

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP AND
ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

by

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DECLARATION

I, **VERONICA CATHERINE HLONGWANE**, declare that “**the relationship between authentic leadership and organisational commitment**” is my own work, which is submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree of Masters of Commerce in the subject, Industrial and Organisational Psychology. All sources that were used were acknowledged as references.

I further declare that ethical clearance to conduct the research has been obtained from the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, University of South Africa (UNISA). I also declare that the study was carried out in strict accordance with UNISA’s Policy on Research Ethics and that I conducted the research with the highest integrity during all phases of the research process, taking into account UNISA ’s Policy on Copyright Infringement and Plagiarism.

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SUMMARY

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

By

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Degree: M.Com (Industrial and Organisational Psychology)

The aim of this quantitative study was to determine the relationship between authentic leadership (AL) and organisational commitment (OC) in a State hospital in South Africa. In this study AL was measured by means of the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) while OC was measured by the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). The self-report paper-and-pencil questionnaires were administered to a convenience sample of 222 participants in a State hospital in South Africa. The ALQ produced a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.815, while the OCQ produced a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.891, both of which were considered adequate for the purpose of the current study.

Results indicated that there is a statistically significant positive relationship between Overall AL and Overall OC ($r = 0.19, p \leq 0.05$). Results also indicated a statistical significant positive correlation between Overall AL and the three OC dimensions, namely Affective Commitment ($r = 0.12, p \leq .05$), Continuance Commitment ($r = 0.13, p \leq .05$) and Normative Commitment ($r = 0.20; p \leq .05$). All the correlation coefficients obtained, although statistically significant at the 0.05 level, were of small practical effect, ranging from a low of 0.12 to a high of 0.20. These small correlations indicate that the relationships between the variables were weak, despite being statistically significant.

The results of the regression analysis conducted indicated that AL accounted for a statistically significant amount of variance of Overall OC (adjusted $r^2 = 0.03$, $F(1.218) = 8.38$, $p \leq 0.05$), and of one of its three dimensions, namely Normative Commitment (adjusted $r^2 = 0.04$, $F(1.218) = 9.52$, $p \leq 0.05$). However, AL was unable to significantly predict the two dimensions of Continuance Commitment and Affective Commitment. Although two of the regression scores obtained in this study were statistically significant, the amount of variance they explained was extremely small, ranging from a low of 3% to a high of 4%. These results indicate that AL can predict the Overall OC and the Normative Commitment of a sample of participants in a State Hospital in South Africa.

Limitations of the empirical study were the small sample size that was used in this study ($n = 222$), and the fact that the study was conducted in a single State Hospital, making the generalisation of results to other State or Private Hospitals in South Africa problematic. It was also recommended that due to the importance of AL as a contemporary approach to leadership, it should be studied further to determine its relationship with other organisational variables besides OC.

KEY TERMS: Leadership, Authentic Leadership, Organisational Commitment, State Hospital.

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CHAPTER 1: SCIENTIFIC ORIENTATION TO THE RESEARCH

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the background, motivation and problem statement for this study. It also outlines the research aims, paradigm perspective, research design, approach and method. The chapter concludes with the chapter layout of the dissertation.

1.2 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION

According to Twigg and McCullough (2014), the shortage of highly skilled workers is a major concern in today's organisations. Employees' retention is considered as a planned opportunity for many organisations to sustain a competitive workforce. Retention is enhanced when employees are offered competitive remuneration and benefits; as well as a supportive work culture that can develop and balance work and life events (Messer, 2006). Leadership and supervisory support within the work environment was also found to influence employee intention to stay and commit themselves to their organisations (Dale & Fox, 2008). The question is: what type of leadership influences employees' commitment and retention? The literature on the types of leaderships is vast and comprehensive. Hence the focus of this study is to explore the role of authentic leadership on employees' commitment.

AL refers to the leader's behaviour that attracts and encourages psychological competencies and a positive ethical environment that sustains self-awareness, an internalised moral perspective, and balanced processing of information (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing & Peterson, 2008). The extended openness of how leaders interact with the employees encourages positive self-development (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

OC, in turn, is being perceived as an attachment between employees and their organisations (Jacobs & Roodt, 2007). Organisational leaders battle to locate talented workers and are confronted with the dilemma of retaining

knowledgeable workers to substitute the 70 million Baby Boomers who will be retiring from the workforce (Frank, Finnegan & Taylor, 2004).

Although several studies have been conducted on the AL and OC separately or in relation to other variables (Jacob and Roodt 2007), there is a need for further research to explore the relationship that exists between these variables. Hence the main focus of this study is to determine the nature of the relationship between AL and OC. Knowledge and insight of the relationship can enable organisations to improve leadership development interventions and propositions for staff retention purposes.

Employee commitment relates to engagement and disengagement within the organisation. Kahn (as cited in Wahyu, 2013) stated that there are three psychological conditions associated with engagement or disengagement at work, namely: meaningfulness, safety, and availability. Employees are engaged at work in situations that offer them more psychological meaningfulness and psychological safety; consequently they become psychologically committed to the organisation. It is evident in the literature that committed employees have a positive attitude towards the organisation and its value (Field & Buitendach, 2011). Hence employees who perceive their leaders as being transparent, disciplined, open and self-directed are likely to be psychologically and emotionally connected to their organisations (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

1.2.1 Leadership

1.2.1.1 Authenticity

The history on authenticity can be traced from Greek philosophy and the Greek saying “Know Thyself”; which was endorsed in the Temple of Apollo at Delphi (Parke & Wormell, 1956). Trilling (1972) argued that the origins of the word authentic can be tracked down to the Greek word “*authento*”. This word means one has full power. Kernis and Goldman (2006, p.284) expanded on

the idea of authentic functioning as an individual's ability to master of his domain, by stating that:

Contemporary psychological views of authenticity owe a great deal of debts to the works of philosophy where authenticity is loosely set within topics such as metaphysics or ontology firmly entrenched in particular movements, such as existentialism or phenomenology, and localized to specific authors like Sartre or Heidegger.

Based on their review of the historical literature, Kernis and Goldman (2006) concluded that there are a variety of mental and behavioural procedures that clarify how individuals realise and create a common sense, exhibited in the following four vital ideas:

- Authentic functioning of individuals;
- Self-understanding;
- Openness to objectively recognising ones' ontological realities (e.g. evaluating their desirable and understanding self-aspects) and actions; and
- Orientation towards interpersonal relationships.

According to Kernis and Goldman (2006), these ideas are dependent on the conceptualisation of authenticity as embracing four key elements:

- Awareness (e.g. understanding and believing in ones' opinions, aims, and views);
- Unbiased processing (i.e. awareness of one's positive and negative dimensions);
- Behaviour/action (i.e. performing according to ones' values and needs, unlike performing as if pleasing others or avoiding punishment), and
- Rational orientation (i.e. accomplishing and appreciating honesty and faithfulness of ones' closed relationship).

The section below focuses on the description of the concept authentic leadership based on these key elements.

1.2.1.2 Authentic leadership

According to Clapp-Smith, Vogelgesang and Ave (2009), scholars started concentrating on AL in the last decade. The construct AL is defined as a leader's behaviour that attracts and encourages psychological competencies and a positive ethical environment that sustains self-awareness, an internalised moral perspective, and balanced processing of information (Walumbwa et al., 2008). Yukl (2010) argues that authentic leaders are leaders that have high self-awareness about their values, beliefs, emotions, self-identities, and abilities. This implies that authentic leaders have a sense of identity and believe system.

