



Leadership Challenges of Middle Management at
Transnet's Durban Container Terminal

By

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I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my Heavenly Father. You have been at my side through all my challenges keeping me focused on the light at the end of the tunnel. Thank you, LORD, for all the many blessings and for helping me cross yet another finish line.

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Abstract

Transnet Port Terminals' Durban Container Terminal (DCT) is the largest and busiest container terminal in Africa and the fifth largest terminal in the southern hemisphere based on container throughput. Middle Managers (MMs) at the DCT are responsible for ensuring that this leviathan of port trade stays afloat and operates optimally. By virtue of their position, MMs find themselves both followers (taking directions from senior managers) and leaders (overseeing subordinates). Striking a balance between these two roles is often associated with many challenges and tremendous amounts of stress. This study aimed to identify some of the structures in place at the DCT geared towards empowering MMs at the DCT cope with the leadership demands of their duties. The research focused on the formal leadership development programmes offered by Transnet Port Terminals and evaluated its effectiveness in enhancing the MM as leader. To understand MMs' concerns better, a holistic assessment was conducted on the environment and organisational culture in which MMs operated. The specific objectives of the study were to investigate DCT's organisational culture, to identify the development structures in place for grooming MMs for leadership, to investigate the effectiveness of developmental programmes in enhancing MMs leadership; and to explore the receptiveness of subordinates towards MMs' leadership. The present study is a descriptive study that used the probability random sampling technique as the results were intended to be generalizable over the entire MM population at Transnet's DCT. This method has been described as one of the best techniques for collecting data as it highly reflects the population of interest. Research data were collected by means of a self-administered structured questionnaire. Forty-seven invitations were sent to MMs, 35 accepted and were enrolled into the study (i.e. 74.5% participation rate). One of the main findings of the study indicated that the DCT had a dual organisational culture. Middle Managers thus found themselves working in an environment that was both hierarchical and developmental. Middle Managers had all attended at least one of the leadership development programmes offered by Transnet Port Terminals. Moderate monotonic correlations were found between understanding course material and its practical applications; and leadership enhancement. However, a weaker association was observed between course relevance and leadership development. It is also emerged that MMs and subordinates had good working relationships. The main limitation of the study was gaining access to the MMs. This was partially due to the conflicting shifting times. As such, it was not possible to gain the participation of a statistically representative sample of the MMs to generalise findings over the entire MM population at the DCT.

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

It is generally accepted that employees are one of the most valuable assets of an organisation and can greatly influence its success or failure. As employees, managers play a critical role in ensuring that resources under their control are utilised to the best possible application for the continued success of their organisations. They are also responsible for nurturing the skills and talents of the employees under their leadership. Moreover, they have to strike a personal-and-work-life balance, while maintaining their composure.

This study investigated the structures in place at the Durban Container Terminal geared towards empowering middle managers to cope with the leadership demands of their duties. The research thus focused on the formal leadership development programmes at Transnet Port Terminals and evaluated their perceived effectiveness towards enhancing middle managers as leaders. Furthermore, to gain a better understanding of the environment that middle managers operate in, an assessment was conducted on the organisational culture at the Durban Container Terminal.

1.2 Motivation for the Study

Transnet Port Terminals' Durban Container Terminal (DCT) is the largest and busiest container terminal in Africa and ranks among the top in the world (Transnet, 2015). Middle Managers (MMs) at Transnet Port Terminals' (TPT) DCT have the responsibility of ensuring that the largest and busiest container terminal in Africa operates optimally. Middle Management, therefore, play a crucial role in implementing Transnet's strategic objectives, ensuring the organisation has continued success. However, literature is very scant of any research on leadership and management at Transnet. Even less is known about the experiences of MMs at the organisation. This study, therefore, aimed to fill the existing gap concerning management, specifically that of Middle Management, as they are the principal agents responsible for the implementation of the organisation's strategic vision. By investigating Middle Management's perceptions of the organisation, its employees and its

practices, this study casts light on the challenges faced by Middle Management and gives insight into the manager-as-leader within the DCT context.

1.3 Focus of the Study

This study focused on Middle Managers at the DCT. Specifically, it evaluated the structures in place to develop and enhance their leadership, as well as the effectiveness of such structures. In addition, it also assessed whether MMs received the necessary organisational support that they needed to optimise their performance. Finally, it investigated the culture that existed in the organisation including transparency, fairness, leader-subordinate relationships, *inter alia*.

1.4 Problem Statement

As the intermediary between top management and subordinates, MMs can be thought of as having two faces (Geer, 2014). They serve as leaders who have to oversee subordinates, on the one hand, yet also serve as followers under the leadership of top management (Geer, 2014). They can thus be thought of as the ‘linking pins’ in an organisation (Likert, 1961). Maintaining this dual role comes with appreciable amounts of stress due to simultaneously balancing these roles amidst conflicting expectations (Paolillo, 1987; Cordero, 2009; Yukl, 2010; Geer, 2014). In the face of this, they are still expected to solve problems creatively (Carpenter, Bauer and Erdogan, 2012).

However, not much is known about the structures that are in place to help Middle Managers cope with the challenges that accompany their roles. These include developmental initiatives as well as a conducive environment for their enhancement. This study therefore, sought to probe into these elements by asking, “What are the leadership and developmental challenges faced by Middle Managers at DCT?”

1.5 Study Objectives

The following objectives developed to answer the research question postured above:

The objectives of the study are:

- To investigate Transnet Port Terminal’s organisational culture(s)
- To identify the development structures in place for grooming Middle Management for leadership

- To investigate the effectiveness of development programmes in grooming Middle Managers for leadership
- To explore the receptiveness of subordinates towards Middle Management's leadership

1.6 Research Questions

In the addressing the study's objectives, the study answered the following questions:

- What culture exists within DCT?
- Are there any development structures in place for grooming Middle Management for leadership?
- Are the development structures in place effective in grooming Middle Managers for leadership?
- What is the relationship between managers and subordinates?

1.7 Limitations of the Study

The main limitations to the study were:

- Small sample size

The target population of this study was the Middle Managers at Transnet Port Terminals' Durban Container Terminal. The middle manager population at the Durban Container Terminal was in region of 47 Middle Managers. Based on this population size, an ideal sample size of 42 valid responses is considered representative of a population size of 47 at the 95 % confidence level. The study, however, only enrolled 35 MMs. This suggests that the findings of the study are not statistically reflective of the entire MM population at the DCT. As such, results are not generalizable over this population. Nonetheless, the findings are still valid as the sample population was relatively small and only fell short of seven MMs. In addition, views from other employees not targeted by the study, but were keen to participate, also served to support the perceptions shared by MMs where appropriate.

- Access to study participants

One of the main challenges was to meet with MMs to complete the survey. As many MMs work on a shift basis, this posed a challenge for the researcher to distribute and collect questionnaires.

1.8 Study Layout

The research project is presented using a five-chapter approach (including this chapter). These chapters are:

1.8.1 Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter presents a general introduction to the study. It gives a brief of the purpose of the study.

1.8.2 Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter creates background for the study by reviewing work done by other authors. Its main purpose was to contextualise the research project.

1.8.3 Chapter 3: Research Methodology

This chapter presents the methods used to conduct the study. It also outlines the logic behind selecting the research approach used to conduct the study.

1.8.4 Chapter 4: Results and Discussion

This chapter presents and analyses study data. Discussion into the findings of the study are also presented here.

1.8.5 Chapter 5: Recommendations and Conclusions

This chapter summarises the main findings of the study and makes recommendations based on these findings. It also makes suggestions for future research studies. In so doing, draws the study to its conclusion.

1.9 Summary

This chapter summarized the details of the study on the leadership and development of Middle Managers at the DCT. It described the motivation for the study and gave background to its main purpose. In the process, the study's objectives and research questions were also presented. This chapter also listed some of the limitations that were encountered in executing the study. Finally, a layout and brief description of the chapters to come was given. The next chapter reviews the literature to build background and context for this study.

CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a review of the literature pertaining to leadership and Middle Management. It aims at contextualising the importance of leadership and the role that Middle Managers play in the broader scheme of things. The chapter begins by giving an overview of Transnet Port Terminals (TPT). It then discusses topics such as organisational culture, leadership, management, middle management, performance management, management development, and concludes by introducing the leadership-training programme offered by TPT.

2.2 Transnet Overview

Transnet is a state-owned company (SOC) and is the custodian of the South Africa's freight railway, ports and pipelines. As a SOC, Transnet is accountable not only to the South African Government as sole shareholder, but also to society at large for the long-term sustainable value it creates for the economy, society and the environment through its daily business activities. Transnet's primary business is freight logistics services. Transnet has a co-ordinating Corporate Centre located in Johannesburg, South Africa, and five Operating Divisions with operations spread across South Africa (Transnet, 2017).

Transnet's five Operational Divisions responsible for both onshore and offshore logistical operations are (Transnet, 2017):

- i. Transnet Freight Rail (TFR), Transnet Rail Engineering (TRE), Transnet National Ports Authority (TNPA), Transnet Port Terminals (TPT), and Transnet Pipelines (TP).
- ii. Transnet Corporate Centre; and
- iii. Three Specialist Units: Transnet Foundation, Transnet Capital Projects and Transnet Property.

A brief summary of Transnet’s logistical divisions (i.e. “group i” on previous page), taken from Transnet’s Sustainability Report (2017, p5), follows:

i. Freight Rail

This is the largest of the five Operating Divisions. It operates 30 400 km of rail network across South Africa, which transports bulk, break-bulk and containerised freight. The Freight Rail network and rail services provide strategic links between mines, production hubs, distribution centres and ports; and connects with the cross-border railways of the region. Shifting rail-friendly freight off roads and onto rail reduces logistics costs, impacts positively on the road network, and has many indirect benefits for the country, including a reduction in transport sector carbon emissions

ii. Engineering

Provides manufacturing, maintenance and refurbishment services of rolling stock and specialised equipment to Freight Rail, National Ports Authority, Port Terminals and Pipelines. Engineering focuses on becoming an original equipment manufacturer and supplies rolling stock and services to other countries on the continent. Engineering also houses the Company’s Research and Development (R&D) unit to capture opportunities for technology innovation.

iii. National Ports Authority

The National Ports Authority (NPA) provides port infrastructure and marine services at the eight commercial seaports in South Africa. The division’s core functions include the planning, provision, maintenance and improvement of port infrastructure; the provision of marine-related services, port services and navigation aids to assist navigating of vessels within port limits and along the coast.

iv. Port Terminals

Port Terminals operate all of South Africa’s port container and automotive terminals and some bulk and break-bulk terminals. This division also provides cargo-handling services to a wide spectrum of customers, including shipping lines, freight forwarders and cargo owners. In total, the Port Terminals is responsible for operations of 16 terminals in seven ports spread along the South African coastline.

v. *Pipelines*

The Pipelines Division transports fuel from coastal refineries and crude oil imports to the inland market, and also transports gas from Secunda to industrial users in Durban and Richards Bay. The New Multi-Product Pipeline (NMPP) enables the increase in liquid fuels volume throughout to meet forecast demand.

Together with the relevant railways, ports and terminal operators, Transnet participates and plays a central role in three Joint Operating Centres (JOCs) in Mozambique, Botswana and Zimbabwe (Transnet, 2017).

2.3 Transnet Port Operations

An estimated 90% of global merchandise trade by volume is couriered by sea and handled by ports across the globe. Ranked among the top 15 major sea trading nations (on the basis of seaborne trade tons) South Africa accounts for 5.5% of 9.6 billion tons of the total global sea trade by volume (South African Maritime and Safety Authority, 2011; United Nation Conference on Trade and Development, 2014). As a strategically placed gateway economy, South Africa's functional and well performing ports are an essential element in ensuring increased economic development and activity. This responsibility falls solely under the stewardship of Transnet Port Operations.

South African port trade is driven largely by two main role players namely, Transnet SOC Limited (Transnet) and the private sector. The TNPA wholly owns the South African port infrastructure. Although primarily an asset manager, the TNPA also provides a limited range of marine services such as pilotage and towage. The TPT handles key cargo operations at the ports. These key port operations include container handling and automotive trades. Of the port activities occurring along the South African coastline, the private sector dominates 63% of the total volume of the cargo-handling landscape in lower valued dry bulk and liquid bulk cargoes, while the TPT monopolises 97% of the container sector by total volume (Transnet Port Terminals, 2017).

The TPT is responsible for commercial handling services of sea-route freight across imports, exports and transshipments in containers, bulk, break-bulk and automotive. TPT operates terminals in seven South African commercial ports namely; Richards Bay, Durban, East London, Port Elizabeth, Ngqura, Cape Town and Saldanha (see Figure 2.1).

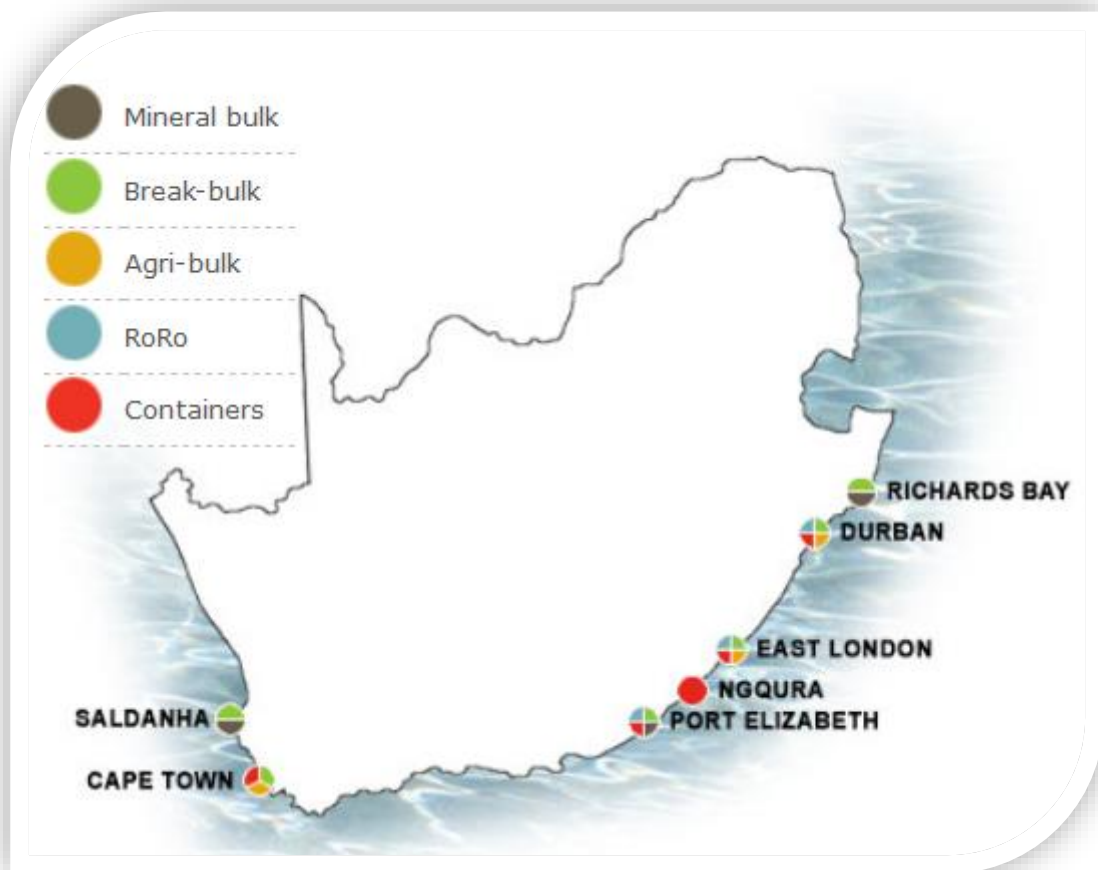


Figure 2.1: Ports with terminals operated by Transnet Port Terminals (TPT)
Source: Transnet Port Terminals (2017)

Transnet Port Terminal operations cover import and export operations across Containers, Mineral Bulk, Break Bulk, Agricultural Bulk and Ro-Ro (roll on/roll off) cargo sectors. The operational model divides the country into three geographical regions, namely Eastern Cape, Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal. Transnet Port Terminals service customers across a broad spectrum of the economy, including shipping lines, the container industry, the general shipping industry, vehicle manufacturers, agriculture, steel and the mining industry, freight forwarders and cargo agents. The services provided by the TPT are guided by legal entities such as customs.

2.4 Durban Container Terminal (DCT)

TPT's Durban Container Terminal (DCT) is the largest and busiest terminal in Africa. It boasts the fifth largest terminal in the southern hemisphere based on container throughput alone (Transnet, 2015). The DCT acts as the heart of port trade in the Southern African region

serving trade links to the Middle and Far East, Australasia, North and South America, and Europe. In addition, the DCT also serves as a trans-shipment centre for East Africa and the Indian Ocean Islands with its well-connected road and rail networks. The terminal consists of a 2 128 metre quayside that is comprised of 10 berths, 13 000 ground slots and 1 000 reefer points (Transnet, 2015).

Durban Container Terminal has a combined capacity of 3.6 million twenty-foot equivalent units (TEUs) per annum and operates as two terminals, Pier 1 and Pier 2. The DCT currently handles 65% of South African container volumes. The Pier 1 container terminal consists of three berths, with an alongside water depth of 12.5 metres, equipped with a total of six super-post panamax gantry cranes backed by a fleet of Rubber Tyred Gantry (RTG) cranes in the stacking area. Rail and road access is also seamless out of Pier 1. The terminal has a nominal capacity of 700 000 TEUs per annum. The Pier 2 container terminal is made up of seven berths, with an alongside water depth of 12.8 metres (planned to be increased to 16 metres). It has a fleet of over 100 modern straddle carriers, 19 shore side gantry cranes in service, and seven tandem lift ship-to-shore cranes with a capability of loading and / or offloading 85 containers an hour (Transnet, 2015).

Overall, port operations at the DCT can be categorised into four main activities. These activities are berth operations, vessel operations, yard operations and gate operations. In brief, these operations include the following activities:

i. Berth operations

Berth operations involve the scheduled arrival of vessels and the resources from wharf space to quay cranes necessary to handle the vessels. The main objective of the berth operation is to minimise turnaround time of vessels at the quayside.

ii. Vessel operations

Vessel operations involve loading and offloading cargo from and / or onto the vessel using quay cranes. The chief goal of the vessel operations is to maximise the number of containers moved per hour.

iii. Yard operations

Yard operations are concerned with discharging containers from vessels and loading containers onto the vessels. This is done using different types of yard vehicles (including straddle carriers or RTGs) to restow containers that are out of sequence and to distribute containers for trans-shipment. The aim of yard operations is to ensure seamless yard fluidity through efficient landside management and hinterland connectivity, thereby reducing container dwell time and allowing enough space for new containers to enter the port.

iv. Gate operations

Gate operations involve management of container delivery from freight forwarders to loading them onto vessels. This also serves as the exit point for received import containers from the yard into the hinterland.

Apart from the above, the DCT work environment is generally very labour intensive. It is within this background that the team of MMs from the Planning Department, Engineering Department, Operations Department, Risk and Safety Department, Information Technology Department, *inter alia*, manage, lead and motivate employees to meet the demands of running the largest and busiest port terminal in Africa.

2.5 Organisational Culture

According to Chandra, Ptoe and Bocarnea (2006) nearly all company endeavours are affected by organisational culture. These endeavours range from strategy execution to the implementation of new processes. Organisational culture thus includes the values, basic assumptions and beliefs, and methods of working that is shared by members of an organisation (Chandra *et al.*, 2006). Although invisible and intangible, organisational culture's effects are nonetheless felt by those within the organisation (Chandra *et al.*, 2006). This brings to the fore the critical importance of an organisation's culture as it directly affects how an organisation is perceived, received and, consequently, performs. What then, is organisational culture?

