Ubeku, 1975) and comfortable living accommodations. Therefore adequate satisfaction of these needs in Nigerian workers will ensure high level of motivation, job satisfaction and job involvement among them.

Osuji (1984) asserted that many cross-cultural management researchers have stated that socio-cultural factors are the real obstacle in introducing advanced management practices and know-how into developing countries, which Sparrow and Pettigrew (1988) pointed out.

Negandhi (1981) has shown that the transfer of modern management succeeded in Taiwan because of (a) appropriate changes in managerial attitudes (b) use of shrewd adoption strategies; and (c) conscientious assimilation transmitted management knowledge.

The DML likes situations in which he can be successful most of the time, as long as he gives his best shot. In other words the DML wants a total satisfaction for leaders and workers as well as

customers just as Deming (1986) advocate in TQM. The DML has personal responsibility for his own success or failure. This characteristic of the DML is an out growth of both his principles of immediate, concrete feedback and his moderate risk-taking situation.

However, when the DML fail at a task, he wants to know why. The DML learns from facing the data squarely so as not to repeat his past mistakes.

1.4.4 MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP- A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

Management is a social process involving responsibility for the behavioural skills, such as working with people, technical skills, which requires specialised knowledge of tools and techniques in his field and conceptual skills or the ability to see the whole as well as the future.

Leadership is the act of inspiring an organisation in its entirety and carrying it on towards the realisation of its established objectives and goals through the qualities of visions of the future.

Leadership can be seen fairly as “coping with change” and management as “coping with complexity”. Management activities include planning budgeting, organising ,staffing ,controlling and problem solving. In contrast leadership activities is setting direction, aligning people (with the direction) and motivating and inspiring. Thus, management is more administrative, leadership is more interpersonal.

Management is an industrial activity which studies, analyses and reviews evidence, formulates decisions and initiates proper action of appropriate nature. Leadership is understanding of the capacities, emotions, and ideas of the workers and groups of employees who are vitally concerned with making the future. Management is a function or process of planning, co-ordinating and directing the activity of an industry, business or government. The structures, which have evolved to facilitate the process of managing. In order for the manager to cope with and manage these classification he must be able to manage human resources, physical resources and material resources requiring functional knowledge and qualitative skills and

strategic resources requiring knowledge of systems and procedures.

To conclude, management deals with the human, physical and material resources of an organisation. On the other hand, leadership deals mainly with the human aspect of the organisation.

1.4.5 MOTIVATION

Motivation is defined by industrial organisational psychologists in terms of needs, expected reward, goal-directed performance, obtained rewards and satisfaction (Lawler and Porter, 1967).

Eze (1995) defined motivation as:

“a psychological process initiated by the existence of a need and involving goal-seeking to purposive activities directed towards reaching a goal-object and thereby satisfying the needs” (p.29).

Work motivation is observed here as a force within the worker that ignites him to put in his best in the accomplishment of a set task.

Motivation will be taken as a composite factor embodying specific facets of satisfaction such as satisfaction of work, (Vroom, 1964; Lawler and Porter, (1966) Pay (Obi-Keguna, 1967; Ejionye, 1981)

supervision, (Mintzberg, 1979), co-workers and promotion opportunities (Herzberg, et al 1959; Maslow, 1954; Lawler and Porter, 1967; Eze, 1983). This is because every worker needs satisfaction and rewards from these areas.

The DML's work is challenging and structured in such a way as to provide feedback on performance. The DML develops positive relationships with other workers. (Bentz, 1985; 1987; 1990, Eze, 1988, Nwachukwu 1994) the DML also possesses that latitude to make decision about work. DML provides communication goals (Adair, 1968; Badawy, 1980) and involves workers in the implementation of the goals (Lewin, Lippit and White, 1953).

1.4.6 DML INTRODUCED AND CONCEPTUALISED

The DML model attempts to examine in a systematic and comprehensive manner the various influencing factors on the managerial-leadership integration process in Nigerian Industrial-Organisations.

The DML wants to know as soon as possible how well he is doing. If he is not doing well he also wants to know so that he may adjust his performance to meet his personal or organisational goals. The DML

likes the kind of situation that is a personal challenge, but not one that is going to be left to fate. He operates best in the area where the possibility of success at a task and its incentives value are equal. The DML learns from facing the data squarely so as not to repeat his own mistake. The DML is more satisfied when work is challenging and provided feedback on performance. The DML develops positive relationship with other workers on the job. The DML is autonomous and communicates production goals and involves the people in the implementation of decision.

1.4.7 ENVIRONMENTAL/ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

Bass (1990:12) refers to organisational change as involving:-

“Some modification in the various components that constitute the essence of organisations such as task, people,, culture, technology and structure” (p.12).

Nwachukwu (1988:242) asserted that:

“ Change is inevitable in any organisation. Business operates in a dynamic environment which implies change. An organisation that fails to recognise the inevitability of change is doomed to failure. The manager that succeeds is the one that is constantly adapting the direction and operation of his enterprise to changes in technological,

social, political and economic environment in which it operates ... For organisations to prosper, it must monitor changes in manpower situation... government policies... economic changes... technological break through...”(p.242).

The proposed DML model investigated an entirely different organisational culture and climate. The DML research upheld the fact that change is inevitable as noted by Nwachukwu (1988). Nonetheless, the present DML research limits its environmental variables to those proposed by Bass (1990) which include; technology, cultural changes, political change, people and structure.

1.4.8 PERSONALITY

Drever (1972:8) refers to personality as:

“the integrated and dynamic organisation of the physical, mental, moral and social qualities of the individual, that manifests itself to other people in the give and take of social life; on further analysis it would appear in the main to comprise of the natural and acquired impulses and habits; interest and complexities, the sentiments and ideals, the opinions and beliefs as manifested in his relation with his social milieu” (p.6).

Allport (1936) refers to personality as:

“The dynamic organisation within the individual of those psychological systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment”.

Personality variables have been found to constitute a great antecedent and a major influence on leadership by many authors (Lord, DeVader and Allinger, 1986; Kenny and Zaccarro, 1983; Ghiselli, 1971; Bray and Horward, 1983; Bentz, 1985, 1987, 1990; Chidester, Hemreich, Gregorich and Geis, 1991, Stogdill, 1974). The big five models of personality identified by Stogdill (1974) include surgency, emotional stability, conscientiousness, agreeableness and intellectance.

Surgency: Surgency measures the degree to which the DML is sociable, gregarious, assertive, and leader like versus quiet, reserved, mannerly and withdrawn. Some of the common personality traits associated with this dimension of personality include dominance, capacity for status, or social presence, the need for power, McClelland and Burham (1961). Stogdill (1948) review of dominance, extraversion and sociability reflected surgency. Bentz (1985, 1987, 1990) reported findings from his research on executive selection at Sears, Using the Guilford Martin Personality Inventory, Bentz (1985,

1990) noted that executives promoted to the highest levels at Sears were articulative and active (i.e. surgency).

Emotional Stability: Emotional stability dimensions of personality concern the extent to which the DML is calm, steady, cool and have confident versus anxious, insecure, worrisome and emotional. Some of the personality traits associated with emotional stability include, neurotism, Eysenck (1970); McCrae and Costa (1987); emotional stability, Guilford (1975); negative affectivity and affect.

Conscientiousness: Conscientiousness differentiates individuals who are hardworking persevering, organised and responsible from those who are impulsive, irresponsible, undependable and lazy. Personality trait categorised under this dimensions include prudence and ambition, Hogan and Hogan (1992); will to achieve, Digman (1988); need for achievement, McClelland and Burham (1975); dependability, Tupes and Christal (1961); constraint, work and conformity, Fiske (1949). Hogan et al (1994); asserted that leaders with high conscientiousness scores may be more effective in organisations having established products services and procedures.

Agreeableness: Agreeableness measures the degree to which the

DML is sympathetic, cooperative, good natured and warm versus grumpy, unpleasant, disagreeable, and cold. Personality traits associated with the dimension include likeability, Hogan and Hogan (1992); friendly compliance, Digman (1990); need for affiliation, McClelland (1975) and love.

Intellectance: This dimension of personality concerns the extent to which the DML is imaginative, cultured, broad-minded, and curious versus concrete minded, practical and had narrow interest. Personality traits associated with this dimension include openness to experience, McCrae and Costa, (1987). Lord, DeVader and Allinger (1986), asserted that specifically most people seem to regard intelligence as an important aspects of leadership regardless of team, task or situations.

All the above variables, (Vis-à-vis personality variables such as surgency emotional stability, conscientiousness, agreeableness, intellectance; environmental variables such as technology, cultural changes, political changes, people, structures; task accomplishment level, average time, quality of products, profit margin, production

decisions, group maintenance level; immediate and concrete feedback, moderate risk taking situations, personal responsibility satisfaction and motivation will be studied alongside each other. It was believed that the relationship sought, among the various variables of interest, would contribute to executive development in Nigerian Industrial-organisations. Nonetheless, conceptual analysis have include major organisational models such as TQM and MBO. It is pertinent to observe at this point their unique significance to the development of the DML model which was tested out in the present research.

1.5 TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT (TQM) AND DYNAMIC MANAGERIAL LEADERSHIP (DML) - A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

1.5.1 DEFINITION OF TQM

Price and Chen (1993:97) defined TQM as follows:

“TQM is a system that puts customer satisfaction before profit. Customers satisfaction produce long-term sustainable profits, but a

profit priority creates a short term focus at the expense of long-term health. TQM is a system that comprise a set of integrated philosophies, tools and processes used to accomplish business by creating delighted customers and happy employees". P. 97).

There are four key elements that form the foundation of TQM: people continuous improvement, process and the customer.

DML and TQM have similar features like people. Other shared components in the TQM and DML are continuous improvement and emphasis on the customers. TQM problem solving process is also seen in the DML person. The DML is a person who in a position of authority is emotionally stable, conscientious, agreeable and intelligent, who utilises a dynamic and adaptive process in planning and organising; involving subordinates, workers and customers in a socio-technical system culture.

TQM on the other hand, is a system of people, tools and process. The major features of the DML can be seen in the concepts of personality identified by Stogdill (1974) big five model of personality and the motivational concepts of McClelland (1961), McIntyre (1966) and

Litwin and Stringer (1968).

The major TQM features promoted by Deming (1986), Juran (1988) and Crosby (1979) were proposed along with the categories used to evaluate the Baldrige Award candidates.

1.5.2 ELEMENTS OF TQM

Price and Chen (1993) highlighted four key elements that form the foundation of TQM: people, continuous improvements, process and the customer.

People:

The goal is to empower people so that optimal business results can be accomplished through teamwork. The path to this goal starts with training that focuses on communication skills, interactive skills and effective meeting skills.

Continuous Improvement:

Employees are taught to gather data so that intelligent decisions can

be made by asking “why” five times to get to the root cause of the problem. Continuous improvement borders the fundamental principles of quality (the PDCA, Plan, Do, Check, Action, Imani 1986), which is also known as the Deming cycle.

Process

The “Problem-solving Process” (PSP) and the quality improvement process (QIP) provide people with basic tools and common language for continuous improvement, (Xeros, 1986). A team uses the PSP as a guide as it analyses a problem, chooses solution, develops an action plan, and evaluate implementation results. The use of the QIP helps focus attention on the customer and customer requirements. The Benchmarking process encourages people to identify “best of class” role models and strive to adapt similar methods. The use of Benchmarking makes TQM truly strategic by trying to match the performance of the best companies.

Customer:

The primary focus of TQM is the customer and customer satisfaction. Researchers on TQM proposed five customer perceptions of quality (which they call quality elements) that correlate to customer satisfaction. Of the five, three are of particular

importance: expected quality, satisfying quality and delightful quality. (The other two are indifferent quality and reverse quality).

1.5.3 THE DML FACTORS AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP TO THE TQM FACTORS.

The DML is an emotional stable, conscientious, agreeable and intelligent person who utilises a dynamic and adaptive process in planning and organising, involving subordinates, workers and customers in a socio-technical system culture, with a high need to achieve through information and communication skills and with immediate and concrete feedback on a moderate risk taking basis and through personal responsibility, increase production decisions, quality of products, satisfaction of all concerned by rewarding and motivating and thereby making maximum organisational profit.

1.5.4 DML FACTORS FOCUS ON THE FOLLOWING:

Immediate Concrete Feedback

The DML wants to know as soon as possible how well he is doing. If he is not doing well, he wants to know, so that he may adjust his performance to meet his personal and/or organisational goals.

Moderate Risk-Taking Situations:

The DML likes the kind of situation that creates personal challenge, but not one that is going to be left to fate. DML operate best in the area where the probability of success at a task and its incentive value are about equal. A task that is too simple will not offer enough of a challenge to the DML, such a task will not capture the interest of the DML for very long, unless it is a component of a more challenging goal. In short, the DML likes situations in which he can be successful most of the times, as long as he gives his best shot.

Personal Responsibility For Their Own Success or Failure.

When a Dynamic Managerial Leader fails at a task, he wants to know why. The DML learns from facing the data squarely so as not to repeat the same mistake.

The Work Itself:

The DML's work is challenging enough and is structured in such a way as to provide feedback on performance.

Relationships

The DML develops positive relationships with others.

Autonomy

DML communicates production goals, in so far as that decision is made by involving the people who implement it.

1.5.5 A CRITICAL REVIEW OF DML AND TQM CONCEPTS

TQM has disseminated widely among fortune 1000 firms presumably because managers believe TQM improves performance. However, both the anecdotal evidence and the empirical studies suggest considerable variability in TQM's performance inputs, ranging from unprecedented success to bankruptcy and abandonment of TQM . For example. The 1992 Baldrige award criteria on 1000 points showed that strategic quality and planning process in the TQM was given only 60 points as compared to customers focus and satisfaction which is rated at 300 points.

Resource theory provides a useful heterogeneity, i.e. that different firms hold different resource portfolios, and that these differences produce variability in performance across firms (Wernefelt, 1984,

Barney 1986; Peteraf, 1993). That TQM acts as a source of sustained competitive advantage is explained by the use of Resource Theory. Although firms may attempt to imitate resources held by successful competitors or at least to replicate their benefits, resource bundles remain heterogeneous due to imperfect imitability created by isolating compression of diseconomies – (1) the resource may require long-term accumulation before attaining value (e.g. learning, experience or proficiency in a skill); (2) historical uniqueness (first mover advantages) – the resource may have been originally acquired under unique, non replicable conditions (3) connectedness of resources – a firm may acquire a competitor’s valuable resource only to find its success depends on some complementary resource that the firm cannot acquire; (4) causal ambiguity – firms may be unable to determine that link between another firm’s resources and its success which may result from social phenomenon too complex for managers to understand or manage (Lieberman and Montgomery, 1988; Dierickll and Cool, 1989; Barney, 1986).

Under the resource view success is derived from economically valuable resources that other firms cannot imitate, and for which no equivalent substitute exist. Is TQM such resource? Accounting to TQM advocates, TQM does produce value, through a variety of

benefits, improves understanding of customers needs, improves customers satisfaction, improves internal communication, better problem-solving, greater employee commitment and motivation, stronger relationships with suppliers, fewer errors; and reduces waste (Juran, 1988, Schmidt and Finnigan, 1992; Spechler, 1991).

However, the evidence from TQM studies also suggests that some employees resist or even subvert TQM, finding it ideological or faddish. Furthermore, TQM entails substantial time investment for managers, it is expensive (especially for training and meetings). It rarely produces short-term results, it demands intense CEO commitment, and it makes unrealistic assumptions about most organisation's capacities to transform their cultures (Bleakey, (1993); Naj, 1993; Fuchsberg, 1992; 1993a; 1993b; Mathews, 1992).

In summary the question of whether TQM does produce economic value, has not been fully resolved due to methodological problems. It is to this end that the Dynamic Managerial Leadership model, which is superior to TQM, has been proposed and tested in the present study.

1.6 MANAGEMENT BY OBJECTIVES (MBO)

Management by Objectives (MBO) is one of the methods of management advocated by Drucker (1964) for achieving organisational objectives. The basic concept is that top executives and managers should be involved in determining company objectives and define major areas of responsibility, and integrate into them the goal of the employees.

1.6.1 DEFINITION OF MANAGEMENT BY OBJECTIVES (MBO)

Odiorne (1965:49) define MBO as:

“A process whereby superior and subordinate managers of an organisation jointly identify its common goals, define each individual’s major areas of responsibility to terms of the results expected of him and use these measures as a guide for operating the unit and assessing the contribution of each of its members” (pg. 49).

1.6.2 MANAGEMENT BY OBJECTIVES (MBO) AND DYNAMIC MANAGERIAL-LEADERSHIP-A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS.

MBO is a process by which managers and their subordinates participate jointly in setting goals, activities and target dates as well as the evaluation of performance as it relates to established objectives.

The DML is a person involved in both a process and a dynamic system. As a person in position of leadership, he is surgent, emotionally stable, conscientious, agreeable and intelligent, and as a dynamic and adaptive process system, he involves subordinates, workers customers in a socio-technical system culture, with a high need to achieve through information and communication skills and with immediate and concrete feedback on a moderate risk taking basis and; through personal responsibility, increases production decision, quality of products, satisfaction of all concerned by rewarding and motivating and thereby making maximum organisational profit.

Management by objectives is one of the most effective ways of integrating activities and balancing organisational objectives. Drucker (1964) postulates that company objectives should be set in

all the major areas such as:

1. productivity
2. market standing
3. innovation
4. Physical and financial resource
5. Profitability
6. Managers performance and development
7. Public relations or responsibility and
8. Workers performance and attitude

McClelland (1961) that postulates achievers fear to fail. The DML is an achiever. In fact it is generally known that fear leads to lowered levels of aspirations. It is the characteristic of the DML to take risk, and ask for feed back and set measurable objectives. The fact that the DML has high need to achieve usually gives way for the DML to have high motive for thinking and with innate desire to succeed. The DML however, often takes into consideration the quality of his products, profit made and satisfaction of all concerned in production.

MBO converts company objectives into individual goals and as a result it contributes to higher levels of job satisfaction. By integrating employee goals to company goals, there is goal congruency which will help to elicit employee commitment with resultant increase in productivity.