George, Sims, McLean and Mayer (2007) describe authentic leaders as honest individuals who are truthful and believe in themselves. Employees tend to trust authentic leaders because of their ability to connect to others and to motivate others to reach high levels of performance. In fulfilment of their leadership role, authentic leaders focus on serving others. According to Fields (2007), leaders' authenticity must be associated with their integrity which is defined as demonstrating personal morals of decency that are treasured by employees.

Gardner, Alvolio, Luthans, May and Walumbwa (2005) attempted to integrate these numerous viewpoints and definitions of AL and recommended a self-based model and follower development. The model emphasises the core of self-awareness and self-regulation as key elements of AL (Gardner et al., 2005). Gardner, Coglisser, Davis and Dickens, (2011, p. 1139) state that:

“Authentic leadership relational results seem to be positively related to personal identification, positive leader modelling, follower job satisfaction, trust in leadership, organisational

commitment, follower work engagement, follower work happiness, and follower job performance among others, the available findings from

OC has been described as an attachment between employees and their companies (Jacobs & Roodt, 2007). According to Shanawaz and Jafri (2009), OC is defined as the way in which employees are connected to their organisation. OC is an outcome of whether an employee discovers meaning in his work (Bakke & Schaufeli, 2006; Van der Heuvel, Demorouti, Schreurs, 2006). Mowday et al. (1979, 1982) highlight the following three factors as central to employees' OC namely:

- Having trust in, and agreement of the organisation's goals and values;
- Being eager in exerting reasonable energy on behalf of the organisation; and
- Having a strong determination to remain with one's the organisation.

OC includes an employee's identification and participation within an organisation (Mowday et al., 1979). A study conducted within the context of a hospital by Jacobs and Roodt (2007) found that employees who are committed in their jobs are less likely to leave their organisation due to their interest and longing to satisfy their patients' needs. This study confirms that employees become loyal to their organisation before developing attitudes such as job satisfaction (Neininger, Lehmann-Willenbrock, Kauffeld & Henschel, 2010). Hence OC has also been a widespread research topic of retention rather than job satisfaction.

Recent research on OC has shown that Affective Commitment as psychological attachment of employees still remains vital for business leaders if they intent to attract, motivate and retain key talent (Morrow, 2011). For an organisation to accomplish its mission and vision, it has to dependent on its employees' commitment to their organisation and their job. This implies that an organisation with highly committed employees tends to increase its

employee retention rate, decrease operating costs, and advocate excellent performance (Liou, 2008).

Meyer and Allen (1997) developed a Three Component Model (TCM) which describes OC in terms of three dimensions, namely Affective, Normative and Continuance Commitment. Meyer, Srinivas, Lal and Topolnytsky (2007) argue that employees with a strong affective commitment (high ACS) stay within their organisation because they want to, those with strong Normative Commitment (high NCS) stay because they feel they ought to, and those with strong Continuance Commitment (high CCS) stay because they have to do so.

Commitment also has an effect on employee performance. Literature indicates that employees who want to remain in their jobs (high ACS) have a tendency to achieve at higher levels of performance than those who do not want to stay in their organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Employees who want to remain in their jobs (high NCS), also have a tendency to accomplish more than those who feel uncommitted (low NCS).

1.2.3 The relationship between authentic leadership and organisational commitment

There is comprehensive research conducted separately on both the construct AL and OC in various context based on the literature. However, there seems to be a paucity of research studies conducted on the relationship between AL and OC, especially within the South African context. In terms of international literature, a study by Walumbwa, Wang, Schaubroeck & Avolio (2010) showed that AL may strongly influence the opinion and behaviour as well as the engagement and commitment of employees. George et al. (2007) found that authentic leaders relate very well to their employees, hence employees tend to be more engaged. This also contributes to the sustainability of an organisation. In this respect OC has been defined generally as “a *psychological link between the employee and the organization that makes it*

less likely that the employee will voluntarily leave the organization” (Allen & Meyer, 1996, p. 252).

Work experiences and supervisory situations have a profound effect on the nature of the employees’ psychological connections that are designed in organisations (Dale & Fox, 2008). AL is characterised by leaders who encourages high-quality relationships that are grounded on the values of social - rather than economic - exchange (Walumbwa et al., 2008). Followers of authentic leaders are anticipated to exert energy into their work to interchange the highly cherished relationship with their leaders. The constructive relationship between employees and their leaders have been positively associated with organisational citizenship behaviour (Walumbwa et al., 2010).

Field and Buitendach (2011) propose that individuals who are engaged in their work tend to have a positive level of OC. This proves that there is a connection between work engagement and OC in the work environment. Walumbwa et al. (2008) also emphasise that with the presence of employee engagement, OC is likely to be high. In their study, Field and Buitendach (2011) demonstrated that work engagement ensured a 40% difference in the OC of employees. Another study conducted by Geldenhuys, et al. (2014) investigated the relationship between work engagement and OC and this study found that there is a positive relationship between the two constructs. Literature indicates that employees who are exposed to meaningful work display an increased level of commitment towards their work (Field & Buitendach 2011; Geldenhuys, et al., 2014).

A study by Van Dyk and Coetzee (2012) investigated the relationship between employee satisfaction with organisational retention factors and OC. Findings indicated that employee satisfaction and retention factors have a significant relationship with OC. These results are significant to leaders who are looking for ways to retain staff with scarce skills. According to Macey and Schneider (2008), other studies emphasised job satisfaction as part of commitment.

However, job satisfaction means that an employee is content with the employment arrangement or basically loyal to and trusts the employer (Macey & Schneider, 2008).

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Medical professionals with specialised skills in the health care environment in South Africa are extremely difficult to replace when they resign from their organisations and look for greener pastures abroad (Van Dyk, 2011). Their turnover is a threat to this field because it leaves South Africa with a skills shortage of medical professionals. Hence the challenge is that leaders in health care environments must be able to recognise employees with specialised skills and be able to retain them. A limitation in the literature on the constructs AL and OC is that there is lack of studies that investigate the relationship between these two constructs in a South African health care environment. This study will thus investigate whether there is indeed a relationship between AL and OC in such an environment. It is envisaged that the results of this study could provide an answer as to whether the application of AL in a health care environment leads to OC which is critical for the retention of employees with scarce skills in the health care environment.

From the background to this study, the following research questions and hypotheses are formulated:

The ***general research question*** is as follows:

- Is there a relationship between AL and OC?

Literature review questions are the following:

- How are the construct AL and its dimensions conceptualised in the literature?

- How are the construct OC and its dimensions conceptualised in the literature?
- What is the nature of the theoretical relationship between AL and OC?

In terms of the empirical research, the following are the questions for this study:

- Is there a statistical significant relationship between AL and OC?
- Is there a statistical significant relationship between the dimensions of AL and the dimensions of OC?
- What recommendations can be made for the practice of industrial and organisational psychology (IOP) regarding the relationship between AL and OC in a health care environment?

The following **research hypotheses** were formulated for this study:

- H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between AL and OC.
- H1: There is a statistically significant relationship between AL and Overall OC.
- H2: There is a statistically significant relationship between AL and the OC dimension of Affective Commitment.
- H3: There is a statistically significant relationship between AL and the OC dimension of Continuance Commitment.
- H4: There is a statistically significant relationship between AL and the OC dimension of Normative Commitment.

1.4 AIMS

1.4.1 General aims

The general aim of the research is to determine the relationship between AL and OC in a State Hospital.

