

A LEADER-FOLLOWER EXCHANGE PERSPECTIVE OF ACADEMIC TALENT DEVELOPMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION

by

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DECLARATION

I, Andre Horne, declare that a **Leader-follower exchange perspective of academic talent development in higher education** is my own unaided work both in content and execution. All the resources I used in this study are cited and referred to in the reference list by means of a comprehensive referencing system. Apart from the normal guidance from my study leaders, I have received no assistance, except as stated in the acknowledgements.

I declare that the content of this thesis has never been used before for any qualification at any tertiary institution.

I, Andre Horne, declare that the language in this thesis was edited by Rika Weiss (MA (Applied Linguistics)).

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ABSTRACT

A LEADER-FOLLOWER EXCHANGE PERSPECTIVE OF ACADEMIC TALENT DEVELOPMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION

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This study examines the development of academic talent in higher education from a social exchange and organisation support perspective. More specifically the study investigates to what extent a quality leader-member exchange relationship between a chair of department and an academic staff member contributes to the perceived development of academic talent in higher education.

The leader-member exchange theory was applied in this study to examine the influence of the quality of the relationship between an academic leader and a follower on supervisory support for development as well as its ultimate effect on perceptions of organisation investment in employee development. Insight into the said quality and

the effect of this relationship would provide greater clarity to leaders about the development of academic talent in higher education.

The study employed a mixed-method approach that combined quantitative and qualitative data collection. Quantitative data was collected from participants (members of academic staff as followers) through an online survey, and qualitative data was collected from leaders (chairs of academic departments as developers of academic staff) through conducting one-on-one interviews. In addition, a theoretical model of the hypothesised relationships between leaders and followers was tested using path analysis.

The study found new evidence of the ways in which relationship resources embodied in the leader-member exchange relationship between supervisors (leaders) and employees (followers) influenced employee perceptions of both supervisory and organisation support for development. The results also demonstrated how leader-member exchange theory, combined with theoretical work on organisation support, helped to explain and understand the critical role of supervisors in developing academic staff. This study suggests that leader-member exchange theory could be used as an appropriate leadership theory for application in the development of academic talent in higher education. In addition specific development practices for a chair of department in their roles as developers were also presented.

Keywords: Leader-member exchange; supervisory support for development; investment in employee development; talent development; higher education

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CHAPTER 1: PREVIEW AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

South African higher education is at a crossroads as increasing demands and pressure are placed on an educational system that plays a pivotal role in relieving South Africa of critical skills and jobs shortages. But the question remains, does South Africa's higher education have the human capacity to live up to and meet these demanding challenges?

A report released in 2008 clearly reflected the need for action in South African higher education. In this report it is stated: "A revitalisation of the academic profession is of paramount importance for the future of Higher Education in South Africa. Simply put, there can be no universities without academics" (Soudien, 2008:1). The deliberations in this report make it clear that any revitalisation of higher education and any attempt to address its current shortcomings should be multi-pronged in approach and that serious attention should be given to the following fundamental aspects:

- Declining image of the academic profession
- Rising workload pressures due to increased teaching loads
- Diminishing academic voice within the higher education sector and associated loss of agency
- Corporatisation and massification of the higher education sector
- Ageing academic population
- Feelings of alienation particularly amongst black academics
- Tensions between academic freedom and country-specific needs

In a keynote speech in 2010 Dr Blade Nzimande, the Minister of Higher Education and Training, stressed, for instance, the need to focus on academic development and to nurture academic potential, and he called for action. He also indicated a need to hold institutions accountable for promoting required changes, particularly in regard to leadership (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2010:2).

As recently as 2011, Higher Education South Africa (HESA) took on the challenge by drafting a national proposal to develop the next generation of academics. The main aim of this development drive is to address the key challenge in higher education, defined as “a multi-dimensional crisis in attracting, appointing and retaining academic staff at the backdrop of many academic challenges” (HESA, 2011:1).

The challenges in higher education suggest a need to further understand academic talent development, and in particular the role of leaders in developing this talent.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Apart from the challenges in higher education that have been mentioned, the literature mentions two main reasons why the management and development of academic talent need to be taken account of.

Firstly, notwithstanding the important emphasis on the role of leadership in the development of academic talent, research conducted at seven leading higher education institutions, which included the universities of Harvard, Yale and Duke, found that leaders in academia expressed a limited need to identify and develop academic talent. They placed more emphasis on managing day-to-day operations (recruitment and selection, curriculum design and development, tuition and research) than on taking responsibility for managing talent (Heuer, 2003). Likewise, Lynch (2007) has found that institutions that produce knowledge also fall short in assisting their own staff in developing the required skills in a knowledge economy. Not only higher education but also the corporate environment seems to be lacking interest in placing emphasis on the management of talent. Efron, Greenslade and Salob (2005:22) have found in their research of nearly 1 000 small and large organisations that organisational leaders express a limited need to identify and develop talent. These leaders did not see talent management as one of the key performance areas they were responsible for. Furthermore, the authors have established that organisational leaders are more concerned about the inherent job responsibilities of their positions and meeting operational requirements than the development and growth of their own staff.

The second challenge involves the nature of the academic environment. Koen and Bitzer (2010:7) have found that academic leaders see themselves in the midst of a complex, multi-dimensional environment characterised by blockages and enormous challenges as far as the development of academic talent is concerned. Some of the academic aspects that challenge a dynamic relationship between an academic leader and an academic follower are respect for intellectual capacity (Middlehurst, 1993:180); collegiality; leadership authority (Middlehurst, 1993:177); intellectual followership (Middlehurst, 1993:70); difference of institutional interest (Netswera, Rankhumise & Mavundla, 2005:36); spirit of community and service to one's colleagues (Ramsden, 1998:39); and the qualities of being self-starting, self-regulating, independent and professional academics (Mcinnis, 2000). Further challenges are that the followers should be well educated, self-starting and quite autonomous and that the work environment of institutions of higher learning should be more collegial than hierarchical.

According to Tucker (1984:4), leaders at universities are seen as “first among equals”¹, and this makes the task of leadership in academia unique. As pointed out in this study, the role of an academic leader, particularly a chair of department (CoD), in developing academic talent in higher education should not be underestimated.

The relationship between the CoD and his or her staff is distinctive and vital to the development of the academic (Salopek, 2000:25). Whether this relationship is mature or not depends not merely on authoritative interaction but rather on mutual respect for and understanding of each other's intellectual capacity and growth. The quality of the exchanges between the leader and the follower may be highly dependent on the maturity of the relationship (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Extant literature on leadership theories and practices has done well in providing a normative understanding of leadership focusing on traits, characteristics and styles of effective leaders. The interrogation of these leadership theories and practices has

¹ Reference to a person seen as first being “equal” to their academic peers with a added responsibility to manage the academic department.

largely been in the context of private sector business organisations with little research done in the unique environment of academic leadership (Lyons, 2008).

Contrary to trait and behavioural theories of leadership, the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory recognises both the role of the leader and the follower in creating a meaningful and mature relationship (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). LMX conceptualises a dyadic relationship between a leader and an individual follower that develops over time through a series of interactions. Once a meaningful and mature relationship is in place, effective leadership processes occur through high-quality social exchanges that result in effective outcomes, such as follower energy, creativity and follower performance (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

LMX theory further incorporates the idea that a leader might not have the same relationship with each follower. A leader might consciously or subconsciously develop different types of exchange relationships with individual followers (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

This study used LMX theory to examine how the social exchange relationship between CoDs and academic staff influenced perceptions of support for development and organisational investment in development. It also examined the developmental opportunities CoDs made available to subordinates on the basis of this relationship.

1.3 PURPOSE STATEMENT

The main purpose of this study was to establish to what extent a quality LMX relationship between a CoD and an academic staff member contributed to the perceived development of academic talent in higher education. Based on this examination, the study provided prescriptions for leader-member exchanges that might improve academic follower development in a higher education context.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The aforementioned problems and challenges were operationalised by addressing the following research questions in this study:

- Is there a relationship between the quality of an LMX relationship and perceived supervisory support for development?
- To what extent is the quality of an LMX relationship related to employees' perceptions of investment in their development?
- What types of exchanges do CoDs use to promote academic staff development?

1.5 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The study was guided by the following research objectives:

- To understand how the quality of the leader-member exchanges (LMX) relates to employees' perceptions of development support and investment in development
- To explore LMX as a leadership framework that could assist CoDs in understanding their leadership roles in developing talent
- To understand how CoDs perceive and fulfil their roles as developers of academic talent

1.6 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The research design and methodology followed in this study were informed by my preferred research paradigm, my personal orientation, which in turn emanated from my practical experience in the field of development, the existing literature and the problem and research questions investigated in this particular study (Henning, Van Rensburg & Smit, 2004:12). Based on a confluence of these orientations, I

approached this study from a positivist (foundationalist) and interpretivist paradigm (Hogarty, Conley & Kromrey, 1999:46-47). A combination of elements from these perspectives is referred to as realism (Marsh & Edward, 2002:30). I believed that, by applying a pragmatic philosophy that combined a quantitative and qualitative research design, an absolute truth could be extracted in some cases based on facts and figures; however, on the other hand the social context and the subjective understandings of CoDs also needed to be taken into consideration to fully understand how leadership influenced employees' perceptions of development.

This dualistic approach was further informed by my ontological, epistemological and methodological views. I conducted my research against the known ontology of leadership. According to Bennis (2007:3), the components of leadership “[i]n its simplest form [is] a tripod – a leader or leaders, followers, and a common goal they want to achieve”. Based on this definition of leadership, the ontology of leadership is characterised by three distinct entities, namely: a leader and a follower that form part of a process or a social influence (Chemers, 1997); some form of influence or persuasion by the leader to attain goals or to achieve a certain outcome (Bass, 1990); and dispositional characteristics, behaviours and attributes of the leader and the follower (Antonakis, Cianciolo & Sternberg, 2004). Thus, this study was grounded in an understanding of the social exchange relationship between the leader and the follower and the potential outcomes (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Against this background I positioned my research to reach an understanding and build on the ontology of the relationship between a leader and a follower and its potential outcomes. I introduced LMX as a leadership theory that had been developed to understand the nature and quality of the relationship between the leader and the follower (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

My epistemological perspective was informed by existing research on LMX. I concentrated my research on the dyadic level of the relationship between the leader (CoD) and the follower (member of academic staff). My intention was to gain knowledge of this dyadic relationship within an academic context and to further understand the linkage between such a relationship and follower development. The first part of my study was designed to obtain objective knowledge of measurable data

about the relationship between the leader (CoD) and the follower (member of academic staff) through the use of standardised statistical procedures, testing and verifying hypotheses. The availability of a validated instrument to measure the quality of the LMX relationship lends itself to the quantitative testing of a hypothesis. By uncovering the deeper meaning of and getting an insight into how CoDs perceived and enacted their leadership roles in academic staff development I wanted to understand existing interchanges between the CoD and his or her staff (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009:3). An interpretivist perspective allowed me to consider the multiple realities and subjective experiences of the phenomenon under investigation. This approach also allowed me to make certain inferences about the future development of staff and to build upon the body of LMX theory and knowledge. By following this approach and methodology and concentrating more on how relationships between leaders and followers develop and affect organisational functioning and outcomes, instead of merely differentiating between these relationships, I could gain valuable knowledge (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

To achieve the aim of this research, I applied a mixed-method strategy of inquiry. Read and Marsh (2002:232) have pointed out that “there is nothing inherent in the properties of the different research methodologies which prevents their use by researchers who are operating from different epistemological positions”. Therefore, this strategy allowed me to firstly obtain and analyse quantitative data where after I could gather and analyse qualitative data. My intention with this strategy was to move beyond a descriptive approach towards a more explanatory research framework. Quantitative data was obtained from a sample of academics in one institution. Quantitative data results also informed the selection of subjects for the qualitative data collection. My chosen inquiry strategy allowed for different data collection and analysis techniques for each research question.

In finding an answer to **research question 1**, I considered the relationships between LMX and other variables. The essence of the LMX theory is the development of relationships between a leader and followers and the effects these relationships have on individual, team and organisational functioning (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Previous research on the LMX theory asserts that effective leadership processes occur when leaders and followers develop and maintain high-quality social exchange

relationships. In an effort to answer research question 1 the quality of the relationship between the CoD and academic staff was investigated in order to determine its effect on supervisory support for staff development.

Furthermore, it was intended to establish to what extent supervisory support for staff development was affected by the quality of the LMX relationship. To be able to answer this question, the seven-item LMX measure, with the centroid item of 'How effective is your working relationship with your leader?', was used to determine the quality of the relationship between the CoD and academic staff (Bell, 1994). The seven-item LMX measure was administered to academic staff members who reported to CoDs. Furthermore, a second questionnaire (Supervisory support for staff development by CoDs) was administered to academic staff to establish the relationship between the quality of the relationship and the perceived satisfaction of supervisory support for development between CoDs and staff members (Maurer, Lippstreu & Judge, 2008).

Research question 2 was answered by considering the notion that LMX and supervisory support for staff development also played an important role in overall perceptions of investment in employee development. It was important to determine if employees had positive perceptions of their organisations' development focus and, if so, to what extent these positive perceptions were affected by the quality of the relationship with their CoDs and the supervisory support they received (Baldwin & Magjuka, 1997). To answer this question, 'perceived investment in employee development' (PIED) was also measured. A central premise of the inclusion of PIED was the perception of employees that organisations did invest in their development. PIED is known to facilitate employees' feelings of greater obligation and commitment towards their organisations and a willingness to work hard and increase the organisations' effectiveness (Arthur, 1994; Woods & de Menezes, 1998).

Finally, in answering **research question 3** as to how the quality of the LMX could be improved to enhance academic staff development, in-depth semi-structured interviews were conducted with CoDs. The selection of CoDs for the interviews was based on high and low LMX and supervisory staff development scores in several academic departments.

The quantitative data was analysed using path analysis and applying a structural equation model (SEM). This form of analysis was used to examine the causal relationships between variables (Ullman, 2001) and to test the empirical model suggested in this research (Shipley, 1999).

Thematic analysis was used to analyse the interviews. In keeping with a mixed-methods approach, the quantitative and qualitative data was first interpreted separately and was followed by an integrated summary to illuminate the role and effect of LMX in understanding employees' perceptions of supervisory support for development and of investment, and to offer prescriptions about how LMX could help identify how CoDs could positively affect the academic development of employees.

1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

1.7.1 Rationale for the study

The rationale for this research was grounded mainly in the theoretical work on organisational support. More specifically, my research focused on the development resources employees received from their organisation. According to organisational support theory (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski & Rhoades, 2002), one area of support that employees receive can be found in their relationship with their supervisor. Eisenberger *et al.* refer to this as a relationship resource. This relationship resource is based on employees' perception that their supervisors act as agents for their organisations and can on these grounds provide access to developmental opportunities (Maurer, Weiss & Barbeite, 2003). Maurer and Lippstrau (2008:333) have suggested that support from the supervisor takes on many forms and can include being supportive of efforts to improve work skills by helping employees develop career plans, providing relevant and useful performance appraisal and ongoing skill feedback, facilitating participation in learning activities and building confidence of employees to become competent through appropriate learning and improved opportunities. In other words, organisations may have structures and opportunities for development but it is the supervisors who are critical to employees gaining access to these resources. From a learning and development perspective,

the leadership role of the supervisor can, therefore, not be underestimated if one considers the potential organisational benefits associated with employee learning and development. Dubin (1990), Hazucha, Hezlett and Schneider (1993), Maurer and Tarulli (1994), and Noe and Wilk (1993) have all noted the importance of supervisors in supporting developmental efforts of subordinates.

Therefore, the manner in which CoDs perform their leadership role can have a major impact on the potential benefits associated with supervisory support for development. To understand this supervisory supportive relationship better, I have drawn on the social exchange theory that underpins the LMX theory. Social exchange theory has been implemented extensively to better understand the quality of the relationship between a leader and a follower (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) and is, therefore, ideally suited to understanding supervisor-subordinate working relationships (Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975).

Previous research has also used LMX theory in studies of employee learning and development. LMX has been shown to be positively related to the following: motivating training (Scaduto, Lindsay & Chiaburu, 2008), providing more difficult and more specific learning goals (Xander, Bezuijen, Van Dam, Van den Berg & Thierry, 2010), providing greater growth opportunities (Kim, Lee & Carlson, 2010), receiving more resources and guidance for career development (Lam, Huang & Snape, 2007), and receiving more effective learning opportunities (Walumbwa, Cropanzano & Hartnell, 2009).

In this study, I applied the social exchange theory to investigate and come to an in-depth understanding of the relationship between a leader and a follower and the way this relationship was related to supervisory support for development. In addition, I applied the social exchange theory to consider if employees' perceptions of how much their organisation was investing in their development (commonly referred to as perceived investment in employee development or PIED) were affected by LMX and supervisory support for staff development. Benefits associated with positive perceptions of perceived investment in development tend to be significant, and positive perceptions have been found to affect employee commitment and motivation

(Snell & Dean, 1992) and to contribute to improved productivity, financial performance and competitiveness (Woods & de Menezes, 1998). Although LMX has been associated with employees' perceptions that the organisation supports employee development (Kraimer, Seibert, Wayne, Liden & Bravo, 2011), no prior research has examined the relationship between **supervisory support** for staff development and perceived investment in employee development (PIED) using LMX as a theory.

While this study applied the LMX theory, it went beyond previous literature by incorporating two perspectives of organisation support theory. This study investigated the possibility that the relationship resource was not the only factor contributing towards PIED. Based on the organisational support theory the study also took into account that organisational support for development could be facilitated by the objective and reasonable amount of organisational resources set aside and made available for employee development. I suggested that the number of training and development opportunities available to employees to grow and develop could have an impact on perceived organisation investment in employee development thus mitigating the effects of the quality of the relationship between the supervisor and the staff.

In this research, I introduced a theoretical model that tested the relationships between the LMX, supervisory support for staff development and resource allocation in the form of training and development opportunities received. I positioned PIED as the main outcome variable in this research. This decision was based on the existing benefits associated with this construct, such as positive perceptions of the organisations commitment to an employee's personal and professional growth (seen as a critical aspect within academia) and to attempt to determine which factors did indeed contribute to this important outcome variable. I positioned LMX as a key relationship factor that could contribute to PIED. Although LMX has been associated with organisational support for development (employees overall perceptions that the organisation provides programs and opportunities that help employees develop their functional skills and managerial capabilities), no research to date has tested the relationship between LMX and PIED (with a stronger focus on personal and professional growth).

By positioning the concept of social exchange embedded in LMX theory as a means of understanding not only the role of leaders in talent development but also the linkage between this role and the way employees perceive organisational investment in their development, this research contributes to the body of knowledge on talent development as well as the broader field of human resource management.

The research study included not only quantitative testing to investigate hypothesised relationships but also qualitative testing to reveal any differences in the behaviours of CoDs with low LMX scores and those with high LMX scores. In so doing, the study shed light on how CoDs perceived and enacted social exchanges with academic staff in respect of development (Abu-Baker, Dilbeck & McCroskey, 2010).

1.7.2 Importance and benefits of the proposed study

This study has both theoretical and practical significance. From a theoretical perspective the study makes two contributions. First, it extends the body of literature on LMX and organisational support theory by investigating the effect of LMX on supervisory support for development, as well as overall employee perceptions of investment in their development.

Although past empirical studies have supported the validity of the LMX theory and related learning and development aspects, such as motivating training and setting learning goals (Xander *et al.*, 2010), empirical studies have not yet looked at the relationship between LMX and overall supervisory support for talent development.

Scholars of LMX have expressed the need to understand exchange behaviour from multiple perspectives within the dyad (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995:221; Van Breukelen, Schyns & Le Blanc, 2006). By gaining insight from the perspectives of both the leader and the follower the researcher in the current study could formalise exchange behaviour in the context of follower development.

The study also makes a significant practical contribution. Now more than ever, the war to lure academic talent is a reality. Contributing factors are multi-dimensional in

nature and include increased competitiveness across markets, an ageing talented workforce, a decline in younger talent entering the academic arena and less attractive academic career conditions (Geber, 2009; Pienaar & Bester, 2008).

The war for top talent in organisations is also placing pressure on academic institutions to become the preferred employer of choice. Leadership is recognised as a principal factor in establishing an organisation as an employer of choice (Herman & Gioia, 2000; Linnergy, 2004). Koen and Bitzer (2010:1) have acknowledged that the concept of leadership in higher education presents numerous opportunities and also challenges. To deal with these challenges effectively leaders must acquire a fresh and dynamic perspective and place more focus on strategic and operational talent management practices (Hazelkorn & Moynihan, 2010). Considering the current demands placed on and challenges experienced by higher education, a changed perspective is of particular importance when one recognises the important role leaders play in developing academic talent.

In this study, LMX was introduced as a social leadership exchange theory to address some of the shortcomings and challenges that leaders are currently experiencing in academia. In LMX theory, the leader, the follower and the relationship are viewed from an integrated multiple-domain perspective. These domains, as emphasised previously, play a critical role in an academic environment, which is extremely dynamic and challenging. By researching the vertical dyadic relationship (stressed by the LMX theory), meaningful insight was gained in this study to better understand academic leaders' methods and practices in developing academic talent.

This study also provided CoDs with a more objective and constructive view of developing academic talent. More specifically, the research shed light on expected and perceived roles and responsibilities of leaders (CoDs) in developing academic talent. Therefore, the contributions made in this study could provide academic leaders with a clearer understanding of their roles and responsibilities regarding successful academic talent management within the challenging higher education landscape in South Africa.

1.8 DELIMITATIONS AND ASSUMPTIONS

1.8.1 Delimitations

The context of this study was limited in that it investigated only one higher education institution. The research that was conducted focused primarily on the relationship between the CoD and his or her academic staff. The institution studied is one of the largest in South Africa with a large number of academic colleges and departments, and this made it possible to obtain a representative and sufficient sample of CoDs and their academic staff. The sample from this single higher education institution provided sufficient representation of all the demographic variables that needed to be considered in this research. These demographic variables included age, position, tenure, functional discipline and departmental status.

While the use of a single institution limited the generalisability of the research it did allow for a focus on the relationship between the CoD and academic staff from a talent development and leadership perspective.

1.8.2 Assumptions

In order to conduct this study, the researcher made certain assumptions about talent management, academic leadership, academic talent and the institution used to provide the target population.

Firstly, the researcher assumed that employees had a basic understanding of their roles and responsibilities within the institution, the academic leadership function, academic talent and practices contributing to developing academic talent. It was anticipated that participants were able to comment and provide information on the organisation's leadership and talent management practices and the way they perceived these.

The second assumption was that all employees across the organisation had a basic understanding of the difference between management and leadership as well as the

requirements that provided motivation for employees to achieve higher levels of performance and work satisfaction in the institution.

Thirdly it was assumed that all employees could relate to some form of collective understanding of how to manage talent in higher education institutions.

The fourth assumption was that participants would give their full cooperation in completing the questionnaires and participating in the individual interviews knowing that their confidentiality would be respected.

In the fifth instance it was assumed that participants would actively and willingly participate in the data collection process and that the sample would be representative of the higher education institution.

Finally it was assumed that participants would be able to relate to examples of leadership and talent development practices within the institution.

1.9 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

A number of key terms used in this research study are defined below:

- **Academic leadership:** Academic leadership does not simply point to a set of prescribed characteristics but rather to a synergy (interplay) between the variable characteristics of a person, academic development role, development strategies and institutional context (Taylor, 2005:44) (see section 2.2.8).
- **Leadership:** Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal (Northouse, 2004:3) (see section 2.3).
- **Leader-member exchange:** Leader-member exchange refers to “(a) a system of components and their relationships (b) involving both members of a dyad, (c) involving interdependent patterns of behaviour, (d) sharing mutual outcome instrumentalities, and (e) producing conceptions of environment, cause maps and value” (Scandura, Graen & Novak, 1986:580) (see sections 2.2 and 2.4).

- **Organisational support theory:** Organisational support theory involves two types of development resources, namely; organisational support through development policies and programmes offered by an organisation as tangible objective (fair and equal) support; and a relationship resource between subordinate and supervisor which can also affect development support opportunities (Kraimer *et al.*, 2011) (see section 2.2.6).
- **Perceived investment in employee development (PIED):** refers to employees' assessment of their organisations' commitment to help them to learn to identify and obtain new skills and competencies that will allow to move to new positions, either within or outside these organizations. Thus, to the extent that the organisation commits to an employee's personal and professional growth, the employee can be expected to devote greater effort towards the organisation (Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997:83) (see section 2.2.6).
- **Social exchange theory:** Social exchange theory is based on relationship dimensions such as power and influence between a leader and a follower. The relationship is grounded in a series of tests by means of which the two parties determine if relationship dimensions, such as trust, respect and a commitment towards higher-order exchanges, can be developed (Uhl-Bien, Graen & Scandura, 2000) (see section 2.4.1.2).
- **Supervisory support for staff development (SSD):** The believe of employees that their supervisor supports their development (Maurer *et al.*, 2003:712) (see section 4.3.1).
- **Talent:** Great managers define talent as “a recurring pattern of thought, feeling, or behavior that can be productively applied”, or behaviour one finds oneself displaying often (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999:30) (see section 2.2.3).
- **Talent management:** Talent management is the facilitation, development and career progress of highly talented and skilled individuals in the organisation, using

formalised procedures, resources, policies and processes (Gay & Sims, 2006:21) (see section 2.2.4).

Table 1.1 provides a list of abbreviations used in this study.

Table 1.1: List of abbreviations

Abbreviation	Meaning
CoD	Chair of department
HE	Higher education
HESA	Higher Education South Africa
HRD	Human Resource Development
IDP	Individual development plan
IOP	Institutional operational plan
LMX	Leader-member exchange
PIED	Perceived investment in employee development
SSD	Supervisory support for staff development
VDL	Vertical dyad linkage

1.10 CHAPTER OUTLINE

Chapter 1 set the scene and provided background information on the purpose, aim and layout of this research. Chapter 2 provides an in-depth literature review of leadership theories, talent development and talent development practices, the role of academic leadership and academic followership. In Chapter 3 the theoretical framework developed for this study is provided, and in Chapter 4 the research design and methods applied in this research are described in detail. The main aspects of Chapter 4 include the grounding of the research, sampling, type of data collection, methods of analysis and quality and rigour tests. The following chapter, Chapter 5, provides an in-depth analysis of the quantitative and qualitative results obtained in this research. A discussion of these results and their interpretation based on the extant literature and the theoretical framework provided in chapters 2 and 3 are covered in Chapter 6. The final chapter, Chapter 7, assesses the overall contributions of the research relative to the objectives of the study and makes recommendations for both theory and practice.

1.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The departure point of this study was the recognition of the need to build sufficient capacity to cater for the demands placed on the higher education system in South Africa. Quality leadership was introduced as the cornerstone of bringing this about. More specifically it was argued that quality leadership could serve as an important medium in building and growing academic talent, and, furthermore, that leader-member exchange (LMX) leadership theory could provide the most solid basis for examining the role of quality leadership in support of development and employee perceived investment.

The LMX theory has been extensively used in research and is associated with certain positive organisational outcomes. These include empirical studies in support of individual and organisational support for development, such as career development and transfer of learning. However, no research has been done to specifically investigate the use of LMX, the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for development, and the resultant impact on overall employee perceived investment. Furthermore, no research of this nature has been done in a South African academic context. This study provides meaningful insight into this dynamic process and contributes to academic leaders' understanding of their role in the development of academic talent in higher education.

To round off Chapter 1 I provided the structure setting out the execution of the study, which included the research questions, research objectives, research design and methodology. I also indicated the contribution and significance of the research and identified important assumptions and delimitations of this study. In conclusion, an outline of the remaining chapters of this thesis was provided.

The next Chapter, Chapter 2 provides insight of the relevant literature in this study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter I attempt to merge existing literature on two core bodies of knowledge, namely talent management and leadership. This chapter firstly provides a perspective on the talent management landscape with a specific focus on the importance of developing talent within a South African academic context. Secondly the current talent management landscape covered in this chapter deliberates on the relevance and importance of the involvement of leadership to grow and nurture talent in organisations and institutions. A closer look at this landscape provides some understanding of leaders' actions and practices to grow and develop talent, and with this understanding comes a deeper insight into leadership and more specifically academic leadership.

In addition, specific consideration is given to the use of LMX as a well-developed leadership theory in this study. This choice of leadership theory is based on a thorough understanding of other leadership paradigms and theories in the literature. A critical review is provided of the most prominent empirical evidence of the application of LMX theory. Finally an extensive review of empirical research and grounded theory justifying the rationale for using LMX as a social exchange theory towards developing and growing talent in academia is offered.

Considering that the study's main focus is to understand the role of the leader in developing academic talent, it is firstly important to have a closer look at the talent management landscape, whereafter the role of leadership will receive more attention.

2.2 MAPPING THE TALENT MANAGEMENT LANDSCAPE

The past decade has indeed shaped and defined the talent management landscape. Although the concept of talent management has only recently been clearly defined and articulated, organisations have realised its importance for quite some time (Michaels, Handfield-Jones & Axelrod, 2001). This realisation has been fuelled by

three fundamental forces: the irreversible shift from the industrial age to the information age, the increased demand for high-calibre managerial talent and the growing need of and propensity shown by employees to move from one organisation to the other (Michaels *et al.*, 2001).

The human capital of an organisation has thus become a strategic asset in gaining a competitive advantage in the new market place. Michaels *et al.* (2001:4) have found compelling evidence in this regard by stating that “organisations that have the capacity to attract, develop, excite and retain their talent will acquire their fair share of this critical and scarce resource and will boost their performance drastically”. However, recent research on the importance and application of effective talent management in organisations has proven to be less convincing. Although most organisations are well aware of the strategic importance of managing their talent, they often show a lack of effective talent management strategies and practices (Michaels *et al.*, 2001). Evidence suggests that although most organisations espouse the importance of their people being their most valuable assets, they do not necessarily have the systems and practices in place to grow sufficient and quality talent pools. A lack of a conscious attempt to link talent management and organisational performance is given as one of the main explanations for this tendency.

The same tendencies and patterns of talent management exist across the spectrum of organisations, and South African organisations find themselves dealing with similar challenges and demands in managing talent. Additional factors that fuel the need to manage talent in South Africa more effectively are the skills shortage and the increasing tendencies of organisations to acquire at high cost the best possible talent from competitors in the local market (Oosthuizen & Nienaber, 2008). These acquisitions often occur at the expense of building and maintaining a deep reservoir of successors on all organisational levels. Ineffective talent management practices and strategic misalignments (Harvey, 2009) not only threaten organisations’ sustainability but also affect organisations’ competitive advantage and further erode the wealth-creating capacity of a nation as a whole (Oosthuizen & Nienaber, 2008).

2.2.1 Academic talent management landscape

Higher Education South Africa (HESA) plays a pivotal role in addressing the current skills and job shortage in South Africa. Unprecedented attention has been paid to the need for institutions of higher education to increase student enrolments and to grow student numbers (HESA, 2011). It was announced recently that two new universities would be established over the next three years (Nzimande, 2013). Academic institutions are constantly under pressure to meet the said educational demands. In addition, they are largely dependent on highly qualified and committed academic staff to be able to deliver on their mandate (Pienaar & Bester, 2008:40). However, certain emerging factors within the academic sector have made the management of academic talent a challenge. These factors are multi-dimensional in nature and include increased competitiveness across markets, an ageing talented workforce, a decline in younger talent entering the academic arena and less attractive academic career conditions (Geber, 2009; HESA, 2011, Pienaar & Bester, 2008). In addition to these factors the academic sector has become less attractive due to the erosion of many academic benefits associated with an academic career (Gillespie, Walsh, Winefields, Dua, & Stough, 2001), which has also been the case in South Africa (Netswera *et al.*, 2005).

Efforts to address the above concerns through appropriate talent management initiatives have, however, been criticised. Estep (1998) has pointed out that talent management in higher education has not yet received the necessary attention even though a perception exists that talent management can be beneficial to colleges and universities. Lynch (2007:2) supports this finding by stating that colleges and universities fall short of business and industry in developing their own talent and that in a knowledge economy the producers of knowledge would value talent management and even have a competitive edge in that realm. In another study, Wolverton and Gmelch (2002) reiterate that the amount of research on talent management in higher education has been limited. Heuer (2003:76) believes the concept of talent management in higher education is an area that continues to remain largely unexplored.

Netswera *et al.* (2005:36) are of the opinion that very few institutions can afford to employ, train and allow their most valued and talented employees to leave when it is difficult to find better replacements. This is particularly true and relevant in a competitive higher education sector where academic institutions are constantly fishing in the same pond for academic talent, which is on the decline. As custodians of knowledge, development and growth within societies, higher education institutions are therefore confronted with a reality that the management of academic talent through a process of attracting, developing, deploying and retaining such talent is pivotal to their existence.

2.2.2 Talent development

A critical component of talent management, especially in an academic context, is the need for an academic to develop and grow. In most cases, this development and growth are associated with an inherent ability to function as a talented academic by demonstrating the necessary and required academic competence. Academic institutions are, therefore, consciously growing and developing their staff not only to address individual development needs but also to build sufficient academic capacity to meet higher educational demands (Charan, 2008).

It is clear that talent development forms an integral part of talent management and is one of the key components of an integrated talent management framework. Although different frameworks exist for talent management, some authors have attempted to provide a universal framework for viewing and approaching talent management. In a guide on talent management for talent builders compiled by the University of South Africa (Unisa, 2013) the process of talent management is described as including specific initiatives to improve the attraction, development, retention and deployment of talent throughout the organisation. Table 2.1 below lists different initiatives per talent component category as suggested by De Vlamingh (2010).

Table 2.1: Talent components and initiatives

Component	Initiatives
<i>Attraction</i>	Targeted recruitment Capable resources available to fill key positions Remuneration strategy
<i>Development</i>	Targeted development aligned to vision, strategy and targets Robust Institutional Performance Management System Formalised career paths Succession pools Accelerated development pools Targeted management interventions for levels
<i>Retention</i>	Customised remuneration Allowances Flexible benefits and conditions Conducive environment
<i>Deployment</i>	Increased internal mobility Improved positioning Improved exposure Flexible organisational structure

Source: De Vlamingh (2010)

In order to reach a better understanding of talent development and its components it is firstly necessary to look at the concept of talent and talent management in its entirety.

2.2.3 Talent

Great managers define talent as “a recurring pattern of thought, feeling, or behavior that can be productively applied”, or behaviour that one finds oneself displaying often (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999:30). Organisations also distinguish between different types of talent. Some organisations identify talent on all levels within the organisation and classify employees according to performance levels (A, B and C categories). These employees have either the ability or the potential to perform at higher levels

within the organisation to create sustainable organisational performance (Handfield-Jones, Michaels & Axelrod, 2001).

Other organisations identify talent based on replacement value and value added to the organisation (Zuboff, 1988). A more humanistic and demographic perspective on talent is the undifferentiation of talent and the attempt to manage everyone to achieve high performance (Walker & LaRocco, 2002). Finally, a more clinical approach to talent is to apply top grading through which organisations attempt to package the whole organisation with A-players (Smart, 2005). These approaches indicate that organisations have different perspectives on how to view talent, and these different perspectives influence the ways in which organisations identify, assess, develop and manage talent.

2.2.4 Talent management

Gay and Sims (2006:21) define talent management as the “facilitation, development and career progress of highly talented and skilled individuals in the organisation, using formalized procedures, resources, policies, and processes”. This definition has a strong developmental focus and views talent management as not an end in itself, but rather as a constructive process. This understanding of talent management has influenced the way scholars have studied the concept. Apart from the fact that limited studies have been done to understand the actual implementation and management of talent, many of these studies followed a functionalist and prescriptive approach to discover best practices and did not critically reflect on these practices (Van den Brink, Fruytier & Thunnissen, 2012). Of further importance is that existing studies describe talent management as a means to an end. Therefore, research on talent management is mostly centred on the operational functioning of managing talent, evaluating practical initiatives and measuring existing human resource practices and outcomes associated with talent, such as recruitment, selection, organisational benefits, staff turnover, morale and employee engagement.

The definition of talent management by Gay and Sims also emphasises the uniqueness of each organisation. The application of talent management lies in an

organisation's formalised procedures, resources, policies, systems and processes, which implies that successful talent management practices are embedded within an organisation's culture, values and climate (Clunies, 2007; Heuer, 2003). It is, therefore, highly conceivable that talent management can only be successful if it is fully customised and integrated to meet the needs and requirements of each organisation (Edwards, 2008). Talent management cannot occur in isolation, and it is well documented that the process of talent management must be aligned with an organisation's overall mission and strategic objectives (DeCenzo & Robbins, 2007).

In addition to this alignment it is of interest that once organisations initiate talent management they invest in, approach and implement talent management quite differently. Talent management initiatives range from focusing on leadership development and attracting and selecting talented employees to assessing competence by building talent pools within the organisation (Bisbee, 2005).

Some components in the process of managing talent have either been overmanaged or undermanaged. According to Wolverton and Gmelch (2002), some institutions embrace formal developmental programmes, leaving growth opportunities to chance instead of relying on a systematic and focused process.

According to Charan (2008), the aim of the talent management process is to gain a competitive advantage through establishing a deep talent pool with effective leaders at every level who can deal with future organisational challenges. Babcock (2006) also emphasises that any organisation's goal is to continuously build strength in the area of human capital that will eventually align talent with the future direction of the institution.

The new approach to talent management is that it is not reserved for a selected few rising to senior executive level but that it is rather a constructive direct attempt to manage an organisation's human capital to deal with current and future demands and challenges at all levels of management in the organisation (Gilmore, 2007).

2.2.5 Talent development initiatives

Effron *et al.* (2005:22) researched approximately 1 000 small and large organisations and could not establish a set of best practices to develop talent. The researchers did, however, create a framework based on successful methods of talent development practices across organisations. This framework included three components, namely:

- **Leadership involvement** – Leaders demonstrate a true passion for and commitment to developing talent.
- **Maniacal focus on high potentials** – Organisations make a significant amount of resources (human and financial) available to develop talent (70% track the turnover of high potentials while 90% provide on-the-job (action learning) assignments).
- **The right practices done right** – Leaders at all levels are accountable for developing employees and demonstrating leadership competencies (skills and knowledge) that are used to evaluate overall effectiveness and talent.

Riccio (2010:31) emphasises the importance of addressing the unique characteristics and development needs of high-potential employees through multiple techniques. According to Riccio, important academic development techniques include personality and leadership skills assessments, coaching, mentoring, and on-the-job experiences. For the purposes of this study the following relevant talent development initiatives, methods and techniques are listed:

- **On- and off-the-job training assignments**
These include formal training courses and programmes that organisations provide to employees to develop or further a particular skill set that is required to function effectively in the workplace (McCauley & Hezlett, 2001).

- **Career pathing**

Career pathing, also known as talent tracking, provides one or more pathways for individuals to advance their careers within a particular organisation (Charan, 2008). According to Smart (2005), career pathing is a known development concept used in academic institutions.

- **Succession planning**

Succession planning is a specific talent management strategy that plans for the potential replacements of current leadership positions (Gay & Sims, 2006).

- **On-the-job development (action learning)**

Fulmer and Conger (2004:18) define action learning as a process in which employees are given experiential learning assignments. Poell, Van Dam and Van den Berg (2004) emphasise that much valuable learning today takes place within daily work situations. Learning assignments within a work situation include task-force assignments, challenging tasks, temporary attachments and deployments and job transitions (Maurer, 2002).

Ohlott (2004) discusses developmental job assignments for those who have the potential to move beyond existing roles and responsibilities, and explains that a job assignment becomes a development role when:

- staff needs to be stretched and pushed out of their comfort zones;
- people are required to think and act differently;
- the assignment involves roles that are not well defined and includes some elements that are new to the role incumbent;
- the assignment places a person in a challenging situation; and
- choices must be made under conditions of risk and uncertainty.

