

**The relationship between transformational leadership and organisational  
citizenship behaviour**

by

ORAPELENG OSCAR SECHUDI

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SUPERVISOR: MR B.H. OLIVIER

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## DECLARATION

I, Orapeleng Oscar Sechudi, student number 44076193, hereby declare that “the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour thesis” is my own work, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

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**SIGNATURE**  
**(Mr)**

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**DATE**

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## **SUMMARY**

### **THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR**

By

**ORAPELENG OSCAR SECHUDI**

**SUPERVISOR: MR B.H. OLIVIER**

**DEPARTMENT: INDUSTRIAL AND ORGANISATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY**

**DEGREE: MA (Industrial and Organisational Psychology)**

The purpose of the study was to explore the relationship between the transformational leadership (TL) style of officers and their followers' organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) in a South African military environment. TL was measured by means of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Form 5X) and OCB by means of the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale (OCBS). A sample of 300 followers was identified at a military unit in the South African Army and the participants were requested to complete the two questionnaires. The MLQ produced a Cronbach's alpha of 0.91 and the OCBS a Cronbach's alpha of 0.79, which were both statistically significant and acceptable. The main hypothesis of the empirical study was accepted, which predicted a significant relationship between TL and OCB ( $r = 0.412$ , significant at the 0.001 level). The hypotheses predicting a significant relationship between TL the five sub-dimensions of OCB produced mixed results. These results are as follows; there was no significant relationship between TL and Civic Virtue ( $r = 0.180$ ), between TL and Sportsmanship ( $r = 0.132$ ) and between TL and Courtesy ( $r = 0.207$ ). Additionally, the hypotheses predicting a significant relationship between TL and Altruism ( $r = 0.499$ ) and between TL and Conscientiousness ( $r = 0.315$ ) were accepted.

## **KEY TERMS**

Transformational Leadership (TL), Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, Military Leadership, Civic Virtues, Sportsmanship, Courtesy, Altruism, Conscientiousness, Individualised Consideration, Intellectual Stimulation, Inspirational Motivation, Individualised.

## **CHAPTER 1: SCIENTIFIC ORIENTATION TO THE RESEARCH**

In Chapter 1 the background and motivation, the problem statement, the aims, paradigm perspective, research design and method as well as the chapter layout will be discussed.

### **1.1 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION**

Organisations have entered an era of rapid change and transformation characterised by technology, social advancement and increased competition. Luthans (2008) posited that commonly people characterised organisations in relation to advanced information technology, globalisation, diversity and the continuous effort they make to solve problems that comes to the fore. However, the real problems are managing the human resources of the organisations which present major challenges and remain the critical competitive advantage. Ivancevich, Konopaske, and Matteson (2005) also argued that organisations are much more than a means of providing goods and services. They create the setting in which most people spend their lives. Often organisations are under tremendous pressure to adapt to a continuous and increasing number of changes in different environments (Arnold & Randall, 2010). Currently, a prominent trend in organisations is the focus on attracting and retaining staff from all demographic groups in order to improve workforce performance and their competitive position (Torrington, Hall, Taylor & Atkinson, 2009). Although these challenges in small and complex organisations may need different solutions, they mainly require decisive and effective leadership, which will inspire the survival of the organisation (Ashleigh & Mansi, 2012). Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly (1991) agreed with the latter statement by adding that leading and managing people effectively is the one most essential ingredient for retaining a comfortable standard of living and improving the quality of work. Most employers realise that the optimal functioning of their organisations depend, in part, on the level of job satisfaction and willingness to go an extra mile by employees (Ivancevich, et al., 2005). It has also been recognised that the essential determinant of organisational performance is its human resources (Martins & Coetzee, 2011; Michaels, Hardfield-Jones & Axelrod, 2001). However, the problems in managing human resources of organisations present major challenges and remain the critical competitive advantage (Bates, 2001; Benson & Zhu, 2002; Garavan, Heraty, & Barnicle, 1999). Ivancevich et al.,

(2005) concur that organisations are much more than a means of providing goods and services, but also have an impact on the general quality of life of both employees and their respective societies. According to Nguni, Slegers, and Denessen (2006) these ideals can be achieved by applying TL. TL has been a topic of much research in the past (Bass, 1985). There has been accumulating evidence in literature which suggests that TL has a positive effect on follower's work attitudes and performance at both the individual and organisational levels (Zhu, Sosik, Riggio & Yang, 2012).

According to Yang (2012) TL represents a style in which the leader values the importance of cooperation in the performance of collective tasks, provides the opportunity to learn from shared experience, and delegates to followers the authority to execute any necessary action efficiently. In addition to this, Avolio and Yammarino (2002) indicate that there has been increasing support for the Full Range Leadership (FRL) model of TL. The model is comprised of two groups of behaviours, namely transactional and TL behaviours (Crawford, Gould & Scott, 2003; Sosik & Jung, 2013). In this model, leaders operate across the two groups, but operate decidedly more in one of the groups, and consequently, exhibit the associated behaviours (Smith, Matkin & Fritz, 2004). Transactional behaviours include: laissez-faire (hands-off leadership); management-by-exception-passive (leader deals with problems after they occur); management by exception-active (leader allows followers little latitude); and contingent reward, which is seen as the ability of the leader to make deals with the subordinates (Crawford & Strohkirch, 2004; Rosenbusch & Townsend, 2004). Transformational behaviours include: individualised consideration (considerate leader); intellectual stimulation (leader encourages independent thought); inspirational motivation (leader excites followers about the future); and, idealised influence, which is acting as a role model (Bass, 1985).

According to Furtner, Baldegger, and Rauthmann, (2013) the full range leadership model is the most renowned taxonomy of leadership styles currently. Followers of transformational leaders feel trust, admiration, respect, and loyalty towards the leader. They are motivated to perform extra-role behaviours, are highly satisfied, and think that the organisation they work for is highly effective (Lowe, Kroeck &

Sivasubramaniam, 1996). Successful transformational leaders have the following traits in common: they see themselves as change agents; are brave; have faith in people; are goal driven; believe in lifelong learning; can cope with difficulties, change and uncertainties; are creative thinkers and they have a vision (Nguni et al., 2006). In order to ensure organisational effectiveness and efficiency, organisations need employees' cooperation, benevolence, self-sacrifice, and at times, extra effort (Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009). The characteristics required by transformational leaders can be achieved when organisational members display organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). The latter has been defined by Organ (1988) as activities that an employee may engage in at his or her discretion, which facilitate the effectiveness of the organisation as well as promote the organisation's interests (Kwantes, Karam, Kuo & Towson, 2008).

Gurbuz (2009) reported that most of the OCB research has focused on the antecedents/predictors of employee's OCB from a civilian organisation perspective. Leaders have their most direct and greatest effect on their followers (Arnold & Randall, 2010). Hence, it logically stands to reason that, in the workplace, what partially makes for a good leader is the ability to effectively motivate followers to engage in behaviours known to have positive outcomes for the organisation (Nel, Gerber, Van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono & Werner, 2003). TL establishes a shared vision through which leaders provide a meaningful and creative basis from where change is brought about in people and contexts (Humphrey, 2012). Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) observed that OCB's are important for organisational efficiency, effectiveness, innovation, and adaptability within diverse organisations. Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1995) pointed out that OCB's are beneficial for organisations in ways that extend beyond a direct contribution to group or organisational performance. These researchers further argue that OCB also contribute by making organisations attractive place to work (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1995).

Various studies have shown that TL increases the likelihood of citizenship behaviours of followers (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000; Yukl, 2010; Nguni et al., 2006; Omar, Zainal & Khairudin, 2009). For instance, Bass and

Avolio (1994) stated that TL should result in more engaged, more devoted, and less self-concerned employees, as well as in workers who perform beyond the level of expectations. These arguments lay a foundation that substantially and conceptually support the motivation for the study. The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between TL and OCB in a military unit. The value of investigating this phenomenon lies in that it will result in the enhancement of knowledge and understanding of organisational processes related to leadership and management for Industrial and Organisational Psychologists (I/O Psychologist). The organisational dynamics provide in-depth knowledge about organisations and often make organisational needs identifiable. To a large extent I/O Psychologist may be required to intervene directly to enhance effectiveness and efficiency of the organisation (Barnard & Fourie, 2007). This study thus investigated whether there is a relationship between TL and OCB. The results of this study will add value to the field of I/O Psychology in general, and will contribute to the available knowledge regarding transformational and OCB in particular.

## **1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

Several studies have been conducted in different organisations about TL and its relation or influence on other specific organisational concepts. These concepts include (1) relationships between TL, work attitudes and behaviours (Hobman, Jackson, Jimmieson, & Martin (2011); (2) positive associations between TL, work attitudes of organisational commitment and job satisfaction (Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005); and (3) findings that indicate that TL influences job performance and organisational citizenship behaviour at both individual and organisational level (Humphrey, 2012). The latter represent a few research findings which suggest that there is a correlation between TL and OCB. Many of these studies were conducted in civilian institutions. The problem statement is therefore: will the application of TL lead to OCB in a South African military environment? The current study was thus conducted in a South African military unit where TL has been popularised. This bears relevance as a review of existing literature indicates that the relationship between TL and OCB has not been investigated in the military (Gurbuz, 2009). The results of this study could also assist organisational decision makers in

evaluating the extent to which TL should be used to in order to achieve OCB in military units.

From the literature review the following research questions were formulated:

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant relationship between TL and organisational citizen behaviour.

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant relationship between TL and civic virtue.

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant relationship between TL and sportsmanship.

Hypothesis 4: There is a significant relationship between TL and courtesy.

Hypothesis 5: There is a significant relationship between TL and Altruism.

Hypothesis 6: There is a significant relationship between TL and conscientiousness.

### **1.3 AIMS**

#### **1.3.1 General aim of the research**

The general aim of the research was to investigate the relationship between TL and OCB.

#### **1.3.2 Specific literature aims**

The specific literature aims were as follows:

- To review the literature on TL.
- To review the literature on organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB).
- To review the literature on the relationship between TL and OCB.

#### **1.3.3 Specific empirical aims**

The specific empirical aims were to:

- Measure TL in a military unit in the South African Army using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass & Avolio, 1997).
- Measure OCB in a military unit in the South African Army using the organisational citizen behaviour scale (OCBS) (Turnipseed & Murkison, 1996; Gurbuz, 2009).
- Determine whether there is a significant relationship between TL and OCB in a military unit in the South African Army.
- Determine whether TL can predict OCB in a military unit in the South African Army.

#### **1.4 THE PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE**

Terre Blanche, Durrheim and Painter (2006) define paradigms as systems of inter-related ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions. As such, a paradigm therefore acts as a perspective that provides a rationale for the research and commits the researcher to particular methods of data collection, observation and conclusion. This study was anchored in the positivist research paradigm with consideration of the humanistic paradigm. Positivism deals with external reality according to certain laws and it is used by detached and objective observers who have tested their hypotheses against experimental and other quantitative methods (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). This study involved objective measurement to assess the relationship between TL and OCB.

Corsini (2002) defined humanistic theories as perceptions about human behaviour that emphasise optimistic and idealistic human values and potential. People therefore have free will and both the right and potential for self-determination based on purpose and values. At the heart of this paradigm lies the claim that humanistic psychology is concerned with openness to human experience (Hiles, 2000). Carpuzzi and Gross (2003) support this view by explaining that humanism is focused on human capacity and potential. Humanistic-existentialism provides the dimension of ontology, the awareness of experience and responsibility. Within the field of I/O Psychology, this study focused on organisational psychology. Bergh and Theron (2002) explain organisational psychology as a system that involves groups and

individuals with the aim of improving worker adjustment, job satisfaction, productivity and efficiency. The central approach to this research focused on determining whether followers' perception of their leaders' leadership style will provide a possible relationship to the levels of the OCB reported by the followers of those leaders.

Methodologically, this study followed a quantitative approach. The study thus involved objective measurement to assess the impact of behavioural and organisational factors on organisational effectiveness in general, and organisational effectiveness of the SA Army (Terre 'Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Qualitative researchers believe that the researcher's ability to interpret and make sense of what he or she sees is critical for understand any social phenomenon, therefore qualitative research attempts to study human actions from the insider's perspective (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Babbie & Mouton, 2006).

## **1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN**

A research design is a strategic framework for action that serves as a bridge between research questions and the execution of it (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). Mouton and Marais (1990) define research design as the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure. Tredoux (2002) provides a further exposition on research design by viewing it as a plan for a piece of research that is constructed to maximise the validity of its findings, subject to the costs and practical difficulties of doing so.

### **1.5.1 Research approach**

A quantitative research method was used for this study and questionnaires were used to collect data. This method explored and analysed the organisational occurrences such as leadership and OCB behaviours. A non-experimental research design was used and the type of study was a survey (Babbie & Mouton, 2006). Questionnaires were used to gather data in a random field survey (Terre Blanche et

al., 2006). Participants were able to complete questionnaires individually which ensured that they answered questions truthfully.

## **1.5.2 Research method**

### **1.5.2.1 Research participants**

The population for the study consisted of uniformed military practitioners of a military unit in the South African Army called . This unit was made up of 567 personnel of which 53% were chosen for participation. The targeted sample for the study was 300 soldiers which were drawn up using the convenient sampling method (Gravetter & Forzano, 2006). Using a sample of 300 participants was motivated by literature which indicates that there is more statistical power in samples of 300 and above (Gravetter & Forzano, 2006). The convenient sampling method was used for practical reasons pertaining to the availability of military personnel at the military unit on the day of the survey. The sample further included members from all levels of the military unit with the age ranging between 18 – 55 years and consisting of both genders.

### **1.5.2.2 Measuring instruments**

A Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was used to measure TL. The MLQ measures four concepts, namely Idealised Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation and Individualised Consideration, and consists of twenty-nine forced choice questions (Bass & Avolio, 1997). The responses to the questions were measured on a scale as follows: 1 = I strongly disagree, 2 = I disagree, 3 = I moderately agree, 4 = I Agree and 5 = I strongly agree. The sample of 300 soldiers who were all subordinates of leaders at a military unit in the South African Army, and were requested to complete the MLQ in order to rate the TL behaviours of their leaders. The internal consistency for the MLQ scales are: Idealised Influence, 0.96, Inspirational Motivation: 0.85, Intellectual Stimulation: 0.89, and Individualized Consideration: 0.90 (Bass & Avolio, 1997). The researcher, is thus of the opinion that

the MLQ is a well-researched, valid and reliable instrument that provides an excellent leadership profile, and it is well suited for this study.

A 30-item measure referred to as the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale (OCBS) developed by Bateman and Organ (1983) was used to assess the organisational citizenship behaviour of the members of the same sample who completed the MLQ. This scale has 30 global statements that apply to many organisations. The respondents are directed to think of a fellow soldier, and indicate the degree to which each of the statements characterised that one individual. The internal consistency reliability (coefficient alpha) was found to be 0.97 for the total scale and 0.92 for OCB (Fox, Spector, Goh, Bruursema, & Kessler, 2012). The possible responses on the scale were as follows: 1 = I strongly disagree, 2 = I disagree, 3 = I moderately agree, 4 = I Agree and 5 = I strongly agree. The researcher, is thus of the opinion that the OCBS is a well researched, valid and reliable instrument that provides appropriate results, and it is well suited for the study.

### **1.5.2.3      *Research procedure***

Firstly, a letter was written to request permission from relevant authorities for conducting the study in the South African National Defence Force (SANDF) in general and in the South African Army (SAA) in particular. The relevant authority in this regard was the Defence Intelligence Department which conducts security clearances on all research being done in the Department of Defence. This permission was subsequently granted. Ethical clearance to conduct this research was obtained from the Unisa Ethics Committee. Thereafter, a second letter was written to the Officer Commanding of a specific military unit in the South African Army to request his permission to conduct the research in his unit and to request him to do the necessary preparation for the survey, including making a suitable venue available and to inform the participants about time arrangements. On the day of the study, individuals were invited to partake and gather at a central place. The aforementioned questionnaires were administered in accordance with the guidelines of the profession and ethical principles as propagated by Unisa's Ethical Committee.