DML on the other hand is an integration of management principles and leadership behaviour characteristics, which help to elicit chief executive's performance. MBO is often called "Management by Result". By this method, both the manager and employees are evaluated by results achieved.

According to Raia (1974:48) there are certain essential steps to be followed in establishing MBO. The major steps are formulating long range and strategic plans, developing specific overall organisational objectives and establishing departmental objectives. The three steps constitute the essential elements of the goal setting, action planning and self-control, respectively. The final essential elements of action, planning and self control, respectively. The final essential elements is the periodic review in which case the major steps are reviewed, progressively towards objectives and appraising of overall performance, re-enforcing behaviour and strengthening motivation through management training and self development, compensation,

career and manpower planning.

1.6.2 CRITICAL EVALUATION OF MBO

Research has shown that there are many advantages in the use of MBO in organisations. Some of the major advantages include:

1. It allows subordinates to help plan and control on their own performance, which results in a stronger motivation to do the best possible job. DML on the other hand allows chief executives to plan and organise Industrial-Organisations, sectional units and departments thereby increasing productivity. Ebiai's (1997) research report showed that high performance organisations rated planning and organising at 12.5% which is far higher than the ratings given to most other variables. This DML variable has been rated as a contributing factor to their high performance.
2. MBO helps to integrate company goals of profit, productivity, market standing, human resources, social roles and technical growth. DML helps to integrate leadership behaviours characteristics and managerial principles for organisational performance. DML involves subordinates, workers and customers in a socio technical system culture, with a high need to achieve and

want immediate and concrete feedback on a moderate risk taking basis and through taking personal responsibility for success; reduces times for productivity and increases production decision, quality of products, satisfaction of all concerned in the finished products, satisfaction of all concerned in the finished products, thereby making maximum organisational profits.

3. MBO is one of the best ways to integrate activities and balance organisational objectives. DML is one of the best ways to integrate the stable personality qualities of a conscientious, agreeable and intelligent leader with change in organisational technology, culture, politics, people and structure to accomplish organisational tasks such as maximum profit, increase in production and quality products and satisfaction of all concerned. Ebiai (1997) reported that High Performing Organisations rated their leaders as high in surgency, 28.31%; emotional stability 16.44%; conscientiousness, 16.44%; agreeableness, 16.44%; and intelligence, 22.37%. These factors are important DML variables in the present study.
4. MBO is a very useful performance technique where participants are evaluated on the basis of their contributions to overall goals rather than on such characteristics as personality traits, Odiorne (1965). DML is a very useful performance technique where Chief executives

are evaluated on the basis of their personality characteristics: intelligence, agreeableness; ability for a dynamic and adaptive behaviours towards changes in technology, culture, politics, people and structure and their ability to accomplish task within the shortest possible time and to make maximum profits and high quality products (see Ebiai 1997, pilot work; and the research model for the present work on page 17).

Raia (1974) emphasised the importance of personnel development when he pointed out that it is important “in its potential to improve current performance, to combat technological and managerial obsolescence, to prepare the individual for additional responsibility and advancement and to increase his level of motivation and commitment to a total set of job objectives”Carroll and Tosi (1973 p.3). Goal setting is the most important aspect of MBO and there lies in the advantages, Raia (1974) has summarised the steps necessary for establishing the goals as follows:-

1. The objectives have to be related to organisational goals and strategic plans
2. The objectives have to be quantified or measurable
3. They must be realistic in order to be achievable.

4. There must be ample resources to make their attainment possible
5. There must be appraisal on performance to know what objectives are being met.
6. Objectives need to be reduced into writing to make sure they are clear, concise and intelligible.
7. The objectives must be communicated to all who are to be involved in their accomplishment and they must be given the opportunity to integrate their own goals, into the overall objective.
8. All objectives must be in the key areas of company performance and must be made current by constant review.

The three steps necessary for the implementation of MBO in an organisation are: authoritarian education, persuasion and coercion. This means that the participants are to be educated to appreciate the need for MBO and the advantages to be derived. It also involved persuasion, although Odiorne (1974) believes that persuasion has given rise to failure of many MBO's it is still a good method to use in certain circumstances. Persuasion is bad when it replaces education and total appreciation of the benefits to be derived from MBO programmes.

DML is implemented utilising other major steps: namely; having immediate and concrete feedback, operating in a moderate risk-taking situation, that is a personal challenge and where the probability of success at a task and its incentive value are about equal. The critical steps in this investigation were taken in 1996 when Nigerian industrial organisations were classified and categorised into three major groups (see Table 1,2, and 3 on pages 10, 11 and 12). The Nigerian stock Exchange unaudited trading performance average of 32 listed companies in 1995 and during the first half of 1996 showed that 11 public limited liability companies with gross profit margin averages could be classified under high performing organisations and others under medium and low performing organisation.

In carrying out these three steps (1) Having immediate, and concrete feedback; the DML wants to know as soon as possible how well he is doing (2) DML operates in a moderate risk-taking situation, that is a personal challenge. DML operates best in the area where the probability of success at a task and its incentive value are about equal. (3) DML has personal responsibility for their own success or failure.

MBO takes time, efforts and commitment from all participants and requires that a clear sense of direction be given by the organisation for it to produce the desired effect. DML does not take time to accomplish the desired effect.

In MBO, the lower management and employees may not be enthusiastic about the programme for it unaccustomed initiative and dedication. DML is more management and leadership focused. There is hardly any fear over employees' view about its implementation. Many studies though have shown that MBO is very useful. Employee were reported to have been motivated to work harder and achieve self actualisation, Raia (1974).

Some of the criticism made against MBO is that excessive time is spent on persuasion, in counseling and over emphasis on quantitative measures. MBO is a good device for it helps to obtain total commitment of all the organisation to work together to achieve a common objective which should have been otherwise very difficult.

In summary, MBO can be seen really as a total management system, whereby the objectives for the company as a whole are decided upon

and then the key results which each manager will need to achieve if the overall objectives are to be met, are agreed. DML communicates production goals, for instance, but the process by which they are met is motivating only if so far it is involving the people who implement it.

1.7 RESEARCH DESIGN

Following the research model on page 17 The general research design of the study is a 5 x 5 design (see fig 2 and 3 pages 60 and 61) .

The following factors constitute the Independent Variables:-

(A) DML Personality variables (DMLP)

- (i) Surgency
- (ii) Emotional stability
- (iii) Conscientiousness
- (iv) Agreeableness

(v) Intellectance

(B) DML Environmental variables (DMLE)

(i) Technology,

(ii) Cultural changes,

(iii) Political changes,

(iv) People,

(v) Structure.

The following factors constitute the Dependent Variables.

(A) High Task accomplishment level.

(i) Average /Assembly times

(ii) Quality of products

(iii) Profit ratio

(iv) Production decision

(v) Satisfaction

(vi) Productivity

(B) High Group Maintenance level

- (I) High achievement principle
- (II) Moderate risk taking situation
- (III) Immediate and concrete feedback
- (IV) Personal responsibility for his own success and failures
- (V) Challenging work
- (VI) Relationship and autonomy.

Figure 2. Shows the Independent and Dependent Variables in a 5x5 Factorial Design.

A	INDEPEMDEMT VARIABLES	A	DEPENDENT VARIABLES
	DML PERSONALITY VARIABLES (DMLP) Surgency Emotional stability Conscientiousness Agreeableness Intellectance		HIGH TASK ACCOMPLISHMENT LEVEL. i. Average/Assembly times. ii. Quality of Products. iii. Profit Ratio iv. Production decision v. Satisfaction vi. Productivity
	B		HIGH MAINTENANCE LEVEL i. Achievement Principles ii. Moderate risk-taking situations iii. Immediate, Concrete feedback iv.

	<p>Personal responsibility for their own success or failure</p> <p>v. Challenging Work vi. Relationships and Autonomy</p>
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1.8 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The goals of this research are the following:

- i. To propose and demonstrate the feasibility and practicability of a “Dynamic Managerial Leadership” (DML) model or theory in Nigeria.
- ii. To investigate if the DML will out perform management and leadership models in terms of time spent on completing a task.
- iii. To investigate if the DML model will outperform management and leadership models in the number of quality products to be accepted.
- iv. To find out if the DML model will increase profit margin more than management and leadership models.
- v. To assess the rate at which the DML will be highly satisfactory and productive as compared to other models.
- vi. To investigate if there is gender bias in applying the DML models.
- vii. To build a model of a Dynamic Managerial Leader that can be

tested and focused upon as the right form of human being that can bring forth the highest form of organisational performance.

1.9 RESEARCH QUESTIONS:

- i. Could Organisational Performance be determined by Organisational climate factors such as achievement, moderate risk, immediate and concrete feedback, responsibility, challenging work, relationships and autonomy?
- ii. Would there be any difference among Organisations in terms of how their organisational climate factors such as achievement principles, moderate risk, immediate and concrete feedback, responsibility, challenging work, relationships and autonomy might influence their performance?
- iii. Which of the categories of organisations would described the environment of their organisations as best in terms of satisfaction and productivity?

type (type of industry) on the climate of three Nigerian manufacturing industries. He collected data from 150 workers; 30 supervisors and 20 managers in each industry. Analysing the data with one way analysis of variance, he indicated that subjects differed on felt responsibility and perceived climatic dimensions of structure, responsibility, reward, risk, warmth, support, performance standards and identity. However none of the climate dimensions was influenced by the interaction between occupational level and organisational type. The results have implications for employees' commitment and performance and the planning and management of industrial workers Haire, Ghisseli and Porters', (1996) study on the attitude of European managers towards some dimensions of leadership practice, found that European manager's

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 GENERAL INTRODUCTION TO THE REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The aim of this review is to report the existing literature on qualities, styles and characteristic that exist among the various dimensions of management models such a DML (McIntyre, 1966) and Total Quality Management as conceptualised by Deming (1986), Watson (1986), and Crosby (1979) and George (1992) as they relate to customers satisfaction, quality planning, quality and control, which produce sustainable profits, Price and Chen (1993). The literature has also included reviews on management behaviour such as initiative, centralisation, subordinating the individual interest to the general interest as chain of communication advocated by Fayol (1917) and leadership behaviour characteristic such as problem solving, motivating consulting identified by Yukl, Wall and Lepsinger (1990).

The above variables are discussed on pages(1-61) especially as they relate to DML and other personality variable such as open mindedness, social support, intelligence, confidence, ambition,

friendliness, credibility, dominance, extraversion-introversion, adjustment, conservation, surgency, emotional stability, conscientiousness as propounded by Stogdill (1974) and environment variables identified by Bass (1990) such as technology, cultural changes, political changes, people and structure.

The reported attempt at studying management and leadership behaviour in Nigerian industrial-organisations, include the works of Eze (1978, 1988, 1995), Egwu (1983, 1988), Ejiofor (1987), Fagbemi (1981), Nweze (1995), Ugwuegbu (1981), Nwachukwu, (1988, 1994), Aboloko, (1985).

2.2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON DML AND TQM

Empirical studies on DML have concluded that it improves quality and reduces time which are precious to customers and industrialists. This is demonstrated from the studies of organisational climate and motivation by Litwin and Stringer (1968), and “the Math Game” studies by McIntyre, (1966). Litwin and Stringer (1968) for instance, created three mock companies in the same business and varied them only by style of the manager and the climate he created. At the end of the 2 week experiment, the company that had been run on the DML achievement principles had

outperformed the other two on most dimensions including quality and time (the other two had been organised on “authoritarian and friendly” principles. McIntyre, (opcit) had demonstrated a similar effect with fifth grade mathematics students, raising performance and learning levels by changing the classroom structure to emphasise personal responsibility, feedback and moderate risk taking.

Most existing empirical studies on TQM conclude that it does produce value. However, most of the studies were conducted by consulting firms of quality associations with vested interests in their outcomes, and most did not conform with generally accepted standards of methodological rigour. For example; in 1983 the Union of Japanese scientists and Engineers published a study of Japanese companies that won the Deming prize between 1961 and 1980. The study concluded that these firms had maintained above-average long-range performance as measured by earned productivity growth rates, liquidity and workers’ safety. However, the study did not include firms that had not won the Deming prize (one would not expect the experiences of Deming Award Winners to represent all firms experiences with TQM). Also it did not report the progress of

TQM firms over the same period, and it did not control for industry factors that might have produced the observed performance differences.

Ebiai's (1997) research on DML showed that the DML plans and organises supports and consults, informs and communicates, manages conflict and solves problems motivates and rewards. The above five characteristics emerged from the results of the pilot report (Ebiai, 1997) that investigated the importance of the 14 leadership characteristics and 14 management principles in the 32 listed Business Organisations in Nigeria with profit records grown up by the Nigerian Stock Exchange Unaudited performance of listed companies in 1995 and during the first half of 1996. A Likert open-ended questionnaire was developed by the researcher and distributed to managers, supervisors and subordinates to rate their leaders on the various leadership characteristics identified by Yukl, Wall and Lepsinger (1990) and the 14 management principles by Fayol (1917).

Six of the 32 listed companies in the Nigeria Stock Exchange unaudited trading performance report were classified as high performing, medium and low performing organisations. Two of the

companies were in the high category, and the last 2 in the low category. The result showed that the variables considered most important by the organisations are planning and organising, 12.5%; informing and communicating, 13%; supporting and consulting, 14%; Managing Conflict and solving problems, 14.5%; motivating and rewarding, 14%; Integrating these characteristics showed that they were some merits in executive performance, because managers, supervisors and workers in the high performing organisations (HPO) rated these characteristics far higher than the other characteristics. McIntyre, (1966); has demonstrated a similar effect with fifth grade mathematics students, raising performance and learning levels by changing the classroom structure to emphasise personal responsibility, feedback and moderate risk taking.

On the basis of TQM empirical studies, the conference board, A New York Business research group released in 1985 a study of the quality practice of U.S corporations. They received 149 responses to 800 surveys, and reported that 111 (74.5%) had quality initiatives in place. Over 30 percent said that TQM had improved their performance, with less than 1 percent reporting performance declines as a result of TQM. This study did not control for industry factors, did not include medium-sized or small firms, and did not

track the performance of comparable non-TQM firms over the same period.

In 1989 the Gallup Organisation surveyed 600 senior executives on behalf of American Society for Quality Control. The study reported that (54%) fifty four percent of respondents were at least “ pleased” with their quality efforts, and half of these claimed significant performance impacts. The study focused on large firms and did not control for industry factors.

In 1991, the U.S. Government General Accounting Office (GAO), responding to a request from the U.S. congress, produced a study of the 20 highest scoring applicants for the 1988 Baldrige Awards (U.S. GAO, 1991). The GAO reported that these firms had achieved better employee relations, improved product quality, lower costs and improved customer satisfaction. According to the study, however, the methodology did not constitute “ a statistically-rigorous analysis of the companies performance under quality management” (1991-3). Indeed the study did not control for industry factor, did not include firms that did not apply for the Baldrige and did not report on the progress of non-TQM firms over the same period.

Several large TQM consulting firms have produced in-house quality studies for their clients, but most have released only their result, and not their methodologies. In 1992, Arthur D. Little produced an in-house report based on a survey of 500 large U.S. firms (Arthur D. Little, 1992). Ninety-three percent of respondents claimed to have some form of TQM with 35 percent reporting that their TQM efforts have had “significant performance impacts”, and 62% expecting significant impacts over the next 3 years. Although the methodology was not released publicly, it appears that the study did not include small firms, and did not investigate the performance of non TQM firms over the same period.

The most widely cited TQM research project to date was that of the International Quality Study (American Quality Foundation, 1991), a joint project conducted by Ernest young (the Accounting and Consulting firm), and the American Quality Foundation (the research was sponsored by ASQC (The American Society for Quality Control)). This project, which studies the TQM efforts of over 500 automotive, computer, banking and health care organisations in the US., Canada, Germany and Japan, had several shortcomings: it had no theoretical grounding, the research sponsors had vested interests in disseminating TQM (their stated aim was to develop an

empirical basis for quality improvement worldwide”). It apparently excluded small and medium-sized organisations, and it is not clear whether the study tracked the performance of a control sample of non-TQM firms. Nonetheless, by conducting in-depth field interviews and controlling for national and industry differences, this research was far more rigorous than previous TQM’s research. The sponsors concluded that some TQM-practices, particularly process improvement and supplier certification—did universally improve performance, but the performance impact of the remaining TQM features varied, depending on the firm’s stage of TQM advancement.

Aside from the TQM studies, which were mainly designed to show that TQM can work (with a bit of consulting help), there exists a mutual-fund called the General Securities fund—that trades only in stock of firms known to adhere to the TQM philosophy. This fund has matched the performance of the Standard and Poor 500, despite a very conservative asset mix (the fund manager keeps about 70% of fund assets in cash), and Morning Star awarded a 4-star rating to its 5-year performance. The stocks themselves have slightly outperformed the S and P 500 over the same period.

Moreover, Business Week (1993) recently examined the stock performance of Baldrige winner reporting that if a person had invested equal amounts in each Baldrige winner when their awards were announced, the stocks would have appreciate a cumulative, 89.2% since 1988, compared to 33.1% for the Standard and Poor's 500. Although interesting, this evidence is inconclusive because it includes a small sample of very large firms, and it excludes smaller and privately-held firms (including the Bankrupt Wallace Company), Moreover, since performance is one criterion for Baldrige Award selection, the Business Week sample was biased toward high-performing TQM firms.

Although several of the existing studies claimed to prove that TQM does produce economic value, the question is not fully resolved due to the methodological problem cited above.

In summary, Total Quality Management TQM is based on the ethics of Western and Japanese industrial civilisation (Egwu, 1987) Total Quality Management is an essential component of establishing long term viability, high technology companies. The experiences of companies with TQM have demonstrated its effectiveness in improving quality, customer satisfaction, and competitiveness.

2.3 REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT.

Eze, (1988) investigated the nature and dimension of leadership in Nigeria industries and organisations utilising a 12-item leadership test and administered to 102 management personnel, comprising a control group of 48 and an experimental group of 54 as well as 60 managers and 42 supervisors. The result of the data analysis indicated that Nigeria leaders in the sample were more authoritarian than democratic in their managerial attitudes as sample “Yes” mean (17.8) is greater than sample “No” mean (12.3).