Elliott Jacques first described the concept of organisational culture in his book titled "The Changing Culture of a Factory". In his book, Jaques focused on the dynamic between managers and employees at the Glacier Metal Company. Jaques (1951) described

organisational culture as informal social structures that functioned as mechanisms to explain the failure of formal policies and procedures to resolve the unproductive dynamic [or relationship] between managers and employees within the Glacier Metal Company. Not much development transpired on this concept for over two decades until Andrew Pettigrew revived it in 1979 (Denison, Nieminen and Kotrba, 2014). Pettigrew (1979) reintroduced the concept to the field by referring to organisational culture as the social tissue that contributed towards the collective understanding in an organisation.

Al-Bahussin and El-Garaihy (2013) described organisational culture as a complicated network of values and standards that direct individuals' attitudes within an organisation. This network included employee thoughts, values, expectations and experiences gained through education, socialization and interactions with other employees (Rousseau, 1990; Al-Bahussin and El-Garaihy, 2013). Organisational culture is thought to initially be established by the founders of an organisation and to normally evolve over time under the guidance of an organisation's leadership (e.g. senior management) and the influence of the organisation's employees (Schein, 1984; Schein, 1990). Schein (1984) further stated that it was insufficient to merely list what organisational culture was perceived to be. To this, he added that it was vital to understand the dynamics of how it came about and how it could be adapted to ensure the ultimate survival of an organisation.

Possibly one of the most widely accepted definitions of organisational culture was given by Schein in 1984 (Denison *et al.*, 2014). Schein (1984), defined organisational culture as,

“...the pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered, or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, and that have worked well enough to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems” (Schein, 1984, p3).

A more contemporary definition of organisational culture given by Tuan (2010). Organisational culture, as described by Taun (2010), is that which captures an organisation's mission and vision as communicated by top organisational leaders. Furthermore, it is based on organisational values that are consistent with the goal of the organisation and aligned to the personal values of organisational members. It is also adaptable and perpetuated through

various symbols, slogans and behaviours; and [ultimately] sustained by an organisation's employees (Tuan, 2010).

Although generally accepted that each organisation has a unique culture, researchers have tirelessly tried to classify the concept into manageable pockets for better understanding. A few organisational cultures identified by researchers include, networked, mercenary, fragmented and communal organisational cultures (Goffee and Jones, 1998); integration, differentiation and fragmentation organisational cultures (Martin, 1992), and bureaucratic, supportive and innovative organisational cultures (Wallach, 1983). Lok and Crawford (2004) stated that organisational culture directly influenced the manner in which people set personal and professional goals; performed tasks and used resources to achieve them. Organisational culture is also thought to affect people's conscious and subconscious thoughts, their decision-making, their perceptions, feelings and actions (Hansen and Wernerfelt, 1989; Schein, 1990). Moreover, it has been suggested that organisational culture exerted a great amount of influence on organisational performance and commitment (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Peters, Waterman and Jones, 1982). Mohelska and Sokolova (2015), for instance, stated that significant competitive advantage could be gained from a well-constructed and managed organisational culture.

In the following sections, two models that aimed to capture or summarise some of the elements contained within organisational culture are presented. These are the Organisational Culture Inventory (OCI) Model and the Competitive Values Model (CVM).

2.5.1 Organisational Culture Inventory Model

The Organisational Culture Inventory (OCI) model was developed by Cooke and Lafferty (1989). This instrument assessed 12 distinct normative beliefs (i.e. appropriate and inappropriate behaviour in a social setting) encapsulated by two underlying dimensions, namely, task-versus-people emphasis and security-versus-satisfaction. Of these 12 normative beliefs, four fell within "task-versus-people" dimension while eight fell within the "security-versus-satisfaction" dimension. These are described briefly in the coming paragraphs.

2.5.1.1 Task versus people (or team-oriented satisfaction-orientated) culture

This dimension consisted of the following normative beliefs:

i. Achievement

Members set challenging but realistic goals, establish plans to reach these goals, and pursued them enthusiastically

ii. Self-expression

Members valued creativity, quality over quantity, and individual growth

iii. Humanistic/helpful

Members were supportive and constructive, participative, and open to influence in their dealings with one another

iv. Affiliative

Members placed a high priority on constructive interpersonal relationships and were friendly, open, and sensitive to the satisfaction of their work group

Research by Cooke and Rousseau (1988) found that organisations that had satisfaction cultures were characterised as excellent or ideal for implementing successful organisational strategies.

2.5.1.2 Security-orientated culture

Cooke and Rousseau (1988) described security-oriented culture as having two empirical factors, namely people/security and task/security. These are described as:

A. People/security

This categorised beliefs based on control in interpersonal relations including the following facets:

i. Approval

Conflict avoidance and interpersonal relationships were superficially pleasant. Members believed that they must agree with, be liked by, and gain the approval of others.

ii. *Conventional*

Conservative, traditional and bureaucratically controlled. Members believed that they must conform, follow the rules and make a good impression.

iii. *Dependent*

Hierarchically controlled and non-participative. Decision-making is centralized, and members believed that they must do as instructed and clear all decisions with superiors.

iv. *Avoidance*

Emphasis was on punishment of mistakes and not rewards for success. Negative reward system lead to shifting responsibilities to others and avoiding any possibility of being blamed for a mistake.

B. Task/security

Categorised beliefs based on control in task-related activities and included the following dimensions:

i. *Oppositional*

Confrontation prevails and negativism is rewarded. Members gain status and influence by being critical and opposing the ideas of others.

ii. *Power*

Descriptive of non-participative organisations structured on the basis of hierarchy and position authority. Members are rewarded for taking charge, controlling subordinates, and being responsive to their own superiors.

iii. *Competitive*

Winning is valued and members are rewarded for outperforming one another. Members operate in a win-lose framework and believe that they must work against (rather than with) peers to be noticed.

iv. *Perfectionistic*

Perfectionism, persistence and hard work are valued. Members believe that they must avoid all mistakes, keep track of every detail, and work long hours to attain narrowly defined objectives.

According to Cooke and Rousseau (1988), security-oriented cultures typically involved the use of organisational sanctions to encourage specific behaviour patterns and often tended to restrain behaviour (e.g. risk avoidance). This contrasts with satisfaction cultures that tend to amplify behaviour (e.g., risk seeking) (Rousseau, 1990).

2.5.2 The Competing Values Model

The competing values model (CVM) is an analytical tool for interpreting the relationship between organisational culture and organisational effectiveness (Quinn and Cameron, 1983; Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983; Cho *et al.*, 2013). This model began as a metatheory that attempted to integrate various independently developed models of organisational effectiveness (Quinn & Cameron, 1983; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). The CVM, therefore, presents a unified model that tries to balance the inherent paradoxes within organisational culture (Cho *et al.*, 2013). A graphic overview of the CVM is shown in Figure 2.2.

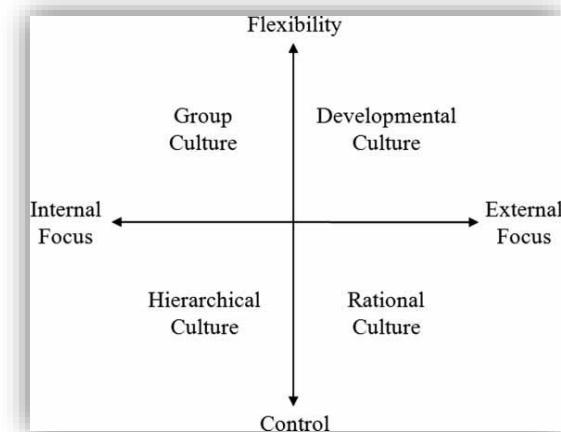


Figure 2.2: The Competitive Values Model
Source: Cho *et al.* (2013, p755)

The CVM has two broad categories of organisation. In the first, it looks at organisational structure. In the second, it focuses on organisational values. The vertical and horizontal axes in Figure 2.2 represent the first and second categories respectively. The vertical axis of the CVM is formed using two contradicting values, namely flexibility and control. According

to Cho *et al.* (2013) organisations that focused on flexibility had a decentralised authority structure. This type of structure encouraged members to make voluntary and free decisions. Organisations that focused on control, on the other hand, had a centralised authority structure wherein the emphasis was on predictability, certainty and safety. The horizontal axis represents the organisation's value orientation and has both internal and external focus areas. Intra-organisational coordination and balance are important values for the internal focus, while the ability to adapt and compete outside the organisation were important for the external focus (Quinn, McGrath, Frost, & Moore, 1985; Denison & Spreitzer, 1991).

The four quadrants formed by the bisection of the two axes gives rise to the four cultures by which the model aimed to characterise organisational culture. These are:

i. Group culture

Maximum focus was on maintaining family-like relationships with others in the group (i.e. sense of belonging, trust, and involvement of members is core to the values for this type of culture).

ii. Developmental culture

Emphasised growth, resource acquisition, creativity, flexibility and change. It focuses on adapting to external environments.

iii. Rational culture

Focused on goal fulfilment and task productivity (i.e. the pursuit and attainment of well-defined objectives and competitiveness among organisational members is a key motivating factors).

iv. Hierarchical culture

Places importance on internal efficiency, uniformity, coordination, and evaluation (i.e. tends to focus on the execution of regulations)

The principle agents for shaping an organisation's culture, as mentioned earlier by Tuan (2010), are an organisation's leaders. It is therefore, imperative that these leaders display strong values and dynamic personalities. It is their strategic decision-making and its implementation that drives performance. Leadership's spirit in performing its function(s) thus needs to be shared and embraced by members of the organisation.

2.6 Leadership

Despite the lack of a uniform definition of leadership, a significant volume of research into understand and / or define the concept of leadership has been conducted. Winston and Patterson (2006), for instance, highlighted how difficult it was to create a single unified definition of what leadership really was. They postulated that the possible cause for the definition of leadership being so drawn out was [largely] the result of academic discourse on the topic, which focused on isolated variables of leadership. Nonetheless, in an effort to capture the essence of leadership, Winston and Patterson (2006) came up with an integrative and somewhat protracted definition of a leader (It should be noted that although leader is frequently referred to in the singular or individual, it often also refers to groups of individuals). They defined a leader as an individual...

“...who selects, equips, trains, and influences one or more follower(s) who have diverse gifts, abilities, and skills and focuses the follower(s) to the organisation’s mission and objectives causing the follower(s) to willingly and enthusiastically expend spiritual, emotional, and physical energy in a concerted coordinated effort to achieve the organisational mission and objectives.” (Winston and Patterson, 2006, p7).

Therefore, a leader is a person who conveys prophetic vision in clear terms for followers to comprehend and act on to attain that vision. Simplistically stated, the leader sits at the helm and steers followers in a certain direction. Leadership, therefore, focusses on the leader.

2.6.1 Leadership Theories

Several theories have evolved in an attempt to understand leadership. Bolden, Gosling, Marturano, and Dennison (2003), for instance, in their review of leadership theory, attempted to capture the way(s) in which some of the theories that tried to define leadership evolved. In brief, they discussed theories such as:

- i. *Great Man Theories*: which are based on the belief that leaders are exceptional people that were born to lead
- ii. *Trait Theories*: which use different traits or qualities to define a leader

- iii. *Behaviourist Theories*: which are based on what leaders do rather than on their qualities
- iv. *Situational Leadership*: which views leadership within the context of specific situations in which it is exercised
- v. *Contingency Theory*: which is a refinement of situational leadership, focussing more on identifying situational variables that best predict the most effective or appropriate leadership style to fit a particular circumstance
- vi. *Transactional Leadership*: which focuses on the relationship between leaders and their followers and is, for the most part, incentive based, and
- vii. *Transformational Theory*: in which the role of the leader is to envision and implement the transformation of an organisation's performance.

These theories are summarised in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Evolution of leadership theories

| Leadership Theories | Description |
|--------------------------------|--|
| Great Man Theories | Based on the belief that leaders are exceptional people, born with innate qualities, destined to lead. The use of the term 'man' was intentional since until the latter part of the twentieth century leadership was thought of as a concept which is primarily male, military and Western. This led to the next school of Trait Theories. |
| Trait Theories | The lists of traits or qualities associated with leadership exist in abundance and continue to be produced. They draw on virtually all the adjectives in the dictionary which describe some positive or virtuous human attribute, from ambition to zest for life. |
| Behaviourist Theories | These concentrate on what leaders actually do rather than on their qualities. Different patterns of behaviour are observed and categorised as 'styles of leadership'. This area has probably attracted most attention from practising managers. |
| Situational Leadership | This approach sees leadership as specific to the situation in which it is being exercised. For example, whilst some situations may require an autocratic style, others may need a more participative approach. It also proposes that there may be differences in required leadership styles at different levels in the same organisation. |
| Contingency Theory | This is a refinement of the situational viewpoint and focuses on identifying the situational variables which best predict the most appropriate or effective leadership style to fit the particular circumstances. |
| Transactional Theory | This approach emphasises the importance of the relationship between leader and followers, focusing on the mutual benefits derived from a form of 'contract' through which the leader delivers such things as rewards or recognition in return for the commitment or loyalty of the followers. |
| Transformational Theory | The central concept here is change and the role of leadership in envisioning and implementing the transformation of organisational performance. |

Adapted from Bolden et al. (2003, 6)

According to Bolden *et al.* (2003) each of these theories tends to look at leadership from the individual-as-leader perspective. They, however, mention that an emerging school of thought contended that leadership be shared. This form of leadership, called Dispersed Leadership, has its foundations in Psychology, Sociology and Politics rather than Management Science. In Dispersed Leadership Theory, leadership is not a “one man show”, but is instead part of a process in which an organisation becomes “leaderful” by making leadership a collective responsibility (Bolden *et al.*, 2003). Other authors have referred to this form of leadership as Shared Leadership (Pearce and Conger, 2002; Day, Gronn and Salas, 2004; Carson, Tesluk and Marrone, 2007; Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber, 2009). One

of the most widely cited definitions of Shared Leadership was given by Pearce and Conger (2002). They defined Shared Leadership as:

“...a dynamic, interactive influence process among individuals in groups for which the objective is to lead one another to the achievement of group or organizational goals or both.” (Pearce and Conger, 2002, p1)

This *influence process*, according to Pearce and Conger (2002) often “...involves peer, or lateral, influence and at other times involves upward or downward hierarchical influence.” (Pearce and Conger, 2002, p1)

2.6.2 Leadership Types / Styles

In addition to leadership categorisation through these theories, Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber (2009), in their review tracing how the field of leadership evolved, presented new / revised constructs of contemporary leadership. They put forward a plethora of leadership forms including Authentic Leadership, Ethical Leadership, Cognitive Leadership, New Genre Leadership, Shared Leadership, Leader-member Exchange, Cross-cultural Leadership, *inter alia* (A brief description of these are show in Table 2.2).

Table 2.2: Evolved leadership styles

| Leadership Type | Description |
|----------------------------------|---|
| Authentic Leadership | A pattern of transparent and ethical leader behaviour that encourages openness in sharing information needed to make decisions while accepting followers' inputs. |
| Ethical Leadership | The demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers. |
| Cognitive Leadership | A broad range of approaches to leadership emphasizing how leaders and followers think and process information. |
| New-genre Leadership | Leadership emphasizing charismatic leader behaviour, visionary, inspiring, ideological and moral values, as well as transformational leadership such as individualized attention, and intellectual stimulation. |
| Shared Leadership | An emergent state where team members collectively lead each other. |
| Leader Member Exchange | Focuses on the relationship between the leader and follower. Leadership occurs when leaders and followers are able to develop effective relationships that result in mutual and incremental influence. |
| Cross-cultural Leadership | The examination of leadership in multicultural contexts. |

Adapted from Avolio et al. (2009)

The above types of leadership are by no means exhaustive. Goleman (2000) , for instance, suggested six additional forms of leadership. These are Coercive Leaders (demand immediate compliance), Authoritative Leaders (mobilize people toward a vision), Affiliative Leaders (create emotional bonds and harmony), Democratic Leaders (build consensus through participation), Pacesetting Leaders (expect excellence and self-direction), and Coaching Leaders (develop people for the future).

The aforementioned leadership theories and traits give a small glimpse into the vastness and complexity of leadership. They also demonstrate the depth and breadth of the investment placed on leaders and their critical importance. Within organisations, leadership is often multi-layered and facilitated through hierarchical management structures, each with their own span of control. The next section, therefore, discusses management, their function and some of the challenges that they encounter.

2.7 Management

Management can be thought of as “the art of getting things done through the efforts of other people” (Carpenter, Bauer and Erdogan, 2012, p11). Bandow and Self (2016, p61) broadly define management as “...any position that holds supervisory responsibility over others”. Formally stated, the principles that govern management are a collection of actions that:

“...plan, organize, and control the operations of the basic elements of [people], materials, machines, methods, money and markets, providing direction and coordination, and giving leadership to human efforts, so as to achieve the sought objectives of the enterprise.” (Carpenter *et al.*, 2012, p11)

Historically, the fundamental idea of the principles of management was the brainchild of the French management theorist, Henri Fayol in 1949. Subsequently, Fayol has also been credited as the father of the original POLC framework (i.e. planning-organizing-leading-controlling) (Carpenter *et al.*, 2012). Carroll and Gillen (1987), for example, argued that the functions described by Fayol (1949) still embodied the most practical way to conceptualise the job of a manager. In contrast, Mintzberg (1973) dismissed Fayol’s (1949) view of managerial work as lacking a foundational basis. Mintzberg (1973) argued that management was not about planning, organising, commanding, controlling and coordinating. Rather,

Mintzberg (1973) postulated that management was about what managers did (i.e. the different roles that they played, see section 2.7.2). Yet other authors have argued that Fayol and Mintzberg's conceptions of management were a matter of semantics and the flipside of the same coin. Tsoukas (1994) for instance, argued that Fayol and Mintzberg's works were theoretically logically related; however, they represented different philosophical layers of management.

Despite the several modifications / amendments to the POLC framework since its inception, it has 'stood the test of time' and still remains the traditional management framework (Carpenter *et al.*, 2012). The planning, organising, leading and controlling framework forms the backbone of the managerial function and serves as reference point / tool for managers to direct the organisation's labour force towards achieving organisational goals (Northouse, 2015).

In describing management, Carpenter *et al.* (2012) grouped it into two broad categories, namely the traditional and contemporary views of management (see pyramidal structures shown in Figure 2.3). In the traditional view, both lower management levels and 'on the ground' staff formed the base of the pyramid supporting top management at the apex. This view illustrated the hierarchy of decision-making, with the employees at the base of the pyramid taking orders from above structures. The contemporary view, on the other hand, flips the pyramid upside down, in that the base of the pyramid rests above top management. In this latter structure, 'on the ground' staff feed into the lower levels of management, ultimately influencing the decisions of top management.



Figure 2.3: The changing faces of management and managers
 Source: Carpenter, Bauer and Erdogan (2014, 14)

Despite the differences in the influence on decision-making (i.e. either the few make decisions for the many, or the many influencing the decisions of the few), in both the traditional and contemporary views of management, the need for different types of managers remains (Carpenter *et al.*, 2012).

2.7.1 Management Types

Management, as evidenced in the previous section, are responsible for almost every aspect of an organisation that is concerned with overseeing resources to benefit an organisation. As such, there exists many types of managers. Some management types are based on the function that the managers perform, yet others are based on the hierarchy or span of control of the manager. A few management types are summarised in Table 2.3 and include Top Managers, Functional Managers, Supervisory / Team Managers, Line / Product Managers, Staff Managers, Project Managers, General Managers, among others.