The participants were informed about confidentiality and the purpose of the study. Participants were informed that the study is voluntarily and that they can decide to participate in the study or not. Should they be willing to participate they were asked to complete a “Form for Consent” prior to completing the questionnaires. The researcher explained the questionnaires and allowed the participants to ask questions and complete the questionnaires. Upon completion, the questionnaires were collected and stored safely in a lockable container where only the researcher had access to it before being captured in a computer. During this process, the researcher identified incomplete questionnaires and put them separately to avoid erroneous data. All data was stored in a secured computer for statistical analysis. The data was used only for the purpose of the research and was eventually destroyed by the researcher.

#### **1.5.2.4 Statistical analysis**

Data analysis was carried out using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (version 21) statistical programme. Descriptive statistics such as the mean and standard deviation were calculated to describe the sample (Babbie, 1992). Cronbach’s Alpha was used to determine the reliability coefficients of the two measuring instruments (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011) while the Pearson Correlation Coefficient was used to determine the relationship between TL and OCB (Hoyle, 1999). Lastly, regression analysis was used to describe whether TL can be used to predict OCB (Babbie, 1992).

## **1.6 CHAPTER LAY-OUT**

This thesis is comprised of four chapters. The material covered in each of the chapters is summarized below.

Chapter 1: presents the scientific orientation to the research

Chapter 2: provides a discussion of the literature review

Chapter 3: presents the research article

Chapter 4: presents the conclusions, limitations and recommendations of the study

## **1.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

Chapter 1 has discussed the background and motivation; the problem statement; the aims; the paradigm perspective; research design and method as well as the chapter layout. In the next chapter the concept of TL and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) will be discussed.

## **CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

In this chapter the concept of transformational leadership (TL) and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) is discussed. The chapter starts with a discussion of the definition of leadership, and then considers the historical development of leadership theories. Theories that are discussed include the trait, behavioural and contingency theories of leadership. Following this, the concept of OCB and its various approaches are discussed. This chapter concludes with a discussion of the relationship between TL and OCB.

### **2.2 DEFINING LEADERSHIP**

According to Luthans (2008), leadership has been defined in a number of ways. A leader can be seen as a person who is appointed, elected or formally chosen to direct and coordinate the work of others in a group (Arnold & Randall, 2010). Humphrey (2012) further defines leadership as the ability to influence the motivation of others in a group setup. From these definitions, it is evident that leaders have the most direct and greatest effect on their subordinates (Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1991). Recently Avolio, Sosik and Berson (2013) built on the work of Katz and Kahn (1978), by defining leadership as the exertion of influence on organisationally relevant matters by any member of the organisation.

According to Riggio (2009), the current definitions involve the leader using his/her influence to assist a group in attaining goals. In addition, all the aforementioned definitions emphasise the process of influence with the purpose of attaining specific goals by any person. The word process is significant as it serves to clarify that it is not a trait or a characteristic inherent in the leader, but a process linked to a transaction between a leader and his or her followers (Riggio, 2009). Although these definitions provide relevant key constructs of leadership, it should be noted that there may be multiple definitions of leadership as a construct (Avolio et al., 2013). This

paper adopts the definition by Avolio et al., (2013) who suggests that leaders exert influence on members of the organisation in order to achieve organisational goals.

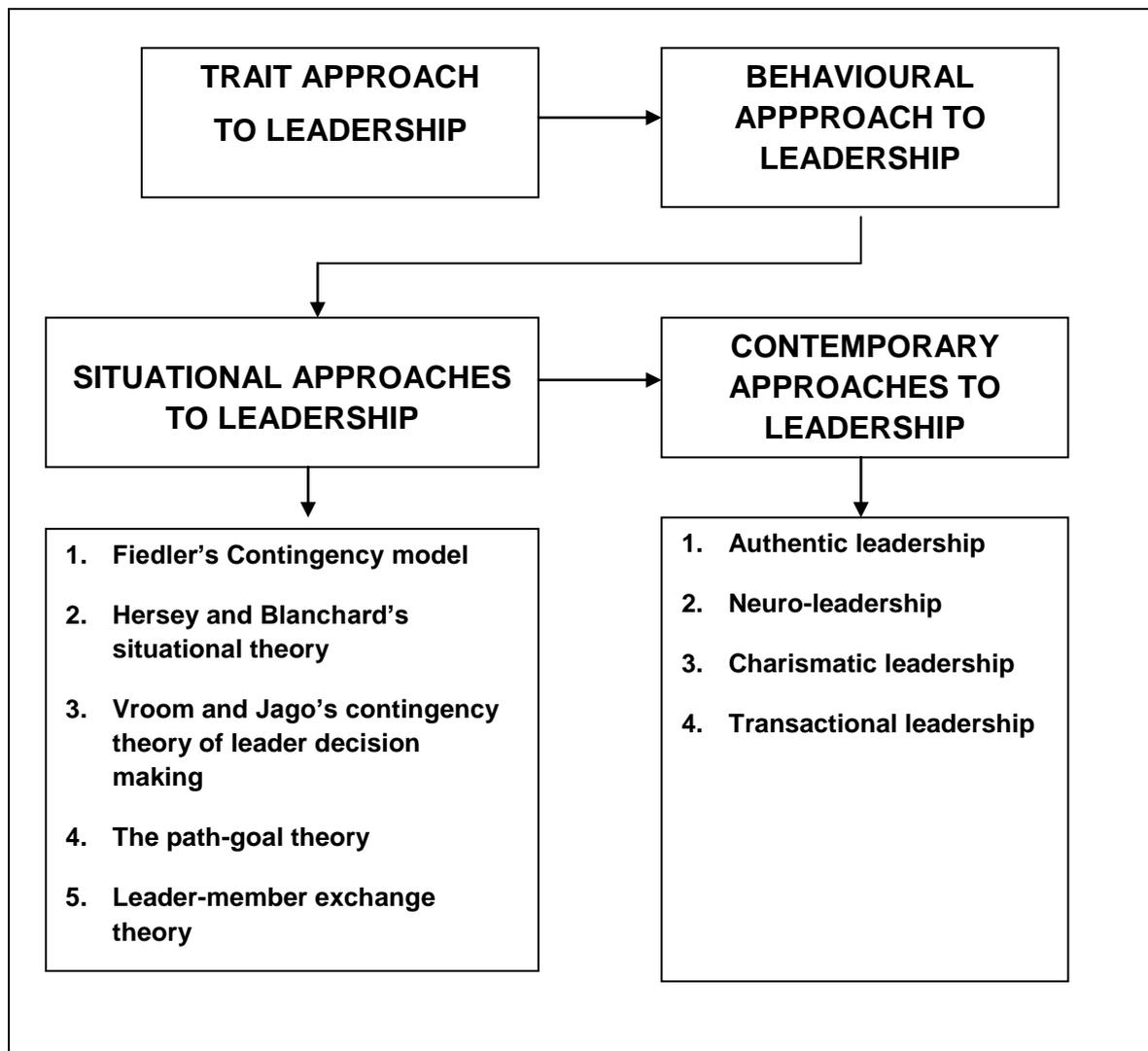
### **2.3 THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP**

There has been a great deal of development in approaches to leadership theories and practices since the 1960s (Northouse, 2007). The key features associated with the aforementioned development include the description of the leaders' characteristics and behaviour as well as his/her relationship with subordinates. Furthermore, the attempt in these descriptions was to identify good leaders with the characteristics and behaviours regardless of the context in which they lead (Arnold & Randall, 2010). According to Ashleigh and Mansi (2012) these characteristics include:

- A vision that they can contribute something to the world;
- Passion for creating or inventing something;
- Intuition about how and when to make decisions;
- Belief in themselves that they can succeed;
- Humility to know that they cannot achieve their dreams alone.

This chapter reviews these approaches to provide a foundational understanding of leadership. The following section covers various aspects of leadership theory that have been influential in shaping current thinking on leadership. Over the years various theories emerged that are indicated in figure 2.1 below.

**Figure 2.1: CONTEMPORARY APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP (Yukl, 2010).**



## **2.4 TRAIT APPROACH TO LEADERSHIP**

Trait has been defined as representing consistent integrated patterns of personality characteristics that fosters effective leadership across a wide range of situations (Avolio et al., 2013). A number of studies have been conducted which connected stable personality attributes such as determination and perseverance to the leader's effectiveness. This therefore provides a substantial position that traits are important when predicting leadership performance (Bass & Bass, 2008). For example, Judge, Bono, Ilies and Werner (2000) completed a meta-analysis of 94 studies examining the relationship between the "Big Five" personality traits, leadership emergence,

effectiveness, and TL. The results reported a multiple relations of 0.47 in predicting leadership effectiveness. Unfortunately none of the early studies were conclusive and showed no solid evidence of any solid trait common to all effective leaders (Riggio, 2009). Trait theories focus on qualities that differentiate leaders from followers (Arnold et al., 1998; Van Eeden, Cilliers & Van Deventer, 2008). According to Bateman and Snell (1999), traits do not ensure leadership success, but some traits do distinguish effective leaders from the non-effective ones. The research on personality traits associated with transactional and TL also supports the conceptualisation of the leadership styles in terms of leadership behaviour and the nature of the influencing process (Van Eeden et al., 2008). More recently, writers concerned with identifying the “dark side” of leadership have made a significant contribution to the understanding that the same personality traits which make some leaders attractive, such as charisma, inspiration, vision, courage, and resilience can become destructive forces to those around them (Furnham, 2010).

## **2.5 BEHAVIOURAL APPROACH TO LEADERSHIP**

The behavioural approach to leadership emanate from the premise that although leaders may possess certain individual traits in orders to be effective in their leadership role, those traits need to be evident in their behaviour (Ashleigh & Mansi, 2012). This behavioural approach towards leadership first became popular after extensive work was undertaken at Ohio State University and the Michigan’s Survey Research Centre during the late 1940s (Robbins, 2001; Yukl, 2010; Luthans, 2008). The Ohio team asked individual leaders and followers to identify leadership behaviour from 2000 questions. Two dimensions were identified as basic underlying leadership behaviour that influenced individuals the most, namely:

- *Consideration.* Leaders show consideration for their subordinates when they display trust, respect and care for them.
- *Initiating structure.* This shows the leaders’ ability to focus on task, motivate employees to be innovative and encourage them to do good, but also correct them when they do wrong.

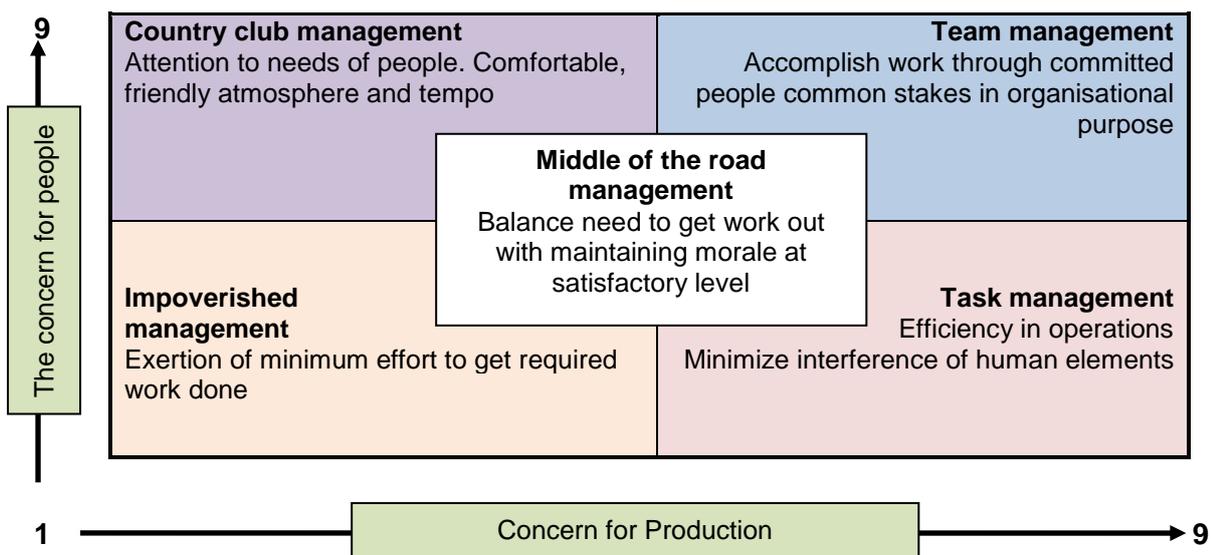
The Michigan Research Team studied leadership by comparing groups that exhibited effective and ineffective behaviours (Northouse, 2010; Ivanevich, Konopaske & Matteson, 2005). The results were similar to those of obtained by researchers at the Ohio University (Luthans, 2008). The findings of both teams indicated that effective leaders tended to interact more with followers, whereas ineffective leaders interacted less with the followers. Furthermore, these researchers identified employee orientation and production orientation as two distinctive yet important dimensions. The employee-orientated behaviour was associated with high productivity and high job satisfaction while production-orientated behaviour was associated with low productivity and low satisfaction in subordinates (Ashleigh & Mansi, 2012). These behaviours can be readily understood by applying the model developed by Blake and Mouton (1964). This model describes the task and relations orientations as a fundamental way to achieve effective leadership. The model is based on an approach in which managers and leaders vary from a scale of 1 to 9 in their concern for production and concern for people. The following five styles were identified on the grid:

- Authority-obedience (9:1);
- “Country club” management (1:9);
- Impoverished management (1:1);
- “Organisation man” management (5:5);
- Team management (9:9).

Patterns that emerged from studies investigating the impact of these leadership behaviours on various criterion variables, which included subordinate satisfaction and productivity, were not consistent (Yukl, 2010). This inconsistency can be attributed to multiple factors such as the failure to take into account the situation (Bass, 1998). In spite of all these concerns, the behavioural approach remains valuable in that it broadened the focus of leadership research to include how leaders act in relation to their followers/subordinates. Furthermore, distinctions can be drawn between task related behaviour and relationship related behaviour as well as distinctive versus participative style (Leonard, Freedman, & Passmore, 2013). The behavioural approach also served as a tool for training and development, as it

become relatively uncomplicated to link what could be seen as leadership behaviours to performance outcomes (Aamodt, 2010). For example, Bass (1985) researched charisma as a behaviour manifestation of charismatic leadership style which influences the followers' perception about the leader. Some authors argue that since leadership presents a complex pattern of behaviours, these patterns would be better explained by multiple leader attributes or by a specific profile (Avolio et al., 2013). For example, leaders who behave in a confident way instil a perception on followers that they know what they are talking about. Furthermore, they may believe in them on the bases of confidence as opposed to someone without it. The behavioural approach remains relevant because followers are able to observe portrayal of behaviours that have the impact of influencing them (Aamodt, 2010). The Michigan Research Team which investigated that employee orientated behaviour was associated with high productivity and high job satisfaction while production orientated behaviour was associated with low productivity and with low satisfaction in subordinates (Ashleigh & Mansi, 2012). Blake and Mouton (1964) developed a managerial grid that allowed leaders to examine their own leadership style based on two distinct variables: concern with production and concerned with people (Ashleigh & Mansi, 2012). This grid is illustrated below.

Figure 2.2: Managerial grid (Ashleigh & Mansi, 2012).



## **2.6 SITUATIONAL APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP**

An additional approach to the trait and behavioural approaches to leadership is the situational leadership approach which is discussed below.

### **2.6.1 Fiedler's Contingency Model**

Fiedler's Contingency Model of leadership emerged from research based on military organisations in which the leadership styles were observed in varying of situations (Northouse, 2007). This theory defines two types of leaders: those who tend to accomplish the task by developing good-relationships with the group (relationship-oriented), and those who have as their prime concern carrying out the task itself (task-oriented). According to this model an individual's leadership style is effective only in certain situations (Aamodt, 2010). Both task-oriented and relationship-oriented leaders can be effective if their leadership orientation fits the situation. When there is a good leader-member relation, a highly structured task, and high leader position power, the situation is seen to be favourable (Avolio et al., 2013). Fiedler (1967) also argued in favour of changing the context to match the leader's preferred style, but situations may not always be easily changed given the complexity of contemporary organisations and the ever changing environment (Ashleigh & Mansi, 2012).