Eze (ibid) also showed another significant mean difference between the experimental and control groups. Over 66% of experimental group showed human relation leaning with mean of 18.1; only about 47% of the control groups were human relation-orientated with a mean of 13.6. The results also showed that 67% of the supervisors exhibited autocratic tendencies with a mean of 18.4%, while 53% of the managers were autocratic with a mean of 14.3. The results of the study suggested that Nigerian leaders required complete obedience on the part of the workers and afford little opportunity to subordinates for consultation or to put forward their own ideas in decision making. The result also suggested that

downsizing of Nigerian workforce is usually done indiscriminately and this had been associated with certain undesirable traits such as selfish goals; Eze, (1995); indiscipline, Nwachukwu, (1993); and political patronage, Ukoha (1984).

Nwachukwu, (1994) carried out a study with 205 senior staff employees in Nigeria to identify the leadership qualities that enhance to productivity. He designed a questionnaire pretested and validated to ensure that leadership behaviour, personal characteristics and environmental factors positively or negatively influencing employees behaviour, were included.

The result of the study indicated that 48.3% of the respondents believed that supervisors with the ability to place and assess subordinates accurately, assist subordinates in problem solving and understanding of employees needs, and aspirations would influence their productivity more than supervisors with measures of ability to set and achieve objectives, problem solving and decision making ability, initiative, self confidence, and ability to lead. Respondents scored measures on supervisors ability to set and achieve objectives, problem solving and decision-making, initiative, self-confidence and ability to lead very low. The study also suggested the significance of subordinates acceptance and support

for leadership performance as advocated by Barnard (1968).

Waldman and Yammarino (1999) described the shortcomings of “contextualist and individualists” studies on leadership effectiveness. They pointed out that part of the problem in attempting to understand the potential effect of leadership at the highest levels is that researchers generally have confined leadership and its effects to the individual, dynamics, or small group levels of analysis rather than to the organisation as a whole. In a smaller vein Ulrich, Zenger and Smallwood (1999) acknowledged the importance of individual leadership attributes; however, they concluded that without a connection to organisational results; these attributes are sufficient in helping to explain leadership effectiveness.

Campbell, (1991); Harris and Hogan, (1992); and Lombardo, Rudderman and McCauley, (1988); indicated that a leader’s credibility or trust worthiness may be the single most important factor in subordinate judgement of his or her effectiveness. For example, Harris and Hogan asked subordinates (N301) to evaluate their managers (N49) using a 55- items questionnaire that assessed growth versus stagnation, interpersonal competence, managerial values and technical competence, subordinates also rated their

managers for overall effectiveness. Each manager and his/her boss completed a parallel questionnaire. Subordinates and bosses' evaluation of a target manager's performance were reasonably consistent ($r > .50$). In addition, managers self-rating were uncorrelated with the ratings provided by other groups; though consistent with the meta-analytic results of Harris and Schaubroeck, (1988).

Perhaps most importantly, bosses ratings of manager's overall effectiveness were largely influenced by judgment of his or her technical competence (e.g. "My supervisor is a flexible and foresighted problem solver") whereas subordinate's rating of a manager's overall effectiveness were largely influenced by the judgment of integrity (e.g. "My supervisor has earned my trust"). Thus although subordinates and bosses tend to agree in their evaluation of a manager's overall effectiveness were largely influenced by the judgment of integrity (e.g. "My supervisor has earned my trust"). Thus although subordinates and bosses tend to agree in their evaluation of a manager's overall effectiveness, they also evaluate other aspects of that performance. Although subordinates ratings will be in some degree contaminated by rating errors, research shows that these ratings also reflect some

knowledge of a person's actual performance in a leadership role.

Ebiai's(1997) report on the rating of managers, supervisors and subordinates in Nigerian business organisations based on the 14 principles of management by Fayol (1917) and 14 leadership characteristics by Yukl, Wall and Lepsiger (1991), showed that managers effectiveness were largely influenced by subordinates judgment on planning and organising, 12.5%; informing and communicating, 13%; supporting and consulting, 14%; managing and solving problems, 14.5%; motivation and reward, 24%. These factors have been found to contribute immensely to productivity in Higher Performing Organisations (see page 9). These factors are also significant variables in the present DML research.

Analoui (1990) investigated into "Management Training and Development Needs" of senior officials in Zimbabwe, utilising sixteen organisations with 73 senior executive managers and senior officials. Forty-one managers completed the distributed questionnaires and were interviewed, ultimately. When the senior managers were asked "what if they were provided with opportunity to participate in management training programmes, for example, and people related issues (such as communication skills) were considered. Nearly three quarters (73.2%) said that a management development programme

have to place “ a great deal” of emphasis on such topics as communication skills. One quarter (24.4%) believed there should be “a moderate amount” of attention given to them, and only one replied that there was “little need” for the inclusion of social aspects. This study suggest that communication as conceptualised and developed by Adair (1968) is a group maintenance function that is directed towards group, and individual needs and fulfilled in the context of a total leadership situation. The study also justifies the significance of communication in the present DML study.

Millikin Davies (1992) using data from a large aerospace organisation in the U.S.A estimated a 50% base rate. She gathered ‘Critical incidents of Managerial Incompetence’ which she rank ordered in terms of frequency. The most common complaints from direct reports concerned (a) Manager’s unwillingness to exercise authority (“e.g. reluctance to control problems and others”) which characterised 20% of the sample of 84 managers, (b) Managers tyrannising their subordinates (“e.g. manages his/her employees as if they were stupid”). Which characterised 16% of the sample. Evidence from the above study suggests that leadership matters. While in Nigeria autocratic tendencies are high as indicated in Eze (1988), in the United States some managers are unwilling to

exercise authority. For examples Hogan Curphy and Hogan (1990) in order to stimulate research on the topic of “Inept Management” proposed that the base rate of managerial incompetence in America is between 60% and 70%.

Shipper and Wilson; (1991), using data from 101 departments in a large south Western hospital in the U.S.A. reported that the base rate for incompetent management in that organisation was 60%. DeVries, (1992); in a fascinating brief review estimated that for the past 10 years the failure rate among senior executives in Corporate America has been at least 5%.

This inept attitude of management may be as a result of management undermining the use of “Psychological Measures” such as cognitive ability, normal personality, structured interviews, simulation and assessment centers which predict leadership success reasonably well (Bass, 1990; Howard and Bray, 1990; Yukl, 1989). The failure of management may also be as a result of management unawareness of psychological testings, Levinson, (1994). And even when they are aware the standardised and well validated methods developed by psychologist are used only in a tiny fraction of cases, Hogan, Curphy and Hogan, (1994).

Other reasons for management failure to utilise psychological services are that they are afraid of psychological interviews for high-level candidates and high-level officers, Levinson (opcit). Management believes that the empirical researches by psychologist are so narrowly focused and irrelevant. Similarly, they believe that psychologists are so cautious about generalising beyond their data that they have nothing to say, Levinson, (opcit). Management also considers the expensive nature of psychological testing, Hogan et al, (1994). They therefore overlook the cost of making poor selection decisions, Levinson (1994).

The undermining of psychological services by management has led to organisational mismanagement for a variety of reasons. Betz, (1985) essentially founded modern management derailment research while analysing the correlates of executive performance at Sears. He reported that among the persons with the appropriate positive characteristics i.e. Intelligence, confidence, ambition, a sub-set failed, Bentz, (ibid) catalogued the theories associated with failure (e.g. playing politics, moodiness, dishonesty) and concluded that the failed executives had an overriding personality defect or character flaw that affected their subordinates and prevented them from building teams. The reasons for Bentz' findings at Sears can be

attributed to management refusal to submit to psychological assessment, DeVries (1992).

Peterson (1993) and Peterson and Hicks (1993) evaluated individual coaching for effectiveness programme at Personnel Decision Incorporated, an intensive intervention that may last for a year. The programme was designed for managers whose careers were in jeopardy. Reviewing the results of 370 candidates over a five-year period, Peterson (1993) and Peterson and Hicks (1993) reported that majority of managers were able to change a number of targeted behaviours and these behavioural changes were still in place six months after the training had ended. Many of these candidates had previously attended three to five day standardised leadership training programmes, but these programs produced little behavioural change. The above findings imply that many managers that are performing poorly can make the changes necessary to maintain their careers, but they need more intensive training than that found in most leadership development programmes.

Thomas, Pettigrew and Rubashaw (1985) conducted an “audit” of British management and their approach to strategic change for the British Economic and Social Research Council. Some 1073 directors, senior and middle managers from 190 companies were

surveyed. The audit revealed that a radical strategic change perspective amongst managers does indeed tend to be associated with the extent, to which the managers had had training, and whether the company has a management development programme. However, managers were distinctly ill-equipped to take such a strategic change perspective. The highest educational achievement for 41% of the sample was only to school level; 43% in British companies and 33% in non-British companies. University education was concentrated amongst directors and notable for its absence in middle and production managers.

Since beginning employment only 47% of managers had general management training lasting more than one week, mainly in the past, and 36% of managers had neither managerial nor technical training. Such poor provision still remains and offers numerous legislative attempts to engineer change by successive governments.

Ejiofor's (1987) study on managerial talent and organisational performance in Nigeria, noted that the customers of managerial talents are all the organisations utilising the services of managers in their production processes. These include civil service, the universities, hospitals, and business enterprises and corporations, the army, the police and religious organisations. According to Ejiofor

(ibid) it has been estimated that there are 60,000 middle and senior management personnel running enterprises engaging more than 10 employees in Nigeria, and that approximately 60% of these managers are in the private sectors, of which about 10,000 are expatriates. These institutions need an additional 3,500 managers every year to cater for the expanding needs of the organisations, and to fill vacancies arising from deaths, resignations or retirement. About 1,000 of these are for senior managerial and administrative functions. Altogether about 120,000 managers of all levels are managing enterprises of different sizes in different parts of Nigeria. The research failed to inform us of the important attributes of talents. However, intelligence which is a personality variable identified by Stogdill (1994), can be assumed to be a measurement for talent in the present DML research.

Ebiai's (1997) pilot report on the personality variables considered most important for productivity had indicated that managers, supervisors and workers rated surgency, 28.31%; emotional stability, 16.44%; conscientiousness, 16.44%; agreeableness, 16.44%; and intelligence, 12.37%. Intelligence was rated as the second most important personality variables that influenced performance in the High Performing Organisations. However, the

leadership and management functions that interacted to influence such behaviour include culture, climate, managerial values, leaderships values and motivational strategies.

Ejiofor (1988) reported a study published by National Manpower Boards on management in Nigeria industries, it was found that “only 5.60% of the indigenous Nigeria managers were assessed by their establishment as being excellent managerial calibre and just over 40% as being good”. Inadequate education, inadequate experience and lack of training are given as the reason for the relatively low performance. Thus, it seems valid to conclude that the demand for managerial talents are high, but that the customer of managerial talents in organisations are forced to utilise “half baked” and poor quality products.

Several other patterns of leadership behaviour are associated with subordinates performance and satisfaction. Hogan, Raskin, and Fazzini (1990) noted that organisational climate studies from the mid 1950's to the present, routinely shows that 60% to 75% of the employee in any organisation no matter when or where the survey was completed and no matter what occupational group was involved report that the worst or most stressful aspects of their job is their immediate supervisor.

Labba's (1996) study of senior managers in the Iranian steel industry, investigated what their actual needs and incentives were and what factors accounted for their motivation to work. He asked the managers to rate the importance of a series of identified critical factors on a scale of 1 to 5. Two essential factors were considered as the most influential in motivating senior managers at work. It is suggested that senior managers in the second level of seniority are best motivated at work effectively when they have an understanding of their superior who possesses the right style of leadership and has high regard for their good work (means value of 4.76 and 4.46 respectively). He argues that in tune with Peters and Waterman's (1982) view, the superior-subordinate relationship is central to the whole idea of management. This view is also supported by Kakabadse, Ludlow and Vinnicombe (1987), who asserted that:

“General managers relationship with their subordinates and with other senior managers has substantial impact on the whole organisation” (p.375)

The result of Labba's (1987) study also seems to complement one of Vroom's conclusion in which he suggested that a manager's overall satisfaction is related to his perceived influence with his superior (Vroom, 1964; 1973). He argues that the top ten factor are neither

financial, nor social needs, but that there are a combination of hygiene factors (extrinsic) and motivator (intrinsic) which seem to dominate the performance of senior managers. It is interesting however, to see that Labbaf concluded that senior manager tend to rate the need for power and control as the least important factor in relation to their personal satisfaction and job satisfaction. This is probably because the research was carried out in Iran. In some cultures like Nigeria workers seems to be happy when management exercises control, power and making decisions over them, (Eqwu, 1983).

Distinguishing between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, Eze (1995) studied 172 Nigerian managers and supervisors, and found that they attached more importance to higher-order (intrinsic) motivators than to lower-order (extrinsic) motivators. A further analysis of the data indicated that the length of service did not influence the managers 'responses. This means that no significant difference was found between managers who have put in 10 or more years in service and those with below 10 years of service when statistics was computed at $t = 1.56$, $df = 05$. But responses differed significantly according to age. Managers who were 30 years and above, favoured the lower order (extrinsic) motivators while those

below 30 years of age, favoured the higher-order (intrinsic) motivators at $t = 2.23$, $p < .05$. Education on other hand had no influence on the manager's responses. The choice of the two set of motivators, remained equally distributed between those with and those without University education, $t = 1.61$, $df = 170$ $p < .05$).

The results of Eze's study suggest that Nigerians are extrinsically motivated in order to satisfy their individual needs. The author concluded by proposing the "Motivation-Satisfaction-Involvement" model. In the model, it was noted that for a worker to be involved in his job, he needs to be consistently satisfied with his job and company over a period of time; more so, he needs to be originally motivated.

Analoui (1990) used Margerison's (1987) analysis scale for assessing the perception of senior managers of the factors of their motivation to work. The analysis yielded quantifiable data. The range of responses were "Low", "Little", "Fair", "Considerable" and "Major" with 1 to 5 scores respectively, On the question "How important are these factors to you in motivating you to work hard?", the relative value given to the responses were 0.25, 0.50, 0.75, 1.0, 1.25 from scale (1-5) respectively. The analysis of data showed that four important variables were rated very high. For example, recognition for work

had an average score of 4.3 and a mean value of 0.86 and participation in decision making had an average score of 4.2 and a mean value of 0.84 rated fourth. Similarly personal responsibility had an average score of 4.2 and a mean score of 0.84. Pleasant work relationships though had an average score of 4.2 a mean value of 0.83 and was rated fifth. This confirm the initial study carried out by McIntyre (1996) on the importance of personal responsibility for organisational success.

Eze (1978) conducted a study of Nigeria Industrial–Organisations in which 170 Yoruba, Edo, Igbo and White managers served as subjects. The effects of the ethnic groups affiliation on the motivation and satisfaction level of Nigerian workers were investigated and it was found that ethnic group background, not nationality, has differential effects on workers motivation.

Fagbemi (1981) conducted a similar study in Nigeria using 60 management personnel of Hausa, Yoruba and Igbo origin as subjects, His data supported Eze’s (1978) findings. The model then blamed the differential motivation and satisfaction levels of ethnic groups on their differential cultural and educational values, withdrawal of status, respect, traditional government systems, and contemporary status mobility. According to this model therefore to

motivated and satisfy Nigerian workers fully, his culturally and ethnically engrained needs and expectations must be identified, harmonised and equitably satisfied.

Ugwuegbu (1981) carried out a survey using 200 respondents from ten companies in Nigeria to investigate the effects of cultural attitudes, beliefs and values on job satisfaction. He found that these cultural variables have inhibiting effects on workers job satisfaction and therefore suggested that (i). Job applicants high in cultural predispositions should be eliminated during selection by the use of tests and structured interviews, (ii) Cultural predispositions should be desensitised through training and orientation programmes and (iii) Organisations should be designed to adjust to the major cultural predispositions of Nigerian workers.

Egwu (1983) used 100 blue collar factory floor workers and a Likert – type open-ended interview questionnaire to investigate intrinsic utilitarian motivation. His subjects were mostly rural, illiterate and of Hausa origin. The results indicated that those workers, or “happy robots” were “happy with their jobs because of the opportunity to use their skills, control their own work, use their initiative and have variety. According to the above model, such workers cherish the dignity of labour because they have learned from their village

culture to work outside the farms for days on end in harsh weather conditions. Thus, the hardships of factory work are seen as natural and symbolise a challenge to their power. They work hard, are committed to their jobs and are naively submissive to powerful autocratic management because of fear of dismissal and in order to guarantee regular salary payments. Also, they are “happy” that management is making decision for them and is controlling everything and so they derive solace “enjoying” their jobs, there by developing some forms of intrinsic work attitudes.

In concluding Egwu (1983) asserted that to motivate this group of African workers, the use of rigid autocratic policies and treatments, harsh working conditions and threat of workers with dismissal or demotion could be a strategy. This is the autocratic method that is generally being de-emphasised today. However, autocratic methods have not been useful in Western Societies, (Lippit and White 1960), but in India it has been successful, (Meads and Whittaker, 1967).

In summary, most of the works on management and leadership researched so far reviewed have demonstrated that one of the most significant factors that determine managerial philosophies in Africa and particularly in Nigeria is the cultural background of managers especially in Nigeria (Egwu, 1983; Eze, 1978; Ugwuegbu, 1981;

Obi-keguna, 1972, Anikpo, 1984; Obi-Keguna 1994; Ejionye, 1981). Sparrow and Pettigrew (1988) points to an evidence which showed that many of our organizational failing were related to cultural heritage. Dension (2000) studied the relationship between the four characteristics of organisational culture, measured by his survey and organisational effectiveness. He examined several performance indicators for companies included in the research: return on assets and return on investment, product development, sales growth, market shares quality and employee satisfaction. Most of the correlations between the organisational culture traits and organisational effectiveness measures were significant, each of four characteristics showed a positive correlation with a range of subjective and objective measures of effectiveness. Although all four cultures traits were correlated with return on assets, some of the characteristics were more closely linked to organisational effectiveness than others (Dension and Neale, 1996). According to Dension and Neale (1996), for an individual manager to be effective, his/her leadership skills must reflect all of the characteristic identified in Denison's model. Thus effective managers are likely to be adaptive, yet highly consistent and predictable, and to possess high involvement, but to do so within the context of a shared sense

of mission.