Table 2.3: Different management types

| Management Type / Level | Description |
|---|---|
| Top managers | Develop the organisation's strategy and are stewards for its vision and mission. |
| Functional managers | Are responsible for the efficiency and effectiveness of an area, such as accounting or marketing. |
| Supervisory or team managers | Are responsible for coordinating a subgroup of a particular function or a team composed of members from different parts of the organization. |
| Line managers (as known as service / product managers) | Lead a function that contributes directly to the products or services the organization creates. |
| Staff managers | Lead a function that creates indirect inputs i.e. that provide a supporting role. |
| Project managers | Are responsible for the planning, execution, and closing of any project. Are often found in construction, architecture, consulting, computer networking, telecommunications, or software development. |
| General managers | Are responsible for managing a clearly identifiable revenue-producing unit, such as a store, business unit, or product line. Typically make decisions across different functions and have rewards tied to the performance of the entire unit (i.e., store, business unit, product line, etc.). General managers take direction from their top executives. |

Adapted from: Carpenter, Bauer and Erdogan (2014, 13-14)

The names of the different management types give an idea of their span of control or function (i.e. work that they do). Top management, for instance, have the greatest span of control and are above all other managers in organisational hierarchy. Functional managers, on the other hand, are responsible for a particular business area, such as marketing, accounting, *inter alia*. The discussion presented in the following section expands on the work that managers do.

2.7.2 Managerial Work

A manager's primary challenge is to solve problems creatively using resources available to them (Carpenter, Bauer and Erdogan, 2012). The prime description of the nature or work that managers do has largely been credited to Henry Mintzberg (Carpenter *et al.*, 2012). According to Carpenter *et al.* (2012), Mintzberg's work in the 1970s set the ground work for what managers actually did. According to Carpenter *et al.* (2012), the role of management described by Mintzberg has changed very little since then. A few exceptions, however, include...

“...the shift to an empowered relationship between top managers and other managers and employees, and obvious changes in technology, and the exponential increase in information overload.” (Carpenter *et al*, 2012, 15)

Mintzberg (1973) shadowed managers for several weeks, documenting his observations on what they did in executing their duties. These observations subsequently lead him to conclude that managers had to take on a range of roles (i.e. organised set of behaviours) to fulfil the demands of the function that they performed. He identified ten roles common to the work that all managers did, namely, figurehead, leader, liaison, monitor, disseminator, spokesperson, entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator, and negotiator (Mintzberg, 1973). These ten roles were subsequently divided into 3 groups, namely interpersonal, informational, and decisional (Mintzberg, 1973). These are shown in Figure 2.4.

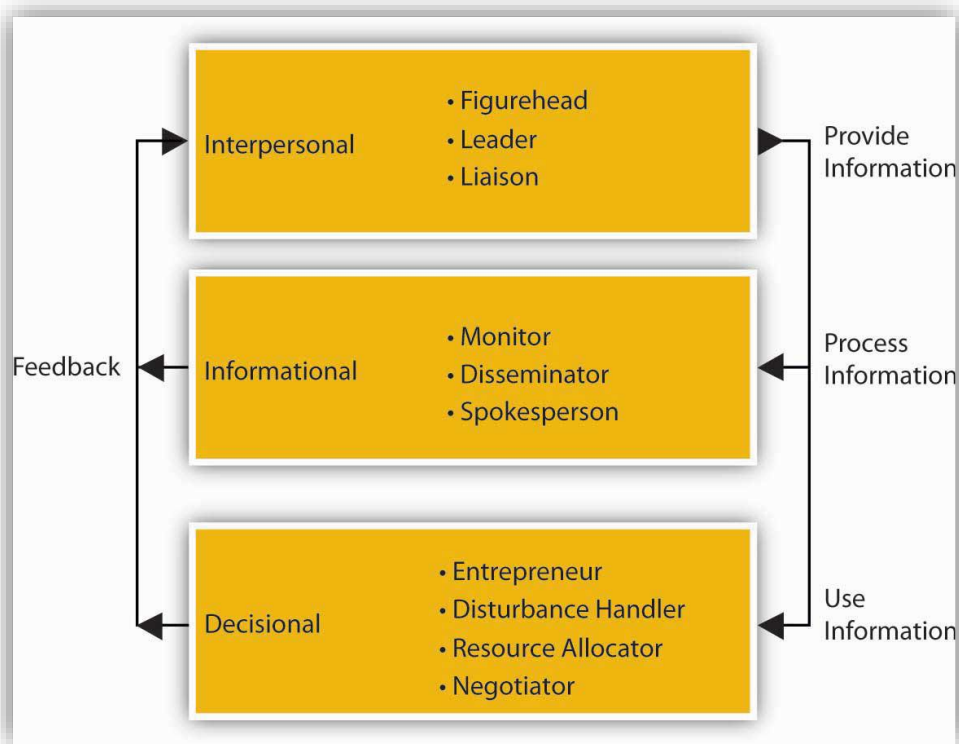


Figure 2.4: The ten managerial roles
Source: Carpenter *et al* (2012, 16)

The three managerial roles shown in Figure 2.4 are interconnected. Serving as the main link between decisional and interpersonal roles are the informational roles. Briefly, the interpersonal roles provide information that the decisional roles use to make important

decisions. According to Carpenter *et al.* (2012), the performance of managerial roles can often be executed at different times by the same manager and to varying degrees (depending on the level and function of management).

Being in direct interaction with people, the interpersonal roles place the manager in an ideal position to gather information. The three informational roles then, concern themselves primarily with receiving, processing and disseminating information. As the organisation's figureheads and leaders, the interpersonal role makes managers the vanguards of organisational decision-making. The decisional roles played by managers comprise the entrepreneur role (the manager stimulates or initiates change); the disturbance handler (the manager handles both internal and external threats to the organisation), the resource allocator (the manager decides where to best use the organisation's efforts and resources) and the negotiator (the manager is responsible for negotiating on behalf of the organisation). Typically, top-level managers make organisational-wide decisions, while lower level managers usually make decisions pertaining to their particular unit.

Much of the discussion in this section revolved around management seen through traditional management lenses. Organisations, however, continuously evolve within the dynamic business climate. This necessitates that organisational leaders (i.e. specifically managers) evolve as well to make their organisations relevant and competitive. To this end, authors, such as Morgan (2015), have suggested that managers need to attain a future state of being. Morgan's (2015) proposal of the future state of the manager is described in more detail in the next section.

2.7.3 Future Managers

Although Mintzberg laid the foundational basis for managerial work, the role of management has not been a stagnant set of functions. Rather, the role of managers continues to evolve towards a futuristic and more relevant state. These 'managers of the future', as referred to by Morgan (2015), will challenge conventional management dogma, replacing it with more relevant and contemporary practices that keep in step with global advancements. This view of managers can be thought of as an expansion of the contemporary view described earlier by Carpenter *et al.* (2012). In Morgan's (2015) description of the future manager, he proposed 10 principle areas that traditional managers had to aspire to reach the

future manager state. These principles are being a leader, following from the front, understanding technology, leading by example, embracing vulnerability, sharing and collective intelligence, being a fire-starter, giving real-time recognition and feedback, being conscientious of personal boundaries, and adapting to the future employee (see Figure 2.5).



Figure 2.5: Ten principles of a future manager
Source: Morgan (2015, p80)

2.7.3.1 *Must be a leader*

Morgan (2015) stated that managers typically concentrated on enforcing control. This included exerting control in organising, overseeing, supervising, delegating, and making sure that tasks were performed properly and deadlines met. However, Morgan (2015) cautioned that these managers were frequently not ideal at thinking outside of the box, at challenging assumptions, at engaging and inspiring employees, and at building trust (i.e. qualities normally associated with leadership). Consequently, future managers ought to be able to influence their followers and have the ability to earn followers' trust. In concluding this first aspect, Morgan (2015) stated that the 'manager of the future' must be able to engage, challenge, inspire, and lead people; as opposed to merely exerting control over

subordinates. Additionally, future managers needed to be comfortable with the leadership aspects that are progressively rising within the role of the manager.

2.7.3.2 Following from the front

Morgan (2015, p81) suggested that managers alter their way of thinking from “How can I get the most out of my employees” to “What can I do to help employees be most effective and engaged?” Morgan (2015), however, acknowledged that this might be a foreign concept for managers as they were used to leading while subordinates simply followed. Morgan (2015) thus proposed that future managers pay more attention on developing their employees. In so saying, his suggestion is analogous to the *coaching leader* described by Goleman (2000) earlier. One such way of developing employees was by removing “...roadblocks from the paths of employees in order to help them succeed while empowering them to work in a way that makes them engaged and effective.” (Morgan, 2015, p81). This aspect also seems to be in alignment with the contemporary view described by Carpenter *et al* (2012) as its focus is on empowering employees

2.7.3.3 Understanding technology and how employees work

The third principle highlights the importance of the future manager keeping up-to-date with technological advancements. This does not necessarily imply that the manager has to be very tech-savvy. Rather, the intention was for management to stay on top of trends and to understand the technology landscape, especially how it could affect the world of work. According to Morgan (2015), this concept is a new one and breaks away from technologically related ‘tasks’ being the traditional or sole domain of the Information Technology (IT) department.

2.7.3.4 Lead by example

Normally support of employees’ projects by executives and management has been “impersonal” in nature. For instance, support for projects generally took the form of budgetary approval or communication of support through the medium of newsletters or video recordings. Morgan (2015) argued that management team support should be more profound, involving active participation with employees in the initial adoption of initiatives (e.g. adoption of new technology). This can be achieved by actively engaging with employees, being present, sharing content, and listening to what is going on within the

organisation. Morgan (2015) also suggested that managers keep in touch with employees in real time, for example, by using a simple internet connection communicating to their mobile devices.

2.7.3.5 *Embrace vulnerability*

Morgan (2015) stated that for management to have meaningful real relationships with employees and customers, they needed to expose some of their vulnerability and show some sort of emotion. To support his stance, Morgan (2015, p85) stated that “People want to work with people, not with robots”.

2.7.3.6 *Belief in sharing and collective intelligence*

By tradition, managers have always sat at the top of the organisational hierarchy and been privy to all the information needed to make decisions, which subsequently filtered down to employees to action. Morgan (2015) considered this as somewhat ironic because executives and managers were often the furthest removed from the ground. Consequently, they were not hands-on in production and in the provision of services. This mentality was both ineffective and harmful to the organisation (Morgan, 2015). Future managers, therefore, must embrace collective intelligence (i.e. tap into the experience, wisdom, ideas and knowledge of their teams or the company).

2.7.3.7 *Be a fire starter*

Conventionally managers have followed a template on how to act, supervise, discipline employees, and how to get the job done. This unfortunate practice has essentially remained unchanged over the years (Morgan, 2015). This view of management’s resilience to change is supported by Carpenter *et al* (2015) when referring to Fayol’s POLC model and Mintzberg’s role of the manager, which have remained the dominant management approaches. Morgan (2015) proposed that future managers challenge the conventional ideas about management, have enquiring minds and not take things at face value. In other words, they must get rid of the traditional ‘management template’.

The remaining three principles centre on shifting how management assesses performance and gives recognition to their employees. They also give direction to management to adapt

to the needs of the evolving employee and to harness employees' potential to benefit both the employees and the organisation.

The next section discusses Middle Management leadership. As the focus of the present study is on the perceptions of MMs, it is important to engage in a brief discussion into who they are and what their work environment entails.

2.8 Middle Management

As the intermediaries between top management and subordinates, Middle Management (namely, heads of departments, junior executives, branch managers) can be considered as having two faces (Geer, 2014). On the one hand they are leaders who have to oversee subordinates, while on the other hand they are followers under the leadership of top management (Geer, 2014). Early research by Likert (1961) led to Likert characterising MMs as 'linking pins'. They were so described because they conveyed information both upward and downward and held both the top and the bottom levels of an organisation together. According to McGurk (2009), MMs are strategically positioned to bring about change within an organisation. He further mentions that their mid-way positioning between senior / top management (e.g. board of directors, executive managers) and front-line management (e.g. foremen, supervisors) places them in an ideal place to interpret and frame strategic objectives for front-line staff (McGurk, 2009).

In trying to balance the dual role of leader and follower, MMs often experienced significant levels of stress. This stress was often due to simultaneously having to balance the two roles amidst conflicting expectations (Paolillo, 1987; Cordero, 2009; Yukl, 2010; Geer, 2014). In addition, the turn of the 21st century brought with it increased responsibilities for MMs. It also extended their span of control. The changing business landscape brought about by institutional influences created an environment that made MMs more influential, more involved in innovation, to participate in strategy, and to be engaged in stakeholder interaction (Currie and Procter, 2005; Delmestri, 2006; Ornstein, 2008; Willcocks and Griffiths, 2010). These additional roles not only increased MMs' corporate level responsibility towards organisational success, but also increased their focus on the well-being of their subordinates (Thompson Heames and Harvey, 2006). This era also marked the emergence of the value of an inspired skilled workforce (Ornstein, 2008).

Cumulatively, the change of the business landscape and resulting increase in MMs' span of control and responsibilities, have increased MMs' vulnerability towards stress from conflicting roles (Vega, 2003; Ray, 2006; Hsieh *et al.*, 2010; Geer, 2014). These, together with other challenges faced by Middle Management including people-management problems (such as poor attendance or persistent patterns of misconduct), lack of a clear definition and / or operational context of Middle Management, lack of intervention-specific training (McGurk, 2009), have also intensified the stress experienced by MMs.

The added stress caused by the dualistic roles that they play, together with work-related challenges that come with leading, has potentially dire implications for organisational success as stress levels may affect their decision-making and implementation negatively. In their study of Middle Management motivation to implement strategy, Guth and MacMillan (1986) for instance, theorised that MMs were motivated by their self-interests to influence and implement strategy. Guth and MacMillan (1986) found that MMs who believed that their self-interests were being compromised were able to redirect a strategy, delay its implementation, reduce implementation quality of the strategy, and totally sabotage a strategy. In support of Guth and MacMillan (1986), Way *et al.* (2016), in their study of MMs, their direct subordinates, and their direct superiors at 18 hotel properties in China, found that MMs' perceived organisational support enhanced their performance and positively impacted on subordinates' organisational citizenship behaviours.

2.9 Managing Performance

As mentioned earlier, managers are the critical link between employees and organisational goals. Therefore, managers are responsible for creating a supportive environment conducive to nurturing overall organisational success. Consequently, there is an expectation among managers that employees submit to their leadership. For this to occur, employees often have to be developed and subjected to evaluation of their skills and abilities against organisational challenges (Bandow and Self, 2016).

Mohelska and Sokolova (2015) state that a managers' success in leading subordinates is judged by work performance and team results. Managers are expected to influence and convince their subordinates to enthusiastically perform work tasks efficiently and effectively (Mohelska and Sokolova, 2015). The manager then has to continuously manage subordinate

performance to identify skills shortages and areas where their employees may need additional training and / development (Venkateswara, 2014). This is achieved through performance management which not only allows management to identify gaps in employee performance, but also allows the manager to give feedback to employees on their performance (Melchert, Winter and Klesse, 2009, Van Dooren, 2015).

The principle aim of performance management is to direct organisational resources, namely, the labour force, towards achieving high performance (i.e. reaching and exceeding targets for delivery and productivity, quality, customer service, growth, profit and shareholder value) (Kagaari, Munene and Mpeera, 2010, Gruman and Saks, 2011). Performance management aims to share understanding about what needs to be achieved, develop the capability of employees to achieve it and provide the support and guidance needed in order to deliver high performance and achieve their full potential to the mutual benefit of themselves and the organisation (Melchert *et al.*, 2009; Venkateswara, 2014). Performance management is, therefore, about creating a performance culture that aligns individual objectives to organisational objectives, thereby ensuring that individuals uphold corporate core values (Van Dooren *et al.*, 2015). Moreover, Aslam, Hamid and Ayub (2011) stated that an additional advantage of performance management, apart from identifying employee skills shortages, is that it equips managers with the essential training and skills for coping and managing employees in a way that encourages them to perform well and achieve their performance targets. Performance management also serves as a tool through which management get employee 'buy-in' to take responsibility for their individual performance. It is based on the principle of management by agreement or contract rather than management by command (Armstrong, 2006; Armstrong and Taylor, 2014).

Employee performance management, as mentioned earlier by Mohelska and Sokolova (2015), is one of the prime tools for assessing how well a manager executes their responsibilities. As such, it is imperative that managers are well equipped to cope with their roles of decision-taker and decision-maker. Different approaches have been used to develop managers for this task, some of which will be discussed in the following section.

2.10 Management Development

As principle agents for leading an organisation's employees and shaping its culture (Tuan, 2010), managers shoulder a tremendous amount of responsibility. Management

development programmes are intended to empower managers and adequately equip them with the necessary tools to execute their responsibilities amiably. Development programmes are often set in some form of academic setting in which managers are formally taught the skills and training needed for their jobs. Hill (1992), Watson (2001) and Brightman (2004), for instance, found that this technique of management development fell short of teaching managers how to manage better. According to Brightman (2004), part of the reason why most managers failed was because of the basic assumptions that managers could learn a specific set of skills that anybody could perfect within hours. This, instead, led to bullet lists of things to do which lacked ‘on the job’ context, and as such did not provide much impact on the daily challenges that arose in the work environment (Brightman, 2004). Consequently, this marked the main basis for the detachment between the ideal that trainers and developers sought for the organisation (through uniform and standardised approaches) and the reality that organisational life was inconsistent and chaotic rendering such standardised approaches ineffective (Brightman, 2004).

A more holistic approach to management training and development proposed by Brightman (2004) included creating an environment that made allowance(s) for managers to make mistakes and / or fail, that supported experimentation, encouraged curiosity and continuous learning; and was modelled on real life experience(s). Watson (2001) reaffirms this view having stated that managers learnt mainly through practice and experience, an ongoing process that taught them to master becoming a manager. In addition, Brightman (2004) and Frost and Wallingford (2011) concurred that on the job training and development was critical to management development as it provided proper context for such initiatives. Hill (1992) puts this more informally, stating that becoming a manager was more about ‘becoming’ rather than learning managerial techniques of ‘being’.

Positioned mid-way between senior / top management and front-line management, Middle Managers require a finer balance of management and leadership skills when compared to senior and front-line management (McGurk, 2009). Specifically, they require a...

“...blend of traditional management and contemporary leadership skills, for professional, managerial, intrapersonal and interpersonal competence”.
(McGurk, 2009, p474).

Several authors have also shared this view on leadership development in managers (Ray, 1991; Shelton and Darling, 2001; Brightman, 2004; Fleming, 2008; Bandow and Self, 2016). Shelton and Darling (2001) [as cited by Bandow and Self (2016)] for instance, emphasized that people preferred to be led rather than managed. To this they contended that for managers to be successful they should also develop their leadership skills, which are a reflection of an understanding that organisations were more than mere charts and processes but were human-based systems connected by networks and relationships. In similar fashion, Ray (1991), emphasized the importance of managers supplementing their purely bottom-line focus with skills that related to leadership (for example, being a motivator).

Bandow and Self (2016) suggested that leadership development programmes should, therefore, be aligned with strategic goals. Book-based leadership programmes were not effective because they misaligned with organisational-specific strategic goals and were often a quick-fix and rushed attempt at developing leaders (Bandow and Self, 2016). To this, Bandow and Self (2016) argued that leadership could not be learned by solely attending training sessions if this approach was perceived by employees as a waste of time. Without employee buy-in, such a training approach and attempt at leadership development offered by these programmes, would be perceived to have no value (Bandow and Self, 2016).