According to Ohlott, examples of developmental job assignments can include programme development, analysis of work-load review, external representation of the university and skill-based training in areas such as budgeting and curriculum development.

- **Talent pools**

In its quarterly online journal, McKinsey and Company (2001) emphasises the important role managers have in building and managing talent pools. It is recommended that managers be directly responsible and accountable for managing these pools (McKinsey, 2001), and in this regard their functions include:

- Identifying talent for the talent pool
- Managing talent pools across levels of transitional status
- Selecting and assessing identified candidates
- Planning and implementing specific, targeted training and development interventions for talent pools
- Using performance management as a critical tool in identifying talent

- **Mentoring and coaching**

Steinmann (2006:3) defines mentoring as a relationship in which a senior or more experienced person provides the necessary support, advice and friendship to a younger, more junior or less experienced person in a particular field. This relationship can be formal or informal and can take many forms.

Coaching on the other hand has a wider effect and involves more of a one-to-one relationship between a manager and his or her employee. According to Geber (2009:685), coaching, being more instructional and direct, is intended to give balance to and enhance an employee's personal life as well as on-the-job

experience and performance. Coaching is referred to as 'learning by doing' and can take many forms, which include demonstrations, modelling and explanations.

There are many forms of coaching in academia, such as initiating aspirant academics into academia (Geber, 2009). Furthermore, line managers acting as coaches can demonstrate to staff how to do presentations at conferences and colloquiums, assist junior members of staff or lecturers with supervising modules, and provide guidance on writing and publishing articles. An advantage of coaching is that it provides for direct feedback on performance and that it can be used during job rotation (Erasmus, Loedolff, Mda & Nel, 2006).

- **Individual development plans (IDPs)**

According to Lee (2007), IDP is a process that helps employees assess the skills required to support their career goals while it also aligns those skills with their organisation's mission and goals. Rothwell (2007:249) explains that an IDP is a hybrid between a learning contract, a performance contract, and a career planning form. Gilmore (2007:46) is of the opinion that a development plan goes beyond a typical performance appraisal, and results in a comprehensive strategy that guides each individual about what to accomplish to achieve advancement to the next level. Thomas and Saslow (2007) emphasise the importance of IDPs by suggesting that IDPs should be at the forefront of any talent management programme.

Clunies (2007) provides some guidelines for the development of IDPs and cautions against plans that are too generic in nature. The author suggests that IDPs should focus on three core issues, namely:

- Coaching/mentoring
- Work experiences and assignments
- Educational opportunities

- **Identification and assessment of talent**

According to Fulmer & Conger (2004:19), the success of any talent management model or programme depends largely on its ability to conduct several assessments, for instance 360 degree feedback. This feedback obtained from assessments provides necessary input and a development strategy for IDPs. Assessments also help to identify current and potential performance levels of employees and provide structure to the educational process.

Marsh (2008) states that the following key components are assessed to assist with the identification and development of talent:

- *Performance* – the level of performance and results
- *Potential* – the capacity to perform at a higher level than the current one
- *Readiness* – the ability to take on new roles
- *Fit* – the fit between the employee’s strengths and the organisation’s requirements

2.2.6 Talent development: an organisation perspective

The role and importance of human resource management in organisations have been increasingly emphasised over the last decade. Because organisations have become quite dependent on acquiring, developing and retaining the best possible human resources to support their goals, they are giving much more attention to these aspects. Handfield-Jones *et al.* (2001) point out that the overall level of development support provided by an organisation plays a key role in its ability to attract, motivate and retain staff. Therefore, one of the factors that are becoming increasingly important to organisations is to invest in the development of their employees. Investment in employee development is known as the intention of the organisation to allow employees to develop their current skills and to equip them with new knowledge and skills in order to anticipate and meet new work requirements (Rothwell & Kazanas, 1989). Investment in employee development through suitable

development programmes has been shown to demonstrate a serious commitment on the part of employers to invest heavily in their human resources (Schein, 1977). Employees associate the existence of suitable development programmes with the extent to which their organisation values their contribution and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger *et al.*, 2002). According to these authors, employees feel a general obligation to repay their organisations when they perceive high levels of organisational support and investment in their development. Two main constructs are generally used to measure these perceptions. Perceived investment in employee development (PIED), defined as “employees’ assessment of their organisations’ commitment to help employees learn to identify and obtain new skills and competencies that will allow them to move to new positions, either within or outside these organisations. Thus, to the extent that the organisation commits to an employee’s personal and professional growth, the employee can be expected to devote greater effort towards the organisation” (Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997:83). The other construct is organisational support for development (OSD) defined as employees’ overall perceptions that the organisation provides programs and opportunities that help employees develop their functional skills and managerial capabilities (Settoon, Bennett & Liden, 1996:219). Both constructs form the basis of both the social exchange theory and the organisational support theory.

From the viewpoint of employees, PIED gives more rise to a belief that an organisation focuses more on employees’ professional development to enable them to progress in their careers. PIED therefore inspires employees to feel obliged but also willing to contribute to their organisations’ effectiveness, based on this informal and formal contractual obligations and exchanges (Woods & de Menezes, 1998).

Perceived investment in employee development has been proved to effect employee commitment and motivation (Snell & Dean, 1992), contributing to greater productivity, financial performance and competitiveness (Woods & de Menezes, 1998) and curtailing employee turnover (Kalleberg & Rognes, 2000). Porter (1990) has found that on-the-job training and learning have accounted for over half of the increase in organisations’ productivity, and Reich (1991) has pointed out that studies done on

employee development have found that organisations that spend more on employee development and training are more competitive than their peers.

Organisational support and development is therefore a key component of the success of any organisation and benefits not only the organisation but also its employees. Many organisational components and aspects play a critical role in creating positive perceptions of employee development in organisations. Positive perceptions are dependent on healthy and transparent organisation training and development policies and opportunities, and also on leaders who act as enabling mechanisms to create the necessary conditions for learning and development (Maurer & Tarulli, 1994).

From an organisational resource perspective, organisation support for development is centred on three core organisation resource functions, namely, providing education, training and development. Education, training and development are seen as organised learning experiences provided to employees over a specified time period intended to bring about performance improvements, personal growth and enhancement of employee mobility within organisations (Rothwell, Sullivan & Mclean, 1995; Van Dam, 2004). Education, training and development all fulfil different functions and contribute differently to individual and organisation needs. A closer look at these differences is provided below.

- Coetzee, Botha, Kley and Truman (2007:49) define *education* as “a medium-term change effort intended to prepare for upward career progression or for enhanced technical abilities in employees’ current positions (horizontal career progression). Education is intended to develop employees’ knowledge, skills, social understanding and intellectual capacity”.
- *Training* has more to do with the specific way learning activities are facilitated in organisations. Training is regarded as a planned, short-term change effort to modify competencies, attitudes and beliefs, knowledge or skill behaviour through appropriate learning experiences (Rothwell *et al.*, 1995).

- *Development* is more of a long-term change effort intended to broaden individuals' thoughts and experiences by providing new insights about employees themselves and their organisation. Development interventions need to be designed and delivered to encourage employees to discover and apply their innate talents (Coetzee *et al.*, 2007:49).
- *Learning* is an increase or change in knowledge or skills that occurs as a result of some experience. Learning experiences can contribute favourably towards employees' overall development if employees are positively orientated towards their own learning and development (Maurer, 2002).

Therefore, education, training and development are central in bringing about suitable change and renewal in organisations. Education, training and development provide organisations with the ability to capacitate and mobilise staff to drive the intended organisational objectives and outcomes. Well-educated, trained and developed staff also give organisations a strategic competitive advantage. Therefore, organisations apply a wide scope of different policies, practices, approaches and methods to educate, train and develop their staff. In many cases these practices, approaches and methods are organisation-specific, suit individual and organisational needs, and include either formal or informal initiatives (Kraimer *et al.*, 2011). A comparison of formal and informal academic education, training and development practices is given in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: A comparison of academic education, training and development practices

Formal	Informal
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Completing formal qualifications such as higher certificates, diplomas, degrees and postgraduate degrees • Attending internal and external workshops and courses • Attending group training interventions • Attending national and local conferences 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Research development workshops • Allocated flagship research projects • Regular in-house seminars (roundtable discussions and debates) • Formal co-supervision model for M and D students

<p>and seminars</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Attending international training workshops and courses • Attending international conferences and seminars 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tuition module rotation (quality assurance and exposure) • Informal mentoring and coaching between colleagues
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Source: (Kraimer *et al.*, 2011)

The amount of organisational support for development that is given is largely dependent on how many formal and informal development opportunities employees get, and secondly on how much relationship support and guidance they receive to ensure that focused and structured education, training and development take place. The CoD, as line manager and supervisor, plays a critical role in providing this support and guidance.

2.2.7 Supervisory support in developing talent

The role of the supervisor in employee development has received much attention in the past. Scholars in the field of development all recognise the importance of the supervisor's role in supporting the development initiatives and efforts of followers (Hazucha *et al.*, 1993; Maurer & Tarulli, 1994; Noe & Wilk, 1993). Empirical evidence suggests that positive involvement in employee development does indeed effect development orientation and transfer of training behaviour in the workplace (Tracey, Tannenbaum & Kavanaugh, 1995). However, it is important to note that this involvement must be based on a social context that is favourable to and supportive of training and development (Maurer & Tarulli, 1994). McCauley and Young (1993) point out that the social context should also be based on a relationship that is developmental in nature, one that provides opportunities, motivation and support for learning. They go on to describe the relationship as one in which a supervisor acts as a friend, role model and reinforcer to achieve personal and organisational goals.

Hayes (1993) also makes an important contribution in describing this supportive relationship as one in which the relationship and the social support differ from follower to follower. Sharing information and resources, supporting developmental efforts and providing psychological support may differ in each case (Maurer & Tarulli, 1994). Supervisory support may take on many different forms, but, according to Maurer (2002), can include:

- Providing useful performance appraisal
- Providing ongoing feedback
- Jointly setting performance objectives with employees
- Providing adequate time for undergoing training
- Assisting with developing career plans

In addition, existing research provides strong empirical evidence of a link between the provision of supervisory support to employees for development purposes and employees' career insight and career resilience (London, 1993) as well as career motivation (Noe & Wilk, 1993).

From an organisational perspective, supervisors need to be encouraged and supported to act as developers. London (1991) points out that supervisors' development efforts must be supported by their organisations' policies and procedures. London indicates that this is especially important due to the fact that the extent to which supervisors can provide support and contribute to employees' development will be limited if the organisation is not aligned to efforts of development support.

Secondly, existing literature makes the noteworthy point that employees develop a general sense of the degree to which their immediate manager values their contribution and cares about their well-being (Kotte & Sharafinski, 1988) and employees seem to interpret managers' actions and behaviours as representing those of the organisation (Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003).

Employees may also view their supervisor as an agent of the organisation (Eisenberger *et al.*, 2002) and may believe that the organisation and the supervisor share the same view and perspective (Eisenberger *et al.*, 2002). According to Smircich and Morgan (1982), managers define and shape the reality of their followers, and Purcell and Hutchinson (2007:4) are of the opinion that “poorly designed or inadequate policies can be rescued by good management behaviour in much the same way as good HR practices can be negated by poor supervisor behavior or leadership”.

Baldwin and Magjuka (1997) point out that followers will experience positive perceived development if line managers are supportive of and involved in the development of their staff. Kuvaas and Dysvik (2010:138) concur by pointing out that the immediate line manager is more proximal to the employee on a day-to-day basis than the organisation, and therefore the influence and impact of the line manager on the employee’s development will be far greater.

Much of the research done on supervisory support for development emphasises the importance of the social context in the workplace and more specifically the relationship that should exist between the supervisor and the employee. This relationship is highly dependent on healthy, open and honest task and social exchange for creating and building an environment conducive to learning and development. Thus the development of talent is absolutely dependent on the quality of this relationship, which is supported and driven by the organisation’s development policies. The supervisor acts as an enabling mechanism for the organisation’s development agenda for the employee, and this development is dependent on the supervisor’s ability to fulfil the role of developer and demonstrate the necessary and appropriate leadership skills this relationship requires.

2.2.8 Leadership and talent development

Leadership may be considered an overarching element in developing talent. This postulation is supported by Sonnentag, Niessen and Ohly (2004) who point out that leadership is an important force behind employees’ engagement in learning activities.

Colquitt, LePine and Noe (2000) suggest that there is clear evidence that support from the leader enhances staff participation, engagement with and motivation for learning activities within the workplace.

Despite evidence that the role a leader plays in developing followers is important, Effron *et al.* (2005:22) found in their research of nearly 1 000 small and large organisations that organisational leaders expressed a limited need to identify and develop talent. Leaders also did not see this task as a key performance responsibility. Their research also discovered that organisation leaders were more concerned about the inherent job responsibilities of their positions and meeting operational requirements than about the development and growth of their staff.

According to a report by McKinsey and Company (2001), although 72% of managers were of the opinion that winning the war for talent was a critical factor in business, only 9% were confident that their current actions would lead to a stronger talent pool in the next three years. This report finding is significant when considering the important role leaders play in managing and developing talent. It also raises many questions about the knowledge and skills levels of leaders to grow and develop talent, and it questions the competence and expertise available in modern-day organisations to manage talent constructively. The aforementioned findings in respect of the private sector do not seem to differ much in the case of the academic sector. This is evident from research conducted at seven leading higher education institutions, which include institutions such as Harvard, Yale and Duke, according to which leaders in academia expressed a limited need to identify and develop talent (Heuer, 2003). More emphasis was placed on managing day-to-day operations (recruitment and selection, curriculum design and development, tuition and research) than on accepting responsibility for managing talent. Likewise, Lynch (2007) has found that institutions that are the producers of knowledge also fall short when it comes to assisting their own staff in developing the required skills in a knowledge economy.

Potgieter, Basson and Coetzee (2011:88) conducted a qualitative data analysis of the most important managerial competencies of academic CoDs compared to managers in the corporate sector in a South African context. The extensive literature

review revealed 40 managerial competencies of which “creating opportunities for training and development for academic staff members” was one. After obtaining the rank means of the main competencies in order of importance, training and development was ranked twentieth out of forty with a mean average of 3,65². The results of this research emphasise the lack of emphasis that CoDs place on capacitating and developing their staff.

A second challenge in developing academic talent lies in the nature of the academic environment. Koen and Bitzer (2010:7) have found that academic leaders see themselves in the midst of a complex, multidimensional environment that creates blockages and many demanding challenges in developing academic talent. In addition to this, Taylor (2005:44) points out that academic development is a complex and challenging leadership task. The author indicates that academic leadership consists not only of a set of prescribed characteristics but also of a synergy (interplay) between variable characteristics of the person, the academic development role, development strategies and institutional context.

Filan and Seagren (2003:21), who have done extensive research on academic leadership, indicate that academic leadership at all levels in post-secondary education is complex and multi-dimensional. Their research indicates that leading from the middle (referred to as being a middle manager in higher education) is not an easy task. It is therefore evident that leaders in academia face a continuing increase in role demands and complexity in performing their duties.

These above-mentioned definitions provide us with a multi-faceted explanation of academic leadership. The multi-dimensional perspective that has been provided shows that academic leadership can be seen as an interplay between three major situational factors, namely the leader as a person, the role of the person as a leader and the context the leader finds himself or herself in.

² Highest ranked mean – Leadership of my overall team and individual team members (4,23): Lowest rank mean – Occupational health and safety awareness and management (2,93)

Aspects that impact on these situational factors include:

- Academic profile – Academics place a very high value on intrinsic interest such as affiliation with an academic discipline, autonomy and self-determination of priorities, being a cosmopolitan occupational group whose loyalties lie as much inside as outside of the organisation, being self-starting and self-regulating and being independent professionals (Mcinnis, 2000). These inherent propositions associated with academia create additional barriers to quality leader-follower relationships. In addition, organisational imperatives, such as performance management systems, reporting procedures and the allocation of resources in the execution of core responsibilities, could be seen as instilling a culture of managerialism (Deem, 2001), contradicting the original model of academic collegiality where equal status, working together with minimal hierarchy and maximal trust are upheld and respected.
- Organisational factors – External factors set the agenda of the day and have a major influence on how leaders choose to lead and manage in organisations. Within an academic context, factors such as an increase in student numbers, transformation of higher education, decreased government subsidies, higher student throughput, increased corporatisation and an emphasis on managerialism as previously mentioned have placed extra pressures and demands on institutions to reform and perform accordingly (Meyer, 2002). These aforementioned factors also erode core academic values and impact on the morale and commitment of academic staff. Leaders are, therefore, confronted with these current realities and in many instances must act as change agents to manage these restraining forces (Middlehurst, 1993:180).
- Learning organisation – Senge (1990) defines the learning organisation as an “organisation where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free and where people are continually learning how to learn together”. Meyer (1999) describes the learning organisation as a place where people’s talent and potential are developed and properly utilised and

where learning and development are driven continuously throughout the organisation. The learning organisation paradigm places an additional responsibility on leaders to create an enabling environment where followers can develop, learn and grow. This additional responsibility on leaders is especially prevalent in academic institutions that are seen as custodians of learning and development.

In summary it can be stated that some of the aspects that are seen from an academic perspective to contribute to a dynamic and challenging relationship between the academic leader and academic follower are: respect for intellectual capacity (Middlehurst, 1993:180); collegiality; leadership authority (Middlehurst, 1993:177); intellectual followership (Middlehurst, 1993:70); difference of institutional interest (Netswera *et al.*, 2005:36); spirit of community and service to one's colleagues (Ramsden, 1998:39); and being self-starting and self-regulating independent professional academics (Mcinnis, 2000). Morrill (2007:3) elaborates on this relationship by stating that "leadership in higher education involves a relationship or more importantly a followership".

The above-mentioned factors, which characterise a university environment where leaders are seen to be "first among equals" (Tucker, 1984:4), make the task of leadership in academia not only unique but also very challenging. The role of the leader, being the Chair of Department (CoD) in this study, in developing academic talent in higher education can therefore not be underestimated.

Furthermore, the relationship between the CoD and his or her staff is unique and vital to the development of the academic (Salopek, 2000:20). As stated above, the maturity of this relationship in an academic context does not merely depend on authoritative interaction (Middlehurst, 1993:177) but more on showing mutual respect for and understanding of each other's intellectual capacity and growth (Morrill, 2007:3).

2.2.9 Developing the academic talent profile

Constable and McCormick (1987) provide a useful explanation of the difficulties in influencing and developing academic staff. The authors point out that many of these aspects clash with several 'cults' in academic life, which include:

- The cult of the gifted amateur (any intelligent, educated individual can undertake the task – in our case, leadership – without training).
- The cult of heredity (those with natural talent will emerge since they are born to the task; leadership is an art and therefore unteachable).
- The cult of deficiency (training is essentially remedial for those who are personally ineffective; 'training is for the second eleven').
- The cult of inadequacy (once qualified, loss of face is involved when admitting gaps in one's knowledge or competence).
- The cult of the implicit (development takes place by gradual induction into the norms and operations of academia; learning by osmosis is the hallmark of success).
- The cult of selection (the selection of good staff will ensure good performance and will obviate the need for – and the cost of – development).
- The cult of the intellectual (there is no scientific basis to 'management'; therefore it does not deserve to be taken seriously).

The authors point out that there is no easy or quick way to dissipate the force of these cults since some are ingrained in the background and experience of traditional academic culture (Constable & McCormick, 1987).

Emphasis on the growth of staff development in universities, fuelled partly by external political pressure and partly by rapidly changing circumstances in and demands on universities, has, however, made some inroads into these negative and complacent views. Aspects that provide momentum in this regard include institutions' realisation that to ensure institutional survival they need to encourage both the intellectual and personal growth of their staff, develop new skills as market changes occur (disciplinary, research and teaching markets) and broaden staff profiles.

Capacitating academic staff is important in view of the mandate given to academic institutions; their right to existence lies in producing highly competent and credible academic staff to teach and learn. Therefore, training and development of academic staff should receive high priority and be done in the spirit of creating facilitated learning, being timely and relevant, being integrated with past experiences and structured around collaborative problem solving (Middlehurst, 1993:179).

Constraints in the selection and development of academic talent have also been highlighted as important in influencing progress. Gregory (2009) asserts that academic staff who wish to advance their careers and produce acceptable results in academia should comply with the standards set by existing academic leaders. The author further points out that these elite academics who are seen as intellectual leaders in their field often only select and develop staff congruent with their own personal and scientific preferences. As stated bluntly: “any talent not seen or recognised by them is therefore not considered excellent” (Van den Brink *et al.*, 2012). Prejudgements about the potential and the performance of academic staff have major consequences for managing and developing talent in academia. The existing paradigms held by leaders create a very narrow and specific view of talent. Current talent management practices are likely to be restrained by these beliefs of leaders, and the selection and development of academic talent should become more openminded. The mindset enforced by current practices is just one of the existing challenges that require a change of heart, and future academic leaders should confront these challenges. Successful talent management in academia requires behavioural changes at personal, departmental and institutional levels.

It is clear that leaders play a critical role in creating opportunities for learning and development in the workplace, and their input can promote a form of engagement with learning in the organisation. Therefore, developing talent through quality and responsible supervisory leadership cannot be underestimated, and the following section will give extensive coverage to the relevance of appropriate leadership theories in furthering this supportive role in developing talent.

2.3 LEADERSHIP PARADIGMS, THEORIES AND EMPLOYEE DEVELOPMENT

As has been pointed out at the start of this literature review, the nature of this study is such that it requires a close look at leadership, particularly as regards employee development. Therefore, the second part of this literature review concentrates on dominant leadership paradigms and the relevance of these paradigms to understanding the role of the leader in follower development.

Existing leadership paradigms³ have to a large extent shaped fundamental thinking about and understanding of the phenomenon of leadership. Furthermore, much can be learned from studies on the theoretical concept of the historical development of leadership, which is one of the most intensively studied concepts in the field of organisational behaviour (Mumford, Friedrich, Caughron & Antes, 2009:111). However, it should be noted that the study of leadership has not been without its challenges. Many different views, understandings and expressions about leadership have been provided in the past. Bass (1990:11) elaborates on these divided views by stating that “there are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept”.

Notwithstanding these opposing views, leading scholars in the field have defined the concept of leadership around three central themes, namely, the leader, followers, and achieving a common goal (Bennis, 2007). Seminal definitions embracing these central themes include:

- “Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal” (Northouse, 2004:3).
- “Leadership is the process of persuasion by which an individual (or leadership team) induces a group to pursue objectives held by the leader and shared by the leader and followers” (Gardner, 1990:1).

³ Leadership paradigm is a shared mindset that represents a fundamental way of thinking about, perceiving, studying, researching and understanding leadership (Lussier & Achua, 2004:15)

- “Leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purpose” (Rost, 1991:102).
- Leadership is “a process of social influence in which one person is able to enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of some task” (Chemers, 1997:1).
- Leadership is “the successful influence by the leader that result in the attainment of goals by the influenced followers” (Bass, 1990:14).
- Leadership is significantly about motivating people and gaining their commitment, and effective leaders change the way people feel (Yukl, 2010:12).

Therefore, although there are many different definitions of leadership, the majority of them share the ontological assumption that leadership as a concept deals with three main areas as indicated above, namely; leaders, followers, and common goals. Emergent leadership theories⁴ have developed predominantly from this ontology. For purposes of this research four main leadership paradigms and approaches that have received significant research attention over the last 25 years are addressed (Hiller, DeChurch, Murase & Doty, 2011; House & Aditya, 1997).

2.3.1 The leadership trait paradigm

The leadership trait paradigm, also referred to as the ‘great man’ theory, made a clear distinction by separating effective leaders from less effective leaders based on certain traits (Galton, 1869; Woods, 1913). Emphasis was placed on the leader’s personality, values and motives. The basic premise of this theory was that these types of leaders were born and not made, and possessed certain traits that others did not have. Traits associated with leaders included intelligence, dominance and masculinity (Lord, De Vader & Alliger, 1986). The application of the trait theory lay in its ability to successfully identify leaders, provided those persons possessed certain traits. A major criticism against the theory was that traits did not account for

⁴ An explanation of some aspects of leadership: theories have particular value because they are used to better understand, predict, and control successful leadership (Lussier & Achua, 2004:14).

leadership effectiveness behaviour. Furthermore, the trait approach did not hold its ground because it did not take account of intervening variables, such as the situation within the leadership relationship, and it could not explain a significant correlation between the relationships of individual leader attributes and the criteria for leadership success (Stogdill, 1948). The questionability of non-universality of leadership traits across situations and the omission that leadership could possibly result in some form of social exchange led to the reconceptualisation of leadership as a relationship between people in a social context. Leadership seen as a one-way-driven encounter was no longer justified. This theory triggered the movement to look beyond leaders' own traits to determine the success of leadership. This shift in thinking allowed the consideration of other factors that could influence the success of leadership, such as relationship aspects, which is a key consideration in the context of this study.

2.3.2 Behavioural theories paradigm

The behavioural approach to leadership is mainly characterised by its focus on what leaders do rather than on what they are. The notion was that leadership behaviour could be learned and that effective and ineffective leaders differed with respect to their actions or styles of leadership. Studies were conducted to observe how leaders spent their time in terms of managerial responsibilities and actions. A major contribution of these studies was the identification of two broad leadership behaviours, namely task-orientated and person-orientated behaviours (Kahn & Katz, 1953). The identification of these two broad classes of behaviour was the very first attempt to specify how leaders' behaviour might affect employees' affective reaction. This approach to leadership also implicitly incorporated the possibility that certain types of leadership behaviour could affect follower behaviour. However, no specific pattern of leadership behaviour was found to be consistent with subordinate satisfaction or any other possible criteria of supervisor or leader effectiveness (House, 1971; Larson, Hunt & Osborn, 1974). Therefore, leadership could not account for individual, team or organisational effectiveness. Additional factors that emerged out of this paradigm were a lack of understanding the role demands placed on leaders and the context that they functioned in. The study paradigm also

positioned the follower as being acted upon by leadership, in other words the relationship was described as unidirectional.

2.3.3 Contingency theory paradigm

Behaviour theories have been criticised based on the fact that style cannot account for every situation. Five key contingency theories were developed to reconcile differences and concerns related to the behavioural paradigm; they were Fiedler's Contingency of Leadership (Fiedler, 1967), the Path-Goal Theory (House, 1971), the Life-cycle Theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982), the Cognitive Resource Theory (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987) and the Decision Process Theory (Vroom & Yetton, 1973). These theories explicitly incorporated followers into the proposed situational leadership models (House & Aditya, 1997). The significance of followers was underscored by the emphasis placed on situational theories in terms of:

- understanding that a follower's effectiveness is the result of a fit between a leader's style and aspects such as leader-member relations, power positioning and task structure (Fiedler & Chemers, 1984);
- defining the readiness and maturity level of followers and determining the appropriate leadership style and behaviour for the situation (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982);
- understanding the power projection of a leader onto a follower based on a leader-centred perspective and referred to in general terms as autocratic versus participative leadership (House & Aditya, 1997);
- discovering that follower-inherent attributes (intelligence) and experiences (stress) with supervisors do affect performance, and are thus counter-intuitive (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987);
- recognising the effective use of cognition in leadership-follower interaction (Vroom & Yetton, 1973); and
- understanding the dyadic relationship between supervisor and subordinate (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991).

The contingency theories contributed to an understanding of leadership from the perspectives of a leader and a follower. More importantly it is within this paradigm that we see the emergence of the idea of a need to understand the dyadic relationship between leaders and followers.

The contingency theories were, however, also criticised and regarded as controversial. The major criticism against the contingency theory paradigm was its lack of empirical support, and the paradigm lost general support because it was believed that better theories could still be developed to improve on existing theories (House & Aditya, 1997). Notwithstanding the overall limitations of the contingency theories, they made an important contribution by approaching leadership from a situational perspective, thereby opening the door to a focus on the dyadic relationship between leader and follower.

A breakdown of the advances and progress made in leadership theory development is provided in Table 2.3. This breakdown is based on the criteria set by Day (2001) and takes account of variations in the ways leadership was measured, analysed, defined and approached.

Table 2.3: Progress and advances in leadership studies

Leadership paradigm	Trait	Behavioural	Contingency
Type of leadership measure	Laboratory observations	Interviews, laboratory observations, questionnaires	Field studies Laboratory observations Self-reporting Questionnaires
Unit of analysis	Individual level	Individual and operational level	Individual & operational level
Perspective	Predominantly the leaders	Predominantly the follower	Leader and follower
Criteria domain	Attitudinal	Behavioural	Attitudinal Behavioural Situational

Source: Day (2001)

A clear transition in the study of leadership, from experimental laboratory studies to field studies where leadership is applied and measured in the workplace, can be seen in Table 2.3. Increasingly, studies concentrate on understanding leadership not only from the perspective of the leader but also from the perspective of the follower whose views and contributions are taken into account. The aim is to understand leadership from a holistic perspective that considers the influence of situational and attitudinal factors on the relationship between leaders and followers. The relevancy and importance of leadership has been progressively emphasised by evaluating leadership as a complex entity that involves leadership effectiveness and that contributes towards certain outcome variables, such as performance and goal achievement. It is noteworthy that most current studies of leadership consider all three leadership paradigms (the leader, the follower and the common purpose) simultaneously.

2.3.4 More recent leadership theories – integrated leadership paradigm

In the last decade and a half the study of the phenomena associated with leadership has not lost any momentum, and initial ambiguous findings (especially those related to the contingency theory paradigm) have not deterred scholars from finding more adequate, integrated and appropriate means to understand leadership. The continuing urge to ‘discover’ leadership has been motivated by the fact that previous models only accounted for a relatively small percentage of variance associated with performance outcomes (Bryman, 1993).

More recent leadership theories are seen as part of the *integrated leadership theory paradigm* and include transformational/neocharismatic leadership – also commonly referred to as the New-Genre of Leadership (Avolio, Walumbwa & Weber, 2009), Complexity Leadership, Leader-Member Exchange, Authentic Leadership, and the so-called substitutes for leadership that include strategic leadership and servant leadership (House & Aditya, 1997).

All of these theories represented different advances in understanding leadership and in some instances provided insight into understanding followers in the leadership equation.

Later theories of leadership have made an important shift towards a focus on the relationship between the leader and the followers. These theories have emphasised that a follower-leader relationship is built on trust and respect for each other's potential and competence and that leaders should invest in their followers and recognise the significance of follower talent in achieving organisational objectives. For instance, transformational leadership theory stresses the important role of leaders in developing followers. In this research study the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory was used. The next section of this literature review substantiates the choice of the LMX theory as the theoretical framework for this study.

2.4 LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE THEORY

The Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX) was developed in the 1970s by Graen and Cashman and is based on a multiple domain perspective involving the leader, the follower and more importantly the relationship that forms between the leader and the follower. The LMX leadership theory is seen as a process approach as it stresses the dynamic relationship between the leader and the follower as a fundamental domain in a working relationship. LMX proponents emphasise that the relationship domain is fundamentally different from the leader and followers domains (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

This theoretical and practical approach to leadership development attempts to incorporate predominant leadership paradigms of the past century. It introduces the relationship in combination with leader-follower behaviour as part of a contingency leadership process (Klein, Dansereau & Hall, 1994) by stressing the possibility that leaders form different relationships with their followers. A major distinguishing factor between LMX and situational leadership lies in the description of the way leaders behave towards followers – proponents of situational leadership theories are much more prescriptive in matching leader and follower behaviour.

LMX theory also goes beyond the traditional trait approach in that a transactional approach to leadership is followed where both the leader and the follower are active participants (Northouse, 2004). LMX also incorporates the leader behaviour and style approach to leadership, which has been so predominant between 1950 and 1980, by considering leader behaviours within the relationship.

From a leadership outcome perspective, proponents of the LMX theory propose many positive organisational outcomes related to the quality of the working relationship between the leader and the follower (House & Aditya, 1997).

Considering the above-mentioned factors I used LMX theory as the leadership theory of choice for this research. My decision was mainly based on the need to focus attention on the content of the exchange relationship itself, a need expressed by scholars who stressed the importance of understanding the exchange relationship from a leader and/or subordinate perspective (Avolio *et al.*, 2009).

The LMX theory is transformational in nature and considers leadership from different domain perspectives. This theory was initially referred to as the vertical dyad linkage (VDL) theory and was developed over a period of 20 years. Graen and Scandura (1987:220) define the LMX theory as a dyadic relationship between a leader – usually a supervisor – and an organisation member – usually a subordinate. According to the authors, the theory evolved to come to a better understanding of the supervisor-subordinate working relationship, also commonly referred to as the leader-member exchange (LMX) (Dansereau *et al.*, 1975). Scandura *et al.* (1986:580) describe this relationship as “(a) a system of components and their relationships (b) involving both members of a dyad, (c) involving interdependent patterns of behaviour, (d) sharing mutual outcome instrumentalities, and (e) producing conceptions of environment, cause maps and value”.

The theory describes a relationship that develops over time through a process of growth and negotiation. During this period role players (leader and subordinate) within the relationship clarify work roles, exchanges, interactions and sharing of resources. This relationship is not merely behaviourally orientated but rather more result orientated as a consequence of an interchange of process and relationship

factors (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). Relationship maturity is therefore guaranteed through an exchange of offerings, and once the exchange happens the behaviour associated with the exchange becomes apparent (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Liden & Graen, 1980; Scandura & Graen, 1984).

An example provided by the above-mentioned authors indicate that the leader may offer increased job latitude or delegation to a subordinate in exchange for strong commitment to work goals or higher levels of extra effort and performance. Once a high-quality relationship is established, leaders depend on followers to act in their stead (Dunegan, Duchon & Uhl-Bien, 1992) and leaders also encourage followers to take on more responsibility (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Followers on the other hand interact with their leaders and are willing to take on extra work, put in extra effort and work towards group goal achievement. This behaviour is not necessarily contracted between the leader and the follower but is rather based on a transformational interchange founded on support, confidence, encouragement, understanding and consideration (Sparrowe & Liden, 1997).

Meta-analyses conducted in different studies also show support for high LMX quality interchanges and relationships associated with positive organisational outcomes, such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment, employee performance, citizen behaviour and higher levels of retention (Gerstner & Day, 1997, Nahrgang & Morgeson, 2007).

2.4.1 Theoretical grounding of LMX

The dyadic relationship of LMX is grounded in both role theory and social exchange theory (Emerson, 1962; Katz & Kahn, 1978).

2.4.1.1 *Role theory*

According to Northouse (2004), the relationship between a leader and a follower takes place primarily in three stages:

- *Role taking* – When a new member joins the organisation, the leader assesses the talent and abilities of the member and offers them opportunities to demonstrate their capabilities.
- *Role making* – An informal and unstructured negotiation on work-related factors takes place between the leader and the member. A member who is similar to the leader is more likely to succeed. Betrayal by the member at this stage may result in relegation to the out-group.
- *Role routinisation* – Both the leader and the follower demonstrate mutual commitment to the goals and objectives to be achieved. At this stage it is important that a set pattern of normative behaviours develop through this dyad relationship, regardless of the quality of the exchanges (Graen & Scandura, 1987).

Through these stages both the leader and the follower develop a role relationship based on mutual dependencies within assigned and accepted roles and responsibilities. The follower's contributions in terms of initiative and performance, and the leader's willingness to share resources, information and challenging tasks and to allow autonomy form the foundation of the role-making process (Dienesch & Liden, 1986).

2.4.1.2 Social exchange theory

Social exchange theory is based on relationship dimensions, such as power and influence between the leader and the follower. The basis of the relationship is a series of tests between the two parties to determine if the relationship dimensions, such as trust, respect and a commitment towards higher-order exchanges, can be developed (Uhl-Bien *et al.*, 2000). Both parties derive satisfaction from the exchange relationship and more specifically the meeting of expectations on both sides.

While social interchanges directed towards mutual trust, support, respect and loyalty predominantly occur in formal job relationships, socially related currencies, such as professional capabilities within the relationship or friendship between parties, can also account for the positive development of an LMX relationship.

Liden and Maslyn (1998) has proposed four core socially related and work-related currencies, namely:

- Contribution – Work related
- Affection, loyalty and professional respect – Socially related

It is important to note that the LMX theory does not claim consistency in relationship factors and behaviour between different leaders and followers. Informal observations have indicated that indifferences of exchanges exist in leader-member exchanges (Scandura & Graen, 1984). Therefore, a leader's action towards subordinates can differ and be inconsistent. This indifference is specifically referred to as the vertical dyad linkage. Factors that affect the indifference of the relationship include mutual trust, loyalty, support, respect, and obligation between the leader and the follower.

Leaders, therefore, form different relationships with subordinates based on the quality of the dyad. This distinction is further clarified by the existence of so-called in- and out-groups. Members of the in-group favoured by the leader receive a considerable amount of attention and resources, compared to the members of the out-group. Factors that contribute towards in-group and out-group experiences include age, gender, personality, similarity with regard to respect and perceived competence of performance (Zalesny & Graen, 1987). According to these authors, in-group experiences are also associated with the following:

- Higher levels of support
- Inflation of subordinates' rating on poor performance
- Higher levels of positive attitude

- Higher levels of job performance
- Higher levels of job satisfaction
- Receiving more mentoring from superiors
- Assistance with career guidance
- Lower attrition
- Increase in salary and promotion opportunities

2.4.2 Theoretical development of LMX

The LMX theory has evolved through different stages over time. Table 2.3 provides a concise breakdown of this development with appropriate research findings.