The DML model however relies more on “Achievement principles rather than cultural or ethnic factors, in the management and leadership of Nigerian high performing organisations studied in this work.

2.4. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE ON THE INTERACTION BETWEEN LEADERSHIP PERSONALITY FACTORS MANAGEMENT PERSONALITY FACTORS AND PERFORMANCE.

Studies have shown that leadership behavior is a function of personality. Lord DeVader and Allinger (1986) used meta-analysis to estimate the correlation between various personality traits and leadership emergence. In their studies, they reported true correlation between masculinity-femininity, dominance, extraversion, introversion, adjustment, conservatism (which correspond to surgency, emotional stability and conscientiousness and leadership emergence in small groups, $r = .34, .13, .24$ and $.22$

respectively). Looking across a number of leadership discussion groups. Kenny and Zaccaro, (1983) found that between 48% and 82% of the variance in leadership emergence ranking was due to personality.

Ghiselli (1977) tried to establish the relative importance of thirteen personality traits in management talents. The 13 personality traits important to managerial talents are; supervisory ability, occupational achievement, intelligence, self actualisation, self assurance, decisiveness, lack of need for security, working class affinity, initiative, lack of need for financial reward, need for power over others, maturity, masculinity- femininity.

The findings in the above study showed that cognitive characteristics were found very motivating. The important managerial talents are supervisory ability which was rated at 100, occupational achievement rated 76, self assurance and decisiveness was rated 61, intelligence and self actualisation 64, lack of need for security was rated 54, working class affinity was rated 47, initiative 34, lack of need for high financial rewards was rated 20, need for power over others rated 10. Other variables include maturity which was rated 0. This finding was reported by Blake and Mouton (1964). Nwachukwu (1994) also confirmed the significance of supervisory

ability on productivity in Nigeria.

Boyatzis (1982) identified four underlying characteristics that enables a manager to be inspirational and insightful through cluster analysis of the managers in his study. They were labeled the “Leadership Cluster”. The four categories are: (1) self confidence (2) use of oral presentation (3) logical thoughts and (4) conceptualisation. Managers with this set of competencies see themes and patterns in the common or shared objectives, values, problems, products, concern or performance of people and groups within the organisation. They communicate them to others in a forceful and impressive manner.

Self confidence (referred) to as SELF as coded in the interviews appeared significantly related to the effectiveness of a manager ($F=6.558$, $df = 2$, $p= 002$), and showed a significant linear trend favouring the superior managers ($F = 12.903$, $df = 1$, $p = 005$). Comparison of the groups with t-tests (i) superior and average managers demonstrated significantly more self than did poor managers, and superior managers, at a near significant level. (ii) Among public sector managers, superior performers and average performers demonstrated significantly more SELF than did poor performers (iii) Executive level managers demonstrated significantly

more SELF than did middle and entry-level managers (iv) Among middle level managers, superior performers demonstrated significantly more SELF than did poor performers and more than average performers did at a near significant level. (v) Among executive level managers, superior and average performers demonstrated significantly more SELF than did poor performers. (vi) Marketing managers demonstrated more SELF than did manufacturing managers at a near significant level. (vii) Among manufacturing managers, superior and average performer demonstrated significantly more SELF than did poor performers.

In all the seven studies of managers' perception, items relating to self-confidence were listening as required for performance as a manager. In six of the studies, these items were perceived by managers as characteristics distinguishing superior from inferior performance. These include items such as "ability to inspire confidence" "confidence and decisiveness" Self- confidence appears strongly associated with managerial effectiveness (Boyatzis, 1982). Executive level managers appear to demonstrate more of it than do entry or middle level managers. Executives are often called on to represent the organisation and its product to internal groups, as well as to group outside the organisation. Often, they must provide

inspiration to people.

Stogdill's (1974) review found self-confidence to be positively related to leadership effectiveness. Using self-ratings from the Adjective Checklist (Gough and Heilbrum, 1983) and subordinate's ratings for charisma, Ross and Offermann (1991) reported that charisma ratings were positively related to executive selection at Sears. Using Guilford Martin Personality Inventory, Bentz (1985, 1990) essentially founded Modern Derailment Research while analysing the correlates of executive performance at Sears. He reported that among the persons with the appropriate positive characteristics like confidence a subset failed.

Margerison (1987) leaning on McClelland's (1988) "Need theory". Used the factor of "achievement", "Power" and "sociability" to identify what the motives are which are seen as the most important for senior managers in the Indian Railways. The data collected showed that the need for achievement together with power on their part, among other things, determine their orientation to the job and the desire on their part to exercise control over the task and people related aspects of their job.

Sociability as a factor would indicate the effect which senior managers are willing to put into “establishing and maintaining a life style that is oriented towards their personal needs rather than work requirement”. (Margerison, 1987, p.57). Analysis of the data collected shows that for senior managers in the Indian Railways organisations, the “Need for Achievement” (mean % of 85.5) and ‘power” (mean % of 54.5) came first and second respectively. The need for sociability was described as the least important with a mean % of 51.2 and came third. Margerison (ibid) in part explained the discontentment, which many senior managers experienced. Sociability is an opportunity to develop positive relationship with others (Lord, DeVader and Allinger, 1986; Gough and Heilbrium, (1983).

McCall, Morrison, and Hannan’s (1978) reviewed 100 articles on “Managing” to determine what is known about the job. They used only studies where two or more independent investigations had drawn the same result. Their summary of general findings from a good starting point for determining what managers need to know about people and the psychology to do his or her job well. McCall, Morrison, and Hannan found ten factors of effective management life. Manager’s typical work week is 50 hours or as many as 80,

(Nweze, 1995). Managers constantly over estimate the time they spend on production, reading and writing, phone calls and thinking, while constantly under estimating the time spent in personal contact, and talking in informal and formal discussion.

Uzoka, (1995) asserted that most top management executives have been known to exhibit Type A personality behaviour identified by Bruno (1993). Such behaviors involve extreme competitiveness, strong devotion to duty and the profession, impatience, time urgency in practically everything including eating, listening and other personal habit, tense striving for achievement and extreme drive and hurried pace of life.

Nweze (1995) writing on stress management and the personality of Nigerian managers, also noted that the attainment of executive positions in business industry and the profession is not without endowment of certain attributes and personal characteristics. Nweze (1995) asserted that nearly all executives are known to share similar traits such as high level ambition, commitment to work, and hard drive for success. These traits together with working 50 hours or more of the standard 40 hour week, talking about work all the time during their wakeful time, working even when ill, being bored and restless when on rest on or holidays, obtaining almost all

physiological and emotional gratifications, from work, feeling vaguely guilty when not working, the “I am doing it”, for you rationalisation, and the conviction that others are incompetent hence he wants to do everything himself; all these are related to early death syndrome among ambitious executive managers.

In a study conducted by “Madison Avenue Employment Agency” with branches in 43 American cities, it was found that overweight persons may be losing as much as \$1,000 a year for every pound of fat. According to the agency president Robert Hall’s (1974) survey showed that among the executives in the \$25000-\$50,000 salary group only 9% were mere 10 pounds overweight. In the \$10,000-\$20,000 group only 39 percent met standards established by life insurance companies. Hall (1974), said that the overweight “are unfairly stereotyped as slow, sloppy, inefficient, and overindulgent. When important, high paying jobs are considered the overweight are less likely to be hired or promoted into them”. Hall also stated that companies frequently specify their preference for slim candidate but only once in 25 years did a company request a plump executive, the company was a manufacturer of oversized clothing.

Related to body weight is “body type” which Sheldon (1954)

identified as belonging to three different somatotype. The very thin person is called an ectomorph, and the medium weight, muscular type is the mesomorph. Intuitively, we might expect leaders to come from the mesomorphic body profile. Although there are no studies to support or refute this prediction, it is a provocative theory.

However, there are a few sections that address areas that are otherwise often overlooked in the literature on leadership (followership, diversity, women as leaders). Daft (2002) reflects a fairly mainstream view of leadership as being all about the individual, with little acknowledgement of the role played by situation or environment. It is very deeply rooted in American Society, and of the 350 examples of leadership cited, fewer than 10% represents non-US organisations. To his credit, Daft (2002) acknowledges the leadership present all around us and draws some lessons from cases set in schools, education boards and voluntary organisations, though the vast majority are based in large commercial companies.

In summary, researchers on personality and self have shown their significance in leadership effectiveness Gough (1984,1990) for example reported that self-acceptance scales of California Psychological Inventory are significantly correlated with peer and

staff rating for emergent leadership in leaderless discussion groups. Most researches on human motivation, especially that of Maslow (1954) noted that most people are motivated by the desire to satisfy specific groups of needs. The DML are A special group of people with self- confidence that adjust their performance to meet personal and/or organisational goals. They like to take personal responsibility for their own success or failure which are positively related to self confidence, Ross and Offermann (1991).

Studies have shown that Dynamic Managerial Leadership (DML) behaviour is a function of personality. Lord, DeVader and Allinger (1986) used meta analysis to estimate the correlation between various personality traits and leadership emergency. In their studies, they reported true correlation between masculinity-femininity, dominance, extraversion, introversion, adjustment, and conservatism (which correspond to surgency, emotional stability and conscientiousness and leadership emergence in small group, $r = .34, .13, .24$ and $.22$ respectively). Looking across a number of leadership discussion groups, Kenny and Zaccaro, (1983) found that between 48% and 82% of the variance in leadership emergence ranking was due to personality.

2.5 REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON THE INTERACTION BETWEEN

LEADERSHIP ENVIRONMENTS, MANAGEMENT ENVIRONMENT AND PERFORMANCE.

In examining the influence of the work environment on leadership, past researchers have laid emphasis on either “task oriented” leadership styles or “considerations” as reasons for leaders effective performance. Tracey, Tannebaum and Kamanagh (1995) collected information from 505 supermarket managers to examine the influence of work environment on the transfer of newly trained supervisory skill. The work environment was operationalised in terms of transfer of training, climate and continuous learning culture, climate and culture were hypothesised to have both direct and moderating effects on past training behaviours. The social support system appeared to play a central role in the transfer of training.

Mogaji (1996) investigated the effects of hierarchy and organisation type (type of industry) on the climate of three Nigeria manufacturing industries. He collected data from 150 workers; 30 supervisors and 20 managers in each industry.

Analysing the data with one way analysis of variance, he indicated that subjects differed on felt responsibility and perceived climatic

dimensions of structures, responsibility, reward, risk, warmth, report, performance, standard and industry. However none of the climate dimensions was influenced by the interaction between occupational level and organisational type. The results have implications for employees commitment and performance and the planning and management of industrial workers. Haire, Ghisseli and Porters', 1966) study in the attitude of European towards some dimensions of leadership practice, found that European manager's attitudes were affected by hierarchy levels.

Schreuder (1993) conducted a match pair comparison of successful and unsuccessful firms to determine factors that led to differential success. The results showed that different patterns of strategic measures were taken depending on the conditions at the industry level. One of the significant differences was that the successful firms made changes in the management area early while the unsuccessful made them very late. The results were used for a theoretical reflection to produce answers to the two questions of whether organisations were basically inert or adaptive and to know the role of management in organisational change.

Leonova and Roe (1996) analysed changes in the job content, work demands, organisational structures, and psychological barriers to

implementation of new technologies, as well as personal resources of adaptation to them. Using the methodology of job analysis and multi-dimensional assessment procedures, they found that elaborating health promoting tools, training and selective programmes and the re-organisation of human computer-interface, were important strategies to optimise the influence of technological change processes.

Lowe (1993) studied two industrial plants in the United State of America, to assess current change in the nature of the supervisory role in the automobile industry. These changes were identified in the content of a transition from mass production to lean or just-in-time production. Noting the increased responsibility of the supervisor under lean production and the extent of the supervisor's enhanced status and authority, the findings led to the emergence of a supervisory role, with supervisors performing critical functions as effective managers of integrated work areas. However, a case study of an established vehicle producer in the United Kingdom, involving interviews with a sample of 40 supervisors, draws out the structural and organisational difficulties faced by existing manufacturers in their attempts to reformulate the role of the supervisor. The DML role lies mostly on the latitude to make decisions about the "how" of

the work.

Investigating the relationship between two industry characteristics of technology and growth and organisational culture, Chatman and Jehn (1995) compared the cultures of organisations within and across 15 firms representing 4 industries in the service sector. The results showed that organisational culture dimensions existed and varied more across industry than within them. Specific cultural values were associated with levels of industries technology and growth. The implication of the findings was that the use of organisational culture as a competitive advantage by organisational leaders would be more constrained than imagined. Organisational culture is significant for success, (Holland, 1985; Fleenor and Bryant, 2002; Lindell and Brandt, 2000; Fisher and Alford, 2000; LaBarre, 2001).

Pascale (1990), reported that organisational culture, more than any other factor, will dictate an organisation's ability to survive. After several decades of work, Dension (2000) has established organisational culture as an important component in explaining organisational success. Fisher and Alford (2000) concluded that research conducted by Dension (1984, 1996) and Fisher (1997) clearly shows that regardless of the size, sector, industry, or age of a

business, culture affects organisational performance.

Terrell and Nelson (1998) studies showed how organisational effectiveness is determined by Cultural, Personal and Leadership Effectiveness. Correlation coefficients were calculated between these measures of the Organisational Culture and Effectiveness Survey (OCES). The result show that organisational effectiveness and culture, personal and leadership measures are .5614, .3077 and .6024 respectively. From these data we can conclude that (1) Leadership Effectiveness and Culture are more important in determining Organisational Effectiveness than Personal Effectiveness.

(2) Culture contributes 31.5% of the factors that explain differences in the effectiveness of organisations; (2) Leadership factors contribute 36.3% of the variability in organisational effectiveness; and (3) Difference in Personal Effectiveness explain only 9.5% of the differences in organisational effectiveness. The differences in (1) and (2) above are significant at the 01 level of confidence, which means that there is only one chance in one hundred that chance factors determined these results.

Assessing the separate and joint effect of a number of discrete

attributes of the organisation on work attitudes and performance of managers, Opren (1989) collected data from 103 middle managers working for a variety of Australian organisations in both the public and private sectors. Each of the managers completed specially developed questionnaires under anonymous conditions. They were four organisational attributes namely; (a) size, (b) shape or structure of the organisation, (c) reward, based on performance rather than seniority and (d) the general climate of the organisation. These were assessed by a 4- item scale that required managers to indicate whether or not their organisation was characterised by each attribute and whether or not it was a feature of their organisation. Measures were also obtained of managers' involvement, overall job satisfaction, internal work motivation, and overall job performance, by self-ratings.

Each of the above measures was assessed on a single item scale ranging from (1 = Not/Least) to (7 = Very/High) description. Job performance was measured on the basis of how well the managers performed their job compared to others. Managers responses to the first three item representing measures of job involvement, job satisfaction and internal work motivation, were rounded up to a total score indicating their general attitude to their work. These total

scores had possible range of 3 to 21. Given the direction of the scoring, the higher the total scores, the more favourable the manager's attitude; the lower the score, the more unfavourable. Although a high mean intercorrelation among the three-attitudinal measures was obtained; the total work altitudinal scores and self-rating of performance constituted the outcome measures.

Point biserial correlations were then computed separately between these two outcome measures and each of the five hypothesised antecedent variables of (i) organisational size, (ii) shape, (iii) reward, (iv) structure and (v) climate. Assessing the relationship among these variables and the two outcome measures, two multiple regression equations were calculated. In the first, work attitude was regressed on the four organisational attribute measure. The following correlations were obtained between work attitudes and the various organisational attributes, for size ($r = .076$), shape ($r = .145$), reward structure ($r = .52$) and for climate ($r = .074$). The correlations between job performance and these attributes were for size ($r = .93$), shape ($r = .072$), reward structure ($r = 0.16$) and for climate ($r = .013$). Multiple correlation between the attributes was ($r = .199$, $p > .05$) with a little as 1.66% of job performance variance being due to differences in these attributes.

The results indicated that none of the correlations between the organisational attributes and work attitudes was significant. The correlations between the attributes and job performance were all not significant. That the organisational attributes of size, shape, rewards and climate were essentially unrelated to difference in work attitudes and performance was confirmed by the fact that only 4% of the variation in work attributes and 2% in job performance can be ascribed to difference in these attributes. The fact that work attitudes and performance on the part of these managers, were unaffected by the size of their organisations, the shape or structure of their organisation the basis upon which rewards were given and the climate casts doubts on the argument of Litwin and Stringer (1968) and Worthy (1950).

These authors had claimed that in the absence of strong empirical evidence, there were advantage for organisations (in terms of the morale and performance of their members), if they were relatively small and flat, rather than tall in structures; having a reward system based on performance rather than seniority, and with a climate that was seen as encouraging innovation and creativity rather than the reverse. The findings suggested that there were

circumstance when managers in large, tall organisations with seniority-based reward systems and climates that were seen as discouraging initiative, were just as positive about their work and felt they did it just as well as their counterparts in small, flat organisations with performance based reward systems and climates that were seen as encouraging initiative; which Haire, Ghiselli and Porter (1966) found to be significant. Nwachukwu's (1994) study also indicated that 48.3% of the respondents believed that supervisors initiative out performs others.

Kotter (1996) in his research on 'Leading Change' asserted that change management has been a very popular topic for study over the last decade, coinciding with organisational restructuring, downsizing, mergers and acquisitions, and the accelerating pace of technological development. By definition, however, leadership involved movement from "here" to "there" and so "leading change" is rather tautologous. Here the author considers the kind of distinct "step change" referred to above, and draws largely on the classic work in this field.

Kotter (1999), Laurie (2000), and Heifetz (1994) emphasized the set of responsibilities that leaders must meet and the type of focus and action needed to accomplish them. Both Laurie and Heifetz

emphasise leaders' important role in stepping outside the day-today crises to provide a broader perspective on the challenges and opportunities facing the organisation to improve their effectiveness in setting the context, framing the problems, and mobilising the staff to work on those problems. A significant subset of this literature identifies the creation, management, and, when necessary, transformation of organisational culture as the essential function and key competency of leadership (Schein, 1999).