Other considerations for a successful leadership development among managers include managing relationships with sub-ordinates (Brightman, 2004). Failure to do this was one of the key reasons for poor performance, work dissatisfaction, turnover and absenteeism (Brightman, 2004). The success of a manager, as stated by Brightman (2004), was reliant on both the consent and performance of subordinates. Brightman (2004) also noted that managers frequently lacked shared understanding with their subordinates and often believed that supervisor assumptions were comprehended and understood at the tactical level and, therefore, needed no explanation.

The preceding paragraphs in this section highlight the multi-faceted aspects of leadership development that training and development programmes need to take into consideration. Over and above the classical formal learning approach, training and development programmes need to have a practical aspect that allowed managers to apply their learnings in the work environment. Such approaches also require that managers alter their mind-sets and adopt leadership styles that encouraged subordinate participation. In the next section, a

brief overview will be given of the leadership development programmes offered by Transnet Port Terminals (TPT) to its employees.

2.11 TPT Leadership Development Programmes

To develop and groom their managers to be adequately prepared to meet their leadership demands, TPT offers four leadership development programmes to their employees. These are Supervisory Skills for Team Leaders, Management Development Programme, Senior Management Development Programme and Executive Development Programme (see Table 2.4).

Table 2.4: TPT Leadership Development Programmes

| Programme | Programme Goal(s) | NQF Level |
|--|--|------------------|
| Supervisory Skills for Team Leaders | Clarifies and/or Identifies responsibilities of a team leader to ensure that organisational standards are met. | 6 |
| Management Development Programme | This programme is aimed at new or middle managers, who are currently managing others, have the potential to manage others, or who wish to grow and develop their management abilities. | 7 |
| Senior Management Development Programme | Senior managers responsible for managing other managers and eager to benchmark and further their potential. | 7 |
| Executive Development Programme | High level, strong understanding and improvement of strategic management goals. | 8 |

Source: confidential

Based on the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA), these programmes are pitched at the national qualification framework (NQF) level equivalent to a diploma or advanced certificate at their entry level (i.e. Supervisory Skills for Team Building Programme). The Executive Development Programme is an equivalent of an Honours degree or Postgraduate diploma. The high level that the TPT leadership development programme is pitched is perhaps indicative of the high investment that TPT makes in developing its leaders.

2.12 Summary

This chapter explored the importance of leadership and the role of Middle Managers. It began by giving an overview of Transnet; Transnet's Port Operations and contextualised the Durban Container Terminal. Discussion was entered into on topics such as organisational culture, models of organisational culture, leadership theories and styles. In addition, other topics reviewed revolved around Middle Management, performance management, management development, and concludes by introducing the leadership-training programme offered by TPT. The next chapter describes the methodology and logic that was followed in the executing this study.

CHAPTER THREE

Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

Research methodology centres around the process(es) behind or involved in conducting a particular piece of research (Mouton, 2011). It, therefore, focuses on the research process, the types of tools employed, and the procedures used. This chapter describes the methods and procedures used in conducting the present research. At the onset, the aims and objectives that guided the research process are stated. Thereafter, it discusses the research paradigm, general design of the study, sampling methods, measuring instrument and data analysis methods.

3.2 Aims and Objectives

Middle Management at Transnet are responsible for implementing corporate strategy through serving as the bridge linking strategy to implementation. Middle Management, therefore, is critical to maintaining the upward and downward balance at the DCT. They are crucial to ensuring that Transnet's strategic objectives are implemented and adhered to, thus ensuring the organisation has continued success. However, literature is very scant on research on leadership and management at Transnet. Even less is known about MM at Transnet, and almost nothing is known about MMs at the DCT. As such, there is a lack of knowledge about the circumstances surrounding their leadership. This study, therefore, aims to fill the existing gap by focussing on the MM as leader. It also aims to investigate how these managers are developed and groomed to execute their duties. Through this investigation, it is envisioned that greater insight will be cast on the manager as a leader within the Durban Container Terminal context.

3.2.1 Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study are:

- To investigate Transnet Port Terminal's organisational culture(s)
- To identify the development structures in place for grooming Middle Management for leadership

- To investigate the effectiveness of development programmes in grooming Middle Managers for leadership
- To explore the receptiveness of subordinates towards Middle Management's leadership

3.2.2 Questions to be answered in the research

In the addressing the study's objectives, the study aims at answering the following questions:

- What culture exists within DCT?
- Are there any development structures in place for grooming Middle Management for leadership?
- Are the development structures in place effective in grooming Middle Managers for leadership?
- What is the relationship between managers and subordinates?

3.3 Research Paradigm

Research paradigm, also known as research philosophy, is a framework that guides an investigator / researcher to conduct their research. It also helps to explain the methods that were involved in executing the research (Cohen, Manion and Morisson, 2007; Collis and Hussey, 2014). It is essentially a broad approach to research that reflects the researcher's understanding of the area(s) under investigation as well as the best way to acquire knowledge about the area under investigation (Kasi, 2009; Saunders and Tosey, 2012).

3.3.1 Overview

Chilisa and Kawulich (2012) state that once a researcher has a topic in mind, they then have to consider the mechanism by which they will investigate it. The approach used, they add, is dependent on how the researcher thinks about the problem and how to study it within the context of its findings being credible to the researcher and others in their discipline. The views held by researchers about what constitutes the truth and knowledge also guides their thinking, beliefs, and assumptions about society and themselves (Schwandt, 2001; Chilisa and Kawulich, 2012). This in turn frames how the investigator views the world around them, which is what social scientists call a paradigm (Schwandt, 2001).

According to Patton (2002), a paradigm is a means of describing a world view that is informed by philosophical assumptions. These philosophical assumptions concern the nature of social reality (ontology), ways of knowing (epistemology), and ethics and value systems (axiology) Patton (2002). Briefly, ontology is based on whether one believes that there is one verifiable reality or whether there exist multiple, socially constructed realities. Epistemology probes into the nature of knowledge and truth. It thus enquires into the sources of knowledge and the reliability of these sources. Furthermore, it asks whether a belief is true knowledge or whether knowledge is that which can only be proven using concrete data (Patton, 2002). Taken jointly, these three paradigmatic facets assist in determining the assumptions and beliefs that structure a researcher's view of a research problem, how they will go about investigating it, and the methods that they will use to answer the research questions (Chilisa and Kawulich, 2012). A paradigm, therefore, leads the researcher to ask certain questions and use appropriate approaches to systematic inquiry (i.e. methodology) (Chilisa and Kawulich, 2012).

One's view of what is real, the source of their view, the literature that exists on the topic, their theoretical opinions on the topic, and their personal value systems, therefore, work in unison to help the researcher select a paradigm most appropriate for their investigation (see Figure 3.1) (Chilisa and Kawulich, 2012).

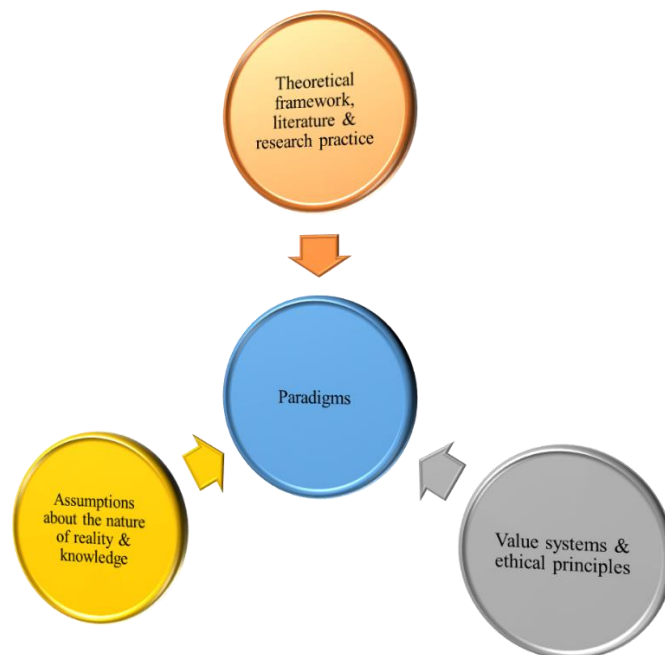


Figure 3.1: Factors influencing paradigm choice
Adapted from Chilisa and Kawulich (2012, p3)

Once a paradigm has been selected, it then guides the researcher select an appropriate methodology to conduct their study. Restated, the choice of research paradigm is the first step in the research process as it helps to inform study design. Methodology, therefore, is the platform where assumptions about ontology, epistemology, axiology, and theory and practice on a particular topic converge. This relationship is depicted in Figure 3.2.

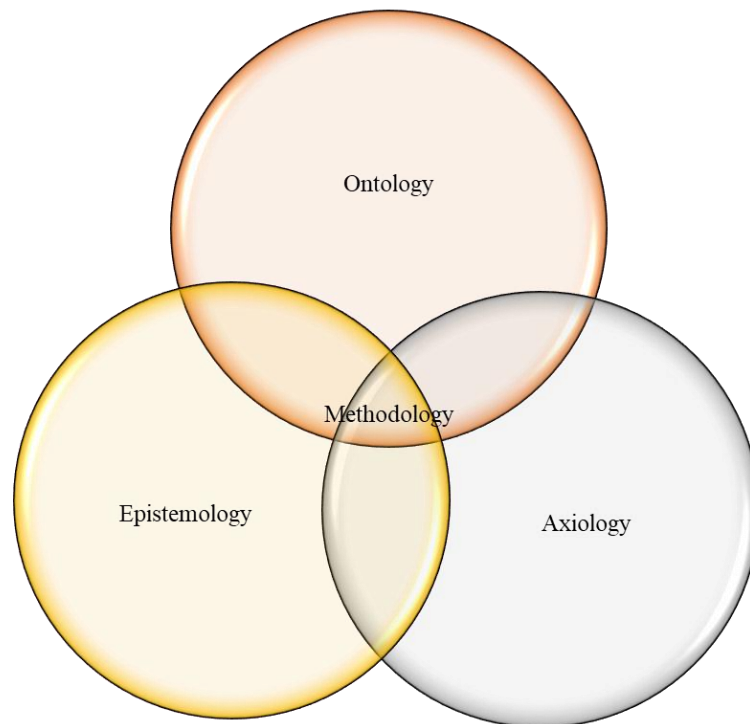


Figure 3.2: Methodology as a convergence of three parts
Adapted from Chilisa and Kawulich (2012, p4)

In summary, Chilisa and Kawulich (2012) propose a seven-step sequential framework guiding the research methodology for a study. These steps are:

i. *Paradigm:*

Determine the paradigm that informs your methodology. This helps to establish the paradigms that may fit your beliefs about truth.

ii. *Theoretical Framework:*

Determine the theories that inform the choice of your research topic, the research questions that you wish to ask, the literature reviewed, data collection methods, analyses and interpretation

iii. *Research Approach:*

Determine the appropriate research approach based on the research questions developed from the theoretical framework

iv. *Data collection:*

Determine the types and sources of data that might assist you to answer your research questions, the best method(s) to collect study data, the assumptions that were used to guide the choice of selection of participants in the study (sampling), the setting of the study, and the techniques of data collection

v. *Data Analysis:*

Determine how theory informs your approach to data analysis and interpretation

vi. *Ethics:*

Determine the ethical considerations for your study based on the paradigm, theoretical framework, research approach, data collection and analysis

vii. *Validity:*

Determine by what and / or whose standards are the study design, data collection, analysis and interpretation of research findings deemed valid and reliable

3.3.2 Paradigms and Philosophical Underpinnings

TerreBlanche and Durrheim (1999), describe the research process as having three major dimensions, namely ontology, epistemology and methodology. Compared to Chilisa and Kawulich, they do not make mention of axiology as part of the research process. Nonetheless, they view a research paradigm as an all-encompassing system of interrelated practices and thinking that define the nature of enquiry along these three dimensions.

Ontological and epistemological aspects of the research process are mainly concerned with what is commonly referred to as a person's worldview, which has an important influence on their perceived relative importance of aspects of reality (Lather, 1986; TerreBlanche and Durrheim, 1999). Two possible worldviews, for example, are objectivistic (i.e. objects around us have existence and meaning, independent of our consciousness of them) and

constructivist (i.e. reality is mind dependent and a personal or social construct). These ways of seeing the world, although different, are not considered as one superior to the other. Based on the purpose and type of research conducted, both may in some instances be appropriate, and for some other purposes insufficient or overly complex. In addition, an individual's world view is subject to change, depending on the situation (TerreBlanche and Durrheim, 1999).

Based on one's view of the world, Guba and Lincoln (1994) distinguish between positivist, post-positivist and postmodernist enquiry. Positivism (also known as logical positivism), they describe as assuming a nature of reality based on realism. In other words, it assumes that reality does exist. Post-positivism, in contrast, assumes that the reality assumed by positivism is only "imperfectly and probabilistically apprehendable" (Guba and Lincoln, 1994, 109). Restated, it believes that complete objectivity is nearly impossible to attain, but it is nonetheless critical to pursue that ideal state to guide the search for knowledge (Phillips, 1990). Post-positivism, therefore, is considered a variant of positivism, both of these being objectivist.

Historically, the term "positivism" was coined by Auguste Comte to reflect a stringent empirical approach to research in which any claims about knowledge were based only on direct experience (Bogdan and Biklen, 2003). This approach, therefore, held that the methods, techniques and procedures of the natural sciences offered the best framework for investigating the social sciences (Chilisa and Kawulich, 2012). Heisenberg and Bohr, Physicists by profession, chipped away at this view of positivism by stating that no matter how stringently a scientist adhered to the scientific method of research, the outcomes of that research can never be totally objective nor totally certain (Crotty, 1998). As such, they flexed "certainty" in positivism into "probability".

Post-modernism, according to Guba and Lincoln (1994), fell within critical theory. Critical theory adopts a more transactional and subjectivist epistemology. Typically, critical theory tends to be subjective as the researcher and the 'object' under study are assumed to be interactively linked (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). This theory guides an investigator to openly critique contemporary societal norms, constraints and injustices through questioning and evaluating society and the effectiveness of the pillars / structures that sustain / maintain it (Reeves and Hedberg, 2003). Willmott (1997) attempts to distinguish the difference between

objectivism and critical theory based on their purpose by stating that the aim of the positivist and post-positivist enquiry is to explain, predict and to control; while the aim of critical theory is to critique and emancipate.

Gephart (1999) adds yet another element to the classification of research paradigm, namely interpretivism. The interpretive paradigm focuses more on understanding the world as it is from the subjective experiences of individuals. This approach uses meaning (*vis-à-vis* measurement) oriented methodologies that are based on subjective relationships between researcher and participants. Such methods include using interviews or observing participants (Reeves and Hedberg, 2003). As stated by Deetz (1996), interpretivism tries to understand phenomena through the meanings that people give to them. This approach, therefore, is concerned with putting analyses into context (Reeves and Hedberg, 2003). A comparison summary between the two positivists and interpretative paradigms are tabulated in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Comparison of positivist, post-positivist and interpretative paradigms

| Point of comparison | Positivist / Post-positivist Paradigm | Interpretative / Constructivist Paradigm |
|---|---|--|
| Reason for doing the research | To discover laws that are generalizable and govern the universe | To understand and describe human nature |
| Philosophical underpinnings | Informed mainly by realism, idealism and critical realism | Informed by hermeneutics and phenomenology |
| Ontological assumptions | One reality, knowable within probability | Multiple socially constructed realities |
| Place of values in the research process | Science is value free, and values have no place except when choosing a topic | Values are an integral part of social life; no group's values are wrong, only different |
| Nature of knowledge | Objective | Subjective; idiographic |
| What counts as truth | Based on precise observation and measurement that is verifiable | Truth is context dependent |
| Methodology | Quantitative; correlational; quasi-experimental; experimental; causal comparative; survey | Qualitative; phenomenology; ethnographic; symbolic interaction; naturalistic |
| Techniques of gathering data | Mainly questionnaires, observations, tests and experiments | Mainly interviews, participant observation, pictures, photographs, diaries and documents |

Adapted from Chilisa (2011)

The present study uses a positivistic objectivist approach as it is quantitative in nature with its main purpose to objectively report on empirical observations (see section 3.2 for purpose of the study and 3.4 for method and design).

3.4 Research Methods and Design

Research design, as described by Sekaran and Bougie (2014) is the blueprint for the collection, measurement, and analysis of data. Generally, there are three accepted methods of collecting research data, namely quantitative methods, qualitative methods and mixed methods. Mixed methods are essentially a combination of the first two methods.

Qualitative research is conducted in a natural setting in which the researcher gathers data, analyses it inductively, focuses on the participants' meanings, and describes the process that is both expressive and persuasive (Lofland and Lofland, 1995). Data collected through this research technique is often facilitated through some sort of interviewing process and tends to be very in-depth and rich. Due to the generally small sample sizes, qualitative data is often non-generalizable and is very subjective as individuals report on their perceptions on the topic(s) being investigated (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000; Sekaran and Bougie, 2014). Nonetheless, the information is still valid and requires that conclusions and recommendations made be based on the decision-maker's experience (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010; Sekaran and Bougie, 2014).

Quantitative research can be described as a formal, objective, systematic process that tests relationships, and examines cause-and-effect interactions among numerous variables (Sekaran and Bougie, 2014). Quantitative methods focus on objective methods for collecting, analysing and interpreting data. Data collection using this method is normally facilitated with structured questionnaires in which the responses are coded numerically for the ease of analysis and data manipulation. Due to its numerical component, statistical inferences can be made and, depending on sample size relative to the population of interest, findings can be generalised (Babbie, 2010; Sekaran and Bougie, 2014).

Since the present study is descriptive in nature, the quantitative research approach was considered the most appropriate choice to use. This approach also permits analysis and manipulation of data in ways that qualitative data is unable. The quantitative approach was

also favoured because of the potential generalisability of the research findings over the entire Durban Container Terminal's Middle Management population.

3.4.1 Participants and Study Location

The targeted participants of the study were MMs from TPT's Durban Container Terminal (DCT). The study specifically aimed to gain an understanding of the environment that these managers found themselves in. As such, it is their perceptions that are the primary focus of this study.

3.4.2 Sample Population

Transnet's DCT has in the region of 47 MMs in charge of operations throughout the terminal. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2014), a sample size of 42 valid responses is considered representative of a population size of 47 at the 95 % confidence level.

3.5 Sampling Method

The present study is a descriptive study. Because the results are intended to be generalizable over the entire Middle Management population at the DCT, the probability random sampling technique was used. This method is described as one of the best techniques for collecting data in that it highly reflects the population of interest (Sekaran and Bougie, 2014). In probability random sampling, each individual within a population of interest, has a known or an equally likely chance of being selected as part of the sample (Sekaran and Bougie, 2014).

3.6 Data Collection Instrument

Since the quantitative research approach was used, research data were collected by means of a self-administered structured questionnaire. Participant responses were coded for statistical analysis. Similar questions and statements from previous studies informed the design of the data collection instrument. The design also included specific questions that the researcher aimed to address. The questionnaire consisted of six sections; a summary of these is shown in Table 3.2, with the specific questions or statements shown in section 3.6.2.

Table 3.2: Overview of sections in questionnaire

| Section | Description |
|----------|-------------------------------------|
| A | Demographics |
| B | The organisation as an employer |
| C | Leadership training and development |
| D | Job competency |
| E | Managing employees |
| F | Employment equity |

A variety of scaling techniques and measures were used to extract data for the above sections. These included the use of nominal scales, ordinal scales, Likert scales, and free text boxes for participants to specify their choice of certain options. The scales will be discussed in section 3.6.1.1 under the heading “Design”.