Task orientation and relationship orientation seem to be reliable dimensions describing leader behaviour. This is because they indicate whether the leader focuses on his/her task and neglects the subordinates or focuses on subordinates and neglects the task. However, according to Riggio (2009), an important shortcoming of this model is that the two dimensions represent very different types of behaviour, yet they're both linked to effective leadership (Riggio, 2009). According to Leonard, Freedman and Passmore (2013) the strength of the contingency model is that it encourages managers to consider a range of variables when selecting an appropriate leadership style. What seems to be critical for the leader's effectiveness therefore is to match the leader with the situation rather than vice versa (Avolio et al., 2013).

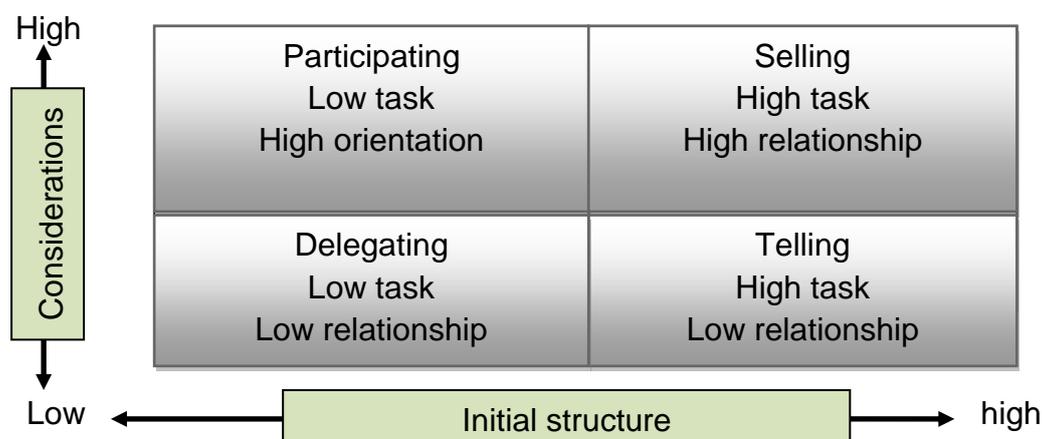
## 2.6.2 Hersey and Blanchard's situational theory of leadership

According to Ivancevich and Matteson (1996), Hersey and Blanchard's (1993) life cycle (later termed situational) approach to leadership is a contingency theory premised on the correct selection of the style appropriate to the follower's readiness, based on a specific situation. To be effective, a leader needs to adapt his leadership style according to the situation on hand. Linking this to previous studies, this approach consists of both directive and supportive dimensions, which are then appropriately applied to a specific situation (Luthans, 2008). In applying the correct style, the leader must first assess the followers' competence and ability to perform a specific task. Based on this assumption the leader adapts the leadership style to be either supportive or directive. The Ohio State studies (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1996; Luthans, 2008; Mullins, 2011) provided a basis for the development of the following four leadership styles which are depicted on figure 2.3:

- **Telling.** The leader defines the roles needed to do the task and then informs his or her followers about the what, where, when and how to do the task.
- **Selling.** The leader provides structured instructions together with support.
- **Participating.** The leader and the follower share in the decision making process of how to complete the task at hand.
- **Delegating.** In this style, the leader provides little support, guidance or direction to the follower during the execution of the task.

The leader determines the follower's readiness level and subsequently selects one of the styles (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1996). Lastly, this model was not popularised without criticism, which was that task performance alone does not take the follower's satisfaction into consideration (Ashleigh & Mansi, 2012). Another criticism is how the leader determines the readiness level of his followers. The basic leadership behaviour is shown below.

Figure 2.3: Basic leadership behaviour styles (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1996; Luthans, 2008; Mullins, 2011).



### 2.6.3 Vroom and Jago's Contingency theory of leader decision making

The Vroom and Jago's contingency theory examines the interaction of characteristics between a leader and his/her subordinates (Vroom & Jago, 2007). Effective leadership is dependent on the proper match between the characteristic of both the leader and their subordinates (Riggio, 2009). This contingency theory stresses that decision making is a critical leadership activity for the groups (Vroom & Jago, 2007). Contrary to Fiedler's theory, Vroom and Jago suggested that leaders are capable of changing their behaviour as the situation changes (Vroom & Jago, 2007). They developed decision trees relating to different generic types of managerial problems (Arnold et al., 1998; Mullins, 2011; Vroom & Jago, 2007). These managerial problems include:

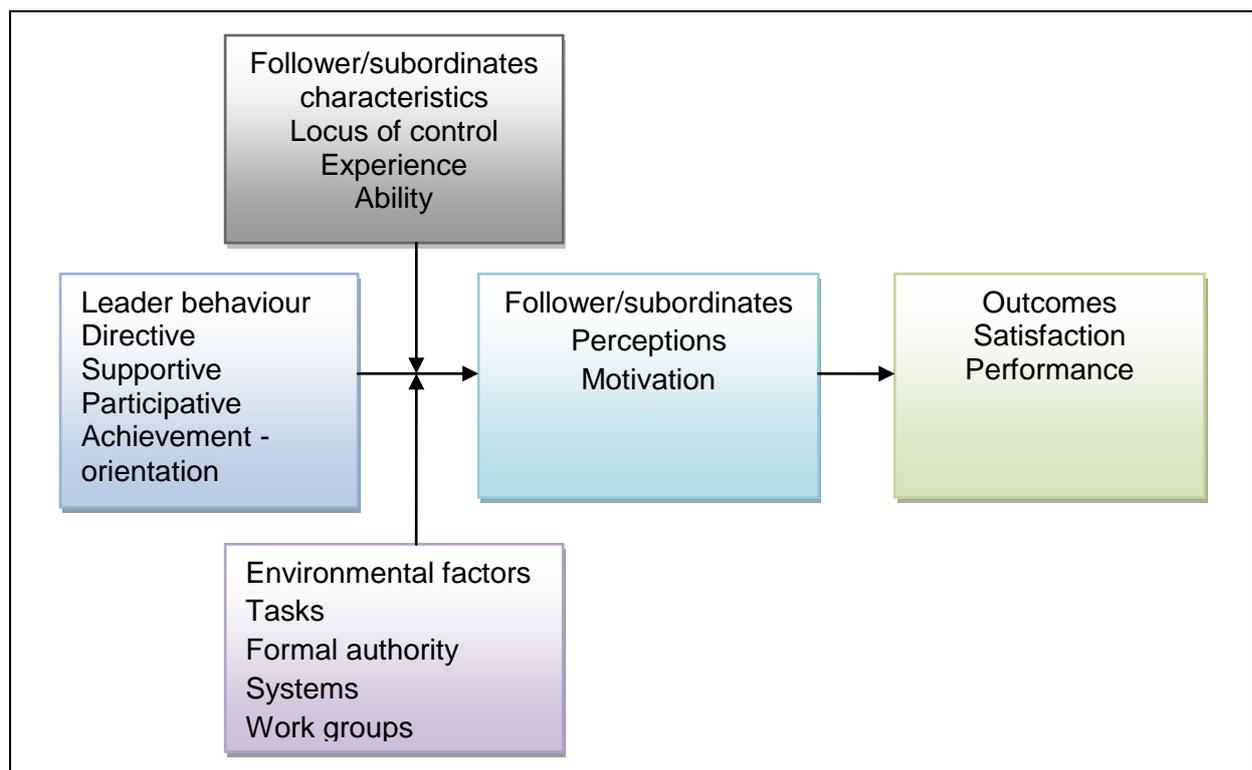
- An individual level problem with constrains;
- An individual level problem in which the manager wishes to develop an employee's decision making ability;
- A group level problem in which the manager wishes to develop employees' decision-making abilities;
- A time driven group problem.

It is important to understand that contingency theories in general recognise no one best leadership style, hence the development of the four managerial styles by Hersey and Blanchard (1993) as depicted in figure 2.3 above. According to Arnold and Randall (2010), in practice Vroom and Jago's model is complex which makes it challenging for leaders readily apply in their everyday decision making. However, Vroom and Jago (2007) argue that, if leaders know the general principles of their contingent theory, it is sufficient for leaders to apply in future.

#### **2.6.4 Path-goal theory**

A further contingency approach is the path goal theory, which denotes that a leader's job is to help the work group attain the goals that they desire (Riggio, 2009). This approach proposes different leadership styles for different contexts and the concept of 'fit' becomes more relevant. The theory posits that a better fit between style and situation will lead to motivated subordinates and achievement of expected high levels of performance (Ashleigh & Mansi, 2012). To help the group reach its goals, the leader may opt for one of the following behaviours: directive, achievement orientation or participative methods (Aamodt, 2010). In addition, path-goal theory suggests that a leader's behaviour is usually concerned with helping subordinates to cope with environmental uncertainties (Ivanevich et al, 1995). According to Riggio (2009), the path-goal model's biggest disappointment is that it does not propose a specific type of intervention to be applied by leaders on the job. Figure 2.4 presents the path goal approach.

Figure 2.4: Path-Goal Model (Ivanevich & Matteson, 1995).



### 2.6.5 Leader member exchange theory (LMX)

The basic principle of leader-member exchange (LMX) is that leaders develop different types of exchange relationships with their followers. The quality of these relationships affects important leader and member's attitudes and behaviours (Ilies, Nahrgang & Morgeson, 2007). The idea that certain TL behaviours can foster a strong sense of leader identification is consistent with the dyadic perspective on leadership as illustrated in the LMX approach to leadership (Hobman, Jackson, Jimmieson & Martin, 2011). Indeed, LMX research has revealed that the quality of the relationship has a positive relationship with the frequency with which followers engage in activities beyond the employment contract (Hobman et al., 2011; Wayne & Green, 1993).

### **2.6.6 Shortcoming of traditional approaches to leadership**

According to Smit, Cronje, Brevis and Vrba (2011), the trait, behaviour and situational approaches to leadership have contributed a great deal to the theoretical body of knowledge in this field. A comprehensive research on traditional theories of leadership also identified certain shortcoming (Luthans, 2008). Each of the traditional approach presented same shortcoming over the years. For instance, there is no group of leadership traits which is representative to all types of leaders, and no single leadership behaviour works equally well in all situations with all people (Smit et al., 2011). The identified shortcomings encouraged a continuous research in the field of leadership, which led to the birth of contemporary approaches to leadership, which include authentic, neuro, charismatic and transformational leadership theories. Beyond traditional approach to leadership, organisation requires a comprehensive and dynamics leadership approach, because they are more complex and experience change most of the time. Therefore contemporary approaches such as TL appears to be option for complex and changing environment Luthans, 2008.

## **2.7 CONTEMPORARY LEADERSHIP APPROACHES**

According to Ashleigh and Mansi (2012, p. 268) “context” was a single factor in leadership during the 19<sup>th</sup> century and current approaches to leadership have reverted to focus on the individual leader. Robbins (2001) proposed that the focus should be on the leader’s ability to demonstrate or act out behaviour which is emotionally appealing and symbolic to the subordinates. This theory focuses on leadership from a common sense point of view unlike trying to emphasize complicated theories (Ashleigh & Mansi, 2012). It is vital to study the contemporary theories because they play a role in shaping the current understanding of leadership in its current state. (Furnham, 2010) Five contemporary leadership theories are discussed below.

### **2.7.1 Authentic leadership**

Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing and Peterson (2008) define authentic leadership as a pattern of leadership behaviour that draws upon and promotes both positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate. Authentic leadership therefore results in a greater self-awareness, internalized moral perspective, balanced processing of information, and relational transparency on the part of leaders working with followers which in turn fosters positive self-development. This definition suggests that a leader should be honest, open-minded and have the desire to serve others rather than a desire for self-gain (Aamodt, 2010).

According to Spitzmuller and Ilies (2010) authentic leaders continuously reflect on whether their actions are consistent with their selves, ensuring that their virtues take precedence over external influence processes, and not vice versa. Clapp-Smith, Vogelgesang and Avey (2009) affirm that the concern is not always with the leader's personal authenticity but also how that authenticity can be conveyed to others in a way that influences followers to work toward common goals and objectives.

### **2.7.2 Neuro-leadership**

Neuro-leadership focuses on how individuals in a social environment make decisions and solve problems, regulate their emotions, collaborate with and influence others, and facilitate change (Rock & Page, 2009). This means engaging the "people" as opposed to engaging only the functional side of business. The driving force of social cognitive neuroscience research is based on a simple premise that the brain is socially orientated (Ochsner & Lieberman, 2001). Neuro-leadership is emerging simultaneously with developments in research technologies which provide researchers with the ability to directly observe brain activity (Rock, 2009). Based on existing research, neuro-leadership includes cognitive neuroscience, integrative neuroscience, neurobiology, neurophysiology, and particularly social cognitive and affective neuroscience (Gordon, 2008; Harmon-Jones & Winkielman, 2007; Rock, 2009). In addition, neuroscience assists leadership theorists in better understanding the role of dopamine (interest) and norepinephrine (alertness) in mental

performance, and their management through novelty, reward, visualisation and other tools (Dunbar & Schultz, 2007). A recent finding in the field of neuro-leadership showed that certain things that leaders are done by leaders may affect the brain chemistry of their followers while they themselves remain immune. This finding appeared true when leaders exhibited empathy or become attuned to the moods of others (Ochsner & Lieberman, 2001). According to Rock and Page (2009) the human brain is superbly designed to share information and energy with others. Social cognitive neuroscience research has grown exponentially, covering such diverse topics as empathy, social rejection, self-awareness, social factors in economic decision-making, theory of mind, social connection, and emotion regulation all of which are of significant interest to leadership theorists (Ringleb & Rock, 2009; Rock & Page, 2009).

### **2.7.3 Charismatic leadership**

According to Northouse (2010) charisma was an all-inclusive term for TL, which included inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration. Charismatic leadership has been referred to as idealised leadership in some cases. (Bass & Avolio, 1997). According to Felfe and Schyns (2006) recent research on charisma focuses on the concept of TL which was introduced by Bass (1985) as the behavioural manifestation emphasising the role of followers' perceptions and attributions regarding this leadership style. Hansbrough (2012), states that TL is different from charismatic leadership. This researcher argues that charismatic leadership encompasses both personalised leadership and socialised leadership. Personalised leaders use power for personal gain; while socialised leaders use power as a mechanism to empower others (House & Howell, 1992). Even though leaders in both categories may display the trait of charisma, it is only socialised leaders that are considered transformational (House & Howell, 1992). Popper (2002) suggested that the development of leaders in either the personalised or socialised direction can be explained by the attachment theory. Judge and Piccolo (2004) found strong positive relations between both transformational and charismatic leadership and subordinates' job satisfaction, satisfaction with the leader, motivation, leader effectiveness, and group performance. Inspection of the results for

transformational and charismatic leadership separately (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; De Vries, Pathak, & Paquin, 2011) revealed that there was no significant difference in the effects of these two leadership constructs which are, apparently rightfully so, often equated with each other. Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) argue that the same leaders who are charismatic are also transformational; however different attributes and effects are involved. To illustrate their argument, these researchers made an analogy which highlighted that tall people are heavier than short people but separate scales of height and weight were still needed (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999).

## **2.7.4 Transformational leadership (TL)**

### *2.7.4.1 The origins of TL*

Bass and Avolio (1994) define TL as a relationship between a leader and followers based on a set of leadership behaviours that subordinates see as showing idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and consideration for people. According to Khanin (2007), TL had existed long before James MacGregor Burns popularised it. Credit in this regard is given to James V. Downton, who in 1973 was the first, to contrast a transactional type of leadership based on a distribution of punishments and rewards to inspirational and charismatic types of leadership that target followers' emotional needs. Downton (1973) was also one of the first people to propose that effective leadership needs to embrace all existing problems and conflicts in order to generate solutions. According to Khanin (2007), Burns who had a reputation of being both a political scientist and historian, began his career by differentiating between leadership and ruler-ship. Ruler-ship was described as the possession of formal authority by the leader (Khanin, 2007). The conceptions TL stem from political movements, ideally characterised by mutual quest for shared meanings and active collaboration between leaders and followers (Burns, 2003; Khanin 2007). On the basis of his previous studies and a plethora of historical examples, Burns (1978) has argued that leadership can be broken down into two principal types, namely transactional leadership and TL. The extension of TL theory was advanced by Bernard Bass (Bass, 1999). Bass (1999) argued that much had been done and much more was still required before transactional and TL could be

adequately understood. Bass (1999) described transactional leadership as an exchange relationship between leaders and followers to meet their own self-interests and often based on legitimate authority with the bureaucratic structure of the organisation. Transactional leadership has been characterised as a contractual or exchange process between leaders and followers (Dust, Resick & Mawritz, 2013). The transactional leader identifies specific followers' expectations and provides rewards in exchange for followers' performance (Bass, 1985; Daft, 1999). Bass (1999) described this form of exchange as transactional leadership category, which applies the contingent reinforcements. TL, by contrast, is a process of inculcating higher levels of motivation and commitment among followers (Riggio, 2009). It emphasises the generation of a vision for organisations and the leader's ability to appeal to higher ideals (Arnold & Randall, 2010).