Miller and Morris (1999) Based on a survey of over 600 technology organisations, Jonash and Sommerlatte (1999) have also identified a set of leadership traits that are related to higher levels of innovation and successful deployment of innovations. Primary among them is the model of the leader as coach.

Ekvall (1996) distributed an instrument for measuring organisational structure and climate for creativity and innovation. Its dimensions were the results of several large factor analytical studies. The respondents, who were addressed as "observers of life" in the organisation, were asked to tell how people in the workplace usually behave. Hence, the mean score could therefore be assumed to constitute a valid measure of the situational variations in climate terms, as prevailed and defined between organisations. However, the

practical relevance and usefulness of Organisational Climate Questionnaire (OCQ) as tools for organisational diagnosis and treatment, was confirmed by widespread use of OCQ in organisational and management development projects and programmes. Reliability has been studied, as well as internal consistency of the dimensional scale (coefficient alpha), on several differing sample.

Ekvall (1996) administered the Organisational Climate Questionnaire (OCQ) on 49 senior executives and training specialists from industry and public service. The respondents answered the questionnaire twice to determine the extent to which their organisations could be described as being innovative or stagnant. Correlations between all the variables included in the study were calculated according to the formula for person product-moment coefficients. Significant tests were performed on the correlation coefficients to see what correlation if any, and thus to check whether the established relation was internally valid. The results indicated that climate was the most crucial of the four organisational variables with regard to innovation. Formalisation seems not to have any significant effects of their own but still

seemed top have positive contributions as parts of or enforcement of the creative climate. There was a marked variation around the mean score in all variables, for both innovative and “stagnated” organisations. Laurer (1994) concluded that the Organisational Climate Questionnaire (OCQ) has conceptual validity and that there was support in the literature on creativity for the 10-climate dimensions.

The correlations among three leadership style dimensions of change development orientation and climate revealed quite strong relations between leadership style and climate. It was only logical that the changes development oriented leadership tended to show the strongest relations with the climate variables as if it were the creative and innovative aspects of the climate that were measured. It seemed also logical that employee relations orientation of the leader had a stronger positive correlations between trust and a strong negative correlation with conflicts. The quite low correlations between task/structure leadership orientation and most of the climate dimensions were no surprise in view of the complicated relations between bureaucracy, structure, and control on one side, and creativity and innovation on the other. (Ekvall, 1988, 1990,

1993).

EkVall (1996) reported that centralisation and formalisation were the two structured variables that consistently showed substantial negative correlations with the creative climate dimensions, while conflicts showed positive correlation. Hence centralisation and formalisation tend to prepare the ground for conflicts. Therefore, when a creative climate is aimed at, centralisation and formalisation should consequently be minimised.

Lindell and Brandt (2000) researches on organisational climate reported that although climate quality (average ratings) had been found to be related to organisational outcomes, the effects of climate consensus (the variance of climate ratings) had not yet examined. They tested relationship of climate quality and consensus with organisational outcomes and found that both had significant correlations with organisational outcomes. However, climate consensus did not contribute a significant increment to the prediction of organisational outcomes.

Hofstede's (1980) analysis of attitude which covered 116,000 employees of national subsidiaries of IBM revealed four dimensions of national cultures as follows; (a) power distance, (b) masculinity

vs. femininity, (c) uncertainty avoidance and (d) individualism. For example, power distance (does the culture stress inequality?). For this question the respondents scored East Africa = 64%, West Africa = 77%, Republic of South Africa = 49%, U.S.A. = 40%. On masculinity versus femininity dimensions, the question (does the culture encourage tough or tender behaviour?) respondents scored East Africa = 40% West Africa = 46%, Republic of South Africa = 63%, U.S.A. = 62%.

On the dimension of uncertainty avoidance, the question (emotionally expressive cultures that fear ambiguity and need structure versus cultures suppressing emotions, accepting ambiguity and tolerating disorder). Respondents scored East Africa = 49%, and U.S.A. = 46%. The fourth dimension on individualism was rated by respondents as East Africa = 27%; West Africa = 20%; Republic of South Africa = 65% and U.S.A. = 91%. As far as the four dimensions identified by Hofstede (1991) are concerned, the four countries utilized in the study are the countries in which most management studies originate for reasons of comparisons.

The differences between East and West Africa were small for Hofstede's (1991) study. The 2 regions scored relatively high on power distance and low on individualism. The scores for masculinity

are lower, and those for uncertainty avoidance are about the same as those for the U.S.A. The profile of South Africa (white respondents only) is very much like that of the U.S.A. (except for a much lower level of individualism, but the U.S.A. responses are extreme on that dimension). The findings are in line with earlier studies in Nigeria that seem to emphasise “authoritarian” cultures (Eze, 1995, Egwu, 1983; Ugwuegbu, 1981). Nooderhaven, Vunderink and Lincoln (1996), identified four dimensions as demonstrated in a study in which a Chinese bias had deliberately been introduced (The Chinese Culture Connection, 1987). In this study three of the four dimensions were correlated significantly with power distance, individualism and masculinity. But none of the “Chinese” dimensions was found unrelated to those formed by the IBM studies of Hofstede (1980). Most of the values related to it can be found in the teachings of Confucius. The dimension has been labeled “Long term versus short term orientation”; (Hofstede, 1991). However, Mann, (1959) and 13 other studies reported true correlations between masculinity-femininity $r = .34$ (which correspond to surgency, emotional stability and conscientiousness) and leadership emergence in small groups as identified by Stogdill’s (1974) big five dimensions of leader effectiveness.

Countries scoring high on the dimension of long term, future oriented cultures are those of East-Asia: China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Japan, South Korea, followed by Brazil, India, Thailand and Singapore. Western countries score high on short-term, and the two participating African countries, which are Zimbabwe and Nigeria scored very short term ranks of 19 and 22. Long-term orientation has been found to be strongly correlated with World Bank data on a country's growth over the past twenty-five years, which was much higher for the East-Asian than for the Western countries, (Hofstede and Bond, 1988; Franke, Hofstede and Bond, 1991). Infact the cultural dimension of long-term orientation provides the only independent index contributing to an explanation of the South East-Asian economic miracle. Sparrow and Pettigrew (1988) drew us to an evidence that many of our failings were a matter of our cultural heritage. Schneider (1987) however proposed that the culture of an organisation depends on Holland's (1985) types of senior management (i.e. Realistic, investigative, artistic, social enterprising, conventional). According to Holland (ibid) people will join organisations whose activities and values are consistent with their own preferences, and they will leave organisations whose culture is inconsistent with their preferences. It is therefore

significant to note that culture has been taken as an important environmental variable in the present research.

Fleenor and Bryant (2002) carried out a study on leadership effectiveness and organisational culture. The sample consisted of managers ($N = 508$) participating in leadership development programs, who had received ratings on both Benchmarks, a 360-degree instrument, and the Dension Organisation Culture Survey. As part of the leadership development program, ratings on the two surveys were collected from the coworkers of the participants. In general, the same set of raters completed both instruments for each individual participant. A total of 2,872 individuals provided ratings, an average of 5.6 raters for each participant. The aggregated ratings of these individuals were used in the subsequent analyses. The sample of participants contained more men (57%) than women (43%), and more whites (86%) than African-Americans (3%), Hispanics (4%), Asians (5%) or others (2%). Almost 70% had at least a bachelor's degree, and 60% were between the ages of 30 and 50. The participants represented five different managerial levels, ranging from first-line supervisors to top management. They worked in a wide-range of organisations, including educational, manufacturing, transportation, health and

human services, governmental, and financial. The findings indicated that there are significant relationships between individual leadership effectiveness as measured by a 360-degree assessment and ratings of culture as measured by an organisational culture survey.

Abokolo (1985) investigated the level of organisational commitment among Nigerian managers and supervisors in both private and public sectors of the Nigerian economy. The sample included 44 (28 men and 16 women) from the public sector. Analysing the test scores with t-statistics, the results showed that (i) workers in the private sector were significantly more committed to their organisations than their counterpart in the public sector. (ii) Male workers were significantly more committed than their female counterparts. (iii) Workers who had worked for a longer period were significantly more committed than those who had not worked for long. (iv) Older workers were found to be significantly more committed than their younger counterparts. (v) However, the general findings were that Nigerian-workers were only moderately committed to their organisations. The result of Hofstede's (1980) study shows the significance of personal responsibility, which is emphasised in the private sector, a principle which increases high competitiveness.

Nystron (1978) studied 100 middle and upper-level managers in a large firm in the U.S.A. He measured: (1) their perceptions of their bosses' behaviour in terms of consideration and structure; (2) their satisfaction with the job, (3) their perceptions of their bosses and their own level of need fulfillment on a standard instrument and (4) the current salary level and history of career progress of the boss and the manager. When he looked at the satisfaction variable across the four possible leadership style combinations (high-consideration-high structure combination; high-low, low-high and low-low), Nystrom found that for many of his comparisons, a model using only the amount of structure initiated by the leader predicted the results as well as one demanding that the leader be high on both characteristics. Even more doubt was raised regarding the high-high model when performance (need fulfillment, salary level, career progress) was examined, because high consideration on the part of the leader produced more need fulfillment in subordinates. Beyond that, neither salary level nor career progress was affected reliably by any of the four different consideration structure combinations. Thus, the most recent evidence available suggests that consideration may be the most critical variable that a leader can display in order to produce subordinate satisfaction; but

that neither high consideration nor high structure necessarily increases performance in any reliable manner. High structure is comparable to “authoritarian” management and high consideration can be compared to high “friendly” principles.

Sims and Dean, (1985) reported that an informal estimate of plants in the United States using the “Self-Managing Team” concepts was over 200. The question to be asked is why has not the use of innovation been more widespread? Sims and dean’s (1985) reported several reasons: Managers, particularly middle managers, feel highly threatened by the concept because they believe it will reduce their power and influence. Perhaps, and even more important reason is that the start-up costs for the team concept can be significant; and patience – a typical experiment takes 18 months to two years – is required before the rewards of successful implementation can be “reaped”. Furthermore, union support is regarded as a potential threat to their power. Finally, there has been little media attention given to the teams, since some companies consider this team concept an advantage over competitors and are, therefore, extremely secretive about their experiences.

Franekki, Catalanello and Behren, (1984, P.69); state that participative management (PM) techniques are becoming

increasingly popular: “PM techniques... range from the more basic ones, such as joint setting of job performance goals by superiors and subordinates, to more elaborate ones, such as establishing work quality standards” (p.69). A field survey by Franecki et al (1987) to analyse the use and benefits of the PM techniques shows an appreciable result. In general it was found that respondents to the survey use a variety of employee committees and the perceived positive effects for their firms, cost savings improved operating statistics and better employee relations were all reported. It also appears that employees approve of committees. This conclusion is significant because participation has sometimes resulted in overly high expectations by those it serves.

Stephen (1995) developed a new model of charismatic leadership that over comes flaws in models based on Max Weber’s generalisation of religious charisma. Standard accounts of charisma are either culturalistic or contractual. In the former, the power of charismatic leader (or state) results from meeting cultural expectation of what a leader should be. In the later, leaders received power in exchange for giving followers something they want.

Neither the culturalist nor the contractual account can explain cultural innovation or the internal changes in followers. It views the

leader as a person who offers a new vision on his/her own bold and determined behaviour, makes followers believe that the new vision can be realised through obedience. In Nigeria, it appears that we are dealing with an authoritarian organisational culture as well as an authoritarian management culture where emphasis seems to be upon rational economic assumptions of men.

Simone (1989) reported on an exploratory study of gender differences in the formation of leadership and of influence in small informal groups, feminist theory on power, dominant behaviour, competence, gender, socialisation, social status, and the structure-function model of task and process in forming research questions and interpretation of results. A rank order questionnaire probing power structure was administered to university students formed into 3 groups of 7; an original observation grid of influence strategies was completed by a team of expert observers, and a qualitative description of S interaction was performed. The results from Simone's study showed that first ranks within the power structure were occupied by males; 2 young women gained leadership after a long process; more expert power was attributed to men than women, few significant gender differences existed regarding influence strategies, and practically no links were

noticeable between the later and reference power.

Ansari's (1987) factor analysed the ratings by subordinates (N440) of the leadership style of their immediate superior. He found very distinct nurturant-task (factor I), participative (factor III), bureaucratic (factor III) and authoritarian (factor IV) styles. Ansari's empirically derived factors included exactly those items which were theoretically expected to load on them. Thus the theoretically conceived factor structure was fully validated. The study had an advantage partly because it has a large sample size which gives more reliable factor structure and partly because he used subordinates' perceptions which have been found to be less contaminated by social desirability effect than the self ratings by those who were in leadership positions.

Smiths (examined the relationship of nurturance and task styles of leadership with other currently available leaders styles in two separate studies. Smith (ibid) had samples of managers from the UK (N74), Japan (N98) and India (57) who responded to Blake and Mouton's (1994) Managerial Grid, the Ohio State Initiating Structure and Consideration Scales and Sinha's (1980) Paternalism (Nurturant and task style) items. Verma (1986) had 216 India managers who completed Sinha's and the Ohio State scales. Indian

samples in Smith (1986) study is referred to as INDI, while Indian samples in Verma (1986) study is referred to as IND2 respectively.

The findings from the above studies showed the relationship among leadership styles in three countries. On Managerial Grid (9,9), Nurturant was scored 0.64 in UK, 0.58 in Japan and 0.64 in INDI. On paternalism (9+9), Nurturant was scored 0.38 in UK, 0.37 in Japan, 0.27 in INDI and in INDI and 0.47 in IND2. Task orientation was scored 0.23 on managerial grid in UK, 0.33 in Japan, 0.70 in INDI. On paternalism (9+9), task orientation was scored 0.23 for UK, 0.42 for Japan and 0.56 for IND2. on initiating structure, UK scored 0.46, Japan 0.46, Japan 0.47, IND1 0.47 and IND2, 0.62. Consideration on the other hand was scored 0.00 in UK, Japan 0.28, IND1 0.50 and IND2, 0.51.

However, it is worth noting that nurturance, had higher correlations with 9,9 than with paternalism and with consideration than with initiating structure in all countries. While consideration was by and large more closely associated with nurturance, initiating structure was more strongly related to task-oriented style. Compared with nurturance, task orientation was indeed more closely associated

with paternalism (except in the UK). In sum, the coefficients of correlation validated the task oriented style of leadership and further indicated that nurturance and consideration, despite the culture specific differences, shared the people orientation of the leaders.

Sinha, Pandey, Pandey and Pandey (1988) conducted two studies to test the model in which the nurturant-task leadership was found to be associated with the effectiveness of subordinates. The first involved 140 managers from a private sector manufacturing organisation. The managers rated their immediate superior on the leadership style scale and also rated their own performance. They also reported the extent to which they preferred (a) to maintain a personalised relationship with their immediate superior, (b) to seek his advice and direction in job and personal matters and (c) to respect his higher status. The three preference scores were combined to yield a composite score of subordinate's preparedness to participate and to assume responsibilities for the task.

A higher score indicated that the manager was less prepared to participate and assume job responsibilities. The managers (in the subordinates role) were categorised as those (N = 60) who were high on preparedness and those (N = 80) who were low. Their

effectiveness ratings were correlated with their perceptions of the styles of their immediate superior. The results revealed that the managers who preferred dependence and personalised relationship and respected their immediate superior were more effective under the nurturant-task superior. The task oriented leader was more effective overall, but the participative styles were unrelated to effectiveness in both conditions.

Sinha et al's (1988) second study, decomposed the effectiveness of the leader into five components: (a) getting work done by the subordinates; (b) influencing his immediate superior in the matters in which he was right; (c) maintaining a full relationship with his subordinates; (d) enjoying the trust of his immediate superior (e) achieving success in his career. A sample of 66 managers from a private manufacturing organisation rated the leaders effectiveness on the five indices. They made forced choice ratings between nurturant-task-oriented styles of their leaders. They also showed their preference for a personalised and dependence relationship and their respect for the immediate superior.

Following the procedure of the preceding study the subjects in Sinha et al's (1988) study were grouped as those who were high (N = 31) and low (N = 35) on preparedness to participate. Five indices of

effectiveness and their composite effectiveness scores were correlated with leadership styles separately for high and low prepared groups. Again, it was the nurturant-task-styles which were related to the composite effectiveness scores ($r = 0.32$, $P < 0.05$) and the extent to which the leaders maintained a good relationship with subordinates ($r = 0.37$, $P < 0.05$) under the low prepared to participate condition. The participative leader had the trust of the subordinates ($r = 0.37$, $P < 0.05$).

Surprisingly, the nurturant task style was not found to be effective in getting work done. The participative style was not effective on any other indices of effectiveness in either group of subordinates. A psychometric limitation of the study was the forced choice ratings of leadership styles which complicates problems of interpreting the measure. Secondly, single item measures of the preferences for dependence, a personalised relationship and status differential may not provide a sound basis to identify those who were prepared and those who were not prepared to participate.

Prasad (1989) designed a study with the modification that all the three set of variables-leadership styles, leadership effectiveness, and

subordinates preparedness to participate were, measured through multiple items. A sample of 223 middle-level managers in a large engineering organisation participated in the study. They judged the extent to which their immediate superiors were nurturant, task oriented, or had nurturant-task styles. For each style, ten behavioral statements were rated on a five-point scale of how frequently the behaviour are engaged in by a leader. Scores were added across all thirty items to derive a composite score of high preparedness (N=111) and low preparedness (N=112) to participate on the basis of medium split. The indices of subordinate's effectiveness and satisfaction were correlated with their superior leadership styles separately for the high and low preparedness groups of subordinates.

The findings from Prasad's (ibid) study showed that the participative style was found to be unrelated to the indices of subordinates effectiveness and satisfaction (with only one exception). That is, the subordinates who were not prepared to participate and perceived their leaders as participative were neither effective nor satisfied. In contrast, the subordinates under nurturant, task-oriented leaders were effective as well as satisfied.