3.6.1 Questionnaire Construction

The questionnaire was designed using MS Word 2016. Several versions of the questionnaire were constructed prior the final version that was administered to participants. Construction of the questionnaire involved designing and pretesting before it was finalised. These processes are described briefly below:

3.6.1.1 Design

The first step of the design used questions and statements obtained from the review of literature. Informal interviews were also conducted with Middle Managers at DCT to get an idea of some of their concerns. The feedback received from them helped better inform the design of the questionnaire. The revisions made to the questionnaire also concentrated on the general layout and the ease of comprehension.

During the design phase, different scaling techniques were used to capture responses. A scale is a tool or mechanism used in research to differentiate individuals, groups, objects or events on variables of interest in some sort of meaningful way (Sekaran and Bougie, 2014). The scales used in this research included nominal and ordinal scales. There are generally four types of scaling used in research. These are nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio. The level and extent of analysis that can be performed on the data obtained using the different

types of scales increases from nominal through to ratio (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). Descriptions of the scaling used in relevant sections of the questionnaire are described in the following paragraphs.

3.6.1.2 *Nominal Scales*

This type of scaling was used quite extensively in the beginning of the research tool to collect nominal data i.e. data that was categorical in nature. These data were collected for descriptive statistics purposes and focussed mainly on participants' demographics. This included age, gender, race, years of service, and educational background.

3.6.1.3 *Ordinal Scales*

Sekaran and Bougie (2010, 2014) describe ordinal scales as categorised scaling that is rank-ordered in some meaningful way. This gives it an additional dimension to nominal scaling as nominal scaling is not rank ordered. The Likert-Scale was the main form of ordinal scaling that was used in this study to measure participants' perceptions on variables of interest. It was used to cover sections B, D, E & F of the study questionnaire. Because of its extensive use in the present study, it is discussed briefly in the following section.

3.6.1.4 *Likert Scales*

Likert scales are used to assess how strongly study participants agree or disagree with statements (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). The 5-point Likert scale was used in the questionnaire to assess Middle Managers' opinions and levels of satisfaction. The scale ranged from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". The analysis of Likert scale data can be performed through two approaches. In the first approach, individual scale items can be analysed separately. The second approach involves summing up responses with other related items to create a score for a group of statements. Because of the flexibility of the scale to be analysed via the latter approach, Likert scales are sometimes referred to as summative scales (Bertram, 2007; Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). Table 3.3 tabulates the strengths and weaknesses of using the Likert scale.

Table 3.3: Likert Scale Strengths and Weaknesses

| <u>Strengths:</u> |
|---|
| • easy to construct |
| • scale is often highly reliable |
| • easy for participants to read and to complete |
| |
| <u>Weaknesses:</u> |
| • central tendency bias |
| - participants may avoid extreme response categories |
| • acquiescence bias |
| - participants may agree with statements as presented in order to “please” the researcher |
| • social desirability bias |
| - portray themselves in a more socially favourable light rather than being honest |
| • lack of reproducibility |
| • validity may be difficult to demonstrate |
| - is what you set out to test actually being measured |

There has been much debate in academic circles on how to treat Likert scale data. According to Edwards and Edmondson (2011) the Likert scale is ordinal in nature, although it is often erroneously assumed to be an interval scale by some researchers for the ease of analyses. Boone and Boone (2012), on the other hand, argued that Likert scale data could be treated as interval data. In motivating their argument, they drew a distinction between Likert-type items and Likert scale data. Likert-type items, according to Boone and Boone (2012), referred to a single test item within the Likert scale that did not necessarily form part of a composite. Likert scale data, on the other hand, consisted of a series of questions or statements that formed part of a composite. For the purposes of this study, Likert data were treated as ordinal and the analyses applied to the data, therefore, were performed within the restrictions or confines placed by this form of data. Significance was assessed using the Kruskal-Wallis test.

3.6.1.5 Pilot testing

In the second phase of the survey process, the questionnaire was first piloted to five MMs at the DCT. Each manager was given a brief description about the study and asked to complete the questionnaire. They were encouraged to give feedback on the ease of going through the questionnaire, its layout, clarity and relevance of the questions. The feedback received was used to further refine the questionnaire to its present state.

3.6.2 Questionnaire overview

This section gives a broad overview of the sections of the questionnaire shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.4: Demographic data

| SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA | |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| 1. | Age (<i>Please tick (✓) in the spaces provided</i>) |
| | 21-30 |
| | 31-40 |
| | 41-50 |
| | 50+ |
| | |
| 2. | Gender |
| | Male |
| | Female |
| | |
| 3. | Race |
| | African |
| | Coloured |
| | Indian |
| | White |
| | Other (<i>please specify below</i>) |
| | |
| 4. | Years of service |
| | < 1 year |
| | 1-5years |
| | 6-10years |
| | 11-15 years |
| | 16-20 years |
| | > 20 years |
| | |
| 5. | Highest level of education |
| | Secondary School |
| | Diploma |
| | Undergraduate Degree |
| | Postgraduate Diploma |
| | Honours Degree |
| | Master's Degree |
| | PhD / Doctorate |
| | Other (<i>please specify below</i>) |

This section was included in the study to get a general overview of the study’s participants. It also served as a basis of comparison to tease out any significant findings and for profiling the organisation *inter alia*. Ordinal scales were used to extract data for sections 1, 4 and 5; while nominal scales were used to extract data for sections 2 and 3 (see Table 3.4).

Table 3.5: Perceptions about the employer

| SECTION B: THE ORGANISATION AS AN EMPLOYER | | | | | |
|--|-----------------|--------------|----------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| Statement | S. Agree | Agree | Neutral | Disagree | S. Disagree |
| 6. The organisation supports its managers. | | | | | |
| 7. The organisation has individual developmental plans for its managers. | | | | | |
| 8. The organisation recognises and rewards good performance by its managers. | | | | | |
| 9. I am proud to tell people that I work for my employer. | | | | | |
| 10. My current working conditions allow for a good work life balance. | | | | | |
| 11. My organisation regularly checks its managers’ satisfaction levels. | | | | | |

This section assessed participants’ perceptions about the DCT as their employer. The purpose of this section was to investigate the culture and climate that existed in the organisation as perceived by the participants. It was also intended to assess whether employees were content with organisational dynamics, including their development, the support that they received from the organisation and performance recognition. This was achieved by using a five-point Likert scale to evaluate participants’ degree of agreement or disagreement to the six statements shown in Table 3.5.

Table 3.6: Leadership training and development

| SECTION C: LEADERSHIP TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT | | | |
|--|--|------------|-----------|
| <i>(Please tick (√) either Yes or No to the following questions)</i> | | Yes | No |
| 12. | Have you attended (or are you currently attending) any of the TPT Leadership development programmes offered by the organisation? <i>(Please tick (√) in the spaces provided)</i> | | |
| 13. | If YES , please indicate which of the following you are currently attending. If NO please continue to section D). | | |
| i. | Supervisory Skills for Team Leaders | | |
| ii. | Management Development Programme | | |
| iii. | Senior Management Development Programme | | |
| iv. | Executive Development Programme | | |
| 14. | Did you find the content of the Training Programmes to be: | | |
| i. | Relevant | | |
| ii. | Understandable | | |
| iii. | Practical | | |
| 15. | Were you able to apply what you had learnt in Training Programme(s) to enhance your leadership? | | |

This section evaluated the TPT Leadership development programme. It had a threefold purpose. The first was to identify whether all the managers had received in-house leadership development while at the DCT or while at Transnet. The second was to gauge the highest level of leadership training and development that the managers had attained or were in the progress of attaining at the time of the study. Finally, to assess the relevance of the training that they received through the TPT Leadership program. Nominal “yes / no” scaling was used to extract this information.

Table 3.7: Job competency

| SECTION D: JOB COMPETENCY | | | | | |
|---|-----------------|--------------|----------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| Statement | S. Agree | Agree | Neutral | Disagree | S. Disagree |
| 16. I feel competent in my job as a manager. | | | | | |
| 17. DCT takes appropriate steps to ensure a good job fit for managers. | | | | | |
| 18. I feel that there are fair opportunities for advancement at DCT. | | | | | |
| 19. I feel empowered to make management decisions in my area of employment. | | | | | |
| 20. I feel that my concerns are heard and addressed by the organisation. | | | | | |
| 21. My job is rewarding and fulfilling. | | | | | |

This section assessed the sense of confidence that employees had with themselves, their perceptions of how the organisation valued them and the support that they received from the DCT. Once again, a five-point Likert scale was used for the six statements, tabulated in Table 3.7, to extract this information from study participants

Table 3.8: Managing subordinates

| SECTION E: MANAGING EMPLOYEES | | | | | |
|---|-----------------|--------------|----------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| Statement | S. Agree | Agree | Neutral | Disagree | S. Disagree |
| 22. My employees are happy working under me. | | | | | |
| 23. I support and develop my employees. | | | | | |
| 24. Employee individual development plans and goals are important at DCT. | | | | | |
| 25. My employees feel recognised and rewarded | | | | | |

This section evaluated the leader-subordinate relationship. It asks participants to assess the degree to which their subordinates are content under their leadership and whether they took active steps to empower those under their leadership.

Table 3.9: Employment equity

| SECTION F: EMPLOYMENT EQUITY | | | | | |
|--|-----------------|--------------|----------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| Statement | S. Agree | Agree | Neutral | Disagree | S. Disagree |
| 26. The issue of employment equity is addressed effectively in the organisation. | | | | | |
| 27. All races have a fair and equal chance of advancement at DCT. | | | | | |
| 28. Some races have a better chance of advancement than others at DCT. | | | | | |
| 29. Females are well presented in Management at | | | | | |
| 30. Employees react well to female managers at | | | | | |
| 31. Female managers are given equal and fair developmental opportunities as male managers at | | | | | |
| 32. Female managers have the same opportunities of advancement as the male managers at DCT | | | | | |

This section assessed the level of fairness of DCT practices with respect to its practices concerning managers. It evaluated whether participants considered the DCT treat all races and genders fairly in its practices.

3.6.3 Participant Recruitment

Participant recruitment was facilitated through the support of Senior and Executive Management at the DCT. Participants were identified with the help of the Human Resources Department at the DCT. Potential participants were sent an email from the organisation informing them of the research and to encourage their participation. The researcher then physically delivered questionnaires to participants. This approach was favoured because it stood a better chance of getting a higher response rate when compared to emails, which

either get ignored, deleted, or automatically ended up in junk. This method also allowed for the researcher to physically follow-up on participants.

Prior to participation, each participant was given an information sheet about the research and a verbal description of the purpose of the research. They were also informed that their participation was voluntary and that they could withdraw their participation at any point during the study. Their confidentiality was also assured. They were then asked to complete an informed consent form indicating that they understood the purpose of the study, that their participation was voluntary; and that they understood their roles and rights in participating.

3.6.4 Data Entry

The data obtained from questionnaires was captured into a MS Excel 2016 spreadsheet. Each cell was pre-loaded with drop down lists to prevent inappropriate data being captured. The lists reduced data capturing errors as restrictions were placed on each cell. Each questionnaire collected was given a unique identifier on the questionnaire and in the database. This allowed for the locating of particular questionnaires in the event of data inconsistencies and for data verification purposes. In addition, responses were coded numerically to ease data manipulation and analysis.

3.7 Reliability and Validity

Validity and reliability are two essential features in evaluating a measuring instrument (Tavakol and Dennick, 2011). Reliability tests the consistency of a measuring instrument's ability to measure a particular concept of interest, while validity measures how well that instrument is able to measure what it is intended to measure (Tavakol and Dennick, 2011; Sekaran and Bougie, 2014). Cronbach's Alpha was used to test for reliability. Cronbach's Alpha is also believed to be one of the most objective tools for testing the reliability of a measuring instrument (Coakes and Ong, 2011).

3.7.1 Cronbach's Alpha

At its conception, Cronbach's alpha was intended to provide some sort of standard measure of the internal consistency of a test or scale. It is expressed as a number between 0 and 1, with numbers closer to 1 indicating higher degrees of reliability. In general, alpha readings below 0,6 are considered poor, between 0,6 but less than 0,8 are considered acceptable, whilst readings that are 0,8 and greater are normally presumed to be good (Tavakol and

Dennick, 2011; Sekaran and Bougie, 2014). The reliability or internal consistency of the scales used in the questionnaire, as measured by their Cronbach Alpha's, are shown in Table 3.10).

Table 3.10: Reliability of collection tool as measured by Cronbach's Alpha

| Section | Description | Cronbach's Alpha | N of Items |
|---------|--------------------------|------------------|------------|
| B | Organisation as Employer | 0,768 | 6 |
| D | Job Competency | 0,860 | 6 |
| E | Employee Management | 0,802 | 4 |
| F | Employment Equity | 0,791 | 7 |
| B,D,E&F | Overall Alpha | 0,906 | 23 |

The overall reliability of the study tool was considered good (i.e. Cronbach's alpha = 0,906). This is seen when sections B, D, E and F were combined and tested for reliability, giving rise to an alpha value of 0,906. As stated in the previous paragraph, any reading equal to or greater than 0,8 for Cronbach's Alpha is an indication that the measuring tool's reliability can be considered good for its intended purpose. The reliability of the individual constructs for Job Competency and Employee Management was also considered good, each with alpha values greater than 0,8. The reliability of Organisation as Employer and Employment Equity constructs, although not really that good, were considered acceptable as per Cronbach's alpha (i.e. alphas were between 0,6 and 0,8). However, if the alpha's for these two construct were to be rounded off, they both will fall in the 0,8 to 1.0 range, and would thus be considered very reliable.

3.8 Data Analysis

The pre-coded data captured in MS Excel was exported to the Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (SPSS v 25) software for analyses. Coded responses were then given labels corresponding to response type to facilitate interpretation of analyses output. Predetermined variables were analysed in alignment with the aim and objectives of the study.

Tests for significant differences between categorised responses were performed using the Kruskal-Wallis hypothesis test. This test is a non-parametric test that is an analogue of the one-way between-groups analysis of variance i.e. ANOVA (Coakes and Ong, 2011). It allows for the examining of any possible differences that might exist between two or more groups (Coakes and Ong, 2011).

Spearman's rank-order (Spearman's rho) correlations were performed to test for the existence of monotonic correlations between variables of interest where appropriate. This test is a non-parametric equivalent of Pearson's product-moment correlation. Spearman's correlation coefficient (ρ or r_s) measures the strength and direction of association between two ranked variables. The correlation coefficient ranges from -1 to +1 (Laerd Statistics, 2013). Absolute values closer to 1 indicate a stronger relationship and values closer to zero indicate a weaker relationship. Positive values indicate that the variables are positively related, meaning that as the one variable increases so does the other. The opposite holds true for negative values. Table 3.11 presents a general guide to interpreting Spearman's rho output.

Table 3.11: Spearman's rho strength of association scale

| Range | Interpretation |
|-------------|-------------------------|
| 0.0 – 0.199 | Negligible to very weak |
| 0.2 – 0.39 | Weak |
| 0.4 – 0.69 | Moderate |
| 0.7 – 0.89 | Strong |
| 0.9 – 0.99 | Very Strong |
| 1.0 | Perfect |

Adapted from: O'Neil (2009). Basic statistics for the utterly confused

The general form of a null hypothesis for a Spearman correlation is:

H_0 : *There is **no** [monotonic] association between the two variables [in the population].*

H_1 : *There is [monotonic] association between the two variables [in the population]*

It is important to note that statistical significance of a Spearman's rho correlation does not indicate the strength of the association. In fact, the statistical significance testing of the Spearman's correlation does not provide *any* information about the strength of the relationship. Thus, achieving a value of $p = 0.001$, for example, does not mean that the relationship is stronger than if you achieved a value of $p = 0.045$. This is because the significance test is investigating whether to reject or accept the null hypothesis. If α is set to equal 0.05, achieving a statistically significant Spearman rank-order correlation means that

one can be sure that there is less than a 5% chance that the strength of the relationship found (ρ coefficient) happened by chance if the null hypothesis were true.

3.8.1 Reporting

Summarised data were presented in the form of frequency distribution tables, crosstabulations and relevant graphs. The final report was then prepared once all the data were analysed and interpreted.

3.9 Summary

This chapter provided a summary of the quantitative research methodology used in this study. It began by stating the aims and objectives of the study. Thereafter, philosophical discourse was entered on research paradigm, culminating in why the research approach used in this study was chosen. In addition, the procedures used in conducting the study, including collection tool design and testing, data collection techniques employed and data analysis techniques. Moreover, the reliability of the collection tool was also reported. The data collected using the methods mentioned in this chapter are presented and discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

Results and Discussion

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study. It should be noted that this study was intended specifically for Middle Managers / Management (MM) at Transnet's Durban Container terminal. However, other employees that were non-Middle Managers (non-MM) also showed a keen interest to participate [none of whom had attended any of Transnet Port Terminal's Leadership Development Programmes (LDP)]. The researcher thus felt that their input might add value to some aspects of the study and subsequently collected their responses. Consequently, the study at times refers to two cohorts (i.e. MM and non-MM). The latter answered the same questionnaire as MM, but were guided on which questions pertained specifically to MM and for which no response was required of them. The intent behind including these participants was to identify whether there were any differences and / or shared perceptions by these cohorts on the same aspects of the study. In other words, non-MMs findings were assessed to see whether they corroborated or refuted MMs' views.

The chapter begins by presented the demographics of the study participants. These are often presented as the entire cohort, then grouped by either MM or non-MM. The next sections of the chapter focus on the different constructs that were used to extract information from study participants. These sections are: Perceptions of DCT as employer, the Leadership Development Program, Job Competency, Employee Management and Employment Equity. Each of these sections begins by giving an overview of MM's perceptions, followed by non-MM's point of views on relevant topics. It should be noted that non-MM are sometimes referred to as 'subordinates' or 'employees', while the terms 'management' or 'managers' specifically refer to MM.

4.2 Demographics

A total of 84 participants enrolled in the study. Thirty-five (42%) of these were MMs and the remaining 49 (58%) were subordinates (i.e. non-MMs). The demographics of each of these cohorts will be presented in the coming sub-sections.

4.2.1 Age

Table 4.1: Age profiles of study participants

| Age | Middle Management | | | non-Middle Management | | |
|-------|-------------------|------|--------------|-----------------------|------|--------------|
| | Frequency | % | Cumulative % | Frequency | % | Cumulative % |
| 21-30 | 1 | 3% | 3% | 3 | 6% | 6% |
| 31-40 | 11 | 31% | 34% | 15 | 31% | 37% |
| 41-50 | 20 | 57% | 91% | 19 | 39% | 76% |
| >50 | 3 | 9% | 100% | 12 | 24% | 100% |
| Total | 35 | 100% | | 49 | 100% | |

The majority of study participants within MM were at least 41 years old and at most 50 years old (see Table 4.1). Twenty (57%) of MM fell within this age range. Three (9%) MMs were over the age of 50 years, 11(31%) in their thirties and one MM was still in their twenties. On the whole 23(66%) of MM were over forty years old. These findings indicate that MM is comprised mostly of middle-aged to mature individuals. This is mostly due to vertical growth in the organisation being traditionally based on the number of years of service to the organisation, as many managers had joined the company when they were young (~18-20 years old) and grown within it.

Participants from the non-MM cohort had 3(6%) employees that were in their twenties, 15(31%) in their thirties, 19(39%) in their forties, and 12(24%) over fifty. Holistically, 64% of the entire study participants were over 40 years of age.