In addition TL values the followers' needs, creates the feeling of justice, loyalty and trust (Aamodt, 2010). TL addresses followers' motives by encouraging them to consider the moral and ethical consequences of their actions and goals, which extends above and beyond satisfying their self-interests (Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1999). By providing and articulating a desirable vision, transformational leaders are able to affect followers' views of their positive role in achieving the mission/vision, and mobilising higher levels of commitment to a common set of goals for the group. Through the transformational leader's effective communication and articulation of a desirable vision, followers are expected to come to accept and internalise their leader's personal values and vision (Bass & Avolio, 1997).

According to Khanin (2007) the contribution of Bass on the theory of transformational leadership from Burn's original conception is in three ways. *Firstly*, Bass (1985) argued that the task of a transformational leader is not only to raise the follower to a higher level of consciousness, as proposed by Burns (1978), but to expand the portfolio of follower needs and wants. *Secondly*, unlike Burns (1978), who asserted that TL is always morally elevating, Bass (1985) maintained that transformational leaders may equally lead followers toward unconstructive, negative, and reactionary goals. *Lastly*, unlike Burns (1978), who has characterised transformational and

transactional styles of leadership as mutually exclusive, Bass has consistently argued that most leaders do both but in different amounts (Bass, 1985).

#### 2.7.4.2 TL behaviours

Bass and Avolio (1997) further developed the theory of transformational leadership by developing the full range leadership model. The model denotes that TL includes four types of behaviours, which are idealised influence, inspirational motivation, individualised consideration, and intellectual stimulation.

- *Idealised influence* refers to leader behaviours that cause followers to identify with the leader. The leader portraying this leadership attributes makes personal sacrifices, takes responsibility of his or her actions, shares any glory and shows great determination (Arnold et al., 1998).
- *Inspirational motivation* includes leader behaviours that motivate and inspire followers through articulating an appealing vision, providing meaning for focusing follower effort, and modelling appropriate behaviours (Huttermann & Boerner, 2011; Mullins, 2011). In addition team spirit may be enhanced (Bass & Avolio, 1994).
- *Intellectual stimulation* includes leader behaviours that encourage followers to view problems from new perspectives and to take risks (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Bass, 1998; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Transformational leaders also use intellectual stimulation to challenge their follower's thoughts, imagination, creativity and recognition of their values, beliefs and mindset (Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004; Liu & Liao, 2013).
- *Individualised consideration* involves leader behaviours that provide support, encouragement, and coaching to followers. The leaders attend to the individualised needs of followers by listening, mentoring, and giving feedback. By engaging in these actions, transformational leaders motivate their staff to contribute extraordinary efforts and achieve extraordinary goals (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bass, 1985; Si & Wei, 2012).

### 2.7.4.3 *Components of TL*

Through research, various elements were identified as prominent components of TL. These components contribute immensely to advancing our understanding of TL theory, and are discussed below.

#### a. Vision

Several leadership researchers have argued that developing a shared vision is one of the most integral components of the TL process. Patterson, Fuller, Hester and Stringer (1995), argue that effective leaders tend to present a vision that is congruent with dearly held values of followers. This vision helps leaders to integrate and align followers' efforts to achieve the set objectives. Visionary leaders instil pride, gain respect and trust, and increase a sense of optimism and hope in followers (Conger & Kanungo, 1992; Patterson, et al., 1995). To achieve a challenging vision necessitates that transformational leaders align followers' personal values and interests with the collective interests of the group/organisation (Bass, 1985; Jung & Avolio, 2000). During the vision implementation process, transformational leaders serve as role models for perseverance and self-sacrifice, when necessary, to motivate followers to realise the vision (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). In TL, leaders elicit greater motivation and positive emotions from their followers by creating and representing an inspiring vision of the future (Bass, 1998).

#### b. Trust

According to Bass (1999), trust in leadership is required for willingness to identify with the organisation. Followers' trust in the leader has been considered one of the most important variables that can mediate the effectiveness of TL (Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer, 1996; Yukl, 2010). TL increase followers' trust levels by showing concern for their needs, honouring agreements, and demonstrating the capability and persistence to achieve the good of their group (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). As a result, followers typically come to admire their leaders, want to identify with them, and demonstrate a higher degree of trust in them in part for the

commitment they personally demonstrate to achieving the vision (Conger & Kanungo, 1992; Gardner & Avolio, 1998). Transformational leader's frequent empowerment and encouragement of followers to make their own decisions can also build followers' trust in his/her leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1997). By being a role model and showing respect for their followers, TL become more admired, respected and trusted over time (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Followers must trust their leader, as leadership almost always involves a transformation of existing conditions, which can create a high level of uncertainty, anxiety, frustration and fear (Kotter, 1996). A high level of trust among followers is what enables a transformational leader and his or her followers to persist in their efforts and to overcome significant obstacles.

#### c. Culture's role and influence

Hofstede and Bond (1988) define culture as an interactive aggregate of common characteristics that influence a group's responses to its environment. Bass (1999) states that although the original theory, model and measurement of TL emerged in the United States of America, which is an individualistic culture, it appears to be equally and more applicable in collectivist societies such as Asian countries. Collectivist cultures provide the leaders with ideal opportunities to become transformational leaders (Comer, Jolson, Dubinsky, & Yammarino, 1995; Medley & Larochelle, 1995; Yammarino, Dionne, Chun & Dansereau, 2005). Furthermore, most subordinates in collectivist cultures already have respect for their followers. Leaders in collectivist society already have a moral obligation to take care of their subordinates. In turn the followers have a moral obligation to reciprocate with loyalty and obedience. This indicates that TL may be far more pervasive in collectivist societies as compared to individualistic societies (Jung, Sosik & Bass, 1995). The mutual obligation between the leaders and the followers facilitate the transformational leader's individualised consideration.

#### d. Gender

Traditionally, leadership has been described in masculine terms as being action-oriented behaviour aimed at demonstrating strength, assertiveness, and

competence, and possessing position power, providing access to social status and resources (Bass & Bass, 2008). Similarly, women continue to be stereotyped as being supporting and nurturing, caring about relationships more than the job. Conversely, men are often labelled as being directive and task focused (Ashleigh & Mansi, 2012). However, as the number of women in leadership positions has continued to increase over the last decade, issues of gender diversity, identity, prototypes, and managerial effectiveness have captured the attention of researchers (Ayman & Korabik, 2010). Men and women can lead equally effectively, but may differ in terms of how they lead (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & Van Engen, 2003). Several studies have shown that women tend to be somewhat more transformational than their male counterparts. Eagly et al., (2003) conducted a meta-analysis of differences between men and women on transformational leadership. Although the results did not find any differences between studies that used self-rating versus other-ratings of leadership style across 45 studies, they found female leaders to be slightly more transformational than male leaders (Bass, 1999; Bass, Avolio & Atwater 1996). Research has also indicated that gender can moderate the relationship between TL and outcomes in three ways: (a) there could be an effect as a result of the gender of the leader; (b) there could be an effect as a result of the gender of the subordinate; or (c) there could be an effect as a result of the gender composition of the leader-subordinate dyad. In Nigeria, Deji and Makinde (2006) found that women leaders had a higher level of external orientation and leadership skills than men.

#### e. Values

Values are at the core of culture and consequently drive the behaviour of an individual, groups and organisation (Van Tonder & Roodt, 2008). According to Aamodt (2010) successful leaders have strong values and ensure that such values are communicated and demonstrated to the rest of the employees. Usually, this can be done when leaders are actively engaging in and developing their followers. Such leaders usually have a positive influence on their followers' value system with time (Gardner & Avolio, 1998; Shamir, 1995). When followers' values are congruent with the transformational leaders' values, they are expected to shift motivation from focusing on self-interests to considering the more collective interests of the group or

organisation (Bass, 1985). One of the main reasons TL increase followers' motivation to perform beyond their initial expectations is that their followers come to accept and internalise the values articulated by their leaders (Jung & Avolio, 2000).

#### f. Followership

According to Avolio et al., (2013) followership has received increased attention in the literature, various authors have taken the position that “the follower matters” in terms of how leadership should be conceptualised and measured. They also focused on how it ultimately impacts the followers' and leaders' ways of thinking, motivation, behaviour, and performance (Avolio et al., 2013). Similarly, Shondrick and Lord (2010) stated that followers are seen as being active, intelligent, responsible and involved in interests shared with the leaders. This may suggest that the leader's effectiveness often depends on the type of followers he/she has. According to Schyns and Sanders (2003), there are two competing explanations why followers may be susceptible to TL. Firstly, the similarity hypothesis predicts that individuals prefer similar others. This means that followers who have personality characteristics associated with TL should prefer transformational leaders. Accordingly, this notion has received empirical support, as extraversion, conscientiousness, and agreeableness positively predict perceptions of TL (Felfe & Schyns, 2006; Hansbrough, 2012). Secondly, followers will be drawn to transformational leaders to make up for their shortcomings whereas insecure and anxious followers may thus be more susceptible to TL (Yukl, 2010).

#### 2.7.4.4 *Outcomes of TL*

TL has been shown to be positively related to subordinate outcomes such as intrinsic motivation (Bono & Judge, 2003), self-efficacy (McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002), creativity (Howell & Avolio, 1993), justice perceptions (Cho & Dansereau, 2010), work engagement (Zhu, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2009), job performance (Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002; Podsakoff et al., 1996) and positive psychological capital (Gooty, Gavin, Johnson, Frazier, & Snow, 2009). In addition, TL has shown to be related to organisational performance and leader effectiveness (Judge & Piccolo,

2004). Similarly, contingent reward behaviours are also positively related to various subordinate outcomes such as extra effort, organisational commitment, and managerial satisfaction and effectiveness (Bass, 1998; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). However, both management by exception-passive and management by exception-active typically, have a negative relationship with the aforementioned outcomes, such as organisational commitment, and managerial satisfaction and effectiveness (Furtner, Baldegger & Rauthmann, 2013; Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

TL implies that every leader displays a frequency of both the transactional and transformational factors; however each leader's profile will involve more of one and less of the other. Those leaders, who tend to be more satisfying to their followers and who are more effective as leaders, will be more transformational and less transactional (Bass & Avolio, 1997; Furtner et al., 2013).

## **2.8 SOCIAL EXCHANGE THEORY AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR (OCB)**

According to Will (2012), social exchange theory refers to voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by returns they are expected to bring. The first explanation regarding the emergence of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) was based on the social exchange theory, which predicts that given certain conditions, people seek to requite those which benefit them (Vigoda-Godat, 2006). In addition, social exchange theory depicts employees acting to reciprocate past obligations to the organisation and create new ones from the organisation (Will, 2012). Social exchange theory can also be seen in the light of social psychological theory. This theory proposes that human interactions can be seen as transactions where people exchange resources in the hope for earnings, and is thus in line with the cognitive approach to OCB (Kabasakal, Dastmalchian & Imer, 2011). Employees perform extra-role behaviours to reciprocate past fair treatment, and with the expectation that their behaviours will induce future fair treatment (Arnold & Randall, 2010; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). According to Korsgaard, Meglino and Jeong (2010), these behaviours of employees constitute beneficial acts that are provided to

an organisation in exchange for benefits which are received from the organisation. Authors started writing about OCB more than half a century ago (Katz, 1964). According to Gurbuz (2009) the early writings about OCB were seen from the work of Barnard in 1938, when he stated that the willingness of individuals to contribute cooperative efforts to achieve organisational objectives was possible. In 1977, Organ broadened research on the satisfaction-performance link to a suggestion of a new type of performance construct, namely OCB (Stamper & Van Dyne, 2001). This concept was later defined as behaviour that an employee voluntarily engages in which promote the effectiveness of the organisation but are not explicitly rewarded by the organisation (Kwantes, Karam, Kuo & Towson, 2008). OCB consists of behaviour that an employee may engage in at his or her discretion. In addition, this behaviour facilitates the effectiveness of the organisation, and promotes the organisation's interests. Mark, Jordan, Schraeder, Field and Armenakis (2007) further state that OCB is characterised by individuals voluntarily making extra-role contributions to the organisation that are above and beyond their job duties, and is regarded as a factor impacting the effectiveness of an organisation. This behaviour was originally termed extra-role behaviour by Katz (1964) and organisational citizenship behaviour as indicated by Vigoda-Godat (2006). As such, researchers and organisational leaders are interested in understanding factors associated with individual willingness to exhibit OCB. This very concept may thus be considered a social structure that has its roots not only in the Marxist approach, but also in many other earlier works that specifically deal with spontaneous human action (Vigoda-Godat, 2006). For example, Katz and Kahn (1966) suggested that the effective functioning of an organisation is highly dependent on innovative and spontaneous activities that are beyond prescribed role requirements.

## **2.9 BEHAVIOURS OF OCB**

The work of Tsai and Wu (2010) illustrate that OCB consists of different types of positive employee behaviour which include *civic virtue*, *sportsmanship*, *courtesy* and *Altruism*. Yilmaz and Tasdan (2009) include *conscientiousness* by referring to it as the expression of certain roles at level that exceeds the expectation. These behaviours will be discussed below.

### **2.9.1 Civic Virtue**

The word civic virtue means having a thorough knowledge of things that are happening in the organisation with particular interest in new developments, work methods, company policies and self-improvement efforts (Rurkkhum & Bartlett, 2012). An example would be academics attending receptions or meetings that promote the image of their university when this attendance was not required or was not necessary (Podsakoff et al., 1996). In addition, civic virtue suggests that employees should responsibly participate in the organisation's political life (Organ, 1988; Tsai & Wu, 2010). This will inspire others to participate and gain important and general information regarding the organisation.

### **2.9.2 Sportsmanship**

*Sportsmanship* means not complaining when you experience problems in the organisation (Tsai & Wu, 2010). In this sense, sportsmanship is related to avoiding negative behaviour (Organ, 1988). This implies that employees should not complain but should rather contribute positive attitudes (Chen, Yu, Hsu, Lin & Lou, 2013; Organ, 1990). Furthermore, sportsmanship has been seen as the willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without complaining (Tsai & Wu, 2010). A secretary's willingness to assume and carry out an extra temporary task, without complaining, when she has a right of objection may serve as an example of such behaviour (Podsakoff et al., 1996).

### **2.9.3 Courtesy**

Courtesy refers to all those foresighted gestures that help other people to prevent a problem, such as keeping others informed about decisions and actions that may affect those (Schnake & Dumler, 2003). It also means that employees should treat others with respect at all times includes behaviour such as "helping someone prevents a problem from occurring, or taking steps in advance to mitigate the problem" (Yoon, 2009, p.422). Courteous behaviour displayed by employees should prevent work-related, interpersonal problems. For example, one employee should

notify others before initiating actions to complete a particular task (Podsakoff et al., 1996).

#### **2.9.4 Altruism**

Altruism refers to behaviour directed towards a specific person with an organisational relevant problem. It is behaviour that includes helping others about the organisational task or a problem (Rurkkhum & Bartlett, 2012). This behaviour includes suggesting new ideas for handling work, training, taking a personal interest in other employees, punctuality, seeking and asking for help when needed, making positive statements about the department and supervisors, and going out of one's way to protect others (Turnipseed & Murkison, 1996). Since the activities an employee engages in are not necessarily job requirements, and might not be subject to rewards or punishments, such acts are considered Altruism (Spector & Fox, 2002).

#### **2.9.5 Conscientiousness**

Conscientiousness is defined as a more impersonal sort of conscientiousness, more of a 'good soldier' or 'good citizen' syndrome of performing activities that are relevant, but for the sake of the system rather than for specific persons (Tang & Kim, 1999). In other words, it is sincere devotion to the organisation, as well as respect for the rules of the organisation beyond the organisation's requirements (Organ, 1988). This refers to an employee performing his/her assigned tasks (in-role behaviour) in a manner above what is expected. An example of this behaviour would be an employee on leave calling his co-workers to ensure there is no problem with work (Podsakoff et al., 1996; Yoon, 2009).