In fact, on all indices (except one, i.e. satisfaction with immediate

superior), the coefficients were larger for the nurturant task oriented style than for either nurturant or task-oriented leadership. In other words, the managers who preferred a personalised and dependent relationship, and who readily accepted the superior status of their immediate oriented superiors (but not under participative leaders), were effective as well as satisfied. Those who were indeed prepared to participate had quite a different view. For them the participative superiors were, as a whole, more effective. These superior helped managers to maintain a good relationship with subordinates who enjoyed the trust of the superiors. The subordinates under the nurturant-task leaders were equally effective in getting work done, influencing their superiors or achieving success in their career progression. The participative superiors were also more conducive to satisfaction except on the matters of pay and influencing the immediate superiors. The subordinates under task-oriented leadership were effective in getting work done and had greater job satisfaction. Nurturance without a touch of task orientation was by and large effective.

In summary, past researchers have laid emphasis on either “task oriented” leadership styles or “considerations” as reasons for leaders’ performance. Tracey, Tannebaum and Kamanagh (1995)

collected information from 505 supermarket managers to examine the influence of work environment on the transfer of newly trained supervisory skill. The work environment was operationalised in terms of transfer of training, climate and continuous learning culture. Climate and culture were hypothesised to have both direct and moderating effects on post training behaviours. The social support system appeared to play a central role in the transfer of training.

SUMMARY OF LITERATURE REVIEW

From the literature reviewed one would come to a conclusion that one of the first steps in assessing the relevance of the literature of leadership and management for industrial-organisations therefore, is to bring a little clarity to what is meant by leadership and management. The literature reviewed so far had focused on discovering the leadership personality and examining what it is about the character, underlying motivation and basic behavioural styles that make an individual a leader. The literature has also focused on group dynamics and has defined the DML as an outcome of this dynamics.

2.6 OVERVIEW OF LEADERSHIP THEORIES

Trait theory postulates that there are some identifiable common characteristics, which differentiate leaders from non-leaders. One of the earliest proponents of the theory is Stogdill (1971) who came up with nine (9) leadership traits as follows:- self assurance, intelligence, initiative, supervisory ability, need for achievement, decisiveness, and self-actualisation, working class affinity and security. These traits correspond with cognitive ability, personality, stimulation, role play and multirater assessment techniques which psychologists like Bentz (1985,1987, 1990) and Bray and Horward (1983) have identified to predict leadership reasonably well.

The problem with the trait theory is its failure to make allowances for individual, situational and cultural differences. And in fact, Handy's (1976) review which expounded the big-five model of surgency, emotional stability, conscientiousness, agreeableness and intelligence had reduced these lapses. Also Fiedler, (1977) argued that the trait theories ignore situational factors in the environment that influence effectiveness of leadership. However, Fiedler (1997) emphasised that if an organisation or group confers powers on the leader for the purpose of getting the job done, then this may well increase the influence of the leader.

Since early trait researchers have yielded consistently disappointing

results, investigations have looked into new directions for answers specifically toward a behaviour centred approach to understanding leadership. The focus shifted from what effective leaders should be to what they should do. In effect, there was less interest in how to choose the “right” people, and more in how to train the ones you have in the necessary leadership behaviour. Some of the more influential studies of leadership behaviour were conducted at Ohio State University in the early 1950s. The work saw leadership in terms of followers and authority relationship, while the aim to discover what differentiated leaders from followers.

The programme of research at Ohio State University generated significant findings such as the isolation of two key factors said to differentiate effective from ineffective leaders. The factors of “initiating structure” (i.e. task orientation) and “consideration” (i.e. people orientation) were later investigated in hundreds of studies seeking to clarify the relationship between these behaviours and leadership effectiveness. The Ohio teams concluded that the two dimensions of consideration and initiating structures were separate dimensions. It was shown to be possible for a supervisor to score high on both dimensions.

Yukl (2001) offer a good overview of the history of thinking about leadership experience, from the early studies of traits and behaviours undertaken in Ohio and Michigan in the early 20th century, through to relationship models and contingency approaches, including situational variables, though not comprehensive, the treatment is readable and gives a flavour of how the literature on leadership has developed, without going into the detail of the more academic volume, such as Yukl (2002).

Blake and Mouton (1964) developed the findings of the Ohio studies into the concept of Managerial Grid, a management style that is based on two major dimensions of concern for people and for production, which are significant for a Dynamic Managerial Leader. Though DML is not a managerial grid. DML upholds the fact that employees are working with a specific technology in order to produce for the organisation, and that technology affects the social system (people) to some extent and as such emphasises that work should be designed in a socio-technical system.

Lewin, White and Lippit (1934) identified three leadership styles: Autocratic, Democratic and Laissez-faire. The autocratic leader

usually stays aloof from the group, wields absolute power, makes all decisions, issues orders and commands, assigns tasks to members and maintains masculine-feminine relationship. Many chief executive officers in these category fail because they are perceived as being unable to delegate or make decisions (Hazucha, 191; Kaplan, Drath and Kofodimos, 1991; Lombardo, Ruderman and McCauley, 1988; McCall and Lombardo, 1983; Peterson and Hicks, 1993). However contrary to this argument, autocratic methods have been found to be useful in African societies (Eze, 1988; Egwu, 1983) and in Asian countries, for example, India, (Meads and Whitaker, 1967).

The democratic leader on the other hand, follows a consultative approach, encourages group participation in decision making and problem solving and maintains a master-master relationship. Leaders in this category increase social support, (Olatunji and Babalola, 1994), personal relationship, (Eze, 1988, Nwachukwu, 1994) and reduce management conflict, (House and Rizzo, 1972) and increase productivity.

The laissez faire leader maintains non-interference policy and allows the group complete freedom to act as it likes. Chief executive officers and top organisational managers in this category encourage

benevolent patriarchal leadership styles, Levinson, (1994). The DML is democratic in outlook, since it plans, organises, consults, solve problems and have good relationships with subordinates.

Although the three major classifications of leadership vis-à-vis autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire styles of leadership have gained acceptance, they are now substituted in modern organisational literature by other terms descriptive of style characteristics. Terms such as “Free reign” are used for laissez-faire; “participative” for democratic and “Directive” for autocratic. For example, Bass and Valenzis (1974) categories of “direction, delegation, consultation and manipulation”, elaborate the theme of behaviour types. One study proposed 19 behaviour types arising out of this field of research.

Vroom’s (1964) theory of motivation confirms how leaders are overwhelmed about building team and uniting followers into common causes and mutual goals, Kotter (1990) asserted that leaders direct and align employees through sharing a structure of jobs and relationship, staffing it with individuals suited to the jobs, providing training for those who need it, communicating plans to the workforce and deciding how much authority to delegate to whom, which are the task of management. However, if leaders have

to design organisational structures which are technically sound in terms of the technology and response time demanded by the environment, the leader has to take the responsibility. Harmonising leadership and management into a dynamic managerial – leadership model is therefore significant for organisations to meet their goals and objectives, Kotter (1990). This is in line with the DML philosophy which emphasises that motivation to work is a function of the situation needed to tap workers motivation and turn it to productive ends. DML theory emphasises a high need to achieve, and to want immediate and concrete feedback on a moderate risk taking basis and through personal responsibility for his own success; reduces time for productivity and increases quality of products, production decisions, satisfaction of all the levels concerned in productivity with the number of finished products and thereby making maximum organisational profit.

McGregor's (1960) Theories X and Y, Likert's (1961) four management systems, Tannebaum and Schmidt's, (1957) model of continuum of leadership, sought to locate leadership on the "autocracy-democracy" dimension. In McGregor's (1960) theory X, leaders are tough, autocratic, and supporting tight controls with punishment-reward systems – the authoritarian. The contrasting

style is that of theory Y manager who is benevolent, participative and believing in self controls; the democrat.

Likert's (1961) four management systems, comprise of system 1 – which is exploitative – authoritative leaders style, that decreases productivity and increases instability of personnel. System 2 – the Benevolent autocratic, is an epitome of authoritarian system, which is basically paternalistic. Chief executive officers in this category foster relationships at work due to benevolent patriarchal leadership and high dependency rate. System 3 – the consultative system moves towards greater democracy and team work, and encourages management and employee relationship, employee and employee relationship and management and union relationship. The system 4 – participative group system increases social support (Olatunji and Babalola, (1994), relationships (Eze, 1988) productivity and stability of personnel.

Tannebaum and Schmidt's (1957), model of continuum of leadership style is another example of behavioral approach to leadership that locates authoritarian behaviour at one end and democratic behaviour at the other end. Lewin, Lippitt and White, (1934)'s discussion of leadership styles appears accepted in the literature, but there are reservations. The criticisms alleged on the

leadership styles generally are their inability to relate style to productivity and also the selection of their population was not ideal. In practice either/or choice proposed by the theories may be somewhat artificial. Much will depend on the other elements of the leadership situation, and in other cases a democratic style could be more effective than autocratic style. For example Meads and Whittaker, (1967), replicated the classical Lewin, Lippitt and White, (1960) study of leadership climate in India and found that commitment, morale, loyalty, high productivity and employee-organisation integration were higher under authoritarian than unauthoritarian management in India. This perhaps is a direct contrast of expected results for the Western societies.

Meads and Whittaker's results have been observed in Nigeria, (Egwu, 1982, 1983). However, the suggestion that democratic style is generally preferable to an authoritarian style has been criticised on the grounds that while this may apply to current trends in western and industrialised nations, it need not apply at all in other cultures, Eze (1988).

Nonetheless, a major criticism of this approach is that they place too much emphasis on leader's behaviour to the exclusion of the other elements or variables of leadership.

Mohan (1996) examined the relationship among need fulfilment, leadership styles and effectiveness. Based on Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD) and Porters Need Satisfaction Questionnaire. Data were collected from two organisations. The sample comprised of 380 executives and 550 supervisors. The results indicated a positive association of leadership styles with both lower and higher order need fulfilment. Although, the association of these needs with leadership effectiveness was found for supervisors only, his analysis highlighted should be considered as a crucial determinant of leadership styles, and the effectiveness of any placement would depend upon how it incorporated these factors.

House's (1971) path-goal theory of leadership conceives of leadership simply as the role of motivating followers to perform and achieve and inspiring them to identify with the organisation's task. In an attempt to extend Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory of motivation, House (1971) declares that a leader must assure his followers of specific rewards that are contingent upon performance, by clarifying paths that lead to goal accomplishment and by improving opportunities for full satisfaction. This theory is significant to leaders in Nigerian Industrial-Organisations, since

they regard work as a means to an end, Eze (1985). These assertions have been contested by Etuk (1981) and Obi-Keguna (1984).

Etuk (1981), leaning towards Herzberg et al (1959) two factor theory of motivation asserted that leaders in parastatals and government ministries attach great importance to achievement, opportunity to grow, responsibility, opportunity to participate in making decisions, opportunity to participate in setting goals and opportunity for promotion which are Dynamic Managerial Leadership (DML) variables.

Obi-Keguma (1984) asserted that Etuk (1981) did not show that PAY per se is not a major cause of workers dissatisfaction and low productivity especially if we remember that there has been wage increases of a scale unprecedented in Nigeria's history (Adebo, 1972; Onosode Commission for parastatals).

Fiedler's (1987) contingency model of leadership effectiveness states that effective leadership is a function of (a) the relationship between the leader and the members of the group he is leading (b) the characteristics of the task to be performed, in particular its structures and (c) the authority-power attached to the position of

the leader. Leadership styles assessed by the Least Preferred Co-workers (LPC) scale, with leaders being classified depending on whether they rate their least preferred co-worker positively (high LPC) or negatively (Low LPC). Fiedler had advocated that leaders be put into situation that best fit their LPC scores or that situation can be altered for a better match. Fiedler's contingency model of leadership effectiveness is an indication that subordinates, peers and boss are significant in rating overall effectiveness in their team groups, and in turbulent times.

In general, situational theories have tended to be complex, conceptually weak and difficult to test. In fact, none has yet been verified, once again, leading to inconclusive results. Nonetheless because of enormous complexities, it is unlikely that people will ever be fully "programmed" for leadership roles nor would people be likely to accept being "robotised" to that degree. Aside from the conceptual and methodological problems, some behavioural scientists have questioned even the potential value of complex situational leadership theories for improving leadership effectiveness, Schein (1985). They point out that situational concepts are useful only if the leader has sufficient time to analyse a situation and choose an appropriate response style which is rarely

the case.

DeVries (1996) reported that there was not much empirical evidence attached to situational leadership theories due to unreliability of measurement instruments, the use of small samples and low variance of moderator variables. In a research using a large representative sample of Dutch working population, respondents were asked whether they needed leadership or not, using a newly developed scale: "Need for leadership". Some but not all, of the individual-task-and organisational characteristics of the substitutes for leadership theory were related to need for leadership. Need for leadership moderated the relation between leadership behaviour and criteria in 11 out of 16 cases. However, the situational approaches have been useful in identifying important variables, such as task, structure, task independence, and environmental uncertainty that need to be taken into account in developing and understanding leadership effectiveness models. Eze (1995) however, noted that path-goal theory emphasis on the motivation and inspiring ability of the leader. The apparent absence of this attribute in Industrial-Organisational leadership constitutes a major leadership weakness in management and has been taken into consideration in the present DML model.

The DML emphasises leadership as a Dynamic process, varying from situation to situations, with changes in leadership, followership and situations. This approach to leadership is based on observed behaviour of both leaders and followers in given situations. DML permits and encourages the belief that most people can improve their effectiveness in leadership roles through education training and development.

A broader orientation to leadership by management experts is now well established. It is now possible therefore to separate out some models of leadership which have become accepted. The transactional leadership model proceeds on the basis of exchange of punishment and rewards, where as transformational leadership captures the heart and mind of participants so that they “buy into” a new vision and work to make that happen. There are strong elements of insight and creativity in the approach in terms of identification.

A more recent identification of representational leadership arise from an awareness of the multiple constituencies related to a given organisation. Hunt, Baliga and Peterson (1988) refers to representational leadership as the requirements for a leader to represent the features evident in environmental scanning

acquisition and network development.

In spite of this widening of the leadership field, conceptual shortcomings persist. Organisational management and chief executives in Nigeria have failed to develop a Dynamic Managerial-Leadership (DML) model which operates as both a process and a dynamic adaptive system. As a process DML operates as change management technique whereby workers and managers in high performing organisational culture and climate, managerial values, leadership values, motivational strategies, re-enforcement and feedback strategies which are lacking in low and medium performing organisations. As an “Adaptive Dynamic System”. DML is comprised of a set of components; input, throughput, output, which when operational through change management techniques are sufficient to improve or maintain performance standards in Industrial-Organisations.

The DML model specifies the relationship between the major DML components which have to fit or be congruent in order for a DML to be effective. These are: High achievement principle, moderate risk-taking situations, immediate concrete feedback, personal responsibility for his own success and failures, challenging work, having relationships and being autonomous.

To conclude, almost no “theory” of leadership is overlooked. Key issues in leadership, and as delegation, notions of power and influence, change, and there is the need to think and act strategically. Team leadership, the developmental of leadership skills and ethical and cultural dimensions are all examined thoroughly in the review. Yukl (2002) carefully linked theory to research. His rigorous analysis of empirical evidence and its recognition that any one (or even two or three) approach is unlikely suit the range of situations and contexts that arise in any one organisation.

2.7 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY.

Achievement is an accomplishment or attainment of a goal. The Dynamic Managerial Leader’s behaviour (DML) is invariably directed toward certain ends or goals. The DML postulates a managerial-leader that is similar to the concept identified by McClelland (1961) need for achievement.

McClelland (1961) asserted that in general, a high need for achievement in an individual refers to a high degree of hope for success. The DML designs was of creating a work situation that stimulates achievement. In this case there is fear of failure or

avoidance. McClelland (1961) asserted that achievers fear to fail. The DML is emotionally stable, steady, cool, self confident, conscientious, hardworking preserving, organised and responsible, Stogdill (1974) big-5 model of leadership leads to lowered levels of aspirations. The fact that the DML has high need to achieve usually gives ways for the DML to have high motive for thinking and with innate desire to succeed and therefore takes moderate risk.

The DML reflects a desire to interact, McClelland (1961). The DML is agreeable, sympathetic, cooperative, good natured and warm. The DML is friendly and has need for love, Stogdill (1974). The DML responds to social rewards, compliments and praise from others, the DML motivates and rewards by giving challenging responsible and autonomous task. Thus making personal relationship through communication and immediate and concrete feedback to take precedence over task accomplishments. It is the characteristics of achievers to take risks, ask for feedback and set measurable objectives, McClelland (1961).

2.8 THE DML MODEL: ELABORATION AND VERIFICATION

The nature and components of the Dynamic Managerial-Leadership (DML) model are presented here in a systematic and comprehensive

manner to demonstrate the various influencing factors of the Dynamic Managerial Leadership integration process in Nigerian Industrial-Organisations. Basically and conceptually, the DML model is largely a function of four major components or set of variables.

- (a) DML – personality variables
- (b) DML Environmental variables
- (c) High task accomplishment variables
- (d) High Maintenance variables

Each of these sets of variables is included and elaborated in a schematic diagram presented in Figure 1 (p.9) and each is discussed separately as it relates to existing literature and research evidence. The research guiding formula is here presented as follows:-

DML OB = F (DMLP x DMLE) (see page for elaboration).

2.8.1 DML PERSONALITY INTEGRATION AND URGE

The main objective of this research is to build a model of the Dynamic Managerial Leader that can be tested, taught and focused upon as the one best form of human being who can bring forth the

highest form of organisational performance in Nigerian organisations. The research also aims at investigating if the DML can out perform separate management and leadership models in terms of time spent on completing a task, in the number of quality products to be accepted, in profit margin, in satisfaction and productivity.

One significant premise of the DML model is that leaders motive to integrate their needs of achievement (McClelland, 1964; House, Spangler and Woycke, 1991). Achievement implies competition and success, which in turn refers to something challenging (McIntyre, 1968) and moderately difficult, it brings with it a sense of elevation, personal pride, self-esteem, (Maslow, 1954) and personal worth. The Dynamic-Managerial-Leader wants an immediate, concrete feedback on performance (Hogan, et al (1994). The DML wants to know as soon as possible how well he is doing, if not why. So that he may adjust his performance to meet his personal/or organisational goals. The DML is characterised by the big five model of personality identified by Stogdill (1974) which includes surgency, (Tupe and Christal 1961); emotional stability, (Guiford 1975); conscientiousness and the will to achieve, (Digman (1988); agreeableness, (Peabody and Goldberg, 1989) and Intellectance;

(McCrae and Costa, 1987).