4.2.2 Gender

Table 4.2: Total number of participants by management and gender distributions

| Participant Grouping | Frequency [n(%)] | Gender | |
|----------------------|------------------|---------------|-------------|
| | | Female [n(%)] | Male [n(%)] |
| MM | 35(42) | 14(40) | 21(60) |
| non-MM | 49(58) | 15(31) | 34(69) |
| Total | 84(100) | 29(35) | 55(65) |

As seen in Table 4.2, sixty percent of MM were male and 40% female. This indicates that Middle Management at Durban Container Terminal (DCT) is a male dominated arena. The implication is that females have less authority and possibly less advancement opportunities than males at DCT. However, a similar trend was observed among non-MM participants,

with more than 2/3rd's being male. Overall, this may suggest that females are generally a minority within the DCT, hence the seemingly unequal advancement opportunities to Middle Management (see section 4.7 for more insight into employment equity). The low female to male ratio can be attributed to the highly labour intensive environment within the organisation. Traditionally, male labourers were thought to best cope with the high physical demands traditionally associated with the job. It has only been in recent years that less labour intensive opportunities have arisen which has accommodated employing women (anon, 2018).

4.2.3 Race

Table 4.3: Racial profiles of participants

| Race | Entire cohort | | MM | | non-MM | |
|----------|---------------|-----|-----------|-----|-----------|-----|
| | Frequency (n) | % | Frequency | % | Frequency | % |
| African | 52 | 62 | 24 | 69 | 28 | 57 |
| Coloured | 7 | 8 | 4 | 11 | 3 | 6 |
| Indian | 20 | 24 | 5 | 14 | 15 | 31 |
| White | 5 | 6 | 2 | 6 | 3 | 6 |
| Total | 84 | 100 | 35 | 100 | 49 | 100 |

As can be seen in Table 4.3, the majority of participants were Black (African). This race group constituted 62% of the entire study cohort (i.e. the 84 participants). Indians were the second most represented group making up 24% of the study participants. The least represented groups were Coloureds (8%) and Whites (6%). Almost 70% of the participants that formed MM were Black. Five (14%) were Indian, four (11%) Coloured and the remaining two (6%) were White. A similar trend was observed among non-MM employees in that the majority (57%) were Black followed by Indians (31%). The only exception was that Coloured and White non-MM participants each constituted 6% of this group.

The racial profile within the DCT is to a certain degree representative of the racial demographic of the region. According to World Population Review (2018), the majority of the population of Durban is comprised of approximately 51% Blacks, followed by 25% Indians. These two race groups thus represent 76% of the Durban population. Comparing the composition of these two race groups within Middle Management with regional estimates, the difference seems a little out of sync in that they constitute 83% of Middle

Management. This also suggests that Whites and Coloureds are underrepresented among the ranks of MM at the DCT. The World Population Review (2018) estimated the latter two groups to constitute 15% and 9% of the Durban race demographic respectively. Based on observations shown in Table 4.2, these two race groups are disproportionately represented within MM. It is also evident that Blacks are disproportionately overrepresented within the DCT.

4.2.4 Years employed at DCT

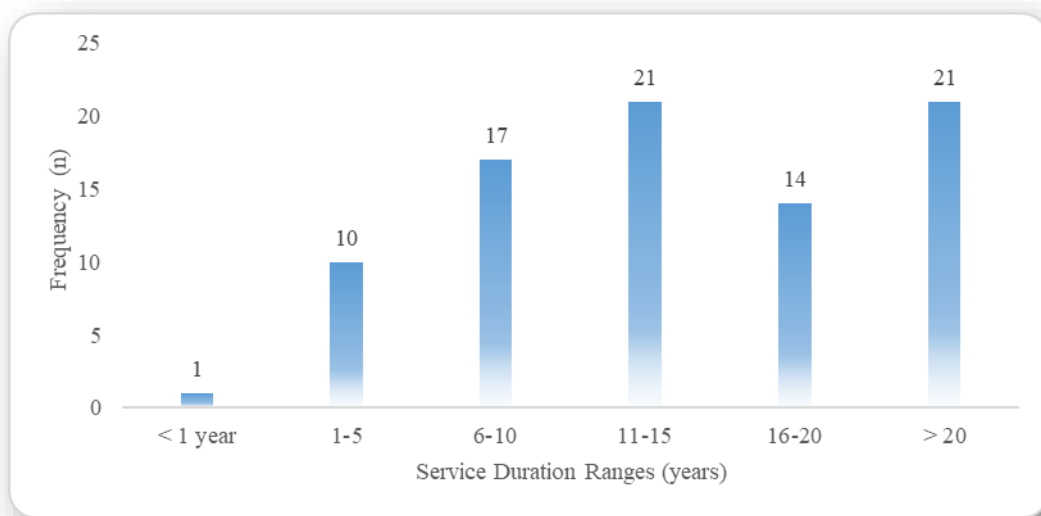


Figure 4.1 : Duration of years employed at DCT

Overall, the majority of study participants were either employed 11-15 years or more than 20 years by the organisation (see Figure 4.1). This is evidenced by 21 (25%) of participants indicating as such within each range. Taken jointly, fifty percent of the entire study population fell within these two groups. It is also evident that 2/3rd's (56 of the 84) of the participants had been in the employ of the organisation for more than 10 years. A breakdown of years of service by cohort is depicted in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Years of service of both MM and non-MM

| Years of Service | Middle Management | | | non-Middle Management | | |
|------------------|-------------------|------|--------------|-----------------------|------|--------------|
| | Frequency | % | Cumulative % | Frequency | % | Cumulative % |
| < 1 | | | | 1 | 2% | 2% |
| 1-5 | 1 | 3% | 3% | 9 | 18% | 20% |
| 6-10 | 6 | 17% | 20% | 11 | 22% | 43% |
| 11-15 | 11 | 31% | 51% | 10 | 20% | 63% |
| 16-20 | 7 | 20% | 71% | 7 | 14% | 78% |
| > 20 | 10 | 29% | 100% | 11 | 22% | 100% |
| Total | 35 | 100% | | 49 | 100% | |

As seen in Table 4.4, there was no notable difference in the number of ‘more experienced’ participants between MM and non-MM. Here, more experienced refers to employment for at least 11 years within the organisation. This is evidenced in 80% of these participants from each cohort having in excess of 10 years of service to the organisation. Within the 18 ‘more experienced’ MMs, 64% of them had been with the company from 11 to 20 years. Seven of these were in their thirties and the remaining 11 were all in their forties. Of the 10 (35%) MMs that had been with the company for more than 20 years, three of them were over the age of 50 years (i.e. the three identified in Table 4.1), while the rest were in their forties (results not shown). Only one participant had been with the organisation for less than five years. This may suggest that this individual had gone through a specific grooming process to specifically fill in a gap that could not be filled in internally. It may also indicate that the skill sets that this new MM has were lacking within the organisation and have yet to be mimicked to develop other employees within the organisation. No notable trend was observed among non-MM as a more or less comparable number of participants fell within each of the years of service ranges, apart from one new employee who had recently joined the organisation (i.e. employed for less than one year).

4.2.5 Level of education

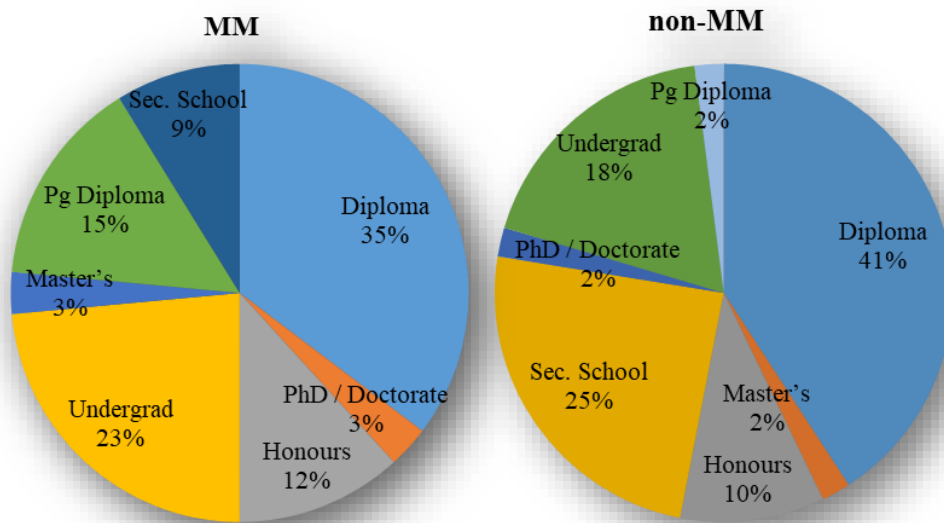


Figure 4.2: Levels of education among MM and non-MM

As illustrated in Figure 4.2, the MMs most frequently had diplomas. A total of 12(35%) of MM had some sort of diploma. Eight (23%) were in possession of an undergraduate qualification, five (15%) a postgraduate diploma, and four (12%) had honours degrees. Of the remaining seven MMs, three had no formal tertiary qualification, while the remaining two MMs had higher degrees, i.e. either a Master's Degree or a PhD / Doctorate. Based on this information it may be deduced that promotion to MM is based more on years of service in the company and level of experience. However, because non-MMs also have a comparable number of years' experience within the organisation, this may suggest that a third factor might be playing a role in deciding who joins the ranks of MMs. This third factor could be, for instance, personal drive or ambition, vision, leadership potential, *inter alia*. This third factor, however, is not education. This can be qualified by observing that non-MMs had an equal number of Master's and PhD / Doctorate degrees, more diplomas, more Undergraduate and more Honours degrees than did MMs. Based on sheer numbers, non-MM participants had 37 tertiary qualifications among them, compared to 31 for MM.

4.3 Perceptions of DCT as employer

This section presents the general perceptions that participants had of the DCT as their employer. At first an overview will be presented on whether participants agreed or disagreed

with the statements regarding their employer (Table 4.5), thereafter, their levels of agreement to these statements will be detailed per cohort where appropriate (Table 4.6).

Table 4.5 was constructed from participants’ responses tabulated in Table 4.6. Participant responses from a 5-point Likert scale were compressed into 3 categories. Specifically, strongly agree and agree were grouped together as ‘agree’ and strongly disagree and disagree were grouped together as ‘disagree’. The third category was the neutral response category. A similar approach to presenting participants’ perceptions is used for the upcoming sections within this chapter that make use of the 5 point Likert scale.

Table 4.5: Overview of MM perceptions about the organisation

| Statement | Agree [n(%)] | Disagree [n(%)] | Neutral [n(%)] | Row Total (n) |
|--|--------------|-----------------|----------------|---------------|
| 6. The organisation supports its managers. | 23(66) | 5(14) | 7(20) | 35 |
| 7. The organisation has individual developmental plans for its managers. | 22(63) | 5(14) | 8(23) | 35 |
| 8. The organisation recognises and rewards good performance by its managers. | 20(57) | 4(11) | 11(31) | 35 |
| 9. I am proud to tell people that I work for my employer. | 28(80) | 3(9) | 4(11) | 35 |
| 10. My current working conditions allow for a good work life balance. | 17(49) | 6(17) | 12(34) | 35 |
| 11. My organisation regularly checks its managers’ satisfaction levels. | 13(37) | 9(26) | 13(37) | 35 |
| Column Total [n(%)] | 123(59) | 32(15) | 55(26) | 210 |

*percentages in () are based on row totals for the responses received for that particular statement

Overall, the majority of responses received from MMs agreed to the statements regarding their organisation. As seen in Table 4.5, 59% of the responses received from MM were in favour of the organisation. This indicates that overall, the majority of MM had a good perception of the organisation as employer. Of the six statements evaluating employee perceptions of the organisation, MM indicated most positively that they were proud to be employed by the DCT. This is evident in 28 (80%) of the MMs indicating that they were proud to tell people that they worked for the organisation. Twenty (57%) MMs also felt that the organisation rewarded their performance and 23 (66%) held that managers received support from the organisation. The only area that seemed to be lacking was the frequency with which the organisation monitored managers’ levels of satisfaction. Here 9 (26%) of the MMs raised this as an area of dissatisfaction for them. Table 4.6 gives a more detailed breakdown on participants’ actual responses. In all the statements within this construct, more MMs opted to abstain from either affirming or refuting the statements.

Table 4.6: Participant perceptions of DCT as employer by cohort

| Statement | Response | Managerial level | | Row Total (n) |
|--|-------------|------------------|-------------|---------------|
| | | *MM (n) | *non-MM (n) | |
| 6. The organisation supports its managers | Disagree | 5 | 3 | 8 |
| | Neutral | 7 | 17 | 24 |
| | Agree | 20 | 27 | 47 |
| | S. Agree | 3 | 2 | 5 |
| 7. The organisation has individual developmental plans for its managers. | S. Disagree | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| | Disagree | 5 | 3 | 8 |
| | Neutral | 8 | 15 | 23 |
| | Agree | 19 | 25 | 44 |
| 8. The organisation recognises and rewards good performance by its managers. | S. Agree | 3 | 5 | 8 |
| | S. Disagree | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| | Disagree | 4 | 9 | 13 |
| | Neutral | 11 | 14 | 25 |
| 9. I am proud to tell people that I work for my employer. | Agree | 16 | 22 | 38 |
| | S. Agree | 4 | 3 | 7 |
| | S. Disagree | 2 | 1 | 3 |
| | Disagree | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 10. My current working conditions allow for a good work life balance. | Neutral | 4 | 11 | 15 |
| | Agree | 19 | 24 | 43 |
| | S. Agree | 9 | 13 | 22 |
| | S. Disagree | 1 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. My organisation regularly checks its managers' satisfaction levels. | Disagree | 5 | 8 | 13 |
| | Neutral | 12 | 15 | 27 |
| | Agree | 13 | 20 | 33 |
| | S. Agree | 4 | 2 | 6 |
| | S. Disagree | 3 | 4 | 7 |
| | Disagree | 6 | 8 | 14 |
| | Neutral | 13 | 21 | 34 |
| | Agree | 11 | 15 | 26 |
| | S. Agree | 2 | 1 | 3 |

*Total MM=35 per statement; Total non-MM=49 per statement

As stated in the preceding paragraph, the majority of participants prided being employed by the DCT. This can be seen in 28 (80%) of MMs either strongly agreeing or agreeing to the statement “I am proud to tell people that I work for my employer”. This statement was also the most strongly agreed to statement of the six statements comprising the employer perceptions construct. Twenty-three (66%) of MMs also felt that they received adequate support from the organisation and a further 22 (63%) felt that DCT had individual development plans for its managers. A weak majority (57%) of MMs felt that their performance was adequately rewarded by the organisation. This was the only statement across all constructs the found statistically significantly different responses among MMs based on their respective levels of education (p-value= 0,042 using Kruskal-Wallis Test; see Appendix 2). Interestingly, it was the highly educated MMs (Masters and PhD / Doctorate) who felt that they were not adequately rewarded, while the MMs with either diplomas or undergraduate degrees felt justly rewarded (results not shown). In addition, only 17 (48%)

MMs considered their current working conditions as permitting a good work life balance. Furthermore, only 13 (37%) MMs felt that the organisation took time to monitor their levels of satisfaction. The statements that MMs were most uncertain of were “current working conditions allow for a good work life balance” and “organisation regularly checks its managers’ satisfaction levels” with 12 (34%) and 13 (37%) of MMs taking the middle ground respectively.

A similar trend was observed in the perceptions of non-MM. Like MMs, non-MM were proud to be employed by the organisation [37 (76%)]; 30 (61%) believed that the organisation had individual developmental plans for its managers; 29 (59%) felt that the organisation supported its managers, 25 (51%) held that the organisation rewarded good performance; and 22 (45%) perceived their working conditions conducive to a good work-life balance. However, 21 (43%) of non-MM were most unsure about the frequency with which the DCT checked on their managers’ levels of satisfaction and 17 (35%) did not comment on whether they thought that the DCT supported their managers.

4.4 Leadership Training and Development

All 35 MMs that participated in the study had undergone (or were currently undergoing) leadership training in the Transnet Port Terminals Leadership Development Programme (LDP). In the following sub-sections a snapshot of the number of MMs attending each course is given followed by how they rated the effectiveness of the LDP.

4.4.1 Leadership Development Programme attendance profile

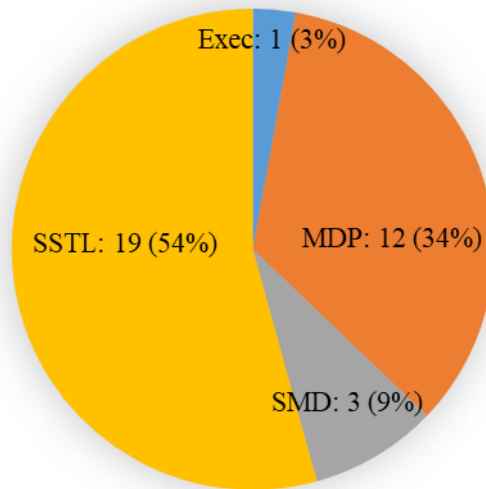


Figure 4.3: TPT Leadership Development Programme attended by MMs

As illustrated in Figure 4.3 the majority [19(54%)] of MMs attended the Supervisory Skills for Team Leaders Programme (SSSL), twelve (34%) attended the Management Development Programme (MDP), three (9%) attended the Senior Management Development Programme (SMD) and one attended the Executive Development Programme (Exec). The only participant that was doing the Exec Programme was a Black male in his thirties that had been with the organisation for 11-15 years, and was in possession of an Honours level qualification (see Appendix 1). The three MMs that attended the SMD Programme comprised of two females and one male, all of whom were in their forties. Of these, the male MM had attained the highest formal tertiary qualification, namely a Master's Degree, and had been with the organisation for the shortest period (6-10 years). The females had either an Undergraduate or Honours Degree and were with the organisation between 11-20 years.

Attendees for the MDP varied and included the MM that did not have a formal tertiary qualification, one of the MMs that was over 50 and the MM that had been with the organisation for a maximum of 5 years. The only MM with a PhD / Doctorate attended the Supervisory Skills for Team Leaders (SSTM) Programme.

As MMs were asked to report on only one TPT programme, specifically the one that they were attending at the time of study or their most recent one, it is possible that they had

completed at least one other TPT programme. As such, the preceding presentation of results presents a cross sectional view of MM and the TPT Leadership Development Programme. Consequently, no real inferences could be made from the observed trends. Therefore, the results are a snapshot and are likely lacking in depth due to the absence of further information.

4.4.2 TPT Leadership Programme evaluation

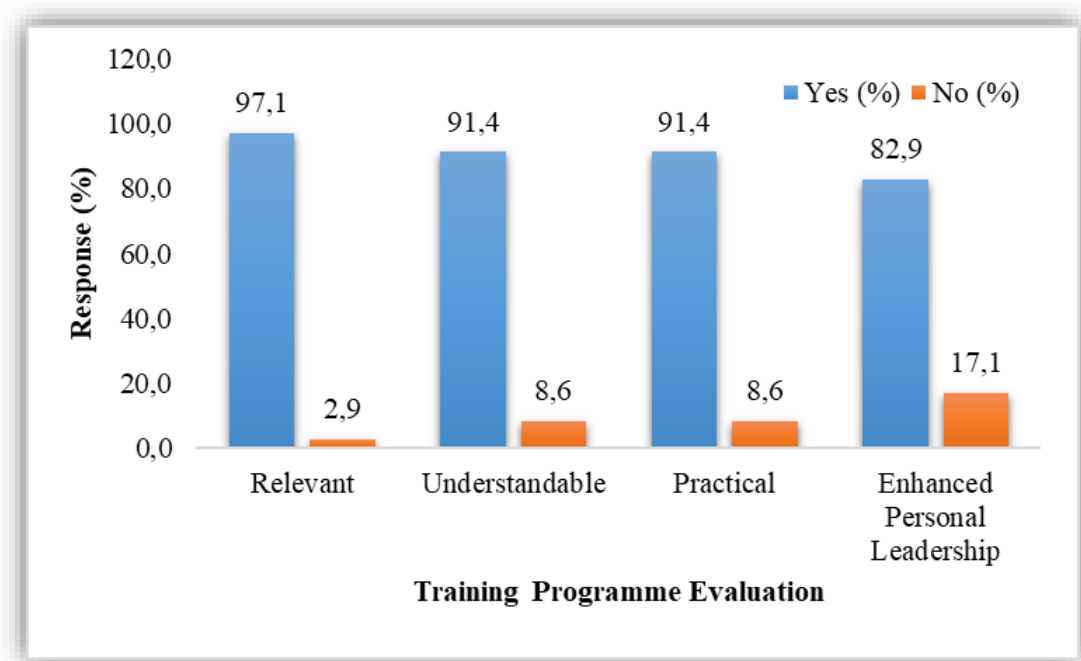


Figure 4.4: MM's perceptions on the TPT Leadership Development Programme

Overall, the vast majority of MMs perceived the content of the training programme to be excellent. All MMs, except one, found the content very relevant. Thirty-two (91.4%) MMs thought that the content was both understandable and practical. When asked whether they were able to apply what they had learnt in training programme(s) to enhance their leadership, 29(83%) of them answered in the affirmative. It is therefore evident that MMs valued what they had learnt via the leadership development programmes and found their respective programmes to be relevant and practical to their leadership development.