#### **2.10 BENEFITS OF OCB**

OCB has generally been associated with organisational effectiveness through the attainment of formal goals. Vigoda-Godat (2006) argues that so far most of the writings about OCB have clearly centred on its positive implications and contribution

to organisational performance and to the social climate in the workplace. Miles, Borman, Spector and Fox (2002) have observed that people sometimes do perform more than what they are expected to do, which ultimately helps the organisations to enhance productivity. Moreover, it has been stated that this behaviour is not the product of a requirement demanded by the job functions or description, but simply the product of a personal decision (Spector & Fox, 2002). Personal decisions are mainly influenced by own perceptions of the work environment. Such perceptions relate to positive emotion, which is positively correlated with the occurrence of OCB (Miles et al., 2002).

## **2.11 CRITICISM OF OCB**

OCB has also been found to have negative relationships with certain concepts. In this regard Lambert, Hogan and Griffin (2008) discovered that negative work experiences decreases OCB. Bolino, Turnley, Gilstrap and Suazo (2009) similarly argue that the downside of OCB is identifiable when employees feel pressured to perform citizenship behaviour. Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2013) posit that common stressors of role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload, identified by the role theory are inadequate to explain all the stressful aspects of commitment in OCB. This means there could be more elements that have negative impact on work due to OCB but have not been identified. In addition, an employee who displays OCB behaviour may be susceptible to stress which has the potential to cause role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload (Bolino, Turnley & Niehoff, 2004). Most notably, Bergeron (2007) argued that citizenship behaviours do not occur in a vacuum and that employees who engage in Organisational Citizenship Behaviours (OCBs) cannot do so endlessly, because time and energy are finite resources. Using a resource-allocation framework, Bergeron (2007) proposed that engaging in citizenship behaviour may diminish employees' in-role task performance, which may consequently damage their career. This researcher argued that OCBs are especially likely to have harmful career consequences when performed in organisations that reward outcomes more than behaviours and when employees engage in OCBs that are challenging and time-consuming. Exploring the idea that citizenship may lose its discretionary quality Bolino, Klots, Turnley and Harvey (2013, p. 544) developed a

conceptual model of job creep, which occurs when “employees feel ongoing pressure to do more than the requirements of their jobs”. Given that individuals will engage in OCB in order to gain advantage and reputation at work, if their efforts are not acknowledged, they are likely to become disappointed (Spector & Fox, 2002). This disappointment may lead to counterproductive behaviour which can be detrimental towards the individual and the organisation. Table 2.1 provides more examples of negative behaviour which can emanate from OCB (Bolino et al, 2004).

Table 2.1

*Potential organisational level outcome of OCB (Bolino et al, 2004)*

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<i>Alternative antecedents</i>	<i>Consequences of OCB</i>
OCBs take place instead of in-role behaviours	Employees who volunteer for special assignments or spend time helping others may neglect their formally-assigned responsibilities.
OCBs are more expensive than formally providing for such activities	It may be more cost effective for organisations to hire additional workers or train their employees rather than rely on individuals to help one another.
OCBs may be of low quality or	Employees may offer poor quality help  give inaccurate advice that actually does more harm than good. Employees may work long hours but actually produce very little.
OCBs may be indicative of poor to management or understaffing	If employees are frequently called upon to work long hours or to continually help one another, it could indicate a serious organizational problem.

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*Potential Individual Level Outcome of OCB*

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<i>Alternative antecedents</i>	<i>Consequences of OCB</i>
Role ambiguity	Employees may have a hard time distinguishing between in-role and extra-role behaviours.

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Less accurate performance appraisal processes	OCBs may contribute to the unreliability of employee performance appraisals.
Escalating citizenship	Employees may feel pressured to continually increase their acts of citizenship in order to be seen as a good organizational citizen, which may leave them feeling stressed, overloaded, and with less time to devote to their personal lives.
Resentment and conflict among employees	Employees may resent the citizenship behaviour of their peers who may offer them unwanted aid or work long hours when they are unable to do so themselves.

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## **2.12 ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR OF INDIVIDUALS (OCBI) AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR OF ORGANISATIONS (OCBO)**

Organ (1988) first defined OCB as any actions that are discretionary and not recognized by the formal reward systems in the organisation. Williams and Anderson (1991) later separated OCB into two categories based on the targets of the behaviours namely individuals (i.e. OCBI) and the organisation (i.e. OCBO). OCBI includes Altruism (Moorman, Niehoff and Organ, 1993) as well as other helping behaviours, such as courtesy, peacekeeping and cheerleading. These behaviours directly benefit specific individuals and indirectly benefit the organisation. OCBO refers to behaviours that indicate conscientiousness, compliance, job dedication and loyalty as well as creative and innovative behaviours that aim to help the organisation directly (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Empirical studies have demonstrated that OCBI and OCBO are influenced by different factors (Halbesleben & Bowler 2007; Ilies et al., 2007; LePine & Van Dyne, 2001; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman & Taylor, 2000; Stamper & Dyne 2001). For example, according to Halbesleben and Bowler (2007), emotional exhaustion is positively related to OCBI

but negatively related to OCBO. Leader Member exchange theory is more related to OCBI than to OCBO (Ilies et al., 2007). Kaufman, Stamper and Tesluk (2001) found that perceived organisational support is more strongly related to OCBO than to OCBI as OCBI is interpersonal in nature and involves benefits that reward individuals, whereas OCBO involves benefits that reward organisations directly.

### **2.13 ANTECEDENTS OF OCB**

The concept of OCB has been described as helpful and involves constructive behaviours, which are beneficial to the organisation; therefore it is important to identify its antecedents from previous research (Li, Liang, & Crant, 2010). The possible antecedents of OCB have grown with the body of research since the concept was introduced. According to Kwantes et al., (2008) some personality factors and individual values may predispose an individual to engage in OCB. A study conducted by Gurbuz (2009) in a military unit, revealed that job satisfaction, trust in a supervisor, organisational justice, organisational fairness and organisational commitment are positively related to OCB. Lambert, Hogan and Griffin (2008) identified job attitude and job involvement as antecedents of OCB. Lastly, Pal and Dasgupta (2012) stated that previous research has shown that procedural justice, leadership characteristics, psychological empowerment and organisational culture are antecedents of OCB.

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Backrach, (2000) providing relevant research results pertaining to antecedents of OCB as indicated in table 2.2 below. These results are relevantly and indicate how OCB behaviours were performed in different dimensions such as extra-role work performance dimensions, organisational loyalty and compliance as well as individual initiative. In addition these results show what other related extra role behaviours are likely to occur in the aforementioned dimensions. In some way this results provides examples of what extra behaviour is and how such behaviour can be identified in a work environment.

Table 2.2

Antecedents of OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000)

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*Extra-role work performance dimensions*

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*Helping worker behaviour* includes all voluntary forms of assistance that organisational members provide each other to facilitate the accomplishment of tasks and attainment of goals. Helping co-workers includes behaviours ranging from helping a co-worker with a heavy workload and sharing resources, to calling attention to errors and omissions and providing instruction in the use of new technology when one is not required to do so (George & Jones, 1997).

*Helping and Cooperating* with others includes assisting/helping co-workers, assisting/helping customers and Altruism (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997).

*Interpersonal Facilitation*; consists of interpersonally oriented behaviours that contribute to organizational goal accomplishment. In addition to the spontaneous helping behaviours that Smith, Organ and Near (1983) called Altruism, and George and Brief (1992) labelled helping co-workers, interpersonal facilitation encompasses deliberate acts that improve morale, encourage cooperation, remove barriers to performance, or help co-workers perform their task-oriented job activities. Thus, interpersonal facilitation encompasses a range of interpersonal acts that help maintain the interpersonal and social context needed to support effective task performance in an organisational setting.

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*Organisational Loyalty*

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*Loyalty Boosterism*; the promotion of the organisational image to outsiders (Moorman & Blakely, 1995).

*Organisational Loyalty* is identification with and allegiance to organisational leaders and the organisation as a whole, transcending the parochial interests of individuals, work groups, and departments. Representative behaviours include defending the organisation against threats; contributing to its good reputation; and cooperating with others to serve the interests of the whole (Graham, 1991).

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### *Organisational Compliance*

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*Generalised Compliance* pertains to a more impersonal form of conscientiousness that does not provide immediate aid to any one specific person, but rather is indirectly helpful to others involved in the system. The behaviour (e.g., punctuality, not wasting time) seems to represent something akin to compliance with internalised norms defining what a good employee is supposed to do (Smith et al, 1983).

*Organisational Obedience* is an orientation toward organisational structure, job descriptions, and personnel policies that recognises and accepts the necessity and desirability of a rational structure of rules and regulations. Obedience may be demonstrated by a respect for rules and instructions, punctuality in attendance and task completion, and stewardship of organisational resources (Graham, 1991).

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*Endorsing, Supporting, and Defending Organisational Objectives* which includes organisational loyalty; concern for unit objectives; staying with the organisation during hard times and representing the organisation favourably to outsiders (Borman & Motowidlo (1997).

*Following Organizational Rules and Procedures* which includes the following orders and regulations; respect for authority; complying with organizational values and policies; conscientiousness and meeting deadlines (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997).

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### *Individual Initiative*

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*Conscientiousness* is a pattern of going well beyond minimally required levels of attendance, punctuality, housekeeping, conserving resources, and related matters of internal maintenance (Organ, 1990).

*Personal Industry* is the performance of specific tasks above and beyond the call of duty (Moorman & Blakely, 1995).

*Individual Initiative* refers to communications to others in the workplace to improve individual and group performance (Moorman & Blakely, 1995).

*Civic Virtue* is responsible, constructive involvement in the political process of the organisation, including not just expressing opinions but reading one's mail, attending meetings, and keeping abreast of larger issues involving the organisation (George & Jones, 1997).

*Organisational Participation* refers to interest in organisational affairs guided by ideal standards of virtue, validated by keeping informed and expressed through full and responsible involvement in organisational governance. This includes attending non-required meetings, sharing informed opinions and new ideas with others, and being willing to deliver bad news and support an unpopular view to combat groupthink (Graham, 1991).

*Making constructive suggestions* includes all voluntary acts of creativity and innovation in organisations. Such suggestions can range from the relatively mundane (a more efficient way to handle paperwork) to the more monumental (reorganisation of an entire unit to better serve a changing customer base). Workers who engage in this form of organisational spontaneity, actively try to find ways to improve individual, group, or organizational functioning (George & Jones, 1997).

Persisting with enthusiasm and extra effort as necessary to complete own task activities successfully. The common behaviour includes perseverance, conscientiousness and going an extra effort on the job. In addition, volunteering to carry out task activities that are not formally part of own job, for example, suggesting organisational improvements initiative and taking on extra responsibility (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997).

*Job dedication* centres on self-discipline behaviours such as following rules and general compliance (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996).

*Protecting the Organisation* includes those voluntary acts organisational members engage in to protect or save life and property ranging from reporting fire hazards, securely locking doors, reporting suspicious or dangerous activities, to taking the initiative to halt a production process when there is the potential for human injury (George & Jones, 1997).

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## **2.14 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TL AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR**

The relationship between TL and OCB will be discussed by reviewing the previous studies in the same field. This will indicate different embedded elements which contributed towards the development of the aforementioned relationship. Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman & Fetter, (1990) reported that TL influenced followers' OCB only indirectly, in that it is mediated by the followers' level of trust in their leader. Trust also moderates the relationship between engagement and both in-role performance and OCB. Furthermore, trust in leadership is required for willingness to identify with the organisation and to internalise its values and the emergence in the workforce of OCB (Podsakoff et al., 1996).

According to Koh, Steers & Terborg (1995), the link between TL and OCB stems from the status of a leader as a role model. This argument suggests transformational leaders are viewed as role models by their followers, who are more likely to display OCBs.

Rousseau, (1998) discovered that organisational dynamics, such as organisational identification may have an influence on the application of TL to elicit either negative or positive results. The results indicated that, the relationship between TL and OCB was negative on the basis on organisational leadership (Rousseau, 1998).

In a study conducted by Kane and Tremble (2000) which focused on the TL effects in the United States Army found that transformational behaviours tended to augment the effects of other leadership aspects on motivation and commitment. Kent and Chelladurai (2001) posit that, if the effects of TL are to change the followers' aspirations and make them perform beyond the call of duty, such effects should be seen in the follower' OCB. Furthermore Dvir et al., (2002) empirically tested the effect of transformational leaders on the follower and found that TL has a direct effect on follower's motivation, morality and empowerment. For example, Nahavandi (2003) explains that individual consideration leadership style which is defined as the leader's ability to treat each follower differently but equitably, providing all with

individual attention. As a result, followers feel special, encouraged, and motivated to perform activities related to OCB as opposed to traditional job requirements. These results are supported by Wang et al., (2005) who discovered that OCB has been found to be positively influenced by TL. The results states that TL is a significant predictor of employees' reported OCB. In addition a study done by Kark, Shamir and Chen (2003) found that TL was positively related to both followers' dependence, their empowerment and that personal identification with the leader mediating the relationship between leader and follower. Furthermore, Whittington, Goodwin and Murray (2004) discovered that there is a positive relationship between trust and TL.

Although there have been some studies conducted in the military about TL, these have proven to be very limited in terms of investigating the relationship between TL and OCB (Gurbuz, 2009). As such, the status quo necessitates a study in the military to explore the relationship between TL and OCB which may specifically shed light on soldiers' perceptions of OCB.

Lately, Humphrey (2012) stated that transformational leaders, through trust building, motivating followers, and exhibiting genuine concern for followers' needs, are able to transform employees' work mentalities. This transformation often leads to development of attitude that informs their willingness to perform above and beyond their traditional formal job roles Humphrey (2012).

Yang (2012) states that transformational leadership seeks to motivate and encourage others to perform above the minimum requirements and often to perform beyond their own expectations. The followers' ability to perform beyond traditional job role is described as OCB (Rurkkhum & Bartlett, 2012). Humphrey (2012) followers can be the leader's ability to influence the follower' performance by creating trust, being a role model, paying attention followers needs and create good working relations. The basis of TL's ability to influence OCB in this case is identifiable in light of the above discussion, hence TL appears to be the cause and OCB the end state.

Li, Chiaburu, Kirkman and Xie (2013) investigated the relationship between TL and subordinates' OCB and indicated that, the relationship was less useful for followers' OCB. In contrast, the recent study by Dust et al., (2013) presents evidence that

employees who work for transformational leaders appear to make the required efforts needed for high job performance and display good OCBs. Although Lately, Li, Chiaburu, Kirkman and Xie (2013) stated that the relationship between TL and OCB was less useful for determining OCB, the findings of different studies generally suggest that, there has been a relationship between TL and OCB over the years.

## **2.15 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

In this chapter the concept of TL and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) was discussed. The chapter started with a discussion of the definition of leadership, and then moved on to the historical development of leadership theories. Leadership theories that were discussed included the trait, behavioural and contingency theories of leadership. Thereafter the concept of OCB and its various approaches was discussed. The chapter was concluded with a discussion of the relationship between TL and OCB.

## **CHAPTER 3: ARTICLE**

### **THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR**

by

**ORAPELENG OSCAR SECHUDI**

**SUPERVISOR: MR B.H. OLIVIER**

**DEPARTMENT: INDUSTRIAL AND ORGANISATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY**

**DEGREE: MA (Industrial and Organisational Psychology)**

The purpose of the study was to explore the relationship between the transformational leadership (TL) style of officers and their followers' organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) in a South African military environment. TL was measured by means of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Form 5X) and OCB by means of the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale (OCBS). A sample of 300 followers was identified at a military unit in the South African Army and the participants were requested to complete the two questionnaires. The MLQ produced a Cronbach's alpha of 0.91 and the OCBS a Cronbach's alpha of 0.79, which were both statistically significant and acceptable. The main hypothesis of the empirical study was accepted, which predicted a significant relationship between TL and OCB ( $r = 0.412$ , significant at the 0.001 level). The hypotheses predicting a significant relationship between TL the five sub-dimensions of OCB produced mixed results. These results are as follows; there was no significant relationship between TL and Civic Virtue ( $r = 0.180$ ), between TL and Sportsmanship ( $r = 0.132$ ) and between TL and Courtesy ( $r = 0.207$ ). Additionally, the hypotheses predicting a significant relationship between TL and Altruism ( $r = 0.499$ ) and between TL and Conscientiousness ( $r = 0.315$ ) were accepted.