Table 2.4: Summary of stages in development of LMX

Stage	Domain and level	Contribution	Research methodology	Reference
1. Discovery of differentiated dyads	Leader domain	<p>Managerial processes in organisations occur on a dyadic basis (vertical dyad); managers develop differentiated relationships with professional direct reports (Different professionals provide very different descriptions of the same person)</p> <p>No support for average leadership style on first-level supervision</p> <p>High-quality exchanges referred to the in-group</p> <p>Low-quality exchanges referred to as “hired hand” and called “out-group”</p>	Longitudinal studies of management teams and direct subordinates to describe their work and work relationship in terms of inputs, process and outcomes	<p>Graen & Wakabayashi, 1994</p> <p>Graen, Liden & Hoel, 1982; Graen, Novak & Sommerkamp, 1982; Graen & Schiemann, 1978</p> <p>Zalesny & Graen, 1987</p>
2. Focus on the relationship and its outcomes		The development of LMX relationships is influenced by characteristics and behaviours of leaders and members that occur through a role-making process. Higher-quality LMX relationships are associated with positive outcomes for leaders, followers, work units, and the organisation in general. These research findings move beyond the VDL approach by providing more than just a	Longitudinal studies	<p>Graen, Novak & Sommerkamp, 1982</p> <p>Snyder & Bruning, 1985</p> <p>Fairhurst, 1993</p> <p>Waldron, 1991</p> <p>Scandura & Graen, 1984</p> <p>Wayne & Ferris, 1990</p>

		<p>description of different relationships towards an understanding of how relationships develop and the effects of these relationships on individual, team and organisational functioning. Dyad linkage between leader-member exchanges was established by investigating the characteristics of the LMX relationship, such as role making, communication frequency, interactive communication patterns, value agreements, upwards maintenance tactics, interaction patterns, decision influence and characteristics of the leader and follower.</p> <p>Organisational variables were investigated, e.g. performance, turnover, organisational commitment, job climate, innovation, organisational citizen behaviour, empowerment and career progress.</p> <p>Findings validated the existence of differentiated relationships; relationships and their development were described; a positive relationship was indicated between quality of exchanges and many outcome variables.</p>		<p>Scandura <i>et al.</i>, 1986</p> <p>Keller & Dansereau, 1995</p> <p>Graen & Wakabayashi, 1994</p>
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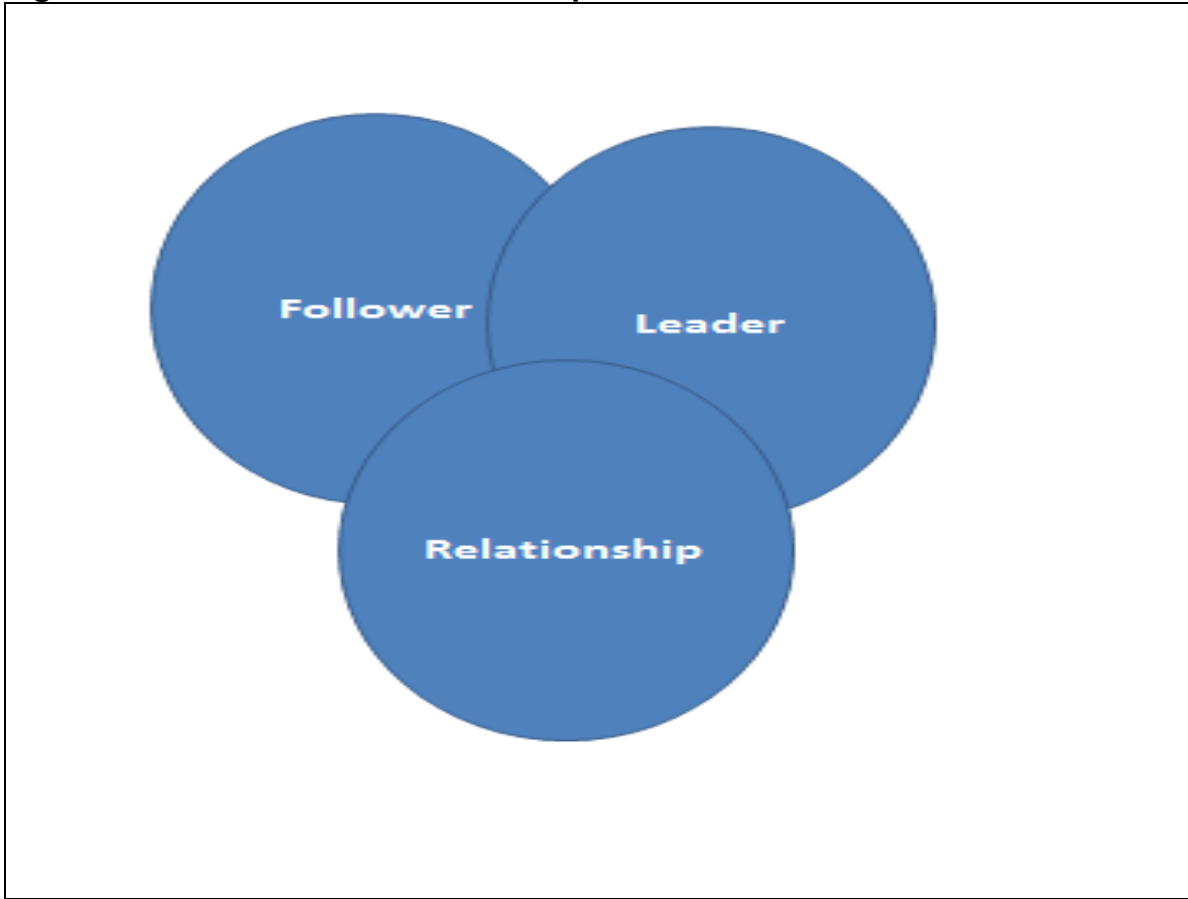
<p>3.</p> <p>Description of dyadic partnership building</p>	<p>Relationships – partnerships</p> <p>Leaders</p>	<p>Focus on development of a partnership between leader and each follower on a one-on-one basis</p> <p>Leadership not seen as a superior-subordinate relationship but as a partnership that gave all employees access to some form of positive exchange</p> <p>Overall unit performance enhanced by increasing number of high-quality relationships through training leaders and providing opportunities to develop high-quality relationships</p> <p>A leadership-making model was developed comprising three phases (stranger, acquaintance and maturity)</p>	<p>Two longitudinal field experiments</p>	<p>Fairhurst, 1993</p> <p>Dunchon, Green & Taber, 1986</p>
<p>4.</p> <p>Group and network levels</p>	<p>Interdependent dyadic relationships or network assemblies</p>	<p>Looked at a systems-level perspective of interdependent dyadic relationships; leadership structure mapped on task structure, interdependencies, quality of relationships, work processes and outcomes</p>	<p>Limited research</p>	<p>Scandura, 1995</p>

Owing to the nature of this research study the focus was not only on investigating the quality of the dyadic relationship between a leader and a follower and its organisational outcomes but also on investigating and describing the development and maintenance of high-quality relationships in the context of follower development (see stages 2 and 3 in Table 2.4).

2.4.3 Domain perspective of LMX

It is important to note that the LMX theory does not disregard previous leadership theories and approaches but rather attempts to provide more clarity on the ambiguity of leadership. The LMX theory looks at and examines leadership not just from one perspective or domain but attempts to understand and examine leadership from a multiple perspective. The LMX theory is therefore a leadership taxonomy that regards leadership as an interplay between the leader, the follower and the relationship (see Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1: LMX domains of leadership



Source: Graen & Uhl-Bien (1995)

LMX's multi-faceted perspective on leadership attempts to provide a more balanced approach to leadership by considering not only the leader on one level but also other relevant leadership levels, such as the follower (Hollander, 1978; Meindl, Erlich & Dukerich, 1985) and the dyadic relationship between the leader and the follower (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991; Hollander, 1978). A breakdown of these different levels is provided below:

- Leadership-base domain – behaviours, attitudes, perceptions, practices and leader power and influence
- Follower-base perspective – expectations, perceptions and behaviours
- Relationship-based approach – dyadic relationships between leader and follower, proper mix of relationship characteristics (such as trust and respect)

In order to assess the LMX theory and its application, a combination of analyses from each domain (leader, follower, relationship) is proposed. Research done on leadership from a multiple perspective has provided much more predictable variation in results than research that focused on one dimension only, such as the charisma of the leader (Tierney, 1992; Scott, 1993).

Each domain (leader, follower, relationship) comprises different levels of analysis, and these are indicated in Table 2.5 below.

Table 2.5: Three domain approaches to leadership

	Leader-based	Relationship-based	Follower-based
What is leadership?	Appropriate behaviour of person in leadership role	Trust, respect and mutual obligation that influence all parties	Ability and motivation to manage own performance
What behaviours constitute leadership?	Establishing and communicating vision; inspiring and instilling pride	Building strong relationships with followers; mutual learning and accommodation	Empowering, coaching, facilitating, giving up control
Advantages	Leader as rallying point for organisation; common understanding of mission and values; can initiate complete change	Accommodates differing needs of subordinates; can elicit superior work from different types of people	Makes the most of follower capabilities; frees up leaders for other responsibilities
Disadvantages	Highly dependent on leader; problems if leader changes or is pursuing inappropriate vision	Time-consuming; relies on long-term relationship between specific leaders and members	Highly dependent on follower initiative
When appropriate?	Fundamental change is required; charismatic leader in place; limited diversity among followers	Continuous improvement of teamwork; substantial diversity and stability among followers; network building	Highly capable and task-committed followers

Where most effective?	Structured tasks; strong leader position power; member acceptance of leader	Situation is favourable for leader between two extremes	Unstructured tasks; weak position leader power; member shows no acceptance of leader
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The LMX theory provides for a unique application in regard to the interaction between the leader and his or her follower. It allows an in-depth analysis and explanation of why some leader-follower relationships are extremely successful and others fail miserably. The explanatory inclination of this theory, applied within an academic context, will provide some explanation and clarity about the interactions.

These application and analysis possibilities are particularly important as LMX research needs to be expanded beyond the leader domain towards the follower and the leadership-follower relationship domains (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995:222). For purposes of this research, the use of the LMX theory should provide more clarity on the perceived development, quality of relationships and exchanges that occur through social interaction and the establishment of partnerships between CoDs and their academic staff (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995:239).

It is also foreseen that the multiple domain perspective of LMX is uniquely suited to understand the dynamic relationship between a CoD and his or her followers (academic staff) in the all-important task of development. Understanding the needs, expectations, opinions and perceptions of both the CoD (leader) and the follower (academic staff) within this dynamic context will aid in reaching a better understanding of the roles, tasks and functions related to developing talent.

Therefore, to expand the body of knowledge on the LMX theory and to widen the scope of this research the following levels will receive further attention in this study:

- Leader-base domain – leadership approach and practices to support development

- Follower-base domain – followers’ perceptions of their leaders and the effect these perceptions have on follower development and perceived organisational support for development

In this study I intentionally distinguish between different units of analysis, which include leader-member exchange (the relationship domain), leader or member behaviours (the leader and follower domains) and the group dynamics in and out of the dyad (the group level or domain).

2.4.4 Measurement of LMX

The main instrument of measurement in LMX theory is commonly referred to as the LMX-7. Although initial claims were that the instrument measured different sub-dimensions based on relationship qualities and exchange commodities, it has since been accepted that the instrument is only one-dimensional (Van Breukelen *et al.*, 2006) in the sense that it only measures the quality of the relationship between the leader and the follower. Another important consideration when using the LMX-7 instrument is that leaders and followers do not necessarily view the relationship between them in the same way. Generally, low correlations between the two ratings have been achieved (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Reasons for the differences in viewing relationships include social desirability biases and respondents’ tendency to assess individual perceptions rather than the dyad itself.

Finally, some criticism has been levelled at the use of LMX theory and its method of measurement. Scholars agree that more research should be done to understand leadership behaviour associated with high- or low-quality exchange behaviour – research that considers more than the attributes (respect, latitude trust and support) defined within the measurement – in order to define and describe the dynamics of relationship formation (House & Aditya, 1997). Scholars are also not convinced that the dyad is not influenced by situational factors, follower attributes and behaviours, such as low growth need (House & Aditya, 1997). Concern has, for instance, been raised that each dyad relationship is not an entity that is isolated but that it occurs within a system of other relationships (Hogg, 2004). Furthermore, many of the studies

conducted on LMX rely only on leader-follower self-report instead of on multi-method approaches to understand the dynamics of the dyad better (Yukl, 2010). Lastly, a need has also been expressed to conduct LMX research that would lead to obtaining independent outcome measures that would be logically influenced by a quality relationship, and to extend LMX research across cultures (Erdogan & Liden, 2002).

2.4.5 Validity of LMX

Previous research on the LMX theory has mainly focused on antecedents of the characteristics of the leader and the follower as well as on outcomes related to follower behaviour (see Table 2.6). Characteristics that have been tested include leadership style, power, motivation or goal orientation, and personality features. Positive outcomes associated with follower's behaviour as a result of a positive relationship include increased commitment, perceived empowerment, innovation and loyalty. The validity of the LMX theory has, therefore, been thoroughly empirically tested. The LMX theory is regarded as especially well grounded when a comparison is made between low- and high-quality relationships and follower outcomes. Empirical testing of the relationship between concepts and domains has also proved the theory to be substantive.

Table 2.6: Antecedents and outcomes of high-quality LMX relationships

ANTECEDENTS	OUTCOMES
<i>Leader</i>	<i>Attitudes</i>
Trustworthiness (Brower <i>et al</i> ; Gomez & Rosen, cited in Kang & Stewart, 2007)	Job satisfaction (Green, Anderson & Shivers, cited in Kang & Stewart, 2007)
Positive expectation of subordinate (Sparrowe & Liden, cited in Kang & Stewart, 2007)	Job dedication (Michael <i>et al.</i> , cited in Kang & Stewart, 2007)
Power (Cogliser & Schriesheim, cited in Kang & Stewart, 2007)	Communication satisfaction (Mueller & Lee, cited in Kang & Stewart, 2007)
Transformational leadership (Howell & Hall-Merenda, cited in Kang & Stewart, 2007)	Organisational commitment (Liden <i>et al.</i> , cited in Kang & Stewart, 2007)
Rapport management (Campbell, White & Johnson, cited in Kang & Stewart, 2007)	Perceived empowerment (Gomez & Rosen; Liden <i>et al.</i> , cited in Kang & Stewart, 2007)

<i>Follower</i>	<i>Behaviours</i>
Goal orientation (Chiaburu; Jansen & Van Yperen, cited in Kang & Stewart, 2007) Performance (Gehani; Wayne & Ferris, cited in Kang & Stewart, 2007) Effort (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, cited in Kang & Stewart, 2007) Impression management (Wayne & Liden, cited in Kang & Stewart, 2007)	Organisational citizenship behaviour (Hui & Law; Scandura <i>et al.</i> , cited in Kang & Stewart, 2007) Subordinate turnover (Bauer & Green; Liden <i>et al.</i> , cited in Kang & Stewart, 2007) Innovative behaviours (Basu, 1991 cited in Kang & Stewart, 2007) Cooperative communication among peers (Lee, cited in Kang & Stewart, 2007)
<i>Interpersonal</i> Liking (Engle & Lord, cited in Kang & Stewart, 2007) Similarity (Deluga; Murphy & Ensher, cited in Kang & Stewart, 2007) Positive expectation (Liden <i>et al.</i> , cited in Kang & Stewart, 2007) Interactional justice (Masteron <i>et al.</i> ; Murphy <i>et al.</i> , cited in Kang & Stewart, 2007)	

Source: Kang & Stewart (2007)

However, more empirical research is required to explain LMX processes, especially within the three domains of the leader, follower and the relationship (Kang & Stewart, 2007). Furthermore, outcomes related to LMX processes can strengthen and support this leadership theory. In the case of this research a focus on understanding follower development through LMX processes and outcomes is of particular importance.

From a development perspective empirical evidence has indicated that high-LMX relationships contribute to greater opportunities for personal growth, more challenging work assignments, employee learning goal orientation and more rapid career progress (Jansen & Yperen, 2004). Current developments of the LMX theory and empirical evidence obtained point to the importance and relevance of this theory in developing staff.

2.4.6 LMX and a development focus

Swanson and Holton (2001) view human resource development (HRD) as consisting of two distinct core processes that are founded on learning and performance and that focus both on organisation and individual outcomes. Grievies (2003) maintains that HRD is a continuous proactive system-wide intervention aimed at skill-focused change to enhance and benefit both the individual and the organisation. Whilst the knowledge and skills of individuals are improving, performance and ultimately organisational growth and effectiveness are also becoming more sustainable (Kang & Stewart, 2007). This is especially true if organisations, and more specifically managers, have the knowledge and expertise to align individual and organisational goals.

The LMX approach is in its own right an invaluable diagnostic tool to discover and learn more about follower development as a driving force behind individual and organisational performance (Green *et al.*, 1996). As previously mentioned, much empirical research has been done on a great number of antecedents, domains, dimensions and outcomes. In the case of this study it is important to review the empirical studies conducted on LMX and employee development (see Table 2.7). These studies reveal leaders' influence on development outcome variables and shed more light on follower development.

Table 2.7: Previous LMX research findings on development

Reference	Findings
Kang & Stewart (2007)	LMX and human resource development theories are linked by at least three key factors: trust, empowerment and performance.
Scaduto <i>et al.</i> (2008)	<p>Leaders have a direct influence on their employees' training motivation that contributes to transferring skills, maintaining skills and applying skills in the workplace.</p> <p>Followers that have a good relationship with their supervisors stand a much better</p>

	<p>chance of benefiting from training, which will contribute towards individual and organisational outcomes.</p> <p>Leaders are an important source for trainees' outcome expectancies, and they must assist with the management of relevant information.</p>
Xander <i>et al.</i> (2010:687)	<p>Leaders set more difficult and more specific learning goals for high-LMX members than they do for low-LMX members.</p> <p>High-LMX employees receive more feedback from their leaders.</p>
Graen and Scandura (1987)	<p>Members that experience high-quality relationships often benefit as leaders recognise their potential and provide opportunities for job growth and role emergence.</p>
Sin, Nahrgang & Morgeson (2009)	<p>The extent of LMX agreement increases as the tenure of the relationship and the intensity of the dyadic interaction increase.</p>
Lam <i>et al.</i> (2007)	<p>Subordinates' feedback seeking is positively related to the quality of LMX and work performance on condition that supervisors interpret feedback-seeking behaviour as trying to enhance performance and not as trying to make an impression on management.</p>
Jansen & Van Yperen (2004)	<p>LMX mediates the positive relationship between subordinates' mastery orientation and their in-role work performance.</p>
Wilson, Sin & Conlon (2010:362)	<p>Leaders will provide development and mentoring opportunities if members provide lateral information from others and peers.</p>

Zhou & Schriesheim (2010)	Leaders and followers tend to focus on different aspects within the exchange relationship. Leaders focus more on task-orientation while followers focus more on the social aspects of the relationship.
Walumbwa, Cropanzano & Goldman (2011:743)	High-quality LMX relationships provide subordinates with an opportunity to develop new skills and to gain confidence in their own abilities.
Bauer & Green (1996)	Leaders are more likely to provide beneficial delegation opportunities to employees with whom they have high-quality LMX relationships.
Walumbwa <i>et al.</i> (2009)	<p>Leaders who have high-quality LMX relationships with their followers provide them with effective learning opportunities.</p> <p>Supervisors that have high-quality LMX relationships enhance the self-efficacy and means efficacy of followers.</p>
Schyns (2004)	Leaders interact more with their subordinates when in a high-quality LMX relationship, thereby providing more opportunities for modelling.

According to Scaduto *et al.* (2008), the effectiveness of training that takes account of the relationship between a follower and his or her direct leader has not received much attention from an empirical point of view. From a development perspective, training is a fundamental part of a person's progress and growth. Scaduto *et al.* (2008) stress the importance of creating an environment that is conducive to the transfer and maintenance of skills in the workplace.

The creation of an environment that is conducive to the transfer and maintenance of skills is largely dependent on social exchanges in which subordinates know the extent to which their direct leaders or supervisors are satisfied with their work progress and feel confident that their supervisors support them and understand their problems and needs. Once followers are trained, regular performance feedback and

supervisor support are needed to ensure skill transfer and the acquisition of embedded knowledge (Velada, Caetano, Michel, Lyons & Kavanagh, 2007).

Another important consideration from an LMX perspective is to understand which factors contribute to and enhance follower learning. Previous research conducted by Xander *et al.* (2010) in this regard reports on two important findings. Firstly goal difficulty and goal specificity mediate the relationship between LMX and employee engagement in learning activities; by implication a leader's involvement in assigning specific and difficult learning objectives affects follower learning. Secondly the direct relationship between LMX and learning is a possible indication that high-LMX employees engage more in learning activities than low-LMX employees in order to earn their leaders' trust.

It is noticeable that a distinction is made between followers and that subordinates find themselves either in the so-called in-group or in the so-called out-group. Once followers are seen by the leader as being part of the in-group it is likely that they will benefit by receiving more training opportunities. Once in-group employees are trained it is anticipated that leaders will put in more effort to align training outcomes with employee performance requirements and standards. This in turn will increase employee outcome expectancy because training forms an integral part of the performance path that leaders set for their subordinates. An increase in employee outcome expectancy is especially evident if both the leader and follower agree (through sound and healthy exchanges) on the training needs and relevant performance outcomes (Scaduto *et al.*, 2008).

From a leadership perspective, leaders are powerful motivating forces that have the authority to influence and manage outcome expectancies of followers (Guerrero & Sire, 2001). It is clear that leaders not only control the available pool of resources through providing training opportunities but also contribute significantly to the transfer of training and skills back into the workplace. The relationship between the leader and the follower will, therefore, definitely impact on the way the leader uses his or her power to assist followers in their development capacity. The understanding of this relationship through an LMX perspective can, therefore, prove extremely valuable in follower development, especially in an academic context.

The empirical research findings of Sin *et al.* (2009) also indicate important considerations for follower development. Purposeful follower development is highly dependent on mutual agreements between the leader and the follower. According to the authors' research findings, these mutual agreements are mostly achieved through lengthy and quality dyadic relationships.

Feedback seeking and feedback providing are fundamental parts of the development process. From an LMX perspective, feedback complements the role-making process of the exchange relationship because the expectations of the two parties are shared and clarified during feedback. As Lam *et al.* (2007:349) point out, "those who feel that they are benefiting from a relationship will try to reciprocate by fulfilling the expectations of the other party". Based on the research findings referred to in Table 2.5 there is empirical confirmation that feedback seeking, at least on the part of the follower, is positively related to the quality of LMX exchanges and objective⁵ work performance, on condition that the supervisor perceives the feedback seeking to be related mainly to work performance instead of to personal motives.

Furthermore it is anticipated that subordinates may also play a more proactive role in building high-quality LMX relationships by clarifying expectations and requesting objective feedback from their supervisors, which can result in improved personal and organisational development. In studying feedback from a leader's perspective, Xander *et al.* (2010:687) have found that followers also receive more frequent feedback from their leaders if the quality of the relationship is high. Feedback providing is seen as a fundamental part of a learning cycle, and one that can be affected by the quality of the relationship between the leader and the follower. These research findings will again be taken into consideration when investigating the relationship as it relates to follower development.

Concerning the application of the conceptual resource exchange framework of Foa and Foa (1980), Wilson *et al.* (2010:362) argue that within a social exchange relationship it is not only how the resource is exchanged that is important but rather what resources are exchanged. Their research emphasises the important

⁵ Focussing more on facts than personal feelings and opinions.

consideration that followers play an equally important role in engaging leaders in sharing and allocating resources in the exchange relationship. Of more importance to this study is that once followers provide information to their leaders as a form of resource they can expect more development and mentoring opportunities in return.

It is therefore important to note that followers do not have to depend on monetary or status resources only when they share but that they can provide more accessible valuable resources such as service, affiliation and information that can strengthen the exchange relationship.

The research findings of Zhou and Schriesheim (2010) contain important considerations in respect of follower development. If followers focus only on social interaction in a relationship and disregard task accomplishment their relationship with their leader may be harmed. It is then likely that the leader will not necessarily be totally committed to put in extra effort to support follower growth and advancement. Often leaders' first priority is to ensure that task requirements are met; then only will they invest in other aspects of the exchange relationship. Therefore, followers must first demonstrate a good work ethic before they expect development opportunities.

Leaders must understand that followers are more inclined to focus on the social aspects of a relationship. Leaders must, therefore, be able to establish a healthy relationship based on trust, honesty and loyalty before demanding too much task accountability.

An additional aspect of follower development is self-efficacy. Self-efficacy refers to a person's belief in their own abilities and competence (Walumbwa *et al.*, 2009:741). This belief that a person can perform and master difficult tasks is a critical component of learning and developing. The self-efficacy of followers will improve in a work environment where they have leaders who believe in their potential and abilities and motivate them.

The improvement of self-efficacy becomes even more relevant in an environment in which a leader models the correct learned behaviour for the follower within the desired learning environment. Improvement can only be achieved if a positive LMX

relationship exists between the leader and the follower. Furthermore, means-efficacy, coupled with a positive relationship, will contribute to followers' belief that they can use the resources available to perform their duties. Once again, if this belief exists, followers will be more eager to explore and use available resources to develop and to accomplish their tasks. This is especially important in an academic context where many learning resources are available.

Based on a review of the extant literature on LMX theory, important considerations for this research include:

- Although the LMX theory differentiates between high- and low-quality working relationships (including some descriptive behaviour), not many empirical studies have attempted to describe these working relationships (Uhl-Bien *et al.*, 2000)
- There is sufficient empirical evidence that, based on first impressions, level of competence, performance and experiences evaluated and tested in the first days with try-outs, relationships in the dyad form rather quickly (Dockery & Steiner, 1990).
- Newly hired employees that are selected by the leader are associated with higher-quality working relationships with their leader compared to existing employees in the work unit (Van Breukelen *et al.*, 2006).
- The VDL theory that underpins LMX is based on the premise that leaders do not apply a single leadership style towards all subordinates, and discrimination by the leader towards subordinates is quite possible (Dansereau, 1995).
- The exchange currency over time differs depending on the circumstances and the maturity of the relationship (Dansereau, 1995).

Based on previous studies and research, LMX presents itself as a credible leadership theory for examining leader-follower exchanges. Furthermore, the measurement of LMX through the use of the LMX-7 instrument has proven to be reliable and valid. The value and application of LMX theory lie in the central focus on the relationships that leaders and followers form. The current body of knowledge sheds much light on and gives insight into this unique relationship, commonly referred to as the dyad. LMX research has been associated with many positive outcome variables. Scholars

have begun to use LMX to examine the relationship between LMX and employee development and growth. By employing LMX in this research it is possible not only to gauge the quality of the relationship between the leader (CoD) and the follower (academic staff) but also to gain substantial knowledge of how perceptions of this relationship influence perceptions of support for development and organisation support for academic development. In addition, qualitative interrogation of low- and high-quality relationships can shed light on differences in role behaviours with respect to academic development.

2.5 SUMMARY

The body of knowledge covered in this chapter focused on two core aspects; the management and more specifically the development of talent, and the role and involvement of leadership in this process. Discovering and gaining insight into the talent management landscape allowed a deeper understanding of the current realities, practices and challenges involved in talent management. Furthermore, in the midst of this dynamic reality the relevance and importance of growing and nurturing academic talent in higher education institutions are seen as critical aspects in the survival and sustainability of these institutions.

A critical component of the success of developing talent is the quality of a relationship between the academic leader and his or her follower or, as described in an academic context, a followership. For this reason attention is drawn to the role of leadership in the process of developing talent.

A comprehensive review of leadership theories provided the underlying reasoning to apply the LMX leadership theory as a contingency approach towards leadership in this study. This choice was further based on the argument that talent development could be enhanced by the existence of a quality relationship between academic leaders and their followers.

The next chapter, Chapter 3, presents the theoretical framework for the empirical research conducted in this study.

CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

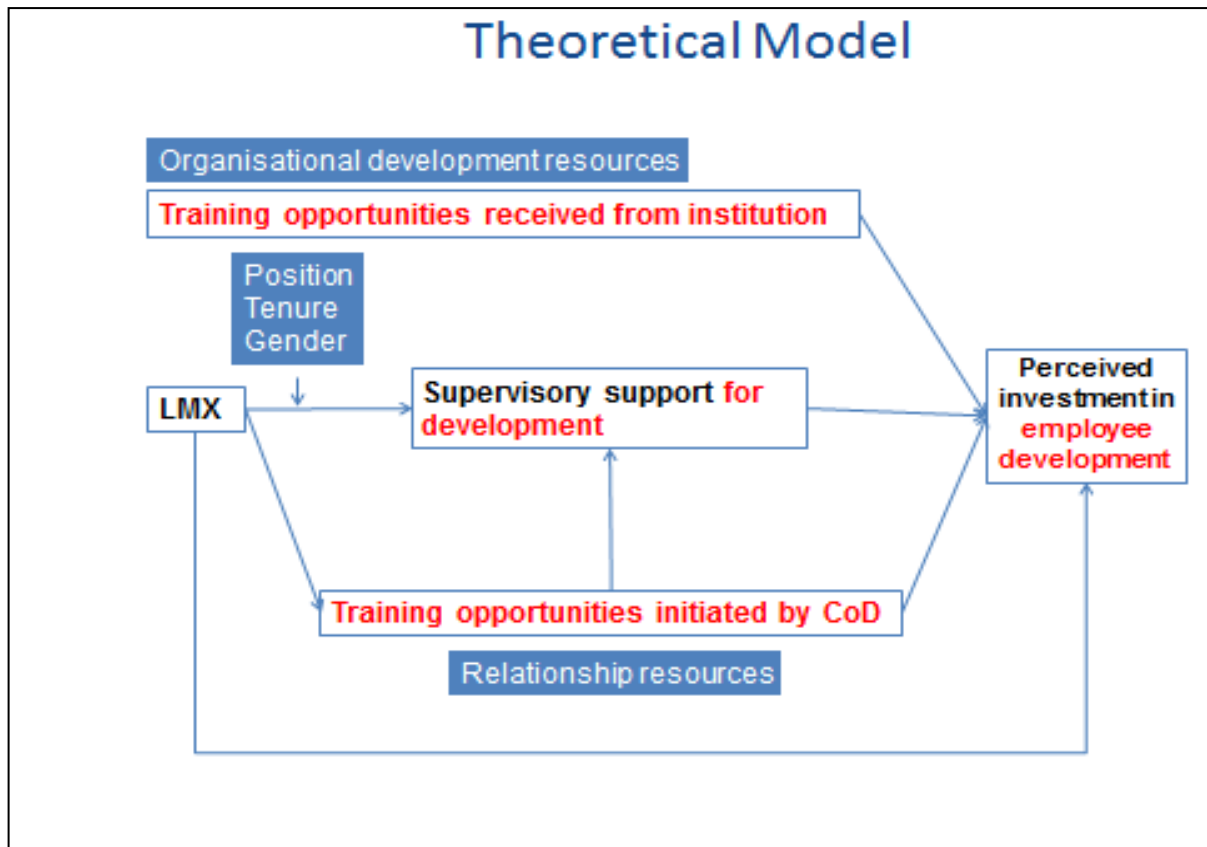
3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter contains the theoretical framework for the research. The framework draws on the LMX theory, social exchange theory, and the extant literature on organisation support for development. Finally, specific hypotheses are formulated based on the framework.

3.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

Figure 3.1 depicts a conceptual model of the linkages between LMX, supervisory development support and perceived investment in employee development (PIED). This model provides the theoretical foundation for the hypotheses to be formulated and tested. First, the types of organisation support for development will be explored, after which the ways that LMX influences perceptions of supervisory support for development, access to development, and ultimately perceived investment in development, will be explained. As part of coming to an understanding of the main argument, to what extent a quality LMX relationship between a CoD and an academic staff member contributed to the perceived development of academic talent in higher education, moderating and mediating factors are incorporated into the model.

Figure 3.1: Theoretical Model



Organisational support theorists Eisenberger *et al.* (2002) suggest that organisational support for development is not based on a single construct but rather on two types of development resources, namely: organisational support through development policies and programmes offered by the institution; and a relationship resource between the subordinate and supervisor which can also affect development support opportunities (Kraimer *et al.*, 2011). The first resource in the form of training opportunities received from the institution may be viewed as tangible, objective support in that it comprises formal policies and actual programmes, and development activities that employees can access (Sturges, Guest, Conway & Mackenzie Davey, 2002). The second resource (relationship resource) may be viewed as less tangible; nevertheless, it contributes to an employee’s development. Gaining access to these resources depends on employees’ relationships with their supervisors (Sparrowe & Liden, 1997). Simply put, employee development support is comprised of an objective component (i.e. organisation development resources) and a component that can be described as more intangible (i.e. relationship resources).

Given the notion that organisational support for development is based on the objective (fair and equal) amount of organisational resources set aside and made available for employee development, the number of training and development opportunities available to the employee to grow and develop could have an impact on perceived organisation investment in employee development.

The model illustrates the important role of the supervisor in employee perception of organisation support. If supervisors are viewed as agents of the organisation, then this agency role – proactively directing employees towards certain organisation development opportunities and/or making others available – contributes to employee development (Eisenberger *et al.*, 2002).

To understand the dynamics of the relationship resource or the supervisor as an agent of the organisation better, I draw on social exchange theory, in particular the leader-member exchange theory, commonly referred to as LMX. This particular exchange theory has been extensively implemented in studies to better understand the quality of the relationship between the leader and his or her follower (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Existing literature on LMX has found sufficient evidence to associate LMX with individual and organisational outcome variables, such as setting difficult goals (Xander *et al.*, 2010), providing training motivation (Scaduto *et al.*, 2008) and contributing to overall organisation support for development (Kraimer *et al.*, 2011). I introduce training and development opportunities initiated by the supervisor as an important resource variable in this research based on the notion that a high-quality LMX has been associated with a willingness by the supervisor to provide extra resources (Sparrowe & Liden, 1997).

Support is also found for expanding the application of social exchange theory beyond a mere focus on the supervisor-subordinate relationship as a resource. Of particular importance and relevance from a social exchange perspective was to understand employees' perceptions of the extent of their organisations' investment in their development, commonly referred to as PIED (perceived investment in employee development). PIED is a measurable construct that provides meaningful insight into

employees' perceptions of how much their organisations value their contributions and are willing to invest in their development. The benefits associated with employees' positive perceptions in this regard tend to be significant; positive perceptions have been proved to promote employee commitment and motivation (Snell & Dean, 1992), contribute to greater productivity, financial performance and competitiveness (Woods & de Menezes, 1998) and curb employee turnover (Kalleberg & Rognes, 2000).

A theoretical model will have no substance if one cannot test key relationships between different variables. In this research PIED was decided upon as the main outcome variable in light of the existing benefits associated with this construct and in an attempt to determine which factors do indeed contribute to this important outcome variable. LMX is the key relationship factor that could contribute to PIED. Therefore, an important consideration in applying this model (see Figure 3.1) and making an added contribution to existing literature, was to determine the extent to which the quality of the relationship between academic leader and follower impacts not only on the amount of supervisory support received in general, but also on the amount of supervisory support received especially for development purposes.

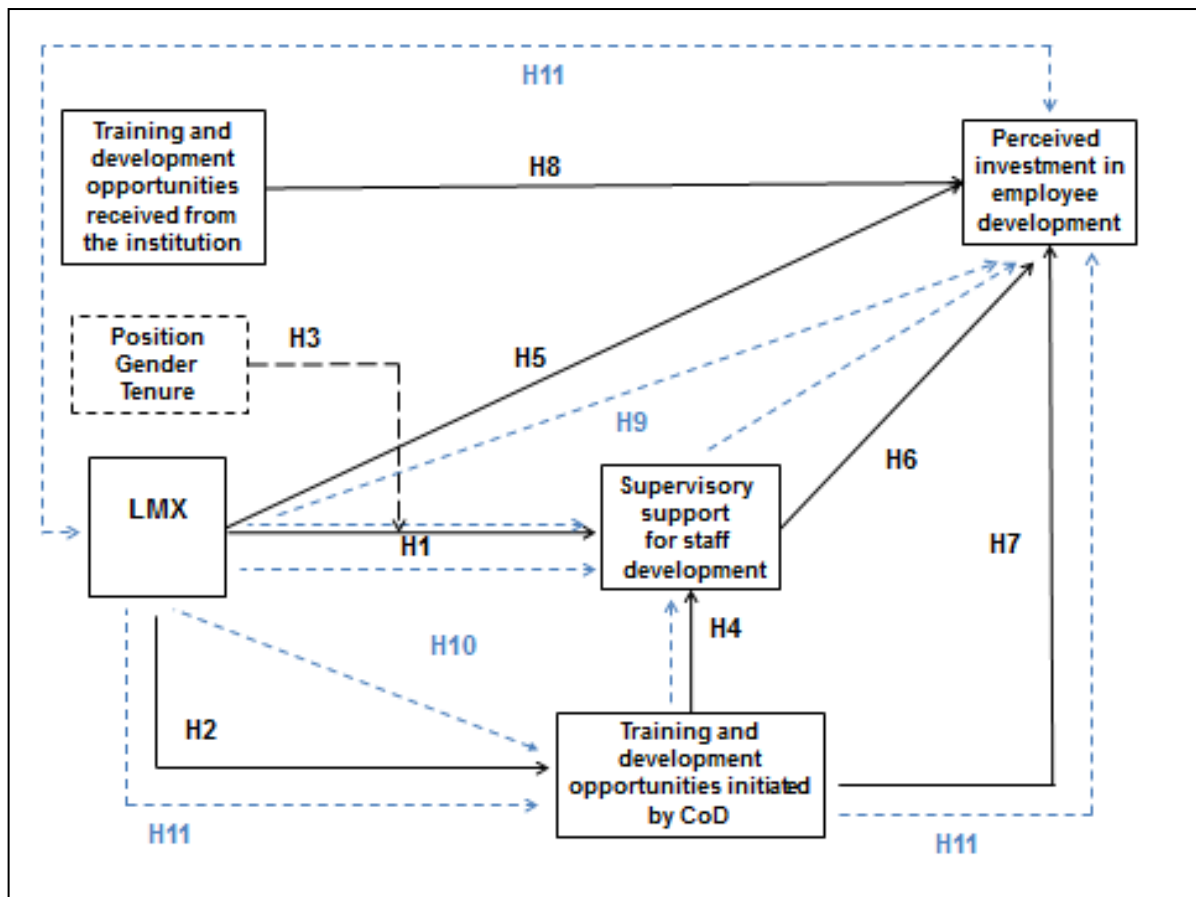
The model (see Figure 3.1) contains three possible mediating factors. Supervisory support for development is the key mediating factor between LMX and PIED. Testing this relationship is exclusively done by assessing the role and the positive involvement of a supervisor in employee development (Hazucha *et al.*, 1993; Maurer & Tarulli, 1994; Noe & Wilk, 1993). The supervisor's role and involvement in employee development are represented in the model by the training and development opportunities initiated by the supervisor. These opportunities mediate the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for development. Testing this relationship is based on the notion that a supervisor initiates training and development opportunities on the basis of a quality supportive supervisory relationship (Maurer & Tarulli, 1994). Ultimately, training and development opportunities initiated by the supervisor affects PIED. In testing this relationship a better understanding of the social exchange transition from the perspective of both LMX and PIED could be obtained.

The last part of the model reflects the finding in existing literature that the LMX relationship and supervisory support for development do not universally apply across all employees (Scandura & Graen, 1984). Relationships may be modified owing to the gender of the employee, tenure of the relationship, and the position held by the employee. For example, less senior subordinates may get more help or attention related to their development needs compared to more senior employees. Therefore, it is important to consider if any demographic characteristics moderate the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for development.

3.3 THEORETICAL TESTING

Figure 3.2 depicts the hypothesised model that was tested in the research.

Figure 3.2: Hypothesised Model



An explanation of the formulation of each hypothesis in the diagram is provided under the two main resource components of the model, namely relationship resource and organisational development resource.

3.3.1 Relationship resource

The research first examined LMX as a predictor of supervisory support for development. As mentioned earlier, LMX is often seen as a relationship resource in the organisation and refers to the quality of the exchange relationship between the leader and his or her follower (Liden & Maslyn, 1998), and, as previous studies have indicated, LMX is related to positive outcomes in terms of training and development. Thus, high LMX has been associated with many positive employee learning and development outcomes.

The role of the immediate leader (first line supervisor) in supporting these developmental efforts cannot be underestimated (Maurer & Lippstreu, 2008). Therefore, from a social exchange perspective and with a view to gaining a better understanding of the relationship between LMX and the provision of supervisory support for staff development, the following hypothesis was tested:

- **Hypothesis 1:** *“A high-quality LMX relationship will be positively related to supervisory support for staff development.”*

Once a high-quality LMX relationship has been established, employees tend to receive better social support and more resources from their leader (Lam *et al.*, 2007). In the context of this study, training and development opportunities initiated by the immediate leader (supervisor) are seen as an important resource variable for training and development. Although it is recognised that training and development opportunities are available for all academic staff, it was of particular interest to establish if the first line supervisor (CoD) initiated some of these opportunities as this would be an indication of his or her support in developing certain staff (see hypothesis 2).

- **Hypothesis 2:** *“A high-quality LMX relationship will be positively related to training opportunities initiated by CoDs.”*

3.3.1.1 Moderating role of demographic variables

Existing literature supports the notion that LMX as an exchange leadership theory does not universally apply across all supervisor and subordinate relationships (Scandura & Graen, 1984). In many cases the relationships are modified by factors such as gender, tenure and position. As previously mentioned relationships are affected by aspects such as level of competence, performance, experiences tested in the first days with try-outs, (Dockery & Steiner, 1990), newly hired employees compared to existing employees in the work unit (Van Breukelen *et al.*, 2006) and the maturity of the relationship (Dansereau, 1995). All these factors have an impact on gender, tenure and position and have been selected as moderating factors that can possible impact on the amount of development support that staff receive (see hypotheses 3a to 3c).