1.4.2 Specific literature aims

The specific literature aims are:

1. To conceptualise the construct AL and its dimensions.
2. To conceptualise the construct OC and its dimensions.
3. To determine the theoretical relationship between AL and OC.

1.4.3 Specific empirical aims

The specific empirical aims are:

1. To measure AL and its dimension by means of the AL Questionnaire (ALQ) in a State Hospital in South Africa.
2. To measure OC and its dimension by means of the OC Questionnaire (OCQ) in a State Hospital in South Africa.
3. To determine the relationship between AL and its dimensions and OC and its dimensions in a State Hospital in South Africa.
4. To determine whether AL can predict OC and its dimensions in a State Hospital in South Africa.
5. To make recommendations for the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology regarding the relationship between AL and OC.

1.5 THE PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE

The term paradigm has a theoretical influence on the philosophy and methodology of social sciences (Mouton & Marais, 1996). A paradigm is defined by Terre Blanche, Durrheim and Painter (2006) as a structure linking the ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions. It substitutes the view point that stipulates justification for the research process. This implies that a paradigm obligates the researcher to utilise specific methods for data collection, observation and analysis of findings and conclusions of the study (Mouton & Marais, 1996).

1.5.1 The meta-theoretical paradigm

AL and OC as constructs for this study are explored in the literature review based on the positive and humanistic paradigms. The positive psychology paradigm is used to explain the construct AL while and the construct OC is described based on the humanistic-existential paradigm.

1.5.1.1 *Positive psychology*

The objective of positive psychology theory is to highlight human beings' strengths and optimal functioning rather than their weaknesses and malfunctioning. Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) present the following three types of desirable lives as the assumptions of the positive psychology:

- (a) The first one is the 'pleasant life' which refers to any positive emotions that arise from happiness and wellbeing. This aspect of life is divided into three main categories of emotions which are the past, present and future. This assumption is based on the belief that in order to feel happier about our past, we must abandon any fears from previous bad experiences that can determine our present and future. This implies that to feel content in the present, one must distinguish between 'pleasures' and 'gratifications.'
- (b) The second assumption is the "good life" which refers to 'gratifications. Gratifications are activities individuals deeply enjoy, but unlike 'pleasures,' they are not necessarily accompanied by any raw feelings. This suggests that gratification can be achieved through identifying and developing one's most fundamental strengths and virtues such as creativity and compassion.
- (c) Lastly, it is the assumption 'meaningful life' which is defined as the use of our strengths and virtues in the service of something much larger

than you are. In this view, these strengths and virtues are intrinsic to human nature.

According to Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000), positive psychology focuses on positive human experiences and healthy outcomes, which then plays an essential part in understanding human functioning in the social world. Deci and Vansteenkiste (2004) argue that positive psychology as a theoretical movement has not stipulated in detail a meta-theoretical basis for true positive psychology. Hence a full identification of optimal experience and healthy development cannot be attained without relating those methods and outcomes to non-optimal experiences and weakened functioning.

1.5.1.2 *Humanistic-existential paradigm*

The humanistic-existential paradigm can be differentiated from the meta-theoretical paradigm of positive psychology. This paradigm is about understanding an individual's life experiences and what the world means to him (Ivey, Andrea, Ivey & Simek-Morgan, 2006). The humanistic paradigm is used to conceptualise the process of leadership. (Meyer, Moore and Viljoen (1997) present the following assumptions to describe the humanistic paradigm:

- An individual is a dignified human being with qualities that distinguish him or her from lifeless objects and animals.
- An individual is an integrated, unique and organised whole.
- An individual displays conscious processes.
- The person is a being who participates actively in determining his or her own behaviour and creative ability, and who does not simply react to external environmental stimuli or submit to inherent drivers over which he or she has no control.
- The individual as an experiencing person is in the process of becoming.
- An individual is self-relative and transcending.

- The psychologically healthy person should be the creation in examining human functions.

The humanist paradigm stresses how reality is socially constructed and sustained. This perspective is based on the view that the creation of reality is stimulated by the psychic and social processes (Morgan, 1979). These processes regulate the minds of human beings in situations that isolate them from the capabilities inherent in their true nature as beings. This paradigm focuses on ascertaining how human beings can combine their thoughts and actions as a means of surpassing their alienation (Morgan, 1979). Humanistic psychology reaffirmed transcendental values and centralised motives of its philosophy to describe human behaviour.

1.5.2 The methodological paradigm

In terms of the methodology paradigm, this empirical study followed a quantitative approach to determine the relationship between the two variable (Salkind, 2012). A quantitative study is used in this research to categorise features, calculate them, and create statistical models in an attempt to clarify what has been observed (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). Hence the quantitative approach is deemed fit to conduct an objective measurement of AL and OC in order to determine the relationship between these constructs.

1.5.3 The theoretical paradigm

This empirical study was conducted within the discipline of Industrial and Organisational Psychology and within the subfields of Personnel and Organisational Psychology.

1.5.3.1 *Industrial and Organisational Psychology*

The field of industrial and organisational psychology refers to the application of psychological principles and research within the work context to enhance

human functioning (Van Vuuren, 2010). According to Van Vuuren (2010), factors that determine optimal human behaviour with the work context are socio-cultural influences, employment-related legislation, personality, gender, race and life-span development.

An industrial and organisational psychologist takes the responsibilities for issues and problems affecting employees at work by proposing interventions to address these challenges for business, industry, labour, public, the academic community, and health organisations (Van Vuuren, 2010). An expert in this field is a scientist who studies principles of individual, group and organisational behaviour through research. In his role the expert will cultivate scientific knowledge and apply it to solving problems at work, as well as act as a facilitator for the application of industrial and organisational psychology concepts (Van Vuuren, 2010).

1.5.3.2 *Organisational Psychology*

The sub-discipline of this study is organisational psychology. Spencer and Rathus (2005) define organisational psychology as the study of human behaviour in business, corporate, professional and educational organisations. According to Ivancevich, Konopaske and Matteson (2013), organisational psychology is the study of human behaviour, attitudes and performance within an organisational setting. This sub-discipline derives its theory, methods and principles from disciplines such as psychology, sociology and cultural anthropology.

According to Bergh and Theron (2009) organisational psychology focuses on work organisations as systems involving individual employee's work groups, as well as the structure and dynamics of the organisation. The significance of studying organisational psychology is that this field is performance-oriented and improves productivity in organisations (Ivancevich et al., 2013). It focuses on organisational theory and models, leadership and decision-making, organisational development, organisational culture, employment relations and,

more recently, analyses the effects of the external environment on the organisation, human resources, missions, objectives and strategies (Bergh & Theron, 2009).

1.5.3.3 Personnel psychology

Personnel psychology is concerned with all features of psychological theory that encourages an understanding of the differences between individuals and performance (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2010). As a sub-field of industrial and organisational psychology, it holds strong scientific base and application orientation. Managers, human resource specialists and industrial psychologists benefit from the concepts, principles and techniques of this subfield as they enhance the quality of decisions associated with employment and retention of employees (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2010).

1.6 RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design refers to the manner in which a study was carried out by a researcher. Cohen et al. (2011) describe a research design as the planning of a situation for the collection and analysis of data in the way that achieves the aims of the research. The research design used in this study is discussed with reference to the types of research conducted, followed by an explanation of the validity and reliability of the data collection instruments.