**Key words:** Transformational Leadership (TL), Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, Military Leadership, Civic Virtues, Sportsmanship, Courtesy, Altruism, Conscientiousness, Individualised Consideration, Intellectual Stimulation, Inspirational Motivation, Individualised.

\*Please note: the guidelines provided by the *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology* have been applied as a broad and general framework for the research article.

### **3. INTRODUCTION**

The following section introduces the key focus of the study and background of the study. Following this, a discussion is presented on the extant literature in the area of TL and organisational citizenship behaviour. The hypotheses and objectives of the study are thereafter defined. This is followed by a summary of the value that this study contributes to the broader field of knowledge in the area. The research design is outlined to provide the reader with an understanding of how the research was approached, who the sample consisted of and which data collection instruments were used. This section is followed by a presentation of the results obtained from the collected and thereafter a discussion which highlights how the results of the study tie in with current literature. As a means of concluding, the conclusions of the study which includes recommendations, limitations and recommendations for future research are delineated.

#### **3.1 KEY FOCUS OF THE STUDY**

Organisations have entered into an era of rapid change and transformation, characterised by technological challenges, social advancement and increased competition (Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1991; Martins & Coetzee, 2011). Luthans (2008) posits that commonly people referred to organisations in relation to advanced information technology, globalisation and diversity. In addition, the continuous effort made by leaders to solve existing problems in organisations was identified as one of the known common practices (Avolio, Sosik & Berson, 2013). These conditions describe the environment which organisations functions in to be turbulent. It has also been recognised that the essential determinant of organisational performance is the human resources (Martins & Coetzee, 2011; Michaels, Hardfield-Jones & Axelrod, 2001). Furthermore, the real problems are managing human resources of the organisations which present major challenges and remain the critical competitive advantage (Bates, 2001; Benson & Zhu, 2002; Garavan, Heraty, & Barnicle, 1999). Ivancevich, Konopaske, and Matteson (2005) agree with this by stating that organisations are much more than a means of providing goods and services, but also have an impact on the general quality of life of both employees and their respective societies.

Lately, research has shown that a prominent trend in organisations is the focus on attracting and retaining staff from all demographic groups in order to improve workforce performance and their competitive position (Shim, 2001; Torrington, Hall, Taylor & Atkinson, 2009). In the military context there is a common realisation that effective organisational performance is not only dependent on compliance with the job description and duty sheets, but also seeks loyalty from members (Greenhaus & Callanan, 1994). This shows that organisations are under tremendous pressure to adapt to continuous and increasing number of changes in different environments. All these challenges in small and complex organisations require effective leadership, which will inspire survival of the organisation. Gibson et al (1991) reckon that leading and managing people effectively is the one most essential ingredient for the successful organisations.

### **3.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY**

According to Bass and Riggio (2006), leaders have their most direct and greatest effect on their followers. Leaders have the ability to effectively motivate followers to engage in desirable behaviours which have positive outcomes for the organisation (Arnold, Cooper & Robertson, 1998; Arnold & Randall, 2010, Nel, Gerber, Van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono & Werner, 2003). TL establishes a shared vision through which leaders provide a meaningful work environment and create a basis for people to experience change with themselves and the organisation (Aamodt, 2010; Bass & Avolio, 1997; Humphrey, 2012). Several studies indicate strong, positive relationships between subordinate perceptions of TL and the outcome of a leader's effectiveness (Lowe, Kroek & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Eid, Johnsen, Brun, Nyhus & Larsson, 2004). There is a need to evaluate the extent to which the perceived TL affect followers' behaviour in the South African Army (SA Army).

Proponents of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) have argued that it is important for organisational efficiency, effectiveness, innovation, and adaptability within diverse organisations (Humphrey, 2012; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Smith, Organ & Near, 1983). Gurbuz (2009) reported that most of the OCB research has focused on the antecedents or predictors of employee's OCB from a civilian organisations. The South African Army has applied TL as the ideal model for

enhancing effectiveness of the organisation (South African Army Common Doctrine, 2009). However, the effects of such a leadership model on OCB, whether positive or negative, were not measured and identified previously. The focus of this study is to determine the relationship between TL and OCB. This will indicate whether the application of TL in the SA Army has an influence on the followers' OCB. This is viewed important as military leaders are expected to value, develop, and manage the performance of their subordinates (Caldera, 2002). These tasks are associated with TL and are also associated with the responsibility of subordinate's performance beyond ordinary expectations. TL transmit a sense of mission, stimulate workers' learning experiences and inspire new and creative ways of thinking (Hater & Bass, 1988; Riggio 2009).

### **3.3 TRENDS FROM THE LITERATURE RESEARCH**

The following section provides a brief discussion of the literature on the constructs of TL and OCB.

### **3.4 TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP (TL)**

TL has been a topic of much research in the past two decades (Bass, 1999; Khanin, 2007; Zhu, Sosik, Riggio & Yang, 2012). There has been accumulating body of research which suggests that TL has an influence on the follower's work attitudes and performance at both the individual and organisational levels (Zhu et al., 2012). According to Aamodt (2010) and Yang (2012), TL represents a leadership style in which the leader values the importance of cooperation in the performance of collective tasks, provides the opportunity to learn from shared experience, and delegates to followers the authority to execute any necessary action efficiently. Such leaders establish a shared vision through which leaders provide a meaningful and creative basis from where change is brought about in people (Humphrey, 2012). The TL factors include idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration (Arnold et al., 1998, Bass & Avolio, 1997; Gibson et al., 1994; Huttermann & Boerner, 2011; Mullins, 2011; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Idealised influence is the degree to which the leader behaves in admirable ways that cause followers to identify with the leader (Arnold et al., 1998; Judge & Piccolo,

2004). A leader should behave in such a way that is appealing to followers on an emotional level. Mullins (2011) describes *Inspirational motivation* as the degree to which the leader articulates a vision that is inspiring to followers. Leaders with inspirational motivation challenge followers with high standards, encourage optimism about the attainment of future goals, and provide meaning for the task at hand (Huttermann & Boerner, 2011). Since subordinates are instrumental in performing their day to day tasks and are often the face of the organisation, the importance of their commitment and willingness to go an extra mile for the organisation cannot be overstated. According to Bass (1998), *Intellectual stimulation* is the degree to which the leader challenges assumptions, takes risks, and encourages followers to contribute their ideas. Leaders with this trait stimulate and encourage creativity in their followers (Antonakis, Avolio & Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). This could encourage followers not to depend on their leaders for solutions all the time as they are encouraged to apply their minds independently. *Individualised consideration* is the degree to which the leader attends to each follower's needs, acts as a mentor or coach to the follower, and listens to the follower's concerns and needs (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Si & Wei, 2012).

All successful TL have the following traits in common: they see themselves as change agents; they are brave; they have faith in people; they are goal driven; they believe in lifelong learning; they can cope with difficulties, change and uncertainties; they are creative thinkers and they have a vision (Avolio & Yammarino, 2002; Nguni, Slegers & Denessen, 2006). However, according to Bass and Avolio (1997), the effectiveness of any leadership model is determined by the impact it has on subordinates.

### **3.5 ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR (OCB)**

OCB is defined as behaviours that an employee voluntarily engages in which promote the effectiveness of the organisation but are not explicitly rewarded (Kwantes, Karam, Kuo, & Towson, 2008; Moorman, Niehoff & Organ, 1993; Williams & Anderson, 1991). The willingness of individuals to contribute cooperative efforts to achieve organisational objectives must be possible and identifiable (Gurbuz, 2009). In the late 1970's Katz and Kahn (1978) observed and reported behaviours that are

beyond explicit job role requirements. The work of Tsai and Wu (2010) illustrates that OCB consists of different types of positive employee behaviours which includes *Civic Virtue*, *Sportsmanship*, *Courtesy*, *Altruism* and *Conscientiousness*. Over the years, the topic of OCB has generated a substantial amount of scholarly attention and has shown to be important for job performance in several studies. For instance Organ (1988), broadened research on the satisfaction-performance link to a suggestion of a new type of performance construct called OCB (Stamper & Van Dyne, 2001). Vigoda-Godat (2006) argues that to date, most of the writings about OCB have clearly centred on its positive contribution to organisational performance and to the social climate in the workplace. Smith et al., (1983) state that Organisational Citizen Behaviour (OCB) is important for organisational efficiency, effectiveness, innovation, and adaptability within diverse organisations.

Although OCB have been recognised as an extra-role and discretionary behaviours, recent research indicates that OCB may also be considered as in-role behaviour (Gurbuz, 2009; Jiao, Richards & Zhang, 2011). According to Arnold and Randall (2010) employees perform extra-role behaviours to reciprocate past fair treatment, and with the expectation that their behaviours will induce future fair treatment. This indicates that OCB happens as a form of reaction towards fair treatment. Emanating from the above discussion, Bass and Avolio (1997) stated that TL should result in more engaged, more devoted, and less self-concerned employees, as well as in workers who perform beyond the level of expectations. Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1995) have also pointed out that OCBs are beneficial for organisations in many ways besides contributing directly to group or organisational performance (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Furthermore, OCBs also contribute by making organisations attractive places to work. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) reported that TL influenced followers' OCB's. This happens only indirectly because it is mediated by the followers' level of trust in their leader. The relationship between TL and OCB has been identified in previous studies by Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Bommer (1996). Furthermore some studies have shown that OCB have been found to be positively influenced by TL (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang & Chen, 2005). The main research hypotheses are based on the following:

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant relationship between TL and organisational citizen behaviour.

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant relationship between TL and civic virtue.

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant relationship between TL and sportsmanship.

Hypothesis 4: There is a significant relationship between TL and courtesy.

Hypothesis 5: There is a significant relationship between TL and Altruism.

Hypothesis 6: There is a significant relationship between TL and conscientiousness.

### **3.6 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

The main objectives of the study will achieve the following specific empirical aims:

- To measure TL in a military unit in the South African Army using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass & Avolio, 1997).
- To measure OCB in a military unit in the South African Army using the organisational citizen behaviour scale (OCBS) (Turnipseed & Murkison, 1996, Gurbuz, 2009).
- To determine whether there is a significant relationship between TL and OCB in a military unit in the South African Army.
- To determine whether TL can predict OCB in a military unit in the South African Army.

### **3.7 POTENTIAL VALUE-ADD OF THE STUDY**

The scientific understanding of the potential relationship between these constructs can contribute to the mounting body of knowledge related to the theory of TL and OCB, as well as to effective leadership in organisations. The role of TL as the predictor to OCB is evident from the research findings of the present study, and an investigation of the relationship between TL and OCB can make a unique contribution towards our understanding of leadership in the context of organisational

behaviour. The present study extends TL and OCB literature by empirically establishing an association between the two constructs.

### **3.8 WHAT WILL FOLLOW?**

The following section will provide an explanation of the research design, explain the research approach and method. The results will then be presented, followed by a discussion of the findings, with a focus on significant results and the interpretation of these in relation to previous research. Conclusions will be presented and limitations will also be discussed. Finally the recommendations for future research will be proposed.

### **3.9 RESEARCH DESIGN**

According to Gravetter and Forzano (2006) a research design is a general plan for implementing a research strategy. It specifies whether the study will involve groups or individual participants, will make comparisons within a group or between groups and how many variables will be included in the study.

#### **3.9.1 Research approach**

A quantitative research method was used for this study. A non-experimental research design and a random field survey was conducted. The primary data were collected from a convenient sample for the purpose of the study.

#### **3.9.2 Research method**

##### ***3.9.2.1 Research participants***

The population for the study was all the uniformed military practitioners working at a military unit in the South African Army, a total of 567 personnel. The sample for this study consists of 300 (a 53% sample) members of the military unit, being a convenient sample (Gravetter & Forzano, 2006). The random sampling method was used for practical purposes due to the availability of military personnel at the military unit. The sample included members from all levels of the military unit, and ages ranged from 18-55 years. The sample also included both males and females. Table 3.1 below illustrates the composition of the sample.

*Table 3.1*  
**Composition of the research sample (n=300)**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Individual Level of Analysis (N=300)</b>		
<b>Gender</b>		
Male	234	78%
Female	66	22%
<b>Race</b>		
Africans	245	81.7%
Whites	8	2.7%
Coloureds	46	15.3%
Indians	1	0.3%
<b>Age</b>		
21-25	98	32.7%
26-30	63	21%
31-35	16	5.3%
36-40	33	11%
41-50	76	25.3%
51-55	12	4%
56+	2	0.7%
<b>Educational level</b>		
Less than Matric	30	10%
Matric	223	74.3%
Certificate (N's)	23	7.7%
Diploma	16	5.3%
Degree	5	1.7%
Post Graduates	3	1%
<b>Years of Services</b>		
1-2	50	16.7%
3-5	75	25%
6-10	47	15.7%
11-15	15	5%
16-20	59	19.6%
20+	54	18%
<b>Military Rank</b>		
Private	179	59.7%
Junior NCO (L/Cpl – Sgt)	75	25%
Senior NCO (SSgt to WO)	24	8%
Junior Officers (2Lt – Capt)	9	3%
Senior/General Officers (Maj – Gen)	13	4.3%

Table 3.1 indicates that the majority of the participants were Africans (81.7 %), males (78%) and between the ages 21-25 years old (32.7%). The majority have a less than

10 years of service (1-2yrs: 16.7%; 1-3yrs: 25%; 6-10:15.7%). The majority also has passed Grade 12 (74.3%).

### **3.9.2.2 Measuring instruments**

- *The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*. TL was measured with the 29 items Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire [MLQ] (Bass & Avolio, 1997). The scale for responses was arranged as follows: 1=I strongly disagree, 2=I disagree, 3=I moderately agree, 4=I Agree and 5=I strongly agree. The MLQ produces a composite TL (TL) score and also measures four TL factors which are Idealised Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation and Individualised Consideration. The internal consistency for the MLQ scales are: Idealised Influence, 0.96, Inspirational Motivation: 0.85, Intellectual Simulation: 0.89, and Individualized Consideration: 0.90. The MLQ's reliability scores (Spearman-Brown at > 0.90). Test-retest reliability of > 0.45 has been measured (Bass & Avolio, 1997). All these Cronbach alphas were considered acceptable for this study (Kline, 2005).
- *The Organizational Citizenship Behaviour Scale (OCBS)*. OCB was measured by means of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour [OCBS] (Fox, Spector, Goh, Bruursema & Kessler, 2012). This instrument has 30 statements that produce a composite OCB score and which also measures Altruism, Civic Virtues, Courtesy, Sportsmanship, and Conscientiousness. The scale for responses was arranged as follows: 1=I strongly disagree, 2=I disagree, 3=I moderately agree, 4=I Agree and 5= strongly. In studies by Fox et al., (2012) a reliability of 0.7 was recorded for the OCMS and 0.8 for Altruism, 0.5 for Civic Virtues, 0.8 for Courtesy, 0.8 for Sportsmanship, and 0.7 for Conscientiousness. All these Cronbach alphas were considered acceptable for this study (Kline, 2005).

### **3.9.2.3 Research procedure**

Permission to conduct the research was obtained from the South African National Defence Force as well as the Officer Commanding of the unit in question. The self-report paper-and-pencil questionnaires were administered to the participants in a

group session after the questionnaires were explained to the participants. Participants were additionally requested to voluntarily sign Informed Consent Forms before completing the questionnaires. Consent forms are important as they indicate that participant completed questionnaires voluntarily. Once completed, the questionnaires were collected and kept safe for data analysis.

#### **3.9.2.4 Statistical analysis**

Data was analysed using the Software Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 18.0. Statistical techniques utilised were descriptive statistical analysis, reliability and correlation analysis, and regression analysis.