- **Hypothesis 3a:** *“Academic position will moderate the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for staff development.”*
- **Hypothesis 3b:** *“Gender will moderate the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for staff development.”*
- **Hypothesis 3c:** *“Tenure will moderate the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for staff development.”*

The supervisor (CoD) can support staff development in different ways, and these can include providing guidance and support through performance management discussions, coaching and mentoring. In addition, resources in the form of training and development opportunities provided by the supervisor can be a clear indication that the supervisor is committed to and supportive of staff development (see hypothesis 4).

- **Hypothesis 4:** *“Training and development opportunities initiated by CoDs will be positively related to supervisory support for staff development.”*

Creating positive perceptions among employees that the organisation wants to invest in their development is of critical importance to other affective employee outcomes. Having a positive and quality relationship with a supervisor can also contribute to these positive perceptions, even though the supervisor is not intentionally involved in the employees' development (see hypothesis 5).

- **Hypothesis 5:** *“A high-quality LMX relationship will be positively related to perceived investment in employee development (PIED).”*

Previous research has suggested that supervisory support does contribute to positive perceptions that the organisation is investing in employee development (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2010) (see hypothesis 6).

- **Hypothesis 6:** *“Supervisory support for development will be positively related to perceived investment in employee development (PIED).”*

In many ways supervisors are seen as agents of the organisation (Eisenberger *et al.*, 2002). When supervisors (CoDs) provide resources in the form of training and development opportunities to their staff, this positive support behaviour could contribute to positive perceptions of perceived employee investment in their development (see hypothesis 7).

- **Hypothesis 7:** *“Training and development opportunities initiated by CoDs will be positively related to perceived investment in employee development (PIED).”*

3.3.2 Organisation development resources

Academic institutions provide many training and development opportunities for their staff. The majority of these opportunities are self-administered and regulated by organisational policies and procedures. As indicated, supervisors act as agents of the organisation and its policies and they are often compelled to allow staff to attend these programmes and sessions (Rothwell & Kazanas, 1989). Of particular interest in this study was to test if the provision in itself of these self-initiated employee training

and development programmes contributed to positive perceptions of perceived investment in employee development (see hypothesis 8).

- **Hypothesis 8:** *“Training and development opportunities received from the institution will be positively related to perceived investment in employee development (PIED).”*

Finally, three mediating relationships were tested to determine the direct or indirect effect and strength of the relationships between the main variables in the study (see hypotheses 9, 10 and 11).

3.3.2.1 Mediating role of supervisory support for development

- **Hypothesis 9:** *“Supervisory support for development mediates the relationship between LMX and perceived investment in employee development (PIED).”*

3.3.2.2 Mediating role of training and development opportunities initiated by CoD

- **Hypothesis 10:** *“Training and development opportunities initiated by CoDs mediate the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for development.”*
- **Hypothesis 11:** *“Training and development opportunities initiated by CoDs mediate the relationship between LMX and perceived investment in employee development (PIED).”*

3.4 SUMMARY

In this chapter the theoretical model was presented and the empirical hypothesised model for the research was developed. Eleven hypotheses were formulated to test the relationships between core components of the model. In the next chapter, Chapter 4, a detailed explanation of the research design and methodology of the study is provided.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a thorough explanation of the research design and methodology of the study. This chapter is structured around four main components required for sound empirical research, namely, discussions of the inquiry strategy and the specific research design, the sample of the study, the framework used to conduct data collection, the data analysis method, and the steps taken to ensure the quality and rigour of the research.

4.2 DESCRIPTION OF INQUIRY STRATEGY AND BROAD RESEARCH DESIGN

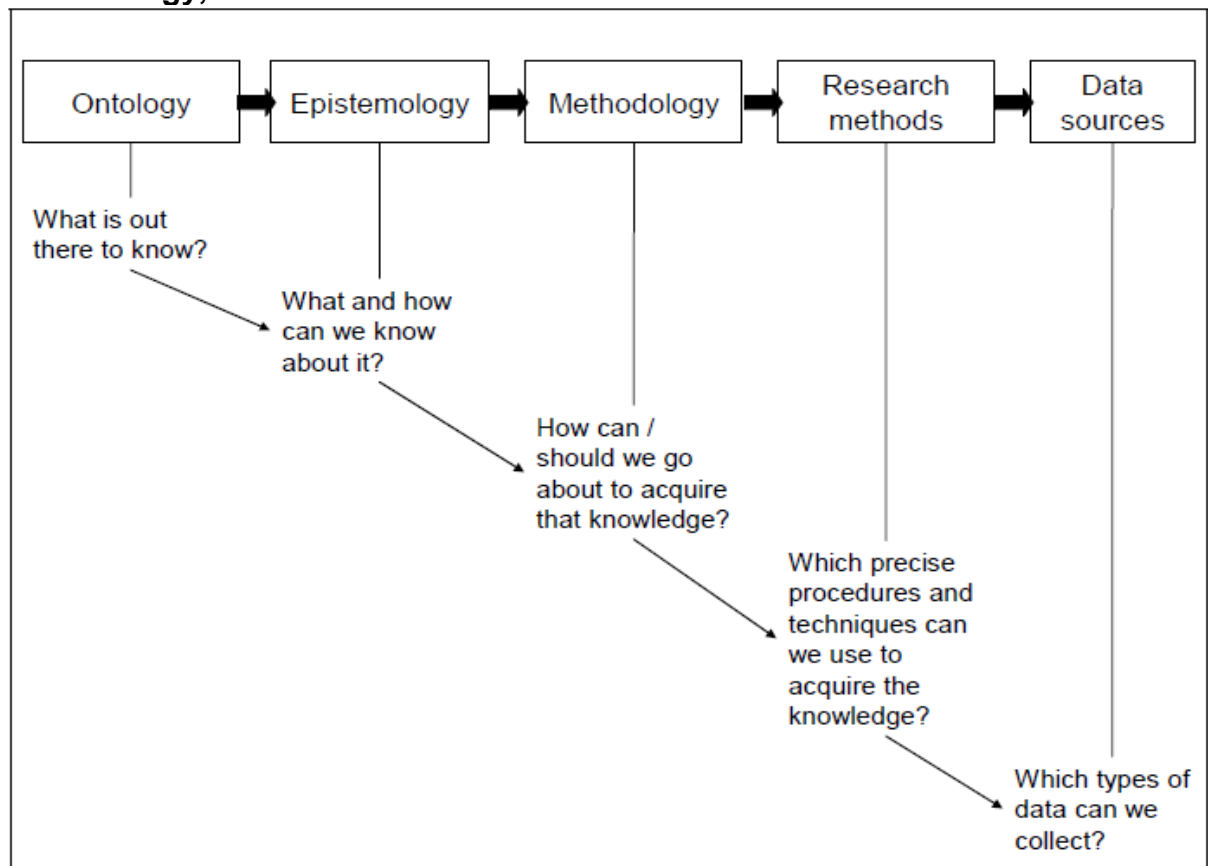
4.2.1 Research paradigm/philosophy

The study was approached from a positivist (foundationalist) paradigm and an interpretivist paradigm (Hogarty *et al.*, 1999:46-47), commonly referred to as realism. The intention of choosing this paradigm was to obtain objective knowledge of the perceived quality of the leadership relationship phenomenon and to gain an understanding of this phenomenon from participants' subjective perspectives.

This dualistic approach was also informed by ontological, epistemological and methodological choices. Ontologically, leadership and human resource development (talent development) are both part of the social sciences and more specifically the human sciences of organisational behaviour. The study of leadership is firmly embedded in its ontology (Nel, 2007) of generating knowledge about the nature of the reality of the leader or leaders, the followers, and the achievement of a common goal. Thus the research design and methodological approach followed the sequence set out in Figure 4.1.

Talent management and more specifically talent development on the other hand is an emerging human resource management theory that has been closely associated with leadership. The literature suggests that the application of successful talent development is not just reliant on quality leadership but highly dependent on the leader's ability to develop and grow followers. The ontology of this research is, therefore, centred on this leadership responsibility (Nel, 2007). To gain greater insight into this process I relied upon the LMX leadership theory to understand the relationship between the leader (CoD) and the follower (academic staff). Therefore, in the research I concentrated on the relationship between the leader and the follower, a level of relationship commonly referred to as the dyadic level. My intention with this approach was to gain knowledge of this dyadic relationship within an academic context and to understand the linkage between such a relationship and perceptions of follower development.

Figure 4.1: The interrelationship between ontology, epistemology, methodology, methods and data



Source: Grix (2002:180)

Colquitt and Zapata-Phelan (2007:1283) refer to theory testing and theory building as bases for theoretical contribution to empirical research. From an epistemological perspective this study falls mainly in the theory testing realm as it used LMX theory to test the relationship between the quality of the leader-follower relationship and employer perceptions of supervisory development support and organisation investment in support for development in an academic context. In other words, the focus was mainly on testing the power of LMX in explaining talent development in an academic context and its ultimate linkage to perceived investment development. Another objective of the research was to gain knowledge of how CoDs perceived and enacted their supervisory roles in respect of academic staff development. This required gaining access to the subjective understandings of participants in the study.

4.2.2 Enquiry strategy

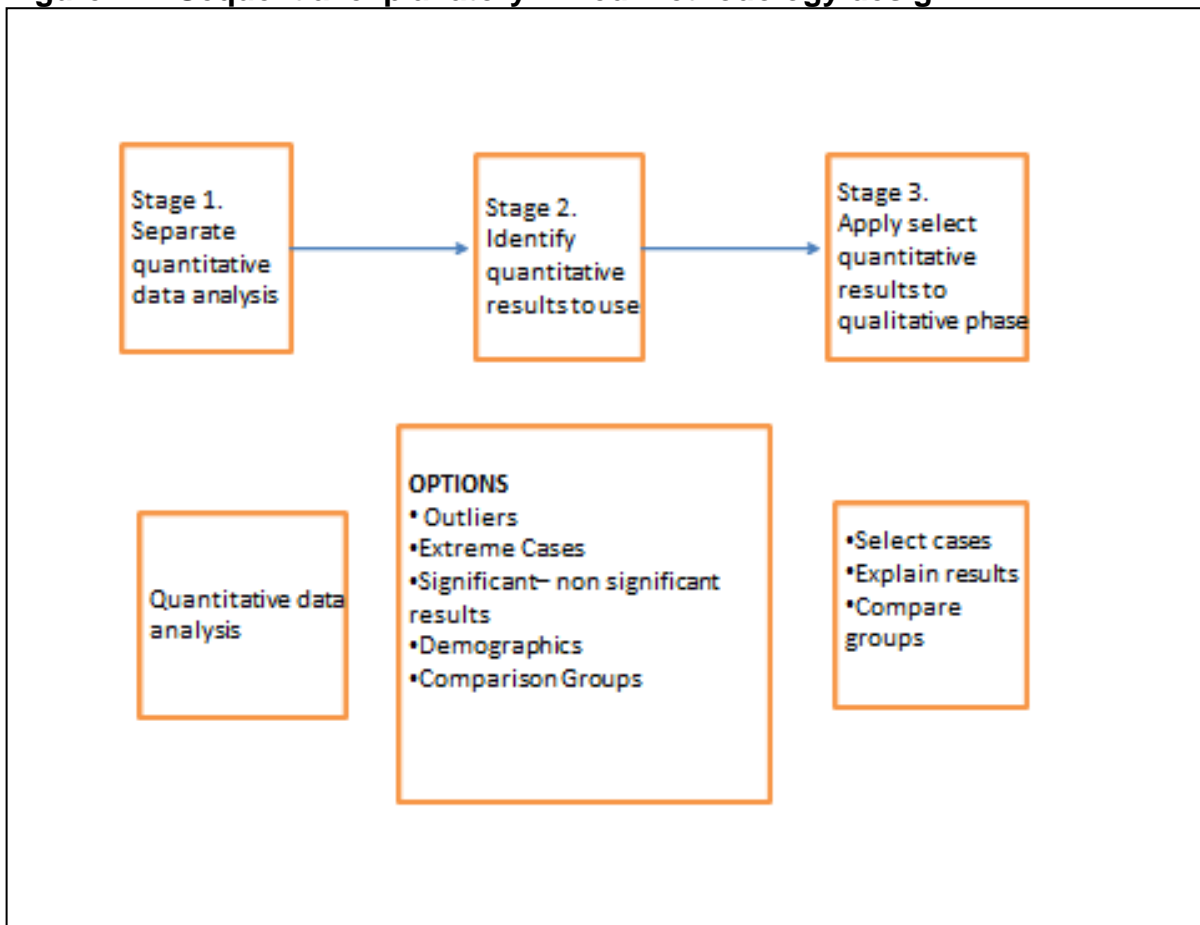
A combined (mixed-) method study was used that required multiple sources of data (Creswell, 2009). This method reflected the blending of positivist and interpretivist philosophies (Creswell, 2009).

According to Greene, Caracelli and Graham (1989), the main reason for applying a combined (mixed) method is for developmental purposes. The authors assert that the first combined method of data collection should be used to sequentially help and inform the second combined method, implying that this design allows one data set to fulfil a secondary role in support of the primary data set of the study. This approach is also intended to add scope and breadth to the study and to contribute to the validity of the research. An additional benefit of mixed-method designs is to obtain more detailed views from selected participants that can help to further explain quantitative results obtained (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007:34). Creswell and Plano Clark (2007:177) distinguish between four major mixed-method designs, namely, the triangulation design, the embedded design, the explanatory design and the exploratory design.

Due to the structure of this research a sequential explanatory mixed-method design was chosen. According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2007:177), the explanatory

mixed-methodology design consists of a first phase which is quantitative in nature and a second phase which is qualitative in nature. The latter explains the results and follows up on the results. The purpose of sequential mixed-method collection and analysis is to use the information obtained from the quantitative analysis to inform the qualitative selection of data and analysis. The explanatory mixed-methodology design is depicted in Figure 4.2.

Figure 4.2: Sequential explanatory mixed-methodology design



Source: Creswell & Plano Clark (2007)

As shown in Figure 4.2, quantitative analysis (stages 1, 2 and 3) must first be conducted, whereafter qualitative analysis can commence. The sequential nature of this strategy allows the researcher to gain more depth in and insight into the study. By conducting the quantitative analysis first and following it up with the qualitative analysis, the qualitative inquiry can be structured better with a view to explaining the quantitative results and obtaining more detailed views from participants on exchange behaviour.

In this study the researcher first obtained quantitative data to answer research questions 1 and 2 (see Table 4.1). The researcher administered three quantitative scales of measure, namely LMX 7 (Van Dam, Oreg & Schyns, 2008), supervisory support for development (Maurer et al., 2008) and perceived investment of employee development (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2010:138) to a sample of academics that functioned under a CoD. This was done via an online survey whereafter the data was analysed. The purpose of the quantitative measurement was to determine the quality of the relationship between the leader (CoD) and the follower (academic staff) and the effect of the relationship on staff perceptions of development.

LMX scores were also used to select an appropriate sample for the qualitative research part of this study and specifically to answer research question 3 (see Table 4.1). Applying this method allowed a selection of cases based on different LMX means scores among departments. Different CoDs were then targeted to obtain more insight into LMX exchange behaviour and associated development practices.

4.2.3 Quantitative research

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005:179), quantitative research aims to describe a situation as it is. Research via an online survey was used to collect quantitative data from participants. The aim of survey research is to acquire information about one or more groups of people, and this information could include but is not limited to the characteristics, opinions, attitudes or previous experiences of participants in the study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:183).

Three quantitative scales (LMX, supervisory support for development and perceived investment in employee development), comparative testing and quantitative model testing were administered. The advantages of this approach were that information could be accessed easily and inferences about a particular population could be made.

4.2.4 Qualitative research

A qualitative approach, according to Peshkin (1993), provides for description, interpretation, verification and evaluation. However, this approach does not make provision for a cause-and-effect relationship. Within the qualitative approach followed in this research, a phenomenological study design was used. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005:139), a phenomenological study design attempts to understand people's perceptions, perspectives and understandings of a particular situation.

The main purpose of choosing a phenomenological design was to obtain the views of CoDs on their role in academic staff development. Inductive reasoning was applied by first focusing on the information obtained from the individual interviews and thereafter identifying themes in the data collected.

Therefore, to obtain a better understanding of these exchanges, qualitative research was also required. This form of research allowed me to explore the content of the relationship and the behaviours that were enacted in the relationship.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with the CoDs, followed by inductive thematic analysis and category development based on participants' responses.

4.2.5 Mixed-method research design

Table 4.1 provides a consolidated view of the type of research, the design and the data-gathering methods used with the objective of addressing each of the research questions in the study.

Table 4.1: Consolidated view of design and research type

	Research question	Type of research	Data-gathering method
1	What is the relationship between the quality of an LMX relationship and perceived supervisory support for development?	Quantitative	Questionnaire in the form of an online survey
2	To what extent does the quality of an LMX relationship affect employee's perception of investment in their development?	Quantitative	Questionnaire in the form of an online survey
3	What types of exchanges do CoDs use to promote academic staff development?	Qualitative	In-depth, one-on-one semi-structured interviews

4.3 MEASURES

Both quantitative and qualitative measures were applied to execute the research.

4.3.1 Quantitative measures

Three main major quantitative measures were used: LMX, supervisory support for staff development and perceived investment in employee development and two single response measures. A breakdown of each measurement is provided hereunder:

- **Leader-member exchange (LMX-7)**

This scale has been developed to measure the exchange relationship between the leader and the follower (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The scale, which consists of seven items, has been extensively used in various studies (Gerstner & Day, 1997). The measures have been shown to have high internal reliability with a Cronbach's alpha of $\alpha = 0,92$ (Van Dam *et al.*, 2008). Some sample items of the scale include:

- How well does your leader recognise your potential?
- How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs?
- How would you characterise your working relationship with your leader?

A five-point Likert-type scale was used to record responses ranging from 1 = rarely to 5 = very often (see Appendix A).

- **Supervisory support for staff development (SSD)**

This scale has been developed to determine to what extent respondents believe that their supervisor supports their development (Maurer *et al.*, 2003:712). Two previous studies using this measurement indicated an internal reliability of $\alpha = 0,90$ and $\alpha = 0,94$ (Maurer *et al.*, 2008). Some sample items of the scale include:

- My supervisor is supportive of my efforts to improve my work skills.
- My supervisor helps me to develop career plans.
- My supervisor's behaviour facilitates my participation in learning activities.

The instrument was scored by participants by rating each of the questions against a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = disagree strongly to 5 = agree strongly (see Appendix A).

- **Perceived investment in employee development (PIED)**

This scale was initially used by Lee and Bruvold (2003) and thereafter partly adapted by Dysvik and Kuvaas (2010). The coefficient alphas for this scale in two different studies were $\alpha = 0,85$ and $\alpha = 0,92$ (Lee & Bruvold, 2003). A recent study done by Kuvaas and Dysvik (2010) revealed a reliability index of $\alpha = 0,94$. Some sample items of the measurement include:

- My institution invests heavily in employee development.
- I am confident that my institution will provide the necessary training and development to solve any new tasks I may be given in future.
- I definitely think that my institution invests heavily in employee development compared to similar institutions.

The instrument was scored by participants by rating each of the questions against a five-point scale, namely; disagree strongly, disagree, neutral, agree strongly and agree (see Appendix A).

- **Training and development opportunities received from the institution**

A single response was required, namely an indication of the number of training and development opportunities received from the institution. The aim of the question was to determine if the employee was making use of the institutional resources that were available for training and development. The question is provided below.

- Indicate the number of training and development opportunities (e.g. conferences, seminars and workshops) you had over the last year.

- **Training and development opportunities initiated by CoD**

A single numeric response was required in answer to this question, namely an indication of the number of training and development opportunities received from the institution (previous question) that had been initiated by the respondent's CoD. This number would either be lower than or equal to the number of training and development opportunities received from the institution. The aim of this question was to determine the involvement of the respondent's CoD in the respondent's development. The question is provided hereunder.

- Of the training and development opportunities indicated in Question 19(a), how many were initiated by your CoD? (Please indicate the number.)

4.3.2 Reliability and validity of quantitative measures

After the design and development of the online survey (inclusive of the three main measurements), the survey was reviewed and evaluated by three different specialists in the field, after which adjustments were made to the layout, structure and terminology. These slight adjustments contributed to the content and face validity of the survey. (See Appendix B for the final scales.)

Reliability was further enhanced by administering the measurements to a selected pilot group. The demographic characteristics of the pilot group were similar to those of the target sample group. Six academic staff from different departments, positions and genders participated in the pilot study. The online survey was administered in exactly the same way as it was intended to be administered to the bigger sample group. This aided in making small adjustments to the online survey to enhance consistency and accuracy of the measurements.

4.3.3 Semi-structured interviews

The interviews centred on a set of six semi-structured questions based on the topics covered. These questions were formulated with a view to gaining insight into the

actual task and social development exchanges between the leader and his or her follower (see Appendix C). The questions were also constructed to gain more clarity on how CoDs interacted with, practised and responded to followers' development needs and aspirations. The interview schedule and the questions were designed to address the following specific aspects during the interview, as indicated in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Interview schedule

Interview topic	Relevant interview question
Role of the CoD in the development of staff	Question 1
Role of the follower in development	Question 2
Relationship between myself and staff to invest and show more interest in their development	Question 3
Describe a talented academic	Question 4
Criteria for support for development	Question 5
Type of development practices	Question 6

From an LMX domain perspective questions 1 and 2 dealt with both the role of the leader and the follower in the role-making process that could contribute to support for development. Question 3 explored the leader's perception of the dyadic relationship between the leader and the follower based on task and social exchanges. Question 4 addressed a perspective on defining academic talent. Questions 5 and 6 explored development criteria and practices based on role routinisation. The questions were also formulated to gain further insight into in- and out-group LMX behaviour. This allowed me to make certain inferences about both groups from a development and practice perspective.

4.3.4 Rigour and trustworthiness of qualitative measures

In order to contribute to the reliability and validity of the qualitative data the interview schedule and the appropriate questions were pilot tested and assessed by two individual experts in the field. After the pilot interview an additional question that explored the leaders' (CoDs') views on distinguishing between talented and less talented staff members was included in the schedule. This additional question allowed for better exploration of in- and out-group behaviour towards development. Only after the successful completion of the pilot interview, in-depth interviews were conducted.

Qualitative data obtained from the interviews were analysed based on four central aspects in order to contribute to the quality, trustworthiness and transparency of the data (Gibbs, 2008:90). These aspects included reflexivity, validity, reliability and generalisability. Gibbs defines reflexivity as the "recognition that the product of research inevitably reflects some of the background, milieu and predilections of the researcher". The author suggested that a form of reflexive accounting should be done to ensure objectivity, accuracy and unbiased capturing and analysis of data. I applied the following practices to contribute to the objectivity, accountability of the data obtained to ensure the accuracy of this qualitative study:

- The theoretical framework of LMX and training and development was considered at all times when capturing, categorising, interpreting and formulating data.
- Sufficient data extracts were captured under each theme to allow readers to evaluate the inferences.
- Principles of confidentiality and openness of responses were upheld during the interviews (ethical certification was signed by all interviewees). The conversational approach followed during the interviews was intended to allow for free and voluntary discussions, without guiding and leading participants.
- Clarification of roles and clear statements regarding the purpose of the research and its context assured participants of their neutral standing and dispelled any fears of victimisation.

- Representivity of the research object across the institution was upheld on reasonable grounds of generalisation.
- The theoretical framework of LMX and training and development was considered throughout the different phases of the research to keep the researcher grounded within the defined boundaries of the research.
- Positive, negative and average cases across the spectrum were selected for interviews based on LMX and supervisory support for development means scores. This assisted in identifying practices for development purposes from different spectrums.
- Multiple and contradictory descriptions by CoDs were included in the study to avoid creating a simple fit between interview data and theoretical underpinning.

In order to further enhance the quality of the study, important aspects of validity were also considered. Gibbs (2008:91) defines validity as a process “to ensure that an analysis is as close as possible to what is really happening”. First I compared data to ensure consistency and accuracy of the codes (themes). This allowed for verification of interpretations across themes. Next I explicitly considered differences and variations in the experiences, actions and views of CoDs.

Specific exchange behaviours were captured and in- and out-group behaviours were compared to understand task and social exchanges. The selection of CoDs for interviews based on gender, experience, discipline and scale means average allowed for further differentiation and verification.

The following practices were also applied to establish an acceptable reliability standard and to enhance the consistency of this study:

- Transcripts were verified and checked for accuracy and obvious mistakes.
- Themes were defined to counter the concept of definitional drift and to assist with consistent interpretations.

- The researcher conducted all his own interviews to enhance consistency of practice.

Finally, a cautious approach to generalising the results of this study was followed. Gibbs (2008:100) cautions against generalising beyond the group and its settings. To manage this concern, the researcher did not use single examples or included isolated responses when consolidating and summarising phenomena. Secondly, the researcher was cautious about generalising interpretations and results and applying them to the larger CoD community based on a single respondent's views. By applying these methods the researcher was confident that the quality of the research was not compromised.

4.4 SAMPLE

This research was done at South Africa's largest open, distance-learning institution with a staff complement of approximately 4 500. This institution has over 300 000 00 active students in and outside the Republic of South Africa. Its main campus is in Pretoria, with decentralised regional offices for registration and student support.

This university has six main colleges, 68 academic departments and approximately 1 400 academic staff. The majority of academic staff report to a formally appointed chair of department (CoD) which in turn reports to directors of schools. The span of control of these departments differs across the spectrum and is mostly determined by the number of students each department is responsible for.

In order to obtain a representative sample of this institution two main sampling approaches for quantitative and qualitative data were used (see Table 4.3).

Table 4.3: Description of quantitative and qualitative approaches

Approach	Description	
	a	b
Strategy of enquiry	Quantitative	Qualitative
Strategy	Quota sample	Purposive sampling
Population	1 413 academic staff ⁶	58 CoDs
Sample	291 academic staff ⁷	8 CoDs
Data collection approach	Online survey	Interviews

The quantitative research (a) was done based on a quota sampling procedure, which is a form of non-probability sampling. According to Wellman and Kruger (2001:61), when using this form of sampling an effort should be made to have the same proportion of unit of analysis of demographic variables for important strata. The researcher distributed the online survey questionnaire to all the colleges and departments of the institution.

This institution has 1 413 academic members of staff. These staff members were targeted based on the consideration that the success of their leader's actions is based on their own willingness to be influenced by their leaders (see Chapter 2). Views and perceptions of academic staff who report to CoDs can, therefore, provide much clarity on how they perceive their leaders (CoDs) and the development support they receive. Secondly, for purposes of this study and the hypotheses that were formulated, it was important to determine followers' perceptions of the quality of the relationship with their leaders, which would influence how they perceived supervisory support for development and the organisation's perceived investment in their development (PIED). It was also important to learn more about the dynamic relationship between the academic leader and follower across the spectrum of one academic institution. In view of the aims stated, academic leaders, such as heads of department (CoDs), did not form part of the 1 413 academic staff population who were targeted for the quantitative analysis.

⁶ Excluding CoDs

⁷ Excluding CoDs

Demographic aspects that were taken into account to achieve sufficient representation in this quantitative sample included the colleges and departments of the institution, gender, tenure and academic position. Colleges that formed part of the initial distribution were:

- College of Education
- College of Science, Engineering and Technology
- College of Economic and Management Sciences
- College of Law
- College of Human Sciences
- College of Agriculture and Environmental Sciences

After surveys had been distributed to and received back from the above-mentioned colleges, completed surveys were monitored to make sure that a cross-section of the population had been covered based on equal representation in respect of the set demographic criteria. This approach and procedure allowed for the control of all other variables associated with other academic institutions and the achievement of a representative sample that was as close as possible to a replica of the population (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport, 2007: 207).

A total of 301 questionnaires were received back, representing a final response rate of 21,5%. Ten questionnaires that formed part of the original sample from the College of Education were omitted because the CoDs of this newly established college had been appointed fairly recently and responses were perhaps not a true reflection of the relationship between CoDs and staff. The total sample after the omission of the 10 respondents resulted in an effective response rate of 20,8%.

The second part of the research included obtaining qualitative data (b) by conducting in-depth semi-structured interviews with a select sample of CoDs (see Table 4.3). This was required to better understand and clarify certain findings obtained from the quantitative analysis. The qualitative research component was based on a purposive

sampling procedure. According to De Vos *et al.* (2007:328), qualitative studies apply non-probability sampling methods in the form of purposive sampling techniques. Wellman and Kruger (2001:63) are of the opinion that purposive sampling is the most important kind of non-probability sampling that exists. The authors point out that this type of sampling relies mainly on the experience and ingenuity of the researcher in order to obtain representative units of analysis.

However, Wellman and Kruger caution against this form of sampling due to different researchers opting for different approaches and methods to obtain a relevant sample, which could affect the representation of the study. De Vos *et al.* (2007:329) support this view by stating that it is important to have a clear identification and formulation of appropriate criteria for the selection of the respondents. Erlandson, Harris, Skipper and Allen (1993:33) expand on the issue of the selection of appropriate criteria by adding that the search for data should be guided by sound processes that can ensure rich detail of information taken from a particular context. Of particular importance to this study was to seek divergent data that could be thoroughly analysed.

In order to select an appropriate and relevant sample group from the 58 chairs of department (CoDs) across the institution it was important to base the selection on a relevant purposive sampling procedure and size. For these purposes high and low LMX and supervisory support for staff development means scores were used to categorise departments. In this way eight CoDs across the institution could be selected objectively for interviews⁸. Six CoDs in the high-score category and two in the medium- to low-score category were selected for interviews out of a total of 58 CoDs⁹. In addition to mean score categorisation for selection of CoDs, other aspects that were considered included functionality, discipline, race and gender. This was done to generalise results to all CoDs regardless of position and territory. The researcher intentionally interviewed more CoDs from the high-score category to be able to identify specific development practices that could contribute to achieving the aim of the study. It was anticipated that low-score category CoDs could not necessarily provide sufficient insight into these practices. Interviewing different CoDs

⁸ The selection method was not known to respondents.

⁹ Departments with less than 10% respondent representation were excluded in the selection to ensure proper sample representation.

also allowed for making comparisons and distinctions between practices. Through this approach more clarity and better differentiation of task and social exchanges between different CoDs could be achieved.

Demographic distribution

Biographical data of participants (followers) was grouped to reflect the representation of department, gender, academic position and period working under a CoD (tenure) (see Appendix D).

Academic staff from 58 departments participated in the study. The sample percentage from only five departments was less than 10%. Responses were not received from three departments. In terms of gender, 64,26% females participated in the study compared to 35,74% males. The majority of the participants in this study (79,73%) were employed in relatively low positions in the institution, and this explained the high percentage of female participants since women were normally appointed to these positions. The periods of time that participants had been working under a CoD (tenure) ranged from one month to 32 years, thus covering a broad spectrum.

As far as the qualitative sample was concerned, nine open-ended, in-depth interviews were conducted with CoDs from different departments. In the end only eight interviews were used based on the quality of interviewees' contributions. The researcher experienced that saturation had been reached after eight interviews and that the additional interview could not contribute to the quality and richness of the study. Mason (2010) did a comprehensive study of sample sizes and saturation levels of qualitative data and found that the quality of interviews and not necessarily the quantity influenced the reliability and validity of qualitative studies. Creswell and Plano Clark (2007:118) also provide clarity on sufficient sample sizes for embedded mixed-method research designs and indicate that the sample size of secondary data should be much smaller than that of primary data. Based on the above-mentioned factors, a 10% sample size complementary to the main quantitative research was achieved.

4.5 DATA COLLECTION APPROACH AND METHOD

In support of the multi-method approach to this research, data collection was done by way of both quantitative and qualitative methods. Quantitative data collection included the use of a questionnaire. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005:179), a questionnaire can be administered to a large number of people. By using an online questionnaire (survey) in this study sufficient information (data) was gathered from this one academic institution. This information (data) also served to construct the final interviews aimed at providing more clarity on certain aspects of the exchange relationship between the CoD and the academic follower.

The second method of qualitative data collection consisted of one-on-one, semi-structured interviews with a selection of participants (CoDs). The main aim of these interviews was to gain more detailed insight into participants' beliefs and perceptions (De Vos *et al.*, 2007:296). The use of one-on-one, semi-structured interviews is especially suitable when one is interested in understanding complex situations. The researcher was of the opinion that this method was ideally suited to gain more insight into those relationships that provided more clarity on development practices and interactions. Although this method of data collection provided much more personal in-depth insight it also tended to be more time consuming. The researcher therefore commenced with the interviews as soon as the statistical analysis had been conducted. Appendix C contains the full interview schedule.

4.5.1 Data collection procedure

A database was developed to capture data electronically. This procedure allowed for accurate data capturing and reporting, the elimination of human error and the prevention of missing data. Online questionnaires were distributed twice over a period of three weeks. After the first round of distribution, approximately 187 questionnaires were received back, accounting for a response rate of 13,5%. The second round of distribution targeted those members who had not participated in the first round. After the second round a total of 301 questionnaires (response rate of 21,3%) had been received.

Having completed the quantitative data analysis and the selection of CoDs (based on high and low LMX scores) I started conducting the interviews. It was valuable to be able to obtain quantitative and qualitative data from the same sample group. Informed consent was obtained from all interviewees (see Appendix E).

4.5.2 Data analysis procedure

To empirically investigate the research hypotheses, four statistical techniques were applied, including exploratory factor analysis (EFA), Pearson's correlations, multiple regression analysis and path analysis applying a structural equation model (SEM).

An exploratory factor analysis was conducted to examine the factor structure and measurement quality of the three latent measurements used in the study, namely, LMX, supervisory support for staff development, and PIED (Kline, 1997). Factor analysis was chosen to explore the underlying relationship between the above mentioned constructs. The choice of a EFA was further supported by the fact that the measurements were designed and used previously only in an international context and that little prior empirical evidence in a South African context was available, therefore it was important first to determine the factor structure of the different measures (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCullum & Strahan, 1999).

According to Kline (1997:3), a factor analysis is intended to simplify complex sets of data through conducting a number of statistical techniques. Sharma (2006:99) clarifies the following objectives of a factor analysis:

- To identify the smallest number of common factors that best explain or account for the correlation among the indicators
- To identify, via factor rotation, the most plausible factor solution
- To estimate the pattern and structure loadings, communalities, and the unique variances of the indicators
- To interpret the common factor(s)

- To provide the factor scores

Factor analysis was performed prior to the inclusion of LMX, supervisory support for staff development, and PIED as variables into the structural model. It was anticipated that the factor analysis would only confirm single constructs for each measure and that this would contribute to the validity of the study. The factor analysis involved applying a factor correlation matrix that included the allocation of factor loadings. A scree test confirmed the loading for each factor (Costello & Osborne, 2005). Eigenvalues were used, being accepted values to determine the number of factors that needed to be retained (Velicer & Jackson, 1990).

A Pearson correlation matrix was also performed to test the assumption of linearity between variables. This form of analysis indicates the strength of the relationship through the correlation coefficient (r) once variables have been compared to one another. The closer (r) is to 1, the stronger the relationship, and the closer (r) is to 0, the weaker the relationship. The coefficient of determination is established when (r) is squared, thus implying the effect size of the estimated magnitude of the relationship between two variables in a population. According to Cohen (1988), the following effect sizes are generally acceptable:

- 0,16 or less – too low to be meaningful
- 0,20 – low
- 0,30 – moderate
- 0,50 – moderate to strong
- > 0,60 – strong/high

Therefore, the higher the effect size the stronger the relationship between two variables, and the lower the effect size the less meaningful the relationship between two variables.

The p -value indicates the significance of the correlation and the value at which the null hypothesis is rejected. A p -value of $< 0,001$ was used to indicate significance, implying that the chance of a correlation not being true is less than 1%, in other words that there is a 99% chance that a correlation is true and significant.

Path analysis is a subset of structural equation modelling (SEM) that is applied to examine causal relationships between variables (Ullman, 2001). This statistical technique is an extension of regression analysis that allows the specification and testing of theorised models and relationships among variables (Kline, 2004). Path analysis specifically attempts to understand comparative strengths of indirect and direct relationships among variables and is not a technique meant to test directionality (Shipley, 1999).

My choice of conducting a path analysis was informed by the use of observed (measured) variable used in this study, such as ‘training and development opportunities initiated by CoDs and training and development opportunities received from the institution’ which represented a single item. By conducting a path analysis in this study, multiple equations in the proposed theoretical model could be solved (Kline, 1997). By means of a path analysis the hypothesised relationships between variables in the theory-driven model (see Chapter 3, Figure 3.2) could also be tested.

To contribute to the validity of this analysis, the model was examined to comply with the statistical assumptions associated with performing such a test, namely affirming multi-variate normality and linearity. In order to confirm these assumptions, multi-variate normality was tested by performing a one-sample Chi-square and Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, and linearity was tested using a correlation matrix. In addition, covariance amongst the disturbance terms was assumed to be zero and indicated in the structured model as error terms (e).

To ensure the goodness of fit of a structural model it is standard practice to make use of fit indices that contribute to the rigour and validity of the model that is tested (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1993; Kline, 2004). Fit indices include: chi-square statistics divided by the degree of freedom (X^2/df); normed fit index (NFI); incremental fit index (IFI); Tucker-Lewis coefficient (TLI); comparative fit index (CFI); and root mean

square error of approximation (RMSEA). Schreiber, Stage, King, Amaury and Barlow (2006:327) suggest the following criteria to assess goodness of fit:

- (χ^2/df) – smaller than 3
- (NFI) – greater than 0,90
- (IFI) – greater than 0,90
- (TLI) – greater than 0,90
- (CFI) – greater than 0,90
- (RMSEA) – recommended at 0,6 and acceptable at 0,8

It is also important to note that more recent contemporary authors have suggested that model fit should not be written in stone to fulfil the rigorous model fit criteria set by Bentler (Hu and Bentler, 1999). For instance, Yoon and Millsap (2007) strongly warn researchers against using chi-square divided by the degree of freedom (χ^2/df) index; however, some older texts promote its use. Other aspects to be taken into account when considering model fit include normality, using a combination of the above fit indices, a small number of variables and sample size (Fan & Sivo, 2005; Kennedy & McCoach, 2003).

The theorised model (Figure 3.2) was tested against all the above indices to ensure model fit. The model provided sufficient insight to accept and/or reject the suggested hypotheses. After discovering some instability in the model an alternative post-hoc model was introduced. No variables and factors were added or omitted in this second model. The only difference in the post-hoc model was an alteration to the relationship between training and development opportunities received from the institution and training and development opportunities initiated by the CoD. In the theorised model, training and development opportunities received from the institution and training and development opportunities initiated by the CoD were introduced as separate mechanisms effecting PIED. However, when it came to operationalising the model it was discovered that treating the mechanisms independently was incorrect as it created more instability in the model. Therefore, it was concluded that treating training and development opportunities received from the institution and training and

development opportunities initiated by the CoD as independent mechanisms as in the initial theorised model (Chapter 3, Figure 3.1) was incorrect and that there was some interdependency between these two variables. To provide further stability of the model all variables' scale values were treated as z values.

To test the indirect affect of variables and to determine moderation and mediation hypotheses specified in the model (Figure 3.2), hierarchical regression analysis was performed. By performing this analysis a causal relationship between variables could be determined, which aided in understanding these relationships within the theorised model (Wu & Zumbo, 2008). Mediation and moderation were empirically tested by standardising the data for mediations using z scores. Thus, in terms of moderation, mean centering was done for LMX¹⁰ and interaction effects were determined between LMX and moderation variables¹¹.

Finally a data analysis plan provided a consolidation of quantitative and qualitative data capturing and analysis. Both the quantitative and qualitative data analysis plans are provided in Table 4.4:

Table 4.4: Data analysis plan

Quantitative data	
Data collection method	An online survey, consisting of three different questionnaires, was used.
Data recording	Data recording took place by having participants complete the online survey individually. Demographic details were included for further analysis.
Verification and evaluation of data	Responses to the survey questions were captured onto an access database. Quality control of data was done by two unrelated people.
Approaches, methods and techniques used for analysis	SAS was used to analyse the data in consultation with a statistician. The results were further used to select candidates for individual interviews.