1.6.1 Descriptive research

Descriptive research refers to the in-depth description of the individual, situation, group, organisation, culture, sub-culture, interaction or social object (Mouton & Marais, 1996). Its purpose is to scientifically clarify the relationships between variables of the research and to define research issues as accurately as possible. In terms of the literature review of the research constructs and dimensions, descriptive research is applicable with reference to the conceptualisation of AL and OC. With regard to the empirical study, the

descriptive research is applicable to the analysis of the data using frequency distributions, means, standard deviations, internal consistency measures and correlations of the two constructs.

1.6.2 Explanatory research

According to (Mouton, 2001), explanatory research goes further than just specifying that a relationship exists between the variables. This type of research focuses on defining the research questions and formulating hypotheses about current and relatively unfamiliar research areas (Mouton, 1996). It also indicates the direction of the relationship in an underlying relationship model. This research study is explanatory in nature as it seeks to determine the relationship between AL and OC.

1.6.3 Validity

The chosen research design and method for this study ensures the validity of the empirical findings of the two variables (Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2009). Validity of the empirical findings is enhanced using the valid measuring instruments to gather data on the constructs AL and OC.

1.6.4 Reliability

Reliability refers to the degree in which measures give way to consistent outcomes that are error free (Wilson, 2014). In this study the reliability of results is ensured by utilising reliable measurement instruments to assess the two constructs.

1.6.5 Unit of analysis

A unit of analysis is defined as factors such as characteristics, phenomena and behaviour which could draw attention to the researcher and allow him to illustrate, clarify, and review them (Babbie, 2013). In this study the unit of

analysis focuses on the individual and group levels (Mouton, 1996). The individual refers to employees permanently employed at a State Hospital in South Africa. At this level, the individual scores of each participant on the measuring instruments are taken into consideration. At the group level, the scores of the measuring instruments for the different groups are compared based on differences with regards to years of service, age, gender and race.

1.6.6 Ethical considerations

According to Cohen et al. (2011), ethical considerations are important mechanisms of a research design. Babbie (2013) defines research ethics as the minimum standards of moral principles that steer the behaviour of researchers. These principles include compliance with social sciences and professional obligations when dealing with research participants and participating organisations. As part of the efforts to support ethical requirements, the following ethical considerations were adhered to:

- Obtaining appropriate approval from the participating organisation. In this case ethical clearance was granted by the State Hospital as a requirement by the Department of Health.
- Obtaining informed consent from each member of the research sample as participants.
- Obtaining ethical clearance from the Research Committee of the Faculty of Health at the University of Pretoria under whose ethical supervision of the State Hospital's research projects resides.
- Obtaining ethical clearance from the Ethics Committee of the University of South Africa.
- The researcher took the responsibility to safeguard the confidentiality of the research results.
- All participants were guaranteed anonymity for taking part in this study.
- The sources of information in the literature review and empirical study are acknowledged through referencing.

- The participants and the organisation of this study were afforded an opportunity to receive feedback of the research results.
- The results of this study are compiled and reported according to the prescribed research guidelines and methodology.

1.7 RESEARCH APPROACH

This study followed a quantitative, non-experimental research design. A cross-sectional survey strategy of inquiry was used and primary data were collected for statistical analysis purposes (Creswell, 2009).

1.8 RESEARCH METHOD

1.8.1 Research participants

The population of the study consisted of all employees of a State Hospital in South Africa. Probability sampling was used to identify a sample of 222 participants, consisting of males and females, all occupational levels and all levels of employment. According to (Babbie, 2010), probability sampling ensures that each member of the population have an equal chance of being selected as part of the sample.

1.8.2 Measuring instruments

Data were collected by using self-report questionnaires. A Biographical Questionnaire was developed by the researcher to measure aspects such as years of service, gender, race, age, highest qualification and job level. The two research variables were measured by utilising the following two questionnaires:

1.8.2.1 *Authentic leadership measuring instrument*

AL and its four dimensions was measured by the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ). The ALQ was developed by Walumbwa et al. (2008), and has an overall reliability of 0.91; while its dimensions demonstrated the following reliabilities:

- Self-awareness (0.73);
- Relational Transparency (0.77);
- Internalised Moral Perspective, (0.73); and
- Balanced Processing, (0.70).

According to Kline (2005), a Cronbach's alpha of 0.9 and above is considered to be excellent; 0.7 is regarded as acceptable; 0.6 is viewed as poor and 0.5 is considered to be unacceptable levels of reliability. Based on the above reliability levels of the ALQ, this instrument was considered to have an acceptable reliability and to be a valid instrument relevant for this study.

The questionnaire is a self-report in nature and it includes statement such as: "My supervisor means exactly what he or she says". Responses are based on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 as highly unlikely to 5 as highly likely.

1.8.2.2 *Organisational commitment measuring instrument*

OC was measured using the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). The OCQ was developed by Meyer and Allen (1997), and it has demonstrated acceptable internal consistency levels for all three dimensions as follows:

- Affective Commitment (0.82);
- Continuance Commitment (0.74); and
- Normative Commitment (0.83).

The questionnaire is also a self-report and participants' responses are based on a 6-point Likert scale. The responses options ranging from 1 as strongly disagree to 6 as strongly agree. OCQ includes statement such as: "I believe that a person must always be loyal to his/her organisation". Based on the high internal consistency of the questionnaire, according to the guidelines given by Kline (20005), the OCQ was thus considered to be a reliable instrument relevant for this study.

1.8.3 Research procedure

Permission to conduct the research at a State Hospital in SA was obtained from the organisation's management team. As indicated above, ethical clearance to conduct the research was obtained from the Research Committee Faculty of Health at the University of Pretoria as well as from the Ethics Committee at the University of South Africa. The biographical questionnaire, informed consent letter and the measuring instruments were delivered to the State Hospital's Human Resource Department for distribution to the sample.

The state Hospital's Human resource Department distributed all questionnaires with return envelopes to the identified sample of 222 participants at the State Hospital for completion. The participants were informed about the purpose of the study, their voluntary participation, anonymity of the data and deadline for returning the completed questionnaires to the researcher. Participants were afforded an opportunity to complete the self-report paper-and-pencil questionnaires on their own and all 222 participants returned their completed questionnaires to the researcher.

The contact details of the researcher were made available to the Human Resource Department, so that they would be able to contact the researcher in the event of any queries.

1.8.4 Statistical analysis

Data analysis was carried out using the IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23 statistical programme (IBM, 2015). Descriptive statistics in the form of frequency distributions, means and standard deviations were calculated to describe the sample (Clark & Watson, 1995). Cronbach's alpha was used to determine the reliability of the two measurement instruments (Field, 2005). The Pearson Correlation Coefficient was used to determine the relationship between AL, OC and their respective dimensions (Cohen, 1992). Finally, regression analysis as inferential statistics (Tabachnich & Fidell, 2001), was calculated to determine if AL could be used to predict OC.

1.9 CHAPTER LAYOUT

The layout of the chapters in this dissertation is as follows:

- Chapter 1: Scientific orientation to the research
- Chapter 2: Authentic leadership
- Chapter 3: Organisational commitment and the theoretical relationship between AL and OC
- Chapter 4: Empirical study
- Chapter 5: Research results and discussion
- Chapter 6: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

1.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the background and motivation for this study, problem statement, research aims, paradigm perspectives, research design, approach and method were discussed. The chapter's layout of the dissertation is also outlined.

CHAPTER 2: AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the construct authentic leadership (AL) is defined and conceptualised. The chapter starts with a discussion of the differences between management and leadership including a description of leadership. The chapter concludes with an explanation of the different leadership approaches namely trait, behavioural, situational, and contemporary approaches.