2.8.2 DML ENVIRONMENTAL INTEGRATION AND URGE

The objective of this DML research is to demonstrate the feasibility and practicality of a Dynamic Managerial Leader when faced with changes in technology, culture, politics, people and structure, (Bass, 1990).

The DML is well informed about the significance of environmental factors on behavior. The DML for instance is aware that the employee is working with a specific technology (Nwokolo, 1987) in order to produce for the organisation, and that technology affects the social system, (Katz and Kann, (1966). Technological changes could lead to modifications behaviour and hinder the development of relationships, (Hazucha, 1991; Kaplan, Drath and Kofodimos, 1991; McCall and Lombardo, 1983; Peterson and Hicks, 1993).

The DML recognises the fact that values, (Holland, 1985) traditional beliefs, (Egwu, 1986); norms (Ugwuegbu 1981); cultural attitudes, (Ocho, 1984; Egwu, 1983; Ejionye, 1981, Anikpo, 1984) and more of the attitude of the wider society are carried over into industrial and other social organisations of any society. For example, Egwu's

(1983) model shows that workers in Nigeria cherish the dignity of labour because they have learned from their village culture to work outside the farms for days on end in harsh weather conditions. Thus, the hardship attached to work outside of factory is seen as natural and symbolise a challenge to their power. They work hard, are committed to their jobs and are naively submissive to powerful autocratic management because of fear of dismissal. The Japanese traditions, customs, norms and values have been largely carried over into the Japanese industrial system. With this heritage, Japanese management has “found it relatively easy to develop a subordinated, loyal and highly committed work force and has encountered little difficulty in the preservation and the exercise of its prerogatives” (Harbison and Myers, 1959).

Another very important premise of DML is the fact that there are political changes. Such situational changes affect the social-system. The DML adapts to changes in work design, to Government policies dealing with such issues as minimum wages (Adebo, 1972; Udoji, 1975), expert restrictions, trade unionism and international co-operation which may affect organisational decisions.

The people in the organisation also stress an important premise for the DML, especially the supervisory styles in organisations (Blake

and Mouton, 1964; Ghiselli, 1971; Nwachukwu, 1994; Bentz, 1985; 1987; 1990; Sweetland, (1978). The opportunity to develop positive relationships with other workers on the job is likely to lead to job satisfaction (Alderfer, 1972; Likert, 1961; Vroom, 1964; Jaggi, 1977; Stephen, 1981, Bass, Avolio and Goodheim, 1987; Bass and Yammarino 1991; Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Curphy, 1991; 1993).

Structural variables such as challenging work situations (Litwin and Stringer, 1968); the provision of feedback on performance, (Hogan, Curphy and Hogan, 1994), autonomy and the latitude to make decisions about the “how” of work is also motivating (Likert, 1961; Jaggi, 1977; Hogan *et al*,_1997; Holland, 1985; Fleisman and Harris, 1962).

In summary the work of Herzberg (1966) has been helpful in learning what it is about a work situation that increases satisfaction and productivity. Herzberg (1966) has differentiated between factors in a work situation that are motivating to the employee, and those that we often assume are motivators but are really “hygiene factors”. A motivator to the DML is a situation that encourages high achievement principles, moderate risk taking, gives immediate and concrete feedback with autonomy and personal responsibility for

success and failures under challenging work conditions and at the same time reduces assembly times, and increases profit, production decision, satisfaction and productivity.

2.8.3 THE THESIS

This research reports an investigation into the role of an integrated management and leadership model in Nigerian Industrial-Organisations. High performance in Nigerian Industrial-Organisations are characterised by an integration of some management and leadership characteristics such as planning, organising, supporting and consulting, informing, communicating, conflict management, problem solving, motivating and rewarding. Also the DML model is characterised by styles and practice such as achievement principle, moderate risk taking, immediate and concrete feedback, autonomy, challenging work and high relationship which will enhance organisational performance in terms of high quality products in the shortest possible time, maximum profits and increase in production and satisfaction.

This research has shown from data collected, that some Nigeria Industrial organisations are characterised by low quality products, low profits and very minimal productivity due to the authoritarian

nature, (Taylor 1911) of their management styles, management concept and management practice leading to industrial failures, economic failures and recessions (Eze, 1995; Anikpo, 1994, 1985; Nwokolo, 1987; Osuji, 1984; Egwu, 1982, 1983). These observations form the core of our conceptualisation of the DML model for studying organisational behaviour in Nigeria.

The DML is an emotionally stable, conscientious, agreeable and intelligent person who utilises a dynamic and adaptive process during technological, cultural, political, people and structural changes, in planning, organising, informing, communicating, supporting, consulting, managing conflict, solving problems motivating and rewarding through the involvement of subordinates, workers and customers in a socio-technical system culture. Also he is a person with a high need to achieve, wants immediate and concrete feedback on a moderate risk taking basis and through personal responsibility for his own success he reduces assembly times, and increases production decision, quality of products, profit, satisfaction and productivity.

It is our thesis that as far as understanding organisational behaviour in Nigeria is concerned, that DML model is more superior than other managerial models like TQM advocated by Deming

(1986) and MBO advocated by Drucker (1964).

Ebiai's, (1997) studies on "Integrating Leadership and Management in Nigerian Industrial-Organisation", utilised the 14 leadership characteristics of Yukl, Wall and Lepsinger (1991) and 14 management principles of Fayol (1917) in constructing an open-ended Likert-system questionnaire which were distributed among leaders, supervisors and workers within six organisations of the 32 listed leading business organisations in Nigeria. Results obtained showed that the personality variables rated by the high performing organisations are surgency 28.31%; emotional stability, 16.44%; conscientiousness, 16.44%; agreeableness, 16.44%; and intelligence, 22.37%. These inputs interact with outputs such as immediate and concrete feedback moderate risk taking situations, personal responsibility, satisfaction, minimal time in productivity, high quality products, maximum profit, and high productivity decision. The feedback processes are sufficient to improve or maintain performance standards in Industrial-Organisations.

2.9 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The following Hypotheses have been tested in this Research:

Hi DML Organisations will outperform Non-DML Organisations.

Hi DML Performance is more Positively related with Short Assembly times used in Production than Non-DML Organisations.

Hi DML Performance is more Positively related with high Quality Products than Non-DML Organisations.

Hi DML Performance is more Positively related with High Profit ratio than other Non-DML Organisations.

Hi DML Performance is more Positively related with High Production Decisions than Non-DML Organisations.

Hi DML Performance is more Positively related with High Satisfaction Ratings than Non-DML Organisations.

Hi DML Performance is more Positively related with High Productivity Ratings than Non-DML Organisations.

Hi There will be a Significant difference between Male and Female responses on Satisfaction and Productivity Ratings.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 STUDY LOCATION

The study location was the University of Maiduguri, Maiduguri, Main Campus, bama Road, Maiduguri. The thirty-two (32) Industrial-Organisations chosen for this study were selected from the Nigerian Stock Exchange Unaudited Trading Performance records of listed companies in 1995 and during the first quarter of 1996, see pages 9, 10 and 11 of this report. The Industrial-Organisations were mainly remunerative public liability companies. These were classified into High Performing, Medium Performing and Low Performing Industrial-Organisations (See Table 1,2 and 3 on pages 9, 10 and 11). These classified Organisations were represented by Students companies in the experimental and control groups with leaders and workers who were trained to initiate the real listed or quoted companies.

Majority of the classified organisations shown in Tables 1,2,3 on pages 9, 10 and 11 have their headquarters located in Lagos with branches scattered all over the country. Most of the Industrial-Organisations under review are directly involved in

servicing, manufacturing or production of goods or commodities, such as glass, palm oil, soap, detergent, salt, beverages, pharmaceutical products, containers, toiletries, crude oil, textile, fabrics, clothing, metal box, cement, foot wears, frozen foods and livestock feeds respectively.

All the Industrial-Organisations listed or quoted were large scale with an average size of about 600 employees and above each. The Industrial-Organisations quoted here (see tables 1,2,3 pages 9, 10 and 11) normally manufacture different consumable products, which are essential for human needs satisfaction, and existence. Besides Manufacturing Industries have been quoted by the United Nations Industrial Development Organisation (UNIDO) recently as contributing to the economic development of nations.

3.2 PARTICIPANTS (MAIN STUDY)

The participants for the main study consisted of 192 students randomly selected from the part three and four classes of the Department of Sociology and Anthropology of the University of Maiduguri. They were 96 males and 96 females, involved in two phases of the research which comprised of the “Moontent” production exercise and the “Shallow Water Cargo Carrier” (SWCC)

production exercise. Each part of the main research consisted of the creation of a mock company, in the same business and varied only by style of the leader and the climate created. Litwin and Stringer (1968) and McIntyre (1966) have provided the basis for our procedure. A total of 96 participants were involved in the Moontent production exercise out of which 48 were males and 48 were females. Ninety-six others were involved in the SWCC production exercise out of which 48 were males and 48 were females.

3.2.1 Participants for the Moontent Production:

The Moontent production exercise consisted of two phases. The production of the Moontent was by participants who represented the leaders in their organisations only in the first instance. The second phase was the production of the Moontent by the participants who represented the General staff of the organisations, including the leaders in the initial study.

3.2.2 Experimental Group:

A random sampling was used in the selection by the researcher. Of the 96 participants for the Moontent production exercise, 24 represented the experimental group i.e. the staff of the High Performing Organisation (HPO) (see Table 1 on page 9). This category of participants were trained with the DML principles as contained on pages 13-21 of this thesis, vis-à-vis high achievement principle, moderate risk taking situations, immediate and concrete feedback, personal responsibility for their own success and failures, challenging work, relationships and autonomy. The companies of High Performers were named “ Sunshine Moontent Group of companies”. Of the 24 participants, 12 were males and 12 females. Amongst them were four groups of 6 members each. In each group there was a General Manager (GM) and an Assistant General Managers (AGM). There were 4 AGM’s altogether for the initial study.

3.2.3 Control Groups:

Twenty-four others represented a Control Group (A) i.e. staff of Medium Performing Organisations (MPO) (see Table 2 on page 10). This category of participants were trained based on leadership

behaviour characteristics only and their companies were named “Honeymoon Moontent Group of companies”. Of the 24 participants, 12 were males and 12 females. Amongst them were four groups of 6 members each. In each group there was a General Manager (GM) and an Assistant General Manager (AGM), the group consisting of 4 GM’s and 4 AGM’s of equal sex, for the initial study of leaders only.

Another 24 participants represented Control Group (B) i.e. the staff of Low Performing Organisation (LPO) (see Table 3 on page 11). This category of participants were trained based on management principles only and their companies were named “Twilight Moontent Group of companies”. Of the 24 participants, 12 were males and 12 females. Amongst them were four groups of 6 members each. In each group were a General Manager (GM) and an Assistant General Manager (AGM), the group consisting of 4 GM’s and 4 AGM’s of equal sex, for the initial study of leaders only.

Another group of 24 participants represented yet another Control Group (C) i.e. the staff of Non-trained Industrial Organisation workers. This group of participants, were not trained in any particular management or leadership style. They were named “Rainbow Moontent Group of companies”. Of this 24 participants,

12 were males and 12 were females. Amongst them were four groups of 6 members each. In each group there was a General Manager (GM) and an Assistant General Manager (AGM), consisting of 4 GM's and 4 AGM's of equal sex altogether for the initial study of leaders only.

3.3.1 Participants for the SWCC Production:

The SWCC production exercise also consisted of two phases. The production of the SWCC was by participants who represented the leaders in their organisations, in the first instance. The second phase was the production of the SWCC by participants who represented the General staff of the organisation, including the leaders in the initial study.

3.3.2 Experimental Group:

A random sampling was used in the selection by the researcher. Of the 96 participants for the SWCC production exercise, 24 represented the experimental group i.e. the staff of the High Performance Organisations (HPO) (see Table 1 on page 9). This category of participants were trained based on the DML principles listed on pages 13-21 of this report, and their companies named "Niger Dock Cargo Group of Companies". Of the 24 participants, 12

were males and 12 females. Amongst them were four groups of 6 members each. In each group there was a General Manager (GM) and an Assistant General Manager (AGM), the group consisting of 4 GM's and 4 AGM's, for the initial study.

3.3.3 Control Groups:

Another 24 participants represented a Control Group (AA) i.e. the staff of Medium Performing Organisations (MPO) (see Table 2 on page 10). This category of participants were trained based on leadership behaviour characteristics only, and their companies were named "Rivers Cargo Group of companies". Of the 24 participants, 12 were males and 12 females. Amongst them were four groups of 6 members each. In each group there was a General Manager (GM) and an Assistant General Manager (AGM), the group consisting of 4 GM's and 4 AGM's of equal sex, for the initial study of leaders only.

A set 24 participants represented another Control Group (BB) i.e. the staff of Low Performing Organisations (LPO) (see Table 3 on page 11). This category of participants were trained based on management principles only and their company named "Delta Cargo Group of Companies". Of the 24 participants 12 were males

and 12 females. Amongst them were four groups of 6 members each. In each group there was a General manager (GM) Assistant General Manager (AGM), the group consisting of 4 GM's and 4 AGM's of equal sexes, for the initial study of leaders only.

Another group of 24 participants represented yet another Control Group (CC) i.e. the staff of Non-trained Industrial-Organisation workers. This group of participants was not trained on any particular management or leadership style. They were named "Tin-Can Cargo Group of Companies". Of the 24 participants; 12 were males and 12 females. Amongst them were also four groups of 6 members each. In each group there was a General Manager (GM) and Assistant General manager (AGM), the group consisting of 4 GM's and 4 AGM's of equal sexes, for the initial study of leaders only.

3.4 RESEARCH EXERCISES

The following research exercises were used for data collection:

3.4.1 The Moontent Production Exercise:

The Moontent production exercise (see Appendices 3 and 5 pages

and) was designed by Kolb, Rubin, McIntyre (1979), to allow subjects to experiment with a socio-technical system of their culture. It is a time practice run test, with control. In fact it is by practice, bid, time trial, rebid and produce. The researcher who was a non-participant recorded the original bids, final bids, product accepted, and profit/loss on a chalk board so that all the participant sees the bids of all companies. The researcher also acted as the buyer and final approval of the product quality.

A tentative decisions about the number of products was done in ten minutes. That is the actually the tentative production decision taken by each group and their final decision(i.e the constructions times for each group was six minutes). The profit reductions, resulting from the change of decision varies according to the groups. Production decision also varies according to the groups, also with the maximum potential profit. The number of production remained as six. But post production inspection which is the acceptable number of completed products varies according to groups. The actual profit earned was completed from the information provided in the cost and profit information see (appendix 5 page) which determined profit awaited with reaching production decisions in step 6 (Appendix 5 page

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However in most of the groups the final production which led to the subtraction of the profit entered in step 7 (a) (Appendix page

) and with the correct profit reduction indicated in the table provided in step 5 (Appendix 5 page) which gives the maximum potential profit in step 7(c) (Appendix 5 page) that is subtract b from a which gives c. The researcher who was a non-participant recorded the original bids, final bids, product accepted, and profit/loss on a chalk board so that all the participant sees the bids of all companies. The researcher also acted as the buyer and final approval of the product quality.

Participants were asked to divide into teams of six members making the four groups from four different mock companies (considered manufacturing companies). One of the companies established on DML Principles i.e. “achievement principles”, such as high need to achieve and to want immediate concrete feedbacks, moderate risk-taking situations and with personal responsibility for their own success or failure. In the present study the company is named “Sunshine Moontent Group of Companies”. The second company established on leadership principles i.e. “Friendly” principles was named “Honeymoon Moontent Group of Companies”

in the present research.

The third company established on management principles i.e. “authoritarian” principles and on assembly line fashion was designated “Twilight Moontent Group of Companies” in the present study. The fourth group without training or treatment was named “Rainbow Moontent Group of Companies”. The teams were allowed to produce the moontent on the basis of 2 test runs. Firstly, there was a training trial under 10 minutes and secondly, the actual experiment for 6 minutes period.

The experimental group received training based on the DML principles. The assembly line group based on management principles. The friendly group based on leadership principles and finally the fourth group, were left on their own without training on any principle.

3.4.2 The Shallow-Water Cargo Carrier (SWCC) Production Exercise

The shallow-water cargo carrier (SWCC) production exercise (see Appendices 4 and 6 pages and) was designed by Kolb, Rubin and McIntyre (1979) in a similar fashion as the Moontent. It was also designed to allow participants to experiment

with a socio-technical system of their own creation. It was also a time practice run-test with quality control. Just like the Moontent exercise it is by practice, bid, time, trial, rebid and produce. A tentative decisions about the member of products was done in ten minutes. That is the actually the tentative production decision taken by each group and their final decision(i.e the constructions times for each group was six minutes. The profit reductions, resulting from change of decision varies according to the groups. Production decision also varies according tot the groups, also with the maximum potential profit. The number of production remained as six. But post production inspection which is the acceptable number of completed products varies according to groups. The actual profit earned was completed from the information provided in the cost and profit information table step 1 (see appendix 6 page) which determined thee profit awaited with reaching production decisions in step 6 (see appendix 6 page)

However in most of the groups the final production which led to the subtraction of the profit entered in step 7 (a) (see appendix 6 page) and with the correct profit reduction indicated in the table provided in step 5 (see appendix 6 page) which gives the maximum potential profit in step 7(c) (see appendix 6 page

), that is subtract b from a which gives c. It is by practice, bid, time trial, rebid and produce. The researcher who was a non-participant recorded the original bids, final bids, product accepted, and profit/loss on a chalk board so that all the participant sees the bids of all companies. The researcher also acted as the buyer and final approval of the product quality. Subjects were asked to divide into teams of six members making the four groups from four different mock companies (considered manufacturing companies). One of the companies was established on DML Principles i.e. “achievement principles” with high need to achieve and to want immediate, concrete feedback, moderate risk-taking situation and with personal responsibility for their success or failure, In the present research this company is called “Niger Dock Group of Companies”. The second established on Management principle i.e. “authoritarian” principles and on assembly line fashion, was designated in the present study as “Delta Group of Companies”. The third group established on leadership principle i.e. “friendly” principle was named “Rivers group of Companies” and the fourth group without training or treatment was named “Tin-Can Group of Companies”. The teams were allowed to produce the Shallow Water Cargo carrier (SWCC)

on the basis of 2 test runs. Firstly, there was a training trail under 10 minutes and secondly, the actual experiment for 6 minutes period. The experimental group received training based on the DML principles. The assembly line group with management principles, the friendly group with leadership principles and finally the fourth group were left without any special training based on DML principles.