¹⁰ CLMX = LMX (score) – average (score)

¹¹ Interaction = LMX* gender (gender rescored as 0,1)

Approaches, methods and techniques used to code, summarise and further analyse data	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Data coding, summarising and analysis were done in consultation with a statistician. • IBM SPSS – AMOS – Version 20 • SAS • Open coding
Qualitative data	
Data collection method	Semi-structured interviews were conducted to capture narrative data.
Data recording	Individual interviews were conducted. Notes and a summary of responses were recorded on tape. Data was transcribed in a Microsoft Word format.
Verification and evaluation of data	<p>The researcher familiarised himself with the data by reading and listening to captured data consecutively.</p> <p>The researcher compared notes to ensure that all data had been captured.</p>
Approaches, methods and techniques used for analysis	<p>Data was organised by question, topic, themes and subthemes across all respondents and groups.</p> <p>Themes, categories and subcategories of enactment practices were identified beforehand based on existing theory, whereafter data was grouped under these themes and categories.</p> <p>Emerging themes and categories were captured whilst analysing the data until data saturation took place.</p>
Approaches, methods and techniques used to code, summarise and further analyse data	<p>Themes and categories were labelled and coded through specific coding; in this way, themes and subthemes could be distinguished. A list of key points and important findings was compiled while categorising and sorting data. An outline of the presentation of findings was used to organise data, and this included a diagram and model explanation. Generalisation was avoided and findings and results were only based on relevant facts. Record was kept throughout the entire process to ensure credibility of data and easy referencing. Member checking was done to contribute to the trustworthiness of the data.</p>

Source: Leedy & Ormrod (2005)

4.6 SUMMARY

This chapter provided a detailed description of the research design, the empirical model that was tested as well as the hypotheses. It also explained the rationale for adopting a mixed-method approach to the research. Finally, the measurement of the independent and dependent variables and the strategy of the statistical and qualitative data analysis were discussed. The next chapter, Chapter 5, provides a detailed analysis of the results obtained in the study.

CHAPTER 5: DATA ANALYSIS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 5 provides the results of the quantitative and qualitative data analysis, first by reporting on the quantitative results and then on the qualitative findings. Finally, in line with a mixed-method approach, the two analyses are combined to provide a consolidated picture of the findings relative to the key research questions.

The chapter firstly deals with the quantitative descriptive statistics, whereafter the explanatory results are covered in answering the following hypotheses:

- **Hypothesis 1:** *“A high-quality LMX relationship will be positively related to supervisory support for staff development.”*
- **Hypothesis 2:** *“A high-quality LMX relationship will be positively related to training opportunities initiated by CoDs.”*
- **Hypothesis 3a:** *“Academic position will moderate the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for staff development.”*
- **Hypothesis 3b:** *“Gender will moderate the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for staff development.”*
- **Hypothesis 3c:** *“Tenure will moderate the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for staff development.”*
- **Hypothesis 4:** *“Training and development opportunities initiated by CoDs will be positively related to supervisory support for staff development.”*
- **Hypothesis 5:** *“A high-quality LMX relationship will be positively related to perceived investment in employee development.”*

- **Hypothesis 6:** *“Supervisory support for development will be positively related to perceived investment in employee development.”*
- **Hypothesis 7:** *“Training and development opportunities initiated by CoDs will be positively related to perceived investment in employee development.”*
- **Hypothesis 8:** *“Training and development opportunities received from the institution will be positively related to perceived investment in employee development.”*
- **Hypothesis 9:** *“Supervisory support for development mediates the relationship between LMX and perceived investment in employee development.”*
- **Hypothesis 10:** *“Training and development opportunities initiated by CoDs mediate the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for development.”*
- **Hypothesis 11:** *“Training and development opportunities initiated by CoDs mediate the relationship between LMX and perceived investment in employee development.”*

To test these hypotheses, the data from the employee survey were subjected to a rigorous statistical analysis that included a factor analysis, correlation analysis, path analysis and hierarchical regression analysis. Path analysis allowed for an empirical test of the relationships among the variables. Moderating and mediating effects in the model were tested with hierarchical multiple regression.

After completion of the quantitative analysis, qualitative data was analysed. The qualitative analysis was based on a thorough and rigorous content analysis.

5.2 QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

5.2.1 Reliability and validity of quantitative measures

Table 5.1 provides a breakdown of the reliability indices of the three main measurements LMX, supervisory support for staff development, and PIED based on previous studies and the current study. Hinton (2004) point out that a Cronbach's alpha coefficient ($> 0,75$) is an indication of high reliability. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for all three measurements in this study were above 0,75. This reliability was consistent with the high reliability of the measures found in previous studies.

Table 5.1: Cronbach's alpha coefficient

Measurements	Previous studies	Current study
LMX -7	$\alpha = 0,92$ (Van Dam <i>et al.</i> , 2008)	$\alpha = 0,91$
Supervisory support for staff development	$\alpha = 0,90$ Maurer <i>et al.</i> , (2008)	$\alpha = 0,93$
Perceived investment in employee development (PIED)	$\alpha = 0,92$ and $\alpha = 0,85$ (Lee & Bruvold, 2003) $\alpha = 0,94$ (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2010:138)	$\alpha = 0,89$

5.2.2 Factor analysis

Since the scales had not been used previously in South Africa, a factor analysis was done to examine the factor structure and whether it was similar to that found in previous research. Although the existing measurements had been extensively used as single constructs in previous research it was important to conduct a factor analysis once again to determine the dimensionality of the scales and to see if the items were internally correlated.

A scree test was conducted to determine the number of factors for each scale (Costello & Osborne, 2005). The use of eigenvalues greater than 1,0 is generally

accepted to determine the number of factors that need to be retained (Velicer & Jackson, 1990).

Tables 5.2 to 5.4 provide the scree test results of each of the three questionnaires. In all three cases, only one factor was confirmed.

The results of the factor analysis confirmed that the three measures in the study (LMX, supervisory support for development and perceived investment in employee development) were separate, single constructs that measured what they were designed for. These results were also consistent with previous results where these measures were applied.

Table 5.2: Scree test for supervisory support for development (SSD)

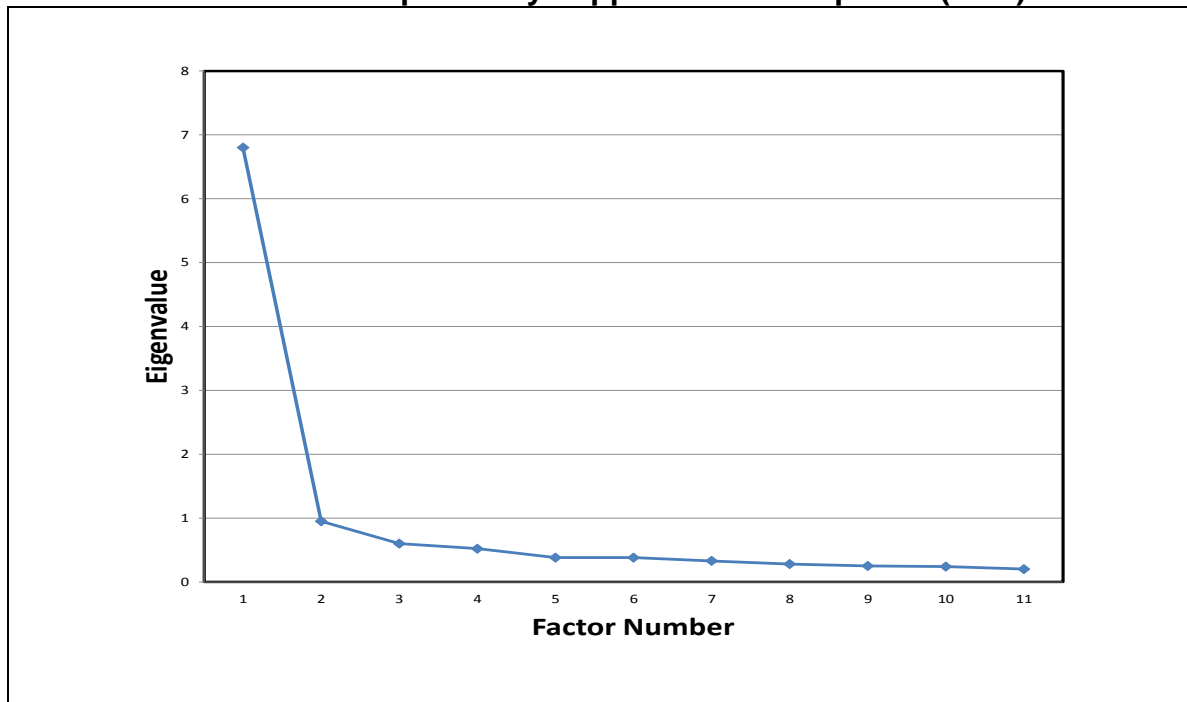


Table 5.3: Scree test for LMX

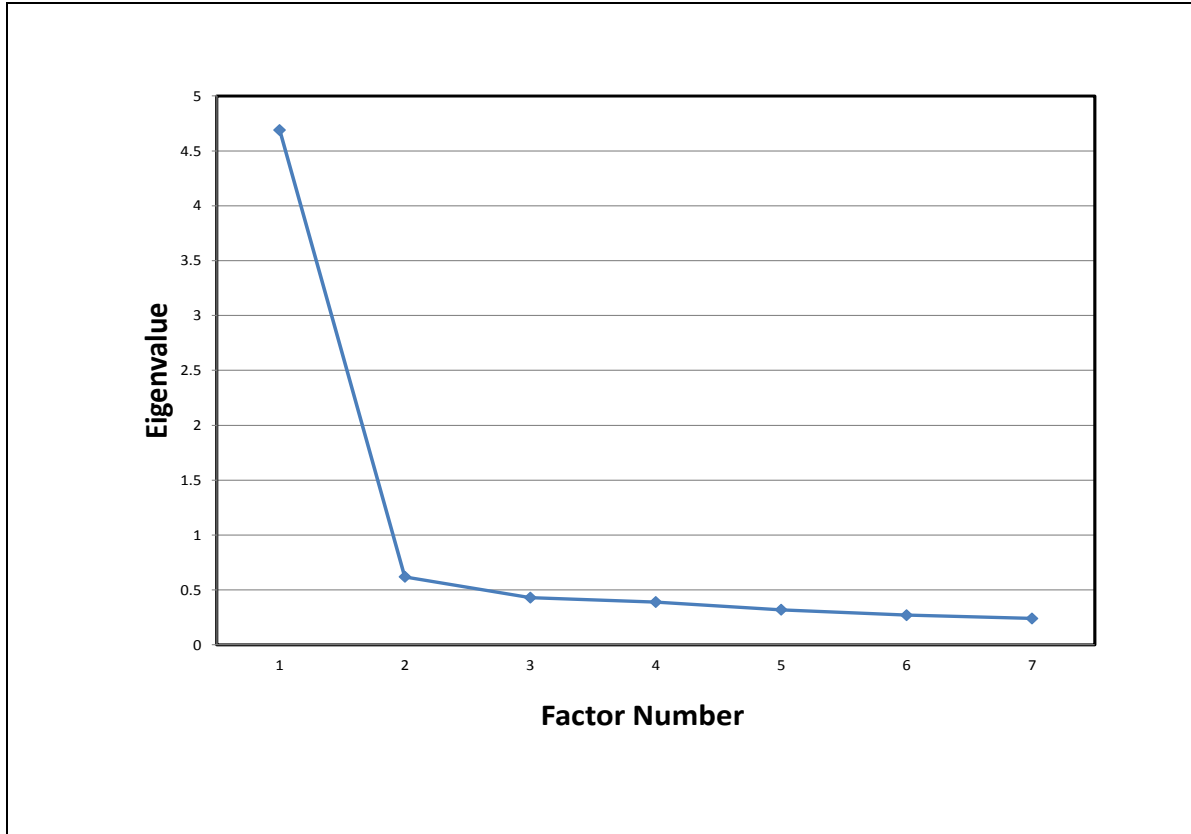
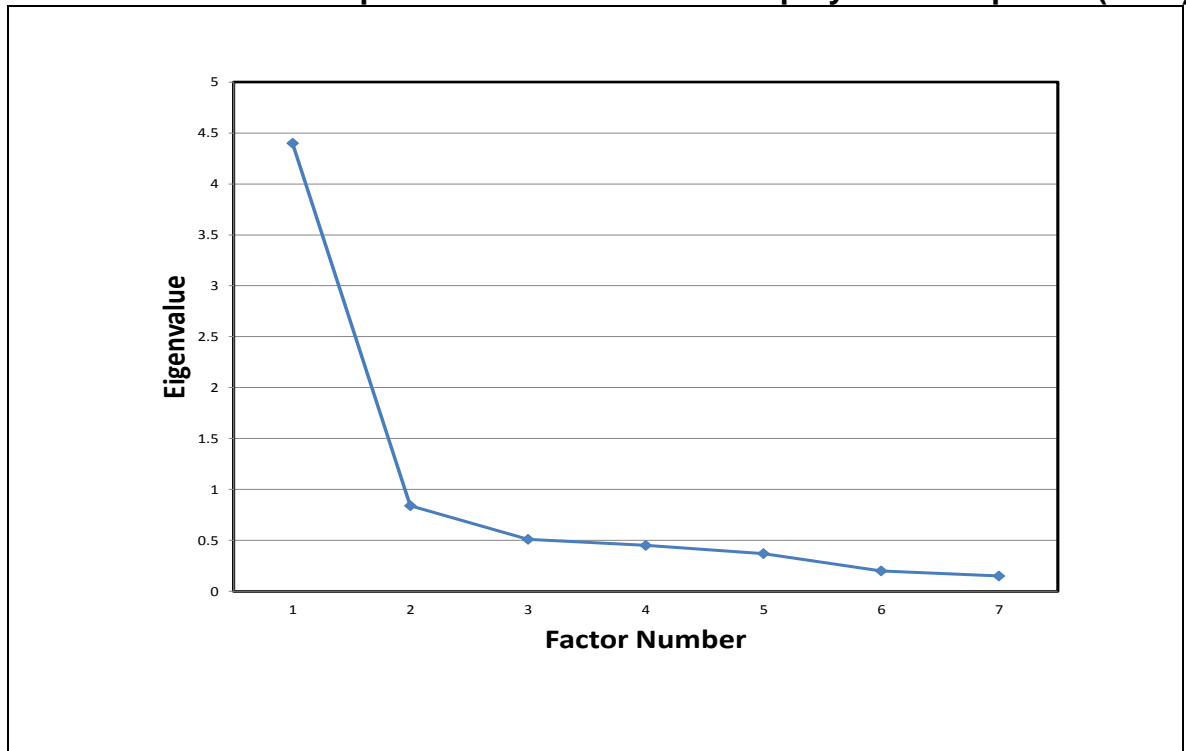


Table 5.4: Scree test for perceived investment in employee development (PIED)



Finally, the amount of variance explained for each factor is provided in Table 5.5. Out of the three instruments (questionnaires), the scale of supervisory support for development reflected the most variance, namely 6,4026. These results from the factor analysis indicated that all three instruments measured only one dominant construct each (unidimensional). The results suggested that the intercorrelation between items comprising each scale was likely due to the working of a single latent factor.

Table 5.5: Factor analysis – variance explained

	Eigenvalues	Variance explained	Cumulative on data space	Proportion of variance in factor space	Carmines Theta
LMX	1	4,3203	0,6179	1,0000	0,8966
Supervisory support for development	1	6,4026	0,5821	1,0000	0,9282
PIED	1	4,0518	0,5788	1,0000	0,8787

5.2.3 Correlation matrix

The results of the correlations of all the variables used in this study are provided in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6: Means, standard deviation and correlation among variables

VARIABLES	MEAN	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. LMX	3,58	0,87	-						
2. Supervisory support for staff dev	3,79	0,75	0,83***	-					
3. Period working under CoD	37,67	53,46	0,03	-0,03	-				
4. Training opportunity received from institution	4,72	3,07	0,08	0,14	-0,01	-			
5. Training opportunity initiated by CoD	1,35	1,70	0,35***	0,40***	-0,12	0,49***	-		
6. Perceived investment in employee dev	3,82	0,66	0,24***	0,37***	-0,05	0,08	0,19	-	
7. Size of department	35,1	19,38	-0,08	-0,06	0,03	-0,00	-,07	0,11	

*** $p < 0,0001$ – Significant

As the data in Table 5.6 indicates, different bi-variate correlations existed among certain variables. Firstly a strong positive correlation between LMX and supervisory support for development ($r = 0,83, p < 0,0001$) existed. Of further interest to this analysis is that LMX positively correlated with perceived investment in employee development but with a related low effect size ($r = 0,24, p < 0,05$). Of further relevance is that the significant positive correlation ($r = 0,49, p < 0,05$) between training and development opportunities initiated by CoDs and training and development opportunities received from the institution reflected a contradiction in that these two variables appeared to function totally independently. Two control variables (size of department and period working as CoD) had no meaningful correlation with either LMX or supervisory support for staff development.

Furthermore, LMX positively correlated with training and development opportunities initiated by CoDs at ($r = 0,35, p < 0,05$), and training and development opportunities initiated by CoDs also positively correlated with supervisory support for staff development ($r = 0,40, p < 0,05$). No significant correlation existed between training and development opportunities received from the institution and perceived investment in employee development, theorised as an organisation resource.

5.2.4 Path analysis

In order to test the hypotheses formulated in the study and to validate and confirm the theory-driven and hypothesised model (Chapter 3), path analysis was performed.

5.2.4.1 Validity of path analysis

Reliability of the underlying constructs is important to contribute to the validity of the final results of the structural model. The results of the Cronbach's Alphas in this study mitigated reliability concerns with the three latent measurements (LMX, $\alpha = 0,91$; supervisory support for staff development, $\alpha = 0,93$; and perceived investment in employee development, $\alpha = 0,89$) all providing high construct reliability. Since the measures of 'training and development opportunities initiated by CoDs and training and development opportunities received from the institution' constituted a single item, they were not considered as latent scales (variables), but rather as observed

variables in the structural model. Lastly, as mentioned previously, fit indices were used to determine if the tested model fitted the data that was analysed. These indices are reported under the heading results of path analysis (section 5.2.4.4).

5.2.4.2 Sample size for path analysis

When performing path analysis it is important to ensure a desired sample size. Bearden, Sharma and Teel (1982) and Bollen (1990) suggest that if variables are reliable, the model not overly complex and effects amongst variables strong, smaller sample sizes are suffice.

Important to consider when determining appropriate sample size is the use of parameter estimates. Although there is no exact rule, 10 cases for each estimated parameter (therefore a ratio of 10:1) seems to be acceptable practice (Klein & Kim, 1998). Table 5.7 provides the total number of parameter estimates used in the model. If the 10:1 ratio is applied, 180 cases are required for an adequate sample. This is far less than the sample size of 291 obtained for this study, which can, therefore, be regarded as a sufficient sample size to perform this analysis.

Table 5.7: Parameter estimates

	Weights	Covariances	Variances	Means	Intercepts	Total
Fixed	4	0	1	0	0	5
Labelled	0	0	0	0	0	0
Unlabelled	9	0	4	0	0	13
Total	13	0	5	0	0	18

Additional factors, according to Schreiber *et al.* (2006:334), that could also affect sample size are missing data and normality of data. Owing to the online methodology applied in this study there was no missing data. The questionnaire was constructed in such a way that the completion of all fields was compulsory. Therefore, no remedy or treatment was required to address this aspect. Sample sizes are also affected by normality of data, and sample size estimation must be adapted to cater for this variation. Normality was tested by performing a one-sample Chi-square and Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. The test indicated that data was not normally distributed (see Table 5.8).

Table 5.8: Skewness and kurtosis of variables

Variable	min	max	skew	c.r.	kurtosis	c.r.
lmx	1,000	5,000	-0,623	-4,339	-0,122	-0,425
q19a ¹²	0,000	25,000	2,398	16,702	9,958	34,676
q19b ¹³	0,000	10,000	1,660	11,557	3,343	11,642
Support	1,091	5,000	-1,000	-6,961	1,100	3,830
Invest	1,000	5,000	-1,135	-7,907	2,605	9,071
Multi-variate					23,662	24,123

Considering the results of non-normality, data was analysed using maximum likelihood (ML) estimation for the purpose of comparison instead of generalised least squares (GLS) (Velicer & Harlow, 1995; Olsson, Foss, Troye & Howell, 2000), and confidence intervals were estimated using the bootstrapping test. These approaches have been proved to react robustly to violations of normality and are generally endorsed by researchers (Hu & Bentler, 1995; Olsson *et al.*, 2000). Finch, West and MacKinnon (1997) support this view by indicating that parameter estimates are fairly robust when it comes to non-normality. In addition to these adjustment techniques, best practice also dictates the use of robust ML; however, AMOS (statistical analysis software) does not have the functionality to apply robust ML.

5.2.4.3 Goodness of fit of original path model

Goodness-of-fit indices are indicated in Table 5.9. As indicated in Chapter 4, fit indices reflect the degree of congruence between the theoretical model and the reproduced tested model (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1993; Kline, 2004). Fit indices used to test model fit include: normed fit index (NFI); incremental fit index (IFI); Tucker-Lewis coefficient (TLI); comparative fit index (CFI); and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) (see Chapter 4).

¹² q19a) – Training and development opportunities received from the institution

¹³ (q19b) – Training opportunities initiated by CoD

Table 5.9: Goodness-of-fit indices of original model

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/D
Default model	11	88,675	4	0,001	22,169
Saturated model	15	0,000	0		
Independence model	5	541,867	10	0,001	54,187

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	0,141	0,910	0,664	0,243
Saturated model	0,000	1,000		
Independence model	0,317	0,623	0,434	0,415

Model	DELTA1	RHO1	DELTA2	RHO2	CFI
	NFI	RFI	IFI	TLI	
Default model	0,836	0,591	0,843	0,602	0,841
Saturated model	1,000		1,000		1,000
Independence model	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	0,270	0,223	0,320	0,000
Saturated model	0,428	0,398	0,459	0,000

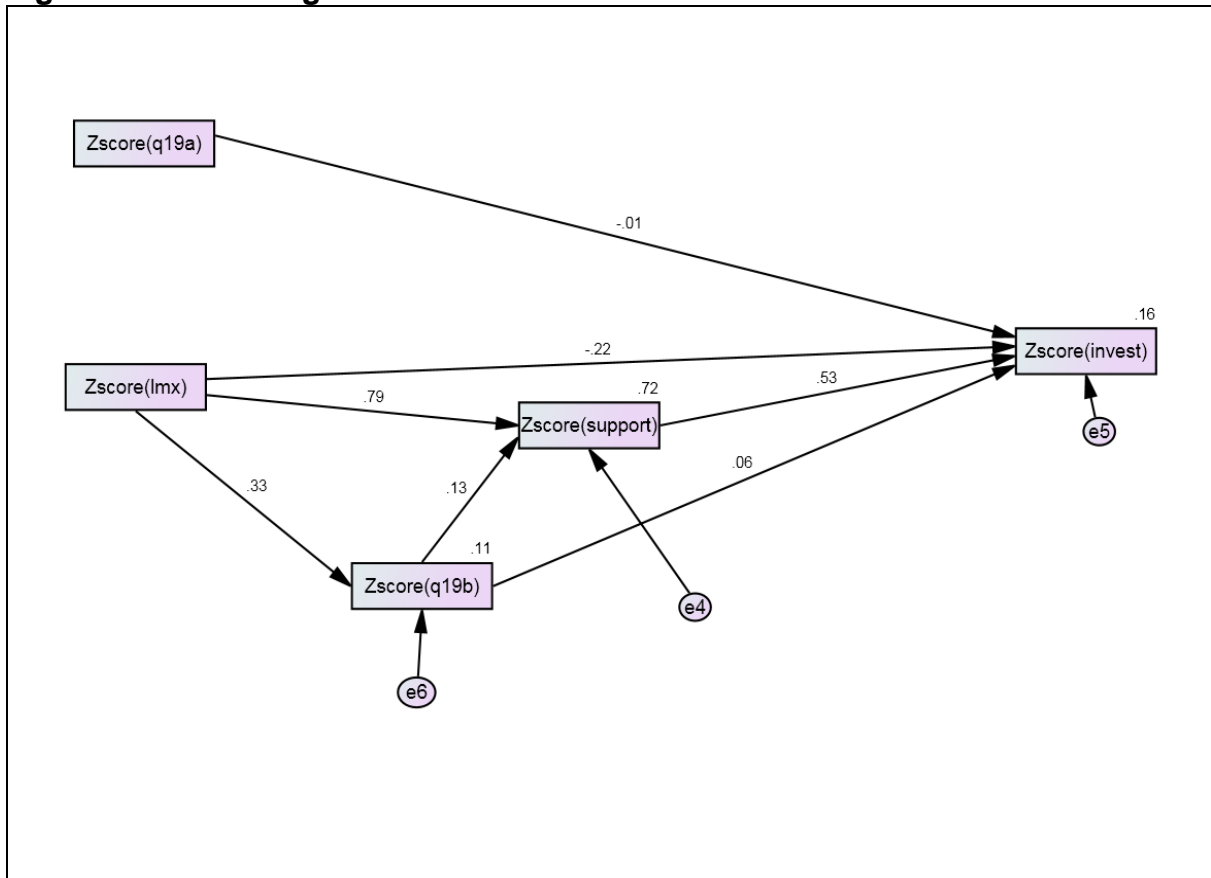
The results of the original structural model indicated fit indices of NFI = 0,836; IFI = 0,843; TLI = 0,602; CFI = 0,841; and RMSEA = 0,270. Therefore, based on the criteria outlined in Chapter 4 on methodology, the model did not seem to fit the data well.

5.2.4.4 Results of path diagram of original model

Figure 5.1 provides an illustration of model 1 (path diagram model) that was performed. The path diagram model was based on the hypothesised model according to which LMX, supervisory support for staff development (support), training and development opportunities received from the institution (19a), training and development opportunities initiated by the CoD (19b) and perceived investment in

employee development (invest) served as observed and latent variables. To create standardised scores from the different measures, all the items of the above-mentioned measurements were collapsed into composites and then transformed into z scores¹⁴. This assisted with comparisons of different data. All the linear relationships as hypothesised in the model were included.

Figure 5.1: Path diagram model¹⁵



In Figure 5.1, the following dependent variables were regressed on LMX in the model:

- Supervisory support for staff development (support)

¹⁴ $Z = \frac{X - \mu}{s}$ (X is the score, μ is the means, and S is the standard deviation).

¹⁵ (q19a) – Training and development opportunities received from the institution
(q19b) – Training opportunities initiated by CoD
(support) – Supervisory support for staff development
(invest) – Perceived investment in employee development

- Perceived investment in employee development (invest)
- Training opportunities initiated by CoD (q19b)

Perceived investment in employee development (endogenous, dependent variables) was only regressed with training and development opportunities received from the institution (q19a), an exogenous, observed variable serving as an organisation resource.

The individual regression weights and p values of the respective paths between variables are provided in Table 5.10. The p values indicate the significance of relationships. According to Table 5.10, at least five standardised regression paths (1, 2, 3, 4 and 6) were statistically significant and meaningful. Parameter estimates were used for each element in the model, and tested estimates indicated effect sizes (standardised regression weights/coefficients) between all the variables in the model.

Table 5.10: Model 1 – path coefficients with standard errors

No.	Variables			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
1	q19b ¹⁶	< ---	LMX	0,354	0,059	6,011	***
2	support	< ---	LMX	0,795	0,033	24,098	***
3	support	< ---	q19b	0,127	0,031	4,088	***
4	invest	< ---	support	0,534	0,102	5,233	***
5	invest	< ---	q19b	0,060	0,055	1,087	0,277
6	invest	< ---	LMX	-0,223	0,099	-2,244	0,025**
7	invest	< ---	q19a ¹⁷	-0,008	0,054	-0,145	0,885

*** $p < 0,0001$ significant –** $p < 0,05$ significant

¹⁶ Training and development opportunities initiated by CoD

¹⁷ Training and development opportunities received from the institution

The results concerning the path diagram provided empirical evidence to support or reject the hypothesis of the theorised model. A relatively strong, positive and statistically significant relationship¹⁸ ($\beta = 0,794$; ($p < 0,0001$)) existed between LMX and supervisory support for staff development, which supported hypothesis 1. In accordance with hypothesis 5, a moderately strong, statistically significant relationship existed between LMX and employees' perception of investment in their development ($\beta = -2,22$, ($p < 0,05$)); however, this relationship was shown to be negative. This indicates that LMX plays an important role in employees' perception of investment in their development, but only if this happens through receiving supervisory support for staff development, contrary to the initial theorising. Therefore, hypothesis 5 was rejected. Furthermore, a relatively strong and positive, statistically significant relationship existed between LMX and the amount of training and development opportunities initiated by CoDs ($\beta = 0,333$, ($p < 0,0001$)), confirming hypothesis 2. In terms of supervisory support for development, the results indicated a relatively strong and positive, statistically significant relationship ($\beta = 0,534$, ($p < 0,0001$)) between supervisory support for development and perceived investment in employee development, which supported hypothesis 6.

A relatively strong and positive, statistically significant relationship ($\beta = 0,135$, ($p < 0,0001$)) existed between training and development opportunities initiated by CoDs and supervisory support for staff development. Therefore, hypothesis 4 was confirmed. No statistically significant relationship was found between training and development opportunities initiated by CoDs and perceived investment in employee development, therefore, hypothesis 7 was rejected. Training opportunities received from the institution as an organisation resource had no direct effect on perceived investment in employee development, therefore hypothesis 8 had to be rejected.

The results of this analysis provided overall support that LMX and supervisory support for staff development were positively related. Secondly, the quality of LMX relationships and training opportunities initiated by CoDs were positively related

¹⁸ Significance implies the relationship may be strong (that is there is little probability that the result arose per chance only) but re effect size may still be small.

whilst training opportunities initiated by CoDs and supervisory support for staff development were also positively related.

With respect to LMX and employees' perceptions of investment in their development, the quality of the relationship between the CoD and his or her staff was negatively related to the staff's overall perceptions of investment in their development. It was, however, noticeable that this relationship changed (turned positive) if facilitated through a process of supervisory support for development. Thus, this notion also implies that an unknown aspect of LMX has a negative impact on PIED in the presence of supervisory support. It was also important to note that employees' perceptions of investment in their development did not change when employees initiated their own training (training and development opportunities received from the institution) or when training and development was initiated by their CoDs only.

5.2.5 Post-hoc model

Finally, a second, alternative post-hoc model was introduced. Due to the mediocre fit of the original theoretical model, an adjustment was made to the original model. During the process of fitting the original a priori model, it became apparent that a key linkage had been overlooked in the theorising phase. This linkage was between the positive relationship between training opportunities initiated by the CoD (19b) and the training opportunities received from the institution (19a). An adjustment to the model was made by treating both these variables as two dependent mechanisms, subsuming covariance rather than treating them as separate entities. However, this did not change the fundamental theorising underlying the model. Although I did not initially theorise that the amount of training and development opportunities received from the institution (19a) could also be shaped by the amount of training and development opportunities initiated by the CoD (19b), the modification indices indicated a significant improvement in fit if this path was freely estimated. Therefore, it made theoretical sense to include this path in the model. One reason for this inclusion was that both these measurements had been constructed to reflect on training and development opportunities received. Although it was initially intended to distinguish between these two measurements it was likely that they would impact on one another. Furthermore, the number of training and development opportunities

members received from their CoD could also impact on the total amount of training and development opportunities the member perceived the institution to provide. This could be ascribed to the CoD's involvement in the whole process of training and development.

The modification indices between 19a and 19b and the parameter change of an additional path between these variables are indicated in Table 5.11. No outliers in the first analysis were removed and the sample size was the same for both the original and post-hoc models. In addition, no variables and factors were added or omitted in this second constructed post-hoc model (Quintana & Maxwell, 1999).

Table 5.11: Post-hoc model modification indices – standardised regression weights

	Path		Modification indices	Par change
Zq19a	< ---	q19b	62,78	0,466

5.2.5.1 Goodness-of-fit indices of post-hoc model

Goodness-of-fit indices for the post-hoc model are indicated in Table 5.12.

Table 5.12: Goodness-of-fit indices – post-hoc model

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/D
Default model	12	6,792	3	0,079	2,264
Saturated model	15	0,000	0		
Independence model	5	541,867	10	0,001	54,187

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	0,48	0,991	0,953	0,198
Saturated model	0,000	1,000		
Independence model	0,317	0,623	0,434	0,415

Model	DELTA1	RHO1	DELTA2	RHO2	
	NFI	RFI	IFI	TLI	CFI
Default model	0,987	0,958	0,993	0,976	0,993
Saturated model	1,000		1,000		1,000
Independence model	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000

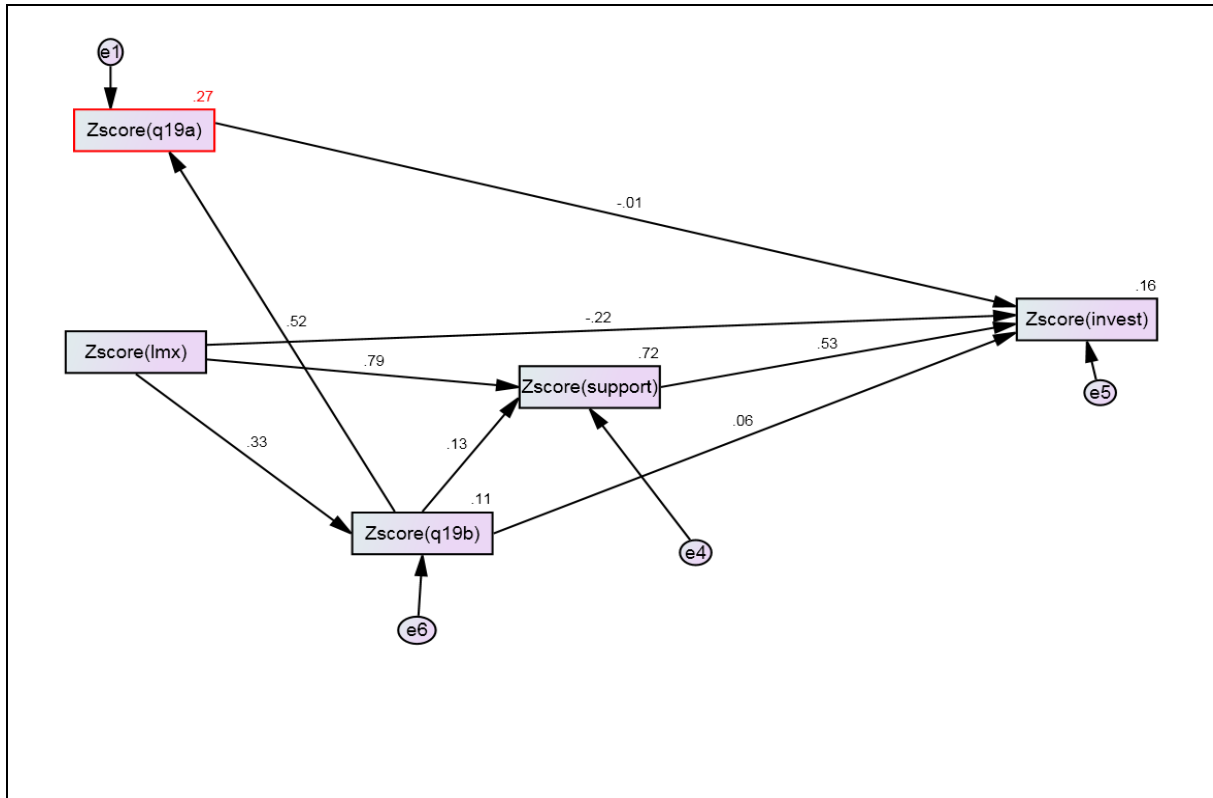
Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	0,066	0,000	0,133	0,272
Saturated model	0,428	0,398	0,459	0,000

The results of the post-hoc model indicated fit indices of NFI = 0,987; IFI = 0,993; TLI = 0,976; CFI = 0,993; and RMSEA = 0,066, compared to the results of the original structural model with fit indices of NFI = 0,836; IFI = 0,843; TLI = 0,602; CFI = 0,841; and RMSEA = 0,270. The post-hoc model, therefore, provided much better goodness-of-fit indices and strong evidence of statistical and practical significance¹⁹.

¹⁹ Values of 0,95 or above on the CFI yields strong evidence of practical significance (Atwater & Carmeli, 2009:269)

A diagram of the post-hoc model is depicted in Figure 5.2. This diagram model indicates training opportunities initiated by CoDs (q19b) and training opportunities received from the institution (q19a) as the only additional path.

Figure 5.2: Post-hoc diagram model



The individual regression weights and p values of the respective paths between the variables of the post-hoc model are provided in Table 5.13. Based on these p values, significant relationships existed for five paths at a confidence level of $p < 0,0001$, and for one path at a confidence level of $p < 0,05$, implying an additional path (19a to 19b) in the post-hoc model, which was significant.

Table 5.13: Model 2 – path coefficients with standard errors

No.	Variables			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
1	q19b	< ---	LMX	0,354	0,059	6,011	***
2	support	< ---	LMX	0,795	0,033	24,098	***
3	support	< ---	q19b	0,127	0,031	4,088	***
4	invest	< ---	support	0,534	0,102	5,233	***
5	q19a	< ---	q19b	0,496	0,048	10,333	***
6	invest	< ---	q19b	0,060	0,063	0,950	0,342
7	invest	< ---	LMX	-0,223	0,099	-2,244	0,025**
8	invest	< ---	q19a	-0,008	0,062	-0,126	0,900

*** $p < 0,0001$ significant; ** $p < 0,05$ significant

Compared to the original model, tested estimates for all the paths in the post-hoc model did not change. The only change was the additional path beta weight of $\beta = 496$, at ($p < 0,0001$) indicating a strong, positive, significant relationship between training opportunities received from the institution (19a) and training and development opportunities initiated by the CoD (19b).

5.2.6 Moderation

In order to understand the strong statistical relationship between LMX and supervisory support for staff development and to answer hypothesis 3 it was important to establish if certain variables in the model moderated the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for staff development. Of specific interest was to determine if academic position, gender and tenure would modify the strength of this relationship, which was referred to in hypothesis 3, namely:

- **Hypothesis 3a:** “Academic position will moderate the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for staff development.”

- **Hypothesis 3b:** *“Gender will moderate the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for staff development.”*
- **Hypothesis 3c:** *“Tenure will moderate the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for staff development.”*

Testing these hypotheses would assist in understanding the support that CoDs provide for follower development as indicated in the literature review (Chapter 2). With this in mind, a moderated regression analysis was done. Wu and Zumbo (2008:369) define a moderator as a third variable that modifies the strength of direction (i.e. positive or negative) of an existing relationship between two variables, in this case LMX and supervisory support for development.

In the first instance, the moderating effect of position on the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for development was determined. In tables 5.14 to 5.17 a junior lecturer was coded as position 1, a lecturer as position 2, a senior lecturer as position 3 and a professor and associate professor as position 4. In step 1, LMX and position were entered, and in step 2, the interaction effect was introduced. Interaction was calculated by multiplying the position by CLMX. CLMX, which was the centered score for LMX, was calculated by subtracting the mean from each score. In all four moderating models, LMX was centered, and supervisory support for development served as a dependent variable.

In Table 5.14, position 1 (junior lecturer) was introduced as a moderator. The moderating effect between LMX and supervisory support for development was significant at $\beta = 0,039$ ($p < 0,05$). This indicated that the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for development was moderated by position 1 (junior lecturer).