2.2 DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP

Although leadership is one of the important roles in organisations, the literature often differentiates between leadership and management. According to Miller (1996) management is seen as a top-down approach, and leadership is seen as a bottom-up approach in an organisation. Table 2.1 below summarises the main differences between management and leadership.

These differences indicate that managers and leaders differ in terms of their power, roles, relationship with followers and focus areas within the organisation. This implies that management is not the same as leadership. Despite their differences, the two roles are important for organisational performance and success. Management and leadership are both seen as critical for the effective functioning of an organisation (Miller, 1996). Since the focus of this study is AL, the next section describes the concept leadership in detail.

Table 2.1

Key differences between Leadership and Management (Miller, 1996)

Leadership	Management
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relationship is a bottom-up approach-fragile and more reciprocal as needs to be open to changing environments. • Both leaders and followers have their needs met. • Leaders innovate and develop. • Followers have their own expectations from their leaders. • Power needs to be used effectively to build trust and respect. • Keep a long-term view of the future. • Focus on people. • Do the right thing. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relationship is a top-down approach where managers take responsibility. • Managers have the authority over subordinates but this does not necessarily make them effective leaders. • Administer and maintain rules and regulations. • Focus on systems and structure. • Rely on control and authority. • Keep a view on the bottom line. • Focus on things. • Do things right.

2.3 DEFINITION OF LEADERSHIP

An American Association Psychologist, (Bennis, 2007, p. 2), states that “the subject of leadership is broad, amorous polished, and above all significantly important”. Bennis (2007) illustrates that it is of utmost importance to explore the concept of leadership and all its components. Hence it is plausible that some of the critical aspects related to leadership cannot be found in the literature but from sharing experiences with leaders.

Northouse (2007) defines leadership as an ability to convince individuals to execute the necessary procedures in order to achieve organisational goals. This view is supported by Yukl (2013) who states that a leader encourages other individuals collectively to execute the shared organisational goals and objectives. These definitions advocate numerous mechanisms vital to the uniqueness of the construct leadership, which include the following:

- Leadership is a progression or an evolution.
- Leadership includes persuading others.
- Leadership takes place within the setting of a group.
- Leadership incorporates goal accomplishment.
- Goals are distributed amongst the leaders and their followers.

According to Daft (2015), leadership has changed over time. Leaders with self-awareness behaviours are able to keep themselves busy with their task while not attending to the behaviours of their followers as employees. This implies that as a result of the self-awareness behaviours, employees tend to feel that they are not important and are not engaging in their work (Greyvenstein & Cilliers, 2012). There cannot be a leader without a social setting or an organisation to fulfil the role (Day & Harrison, 2007). Goffe and Jones (2005, p.53) concur by suggesting that “human actions do not take place in a vacuum”. Hence the context of fulfilling a leadership role is critical. Leadership studies have been “inconclusive and often contradictory” (Higgs, 2003, p. 281). Good leaders need not be born with certain features or attributes. Leadership surfaces from one’s life history, which can enable authentic morality and integrity (George, Sims, McLean & Mayer, 2007)

There are also inconclusive discussions regarding good and effective leaders. Scholars argue that good leaders need not be born with certain features or attributes because leadership surfaces from one’s life history, which can enable authentic morality and integrity (George et al., 2007). According to Ashleigh and Mansi (2012) effective or good leaders in an organisation are assumed to exhibit the following qualities or behaviours:

- Vision to make a contribution to the world;
- Passion for creating or inventing new things;
- Intuition about how and when to make decisions;
- Belief in themselves that they can succeed; and
- Humility to know that they cannot achieve their dreams alone.

Most leadership studies focus on the “paradigmatic assumptions, methodological preferences, and ideological commitments” (Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003, p. 359). The following description of the types of leadership approaches is based on these focus areas.

2.4 APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP

According to Yukl (2013) various approaches to leadership can be distinguished. These leadership approaches include the trait, behavioural, situational and contemporary. Figure 2.1 below illustrates these main approaches.



Figure 2.1. Approaches to leadership (Yukl, 2013)

2.4.1 Trait leadership approach

In the early twentieth century, research investigated leaders who had attained levels of greatness and crowned them as the Great Man (Daft, 2015). It is from this research that the trait approach of leadership develops dominance. Daft (2015) defines the trait approach of leadership as focusing on the personal characteristics of a leader, such as honesty, self-confidence, intelligence and appearance. Based on this theory, individuals are born with these traits that differentiate them to be leaders. The Great Man approach recognises that a leader has to possess and exhibit his/her behaviour in order to differentiate them from their followers. Research studies contrary to this approach discovered that there is a weak relationship between personal traits and leader achievement (Daft, 2015). This suggests that based on the diversity of traits that actual leaders' exhibit leadership capability is not a genetic attribute.

Critical review of the trait theory emerged during the 1960s and 1970s, due to lack of evidence about which traits are important for one to become an effective leader. In support of this criticism, Furnham (2005, p. 570) states that "such an evaluation is subjective, so the concept of leadership is a perception that exists only in the eye of the beholder, it is a process that is perceived by others and labelled leadership". However, Daft (2015, pp. 39-40), argues that "some trait characteristics and their corresponding categories have been recognised through research over the years that are considered to be highly essential for a leadership role". According to Daft (2015) these traits and characteristics include the following:

- Optimism: It refers to a tendency to be positive at all times and hoping that things will turn out well.
- Self-confidence: It is self-assurance in one's judgments, decision-making, ideas and abilities.
- Honesty: It refers to openness and it entails genuineness that followers welcome.

- Integrity: It means the leader's character that is whole, integrated and grounded in solid ethical principles he/she adheres to.
- Drive: It refers to high motivation that generates a high effort level by a leader.

Despite its contribution to the leadership theory, the trait leadership approach has attracted a fair amount of criticism. Stogdill (1948) conducted a literature review of more than 100 leadership studies on the trait approach and highlighted several traits that are exhibited in effective leadership. The traits identified include general intelligence, initiative, interpersonal skills, self-confidence, drive for responsibility and personal integrity. In his findings he indicated that the importance of a certain trait is contingent on a situation (Stogdill, 1948). Most of the authors on leadership have withdrawn their efforts to identify leadership traits in the light of Stogdill's 1948 findings, and turned their focus to examining leader behaviour in different situations (Daft, 2015). The concern regarding this approach is that some traits may be suitable for a leader in one situation, but inappropriate in another. For example, creativity is considered to be associated to the achievement of a leader in an entrepreneurial situation. Yet, this trait may be inappropriate to a leader in an established bureaucratic organisation. This implies that there is no guarantee of success if a leader exhibits certain personal traits.

2.4.2 Behavioural leadership approach

The behavioural leadership approach originates from the principle that although leaders may possess certain individual traits in order for them to be effective in their leadership role, those traits need to be demonstrated in their behaviour (Ashleigh & Mansi, 2012). This approach to leadership became common after a major work undertaken by the Ohio State University during the 1940s and 1950s (Haplin & Winer as cited by Ashleigh & Mansi, 2012). The Ohio research teams worked separately and each employed a different methodology in attempting to determine what behavioural patterns are exhibited by effective leaders in organisations.

One of the research teams requested leaders and subordinates to identify leaders' behaviours from 2,000 questions. From responses received, the following two basic fundamental leadership behaviours were identified as being significant (Ashleigh & Mansi, 2012):

- Consideration: Leaders exhibit consideration for their subordinates when they demonstrate that they trust and respect them and are concerned about their well-being.
- Initiating structure: This is the degree to which leaders can concentrate on tasks, motivate employees to be innovative and encourage them to be good performers. The leader should also be able to correct them when they deviate.