4.4.3 TPT LDP correlations

Spearman’s rho correlations were performed to detect any significant correlations between the different elements used to evaluate the TPT LDP and leadership enhancement. The findings based on the responses of all 35 MMs (i.e. n=35) are tabulated in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Spearman's rho correlations for the TPT LDP

| Dimension | Relevant | Understandable | Practical | Enhances leadership |
|---------------------|----------|----------------|-----------|---------------------|
| Relevance | 1,000 | 0,560** | 0,560** | 0,377* |
| Sig. (2-tailed) | | 0,0005 | 0,0005 | 0,0256 |
| Understandable | 0,560** | 1,000 | 1,000** | 0,402* |
| Sig. (2-tailed) | 0,0005 | | | 0,0166 |
| Practical | 0,560** | 1,000** | 1,000 | 0,402* |
| Sig. (2-tailed) | 0,0005 | | | 0,0166 |
| Enhances leadership | 0,377* | 0,402* | 0,402* | 1,000 |
| Sig. (2-tailed) | 0,026 | 0,017 | 0,017 | |

*: Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level; **: Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

Spearman Ranges and Interpretation: 0.00 – 0.19 “very weak”; 0.2 – 0.39 “weak”; 0.4 – 0.69 “moderate”; 0.7 – 0.89 “strong”; 0.9 – 0.99 “very strong”; 1.0 “perfect”.

Statistically, there is sufficient evidence to suggest that a moderate positive monotonic correlation exists between how understandable and practical the content of the Leadership Development Programme and the enhancement of MMs’ leadership development at the 0.05 level of significance ($r_s = 0.402$, $n=35$ $p < 0.0166$). Simplistically stated, statistical evidence suggests that increasing the practical components of the course(s) and / or the more the MMs understand the content of the course(s) that they are taking, is likely to increase leadership development moderately. There was also a weak positive monotonic association between the relevance of the leadership programme and leadership enhancement at the 0.05 level of significance ($r_s = 0.377$, $n=35$ $p < 0.0256$).

4.5 Job Competency

Table 4.8: Overview of MM perceptions of their job competency

| Statement | Agree [n(%)] | Disagree [n(%)] | Neutral [n(%)] | Row Total (n) |
|---|--------------|-----------------|----------------|---------------|
| 16. I feel competent in my job as a manager. | 30(86) | 0(0) | 5(14) | 35 |
| 17. DCT takes appropriate steps to ensure a good job fit for managers. | 18(51) | 4(11) | 13(37) | 35 |
| 19. I feel empowered to make management decisions in my area of employment. | 21(62) | 6(18) | 7(21) | 34 |
| 18. I feel that there are fair opportunities for advancement at DCT. | 19(56) | 6(18) | 9(26) | 34 |
| 20. I feel that my concerns are heard and addressed by the organisation. | 21(60) | 9(26) | 5(14) | 35 |
| 21. My job is rewarding and fulfilling. | 25(71) | 3(9) | 7(20) | 35 |
| Column Total [n(%)] | 134(64) | 28(13) | 46(22) | 208 |

Overall, the majority of MMs agreed to the statements regarding their organisation (see Table 4.8). This is evident in 64% of the total responses from MMs being in the affirmative concerning job competency. Apart from five neutral responses, all the MMs perceived themselves to be competent in their jobs. Twenty-five (71%) MMs considered their jobs both rewarding and fulfilling. Additionally, 62% of them felt empowered to make management decisions in their areas of employment. The least supported statements were “DCT takes appropriate steps to ensure a good job fit for managers” and “I feel that there are fair opportunities for advancement at DCT” with 51% and 56% support respectively. Furthermore, 37% and 26% of the MMs opted to remain neutral to these statements respectively. Other than their concerns being heard and attended to, MMs most often opted to remain neutral rather than to disagree. This made this statement the most disagreed to statement in the job competency construct. Here twenty-six percent of the MMs did not feel that the organisation heard and addressed their concerns. Table 4.9 gives a more detailed breakdown on participants’ actual responses.

Table 4.9: Participant perceptions of their job competencies by cohort

| Statement | Response | Managerial level | | Row Total (n) |
|---|-------------|------------------|------------|---------------|
| | | *MM (n) | non-MM (n) | |
| 16. I feel competent in my job as a manager. | S. Disagree | 0 | | 0 |
| | Disagree | 0 | | 0 |
| | Neutral | 5 | | 5 |
| | Agree | 20 | | 20 |
| | S. Agree | 10 | | 10 |
| 17. DCT takes appropriate steps to ensure a good job fit for managers. | S. Disagree | 1 | | 1 |
| | Disagree | 3 | | 3 |
| | Neutral | 13 | | 13 |
| | Agree | 14 | | 14 |
| | S. Agree | 4 | | 4 |
| 19. I feel empowered to make management decisions in my area of employment. | S. Disagree | 1 | | 1 |
| | Disagree | 5 | | 5 |
| | Neutral | 7 | | 7 |
| | Agree | 15 | | 15 |
| | S. Agree | 6 | | 6 |
| 18. I feel that there are fair opportunities for advancement at DCT. | S. Disagree | 3 | 3 | 6 |
| | Disagree | 4 | 7 | 11 |
| | Neutral | 9 | 15 | 24 |
| | Agree | 13 | 21 | 34 |
| | S. Agree | 6 | 1 | 7 |
| 20. I feel that my concerns are heard and addressed by the organisation. | S. Disagree | 3 | 4 | 7 |
| | Disagree | 6 | 7 | 13 |
| | Neutral | 5 | 16 | 21 |
| | Agree | 17 | 18 | 35 |
| | S. Agree | 4 | 2 | 6 |
| 21. My job is rewarding and fulfilling. | S. Disagree | 2 | 2 | 4 |
| | Disagree | 1 | 8 | 9 |
| | Neutral | 7 | 12 | 19 |
| | Agree | 23 | 20 | 43 |
| | S. Agree | 2 | 5 | 7 |

*Total MM=35 (except statement 19 which has n=34); Total non-MM=47

As seen in Table 4.9, thirty (76%) MMs felt very competent in their roles as managers. However, five (14%) were unsure of themselves on the subject. Although a slight majority [18(51%)] of MMs perceived the DCT as taking appropriate steps at ensuring that there was a good fit between them and their jobs, a large number of MMs were not entirely convinced that the organisation did. This is evident in 13(37%) MMs opting not to commit themselves. Twenty-one (62%) MMs felt that they were empowered to make management decisions in their employment areas. Furthermore, 25 (72%) MMs considered their jobs to be worthwhile

(i.e. rewarding and fulfilling) and 21(60%) felt that the organisation listened to and acted on their concerns. However, nine (26%) felt that the organisation did not value their concerns. Twenty percent of MMs considered advancement opportunities within the DCT to be bias (i.e. unfair advancement opportunities). In comparison, less than 50% of non-MMs considered advancement opportunities at the DCT fair. Only 20 (42%) non-MMs felt that their concerns were heard and addressed. In addition, only 25 (54%) non-MMs considered their jobs both rewarding and fulfilling.

Kruskal-Wallis hypotheses tests to detect significant differences in responses given by MMs based on age, gender, race, years of service and educational level found no statistically significant differences at the 95% confidence interval (CI). This suggests that the overall views expressed by MMs on job competency were objective and not influenced by any of the aforementioned variables (results not shown).

4.6 Employee Management

Table 4.10: Overview of MM perceptions of managing employees

| Statement | Agree [n(%)] | Disagree [n(%)] | Neutral [n(%)] | Row Total (n) |
|---|--------------|-----------------|----------------|---------------|
| 22. My employees are happy working under me. | 28(82) | 1(3) | 5(15) | 34 |
| 23. I support and develop my employees. | 33(97) | 1(3) | 0(0) | 34 |
| 24. Employee individual development plans and goals are important at DCT. | 23(68) | 7(21) | 4(12) | 34 |
| 25. My employees feel recognised and rewarded by me. | 21(62) | 6(18) | 7(21) | 34 |
| Column Total [n(%)] | 105(77) | 15(11) | 16(12) | 136 |

Overall, over 77% of the responses received from MMs were positive and in favour of the employee management construct (see Table 4.10). This indicates that, overall, MMs were confident of the working relationship that they had with their subordinates. Most notably, MMs indicated that they supported and developed their employees. Ninety-seven percent of them firmly believed that they looked after their employees in this particular aspect. Only one MM felt otherwise and disagreed. The second most highly supported statement among MMs was “My employees are happy working under me”. Specifically, 28 (82%) of MMs believed that their employees were happy being led by them. Once again, only one MM disagreed, while five (15%) chose to stay neutral. Slightly more than 2/3rds were of the view that each employee’s development plans and goals were important to the DCT. However, seven (21%) MMs did not share this view and four (12%) chose to ‘not comment’. Although

21(62%) of the MMs were under the impression that their employees felt recognised and rewarded for their efforts, 6(18%) of them did not agree and a further 7(21%) took the middle ground. The detailed responses of MM together with the perceptions of non-MM are presented in Table 4.11 and discussed in the following paragraph.

Table 4.11: Participant perceptions on employee management by cohort

| Statement | Response | Managerial level | | Row Total (n) |
|---|-------------|------------------|------------|---------------|
| | | *MM (n) | non-MM (n) | |
| 22. My employees are happy working under me. | S. Disagree | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| | Disagree | 0 | 2 | 2 |
| | Neutral | 5 | 12 | 17 |
| | Agree | 20 | 21 | 41 |
| | S. Agree | 8 | 11 | 19 |
| 23. I support and develop my employees. | S. Disagree | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| | Disagree | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| | Neutral | 0 | 7 | 7 |
| | Agree | 22 | 25 | 47 |
| | S. Agree | 11 | 13 | 24 |
| 24. Employee individual development plans and goals are important at DCT. | S. Disagree | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| | Disagree | 7 | 4 | 11 |
| | Neutral | 4 | 13 | 17 |
| | Agree | 14 | 17 | 31 |
| | S. Agree | 9 | 12 | 21 |
| 25. My employees feel recognised and rewarded by me. | S. Disagree | 2 | 2 | 4 |
| | Disagree | 4 | 2 | 6 |
| | Neutral | 7 | 14 | 21 |
| | Agree | 17 | 19 | 36 |
| | S. Agree | 4 | 10 | 14 |

*Total MM=34; Total non-MM=47

As seen in Table 4.11, a similar trend was observed among non-MM as that of MM responses. Overall, the majority of non-MMs supported statements presented in this construct assessing employee management. This is evidenced in over 60% of them agreeing (i.e. either agreeing or strongly agreeing) with all four statements comprising the employee management construct. Similar to MM, non-MM responded most favourably to the statement, “I support and develop my employees”. Here 38 (81%) of them agreed with this statement, whereas 97% of MMs were convinced that they achieved in this area of the manager-employee relationship. This reaffirms MM’s confidence that they performed well in this area of the manager-employee relationship, as confirmed by non-MMs. However, MMs should not be overconfident in this area because there were some employees that felt that MMs lacked in supporting and developing them. Employees that were not convinced that MMs supported and developed them either opted to remain neutral (15%) or openly

disagreed (4%). Like MM, non-MM also ranked the statement “My employees are happy working under me” the second highest. Specifically, 32 (68%) of non-MMs indicated that they were happy serving under the leadership of their MMs. Three (6%) non-MMs, however, were not happy under the leadership of their respective MMs. Quite a large number (26%) of non-MMs refrained from taking a firm stance on this subject and chose to remain neutral. Finally, sixty-two percent of non-MMs believed that the DCT considered employee development plans and goals important, and felt that their work efforts were recognised and rewarded by the DCT. In summary, the perceptions of non-MMs corroborated the views held by MMs on the different aspects of employee management.

As stated by Brightman (2004), successful leadership development among managers includes managing relationships with sub-ordinates. In support of this view, Mohelska and Sokolova (2015) state that a managers’ success in leading subordinates is judged by work performance and team results. Furthermore, failure to do this was one of the key reasons for poor performance, work dissatisfaction, turnover and absenteeism (Brightman, 2004). The relationship demonstrated above is a good indication of MMs’ leadership performance.

Kruskal-Wallis hypotheses tests to detect significant differences in responses given by MMs based on age, gender, race, years of service and educational level found no statistically significant differences at the 95% confidence interval (CI). This suggests that the overall views expressed by MMs on employee management were objective and not influenced by any of the aforementioned variables (results not shown).

4.7 Employment Equity

Table 4.12: Overview of MM perceptions of employment equity

| Statement | Agree [n(%)] | Disagree [n(%)] | Neutral [n(%)] | Row Total (n) |
|---|--------------|-----------------|----------------|---------------|
| 26. Employment equity is addressed effectively | 20(57) | 8(23) | 7(20) | 35 |
| 27. All races have a fair and equal chance of | 20(57) | 7(20) | 8(23) | 35 |
| 28. Some races have a better chance of advancement | 16(46) | 7(20) | 12(34) | 35 |
| 29. Females are well presented in Management | 19(54) | 9(26) | 7(20) | 35 |
| 30. Employees react well to female managers | 16(46) | 8(23) | 11(31) | 35 |
| 31. Female managers are given equal and fair | 20(57) | 3(9) | 12(34) | 35 |
| 32. Female managers have the same opportunities of advancement as the male managers | 20(57) | 3(9) | 12(34) | 35 |
| Column Total [n(%)] | 131(53) | 45(18) | 69(28) | 245 |

As shown in Table 4.12, a little under 60% of MMs believed that employment equity was addressed effectively by the DCT; that advancement opportunities were equal and fair to all races, and that female managers had the same developmental and advancement opportunities as their male counterparts. In addition, 19 (54%) MMs felt that females were well represented in management. This seems to contrast with the findings in section 4.2.1 (Table 4.2), in which females constituted only 40% of Middle Management. Furthermore, this statement was the most disagreed to of the seven statements making the employment equity construct, with 26% of MMs indicating that this claim was not true. There was also the perception among MMs that employees were not very receptive to female MMs. This is evidenced in only 16 (46%) MMs indicating that they believed that employees reacted positively to female managers.

Although almost 50% of MMs did not believe that advancement opportunities had a racial preference, however, by virtue of less than the majority dismissing the claim lies the ‘subtle’ implication that advancement opportunities at the DCT had a racial backbone. This view of racial preference is somewhat supported by the findings in section 4.2.3 (see Table 4.3), where it was seen that 69% of MMs were Black. Based on racial demographics, this race group comprises approximately 51% of the Durban population. This suggests the MM profile is not reflective of the racial demographic of the region. Similarly, Indians made up 14% of MMs yet constituted 25% of the racial demographic of Durban (World Population Review, 2018). The detailed responses of MM together with the perceptions of non-MM are presented in Table 4.13 and discussed in the following paragraph.

Table 4.13: Participant perceptions on employment equity

| Statement | Response | Managerial level | | Row Total (n) |
|---|-------------|------------------|------------|---------------|
| | | *MM (n) | non-MM (n) | |
| 26. Employment equity is addressed effectively | S. Disagree | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| | Disagree | 7 | 8 | 15 |
| | Neutral | 7 | 14 | 21 |
| | Agree | 14 | 15 | 29 |
| | S. Agree | 6 | 9 | 15 |
| 27. All races have a fair and equal chance of advancement | S. Disagree | 4 | 6 | 10 |
| | Disagree | 3 | 6 | 9 |
| | Neutral | 8 | 11 | 19 |
| | Agree | 14 | 18 | 32 |
| | S. Agree | 6 | 6 | 12 |
| 28. Some races have a better chance of advancement than others | S. Disagree | 3 | 6 | 9 |
| | Disagree | 4 | 8 | 12 |
| | Neutral | 12 | 14 | 26 |
| | Agree | 11 | 14 | 25 |
| | S. Agree | 5 | 5 | 10 |
| 29. Females are well presented in Management | S. Disagree | 2 | 2 | 4 |
| | Disagree | 7 | 9 | 16 |
| | Neutral | 7 | 11 | 18 |
| | Agree | 14 | 16 | 30 |
| | S. Agree | 5 | 9 | 14 |
| 30. Employees react well to female managers | S. Disagree | 2 | 3 | 5 |
| | Disagree | 6 | 6 | 12 |
| | Neutral | 11 | 15 | 26 |
| | Agree | 13 | 16 | 29 |
| | S. Agree | 3 | 7 | 10 |
| 31. Female managers are given equal and fair developmental opportunities as male managers | S. Disagree | 0 | 2 | 2 |
| | Disagree | 3 | 3 | 6 |
| | Neutral | 12 | 20 | 32 |
| | Agree | 16 | 11 | 27 |
| | S. Agree | 4 | 10 | 14 |
| 32. Female managers have the same opportunities of advancement as the male managers | S. Disagree | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| | Disagree | 2 | 3 | 5 |
| | Neutral | 12 | 21 | 33 |
| | Agree | 15 | 10 | 25 |
| | S. Agree | 5 | 11 | 16 |

*Total MM=35; Total non-MM=47 (except for statements 31 & 32 with 46)

As shown in Table 4.13, employment was not seen equitable by non-MMs. This is evident in the highest supported statement receiving only 53% support from them. Specifically, 25 (53%) felt that females were well represented in management within the organisation. Just over 50% of non-MMs (i.e. 24 employees) believed that the DCT addressed employment equity effectively and that all races had equal and fair opportunities to advance within the organisation. Just under 50% of non-MM indicated that they responded well to female MMs. However, 46% of non-MMs thought that female managers were given the same developmental and advancement opportunities as their male counterparts. Similar to MM, non-MM showed the least amount of support to the statement regarding racial preference

and advancement opportunities. Here only 19 (40%) of non-MM believed that race did not influence the promotion process.

Kruskal-Wallis hypotheses tests to detect significant differences in responses given by MMs based on age, gender, race, years of service and educational level found no statistically significant differences at the 95% confidence interval (CI). This suggests that the overall views expressed by MMs on employment equity were objective and not influenced by any of the aforementioned variables (results not shown).

4.8 Summary

This chapter presented and discussed the findings of this study. It began by describing the demographics of study participants and then discussed participants' perceptions on their employer, their job competencies and employment equity within the DCT. In addition, MMs assessed the leadership development programme and shared their perceptions on employee management. Some of the main findings were that participants felt that the DCT was a great employer. However, the main concern raised by MM was that the organisation failed to check on their levels of satisfaction as often they would have liked. Middle Managers also considered themselves very competent in executing their duties and found their jobs both fulfilling and rewarding. However, they were not very convinced that the DCT took the necessary measures at ensuring a good job fit for managers. Employment equity was more or less considered poor at the DCT. The most glaring points of contention were the lack of female representation within MM and the advantage that some races had over others for promotion opportunities. Middle Managers also felt that they shared a great working relationship with their subordinates and that they were instrumental in developing and supporting them. Lastly, Middle Managers found TPT's leadership development programme to be a value add in that it enhanced their personal leadership and that the content of the programme was relevant, understandable and practical. These are among the few important findings that emerged from the study. The next chapter will present the conclusions and recommendations of the study and draw the study to its end.