In Table 5.15, position 2 (lecturer) was introduced as a moderator. The moderating effect was not significant at a 0,655 level, indicating that the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for development was not moderated by position 2 (lecturer).

In Table 5.16, position 3 (senior lecturer) was introduced as a moderator. The moderating effect was not significant at a level of 0,970. Once again it could be concluded that the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for development was not moderated by position 3 (senior lecturer).

In Table 5.17, position 4 (associate professor and professor) was introduced as a moderator. The moderating effect was not significant at a 0,258 level. Finally, the results confirmed that the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for development was not moderated by position 4 (associate professor and professor).

Table 5.14: Moderator position 1

Variables	<u>Support for development</u>	
	Step 1 β	Step 2 β
CLMX	0,840	0,809
Position 1 and 2, 3, 4	0,57	0,058
Interaction: position 1 x CLMX		0,073
R^2	0,709	0,713
Sig <i>f</i> change	0,000	0,039

Table 5.15: Moderator position 2

Variables	<u>Support for development</u>	
	Step 1 β	Step 2 β
CLMX	0,845	0,854
Position 2 and 1, 3, 4	0,50	0,049
Interaction: position 2 x CLMX		-0,017
R^2	0,708	0,708
Sig <i>f</i> change	0,000	0,655

Table 5.16: Moderator position 3

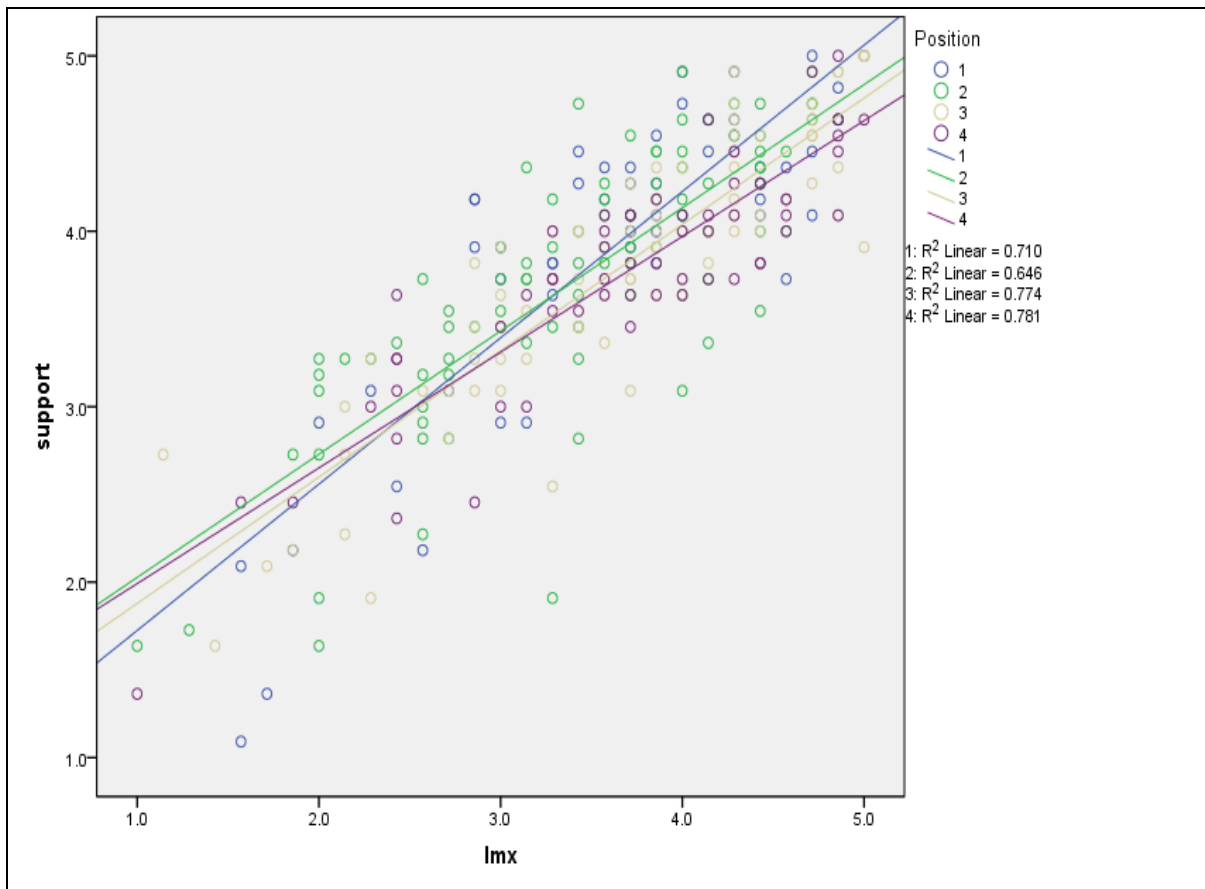
Variables	Support for development	
	Step 1 β	Step 2 β
CLMX	0,842	0,842
Position 3 and 1, 2, 4	-0,042	-0,042
Interaction: position 3 x CLMX		0,001
R^2	0,707	0,707
Sig <i>f</i> change	0,000	0,970

Table 5.17: Moderator position 4

Variables	Support for development	
	Step 1 β	Step 2 β
CLMX	0,843	0,862
Position 4 and 1, 2, 3	-0,066	-0,064
Interaction: position 4 x CLMX		-0,041
R^2	0,710	0,711
Sig <i>f</i> change	0,000	0,258

This moderation of position is also graphically illustrated in Figure 5.3 in which the slope of the regression line (position 1) is indicated as statistically significant ($p < 0,05$) in relation to the other positions.

Figure 5.3: Moderation (position) graphic illustration



Therefore, partial support for hypothesis 3a was found, namely that academic position on a *junior level* moderated the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for staff development. The conclusion was reached that junior lecturers experienced lower levels of support compared to other positions but that they experienced more support than the other positions when LMX levels were higher.

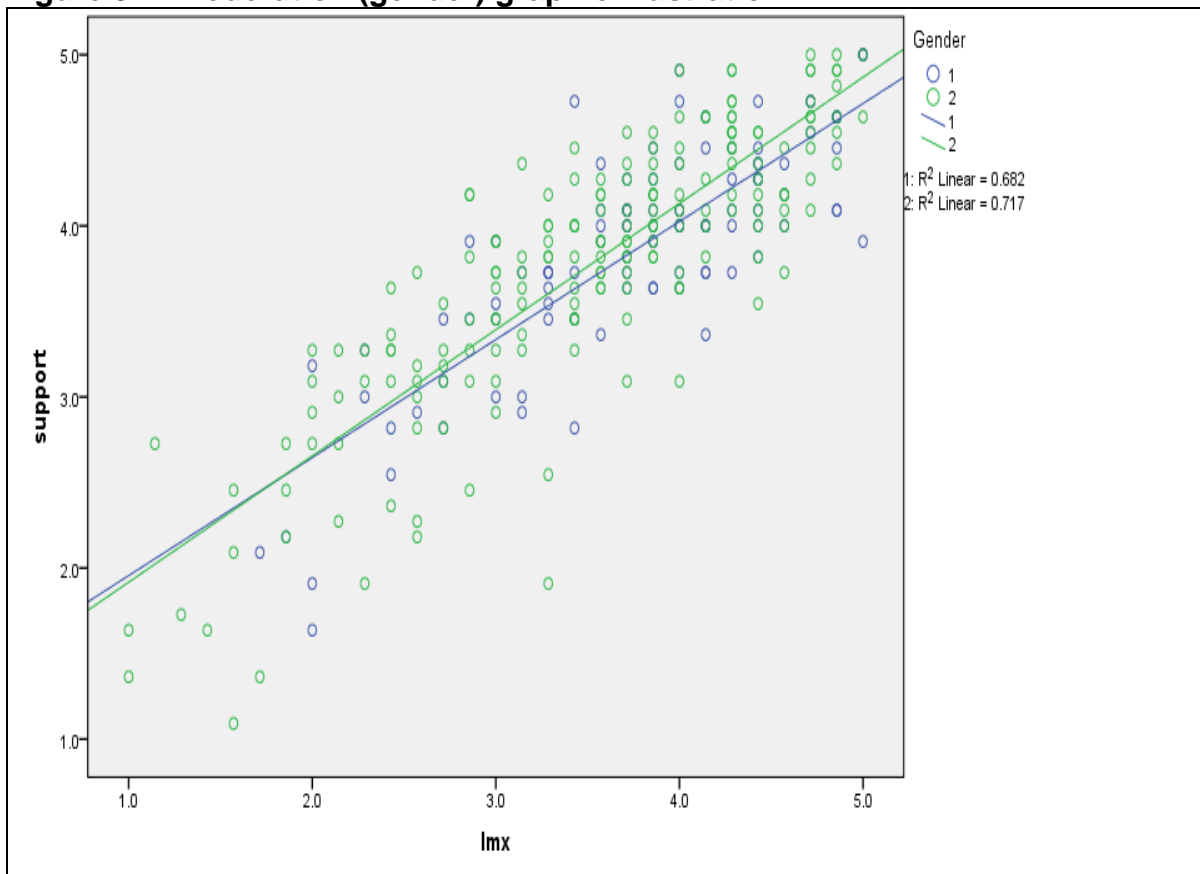
Secondly, it was important to determine if academic staff's gender orientation moderated the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for development. The same procedure of moderation was applied as in the case of position. Male was coded as gender 1 and female as gender 2 (see Table 5.18). The moderating effect was not significant at a level of 0,430. The results suggested that the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for development was not moderated by gender.

Table 5.18: Moderator gender

Variables	Support for development	
	Step 1 β	Step 2 β
CLMX	0,849	0,809
Gender 1, 2	0,058	0,055
Interaction: gender 1, 2 xCLMX		0,047
R^2	0,707	0,706
Sig f change	0,000	0,430

Moderation of gender is graphically illustrated in Figure 5.4 in which the slope of regression line 1 (male) is indicated as not statistically significant from line 2 (female).

Figure 5.4: Moderation (gender) graphic illustration



Therefore, no support for hypothesis 3b was found, namely that gender moderated the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for staff development. The conclusion was reached that academics of different gender orientations did not

experience different levels of supervisory support for development based on the quality of the LMX relationship.

Lastly, it was important to determine if the period working for a CoD (tenure) moderated the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for development. Again, the same procedure was applied as in the case of position and gender. A period of 0 to 12 months was coded as period 1, a period of 13 to 24 months was coded as period 2, and a period of 25 months and more was coded as period 3. The moderation results of period are depicted in tables 5.19 to 5.21.

In Table 5.19, period 1 (0 to 12 months) was introduced as a moderator. The moderating effect between LMX and supervisory support for development was significant at $\beta = 0,032$ ($p < 0,05$). This indicated that the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for development was moderated by period 1 (0 to 12 months).

In Table 5.20, period 2 (13 to 24 months) was introduced as a moderator. The moderating effect was not significant at a level of 0,153, indicating that the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for development was not moderated by period 2 (13 to 24 months).

In Table 5.21, period 3 (25 months and more) was introduced as a moderator. The moderating effect was significant at 0,003, indicating that the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for development was moderated by period 3 (25 months and more).

Table 5.19: Moderator period 1

Variables	<u>Support for development</u>	
	Step 1	Step 2
	β	B
CLMX	0,839	0,878
Period 1 and 2, 3	0,49	0,051
Interaction: period 1 x CLMX		-0,079
R^2	0,708	0,712
Sig <i>f</i> change	0,000	0,032

Table 5.20: Moderator period 2

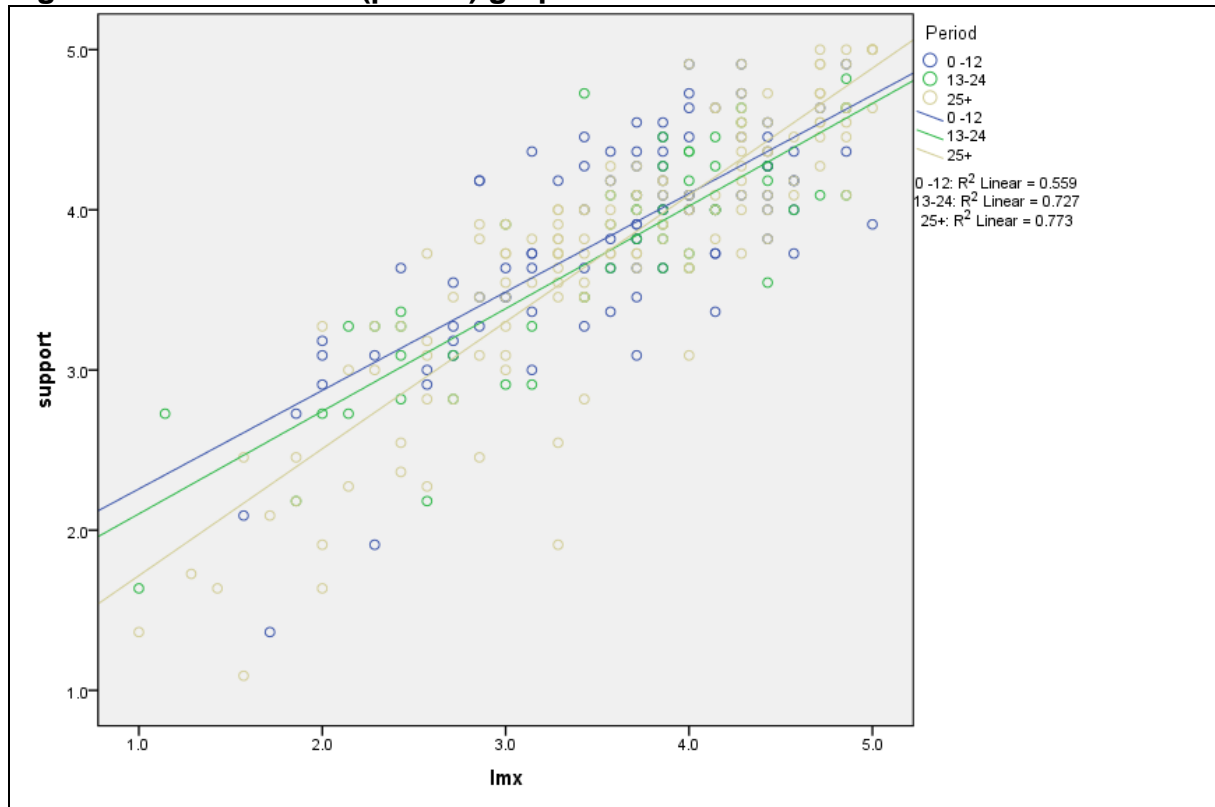
Variables	<u>Support for development</u>	
	Step 1	Step 2
	β	B
CLMX	0,839	0,863
Period 2 and 1, 3	-0,017	0,051
Interaction: period 2 x CLMX		-0,052
R^2	0,706	0,708
Sig <i>f</i> change	0,000	0,153

Table 5.21: Moderator period 3

Variables	<u>Support for development</u>	
	Step 1	Step 2
	β	B
CLMX	0,840	0,738
Position 3 and 1, 2	-0,033	-0,033
Interaction: position 3 x CLMX		0,140
R^2	0,704	0,712
Sig <i>f</i> change	0,000	0,003

Moderation of period is graphically illustrated in Figure 5.5 in which the slope of the regression lines (period 1) and (period 3) was indicated as statistically significant ($p < 0,05$) in relation to the other periods.

Figure 5.5: Moderation (period) graphic illustration



Therefore, partial support for hypothesis 3c was found, namely that academic tenure (period) moderated the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for staff development. The conclusion was reached that at high levels of LMX employees with shorter tenures experienced higher degrees of support compared to those with longer tenures, but that at low levels of LMX they experienced less support compared to the other tenure groups. This tendency also applied to staff members who had much longer tenures.

The above-mentioned moderating results provided a clearer understanding of the relationship between LMX, supervisory support for staff development and perceived investment in employee development in terms of exploring and answering hypothesis 3. The results obtained proved to be highly relevant in understanding and establishing the differences in the needs and expectations of staff at different levels as far as their development was concerned.

5.2.7 Mediation

Three potentially different mediation relationships were tested. All three these hypothesised relationships (see below) were intended to provide more clarity on the theorised relationship resources in the hypothesised model.

- **Hypothesis 9:** *“Supervisory support for development mediates the relationship between LMX and perceived investment in employee development.”*
- **Hypothesis 10:** *“Training and development opportunities initiated by CoDs mediate the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for development.”*
- **Hypothesis 11:** *“Training and development opportunities initiated by CoDs mediate the relationship between LMX and perceived investment in employee development.”*

Wu and Zumbo (2007:367) define mediation as a theory for redefining and creating a deeper understanding of a causal relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable. Muller, Judd and Yzerbyt (2005:852) point out that a mediational analysis attempts to “identify the intermediary process that leads from the independent variable to the dependent variable”. By implication a third variable is linked to an existing relationship between two variables.

Baron and Kenny (1986:1180) suggest that, in order to prove any form of mediation, mediation must meet three basic conditions: (1) establishing a significant relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variable; (2) establishing a significant relationship between the mediator and the independent variable; and (3) showing that the significant relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variable becomes non-significant or weaker, when there is correction for the mediator.

For all three mediation tests standardised scores were used.

5.2.7.1 Mediation test 1

To determine if supervisory support for development mediated the relationship between LMX and perceived investment in employee development, model 1 was performed to determine if a relationship existed between PIED (dependent variable) and LMX (independent variable). This relationship is depicted in Figure 5.6.

Figure 5.6: Mediation test 1 – model 1

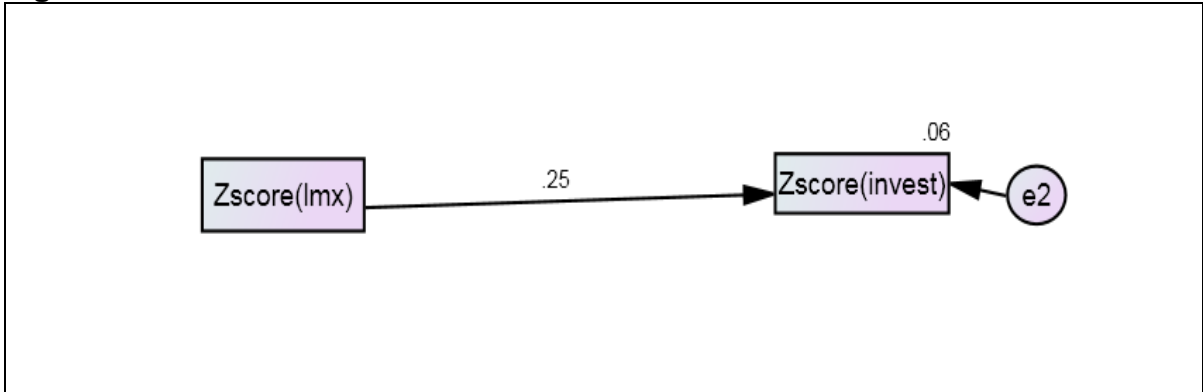
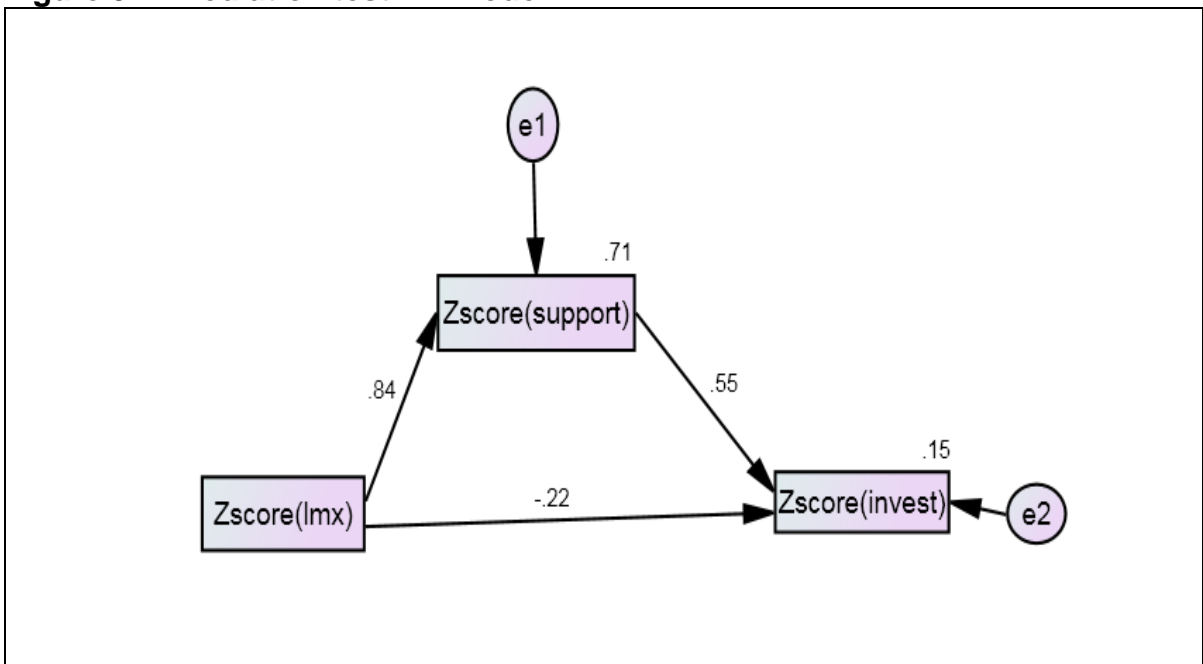


Figure 5.7 provides a schematic diagram of the mediation effect (model 2) that was tested.

Figure 5.7: Mediation test 1 – model 2



The results of the mediation effect are provided in Table 5.22:

Table 5.22: Mediation test 1 results

Variables		β	S.E.	P	R	Indirect effect			
						R^2	β	P	
Model 1									
ZInvest	< ---	ZLMX	0,246	0,057	0,000 *	0,2470	0,061		
Model 2									
ZSupport	< ---	ZLMX	0,840	0,32	0,000 *	0,840	0,705		
ZInvest	< ---	ZSupport	0,555	0,1	0,000 *				
ZInvest	< ---	ZLMX	-0,219	0,1	0,008 *				
ZInvest	< ---	ZSupport	< ---	ZLMX		<u>0,389²⁰</u>	0,151	0,466	0,008*

²⁰0,389 – The square root of R^2

The results in Table 5.22 provide evidence of mediation. Model 1 (step 1) tested the direct effect between LMX and perceived investment in employee development (PIED) without any mediation. The results of model 1 indicated that there was a statistically significant relationship between LMX and perceived investment in employee development (PIED) at $\beta = 0,246$, ($p < 0,0001$). The results of model 2 (step 2) indicated the existence of a significant relationship between LMX and the mediator (supervisory support for staff development) at $\beta = 0,840$, ($p < 0,05$). The mediator was also a significant predictor of (PIED), whilst controlling for LMX. The direct effect between LMX and PIED changed negatively at $\beta = -0,219$, ($p < 0,05$) when controlling for the effect of the mediator (supervisory support for staff development). Once again as indicated in the path analysis results, this result also tends to indicate that an unknown aspect of LMX has a negative impact on PIED in the presence of supervisory support. Step 3 included the total effect (including the direct and indirect effect) of this mediation at $\beta = 0,466$, ($p < 0,05$).

Based on the above analysis the magnitude of the direct relationship between LMX and PIED changed with the inclusion of supervisory support for staff development as a mediator. Therefore, some of the variance of PIED could be explained by the mediating relationship of LMX via supervisory support for staff development.

The conclusion was reached that mediation test 1 provided support for hypothesis 9, namely that supervisory support for staff development partially mediated the relationship between LMX and perceived investment in employee development.

5.2.7.2 Mediation test 2

To determine if training and development opportunities initiated by CoDs (19b) mediated the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for development, model 1 was performed to determine if a relationship existed between supervisory support for development (dependent variable) and LMX (independent variable). This relationship is depicted in Figure 5.8.

Figure 5.8: Mediation test 2 – model 1

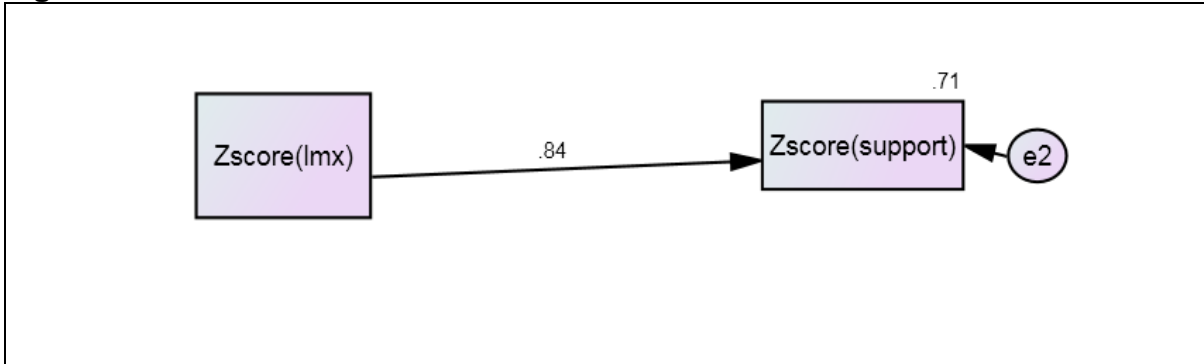
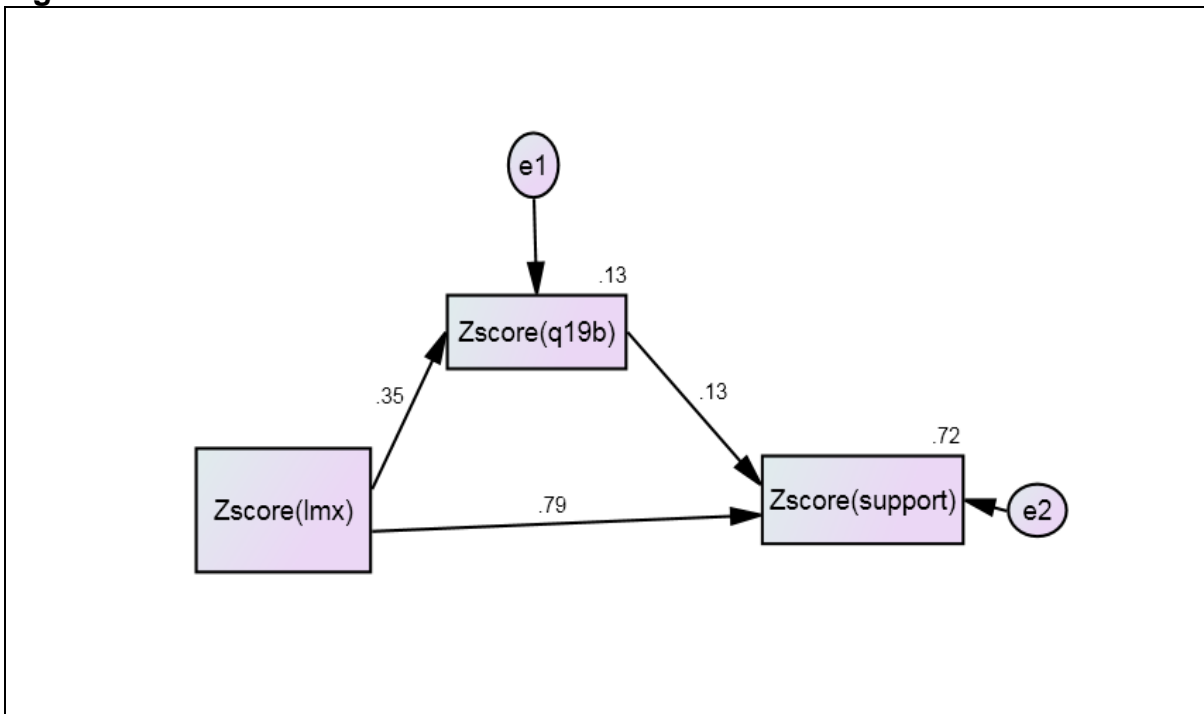


Figure 5.9 provides a schematic diagram of the mediation effect (model 2) that was tested.

Figure 5.9: Mediation test 2 – model 2



The results of the mediation effect are provided in Table 5.23.

Table 5.23: Mediation test 2 results

							Indirect effect		
Variables		β	S.E.	P	R	R^2	β	P	
Model 1									
ZSupport	< ---	ZLMX	0,840	0,032	0,000*	0,8396	0,705		
Model 2									
Z19b	< ---	ZLMX	0,354	,055	0,000*	0,3535	0,125		
ZSupport	< ---	Z19b	0,127	,033	0,000*				
ZSupport	< ---	ZLMX	0,795	,033	0,000*				
ZSupport	< ---	Z19b	< ---	ZLMX		<u>0,847²¹</u>	0,719	0,045	0,005*

²¹ 0,847 – The square root of R^2

The results obtained from Table 5.23 provided evidence of mediation. Model 1 (step 1) tested the direct effect between LMX and supervisory support for staff development without any mediation. The results of model 1 indicated that there was a statistically significant relationship between LMX and supervisory support for staff development at $\beta = 0,840$ ($p < 0,0001$). The results of model 2 (step 2) indicated the existence of a significant relationship between LMX and the mediator (training opportunities initiated by CoD (19b)) at $\beta = 0,354$ ($p < 0,0001$). The mediator was also a significant predictor of supervisory support for staff development, whilst controlling for LMX. The direct effect between LMX and supervisory support for staff development was changed at $\beta = 0,795$ ($p < 0,0001$) when controlling for the effect of the mediator (training opportunities initiated by CoD (19b)). Step 3 included the total effect (direct and indirect effect) of this mediation at $\beta = 0,045$ ($p < 0,05$).

Based on the above analysis the magnitude of the direct relationship between LMX and supervisory support for staff development changed with the inclusion of training opportunities initiated by CoD (19b) as mediator. Therefore, some of the variance of supervisory support for staff development could be partly explained by the mediating relationship of LMX via training opportunities initiated by the CoD (19b).

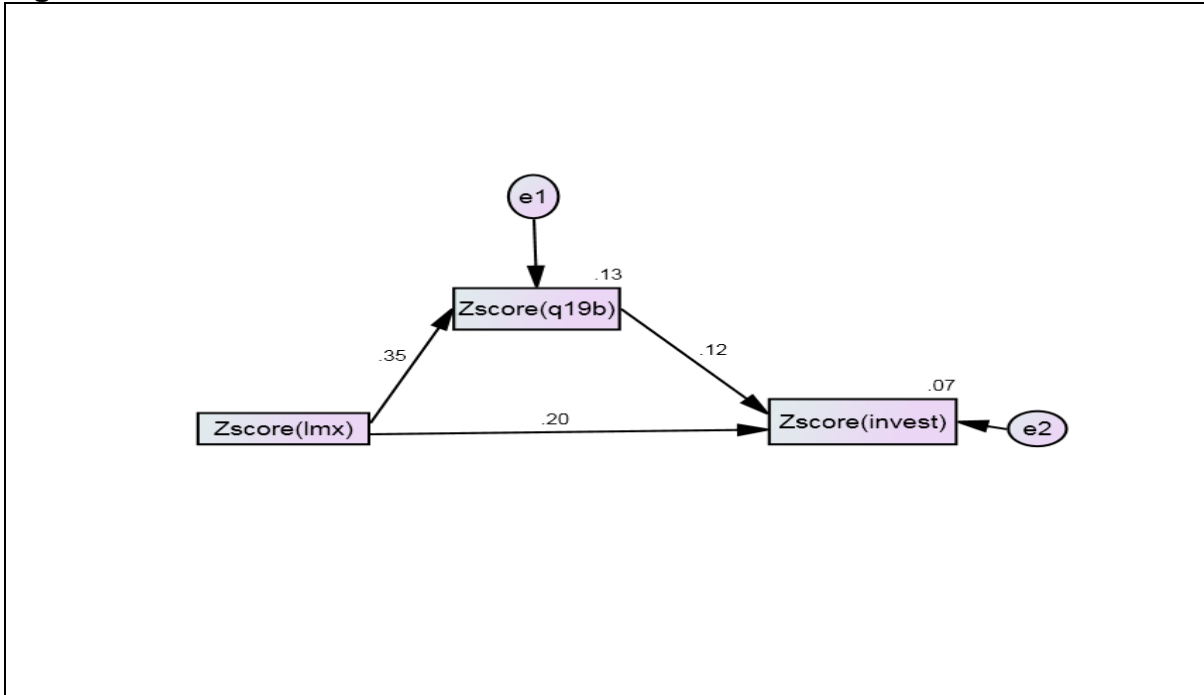
It was concluded that the results of this mediation test provided support for hypothesis 10, namely, “Training and development opportunities initiated by CoDs partially mediate the relationship between LMX and supervisory support for development”.

5.2.7.3 Mediation test 3

Model 1 (step 1) for mediation test 3 was exactly the same as model 1 (step 1) for mediation test 1 (Figure 5.6) and was therefore not repeated to determine if training opportunities initiated by CoDs (19b) mediated the relationship between LMX and perceived investment in employee development.

Figure 5.10 provides a schematic diagram of the mediation effect (model 2) that was tested.

Figure 5.10: Mediation test 3 – model 2



The results of the mediation effect are provided in Table 5.24.

Table 5.24: Mediation test 3 results

						Indirect effect		
Variables		β	S.E.	P	R	R^2	β	P
Model 1								
ZInvest	< --- ZLMX	0,246	0,057	0,000*	0,2470	0,061		
Model 2								
Z19b	< --- ZLMX	0,354	0,055	0,000*	0,3535	0,125		
ZInvest	< --- Z19b	0,124	0,060	0,040*				
ZInvest	< --- ZLMX	0,203	0,060	0,000*				
ZInvest	< --- Z19b	< ---	ZLMX		<u>0,2720²²</u>	0,074	0,044	0,014*

²² 0,2720 – The square root of R^2

The results obtained from Table 5.24 provided evidence of mediation. Model 1 (step 1) tested the direct effect between LMX and PIED without any mediation. The results of this model indicated that there was a statistically significant relationship between LMX and PIED at $\beta = 0,246$ ($p < 0,0001$). The results of model 2 (step 2) indicated the existence of a significant relationship between LMX and the mediator (training opportunities initiated by the CoD (19b)) at $\beta = 0,354$ ($p < 0,0001$). The mediator was also a significant predictor of PIED, whilst controlling for LMX. The direct effect between LMX and PIED was also changed at $\beta = 0,203$ ($p < 0,0001$) when controlling for the effect of the mediator (training opportunities initiated by the CoD (19b)). Step 3 included the total effect (direct and indirect effect) of this mediation at $\beta = 0,044$ ($p < 0,05$).

Based on the above analysis the magnitude of the direct relationship between LMX and PIED changed with the inclusion of training opportunities initiated by CoD (19b) as mediator. Therefore, some of the variance of PIED could be explained by the mediating relationship of LMX via training opportunities initiated by the CoD (19b).

To conclude, the results of mediation test 3 provided support for hypothesis 11, namely, “Training and development opportunities initiated by CoDs partially mediate the relationship between LMX and perceived investment in employee development”.

5.3 QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

The main aim of the qualitative analysis in this study was to understand and gain more insight into the exchanges that CoDs used to promote academic staff development (research question 3) and to sequentially supplement the quantitative results in order to gain a deeper understanding of certain LMX and staff development tendencies and patterns.

5.3.1 Data collection

To ensure accuracy of responses a pilot interview was first conducted. After this pilot interview an additional question was added to the interview schedule that explored the leader’s (CoD’s) view on distinguishing between talented and less talented staff

members. This aspect was included based on the emphasis that the interviewee had placed on differences in developing staff with a particular talent profile, which could also explain in- and out-group LMX behaviour further.

Nine semi-structured, open-ended in-depth interviews were conducted with CoDs from different departments. Based on the quality of the interviews it was decided to use only eight of these in the analysis. Saturation of data was achieved after eight interviews and the last interview was not included due to the poor quality of the interview and the interviewee's lack of responsiveness. Mason (2010), who did a comprehensive study of sample sizes and saturation levels of qualitative data, found that the quality and not necessarily the quantity of interviews influenced the reliability and validity of qualitative studies. Of the eight interviews, six were conducted with CoDs from departments with high-quality relationships with staff and two with CoDs from departments with low-quality relationships. This distinction was made based on the qualitative LMX and supervisory support for development means scores of the various departments. This type of sample distribution allowed me to gain more insight from CoDs with high-quality LMX relationships and support for development. In addition, gaining some insight from CoDs with low-quality LMX relationships allowed me to compare and contrast the two data sets in terms of how the CoDs viewed their leadership role in developing academic staff.

Interviews were scheduled according to CoDs' availability, and a brief background of the study, matters of confidentiality and voluntary participation were discussed with each interviewee. Each interviewee signed a declaration of consent, whereafter each was asked six questions in order to gain more insight into exchange behaviour (research question 4). Some interview questions covered aspects such as roles, responsibilities and practices of staff development, and other questions dealt with relationship aspects that focused on LMX and development. The last question provided interviewees with the option of mentioning any other aspects related to the context of the study that would be of importance to this research. The qualitative questions are included in Appendix C. None of the CoDs approached for interviews opted not to participate.

5.3.2 Data analysis

All the interviews were recorded on tape and transcribed in Microsoft Word format. On average, transcriptions ran to between five to seven pages.

To promote internal consistency and validity of the analysis, transcriptions were analysed by two independent researchers, both specialising in the field of leadership training and development. In order to achieve the objective of this section of the research, it was decided beforehand to analyse the data obtained from each question according to CoDs with high LMX responses and CoDs with low LMX responses. By means of this approach a clear distinction could be made between these opposing responses, which enabled the researcher to compare categories while bearing in mind that the main aim of this analysis was to sequentially supplement the quantitative results and gain a deeper understanding of certain LMX and staff development tendencies and patterns. This approach also promoted a better understanding of the cause-and-effect relationship that was explored during the quantitative analysis, and more effective organisation of data (Gibbs, 2008:76).

The aim of the qualitative analysis was not to build new theory but rather to follow a deductive approach in confirming current theoretical LMX and staff development exchanges, propositions and findings.

Tesch's method of open coding was used to analyse transcriptions (Creswell, 2009) by means of which data could be classified on categorical, analytical and theoretical levels. Making comparisons was also facilitated through continually asking who, when, where, what, how, how much and why questions, for instance. This approach allowed for meaningful interpretation of the transcribed text so as to gain a better understanding of theoretical components derived from this analysis.

The two researchers proceeded independently, read through the data and developed a set of first-order codes (see Figure 5.11). They derived main themes and subthemes from the coded data (Gibbs, 2008) by moving backwards and forwards in the entire data set. Themes were identified guided by Owen's criteria for thematical

analysis, which included recurrence, forcefulness and repetition of words, phrases, sentences and statements (Owen, 1984).