In another major leadership study by the Michigan University, the research team studied groups that displayed effective and ineffective behaviours (Luthans & Avolio, 2009). The results highlighted two conflicting dimensions that were similar to those of the Ohio researchers. Ashleigh and Mansi (2012) indicate that the researchers discovered that effective leaders tended to be more involved with their subordinates, whereas ineffective leaders were only task-oriented. In this study employee-orientated and productivity-orientated dimensions were exhibited in leadership behaviour. The Michigan research team found that employee-orientated behaviour was related to high productivity and high job satisfaction while production-orientated behaviour was related to low productivity and low satisfaction in subordinates (Ashleigh & Mansi, 2012; Luthans, 2007; Yukl, 2013).

A criticism of the behavioural approach is that many leaders fall along a range that includes consideration and initiating structure behaviours yet these behaviours differ from one another and do not make one effective. Daft (2015, p. 42) argues that "a leader can exhibit a high degree of either behaviour types, or a low degree of both behaviour types". In addition, a leader might demonstrate high consideration and low initiating structure, or low consideration and high initiating structure behaviour.

2.4.3 Situational leadership approach

The situational leadership approach considers the context or situation in which leadership takes place (Daft, 2015). A leader's effectiveness is dependent on the context. The following are some of the models of leadership that are based on the situational leadership approach

2.4.3.1 Fiedler's Contingency Model

Fiedler's Contingency Model was designed to allow leaders to diagnose both leadership style and organisational state. Although the model is slightly complicated, the fundamental idea is to match the leader's style with the situation most favourable for his or her achievement. Fiedler and his colleagues developed a model that focuses not only on followers but takes other components of the situation into consideration (Daft, 2015).

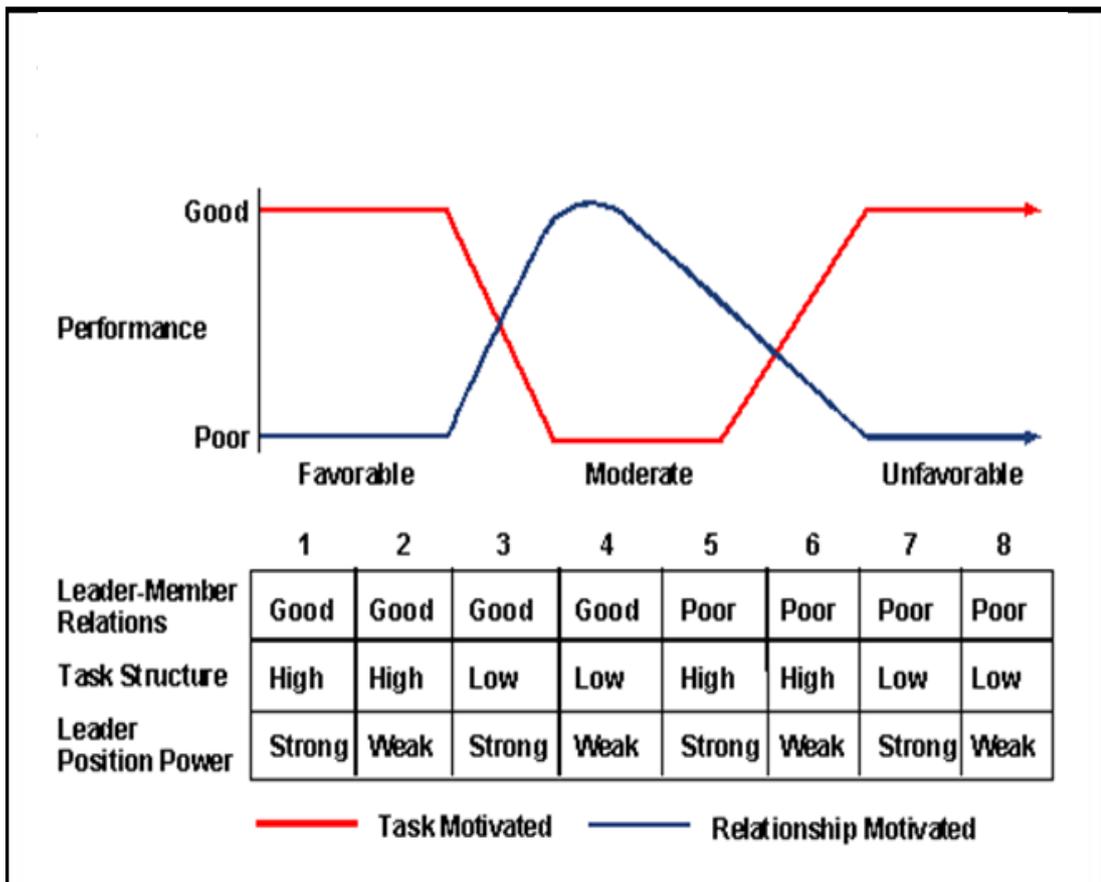


Figure 2.2. Fiedler's Contingency Model (Fiedler, 1972, p. 455)

The foundation of Fiedler's theory is the extent to which the leader's style is relationship-oriented or task-oriented. A relationship-oriented leader focuses on followers by establishing mutual trust and respect and takes employees' needs seriously, while a task-oriented leader focuses on content by offering clear directions and setting performance standards (Daft, 2015). According to Daft (2015), Fiedler's Contingency Model represents the context of leadership in terms of the following three key elements that can be favourable or unfavourable to a leader:

- Leader-member relations: This refers to the extent to which subordinates are loyal, supportive and approachable among themselves and the leader.
- Task structure: It refers to the manner in which the tasks are performed by the group, together with the time frame of the finished product and the indication of how well the task will be performed.
- Position power: It refers to the extent to which the leader has the authority to evaluate the tasks according to the subordinates' performance so that the leader can either reward or punish.

In terms of matching leaders to specific situations, Ashleigh and Mansi (2012) highlight that Fiedler established eight leadership variations by linking all the different possible situations across the three contingent situations (see Figure 2.3 above). Each of these circumstances differs based on the extent in which they favour the leader. This implies that in highly favourable situations and very unfavourable situations, performance tends to be better when the leader is task-orientated in nature (Ashleigh & Mansi, 2012). When situations are moderately favourable or unfavourable, the performance of the followers tends to be better when a leader is person-oriented in his approach.

According to Schriesheim and Kerr (1977), Fiedler's Contingency Model contains a few serious conceptual weaknesses. The main weakness and criticism of this model is the score used to measure the Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC); because it may not be stable over time and may be complex in

future (Yukl, 1970). Research by Shiflett (1973) and (Kennedy (1982) and also concluded that medium LPC leaders are more effective than either high or low LPC leaders in most situations (five of the eight octants) seemingly because there is a balance between concern for the task and concern for the relationships.

2.4.3.2 *Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory*

The Situational Leadership Theory (SLT) constructed by Hersey & Blanchard (1977), is an exciting addition to the situational leadership approach. This approach focuses on the attributes of followers based on the important element of the situation that enables leaders to be effective in their behaviour. The main point is that subordinates as followers differ in readiness levels. Hence individuals may be low in their readiness due to lack of training and/or ability, insecurity, or the need for a different leadership style. While those who are high in readiness may have skills, ability, confidence, and are eager to work.