CHAPTER FIVE

Recommendations and Conclusions

5.1 Introduction

This study aimed to gain an understanding of Middle Managers as leaders within Transnet Port Terminals' Durban Container Terminal. Specifically, it aimed to investigate how these managers were developed and groomed to execute their duties. As part of understanding the middle manager as leader, the study also investigated whether the organisational environment supported a culture conducive to their development and growth as leaders. As such, the study had four distinctive objectives, namely, to investigate the DCT's organisational culture, to identify the development structures in place for grooming Middle Management for leadership, to investigate the effectiveness of developmental programmes in grooming Middle Managers for leadership; and to explore the receptiveness of subordinates towards Middle Management's leadership.

This chapter, therefore, presents a summary of the study's findings. Conclusions are drawn from the findings in alignment with the research's objectives. Additionally, the study benefits, limitations and recommendations are also presented.

5.2 Research outcomes

The outcomes of this research are presented and discussed under the four objectives that the study aimed to achieve.

5.2.1 Objective 1: To investigate Transnet Port Terminal's organisational culture(s)

This objective aimed to address the question of the type of culture that existed at the DCT.

It is evident from section 4.3 that the DCT provided a work environment that employees enjoyed. They were also proud to be part of the organisation and indicated that they would gladly talk about the organisation to other people. It can thus be deduced that despite the internal organisational dynamic, employees still enjoyed

being members of the organisation. The DCT also rewards and acknowledges its employees for their achievements and strives to develop and empower them.

Employees also indicated that they felt competent in the roles that they played within the organisation and found their jobs rewarding (section 4.5). The majority of MMs also felt empowered to make management decisions in their area of work. This suggests that the organisation encouraged “decentralised” decision-making and a degree of autonomy among the ranks of MMs. However, The MMs were not entirely convinced that the DCT acted appropriately to ensure a good job fit for managers, nor were MMs entirely convinced that fair opportunities for advancement existed at DCT.

A recurrent theme throughout the study was the existence of employee development measures and organisational support towards such initiatives. What emerges is that the DCT strives to empower its employees. This it does by supporting employee development, either directly to MMs, or indirectly through MMs encouraging and supporting their subordinates’ development (sections 4.4 and 4.6). In the case of MMs, the DCT has the TPT LDP, which all MMs had attended at least one programme.

Using Cho et. al.’s (2013) Competitive Values Model (section 2.4.1.2), the culture existing at the DCT, can best be described as a blend between flexibility and control. Internally, control is through a hierarchy in that MMs act in accordance with senior management directives, which they then “impose” on subordinates, who have a duty to implement these directives. The flexibility dimension of the culture within the DCT is based on the organisation’s attempts at developing its employees. It can, therefore, be deduced that a Hierarchical – Developmental culture exists within the organisation.

5.2.2 Objective 2: To identify the development structures in place for grooming Middle Management for leadership

The question that this objective answered was whether there were any development structures in place for grooming Middle Management for leadership.

As evidenced in section 4.4, all the MMs either had undergone or were currently undergoing development for their leadership roles through the TPT Leadership Development Programme. Section 4.4.1 indicates that the majority (54%) of the MMs attended the Supervisory Skills for Team Leaders Programme (SSTL) course. This was followed by 34% that attended the Management Development Programme. In addition, 12% of Middle Managers also attended top or senior management level programmes. This indicates that the DCT does have formal structures to develop the MMs for their leadership positions.

However, an area of concern is that the majority of the DCT's MMs had only attended the entry-level leadership development course (i.e. Supervisory Skills for Team Leaders Programme). This raises a few questions. The first asks whether the DCT actively follows up on the development of its MMs, in so doing be in a position to identify areas to improve them by, for example, upgrading the level of their formal training. The second questions the commitment of MMs to take active control of their own development within the DCT, especially since resources are available to do so. The third asks about the selection criteria used by HR to identify which MMs to send for development. It is possible that the MMs are willing and able, but HR is limiting their development ambitions. It also plausible that HR is proactive in developing their MMs, but are limited in doing so because of organisational "red tape".

5.2.3 Objective 3: To investigate the effectiveness of development programmes in grooming Middle Managers for leadership

This objective answered the question regarding effectiveness of the development structures in place in grooming Middle Managers for leadership?"

The TPT Leadership Development Programme was considered excellent and relevant by almost all the MMs (see section 4.4.2). Only one participant thought the content irrelevant. A further 91% considered the content of the programme to be both understandable and practical. However, quite a few MMs felt that the programme did not enhance their personal leadership.

The above indicates the programme was effective in content, but in some instances fell short in bridging the gap towards leadership enhancement (this is evident in 17% of the MMs indicating as such). Although the majority felt otherwise, it is still an area of concern because the main aim of the programme is to enhance MMs' leadership development.

Correlating elements assessing the TPT Leadership Development Programme revealed that MMs understanding of course content and its practical applications had a positive (*al beit* moderate) impact on their leadership enhancement (see section 4.4.3). A weaker association was found between course relevance and leadership development. This suggests that there are areas for improvement in the delivery of the course content. The most urgent, it appears, is to bridge the gap between relevance and leadership enhancement. It is quite likely that, in light of the majority of MMs having attended the entry-level course, some MMs had already mastered the skills learnt in that programme and hence did not learn anything new to enhance their leadership. It is thus important to pitch MMs training to a higher than their present leadership so that they get equipped with new leadership skills.

5.2.4 Objective 4: To explore the receptiveness of subordinates towards Middle Management's leadership

The question addressed by this objective centred on the relationship that existed between MMs and their subordinates.

Generally, MMs perceived their relationship with their subordinates to be positive. They most often believed that they hoisted the flagship for developing their subordinates the highest. Their perceptions were corroborated by the non-MMs that participated in the study as 87% of them ranked this aspect of their MM's leadership the highest as well. Middle Managers also believed that their subordinates were happy working under their leadership. More than 2/3rd's of the non-MMs confirmed their opinions.

In addition, slightly over 2/3rd's of MMs were of the view that each employee's development plans and goals were important to the DCT. Furthermore, 62% of the MMs were under the impression that their employees felt recognised and rewarded

for their efforts by them. Once again, non-MMs corroborated MM's views in that 62% of them felt recognised and rewarded for their efforts by their leaders; and that the DCT considered their individual development plans and goals as important.

The above indicates that a good leader-subordinate relationship existed within the organisation. The perceived views of MM's concerning the different dimensions of their work relationship were confirmed / or shared by non-MMs. Since MM's held a positive view about the receptiveness of their subordinates, a view shared by non-MMs. It can thus be concluded that subordinates were receptive to MM's leadership.

5.3 Implications of this Research

This study contributes to the body of literature on the understanding of Middle Managers. This is crucial as literature is limited in describing their work environment, their developmental challenges and the level of organisational support that they receive, the relevance of the tools meant to equip them, and the impact of empowerment measures on leadership enhancement.

The following stakeholders stand to benefit from this study:

1. The Durban Container Terminal

This study focused specifically on the DCT. The benefits of the outcomes from this study to the organisation include the organisation getting a form of understanding of the culture that exists within the organisation. It also provides information about the effectiveness of its Leadership Development Programme and identifies areas where these programmes could be improved.

Over and above this, employees also expressed valuable concerns that the organisation can use to improve the organisation-employee relationship. For instance, in the course of conducting this study, gender and racial sensitivities around fairness and receptiveness were raised. This information can be used to address such sensitivities amiably.

2. Transnet Port Terminals

As an arm of Transnet's Port Terminals, lessons learnt from the DCT could be used to inform decisions over the entire organisation concerning its managers and employee perceptions. More specifically, findings concerning the Leadership Development Programme can bridge the gap between content and leadership enhancement.

3. Middle Managers

As the focus of the present study, Middle Managers can benefit from the study through their views and perceptions being communicated to organisational leaders. Used effectively, organisational leaders can address and support Middle Managers' concerns, in so doing facilitate their evolving into even greater leaders.

4. Employees

This study was fortunate to have eager non-MMs from the DCT share their views to support the study. As such, some of their views on certain aspects were incorporated into the study. This serves the purpose of their concerns also being presented to organisational leaders. In concert with MM's views, information gained could be used to enhance the employee dynamic within the organisation.

5. Human Resources Management

The unique contribution that this study will make to human resource management includes a better understanding of how effective the Leadership Development Programme is. Furthermore, it provides information on possible areas for improvement. The study further provides views of both MM's and other employees on their perceptions regarding the development and the role that the organisational has played thus far.

5.4 Recommendations to solve the research problem

In light of the research findings, the following recommendations are proposed to solve the research problem:

1. The organisation should find a way to translate the Leadership Development Programme to enhance the leadership capacities of their MM's above the level that they were at prior enrolment into the programmes. This can be achieved by assessing

the leadership level of their MMs and sending them on training programmes that are above their current states.

2. In light of the majority of MMs having only attained the entry level leadership development rung, it is recommended that Human Resources Management also periodically assess the developmental needs of their MMs and facilitate their learning. This serves to encourage MMs to continually better themselves and reach higher levels of leadership.
3. There appears to be a good working relationship between leaders and subordinates within the organisation. It is thus recommended that the organisation capitalize on this by, for example, allowing employees to express their concerns more frequently. These then can be used to improve organisational efficiency and performance.
4. Concern was raised about fairness within the organisation, specifically on gender and race inequalities. It is therefore, recommended that the organisation tend to these with urgency as disgruntled leaders, who feel unfairly treated, may pose challenges such as the agency dilemma.

5.5 Recommendations for Future Studies

In light of the lessons learnt during conducting this study, the investigator would like to make the following recommendations for future research:

1. One of the main limitations of the study was maximising participation. To overcome this, it is recommended that communication channels be well established before commencement of future studies. This will ensure that as many of the target population become aware of the research and its importance.
2. In line with this, it is critical that organisational buy-in and support be established. This will help to dispel any fears that participants might have concerning the study and improve participation
3. The present study focused only on MMs within the DCT. It is recommended that this study serve as the spark for future studies within other Transnet Port Terminals. The

focus can also be extended to other levels of management and lower management levels within the organisation.

5.6 Conclusion

This research investigated the perceptions of Middle Managers at Durban Container Terminal. It evaluated how these managers were developed and groomed to lead. This included assessing the formal leadership development structures in place and the culture within the organisation.

In light of the above, this research was successful in that it was able to identify the leadership development structures that were in place to enhance Middle Managers. It also assessed the relevance and effectiveness of these structures. In addition, the study was able to ascertain the working environment or organisational culture at the DCT.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: TPT Leadership Programme MM profiles

| TPT Leadership Programme | Age | Highest education level | Years of service | Race | Gender |
|-------------------------------------|------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------|---------------|
| Exec Development | 31-40 | Honours Degree | 11-15 years | African | Male |
| Snr Mgt Development | 41-50 | Undergraduate Degree | 11-15 years | African | Female |
| Snr Mgt Development | 41-50 | Honours Degree | 16-20 years | African | Female |
| Snr Mgt Development | 41-50 | Master's Degree | 6-10years | African | Male |
| Mgt Development Programme | >50 | Undergraduate Degree | > 20 years | African | Male |
| Mgt Development Programme | 31-40 | Diploma | 11-15 years | White | Male |
| Mgt Development Programme | 31-40 | Postgraduate Diploma | 11-15 years | African | Male |
| Mgt Development Programme | 31-40 | Undergraduate Degree | 1-5years | African | Male |
| Mgt Development Programme | 31-40 | Undergraduate Degree | 6-10years | African | Female |
| Mgt Development Programme | 41-50 | Diploma | > 20 years | Indian | Male |
| Mgt Development Programme | 41-50 | Postgraduate Diploma | > 20 years | African | Male |
| Mgt Development Programme | 41-50 | Postgraduate Diploma | > 20 years | Coloured | Male |
| Mgt Development Programme | 41-50 | Postgraduate Diploma | 11-15 years | African | Female |
| Mgt Development Programme | 41-50 | Diploma | 16-20 years | African | Male |
| Mgt Development Programme | 41-50 | Undergraduate Degree | 16-20 years | Indian | Female |
| Mgt Development Programme | 41-50 | Secondary School | 6-10years | African | Female |
| Supervisory Skills for Team Leaders | >50 | Honours Degree | > 20 years | Indian | Male |
| Supervisory Skills for Team Leaders | >50 | Undergraduate Degree | > 20 years | African | Male |
| Supervisory Skills for Team Leaders | 21-30 | Postgraduate Diploma | 6-10years | African | Male |
| Supervisory Skills for Team Leaders | 31-40 | Diploma | 11-15 years | Indian | Male |
| Supervisory Skills for Team Leaders | 31-40 | Diploma | 11-15 years | African | Male |
| Supervisory Skills for Team Leaders | 31-40 | Diploma | 16-20 years | African | Female |
| Supervisory Skills for Team Leaders | 31-40 | Diploma | 16-20 years | African | Female |
| Supervisory Skills for Team Leaders | 31-40 | Undergraduate Degree | 6-10years | African | Female |
| Supervisory Skills for Team Leaders | 31-40 | Undergraduate Degree | 6-10years | African | Male |
| Supervisory Skills for Team Leaders | 41-50 | Diploma | > 20 years | African | Female |
| Supervisory Skills for Team Leaders | 41-50 | Diploma | > 20 years | Indian | Female |
| Supervisory Skills for Team Leaders | 41-50 | Honours Degree | > 20 years | African | Female |
| Supervisory Skills for Team Leaders | 41-50 | Secondary School | > 20 years | Coloured | Male |
| Supervisory Skills for Team Leaders | 41-50 | Diploma | 11-15 years | Coloured | Male |
| Supervisory Skills for Team Leaders | 41-50 | Diploma | 11-15 years | African | Female |
| Supervisory Skills for Team Leaders | 41-50 | Diploma | 11-15 years | White | Male |
| Supervisory Skills for Team Leaders | 41-50 | Secondary School | 11-15 years | African | Female |
| Supervisory Skills for Team Leaders | 41-50 | PhD / Doctorate | 16-20 years | African | Male |
| Supervisory Skills for Team Leaders | 41-50 | | 16-20 years | Coloured | Male |

Appendix 2: Hypothesis test summary across highest level of education for organisation as employer

| Null Hypothesis | Test | Sig. | Decision |
|--|---|-------|-----------------------------|
| The distribution of "The organisation supports its managers" is the same across categories of "Highest education level". | Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test | 0,058 | Retain the null hypothesis. |
| The distribution of "The organisation has individual developmental plans for its managers" is the same across categories of "Highest education level". | Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test | 0,139 | Retain the null hypothesis. |
| The distribution of "The organisation recognises and rewards good performance by its managers" is the same across categories of "Highest education level". | Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test | 0,042 | Reject the null hypothesis. |
| The distribution of 9. I am proud to tell people that I work for my employer" is the same across categories of 5. Highest education level. | Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test | 0,302 | Retain the null hypothesis. |
| The distribution of "My current working conditions allow for a good work life balance" is the same across categories of "Highest education level". | Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test | 0,546 | Retain the null hypothesis. |
| The distribution of "My organisation regularly checks its managers' satisfaction levels" is the same across categories of "Highest education level". | Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test | 0,465 | Retain the null hypothesis. |

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is 0,050.

Appendix 3: Study Questionnaire

| SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA | |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| 1. | Age (<i>Please tick (√) in the spaces provided</i>) |
| | 21-30 |
| | 31-40 |
| | 41-50 |
| | 50+ |
| | |
| 2. | Gender |
| | Male |
| | Female |
| | |
| 3. | Race |
| | African |
| | Coloured |
| | Indian |
| | White |
| | Other (<i>please specify below</i>) |
| | |
| 4. | Years of service |
| | < 1 year |
| | 1-5years |
| | 6-10years |
| | 11-15 years |
| | 16-20 years |
| | > 20 years |
| | |
| 5. | Highest level of education |
| | Secondary School |
| | Diploma |
| | Undergraduate Degree |
| | Postgraduate Diploma |
| | Honours Degree |
| | Master's Degree |
| | PhD / Doctorate |
| | Other (<i>please specify below</i>) |

| SECTION B: THE ORGANISATION AS AN EMPLOYER | | | | | |
|--|-----------------|--------------|----------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| Statement | S. Agree | Agree | Neutral | Disagree | S. Disagree |
| 6. The organisation supports its managers. | | | | | |
| 7. The organisation has individual developmental plans for its managers. | | | | | |
| 8. The organisation recognises and rewards good performance by its managers. | | | | | |
| 9. I am proud to tell people that I work for my | | | | | |
| 10. My current working conditions allow for a good work life balance. | | | | | |
| 11. My organisation regularly checks its managers' satisfaction levels. | | | | | |

| SECTION C: LEADERSHIP TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT | | |
|--|------------|-----------|
| <i>(Please tick (√) either Yes or No to the following questions)</i> | Yes | No |
| 12. Have you attended (or are you currently attending) any of the TPT Leadership development programmes offered by the organisation? <i>(Please tick (√) in the spaces provided)</i> | | |
| 13. If YES , please indicate which of the following you are currently attending. If | | |
| i. Supervisory Skills for Team Leaders | | |
| ii. Management Development Programme | | |
| iii. Senior Management Development | | |
| iv. Executive Development Programme | | |
| 14. Did you find the content of the Training Programmes to | | |
| i. Relevant | | |
| ii. Understandable | | |
| iii. Practical | | |
| 15. Were you able to apply what you had learnt in Training Programme(s) to enhance your leadership? | | |

| SECTION D: JOB COMPETENCY | | | | | |
|---|-----------------|--------------|----------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| Statement | S. Agree | Agree | Neutral | Disagree | S. Disagree |
| 16. I feel competent in my job as a manager. | | | | | |
| 17. DCT takes appropriate steps to ensure a good job fit for managers. | | | | | |
| 18. I feel that there are fair opportunities for advancement at DCT. | | | | | |
| 19. I feel empowered to make management decisions in my area of employment. | | | | | |
| 20. I feel that my concerns are heard and addressed by the organisation. | | | | | |
| 21. My job is rewarding and fulfilling. | | | | | |

| SECTION E: MANAGING EMPLOYEES | | | | | |
|---|-----------------|--------------|----------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| Statement | S. Agree | Agree | Neutral | Disagree | S. Disagree |
| 22. My employees are happy working under me. | | | | | |
| 23. I support and develop my employees. | | | | | |
| 24. Employee individual development plans and goals are important at DCT. | | | | | |
| 25. My employees feel recognised and rewarded | | | | | |

| SECTION F: EMPLOYMENT EQUITY | | | | | |
|--|-----------------|--------------|----------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| Statement | S. Agree | Agree | Neutral | Disagree | S. Disagree |
| 26. The issue of employment equity is addressed effectively in the organisation. | | | | | |
| 27. All races have a fair and equal chance of advancement at DCT. | | | | | |
| 28. Some races have a better chance of advancement than others at DCT. | | | | | |
| 29. Females are well presented in Management | | | | | |
| 30. Employees react well to female managers at | | | | | |
| 31. Female managers are given equal and fair developmental opportunities as male managers at | | | | | |
| 32. Female managers have the same opportunities of advancement as the male | | | | | |

Thank you very much for your participation and valuable input

Appendix 4: Turnitin Similarity Report

Leadership and Development of Middle Management at Durban Container Terminal

ORIGINALITY REPORT

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SIMILARITY INDEX

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