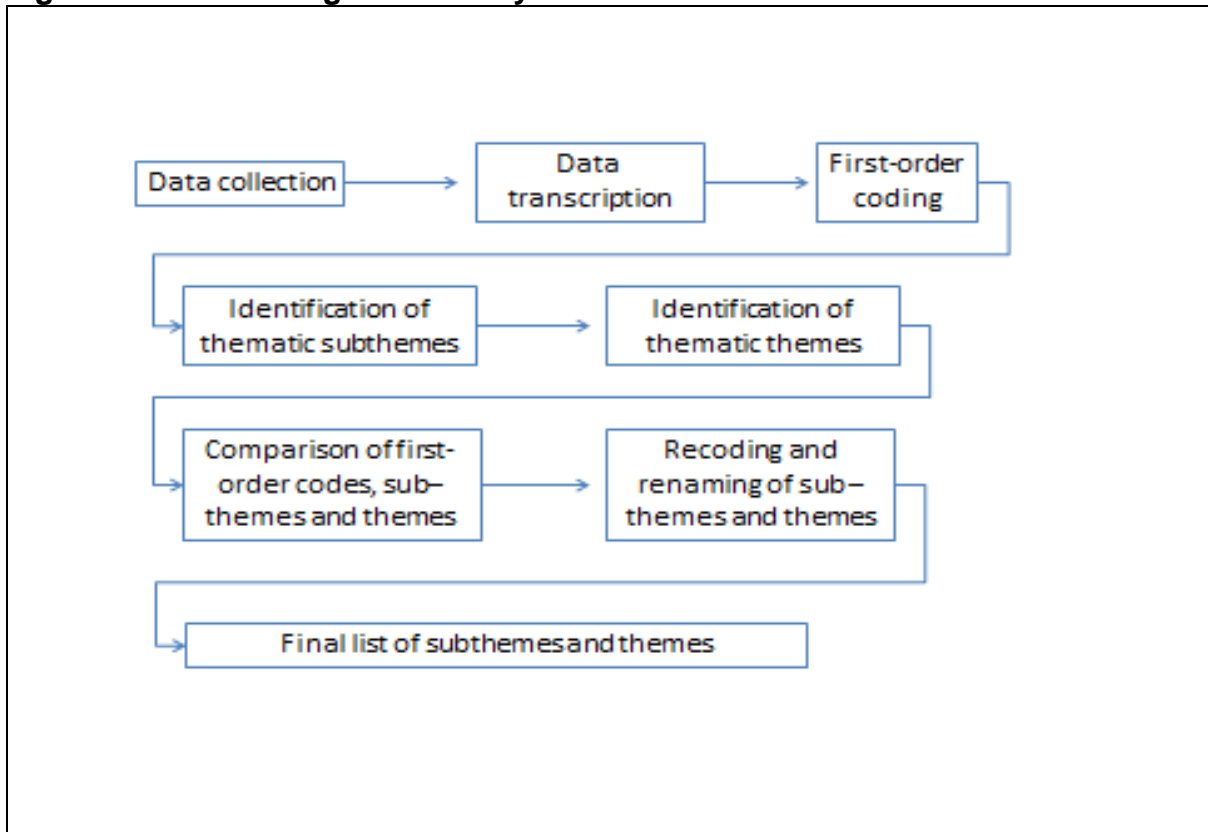
Figure 5.11: Screenshot of transcription with first-order codes

<p>Respondent 1 There is an organisational culture of people participating and doing things in my section, and where I see a need I try <u>to encourage</u> my staff. I believe in my staff and I am of the opinion that they perform excellently.</p>
<p>Respondent 2 I actually see the biggest part of my role, more than 50% of my time, is to <u>develop the staff</u> in the department. I see my role as actually <u>facilitating this whole process</u>. I also see my role as <u>encouraging and coaching people</u> to enter a route of training that they might need.</p>
<p>Respondent 4 I think I see myself more as <u>a facilitator</u> to make possible for them to develop.</p>
<p>Respondent 5 I fulfil a <u>facilitative role</u>. I see the role of the COD, <u>to find out what the person goals are</u>, even though they do not always articulate their goals, but that is where the facilitation comes in, you have to get that out of a person. Sometimes it is not in their conscious minds, but everybody has some idea what he wants to do and then the challenge is to make it happen. The Challenge for the CoD is <u>to find out what interest a person has</u>. It is also important to set <u>goals for the department</u> such as getting 60% of your staff in the department to complete their PhD's after 10 years.</p>
<p>Respondent 8 I think the most important role is to <u>know where your staff is planning to go</u>. That means if you don't know what their ambitions are where they are planning to go, what they want to do, then obviously you can't development them. On a daily, weekly, hourly basis, I walk past and I want to <u>know their progress</u>. I stay involved in all of it. In all the <u>decisions that need to be taken, I am involved</u>. I constantly <u>remind them</u> of the importance to further their careers in the institution.</p>

Next, an iteration of the analysis included comparing both researchers' first-order codes and themes. After several iterations of comparing codes and themes and returning to the literature, further recoding and renaming of themes produced a final list of subthemes and themes (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). In most cases similar themes had been identified but when there was disagreement the two researchers discussed their interpretations and referred back to relevant literature so as to reach consensus and final agreement on the subthemes and themes. The rigour of this coding process and the dual perspective minimised potential bias in the analysis of the data (Ladge, Clair & Greenberg, 2012).

Figure 5.12 provides a flow diagram of the logical process that was followed during this analysis.

Figure 5.12: Flow diagram of analysis



5.3.3 Findings

The findings of the analysis are provided below. These are categorised under six main questions posed to respondents (see tables 5.25 to 5.36), namely:

- Role of the CoD in the development of staff
- Role of the follower in development
- Relationship between myself and staff to invest and show more interest in their development
- Describe a talented academic
- Criteria for support for development
- Type of development practices

Each category was analysed based on high and low LMX responses whereafter a comparison of the differences and similarities were made.

CoDs with a high LMX score were associated with different roles in the development of their staff (see Table 5.25). The first role that was identified and which emerged strongly from the data was that CoDs perceived their role to be a facilitative one. The following quote illustrates this clearly:

"I see my role as actually facilitating this whole process."

This facilitating role was described as all-encompassing and included establishing the needs of staff, aligning this need to development requirements, following through on development interventions and finally ensuring that individual and organisational goals were met.

Other prominent roles also emerged from the interviews and confirmed that development was not one dimensional but included additional roles and functions. Additional roles that were identified included goal setting, coaching and motivating. The following statement indicated a strong tendency towards goal setting:

"I think the most important role is to know where your staff is planning to go and to set goals for them."

This statement was indicative of an instance when a high LMX relationship triggered the CoD's involvement with staff and commitment to guiding and directing them towards a desired development outcome. Underlying this, CoDs also acknowledged that they were involved in motivating their staff towards goal achievement. Motivation and goal achievement are two interrelated constructs in development, and the responses of CoDs with high LMX relationships affirmed this interrelatedness (Xander *et al.*, 2010:687).

In addition, CoDs with high LMX relationships associated themselves with fulfilling a coaching role in staff development. The following statement reaffirmed this role:

"I also see my role as encouraging and coaching people."

One of the characteristics of coaching is to be completely involved and engaged in someone else’s development (Erasmus *et al.*, 2006), and it is one of the requirements for a high LMX relationship.

Table 5.25: Role of the CoD in the development of staff – high LMX

		ROLE OF THE CoD IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF STAFF	
		First-order codes	Themes
HIGH LMX		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I facilitate their development. • I set goals for individuals. • I follow up on progress. 	
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I show interest in their development. • I am involved in decisions regarding my peoples’ development. 	
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I encourage my staff to develop. 	

In contrast to the responses of CoDs with high-quality LMX relationships, CoDs with low-quality relationships advocated roles indicating conformity, such as monitoring and checking compliance to ensure that development had taken place (see Table 26). The core of this monitoring and compliance role seemed to be a desire to follow institutional policy guidelines of staff development. The following statement was indicative of this outlook of CoDs with low-quality relationships:

“I must provide transparency, equal training opportunities to all my staff.”

In addition, mentoring was advocated as an important role but with the difference that it was focused on a specific group of staff, namely young and junior academics. Significantly, different staff development roles existed between CoDs with high and those with low LMX relationships. On the one hand CoDs with high-quality relationships were much more in touch with the development needs of their followers and pursued inclusive, informal, collaborative relationships with their staff members. On the other hand CoDs with low-quality relationships were more reluctant to engage individually with staff’s development needs and relied much more on formal organisational policies and procedures to develop their staff across the board.

Table 5.26: Role of the CoD in the development of staff – low LMX

		ROLE OF THE CoD IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF STAFF	
		First-order codes	Themes
LOW LMX		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I monitor my staff’s development. 	Monitoring role
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I comply with standards. • I provide equal training opportunities. • I see I have a controlling role. 	Compliance role
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I have a mentoring role especially for young academics. • I keep my staff on track. 	Mentoring role

Concerning CoDs’ views on the role their staff must fulfil in their own development, CoDs with high-quality LMX relationships expected staff members to be actively engaged in their development, to accept responsibility for being pro-active and to have a positive mind-set (see Table 5.27). Responsibility for development should be owned by staff and it should not be shifted to others. The positive mind-set expected from staff included being committed, demonstrating initiative and being willing to learn – these qualities indicated the adoption of an adult learning approach that was required in the workplace.

Table 5.27: Role of the follower in development – high LMX




		ROLE OF THE FOLLOWER IN DEVELOPMENT	
		First-order codes	Themes
HIGH LMX		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Must be a problem solver • Must demonstrate initiative • Must be open minded towards development • Must have a positive attitude • Must be willing to learn • Must demonstrate interest in own development • Must show commitment 	Actively engaged learner

The role that CoDs with low LMX relationships expected their staff to fulfil centred on members’ ability to demonstrate own initiative in their learning and development, underpinned by their ability to prove themselves in the workplace. Evidence suggested that responsibility and accountability for learning and development were entirely shifted to the individual and that the role for development was positioned

around competence and abilities (see Table 5.28). Furthermore, expectations of and accountability for learning and development were centred on relationships with peers, and individual staff members were expected to use peer learning as a mechanism for development.

Although CoDs with high-quality LMX relationships with their staff recognised the importance of self-development, these CoDs placed much more emphasis on the positive attitude of individual staff members and their willingness to accept responsibility for their own development.

Table 5.28: Role of the follower in development – Low LMX

		ROLE OF THE FOLLOWER IN DEVELOPMENT		
		First-order codes	Themes	
LOW LMX		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Must be hard working • Must be self-driven 		
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Must be accountable for own learning • Must be professional • Must accept accountability for peer learning 		

The overwhelming majority of respondents with high-quality LMX relationships showed more interest in their staff’s development when there was a positive, quality relationship between themselves and their staff. This relationship was described as being transparent, respectful, supportive, open and trustworthy (see Table 5.29). The following statement was indicative of this trusting relationship.

“They have to trust me and I have to trust them.”

As far as these high-quality LMX relationships were concerned it was concluded that a basis of trust and respect had been established between the leaders and the followers. Although no formal agreement was in place, evidence of this relationship pointed to a psychological contract having been established. This relationship can therefore be described as inclusive and collaborative, a relationship in which both parties interact and collaborate with some level of mutual maturity. Leaders in such

relationships indicated that they were comfortable and confident with this approach, and this was demonstrated by the following statement:

“No, I’m not threatened to do this.”

The leadership approach to build and grow an inclusive, open and trusting relationship was not generalised across all staff. Leaders with high-quality LMX relationships were also sensitive to the requirement to follow a personalised and individualised approach to their staff. Statements to this effect included:

“The relationship needs to be professional to a point where they can actually understand and identify that I care about them as individuals and as people, as well as about their development.”

“With some staff I follow a different approach.”

Table 5.29: Relationship between myself and staff to invest and show more interest in their development – high LMX

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MYSELF AND STAFF TO INVEST AND SHOW MORE INTEREST IN THEIR DEVELOPMENT					
	Themes				
HIGH LMX	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>First-order codes</th> <th>Themes</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mutual respect • Sharing of responsibility • Fearlessness • Honesty and trustworthiness • Openness • Care and support • Openness and flexibility </td> <td style="text-align: center;"> </td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	First-order codes	Themes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mutual respect • Sharing of responsibility • Fearlessness • Honesty and trustworthiness • Openness • Care and support • Openness and flexibility 	
First-order codes	Themes				
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mutual respect • Sharing of responsibility • Fearlessness • Honesty and trustworthiness • Openness • Care and support • Openness and flexibility 					

Evidence obtained from the data suggested that the interest of CoDs in staff development differed between CoDs with high-quality LMX relationships and those with low-quality LMX relationships. In contrast to CoDs with high-quality LMX relationships, CoDs with low-quality LMX relationships seemed to relate to their staff in a more distant and formal way (see Table 5.30). In some cases the maturity of the relationship was dependent on previous work experience between the leader and the follower during which competence levels had been established. As opposed to these

CoDs with low-quality LMX relationships, the interactions between CoDs with high-quality relationships and their staff were based on current realities, exchanges and experiences.

Table 5.30: Relationship between myself and staff to invest and show more interest in their development – low LMX

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MYSELF AND STAFF TO INVEST AND SHOW MORE INTEREST IN THEIR DEVELOPMENT	
	First-order codes
	Themes
LOW LMX	<div style="display: flex; align-items: center;"> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Distant and formal with some staff • Self-driven • Relationship must be based on previous experience <div style="margin-left: 20px;"> </div> </div>

Respondents with high-quality LMX relationships had different perspectives on academic talent (see Table 5.31). Some indicated that talented academics had to be specialists in their own right. Others felt that talented academics had to have the ability to function effectively in all four academic key performance areas, namely, tuition, research, community engagement and academic citizenship. Some respondents indicated that academics had to be able to function within a multi-disciplinary field and across functional disciplines. The themes extracted from these perspectives were professional proficiency, the ability to function effectively with the necessary capacity and the possession of skills within a multi-disciplinary environment.

A second aspect that respondents (CoDs) raised was viewing talent from a personal attribute perspective according to which talented academics were seen as people who were self-motivated and had the ability to manage and motivate themselves. The last characteristic identified from the responses of the participants, which were made from a cognitive perspective, was encapsulated in the following statement:

“To be able to think critically; It’s less about what they know, and more about how they think.”

Table 5.31: Describe a talented academic – high LMX

		DESCRIBE A TALENTED ACADEMIC	
		First-order codes	Themes
HIGH LMX	}	• Self-motivated	→ Self-driven, motivated individual
		• General willingness	
		• Knowledgeable in most areas	
HIGH LMX	}	• Critical thinker	→ Cognitive ability
		• Function within a multi-disciplinary environment	
HIGH LMX		• Proficient in job-specific skills	→ Proficiency

CoDs with low-quality relationships with staff did not differ significantly from CoDs with high-quality relationships with staff in their responses on how they viewed talent. However, they (CoDs with low-quality relationships) placed more emphasis on the ability of an academic to function independently as a “whole person” within academic society. The academic term used for this description is ‘collegiality’. The similarity between CoDs’ responses was expected due to the general nature of the question that was asked.

Table 5.32: Describe a talented academic – low LMX

		DESCRIBE A TALENTED ACADEMIC	
		First-order codes	Themes
LOW LMX	}	• Involved and engaged at work	→ Collegial
		• Interacts with peers	
		• Well-balanced and well-rounded individual	

When evaluating the responses of CoDs about their reasons for providing training and development opportunities to staff it was noticeable that the majority of CoDs with high-quality LMX relationships based their decisions on their personal convictions about the levels of self-accountability and eagerness that staff members demonstrated towards self-development and learning (see Table 5.33). Three responses corroborated this notion:

“I support staff that show me that they want to change the world.”

“Staff that take charge of their own development”

“I actually see this as individuals differentiating themselves according to their quest for development.”

Table 5.33: Criteria for support for development – high LMX

		CRITERIA FOR SUPPORT FOR DEVELOPMENT	
		First-order codes	Themes
HIGH LMX		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Staff that are actively engaged in seeking opportunities • Staff that take ownership of self-development • Staff that show a hunger and need for development • Staff that demonstrate willingness and boldness in regard to change 	

Conversely, CoDs with low LMX scores once again indicated that compliance was their main consideration because their efforts to provide training opportunities were driven by the requirement to provide these to all staff members irrespective of rank and position, whereas other CoDs with low LMX scores based their decision on the merit of the training and development requirements (see Table 5.34). This approach was quite different to that of CoDs with high-quality relationships who differentiated between staff based on ability and willingness to be accountable for learning and development.

Table 5.34: Criteria for support for development – low LMX

		CRITERIA FOR SUPPORT FOR DEVELOPMENT	
		First-order codes	Themes
LOW LMX		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Equity based – providing everybody with opportunities • Based on personal development plans 	

In analysing the responses of CoDs about development practices, CoDs with high-quality relationships with staff mentioned a range of development practices (see Table 5.35). Some of the statements made by the CoDs are reported below so as to

provide a true understanding and reflection of the types of development practices²³ undertaken.

“As CoD I mentor my staff personally; I provide my staff with flexible working hours; I allow and structure for peer collaboration between junior and senior academics; I provide young assistant academics with many training and development opportunities to select from a healthy talent pool; I structure the departments’ functioning according to portfolios rather than making use of subject groupings; I prefer to provide equal distribution of work for senior and junior academics across all four academic key performance areas; I involve senior academics in the tuition role by allowing access for student engagement; I appoint junior lecturers as portfolio managers; I encourage junior academics to contribute to and engage in academic discussions and debates; I provide life skills training opportunities for highly focused researchers such as time management; I appoint junior lecturers as module coordinators; As CoD I ensure that staff is not overburdened with work during important assignments; I encourage regular tea room discussions to stimulate academic conversations and debate; As CoD I also teach so that I understand the challenges of my staff; I rotate staff for exposure, irrespective of position; I conduct informal career conversations every three months with my staff; As CoD I evaluate staff on their outcome deliverables and not what they do on a daily basis.”

After further analysing these statements, eight main development practices were identified that provided more conceptual clarity in this regard. These included an integrated mentoring system; shared and structured peer collaboration and learning; effective work allocation; effective workplace learning; effective work distribution; succession planning; career conversation; and a personalised approach.

Integrated mentoring as used here refers to a form of mentoring that aids learning and development. CoDs have initiated efforts to implement such a system as they recognised its importance. Although respondents differed in their approach towards mentoring the underlying principle of using mentorship to encourage learning and development in departments remained the same. Another construct for development

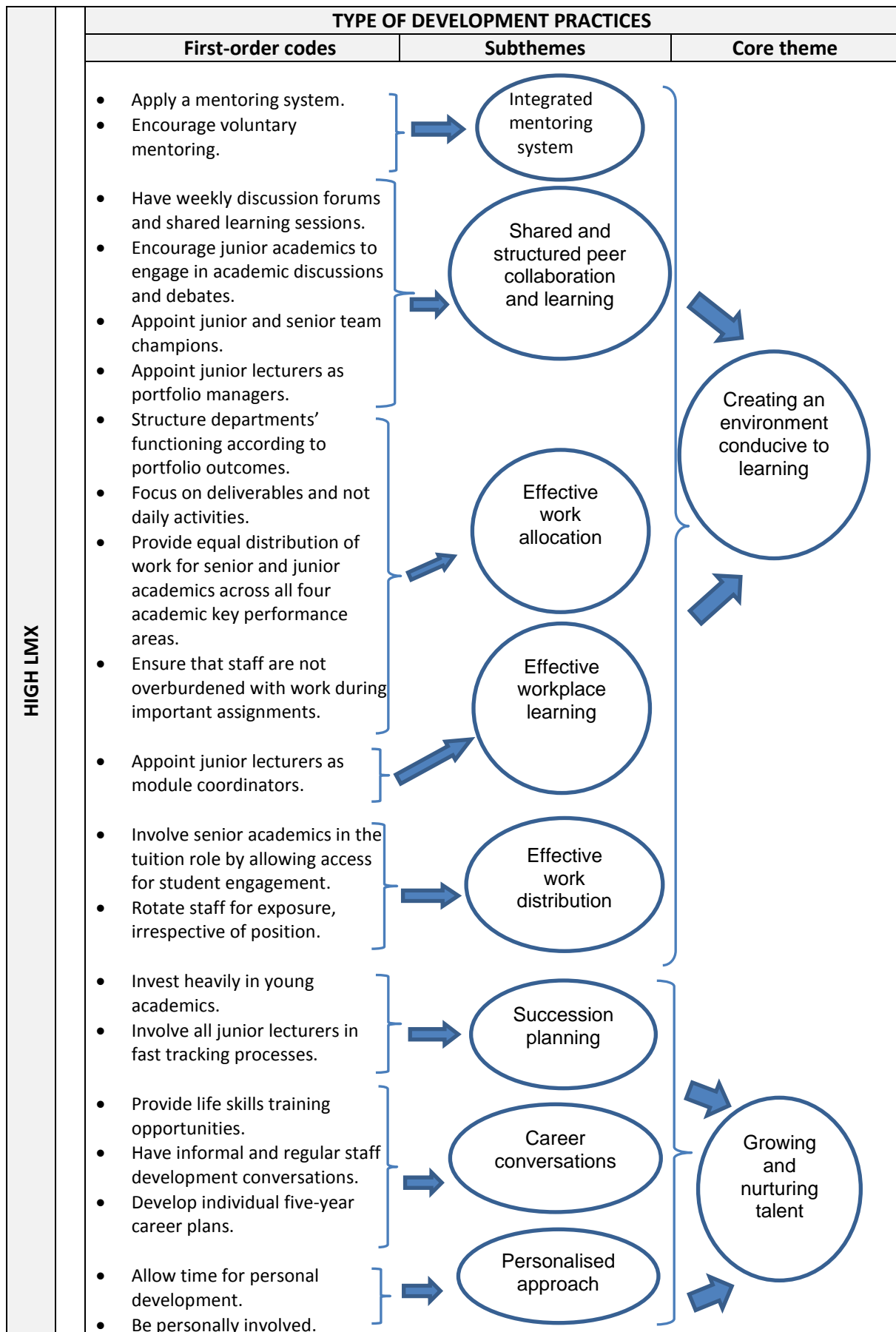
²³ Practice is the application of something that is done often and regularly.

that stemmed from and was closely associated with mentoring was identified as peer collaboration. Respondents emphasised the need for this type of collaboration to encourage shared and structured learning between colleagues, irrespective of position or rank. The domain of effective work allocation and distribution received much attention, and the ability of CoDs to provide equal and meaningful work assignments and tasks was singled out as a key contributor to a successful collaborative learning environment. This form of development practice, which is followed by CoDs with high LMX relationships, challenges existing norms of hierarchical status and control and promotes a more flexible, equal and interactive work structure.

The importance of 'growing your own timber' that CoDs with high-quality relationships with staff advocated by emphasising and implementing succession planning, offered a remarkably fresh, alternative approach to academic staff development. This approach was supported by CoDs who were in favour of regular informal and formal conversations about career matters and career planning in addition to basic retention and recruitment practices to grow and nurture talent.

Finally, two main propositions regarding the development of staff emerged from this analysis, namely, creating an environment conducive to learning, and growing and nurturing talent. It was made clear that these two practices improved the quality of development of staff that enjoyed good LMX relationships with their CoDs.

Table 5.35: Type of development practices – high LMX



In contrast, CoDs with low-quality relationships with staff saw their development task quite differently (see Table 5.36). According to these respondents, development practices were more formal in nature, and as CoDs they were required to control and monitor these development practices. The following response from one respondent reiterated this point of view:

“I provide formal learning opportunities and keep record thereof.”

In addition, instead of developing internal capacity through mentoring and peer learning efforts, these CoDs preferred to make use of external resources, such as subject experts, to further learning and development. Whereas CoDs with high-quality LMX relationships attempted to create an environment conducive to learning and development, CoDs with low-quality LMX relationships were more concerned about creating a regulated, controlled environment to facilitate learning and development in their departments.

Table 5.36: Type of development practices – Low LMX

		TYPE OF DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES		
		First-order codes	Subthemes	Core theme
LOW LMX		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Appointed a training specialist Keeps an accurate record of development Conversations within the bigger group – not one-on-one 	Impersonal	Creating a regulated learning environment
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I follow a modular based approach according to preferences I provide formal learning opportunities and workshops Staff must attend a certain amount of training sessions per year 	Formalised and controlled	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I get in experts to assist with academic proficiency 	External assistance		

5.4 SUMMARY

Chapter 5, in providing in-depth discussions of the quantitative and qualitative analyses performed in this study, formed the foundation of this research. The data was exposed to rigorous quality control and was statistically analysed to contribute to the validity and reliability of the study. The analysed data provided meaningful results to contribute to an understanding of the relationship between LMX, training and development opportunities, supervisory support for staff development and PIED. The analysis suggested that the hypothesised model introduced in this study (Chapter 3, section 3.3, figure 3.2) could be adequately substantiated. In addition, more clarity was obtained about the relationship exchanges between CoDs and their staff with a view to talent development. The results of the analyses were contextualised through references to existing literature, and instances of data that could be confirmed or that showed deviance could be placed in perspective.

Chapter 6 will provide an in-depth discussion of the results obtained in this study with a view to contributing meaningfully to the body of knowledge in this field. In the next chapter I will attempt to place the results into perspective based on existing and current findings in the field. The final findings of this research and recommendations for future research will be guided by my reasoning and the conclusions I have drawn based on this study.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided a detailed analysis of the results of this study. The analysis of the results was structured around the relevant research questions and hypotheses that had been formulated. These results provided a means to assess the theoretical model, particularly concerning the role of the CoD (supervisor) in developing academic talent. This chapter intends to clarify, compare and discuss the empirical evidence and the significance of the findings.

6.2 OVERVIEW AND CONSOLIDATION OF KEY RESEARCH RESULTS

The goal of this research was to understand the relationship between a chair of department (CoD) and academic staff in respect of academic talent development. In understanding this relationship, more insight could be gained about the way academic talent was developed in higher education. The LMX theory was selected and applied as an appropriate leadership theory to provide greater insight into this dynamic relationship. LMX, which explicitly considers the quality of a relationship between a leader and followers, could provide a theoretical framework for understanding how this relationship affected follower development.

The basic premise of the LMX theory consists out of an exchange of task and social exchange behaviour that either complements or hinders the quality of this relationship between a leader and followers. From a development perspective, these exchanges also have a direct bearing on certain outcome behaviours. The second proposition of this study was therefore to apply the LMX leadership theory within the context of growing and developing academic talent. It was anticipated that much could be learned from this proposition that could aid the development of academic talent, a critical requirement for the future success of higher education.

To achieve the aim of this research and to contribute to a further understanding of this dynamic relationship and its effect on follower development, a theoretical model, with formulated hypotheses, was tested.

In this chapter, the discussion of the results centres on a number of key findings as listed in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1: Summary of key findings

Findings derived from tested hypothesis model	
Hypotheses	Findings
Hypothesis 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The quality of the relationship between the CoD and his or her staff has an impact on the amount of support for development that CoDs (as supervisors) provide to academic staff.
Hypothesis 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The quality of the relationship between the CoD and his or her staff impacts on training and development opportunities initiated by the CoDs and received by staff.
Hypothesis 3a	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Junior academic staff are affected most by the quality of the relationship between their CoDs and the support they receive for development.
Hypothesis 3b	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Gender of academic staff has no impact on the amount of support received for development based on the quality of the relationship between the CoD and his or her academic staff.
Hypothesis 3c	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Tenure of academic staff does affect the amount of support received based on the quality of the relationship between the CoD and his or her academic staff.
Hypothesis 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Training and development opportunities initiated by the CoD contribute towards supervisory support for staff development.
Hypothesis 5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The quality of the relationship between the CoD and his or her staff can impact employee's perception of investment in their development negatively.
Hypothesis 6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Employees experience positive perceptions of investment in their development when they receive the necessary development support from their supervisor.
Hypothesis 7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Training and development opportunities initiated by the CoD and received by staff do not contribute directly towards perceptions of investment in

Hypothesis 8	<p>employee development.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Training and development opportunities received from the institution do not contribute towards perceptions of investment in employee development.
Hypothesis 9	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Support for development provided by CoDs and received by staff impacts the quality of the relationship between the parties and also has an impact on staff's overall perceptions of investment in their development.
Hypothesis 10	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Training and development opportunities initiated by CoDs and received by staff impacts the quality of the relationship between the CoD and staff and also have an impact on overall supervisory support for development received by staff.
Hypothesis 11	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Training and development opportunities initiated by CoDs and received by staff impacts on the quality of the relationship between the CoD and staff and also has an impact on staff's overall perceptions of investment in their development.
Key findings derived from interviews	
Finding 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leaders (CoDs) who demonstrate high levels of role maturity see themselves as facilitators in the staff development process.
Finding 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Role maturity is established through informal collaboration during different stages of the relationship.
Finding 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leaders (CoDs) with high-quality relationships with academic staff members accept responsibility for creating an environment conducive to learning within their departments.
Finding 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leaders (CoDs) with low-quality relationships with academic staff members see their development role as a formal and controlling one.
Finding 5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CoDs with high-quality relationships with academic staff members value the personal characteristics and attributes of their staff, and they appreciate qualities such as initiative, curiosity, open-mindedness, a positive attitude, openness, and a willingness to go the extra mile.
Finding 6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CoDs with high-quality relationships with academic staff describe a positive relationship as one that is characterised by transparency, respect, equality, openness and mutual trust and one that is worthy of a decision to provide staff development.

Finding 7	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• CoDs do distinguish between academic staff members. The distinction made between in-group and out-group members is based on seniority of staff, previous relationships, competence levels, performance and internal motivation and drive of academic staff.
Finding 8	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• CoDs with high-quality relationships provide resources in the form of training and development opportunities based on the development needs and aspirations of staff, whereas CoDs with low-quality relationships with academic staff provide training and development opportunities based on equality and merit principles.

6.3 FINDINGS IN RELATION TO LITERATURE

In the following sections the key research findings of this study will be discussed in order to synthesise the results against a backdrop of existing literature and previous relevant research findings and conclusions. I have structured the first part of my discussion around the theoretical model that was conceptualised and tested (Chapter 3), and in light of that I will reflect briefly on the model. The model was constructed based on two core organisational support for development components, namely, organisation development resources and relationship resources (which are less tangible, subjective and take shape through interactions and relationships). The first component, which is more tangible and objective, was defined based on the amount of training and development opportunities received from the institution and mostly regulated through policies and procedures with minimal supervisory (CoD) involvement. The second component comprised the supervisor's support for and involvement in the development of his or her staff. The second part of my discussion provides more insight into exchange behaviour in promoting academic staff development.

6.3.1 Organisational development resource

Kalleberg and Rognes (2000:317) point out that “employees who perceive they have more internal training and development opportunities tend to be more committed to their organisation, more satisfied with their job and less likely to leave their organisation”. Although this study did not test for employee affective outcomes like commitment or job satisfaction, it did not find any support for a proposition that organisational development resources in the form of training and development opportunities received from the institution contributed in their own right to positive employee perceptions that the organisation was investing in their development (PIED). In an attempt to understand and contextualise this result a closer look was required at the relevant higher education institution’s formalised policies and procedures covered in Chapter 2. It is noteworthy that the institution’s training and development policies and procedures allow for an extremely liberal approach to training and development, providing employees with numerous training and development opportunities. This factor, together with an entrance culture of investment in employee development in this academic institution, could contribute to a strong, institutionalised belief among academic staff that training and development are more of a right than a privilege. This kind of outlook and employee view does not result in a form of workforce engagement that can be regarded as an additional organisational motivating factor (Senge, 1990). Furthermore, several of these employee training and development programmes are self-initiated and the supervisors (CoDs) merely act as agents and mechanisms of the institution to enact institutional policies and allow staff to attend programmes and sessions for development purposes. There is limited involvement and interaction and the CoD merely oversees these development processes.

The finding in this study that development resources provided by the organisation did not affect employee perceived investment in development reaffirmed the dualistic nature of organisational support development (Eisenberger *et al.*, 2002). This allowed further scrutiny of the impact of relationship resources for academic staff development.

6.3.2 Relationship resource

The second part of my discussion addresses the relationship resource as an organisational support development component as well as all the related factors affecting this component.

6.3.2.1 *The facilitating role of LMX in providing supervisory support for staff development*

The results in this study provided overwhelming empirical evidence that the quality of the relationship between CoDs and their staff had a significant impact on the amount of support for development that employees perceived that they received from their supervisors. This result is quite relevant in an academic environment, considering the potential benefits and positive outcomes associated with supervisory support (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2012).

As indicated in Chapter 2, previous research has associated certain supportive supervisory behaviour with employee learning and development. Existing literature has also associated LMX with increased subordinate learning and development (Walumbwa *et al.*, 2009) and the provision of role emergence through job growth opportunities and potential (Graen & Scandura, 1987). The current study provided empirical evidence to justify the notion that there is a link between LMX, supervisory support for development and perceived organisation investment in development. In addition, a more holistic perspective of supervisory supportive (exchange) behaviour towards staff development was provided in this study.

The results of this study provided empirical confirmation that the nature of the LMX relationship not only impact on follower development initiatives (such as increased learning and development, job growth and learning assignments) but also impacted significantly on the amount of **supervisory** support provided by leaders (CoDs) for development. Thus LMX, as a social exchange theory, can be positioned to explain overall supervisory supportive behaviour of follower learning and development, especially in an academic context.

Results also suggested that the quality of the relationship between the CoD and academic staff impacted on the amount of training and development opportunities initiated by the CoDs and received by their staff. This result was consistent with the finding of previous LMX research that a high-quality LMX relationship was associated with supervisors' willingness to provide extra resources (in this case, training and development opportunities). In addition, this association ultimately contributed to the amount of supervisory support for development. Previous studies on LMX and resource allocation also helped to put the above-mentioned results into perspective (Kim *et al.*, 2010; Lam *et al.*, 2007). These studies suggest that the quality of the relationship between the leader and followers does have an impact on the amount of resources the leader is prepared to use and provide to the followers. Based on these findings it is clear that LMX serves as an important relationship resource component between CoDs and their staff and that it plays a vital role in an academic context in empowering and developing academic staff and building their intellectual academic capacity.

The qualitative results provided a good description of the nature of exchange relationships and leader behaviour of CoDs in follower development. In a high-quality LMX relationship, supportive development behaviour by the CoD included fulfilling a more facilitative coaching role, setting development goals and motivating staff to achieve these goals. The dyadic relationship was characterised by high levels of role maturity and CoDs saw themselves as facilitators in the staff development process. In addition, the results of the interviews suggested that when this LMX relationship was intact, supportive development behaviour by the CoD included a much more interacting, enabling and encouraging role. In this high-quality LMX relationship, role maturity was established through a process of informal collaboration during different phases of the relationship. This notion supports the ideology of a learning organisation in which leaders (CoDs) see it as their role to create an environment that is conducive to learning and development (Kouzes & Posner, 2007) and that is characterised by social exchanges (e.g. assurances of work progression and satisfaction) that instil confidence in subordinates (Velada *et al.*, 2007).

According to the results of this study, leaders (CoDs) with low-quality relationships with followers, in contrast to leaders with high-quality relationships with followers, saw

their development role as a more formal one that required them to do monitoring. This result is consistent with existing LMX literature and supports the finding that leaders (CoDs) with high-quality relationships move beyond formal learning and development behaviour and encourage and support followers (academic staff) to take on more responsibility for their own development (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Xander *et al.*, 2010).

6.3.2.2 *Relationship resources contributing to perceived investment in employee development*

The tested model provided a unique empirical contribution towards employee perceptions of investments in their development and shed more light on further positive outcomes of LMX.

This second major empirical finding is that LMX as a single key relationship factor affected perceived investment in employee development positively but that in the presence of supervisory support for development this relationship between LMX and PIED turns negative. This combination of LMX and supervisory support for development is essential towards establishing positive follower's perceptions of investment in their development and that centrally the introduction of supervisory support for development, LMX as a social exchange theory, is not sufficient to create positive perceptions of investment in development (PIED). Therefore, the results of this study have made a contribution by supporting the theory of LMX that the quality of the relationship between a CoD and academic staff only contributes to positive perceptions of employee development if academic staff receives adequate supervisory support for their development. The conclusion that can be drawn is that the existence of a positive LMX relationship is not sufficient in itself but that a supervisor must be viewed as being actively (and not only passively) involved in employee development.

It is clear that the role of a supervisor cannot be underestimated, and existing literature has provided much insight into this role and function. For instance, Kotte and Sharafinski (1988) have stated that employees tend to develop general views about the degree to which their immediate supervisor values their contribution and

cares about their well-being. Stinglhamber and Vandenberghe (2003) point out that employees seem to interpret managers' actions and behaviours as representative of the organisation. Eisenberger *et al.* (2002) add that a supervisor is an agent of the organisation and that employees generally believe that the organisation and the supervisor share the same view and perspectives. Therefore, the role of a supervisor in supporting a subordinate's development has a significant implication as far as the general perception of organisational support for development is concerned, especially if this perception is formed from the perspective of the employee.

Another important finding in this study was that the existing notion that training and development opportunities received from the institution did not impact on perceived investment in employee development was reversed when these training and development opportunities were initiated by CoDs. The results provided sufficient evidence that training and development opportunities did indeed contribute towards perceived investment in employee development as long as the supervisor was actively involved in providing these opportunities. These results once again reiterate the important role that supervisory support plays in employee perceptions of organisational support for development. This implies that if the quality of an LMX relationship between a CoD and his or her staff member improves, it is likely that the staff member will benefit by receiving more support in the form of training opportunities initiated by the CoD. Therefore, there is an important relationship between actual training opportunities afforded and the CoD's support for staff development.

6.3.2.3 Moderating effects between LMX and supervisory support for development

The strong relationship between LMX and supervisory support for development found in this research study allowed for further scrutiny of certain core demographic factors that could have an impact on this relationship. LMX has been described as a theory of dyadic relationships and their subjective consequences rather than as a theory of formal objective leadership (Van Breukelen *et al.*, 2006:295). This important distinction, which is relevant to understanding the dynamics of relationships, was the premise on which the choice of this theory for application in this study was based. Much research has been done to understand the dynamics of this relationship and to determine what actions, behaviour and characteristics constituted high or low exchange behaviour between leaders and their followers. Murphy and Ensher (1999) have found that demographic similarities between leaders and followers were less important for the quality of the LMX relationship than perceptions based on the parties' similarities. Congruence of values and attitudes between leaders and followers also did not consistently predict higher-quality relationships. Ashkanasy and O'Connor (1997) have found that personality constructs are too contextual and specific to claim any reasonable consistency in predicting quality relationships. However, key critical values that have been found to contribute to high-low quality relationships include acceptance of leader authority, recognition of followers' need to function either independently of a leader or be more dependent on a leader, and the collective need of both the leader and the follower to strive for maximum task performance through their collective values of goal achievement. Another factor that also contributes to a strong affective work relationship is a former work relationship.

In testing moderating effects, this study found that the occupation of a junior academic position moderated the amount of supervisory support for development provided by CoDs and received by the junior academic based on the quality of their relationship. This finding is consistent with research done by Allegro and Van Breukelen (2000) who have found that 'newly hired hands' (junior employees) who have been selected by leaders are associated with higher-quality working relationships with their leaders, compared to the relationships between leaders and existing employees who have worked with the leaders for some time. This finding

could be largely due to newly appointed staff endeavouring to prove their competence as contingency workers when forming new work relationships. These findings supported the reasoning that junior lecturers referred to in this research were mostly newly appointed staff whose appointments had been made with a considerable amount of involvement and influence from departmental heads (CoDs).

This abovementioned results is also consistent with the 'role theory' of LMX that distinguishes between three core relationship stages (Northouse, 2004). According to this theory, junior lecturers generally go through the first two stages of forming relationships, namely, 'role taking' and 'role making' where betrayal and out-group behaviour in the relationship have not yet materialised.

Another important factor that could affect the quality of the relationship and shed more light on academic positional differences is the view prevalent in the institution that junior lecturers are contingent workers (fulfilling temporary positions in academia) who anticipate being appointed to permanent positions. In addition, the permanent appointments of lecturers are made only after the successful completion of a six-month probational period. It is possible that contingent staff will tend to act more positively towards change in the institution and their CoDs while they wait to be appointed permanently (Van Breukelen *et al.*, 2006).

With respect to the second moderating factor, namely gender, the results confirmed that gender did not impact on the support that staff received for development from their CoDs, based on the quality of their relationship. Therefore, leader-follower inclusiveness, commonly referred to as LMX in-group and out-group behaviour, was not moderated by gender. Although previous studies have found support for differentiation on the basis of gender (Zalesny & Graen, 1987), one of the possible explanations for this finding is the strong drive within this institution to establish a culture of gender equality and transformation (Unisa, 2012). Interviews conducted in the current study did not point to any differentiation based on gender.