An original version of Hersey-Blanchard's (1977) normative model specified that leadership styles should match the followers' maturity. In the latest version, maturity was substituted by the notion of "readiness" (Hersey, Blanchard & Johnson, 1996, 2013). These two notions of readiness and maturity are used interchangeably. See Figure 2.4 below for a visual exposition of the SLT Model. Readiness focuses on the willingness and abilities of the followers. Hersey et al. (2013) indicate that the following are the four levels of followers' readiness:

- S1 = Telling;
- S2 = Selling;
- S3 = Participating; and
- S4 = Delegating.

These styles of readiness are grounded on the combination of two dimensions (task orientation and people/relationship orientation). This implies that followers at the lowest level of readiness are not eager and cannot perform a task. Hersey et al. (2013) suggest that in this case leaders have to use the telling style, which includes high task and low people orientation. Its principle is to generate a structure that provides defined tasks regarding what is to be carried out and when.

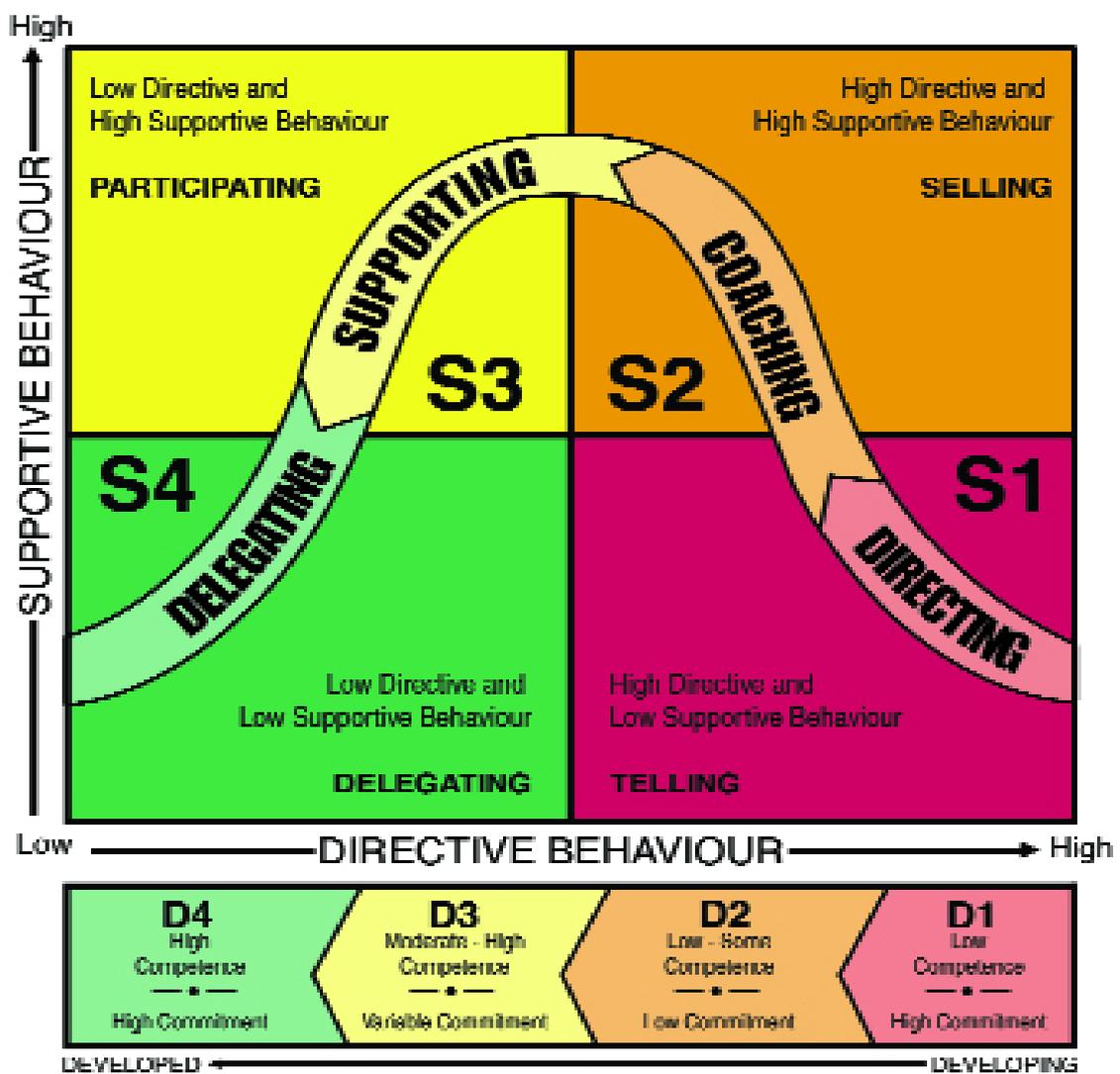


Figure 2.3. Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model (Hersey et al., 2013)

In terms of moderating the level of readiness, it requires high eagerness and low abilities. A leader is expected to apply the selling style, which emphasises

both task and relationship (Hersey et al., 2013). In applying this style, leaders use persuasion, explain the basis of the assignments to followers, and show concern to support the followers' motivation. When employees reach a high level of readiness, leaders can expand their followers' participation in decision-making. The participating style includes a low level of task focus and a high level of people focus. In this situation, followers are educated adequately to execute the task and they are included in the decision-making. The leader's effort and attention focuses on relationship rather than on the task dimension. Followers at the highest level of readiness are experts in their field; they are considered to be highly motivated to do their job without supervision. The behaviour that suites these circumstances is the delegating style and it includes a low focus on both task and relationship dimensions (Hersey et al., 2013).

In support of the SLT Model, Hambleton and Gumbert (as cited by Gavriel & Jian, 2015), report that the Leader Behaviour Analysis (LDA) instrument used in their study found a positive relationship between situational leadership styles and managers' viewpoint of followers' performance. This result suggests that in situations where the SLT Model was used appropriately, subordinates' performance was significantly higher. However, their findings cannot be generalised owing to the challenges encountered by their participants with the self-assessment managerial style and with the representativeness of the managers' sample. In contrast to these findings, Goodson, McGee and Cashman (1989) did not find a significant relationship between employees' readiness and leadership behaviour in terms of initiating structure and consideration. Their findings did not support predictions of the SLT with respect to the best, second best, third best and worst styles of leadership.

2.4.4.3 Vroom-Jaco's Contingency Theory of leader decision making model

Vroom-Jaco's Contingency Theory of leader decision making model as depicted in Figure 2.5 below shares some fundamental principles with the previous models, but the models differs in significant ways. This model concentrates on the differences between the degrees of participative leadership and how each level of participation influences the quality and accountability of decisions (Sternberg & Vroom, 2002). Vroom-Jaco's Contingency Theory begins with the concept that a leader faces a challenge that requires a solution. The decision to resolve problems might be made by a leader alone or by inviting some of the followers to take part in the decision making process (Daft, 2015).