3.5 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

The following research instruments were used for data collection:

3.5.1 Moontent Questionnaire

The Moontent Questionnaire was designed by Kolb, Robin and McIntyre (1979). (see appendix 7 page). In the Moontent questionnaire there was no provision for names and other biographical data. Only the company's (Team) name was required to be written on the top right hand corner of the questionnaire. The moontent questionnaire was designed in two phases. The first two questions were designed in a Likert-system open-ended pattern. Participants were asked in the first instance: "How satisfied they were with their companies performance in the Moontent production?" They were to respond on a seven-point scale, from very dissatisfied to very satisfied.

The second question in the questionnaire asked: "How productive did respondents personally feel?" They were also to respond on a seven-point scale from "very unproductive to extremely productive". The last two questions, which make up the second phase, required the participants to give free response on writing to " what they personally like about their work? And "what they personally dislike

about their work?.

3.5.2 Shallow-Water Cargo Carrier (SWCC) Questionnaire:

The shallow Water Cargo Carrier (SWCC) questionnaire (see Appendix 8 page) was designed by Kolb, Rubin McIntyre (1979). Like the Moontent Questionnaire, there was no provision for names and biographical data. Only the company's (team) name was require to be written on the top right hand corner of the questionnaire. The SWCC was also designed in two phases. The first two questions were designed in a Likert-system open ended format. Participants were asked in the first instance; "How satisfied they were with their companies performance in the SWCC production?". Participants were to respond on a seven-point scale from "very dissatisfied to very satisfied. The second question in the questionnaire asked: "How productive did respondents personally feel?" They were also to respond on a seven-point scale from "very unproductive to extremely productive". The last two questions which make up the second phase required participants to give free responses on writing to "what they personally like about their work? And "what they personally dislike about their work?

3.5.3 Biographical Information Questionnaire (BIQ)

This was designed by the investigator to obtain information on participants demographic characteristics e.g., sex, level of study, place of study etc. (See Appendix 2 page).

3.5.4 Stop-Watch:

The research experiment was timed up by using a stop watch to start and stop production process for the six minutes duration of the experiment.

3.6 EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

The experimental design is a 5x5 – 2way ANOVA design with two leadership groups (Experimental and Control) on 6 treatments or levels and two phases (Leaders and General Workers) on 6 treatments. The design for sex is also a 2 groups of male and female.

3.7 SCORING, DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

PROCEDURES

3.7.1 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA):

The Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) technique computation was effected separately with the use of a computer software known as Minitab version 7.2 to find out if there existed a significant difference between the various companies, i.e. in terms of performance satisfaction ratings and productivity ratings. The differences were computed for both the Moontent production exercise and the Shallow-Water Cargo Carrier (SWCC) production exercises. The companies for the Moontent are; Sunshine Moontent Group of Companies founded on DML principles, Twilight Moontent Group of Companies with leadership characteristics, Honeymoon, Moontent Group of Companies and Rainbow Moontent Group of Companies, representing those that were not trained.

The companies for the SWCC production exercise are, Niger Dock Group of Companies founded on DML principles, Delta Cargo Group of Companies with management principles, Rivers Cargo Group of Companies trained on Leadership characteristics and Tin-Can Cargo Group of Companies, representing those that were not trained.

The ANOVA technique was also used to find out the differences amongst the four principled companies leaders and the general workers in both the Moontent and SWCC production exercises, in

terms of assembly times, quality of products, profit ratio, production decisions, satisfaction ratings and productivity ratings.

3.7.2 The Two-Independent Statistical Test (t-test):

The two-independent statistical test was used to analyse the data in order to find out the difference between participants responses on satisfaction and productivity ratings in the Moontent production and the Shallow-Water Cargo Carrier (SWCC) production. The t-independent statistics was also used to analyse the data to find out the difference in, sex, (male and female) responses on satisfaction and productivity in the Moontent and the SWCC production exercise.

The permutation test for two independent (t-test) sample is a useful and powerful technique for testing the significance of the differences between the means of the two independent samples when the sample sizes of the two groups are large.

3.7.3. Cost, Profit, Assembly Times, Production Decisions and Quality Control Steps.

Cost and profit, assembly times, production decisions and quality control steps was designed by Kolb, Rubin, McIntyre (1979) and was used by the investigator to find out the differences between the

four different groups of companies in terms of assembly times, production decisions taken, quality of products and profit made. The cost and profit information for the Moontent, as well as typical assembly times for one unit, are given (see appendix 5 page). The cost and profit information for the SWCC are also given (see appendix 6 page) see also appendices pages

3.8. ROCEDURE CONTROLS AND DATA COLLECTION

FOR THE MOONTENT PRODUCTION:

3.8.1 Company Formation and Organisation (10 Minutes)

3.8.2 STEP 1: Formation of the Moontent Company.

The companies were organised into four groups. The Experimental group was formed based on “achievement democratic” principles and based on DML principles of immediate concrete feedback, moderate risk-taking situations, personal responsibility for success or failure, challenging work, positive relationship autonomy and communication in decision making.

The control group was formed on “Authoritarian” principles and principles of management such as Division of work into units, (Fayol, 1917), assembly line patterns, no feedback on performance and no communication.

Another control group was founded on “friendly” principles and leadership characteristics such as no feedback on performance, non-challenging work, paternalistic behaviour patterns, and no communication. The fourth group was the Non-trained group without treatment of any kind.

3.8.3 Experimental Group:

The experimental group founded on DML principles was made up of 24 students randomly selected, Symbolically, this group represented the first 11 of the companies listed as high performing in the Nigerian Stock Exchange Unaudited Trading Performance average for the 1995 and first half of 1996 in terms of profitability. (see Table 1 page 9). The experimental group was trained on the DML principles of concrete feedback, moderate risk-taking situations, personal responsibility for success or failure, challenging work, positive relationships, autonomy and communication in decision-making.

3.8.4 Control Groups:

The first control group (A) was characterised by “Friendly principles” and leadership characteristics; no feedback on performance, non-challenging work, paternalistic behaviour patterns, and no communication. This group was made up of 24 students randomly selected. Symbolically the group represented 10 of the companies listed as medium performing in the Nigeria Stock Exchange Unaudited Trading performance average for the year 1995 and first half of 1996 in terms of profitability (see Table 2,

page10). The control group received training based on the leadership principles of the 24 students randomly selected for the study on the leadership principles, 8 served as leaders in the organisation, 4 as General Managers (GM's) and 4 others as Assistant General Managers (AGM's) that is one GM and one AGM for each of the four groups of 6 members. The company with the leadership characteristics in the Mock Moontent production exercise was named "Honeymoon Moontent Group of Companies".

The second control group (B) was characterised by "Authoritarian principles and management philosophy" such as division of work into units, assembly line patterns, no feedback on performance, and no communication. This group was made of 24 students randomly selected. Symbolically, the group represents 11 of the companies listed as low performing in the Nigerian Stock Exchange Unaudited training Performance average for the 1995 and first half of the 1996 in terms of profitability (see Table 3 page 11). This control group kept to the management principles.

Of the 24 students randomly selected for the study on the management principles, 8 served as leaders in the organisation, 4 as General Managers (GM's) and 4 others as Assistant General managers (AGM's), that is one GM and one AGM for each of the

four groups of 6 members. The company founded on the management principles in the mock Moontent production exercise was named “Twilight Moontent Group of Companies”

The third control group (C) was not trained, with treatment of any kind. This group was also made up of 24 students randomly selected symbolically representing none of the companies listed on pages of this study. This

Companies, Honeymoon Moon Tent Group of Companies and Rainbow moon Tent Group of Companies. However, to ensure that personality differences such as surgency, emotional stability, conscientiousness, agreeableness, intellections and environmental variables such as technology, cultural, political, people and structure may not have effect on the productivity results the GM manipulated these variables on each of the mocked companies.

Companies, Honeymoon moontent Group of Companies and Rainbow Moontent Group of Companies. However, to ensure that personality differences such as surgency, emotional stability, conscientousness, agreeableness, intellectance and environmental variables such as technology, cultural, political, people and structure may not have effect on the productivity results, the GM manipulated these variables on each of the mocked companies.

3.9 PROCEDURE CONTROLS AND DATA COLLECTION

FOR SHALLOW-WATER CARGO CARRIER (SWCC) PRODUCTION

3.9.1 Company Formations and Organisation (10 Minutes)

3.9.2 STEP 1: Formation of the Shallow-Water Cargo Carrier (SWCC) Company:-

The researcher trained the leaders in line with the following steps. For example:-

The companies were organised into four groups. The experimental group was formed, based on “achievement” principles and with the DML principles of immediate concrete feedbacks, challenging work, positive relationship, autonomy and communication in decision

making. The first control group was formed based on “friendly principle” and the principle of leadership. The second control group were formed based on “authoritarian” principles and principles of management such as division of work into units, assemblyline patterns, no feedback on performance, and no communication on productivity goals. The third control group forms the non trained group, with no training at all.

3.9.3 Experimental Group:

The experimental group founded on DML principles was made of 24 students randomly selected. Symbolically, the group represent the first 10 of the companies listed as high performing in the Nigerian Stock Exchange Unaudited Trading Performance Average for the year 1995 and first half of 1996 in terms of profitability (see Tables 1 page 9). The experimental group received training based on the DML principles of immediate concrete feedback, moderate risk-taking, and personal responsibility for success or failure, challenging work, positive relationships, autonomy and communication in decision making.

Of the 24 students randomly selected for the study on the DML principles, 8 served as leaders in the organisation, 4 as General

managers (GM's and 4 others as Assistant General Managers (AGM's), that is managers (GM's and 4 others as Assistant General Managers (AGM's), that I one GM for each of the group of 6 members. The company formed on the DML. Principles in the mock Shallow-Water Cargo Carrier (SWCC) production exercise was named Niger Dock cargo Group of Companies.

3.9.4 Control Groups:

The first control group (AA) was characterised by “Friendly principles” and leadership characteristics; such as no feedback on performance, non-challenging work. Paternalistic behaviour patterns, no communication on production goals. This group was made up of 24 students randomly selected. Symbolically the group represented 10 of the companies listed as medium performing organisations in the Nigerian Stock Exchange Unaudited Trading performance Average for the year 1995 and first half of 1996 in terms of profitability (see Table 2 page10). This control group was trained on leadership principles. Of the 24 students randomly selected for the study on the leadership principles, 8 served as leaders in the organisation, 4 as General managers (GM's) and 4 other as Assistant General managers (AGM's) for each of the four groups of 6 members. The company with the leadership

characteristics in the Mock Shallow-Water Cargo Carrier (SWCC) production exercise was named “Rivers Cargo Group of Companies.

The second control group (BB) is characterised by “Authoritarian” principles and management philosophy such as division of work into units. (Fayol, 1917), assembly line patterns, (Taylor, 1911); no feedback on performance, and no communication on productivity goals. This group was made up of 24 students randomly selected. Symbolically, the group represented 10 of the companies listed as low performing in the Nigerian Stock Exchange Unaudited Trading Performing Average for the year 1995 and first half of the 1996 in terms of profitability (see Table 3 page 11). This control group received training on the management principles. Of the 24 students randomly selected for the study group trained on the management principles, 8 served as leaders in the organisation, 4 as General managers (GM’s) and 4 others as Assistant General Managers (AGM’s). That is one GM and one AGM each of the four group of 6 members. The company founded on management principles in the Mock Shallow-Water Cargo Carrier (SWCC) production exercise was named “Delta Cargo Group of Companies”.

The third control group (CC) received no training. This group was also made up of 24 students randomly selected and representing

none of the group of companies. This control group kept to none of the principles. Of the 24 students randomly selected, 8 served as leaders in the organisation: 4 as General Managers (GM's) and 4 others Assistant general Managers (AGM's) that is, one General Manager and one AGM for each of the four groups of 6 members. The company with no training was named "Tin-Can Cargo Group of Companies".

3.9.5 STEP 2: Preparation for the Shallow-Water Cargo Carrier (SWCC)

The preparation for the production of the SWCC lasted for 10 minutes in each group. Each company vis-à-vis Niger Dock, Delta, Rivers, and Tin-Can had four groups with leaders; GM's and AGM's each of the four groups. The GM and AGM in each of the group were first trained apart from the Not-trained group (Tin-Can Cargo Group of Companies). The researcher taught the

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product, the profit ratio in naira value and the production decision by the GM. (See Appendix 6 page). The Likert open ended questionnaire was used to quantify the productivity and satisfaction ratings of the GM and the general workers on a (1-7) Scale (See Appendix 8 page).

The researcher first recorded these results with the leaders; GM's and AGM's separately and later with the general workers in each group vis-à-vis; Niger Dock Cargo Carrier Group of Companies, Delta Cargo Carrier Group of Companies, Rivers Cargo Carrier Group of Companies and Tin-Can Cargo Carrier Group of Companies.

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APPENDIX 1

**THE NIGERIAN STOCK EXCHANGE, UNAUDITED TRADING
PERFORMANCE AVERAGE OF LISTED COMPANIES DURING
1995 AND THE FIRST HALF OF 1996.**

N	Name Of Company	Gross Profi t Marg in (%) 199 5	Gross Pro fit Mar gin (%) 199 5	Gros s Pr ofi t Av er ag e Fo r 19 95 /1 99	Po s i t i o n
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				6	
1	P.Z Industries Plc	16.8	13.8	15.3	12 th
2	Ashakacem Plc	16.9	3.1	10.0	23 rd
3	Delta Glass Plc	33.8	16.8	25.3	4 th
4	Vono Products Plc	5.8	6.1	5.95	29 th
5	Total Nig. Plc	12.1	12.7	12.4	18 th
6	Lennards Nig. Plc	17.0	2.6	9.8	24 th
7	The Okomu Oil Palm Co. Plc	35.6	23.5	29.6	2 nd
8	Golden Guinea	5.2	8.7	5.95	28 th

	Breweries Plc				t h
9	John Holt Plc	17.2	6.4	11.8	20 t h
1	Oluwa Glass Co.Plc	36.0	27.8	31.9	1 st
1	CFAO Nig.Plc	4.4	3.5	3.95	31 s t
1	WTN Plc	23.8	24.8	24.3	6 th
1	Tripple Gee & Co. Plc	18.4	19.7	19.0 5	10 t h
1	Vanleer Containers Nig. Plc	23.9	12.6	18.2 5	11 t h
1	Sterling Products Plc	9.5	35.4	22.4 5	7 th

1	Smith line Beecham Nig.	17.4	11.3	14.3	14
				5	t h
1	Guinness Nig. Plc	10.9	11.2	11.0	22
				5	n d
1	Union Dicon Salt Plc	25.7	24.2	24.9	5 th
				5	
1	Crnaund Metal Box Nig. Plc	14.9	8.4	11.6	21
				5	s t
2	Nig. Yeast and Alcohol Man. Co.	19.5	20.0	19.7	9 th
				5	
2	Nigerian Tobacco Co. Plc	19.2	5.9	12.5	17
				5	t h
2	Mobil Oil Nig. Plc	19.7	10.0	14.8	13
				5	t h
2	Agip Nig. Plc	3.8	4.4	4.1	30

					t
					h
2	U.T.C. Nig. Plc	3.3	2.0	2.65	32
					n
					d
2	Nestle Foods Nig. Plc	12.5	12.7	12.6	16
					t
					h
2	UAC of Nig.Plc	9.2	7.4	8.3	27
					t
					h
2	Unipetrol Nig. Plc	9.9	8.3	9.1	25
					t
					h
2	Lever Brothers Nig. Plc	32.5	18.9	25.7	3 rd
2	Nigerian Breweries Plc	25.3	16.9	21.1	8 th
3	Livestock Feeds Plc	14.1	2.8	8.45	26
					t
					h

3	Uneofson Garment Fact. Nig. Plc	6.9	16.7	11.8	20 t h
3	National Oil Plc.	5.6	10.8	13.2	15 t h

APPENDIX 5

APPENDIX 5

STEPS IN MOONTENT PRODUCTION

Cost and profit information for the Moon Tent, as well as typical assembly times for one unit, are given below.

Cost and Profit Information for the Moon Tent.

Num ber of set s pur cha sed	Total Cost	Total Selling Price	Total Profit
3	N147,900.00	N150,000.00	N 2,100.00
4	N195,000.00	N200,000.00	N 5,000.00
5	N240,000.00	N250,000.00	N 10,000.0 0
6	N279,900.00	N300,000.00	N20,100.00
7	N319,900.00	N350,000.00	N30,100.00
8	N360,000.00	N400,000.00	N40,000.00
9	N400,000.00	N450,000.00	N50,000.00
10	N440,000.00	N500,000.00	N60,000.00
11	N474,000.00	N550,000.00	N76,000.00

12	N519,500.00	N600,000.00	N80,400.00
13	N559,550.00	N650,000.00	N90,350.00
14	N599,990.00	N700,000.00	N100,100.0 0
14+n	N499,900.00 +40,250.0 0	N700,000.00 +50,000.0 0	N100,100.0 0+9,750. 00

Assembly Times For One Moon Tent.

This table gives assembly times for one Moon Tent based on the actual individual performance of people who have assembled them.

Fast assembly time (top 10%) 35-45 seconds

Average assembly time 45-55 seconds

Slow assembly time (low 10%) over 55 seconds

Tentative Decision

After building your model and inspecting the information given, make a tentative decision about the number of units you wish to buy for production in a six minutes period record the number here ____.

Final Decision and Production

Now that you have made your tentative decision, prepare for a timed practice trial. When you are ready, take a timed practice assembly and record the construction time for the group here ____.

The Instructor or a non-participant should record original bids, final bids, products accepted, and profit/loss on a chalk board or newsprint so that all may see the bids of all companies. The instructor should also act as the buyer and final approval of product quality.