### **3.10. RESULTS**

#### **3.10.1 RELIABILITY OF INSTRUMENTS**

Reliability is a measure of consistency (Wells & Wollack, 2003). Internal reliability is therefore the extent to which test measures item homogeneity, with the alpha value of 0.90 indicates that the items are tapping a common domain of a latent variable (Wells & Wollack, 2003). Internal consistency is measured with Cronbach's alpha denoted by the symbol  $\alpha$  (Wells & Wollack, 2003). According to the correlation results in table 3.2 the MLQ instrument measuring TL as a entirety, yielded a significant reliability coefficient of 0.91. Different subscales under TL (i.e., Idealised Influence, Inspirational Motivation, & Individualised Consideration) produced significant reliability coefficients of 0.81, 0.70, and 0.67 respectively. However, Intellectual Stimulation produced a reliability coefficient of 0.47 as compared to the other factors, which was still considered significant (Kline, 2005). Although Intellectual Stimulation produced the lowest reliability coefficient of the four MLQ dimensions, it was still significant enough to be used in further analysis.

The OCBS yielded a significant coefficient of 0.79. However, only two subscales (i.e., Altruism;  $\alpha = 0.77$  and Sportsmanship  $\alpha = 0.66$ ) of this scale produced significant reliability coefficients. One subscale (i.e., Courtesy) yielded a smaller, but still acceptable reliability coefficient of 0.53. The remaining scales (i.e., Civic Virtues and Conscientiousness) yielded below average reliability coefficients of 0.30 and

0.32, respectively (Kline, 2005). However, these reliability coefficients were significant enough to be used in further analysis. The internal consistency results yielded by the analysis are presented in table 3.2 followed by a discussion on the reliability coefficients of the subscales.

*Table 3.2*  
*The internal consistency of the MLQ and OCBS*

<b>Scales</b>	<b>Items</b>	<b>Cronbach Alphas (<math>\alpha</math>) <i>Current</i></b>
TL	29	0.91
Idealised Influence	12	0.81
Inspirational Motivation	7	0.70
Intellectual Stimulation	4	0.47
Individualised Consideration	6	0.67
OCB	30	0.79
Altruism	10	0.77
Civic Virtues	6	0.30
Courtesy	6	0.53
Sportsmanship	4	0.66
Conscientiousness	4	0.32

Table 3.3 shows the means, standard deviations and internal reliability for the variables of interest. It also indicates the skewness and Kurtosis which are both associated with standard error commonly referred to as measures of shape (Field, 2009). The skewness measures the degree and direction of asymmetry. A symmetric distribution such as a normal distribution has a skewness of 0, and a distribution that is skewed to the left, for example, when the mean is less than the median, has a negative skewness (DeCoster & Claypool, 2004; Pidwirny, 2006). The TL ( $r = 0.412$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ) graph is slightly negatively skewed, whereas the OCB graph ( $r = 0.412$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ) is normally distributed. TL ranges from a minimum of 2.21 to a maximum of 5.00. OCB ranges from a minimum of 3.10 to a maximum of 4.87. The *kurtosis* is a measure of the heaviness of the tails of a distribution. *Kurtosis* is positive if the tails

are heavier than for a normal distribution and negative if the tails are lighter than for a normal distribution (DeCoster & Claypool, 2004; Pidwirny, 2006).

Table 3.3

Mean, standard deviations and internal reliability for the variables of interest

Variables	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Min	Max	<i>r</i>
TL	4.03	.42103	-.504	1.056	2.21	5.00	.412(**)
OCBS	4.11	.34951	-.193	-.453	3.10	4.87	.412(**)

\*P<0.05, \*\*P<0.01

### 3.10.2 Correlations

The primary aim of this study was to empirically assess whether there is a relationship between TL and OCB. According to Field (2009) correlation coefficient reflects the direction (negative or positive) of the relationship and the magnitude (i.e., the index of the strength of the relationship) between two or more variables. Correlations of 0.80 to 1.00 are regarded as high correlation (most preferred); correlations of 0.60 to 0.79 are regarded as moderately high (acceptable); correlations of 0.40 to 0.59 (also acceptable) are regarded as moderate correlations; and correlations of 0.20 to 0.39 are regarded as low. Any correlation below 0.20 is regarded as negligible (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2010; Field, 2009; Nelsen, 1998). Table 3.4 below shows the correlation coefficients obtained for all the variables. The correlation results show that there is a statistically significant relationship between TL and its factors, namely:

- Idealised influence ( $r = 0.933$ ;  $p < 0.01$ );
- Inspirational Motivation ( $r = 0.882$ ;  $p < 0.01$ );
- Intellectual Stimulation ( $r = 0.708$ ;  $p < 0.01$ );
- Individualised Consideration ( $r = 0.841$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ).

The study also revealed that there is a significant relationship between TL, and OCB ( $r = 0.412$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ). The results also indicated the following relationships between TL and the sub-scales of OCB:

- Courtesy( $r = 0.207$ ;  $p < 0.01$ );
- Altruism( $r = 0.499$ ;  $p < 0.01$ );
- Conscientiousness. ( $r = 0.315$ ;  $p < 0.01$ );
- Civic Virtues ( $r = 0.180$ ;  $p < 0.01$ );
- Sportsmanship ( $r = 0.132$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ).

The results also indicate that there are some factors which have statistical insignificant relationships, for example, Intellectual Stimulation and Sportsmanship ( $r = 0.068$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ); Individual Consideration and Sportsmanship ( $r = -0.013$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ) as well as Civic Virtues and Individualised Consideration ( $r = -0.020$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ). The low correlations between these factors might be influenced by the small number of items which measured them, as indicated by the low internal consistency correlations obtained for the OCBS (see table 3.2).

Table 3.4

Correlations

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. TL											
2. Idealized Influence	.933**										
3. Inspirational Motivation	.882**	.776**									
4. Intellectual Stimulation	.708**	.591**	.537**								
5. Individualised Consideration	.841**	.671**	.667**	.495**							
6. OCB	.412**	.460**	.389**	.304**	.205**						
7. Altruism	.499**	.502**	.459**	.363**	.343**	.659**					
8. Civic Virtues	.180**	.248**	.169**	.132*	.020	.641**	.200**				
9. Courtesy	.207**	.225**	.166**	.168**	.127*	.711**	.232**	.271**			
10. Sportsmanship	.132*	.176**	.184**	.068	-.013	.736**	.212**	.416**	.584**		
11. Conscientiousness	.315**	.364**	.294**	.257**	.128*	.725**	.386**	.398**	.409**	.506**	-

\*\*\*Indicates that correlation is significant at 0.001 level ( $p < 0.001$ )

\*\*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

\*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

### **3.10.3 Regression analysis**

The purpose of multiple regression analysis is to evaluate the effect of one or more independent variables on a single dependent variable (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011). This technique allows additional factors to enter the analysis separately so that the effect of each can be estimated (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011). Multiple regression is valuable for measuring the impact of various influences upon a single dependent variable and can be used to address a variety of research questions. According to Pallant (as cited in Grundling) multiple regressions can also show how well a set of variables is able to predict a particular outcome. The use of standardised regression coefficients (beta values) was employed for this purpose (see table 3.5 below). Beta is a measure of how strongly each predictor variable (independent variable) influences the criterion variable (dependent variable) (Grundling, 2012). If the beta value is high, it is an indication that the predictor variable has the greater impact on the criterion variable. According to Pallant (as cited in Grundling, 2012), if the p-value (sig.) is less than 0.05 (0.1, 0.0001, etc.), the variable is making a significant unique contribution to the prediction of the dependent variable. If greater than 0.05, the variable is not making a significant unique contribution to the prediction of the dependent variable.

The p-value measures consistency between the results actually obtained in the trial and the pure chance explanation for those results (Thisted, 2010). It measures the strength of evidence against a hypothesis. If the p-value is small, then the null hypothesis is false or the sample is very unlikely. A small p-value leads to rejection of the null hypothesis in favour of the alternative hypothesis.

The multiple regression results detailed in table 3.5 indicate the impact of respondents' perception of TL (independent variable) on their OCB (dependent variable). The literature analysis in this area suggests that OCB can be influenced by TL (Dvir, Eden, Avolio & Shamir, 2002; Podsakoff et al., 1990). Table 3.5 indicates that Individualised Consideration (-0.550) shows a negative and insignificant contribution towards the increase of OCB. The results also show the beta value for both Intellectual Stimulation and Inspirational Motivation (-0.120 and -0.095 respectively). This indicates the two variables make a negative and insignificant contribution to OCB respectively, which might be due to overlap with other

independent variables in the model. Thus both Intellectual Stimulation and Inspirational Motivation do not contribute towards the increase of the outcome variable adequately. For this model (see table 3.5) Individualised Consideration ( $\beta = -0.550$ ,  $t = -5.170$ ,  $p < .000^*$ ) which is low and insignificant and the composite score for TL ( $\beta = 1.031$ ,  $t = 5.066$ ,  $p < .000^*$ ) are low but significant. This means that TL composite makes the largest contribution towards the increase of dependent variable (Composite OCB).

Table 3.5

*Multiple Regression Analysis: Coefficients of Dimensions of TL predicting OCM*

Coefficients					
Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	2.496	0.175		14.228	0.000
Inspirational Motivation	-0.089	0.091	-0.120	-0.981	0.327
Intellectual Stimulation	-0.063	0.054	-0.095	-1.178	0.240
Individual Consideration	-0.309	0.060	-0.550	-5.170	0.000*
Composite TL score	0.820	0.162	1.031	5.066	0.000*

a. Dependent Variable: Composite OCB

$R^2$ , called the coefficient of determination, is used as a measure of goodness of the fit of the linear regression (Ditsela, 2012; Grundling, 2012). The summary statistics in table 3.6 reveal that the adjusted multiple coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) of the variation in the endogenous variable (OCB) accounted for by the exogenous variables (combination of composite TL, Individualised Consideration, Intellectual Stimulation and Inspirational Motivation) is 0.2200 meaning that approximately 22 percent of the variability in OCB is accounted for by a combination of the composite TL, Individualised Consideration, Intellectual Stimulation and Inspirational Motivation (see table 3.6). As a result of this 22 percent of the variance in OCB can be accounted for by the combination of composite TL, Individualised Consideration, Intellectual Stimulation and Inspirational Motivation.

Table 3.6

Multiple Regression Analysis: Model summary

Statistics	Value
Multiple R	0.480
Multiple R Square	0.230
Adjusted R Square	0.220
Std. Error of the Estimate	0.67

The model excluded one independent variable, that is, i.e. Idealised Influence, to avoid collinearity. Collinearity occurs when one independent variable is actually a combination of other independent variables and do not contribute to a good regression model (Pallant, 2007). In the current study Idealised Influence appears to be combination of the composite TL score, Individualised Consideration, Intellectual Stimulation and Inspirational Motivation.

### 3.11. DISCUSSION

#### 3.11.1 Main objective of the study

The study intended to evaluate the relationship between TL and OCB with the following hypothesis:

- H1: There is a significant relationship between TL and organisational citizen behaviour.
- H2: There is no significant relationship between TL and civic virtue.
- H3: There is no significant relationship between TL and sportsmanship.
- H4: There is no significant relationship between TL and courtesy.
- H5: There is a significant relationship between TL and Altruism.
- H6: There is a significant relationship between TL and conscientiousness.

The empirical results support H1 which predicted that TL is positively related to OCB ( $r=0.412$ ). These results confirm previous findings which indicated that there is a relationship between TL and OCB (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Podsakoff et al., 1990;

Wang et al., 2005). This implies that a leader who applies the principles of TL effectively is likely to inspire subordinates to perform above and beyond their traditional formal job roles (Humphrey, 2012). In order to inspire such behaviours, leaders need to create a relationship by building trust and motivating their subordinates. The findings further suggest that, in order to ensure organisational effectiveness and efficiency, organisations need employees' cooperation, benevolence, self-sacrifice, and at times, extra effort (Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009). In the context of military organisations, leaders can influence organisational effectiveness by creating an environment for subordinates to perform beyond the call of duty.

H2 was not supported by the results ( $r=0.180$ ) which indicate that there is no significant statistical relationship between TL and Civic Virtues. This means a transformational leader is not likely to inspire subordinates to have a thorough knowledge of things that are happening in the organisation with particular interest in new developments, work methods, company policies and self-improvement efforts (Rurkkhum & Bartlett, 2012). This could have been possible through leadership behaviour that instils a sense of curiosity in subordinates to participate and gain important and general information regarding the organisation. For example, a leader can choose to communicate with subordinates in a way that motivates them to think independently instead of providing all possible solution to the tasks at hand. The results also do not support H3 which indicate that there is no significant relationship between TL and Sportsmanship ( $r=0.132$ ). This implies that the application of TL does not necessarily discourage subordinates from complaining, and rather contribute positive attitudes (Chen, Yu, Hsu, Lin & Lou, 2013; Organ, 1990). In military organisations, subordinates are often subjected to unusual patterns of job demands. These include the risk of injuries or death, geographic mobility, long separations and normative constraints which may cause negative feelings and complains (Britt & Dawson, 2005). Based on the results, a transformational leader may be unable to limit complains and build resilience towards unpleasant job conditions.

The results does not support H4 (0.207), indicating that there is not a statistical significant relationship between TL and Courtesy. This implies that transformational leaders could find it difficult to encourage subordinates to help one another in order

to prevent a problem from occurring, or taking steps in advance to mitigate the problem (Yoon, 2009). It also means that employees should treat others with respect at all times includes behaviour such as “Courteous behaviour displayed by employees should prevent work-related, interpersonal problems (Podsakoff et al., 1996). According to the results ( $r=0.207$ ) such behaviours are not significantly influenced by a transformational leader.

The results support H5 ( $r=0.499$ ), which shows that there is a statistical significant relationship between TL and Altruism. This implies that transformational leaders a military unit can motivate their subordinate to foresee the need to assist others in order to solve problems, such as keeping others informed about decisions and actions that may affect those (Schnake & Dumler, 2003). Soldiers depend on each other to successfully carry out operations during war and peace time. They commonly function in small units under subordinate commanders and deals with their work demands accordingly. Therefore, they need leaders who encourage them and to help them to prevent a problem from occurring. In terms of H5 (0.499), transformational leaders can influence subordinates to suggest new ideas for handling work, be punctual, making positive statements about the unit, and offer to assist anyone who may need help.

Organisations, particularly the military organisation, still seek exclusive and undivided loyalty from its members (Drummet, Coleman & Cable, 2003; Greenhaus & Callanan, 1994). The results support H6 ( $r=0.315$ ), which indicate that there is a statistically significant relationship between TL and conscientiousness. This implies that leaders who apply the ideals of transformational leaders in a military unit will create a sense of sincere devotion toward the organisation in their subordinates. They teach subordinates to have respect for the rules of the organisation beyond the organisation's requirements. This is made possible by the manner in which leaders prescribe and adhere to the unwritten rules and interacts with his/her subordinates. In the military the organisational culture makes it easier to influence such behaviour as it denotes collective agreed-upon behaviours, attitudes and beliefs that provide employees shared meaning of the work (Hammer, Saksvik, Nytro, Torvatn & Bayazit, 2004). In summary, the results of the study indicate that there is a statistically significant relationship between certain dimensions of TL and certain dimensions

OCB. The results also indicate that TL is a significant predictor of OCB in a military unit in the SA Army. This is important for military leaders, as it indicates that where TL is practiced, it can influence the OCB of subordinates. Furthermore, in addition, the study provides practical information related to perceptions of leadership characteristics that can be used by organisations that would like to design leadership training courses for their leaders, as well as for organisations intending to improve and increase employees' OCB. Finally, the study adds to the growing body of evidence that transformational leaders have direct and indirect effects on employees' perceptions and attitudes, as well as on behaviours that have been linked to individual, group, and organisational effectiveness (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Pain & Bachrach, 2000).

Table 3.7 below indicates that due to the results of the empirical study, three of the six research hypothesis was accepted while three were rejected.