Lastly, the results of this study pointed to evidence that the quality of the LMX relationship and the amount of supervisory support received for development were affected by the period of time (tenure) that academic staff had worked under a

particular CoD, except when they had been working in those positions for longer than a year but not more than two years (period of 13 to 24 months). Existing literature on tenure provides different explanations for these results. Kim *et al.* (2010) have found no relationship between LMX and tenure. Contrary to this finding, Sin *et al.* (2009), who have tested for the effects of tenure on the quality of the relationship, have found that as the length of the relationship (tenure) intensifies dyadic interaction and LMX agreement between the leader and followers increase. This research indicates that agreement between the leader and followers increases with time. Their research is based on the premise that “the length of time the dyad has worked together” should contribute to more opportunity to engage in relationship exchanges, thus mediating for more role taking and role making opportunities. In their research they emphasise that role episode is an important factor to consider in role development. A role episode constitutes a completed assignment between the leader and the member (follower) that has required the member to respond and the leader to evaluate. They point out that because the completion times of role episodes differ it is difficult to indicate the number of episodes that will ultimately contribute to role making in the dyadic relationship.

With reference to the finding that there was no moderation effect in the 13 to 24 months time period, it is conceivable that the maturity of a relationship is still dependent on the completion of task assignments that will contribute to the finalisation of agreed episodes. It is possible that during this period, at most, role taking is established and a set pattern of LMX normative behaviour towards role making (Dienesch & Liden, 1986) has not yet been established.

In addition, Dienesch and Liden (1986) have suggested that LMX relationships develop in many different ways, for instance, by way of contribution, which is associated with task-related behaviours to achieve mutual goals; loyalty that characterises both parties’ public support for each other’s actions; and behaviour that affects mutual liking between both parties. To these, Liden and Maslyn (1998) add professional respect (the respect that parties have for each other’s professional capacities), which is another factor that contributes to the development of the relationship. The authors point out that intense dyadic exchanges between two parties are not necessarily required when a relationship is based on professional

respect. This observation clarifies the notion within academia that professional respect between colleagues is only achieved through one's own intellectual capacity, public support and respect acquired over time.

An explanation of the finding that the quality of the LMX relationship was affected when followers had been working under a particular CoD for relatively short periods of time (tenure) could be that high- and low-quality exchange relationships develop and form rather quickly (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). These researchers have found that the relationship is based, more often than not, on first impressions of and experiences with 'try-outs' (new employees). The rest of the exchange relationship is based on these initial impressions and encounters. Therefore, the initial rapport between academic staff and a CoD can set the foundation for and have a strong impact on the future quality of the relationship and future support received for development.

In conclusion, the findings of this research revealed the following factors that could have an impact on the length and quality of the relationship and affect supervisory support for staff development: professional respect, public support, role maturity, completion of role episode cycles, and initial impressions of task commitment between CoDs and staff.

6.3.3 Exchange behaviour in promoting academic staff development

The qualitative results of this study indicated that a number of CoDs placed a high premium on considering the personal values, characteristics and attributes of their staff in order to build high-quality relationships. However, these findings need to be confirmed by more qualitative research on LMX. According to the current study, the need to relate to leadership authority has lesser significance, which reinforces the case for collegial leadership rather than authoritative leadership in academia. In addition, the CoDs who participated in this study expressed the need to build relationships of trust with their staff that are based on respect, honesty, support, openness and transparency. The emphasis on these inclusive, collective relationship values, within an academic context, once again supports the findings of Ashkanasy

and O'Connor (1997) that values are context-specific and cannot be treated as aspects of predetermined exchange behaviour.

As stated in the literature, LMX is classified as a social exchange theory that is based on relationship dimensions such as power, influence, loyalty and respect between the leader and the follower (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). The qualitative results of the research study in this regard confirm the important part that the quality of the relationship plays in developing academic staff. It was noticeable that the participants (CoDs) with high LMX scores placed much emphasis on social exchanges that contributed to a relationship characterised by openness, trust and loyalty (Uhl-Bien *et al.*, 2000). In contrast to that, low LMX social interchanges between CoDs and staff appeared to be much more formalised, and these CoDs acted in their professional capacities and in accordance with formal academic job relationship expectations.

Furthermore, as indicated in the literature, LMX theory does not claim consistency as regards to relationship factors and behaviour between different leaders and followers. Accordingly, the suggestion is that leaders have a tendency to treat followers differently, an occurrence commonly referred to as the vertical dyad linkage (Scandura & Graen, 1984). Consequently, different relationships are formed with subordinates based on these dyad differences, and these different relationships can strengthen in- and out-group behaviour. In- and out-group behaviours occur when members of the in-group are favoured above members of the out-group and receive a considerable amount of attention and resources from the leader.

The qualitative results of the current study indicated that CoDs distinguished between in- and out-group behaviour, a prominent characteristic associated with LMX behaviour (Zalesny & Graen, 1987). In- and out-group behaviour seemed to be determined by seniority of staff, previous relationships, competence levels, performance and internal motivation and drive of academic staff. Additional relationship factors that were identified and that affected the relationship included mutual trust, loyalty, support, respect, and obligation between the leader and the follower.

There was also evidence to suggest that a high-quality relationship between a CoD and an academic staff member made for greater interdependence between the two parties. This has been emphasised by Van Breukelen *et al.* (2006). As far as the in-group was concerned, CoDs also invested much more of their time as a resource, showed much more interest in the academic staff and had more flexible work arrangements with these members of staff. However, all employees (of in- and out-groups) had access to attend formal training sessions. This could be due to the institution's liberal training policy and the funding made available for all academic staff to make as much use as possible of training and development opportunities.

The study indicated that CoDs had high task expectations of their followers, and this finding is consistent with previous research and literature on LMX (see Chapter 2). The current study supported the assertion of Dienesch and Liden (1986) that leaders first look for a strong commitment to work goals, initiative, higher levels of extra effort and performance, and then only offer increased job latitude, resources, information, challenging tasks and autonomy. Leaders (CoDs) in this study saw this as the foundation of the role taking process. Once this foundation was established, role making and role routinisation through exchange behaviour could take place (Graen & Scandura, 1987).

As mentioned previously, leaders and followers tend to focus on different aspects within this exchange relationship (Zhou & Schriesheim, 2010). Leaders focus more on task orientation while followers focus more on the social aspects of the relationship. The finding in the current study regarding CoDs' task expectations of their followers confirmed previous findings in the literature. These expectations had a direct impact on leaders' willingness to drive and assist with staff development.

From the results it was evident that followers had to demonstrate a good work ethic before they could expect focused and quality development opportunities and support from their CoDs. However, because it was found that followers tended to focus on the social aspects of the relationship, CoDs would be advised to first establish and develop healthy relationships with academic staff based on trust, honesty and loyalty before they demanded too much task accomplishment and accountability.

CoDs' task expectations of followers, such as having a positive mind-set, demonstrating initiative and being proactive, can also be seen as a form of follower feedback seeking behaviour. This form of feedback seeking behaviour can also be positively related to the quality of an LMX relationship as long as it is viewed by CoDs as a form of work performance enhancement and less as behaviour inspired by personal motives (Lam *et al.*, 2007).

The above results confirmed that leaders (CoDs) preferred staff in academia to take a more proactive role in building high-quality LMX relationships by clarifying expectations and requesting objective feedback from their leaders, which in turn could result in improved personal and organisational development.

6.3.4 Academic talent and development practices

The participants (CoDs) in the current study expressed differing views about talented academics. These views can be related to the key components of talent identified by Marsh (2008), namely, performance, potential, readiness and fit. The author describes talent as measuring up to the four performance areas across functional disciplines and demonstrating unique skills that fit the profession, such as being a specialist with a very narrow but focused perspective on a particular field or discipline, whereas potential and readiness indicators of talented academics include being self-driven and self-motivated individuals. CoDs who participated in the current study and enjoyed high-quality relationships with staff highlighted overall cognitive abilities and adequate professional proficiency as qualities of talented individuals. In comparison, a much more collegial focus was expected from staff who did not enjoy high-quality relationships with CoDs – they were expected to function more independently and rely not only on CoDs' for support for their development but also on their peers for advise and support.

As far as development practices were concerned, the qualitative data obtained in the current study confirmed findings that leaders based their decisions to provide training and development opportunities on different convictions and challenges (Constable & McCormick, 1987). CoDs from departments with high LMX and supervisory support

for staff development scores were of the opinion that staff had to receive training and development opportunities based on the contributions they would make and the value they would offer upon completion of training. This conviction seemed to be based purely on the merit of each requirement and to rely heavily on staffs' ability to perform optimally in the workplace as well as on individual needs and expectations related to building intellectual capacity.

In other instances, CoDs from departments with low LMX and supervisory support for staff development scores viewed training and development as an essential requirement that should be equally provided to all staff irrespective of rank or position. Some of the CoDs that participated in the current study indicated that they were unbiased and allowed all staff to attend training development opportunities.

Although the above approach seems fair and reasonable it does not necessarily contribute to supervisory support towards quality development. Indications were that CoDs who formed high-quality relationships with their staff made use of a wider range of development practices and created real conditions for learning and development for all staff at different academic levels in the department.

CoDs from departments with high LMX and supervisory support for staff development scores reported that they adapted working arrangements to make maximum use of the qualities of their staff but still balance the workload across the department. These CoDs seemed to display intense interest in the development of their staff and still managed to meet the operational demands of the day. Time constraints and lack of resources were not provided as excuses when it came to fulfilling this development function.

These two vastly different approaches once again reiterate the impact the quality of the relationship has on resource allocation, interest and approaches towards support for follower development.

Finally, when looking at CoDs' application of known talent management practices to develop their staff, note was taken that CoDs made use of various mentorship and coaching practices, either formally or informally, as indicated by Schulze (2010:782)].

Action learning assignments, better known as development assignments or stretch target assignments, were used particularly to develop junior academic staff (Fulmer & Conger, 2004:18). An important task identified by CoDs was to regulate and monitor work distribution to free up academic staff to focus on specific assignments. This task of a CoD as an enabler in supporting staff to learn and develop has been emphasised by Xander *et al.* (2010).

In keeping with the viewpoint of Wilson *et al.* (2010:362) on collaborative learning, CoDs with high LMX relationships in their departments who participated in the current study played a pivotal role in allowing for informal collaborative learning amongst all staff. These learning sessions assisted with bridging the gap between senior and junior academics.

Creating an environment conducive to learning for staff was considered an important task, especially by CoDs who supported the development of their staff through high-quality relationships (Scaduto *et al.*, 2008). It was also noticeable that CoDs who had high-quality relationships with staff were inclined to have much more informal relationships with their followers than CoDs with low-quality relationships (Schyns, 2004).

The results of this study also indicated that CoDs who were concerned and serious about the development of their staff invested heavily in developing and growing junior academics through practices such as succession planning and fast tracking. Mechanisms used by CoDs to facilitate career planning included regular progress and career conversations and functional training opportunities to capacitate all staff.

6.4 SUMMARY

In this chapter the key findings of the research, placed within the context of extant relevant literature, were discussed. By evaluating the impact and effect of the different relationship factors between LMX, supervisory support for development and PIED, this research presented new evidence of the impact of relationship resources on employee perceptions of organisation support for development. It also provided

insight into how CoDs perceived and enacted their leadership roles with respect to academic talent development. The results demonstrated how LMX theory combined with theoretical work on organisation support helped to explain and understand the critical role of supervisors in staff development.

Finally the results of this study have made it possible for the researcher to make meaningful recommendations for future research as well as practical recommendations for organisations and supervisors. These recommendations are dealt with in the final and last chapter of this thesis.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The final chapter, Chapter 7, concludes the research by discussing the achievement of the study's objectives, its findings and its contribution. The findings of the study as well as the recommendations that are made are restricted to the scope of the investigation, the previous contributions that have been made and the restraints of the research.

7.2 KEY FINDINGS

This research had three major objectives, as discussed in Chapter 1, namely:

- To understand how the quality of leader-member exchanges (LMX) relates to employees' perceptions of development support and investment in development
- To explore LMX as a leadership framework that could assist CoDs in understanding their leadership role in developing talent
- To understand how CoDs perceive and enact their role in developing academic talent

Based on the mixed-method analysis used in this research, the study presented a number of key findings:

- LMX is a useful leadership theory for examining leadership and understanding the role of the supervisor in talent development. As shown by the results in this study, combining LMX with leadership application in academia can aid CoDs in their pursuit of developing academic talent. This finding is fundamentally based on the empirical evidence that there is a strong relationship between LMX and supervisory support for development. Once CoDs and their staff develop quality,

mature relationships between themselves, academic staff will in all likelihood receive much more quality development and support. This in turn leads to positive perceptions on the part of academic staff that their institution is willing to invest in their potential and future growth. These positive perceptions of investment have been associated with successful staff retention and higher levels of extra effort and commitment to the organisation.

- Academic values, such as intellectual capacity, professionalism, mutual respect, trustworthiness, openness, transparency and self-motivation, do have an impact on the quality of the relationships between CoDs and academic staff in an academic context. Once these core academic values are in place and respected by both parties in the dyad they create the basis to facilitate quality exchange behaviour that strengthens CoDs' commitment to provide more support for staff development.
- Tenure of staff does affect the quality of the relationship between CoDs and academic staff, which in turn impacts on the amount of supervisory support that staff receive for development. The impact on support for development occurs mostly during the initial and later phases of the relationship. Factors effecting tenure include establishment of proven academic capacity, demonstration of willingness and support by newly hired hand regarding task behaviour, and establishment of a set pattern of normative social exchange that contributes towards the quality of the relationship. Newly appointed academia often want to create positive first impressions so as to influence CoDs to provide more support for and be more involved in development whereas senior academics who have worked under a CoD for quite some time have already proved themselves through their actions and contributions. Academic staff who do not fall under one of these groups are seen to be busy with processes of role making and role episode completion that involve task and social interactions during which betrayal and disloyalty have not yet been experienced.
- Another important finding related to tenure is that only junior academic positions in a department are affected in respect of support received for development, based on the quality of the relationship with the CoD. The reasons for this are the

same as in the case of short tenure. However, this research supports the notion that long periods of exchange behaviour are not required to form quality LMX relationships, and that, in the case of professional relationships, quality LMX relationships can emerge rather quickly under certain conditions.

- CoDs do differentiate between in- and out-group academic staff in their departments based on both task and social exchange behaviours, such as previous work experiences, intellectual capacity, achievement motivation, and demonstration of initiative to learn and develop. This attitude ultimately affects the involvement, participation and interest shown by CoDs in academic staff development.
- The relationship between LMX and resource allocation has been evident in the findings of past research. Of particular interest to this study is that, in the case of high-quality relationships, the provision of training and development opportunities is mostly based on staff members' development needs and aspirations, whereas, in the case of low-quality relationships, the provision of training and development opportunities is based on principles of equality and merit. A personalised, mentored approach to staff development is generally preferred depending on the quality of the existing relationship. Staff perceive the training and development opportunities (resources) that CoDs initiate as flowing from the quality interactions and exchanges between the two parties and as a demonstration of CoDs' genuine interest in and commitment to staff development. The interest and commitment of CoDs create overall positive perceptions of investment in employee development among the staff of these CoDs compared to staff who have to rely only on institutional training and development opportunities.
- Once a culture of role maturity has been established in the department, CoDs tend to create conditions that promote an environment conducive to training and development. Many informal risk-free learning and development opportunities are provided, and CoDs accept the role of facilitating the learning and development process of staff through appropriate guidance and mentoring.

- Although exchange behaviour for development purposes varies among academic leaders (CoDs) and academic followers (academic staff), key task and social exchanges that are likely to assist in the development of academic talent in higher education have been identified in this study. Some of these key behaviours and actions that could contribute towards a more objective and constructive framework for academic development include:
 - CoDs display genuine interest in the development needs and aspirations of all their staff. When the interest is there, CoDs tend to give more of their own time and resources to assist their staff to develop.
 - CoDs and academic staff engage with each other informally whilst maintaining a professional relationship based on mutual respect.
 - CoDs initiate training and development opportunities for their staff, irrespective of whether adequate training and development opportunities already exist within the institution or not, thereby creating positive perceptions of adequate organisational support for staff development.
 - CoDs initiate training and development opportunities for academic staff based on specific decisions (mostly related to contributions made and value added by staff) rather than based on the approach to afford all staff equal development opportunities.
 - CoDs adapt and alter internal work arrangements to maximise the efficiency of staff based on their qualities.
 - CoDs facilitate the development of their staff and encourage them to accept responsibility for their own development.
 - In providing increased job latitude, resources, information, challenging tasks, and more autonomy, CoDs expect staff to be strongly committed to departmental work goals and to demonstrate initiative and a strong work ethic.
 - CoDs establish and develop healthy relationship with their staff based on trust, honesty and loyalty before they emphasise and expect task accomplishment and accountability from staff.
 - CoDs are concerned about support for staff development and provide more flexible work arrangements and adequate time to develop.

- Academic staff who are allowed to demonstrate initiative and be proactive in their working relationships with their CoDs receive better development support.
- CoDs are more positively orientated towards follower feedback seeking behaviour by members of staff aimed at their own development if these members desire feedback to improve work performance rather than to satisfy individual personal development motives only.
- CoDs make use of a broad range of development assignments instead of using a single one-dimensional approach to develop and grow their staff.
- CoDs create an environment conducive to learning and development by providing collaborative informal learning opportunities to all staff in their department.
- CoDs consistently monitor departmental workload and distribute work based on individuals' capacity so as to enable all academic staff to develop and grow.
- CoDs are able to apply institutional development mechanisms, such as career conversations and performance management, to assist in the constructive development and growth of all academic staff in the department.

7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the research findings the following recommendations are proposed:

- LMX theory could be introduced to CoDs as an appropriate leadership theory for application in the development of academic talent in higher education. This recommendation is based on the notion that LMX as an exchange leadership theory can provide much better insight into and clarity on the relationship between CoDs and academic staff and CoDs' roles and responsibilities related to the provision of quality development.
- CoDs should be exposed to the entire range of development practices indicated in this research to enable them to experiment with these practices and to

establish which development exchanges are the most appropriate for their staff based on their departmental positions and seniority levels.

- LMX should be introduced as an enabling staff development mechanism to assist CoDs in acting as agents of the institution to fulfil their all-important task and obligation of developing and growing academic talent in higher education.
- LMX as a development mechanism should be included in existing capacity development training for CoDs. During this training CoDs should be exposed to LMX as a supervisory framework supporting the development of academic talent. In addition, CoDs should be informed of positive exchange behaviour, factors contributing to in- and out-group behaviour, and the benefits and advantages associated with establishing quality mature relationships with staff in support of development.
- LMX should not be introduced as an alternative mechanism and process to develop staff but rather as an enabling mechanism to facilitate existing constructive development practices, such as career conversations and performance management within the institution.

7.4 THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS AND CONTRIBUTIONS

This study makes a meaningful contribution to the body of knowledge in the field of LMX and organisational support theory, in particular as regards the effect of LMX on supervisory support for development, and overall employee perceptions of organisational support for development. The results of this study suggest that quality leader-member exchanges do indeed contribute to positive follower perceptions of supervisory support for follower development resulting in overall positive perceptions of organisational support for development.

These results, therefore, position LMX as an important leadership theory to gain a better understanding of how leaders influence and how followers perceive

supervisory support for development. LMX theory assists in understanding the relationship resource theorised by Eisenberger *et al.* (2002).

Although the findings of past empirical studies indicate support for LMX and related learning and development aspects, such as training motivation and setting learning goals (Xander *et al.*, 2010), empirical studies have not examined the relationship between LMX and overall supervisory support for talent development. The positive relationship indicated in this study between LMX and supervisory support for development provides additional empirical evidence of the importance of a supervisor's role in developing subordinates (Maurer & Lippstreu, 2008), and the study clarifies this role. In addition this study once again confirms the importance of managers (supervisors) actions and behaviours as representing those of the organisation found by previous scholars (Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003), especially in the case of follower development.

A need to clearly establish the mediating and moderating effects of LMX has been expressed by scholars in the field for some time. This research has attempted to answer this call by investigating these effects on key relationship and learning and development factors. The results of the study provide additional support for the notion that supervisory support for development does mediate the relationship between LMX and employee perceptions of organisational investment in their development. Past empirical studies have confirmed the positive relationship between **general supervisory support** behaviour, commonly referred to as perceived supervisory support (PSS), and perceived investment in employee development (PIED) (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2012). This study expands on this research finding by establishing that LMX contributes to perceived investment in employee development *especially if **supervisory support for staff development*** mediates this relationship. Although previous studies have indicated an association between LMX and employees' perceptions that the organisation supports employee development (Kraimer *et al.*, 2011), this study extends the body of knowledge by linking not only **LMX**, but also **supervisory support for development** and **resource allocation** in the form of training and development opportunities, to **perceived organisational investment in employee development**.

Therefore, this research has important implications for institutions that invest heavily in the development of their staff. Firstly, the relationship that exists between supervisors and staff and the support that staff receive from their supervisors for their development are of utmost importance to the creation of positive perceptions of overall organisational support for development. Secondly, organisational development opportunities alone will not necessarily contribute to these positive perceptions.

Furthermore, the moderating results of this study provide support for a theory that LMX has a differentiating effect in regard to subordinate position in the organisation as well as tenure. The contribution to LMX literature of this research finding is contained in the assertion that a leader tends to develop a different quality relationship with a 'newly hired hand', which in turn affects the amount of development support such an individual receives compared to that which other staff members receive (Allegro & Van Breukelen, 2000).

Scholars of LMX have also expressed the need to understand exchange behaviour from a multiple perspective within the dyad (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995:221; Van Breukelen *et al.*, 2006). The methodology (mixed-method) applied in this study has made it possible to obtain not only the views and perceptions of subordinates on exchange behaviour but also the views and perceptions of leaders, and this insight promotes an understanding of the appropriate supporting efforts aimed at developing talent. Gaining insight from both sides has made the definition and verification of the different perspectives of the dyad possible. This in turn has made it possible to clarify exchange behaviour within the dyad, providing meaningful insight into the development of talent in particular and subordinates in general in higher education.

The results obtained in this study have positioned LMX as a legitimate leadership theory for application in the context of academic staff development.

Last but not least, conducting this study at the largest South African higher education, open distance learning institution, and including participants who can be

regarded as representative of South African society in terms of gender, race and culture, make generalisation of the results across the academic spectrum possible.

7.5 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This study, like any other study, has its limitations. Although evidence of a direct link was found between LMX, supervisory support for staff development and perceived investment in employee development, longitudinal studies would have been better suited to obtain stronger evidence of the linkages (Bauer & Green, 1996). Therefore, it is recommended that similar future research consider the performance of a longitudinal study. Longitudinal research could also clarify the ways in which the dynamics of the LMX relationship might influence supervisor support for development.

Secondly, although the research was designed to investigate both perspectives of the dyad, the quantitative data was obtained only from subordinates. Ideally, future research should measure the LMX relationship from the perspectives of both the supervisor and the employee. It is further suggested that future research obtain qualitative data from subordinates within the dyad to validate and strengthen the relevant exchange behaviours associated with staff development. This approach could strengthen the relationship development framework suggested in this research for the development of academic talent.

Finally, the general concern that examining different questionnaires at the same time and using the same sample affecting the quality of the results, commonly referred to as common method variance (CMV), is also applicable to this research (Harris, Wheeler & Kacmar, 2009). The effects of CMV in this study were minimised by using and administering two different data gathering techniques, namely an online survey and face-to-face interviews, to two different samples at different times. By following this approach and by comparing the results of the two samples the effects of CMV were minimised. The risks associated with administering different questionnaires at different times (in other words incurring CMV) did not outweigh the benefits of following this method. The risk that the researcher was mainly most concerned about

was the potential impracticality of the approach: It could have been a problem to get the participation of the same respondents for the whole study.

This study has constructed the ideal platform for investigating the role of interdependent dyadic relationships or network assemblies aimed at providing support for development (Scandura, 1995). This aspect is of particular importance in an academic context where peer collaboration and mentoring are extremely relevant.

7.6 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

The application of the suggested development practices in this study should lead to more collaboration between CoDs and staff members and to subordinates' viewing their supervisors (CoDs) as leaders who are instrumental in their development rather than as mere formal supervisors. It is important that CoDs should be encouraged to develop high-quality relationships with their staff on an individual basis where possible and to try to avoid duplicating relationships unthinkingly. If CoDs follow this approach, more benchmark practices can be established to aid with the training and development of current and new CoDs.

Of further importance is that CoDs should be guided by a belief in fairness and justice for all when they interpret and apply the concept of differential treatment of staff. All subordinates should be given equal opportunities to learn and develop new workplace skills, especially in an academic environment where academic freedom and self-autonomy are advocated. Regular objective evaluations of workplace skills of all staff should assist in preventing bias and favouritism.

CoDs should be encouraged to be belief orientated, in other words, it should be their intention from the outset to have high-quality working relationships with all staff. This belief orientation should constantly be reaffirmed at all forums as well as in individual and group interaction. This explicitly stated intention must form the base-line and foundation of all development interactions with junior and senior staff in the department.

Lastly, once this LMX leadership approach is embedded within institutional leadership culture it should serve as an appropriate retention and engagement strategy for academic talent development in higher education.

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QUESTIONNAIRE

Appendix A

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Component:

Race: African

Gender: Male

Academic position:

Associate Professor/Professor

Period with current HOD/COD:

1 year or less

SECTION B: YOUR RELATIONSHIP WITH YOUR CHAIR OF DEPARTMENT OR HEAD OF DEPARTMENT

Instructions:

Please complete this section about your Chair of Department or Head of Department. Please rate each of these questions based on your personal experiences with him or her. Read each statement and indicate the relevant scale item for each statement:

► Q 01: Do you know where you stand with your CoD\HoD... do you usually know how satisfied you CoD\HoD is with what you do?

► Q 02: How well does your CoD\HoD understand your job problems and needs?

► Q 03: How well does your CoD\HoD recognize your potential?

► Q 04: Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built into his/her position, what are the changes that you CoD\HoD would use his/her power to help you solve problems in your work?

► Q 05: Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your CoD\HoD has, what are the chances that he/she would "bail you out," at his/her expense?

► Q 06: I have enough confidence in my CoD\HoD that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she were not present to do so?

► Q 07: How would you characterize your working relationship with your CoD\HoD?

SECTION C: SUPPORT FOR PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT

Instructions:

Please complete this section by rating each of these questions based on your personal experiences. Read each statement and indicate the relevant scale item for each statement:

► Q 08: My CoD\HoD is supportive of my efforts to improve my works skills.

► Q 09: My CoD\HoD helps me to develop career plans.

► Q 10: My CoD\HoD provides me with a useful performance appraisal.

► Q 11: My CoD\HoD provides me with ongoing feedback.

▶ Q 12: My CoD\HoD provides adequate time for me to attend training.

▶ Q 13: My CoD's\HoD's behaviour facilitates my participation in learning activities.

▶ Q 14: My CoD\HoD encourages me to participate in activities which promote skill improvement.

▶ Q 15: My CoD\HoD does not support my participation in learning activities.

▶ Q 16: My CoD\HoD had tried to make me believe that I am capable of learning and improving at work.

▶ Q 17: My CoD\HoD has been a cheerleader when it comes to my learning and improving at work.

▶ Q 18: In his/her own way, my CoD\HoD tells me that I am able to increase my career skills and learn new things.

▶ Q 19 A: Please indicate the number of development opportunities you had over the last year.

▶ Q 19 B: Of the development opportunities indicated in Question 19 A, how many were initiated by your HOD, please indicate a number.

SECTION D: INSTITUTIONAL SUPPORT FOR DEVELOPMENT

Instructions:

Please complete this section by rating each of these questions based on your personal experiences of your institution (Unisa). Read each statement and indicate the relevant scale item for each statement:

▶ Q 20: My institution (Unisa) invests heavily in employee development (for instance by way of training, programmes, and career development).

▶ Q 21: My institution (Unisa) stands out as an institution that is very focused on continuous development of the skills and abilities of its employees.

▶ Q 22: By investing time and money in employee development, my institution (Unisa) demonstrates that it actually invests in its employees.

▶ Q 23: I am confident that my institution (Unisa) will provide the necessary training and development to solve any new tasks I may be given in future.

▶ Q 24: By way of practises such as developmental performance appraisal, counselling systems, competence development programmes and leadership development programmes, my institution (Unisa) clearly demonstrates that it values development of the skills and abilities of its employees

▶ Q 25: I definitely think that my institution (Unisa) invests heavily in employee development than comparable institutions.

(THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS STUDY)

ACADEMIC TALENT DEVELOPMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Institution:

Academic Department:

Gender:

Academic position:

Period v
current

▶ I hereby provide my consent by completing this questionnaire.

SECTION B: YOUR RELATIONSHIP WITH YOUR CHAIR OF DEPARTMENT OR HEAD OF DEPARTMENT

Instructions:

Please complete this section about your Chair of Department or Head of Department. Please answer each question based on your personal experiences with him or her.

▶ Q 01: Do you know where you stand with your CoD\HoD... do you usually know how satisfied you are with your CoD\HoD you do?

▶ Q 02: How well does your CoD\HoD understand your job problems and needs?

▶ Q 03: How well does your CoD\HoD recognize your potential?

▶ Q 04: Regardless of how much formal authority he\she has built into his\her position, what are the chances that your CoD\HoD would use his\her power to help you solve problems in your work?

▶ Q 05: Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your CoD\HoD has, what are the chances that he\she would "put you out," at his\her expense?

▶ Q 06: I have enough confidence in my CoD\HoD that I would defend and justify his\her decision if he\she were to do so?

▶ Q 07: How would you characterize your working relationship with your CoD\HoD?

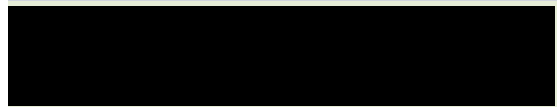
SECTION C: SUPPORT FOR PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT

Instructions:

Please complete this section by answering each of these questions based on your personal experiences.

▶ Q 08: My CoD\HoD is supportive of my efforts to improve my work skills.

TITLE Appendix B



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- ▶ Q 09: My CoD\HoD helps me to develop career plans.
- ▶ Q 10: My CoD\HoD provides me with a useful performance appraisal.
- ▶ Q 11: My CoD\HoD provides me with ongoing feedback.
- ▶ Q 12: My CoD\HoD provides adequate time for me to attend training.
- ▶ Q 13: My CoD's\HoD's behaviour facilitates my participation in learning activities.

Agree

Neutral

Neutral

Agree Strongly

Agree Strongly

- ▶ Q 14: My CoD\HoD encourages me to participate in activities which promote skill improvement.
- ▶ Q 15: My CoD\HoD does not support my participation in learning activities.
- ▶ Q 16: My CoD\HoD has tried to make me believe that I am capable of learning and improving at work.
- ▶ Q 17: My CoD\HoD has been a "Role Model" when it comes to my learning and improving at work.
- ▶ Q 18: In his\her own way, my CoD\HoD tells me that I am able to increase my career skills and learn new
- ▶ Q 19 A: Please indicate the number of training and development opportunities (eg. Conferences, Seminars etc.) you had over the last year.
- ▶ Q 19 B: Of the training and development opportunities indicated in Question 19 A, how many were initiated by HoD\CoD, please indicate a number.

SECTION D: INSTITUTIONAL SUPPORT FOR DEVELOPMENT

Instructions: Please complete this section by answering each of these questions based on your personal experience.

- ▶ Q 20: My institution invests heavily in employee development (for instance by way of training, programme development).
- ▶ Q 21: My institution stands out as an institution that is very focused on continuous development of the skills of its employees.
- ▶ Q 22: By investing time and money in employee development, my institution demonstrates that it actually values its employees.
- ▶ Q 23: I am confident that my institution will provide for the necessary training and development to solve problems that may be given in future.
- ▶ Q 24: By way of practices such as developmental performance appraisal, counselling systems, competence development programmes and leadership development programmes, my institution clearly demonstrates that it values and develops the skills and abilities of its employees.
- ▶ Q 25: I definitely think that my institution invests more heavily in employee development than comparable institutions.
- ▶ Q 26: My institution is effective in meeting employees' request for internal job transfers.

(THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS STUDY) 📄

Agree Strongly

Disagree Strongly

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Agree

Neutral

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR COD'S

Question 1: How do you see your role as a CoD in the development of your staff?

Question 2: What do you expect from your staff in order for you to show more interest in their development?

Question 3: In your opinion what will be an indication to you that staff members are taking responsibility for their own development?

Question 4: What are your criteria for providing staff with development opportunities?

Question 5: What type of development practices do you apply in the development of your staff?

Question 6: Could you describe the relationship that should exist between yourself and a staff member in order for you to invest more in their development?

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA: DEPARTMENTS, GENDER, ACADEMIC POSITION PERIOD WORKING UNDER A COD (TENURE).

DEPARTMENTS					
Department¹	Academic Staff (Followers)²	Percent out of Size of Dept	Percent out of total sample	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	4	22.2	1.37	4	1.37
2	6	31.5	2.06	10	3.44
3	10	34.4	3.44	20	6.87
4	4	25.0	1.37	24	8.25
5	7	20.5	2.41	31	10.65
6	6	7.3	2.06	37	12.71
7	6	11.3	2.06	43	14.78
8	7	24.1	2.41	50	17.18
9	4	15.3	1.37	54	18.56
10	4	10.5	1.37	58	19.93
11	5	38.3	1.72	63	21.65
12	24	32.0	8.25	87	29.90
13	9	25.0	3.09	96	32.99
14	19	45.2	6.53	115	39.52
15	11	32.3	3.78	126	43.30
16	5	26.3	1.72	131	45.02

¹ Each Department has one CoD

² Academic staff in each department completing the questionnaire

Department ¹	Academic Staff (Followers) ²	Percent out of Size of Dept	Percent out of total sample	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
17	5	16.1	1.72	136	46.74
18	6	24.0	2.06	142	48.80
19	4	25.0	1.37	146	50.17
20	4	21.0	1.37	150	51.55
21	1	33.3	0.34	151	51.89
22	1	0.6	0.34	152	52.23
23	17	40.4	5.84	169	58.08
24	6	11.7	2.06	175	60.14
25	4	21.0	1.37	179	61.51
26	7	53.8	2.41	186	63.92
27	4	25.0	1.37	190	65.29
28	2	13.3	0.69	192	65.98
29	2	18.1	0.69	194	66.67
30	3	23.0	1.03	197	67.70
31	2	15.3	0.69	199	68.38
32	6	20.0	2.06	205	70.45
33	2	20.0	0.69	207	71.13
34	1	12.5	0.34	208	71.48
35	1	12.5	0.34	209	71.82
36	1	4.7	0.34	210	72.16

Department ¹	Academic Staff (Followers) ²	Percent out of Size of Dept	Percent out of total sample	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
37	5	11.3	1.72	215	73.88
38	4	21.0	1.37	219	75.26
39	5	10.4	1.72	224	76.98
40	4	22.2	1.37	228	78.35
41	4	19.0	1.37	232	79.73
42	8	27.5	2.75	240	82.47
43	3	25.0	1.03	243	83.51
44	7	29.1	2.41	250	85.91
45	3	10.7	1.03	253	86.94
46	5	20.0	1.72	258	88.66
47	5	8.6	1.72	263	90.38
48	4	12.1	1.37	267	91.75
49	1	3.7.0	0.34	268	92.10
50	2	11.1	0.69	270	92.78
53	2	11.7	0.69	272	93.47
54	4	13.3	1.37	276	94.85
55	5	50.0	1.72	281	96.56
57	9	13.2	3.09	290	99.66
58	1	16.6	0.34	291	100.00

GENDER

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Male	104	35.74	104	35.74
Female	187	64.26	291	100.00

POSITION

Position	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Junior Lecturer	54	18.56	54	18.56
Lecturer	95	32.65	149	51.20
Senior Lecturer	83	28.52	232	79.73
Associate Professor/ Profesor	59	20.27	291	100.00

PERIOD WORKING UNDER CURRENT COD (TENURE)

Period	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
0	1	0.34	1	0.34
1	3	1.03	4	1.37
2	4	1.37	8	2.75
3	6	2.06	14	4.81
4	7	2.41	21	7.22
5	29	9.97	50	17.18
6	14	4.81	64	21.99

Period	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
7	9	3.09	73	25.09
8	2	0.69	75	25.77
9	4	1.37	79	27.15
10	4	1.37	83	28.52
11	3	1.03	86	29.55
12	8	2.75	94	32.30
13	7	2.41	101	34.71
14	6	2.06	107	36.77
15	5	1.72	112	38.49
16	3	1.03	115	39.52
17	4	1.37	119	40.89
18	7	2.41	126	43.30
19	3	1.03	129	44.33
20	2	0.69	131	45.02
21	2	0.69	133	45.70
22	3	1.03	136	46.74
23	3	1.03	139	47.77
24	10	3.44	149	51.20

Period	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
25	3	1.03	152	52.23
26	4	1.37	156	53.61
27	3	1.03	159	54.64
28	2	0.69	161	55.33
29	8	2.75	169	58.08
30	5	1.72	174	59.79
32	4	1.37	178	61.17
33	1	0.34	179	61.51
34	1	0.34	180	61.86
35	2	0.69	182	62.54
36	10	3.44	192	65.98
37	3	1.03	195	67.01
38	8	2.75	203	69.76
39	4	1.37	207	71.13
40	3	1.03	210	72.16
41	13	4.47	223	76.63
42	5	1.72	228	78.35
48	5	1.72	233	80.07
51	1	0.34	234	80.41
52	1	0.34	235	80.76
53	6	2.06	241	82.82
54	6	2.06	247	84.88
60	1	0.34	248	85.22
61	3	1.03	251	86.25
62	1	0.34	252	86.60

Period	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
63	1	0.34	253	86.94
64	1	0.34	254	87.29
65	3	1.03	257	88.32
67	1	0.34	258	88.66
72	2	0.69	260	89.35
76	2	0.69	262	90.03
77	5	1.72	267	91.75
89	1	0.34	268	92.10
90	1	0.34	269	92.44
91	1	0.34	270	92.78
94	1	0.34	271	93.13
96	4	1.37	275	94.50
114	1	0.34	276	94.85
120	2	0.69	278	95.53
137	1	0.34	279	95.88
144	1	0.34	280	96.22
150	2	0.69	282	96.91
194	1	0.34	283	97.25
233	1	0.34	284	97.59
244	1	0.34	285	97.94
269	2	0.69	287	98.63

Period	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
304	1	0.34	288	98.97
306	1	0.34	289	99.31
380	1	0.34	290	99.66
388	1	0.34	291	100.00



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Faculty of Economic and
Management Sciences
Department of Human
Resource Management

Informed consent for participation in an academic research study

Dept. of (Human Resource Management)

Developing Academic Talent In Higher Education: A Leader-Follower Exchange Perspective”

Research conducted by:

*Mr. A.L.Horne (25427696)
Cell: 084 625 9544*

Dear Respondent

You are invited to participate in an academic research study conducted by Andre Horne, Doctoral student from the Department Human Resource Management at the University of Pretoria.

The purpose of the study is to “to establish to what extent a Leader-Member Exchange relationship between a head of department and academic staff can contribute to the development of academic talent in Higher Education. ...

Please note the following:

- This part of the study involves follow up interviews. Your details are not required.
- Your participation in this study is very important to us. You may, however, choose not to participate and you may also stop participating at any time without any negative consequences.
- The interview should not take more than 30 minutes of your time.
- The results of the study will be used for academic purposes only and may be published in an academic journal. We will provide you with a summary of the findings on request.
- Please contact my study leader, *Prof Yvonne du Plessis*, (012) 420 3438 if you have any questions or comments regarding the study.

Please sign the form to indicate that:

- You have read and understand the information provided above.
- You give your consent to participate in the study on a voluntary basis.

Respondent's signature

Date