*Table 3.7*

*Summary: Acceptance and non-acceptance of hypotheses*

<b>Statistics</b>	<b>Accepted or not accepted</b>
Hypothesis 1	Accepted
Hypothesis 2	Rejected
Hypothesis 3	Rejected
Hypothesis 4	Rejected
Hypothesis 5	Accepted
Hypothesis 6	Accepted

### **3.12 Conclusions and recommendations**

The general aim of the study was to investigate the relationship between TL (TL) and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) in a military unit in the South African Army. To achieve this aim, a two-phased research design was followed consisting of a literature review phase, and an empirical study phase. This research design enabled the researcher to investigate the concepts of TL and OCB and to empirically establish that there was a moderate but significant statistical relationship between TL and OCB. The conclusion can thus be made that the general aim of the research

was achieved. Based on the correlations obtained in the study (see table 3.4), the following conclusions were made regarding the six hypothesis:

- There is a significant relationship between TL and organisational citizen behaviour. This hypothesis was accepted ( $r=0.412$  at the 0.01 level of significance). The results support the hypothesis in that, there is a significant relationship between TL leadership and OCB.
- There is no significant relationship between TL and civic virtue. This hypothesis was rejected ( $r=0.180$  at the 0.01 level of significance).
- There is no significant relationship between TL and sportsmanship. This hypothesis was rejected ( $r=0.132$  at the 0.05 level of significance).
- There is no significant relationship between TL and courtesy. This hypothesis was rejected ( $r=0.207$  at the 0.01 level of significance).
- There is a significant relationship between TL and Altruism. This hypothesis was accepted ( $r=0.499$  at the 0.01 level of significance).
- There is a significant relationship between TL and conscientiousness. This hypothesis was accepted ( $r=0.315$  at the 0.01 level of significance).

Based on the findings of the empirical phase of this study, three research hypotheses were accepted and three were rejected, as results indicated a statistical significant relationship between TL and OCB, as well as between TL and two of the five sub-dimensions of OCB. Thus the relationship between TL and OCB is seen to moderate.

TL remains important and relevant for the effective and efficient functioning of military units in the SA Army. Although not all hypotheses were accepted, the results show the overall value of TL in the work place in work place. Based on the results of the study, there is reason to believe that a leader who is familiar with and applies TL theories may have a continuous impact on individual members to demonstrate OCBs and to the success of their organisations. These results provide a sound basis for organisations to invest in TL training in an effort of ensuring future success.

### **3.13. Limitations**

Although the study may contribute important findings to the literature, several limitations exist. The study relied on a qualitative research method which may not allow for a complete understanding on leadership and organisational citizenship behaviours. It is important to supplement a quantitative research method with the qualitative research through structured and semi-structured interviews. Secondly, using convenient sampling technique may decrease one's certainty that the sample is representative of the population. This technique additionally limits the generalizability of the findings, as the sample does not reflect the entire population.

The sample was drawn from one military unit, and was thus not representative of the South African Army as a whole in terms of functional groupings and mustering. As such, the results of this study cannot be generalised to the entire South African Army (SA Army) or the South African National Defence Force (SANDF) population.

As the MLQ which was used to measure TL and the OCBS which was used to measure OCB were both English questionnaires, which is not the home language of the participants, some of the items might have been misunderstood and answered incorrectly.

Both the MLQ and the OCBS are very lengthy questionnaires, which could have resulted in the participant experiencing some form of fatigue, mental strain or random responses when completing them.

The MLQ ratings are prone to the halo effect. This may occur when a leader does something good (e.g. communicate very well) and subordinates rate him/her high on all aspects of leadership due to communication abilities.

The study used a quantitative approach. Given this approach, probing participants for further information was not possible, which excluded obtaining more richer or in-depth information from the participants.

Given the exploratory nature of the research design, this study established a relationship between TL and OCB, but did not establish causation between the two variables.

The low reliability rating of both civic virtues and conscientiousness will have an impact on the results of the study. They both yielded below average reliability coefficients of 0.30 and 0.32, respectively.

### **3.14. Suggestions for future research**

This study did not include the differences in responses of male and females regarding TL in the SA Army. There is a possibility that different genders may experience TL in different ways because of the perceptions in the organisation. This can be investigated in future to establish whether there is a difference between males and females' responses towards TL. Furthermore, the study did not focus on the perceptions of rank carrying members and non-rank carrying members of the organisation. It is recommended that future studies focus on the above aspects to provide a better understanding of the constructs under investigation. Future studies could additionally consider employing multiple sources of data collection as the current study (Podsakoff et al., 1990).

The participating organisation (military unit) should take note that TL contributes to the members' OCB, which adds value to the effective and efficient functioning of the military unit. The military unit should thus continue to apply the principles of TL and ensure the leaders are exposed to the relevant TL training in order to function optimally in their roles.

Although the current study yielded positive result in terms the relationship between TL and OCB in a military environment in South Africa, there is a need for additional research on the topic in other environments. It is therefore recommended that the field of I/O Psychologist considers conducting additional research regarding the relationship between TL and OCB in various Private and Public Sector organisations in South Africa.

## **CHAPTER 4: CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

In this chapter, the conclusions, limitations and recommendations of the study are discussed. The chapter starts with conclusions regarding the specific literature aims, the specific empirical aims, the general aim as well as the research hypotheses of the study. Thereafter the limitations of the literature review and empirical study are discussed, and the chapter is concluded with recommendations for future research, for the participating military unit as well as for the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology.

### **4.2 CONCLUSIONS REGARDING THE AIMS OF THE STUDY**

#### **4.2.1 Conclusions regarding the specific theoretical aims of the study**

The study had three specific theoretical aims:

- Review the literature on TL (TL);
- Review the literature on organisational citizen behaviour (OCB);
- Review the literature on the relationship between TL and OCB.

##### **4.2.1.1 *The 1<sup>st</sup> specific theoretical aim: Review the literature on TL (TL)***

This aim was achieved in chapter 2 of this study. From the literature review, the following conclusions can be made:

- TL is a contemporary approach to leadership which has been widely researched in the literature, including its four behaviours of idealised influence, inspiration motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. (Bass & Avolio, 1997).

- TL is positively related to subordinate outcomes such as intrinsic motivation (Riggio, 2009).
- TL is related to organisational performance and leader effectiveness (Daft, 1999).
- The important components of TL have been shown to be vision, trust, role of culture, gender, values and followers (Whittington, Goodwin & Murray, 2004).
- There is a positive relationship between these components and TL. For example trust was identified to have a positive relationship with TL (Whittington et al., 2004).
- TL has influence on followers' OCB only indirectly, in that it is mediated by the followers' level of trust in their leader (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter 1990).

#### **4.2.1.2 The 2<sup>nd</sup> specific theoretical aim: Review the literature on organisational citizen behaviour (OCB)**

This aim was also achieved in chapter 2 of this study, and the following conclusions were drawn from the literature review:

- Social exchange theory is clearly related to OCB (Will, 2012).
- OCB consists of five different types of positive employee behaviours, namely Altruism, civic virtues, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness (Tsai & Wu, 2010).
- OCB is associated with organisational effectiveness though the attainment of formal goals (Gurbuz, 2009).

- OCB has been found to have a negative relationship with concepts such as negative work experience (Lambert, Hogan & Griffin, 2008).
- OCB is separated into two categories by various researchers, namely organisational citizenship behaviour of individuals (OCBI) and organisational citizenship behaviour of organisations (OCBO) (Moorman, Hiehoff & Organ, 1993).
- The antecedents of OCB have been shown to be procedural justice, leadership characteristics, psychological empowerment and organisational culture (Pal & Dasgupta, 2012).
- There are similarities between impression management (attempt to influence) and OCBO (Rioux & Penner, 2001).
- That procedural justice, leadership characteristics, psychological empowerment and organisational culture are antecedents of OCB (Pal & Dasgupta, 2012).
- That job satisfaction, organisational justice, organisational fairness and organisational commitment are positively related to OCB. This relationship was specifically shown in a study conducted in a military unit (Gurbuz, 2009).

#### **4.2.1.3 *The 3<sup>rd</sup> specific theoretical aim: Review the literature on the relationship between TL and OCB***

This aim was also achieved in chapter 2 of this study and the following were concluded from the literature review:

- That TL has a positive relationship with OCBs regardless of one's organisational identification (Humphrey, 2012; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Rousseau, 1998).

- That OCBs are positively influenced by TL (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Wang et al., 2005).
- That TL is a significant predictor of employees' reported OCB (Humphrey, 2012).
- That although studies in the USA military have investigated the relationship between TL and OCB, no such studies have been conducted in a South African military environment.

#### **4.2.2 Conclusions regarding the specific empirical aims of the study**

Empirically, the study served to achieve the following specific empirical aims:

- Measure TL in a military unit in the South African Army using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass & Avolio, 1997).
- Measure OCB in a military unit in the South African Army using the organisational citizen behaviour scale (OCBS) (Turnipseed & Murkison, 1996, Gurbuz, 2009).
- Determine whether there is a significant relationship between TL and OCB in a military unit in the South African Army.
- Determine whether TL can predict OCB in a military unit in the South African Army.

##### **4.2.2.1 *The 1<sup>st</sup> specific empirical aim: To measure TL in a military unit in the South African Army using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)***

- The 1<sup>st</sup> specific empirical aim was achieved by using the MLQ to measure the TL of a sample of 300 followers in a military unit in the South African Army. Analysis of the results showed that the MLQ yielded

an internal reliability coefficient of 0.91 for a composite TL score, and reliability coefficients of 0.81 for Idealised Influence, 0.70 for Inspirational Motivation, 0.47 for Intellectual Stimulation and 0.67 for Individualise Consideration.

- It is thus concluded that in this study TL was reliably measured in the sample by means of the MLQ (Kline, 2011).

#### **4.2.2.2 The 2<sup>nd</sup> specific empirical aim: To measure OCB in a military unit in the South African Army using the Organisational Citizen Behaviour Scale (OCBS)**

- The 2<sup>nd</sup> specific empirical aim was achieved by using the OCBS to measure the OCB of a sample of 300 followers in a military unit in the South African Army. Analysis of the results show that the OCBS yielded an internal reliability coefficient of 0.79 for a composite OCB score, and reliability coefficients of 0.77 for Altruism, 0.30 for Civic Virtues, 0.53 for Courtesy, 0.66 for Sportsmanship and 0.32 for Conscientiousness.
- It is thus concluded that in this study OCB was reliably measured in the sample by means of the OCBS (Kline, 2005).

#### **4.2.2.3 The 3<sup>rd</sup> specific empirical aim: To determine whether there is a relationship between TL and OCB in a military unit in the South African Army**

- The results of this study indicated a significant statistical relationship of 0.412 between a composite TL score and a composite OCB score (Kline, 2005). It is therefore concluded that there is a significant statistical relationship between the TL behaviours of leaders and OCB of subordinates in a military unit in the South African Army. The relationship between TL and OCB is seen to be moderate.

- The results of this study are supported by studies by, Dust, Resick & Mawritz, (2013), Humphrey (2012), and Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer, (1996) who all found a significant statistical relationship between TL and OCB.

**4.2.2.4 *The 4th specific empirical aim: To determine whether TL can predict OCB in a military unit in the South African Army.***

- A multiple regression analysis was conducted to establish whether TL can predict the OCB of followers in a military unit in the South African Army. A beta value of 1.031 confirmed what was found in previous research, namely that TL can in fact predict OCB (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Wang et al., 2005).
- The current results can be used by organisations to improve organisational practices concerning leadership training. Organisations can train their leaders on TL knowing that if they apply these TL behaviours, it will increase the OCB of their followers. This is possible particularly as several studies have shown that TL skills can be developed (Barling, Weber & Kelloway, 1996).
- Furthermore, the results confirm the need for organisations to continuously analyse and evaluate their chosen leadership model for effective functioning of the organisation.

Good leadership in the military is essential as the organisation is dependent on it. Therefore, the study is adding value in terms of understanding the relationship between leadership and followers. These findings should encourage military leaders to engage in TL behaviours in order to boost the followers' OCB.

### **4.2.3 Conclusions regarding the general aim of the study**

The general aim of the study was to investigate the relationship between TL (TL) and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) in a military unit in the South African Army. To achieve this aim, a two-phased research design was followed consisting of a literature review phase, and an empirical study phase. This research design enabled the researcher to investigate the concepts of TL and OCB and to empirically establish that there was a significant statistical relationship between TL and OCB. The conclusion can thus be made that the general aim of the research was achieved.

### **4.2.4 Conclusions regarding the research hypothesis**

Based on the correlations obtained in the study (see table 3.4), the following conclusions were made regarding the six hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant relationship between TL and organisational citizen behaviour. This hypothesis was accepted ( $r=0.412$  at the 0.01 level of significance). The results support the hypothesis in that, there is a significant relationship between TL leadership and OCB.

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant relationship between TL and civic virtue. This hypothesis was rejected ( $r=0.180$  at the 0.01 level of significance).

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant relationship between TL and sportsmanship. This hypothesis was rejected ( $r=0.132$  at the 0.05 level of significance).

Hypothesis 4: There is a significant relationship between TL and courtesy. This hypothesis was rejected ( $r=0.207$  at the 0.01 level of significance).

Hypothesis 5: There is a significant relationship between TL and Altruism. This hypothesis was accepted ( $r=0.499$  at the 0.01 level of significance).

Hypothesis 6: There is a significant relationship between TL and conscientiousness.

This hypothesis was accepted ( $r=0.315$  at the 0.01 level of significance).

Based on the findings of the empirical phase of this study, three research hypotheses were accepted and three were rejected, as results indicated a statistical significant relationship between TL and OCB, as well as between TL and two of the five sub-dimensions of OCB. Thus the relationship between TL and OCB is seen to moderate.

### **4.3 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

#### **4.3.1 Limitations of the literature review**

The lack of research on the relationship between TL and OCB in military organisations, especially in South Africa, was a limitation, as it made it difficult to make reference to similar military studies.

#### **4.3.2. Limitations of the empirical study**

The following limitations of the study were identified in the empirical study:

- The sample was a convenient sample, meaning that the researcher did not have much control in terms of who participated in the study.
- The sample was drawn from one military unit, and was thus not representative of the South African Army as a whole in terms of functional groupings and mustering. As such, the results of this study cannot be generalised to the entire South African Army (SA Army) or the South African National Defence Force (SANDF) population.
- As the MLQ which was used to measure TL and the OCBS which was used to measure OCB were both English questionnaires, which is not the home language of the participants, some of the items might have been misunderstood and answered incorrectly.

- Both the MLQ and the OCBS are very lengthy questionnaires, which could have resulted in the participant experiencing some form of fatigue, mental strain or random responses when completing them.
- The MLQ ratings are prone to the halo effect. This may occur when a leader does something good (e.g. communicate very well) and subordinates rate him/her high on all aspects of leadership due to communication abilities.
- The study used a quantitative approach. Given this approach, probing participants for further information was not possible, which excluded obtaining more richer or in-depth information from the participants.
- Given the exploratory nature of the research design, this study established a relationship between TL and OCB, but did not establish causation between the two variables.
- The low reliability rating of both civic virtues and conscientiousness could have an impact on the results of the study. They both yielded below average reliability coefficients of 0.30 and 0.32, respectively.
- The low internal consistency coefficients obtained for two dimensions of the OCBS could have also influenced the insignificant statistical relationships obtained between certain dimensions of the MLQ and the OCBS.

#### **4.4 RECOMMENDATIONS**

##### **4.4.1 Recommendations for further research**

- Based on the results, it is recommended that TL and OCB be studied further. A more representative sample of the SA Army and the SANDF is required in order to identify predictor validity within the SA Army and the overall SANDF, therefore the results of this study cannot be generalised in the SANDF. As a result further research is recommended.
- It is also important to supplement a quantitative research method with the

qualitative research through structured and semi-structured interviews to establish a better understanding of both TL and OCB.

#### **4.4.2 Recommendations for the participating organisation**

The participating organisation (military unit) should take note that TL contributes to the members' OCB, which adds value to the effective and efficient functioning of the military unit. The military unit should thus continue to apply the principles of TL and ensure the leaders are exposed to the relevant TL training in order to function optimally in their roles.

#### **4.4.3 Recommendations for the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology (IOP)**

Although the current study yielded positive result in terms the relationship between TL and OCB in a military environment in South Africa, there is a need for additional research on the topic in other environments. It is therefore recommended that the field of I/O Psychologist considers conducting additional research regarding the relationship between TL and OCB in various Private and Public Sector organisations in South Africa.

### **4.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

In this chapter, the conclusions, limitations and recommendations of the study were discussed. The chapter started with conclusions regarding the specific literature aims, the specific empirical aims, the general aim as well as the research hypotheses of the study. The limitations of the literature review and empirical study were discussed, and the chapter concluded with recommendations for future research, for the participating organisation as well as for the field of industrial and organisational psychology.

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