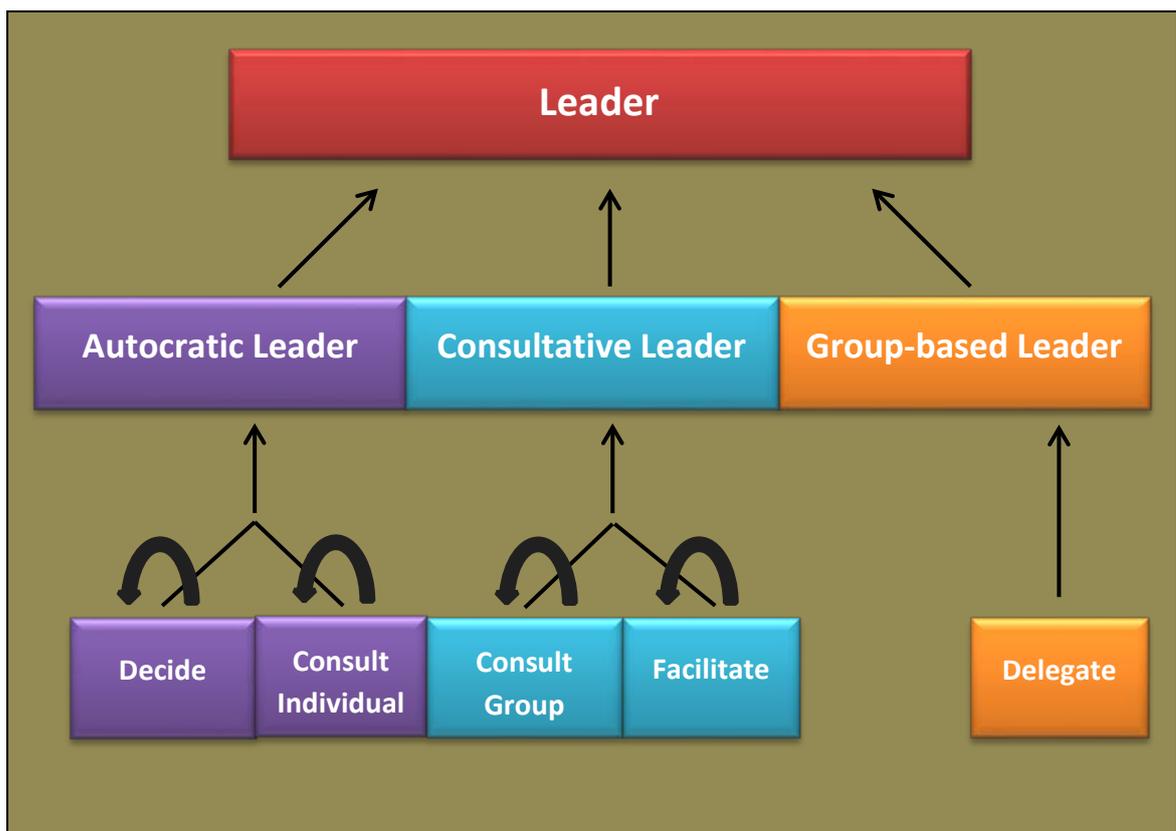


Figure 2.4. Vroom-Jaco's Contingency Theory of leader decision making model (Sternberg & Vroom, 2002)

The Vroom-Jaco's Contingency Theory of leader decision making model is very practical because it calculates the amount of participation by the subordinates for the leader to use in making a certain decision. Daft (2015) indicates that this model has three major components namely: leader participation style, a set of diagnostic questions with which to analyse a decision situation, and a series of decisions rules.

- Leader participation styles: The model utilises five level decide, consult individual, consult group, facilitate and delegate) of subordination participation in decision making, stretching from highly autocratic (leader makes decisions on his or her own) to highly democratic (followers are involved).
- Diagnostic questions: How is the leader able to choose one of the five decision styles to apply in his context? Situational factors would determine which decision participation to use such as the required level of decision quality, the level of a leader or subordinate's expertise, and the importance of having subordinates commit to the decision (Daft, 2015).
- Selecting a decision style: This component includes the "time" taken by the leader as opposed to the development in choosing a decision style. It leads to the development of two decision matrices; the time based model and the development based model (Daft, 2015). Firstly, a time-based model to be incorporated when time is crucial. For example, when decisions are to be made urgently and when the organisation is facing a crisis. Secondly, a development-based model to be used when time and efficiency are less important measures than the opportunity to generate the thinking and decision-making skills of followers.

Criticisms of the Vroom-Jaco's Contingency Theory of leader decision making model are that it is not a perfect model, although it is useful for a leader's decision making. According to Daft (2011) highlights that researchers have developed a computer-based program that allows for greater complexity and precision in the Vroom-Jaco's Contingency Theory of leader decision making

model, and this programme incorporates the value of time and value of follower development as situational factors rather than portraying them in separate decision matrixes.

2.4.4.4. Path-Goal leadership theory

The path-goal theory is depicted in Figure 2.6 below. This theory was developed to resolve previous findings resulting from empirical studies of the effects of leader task orientation and leader person orientation on subordinate satisfaction and performance (Daft, 2015). Prior to the introduction of the theory, the literature focused on the task and person orientations. The most commonly used measures were the ones of Ohio State University (Stogdill & Coons, 1957). Bass (1990) mentioned that some studies presented positive relationships between these two dimensions and whereas other studies found that there is no relationship. Furthermore, several studies presented negative relationships between introducing structure and various indicators of subordinate satisfaction. (Bass, 1990).



Figure 2.5. Path-Goal (Modelvancevich, Konopaske & Matteson, 2013)

Daft (2015) states that according to the path-goal theory the leader's responsibility is to increase the motivation of subordinates by explaining behaviour styles that are required for task accomplishment and rewards. The following should be taken into consideration when a leader increases the motivation of subordinates:

- Notifying the followers about the rewards that are available. Path clarification means that the leader communicates with subordinates for them to be aware of behaviours that will lead to task achievement and organisational rewards.

- Increasing the rewards that the follower's value and desire. Increasing rewards means that the leader informs the subordinates to learn about different rewards available in the organisation.

According to Yukl (2013) it is therefore easier to make an association between the leader's behaviour and the subordinate's motivation by using certain behaviours, such as clarifying role expectations, recognising accomplishments, giving contingent rewards, modelling appropriate behaviours for subordinates to imitate, and communicating high expectations about subordinate performance). To make the path-goal theory all inclusive, House (1996) extended it to accommodate some behaviour from recent theories such as the charismatic and transformational leadership theories.

The path-goal theory suggests four leadership behaviours that can be used by the same leader in different contexts (Ashleigh & Mansi, 2012):

- Directive: This style suggests that there are no contributions from the subordinates and the leader gives orders.
- Supportive: The leader is sympathetic and supports the subordinates by being open, friendly and approachable.
- Participative: This supports that followers are encouraged to offer suggestions and are invited to take part in decision-making.
- Achievement-orientated: Leaders set challenging goals for subordinates and assist them in believe in themselves by achieving the set goals.

According to Schriesheim Kerr (1977) this approach has some theoretical deficiencies that limit its functioning. The greatest weakness is the dependence on clarifying the leader's influence. The reason for this is that the model presents a theory that is regarded to be excessively complex and seemingly an unrealistic description of human behaviour).

2.4.4.5 *Leader-Member Exchange Theory*

The Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory focuses on the relationship formed between the leader and the follower. Originally the theory was called the Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL) Model which was developed in 1945 (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975). The LMX Theory is based on the principle that each leader-follower within a work group is unique and different in quality (Anand, Linden & Vidyarthi, 2011). Based on the theory, relationships and work roles are established over time through a series of interactions between the leader and the follower to outline the different types of relationships as low-quality and high-quality relationships (Bauer & Green, 1996).

Low LMX relationships are symbolised by economic exchanges based mainly on formal and tangible assets such as employment contracts and salary payment (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer & Ferris, 2011). High-quality relationships are considered to benefit High-quality relationships more than those in low quality relationships, not only in economic exchange but also in terms of social exchanges. In social exchanges values such as mutual trust, obligation, respect, loyalty and reciprocity will become the dominant features in the relationship (Uhl-Bien, 2003). See Figure 2.6 below for a visual exposition of this theory.

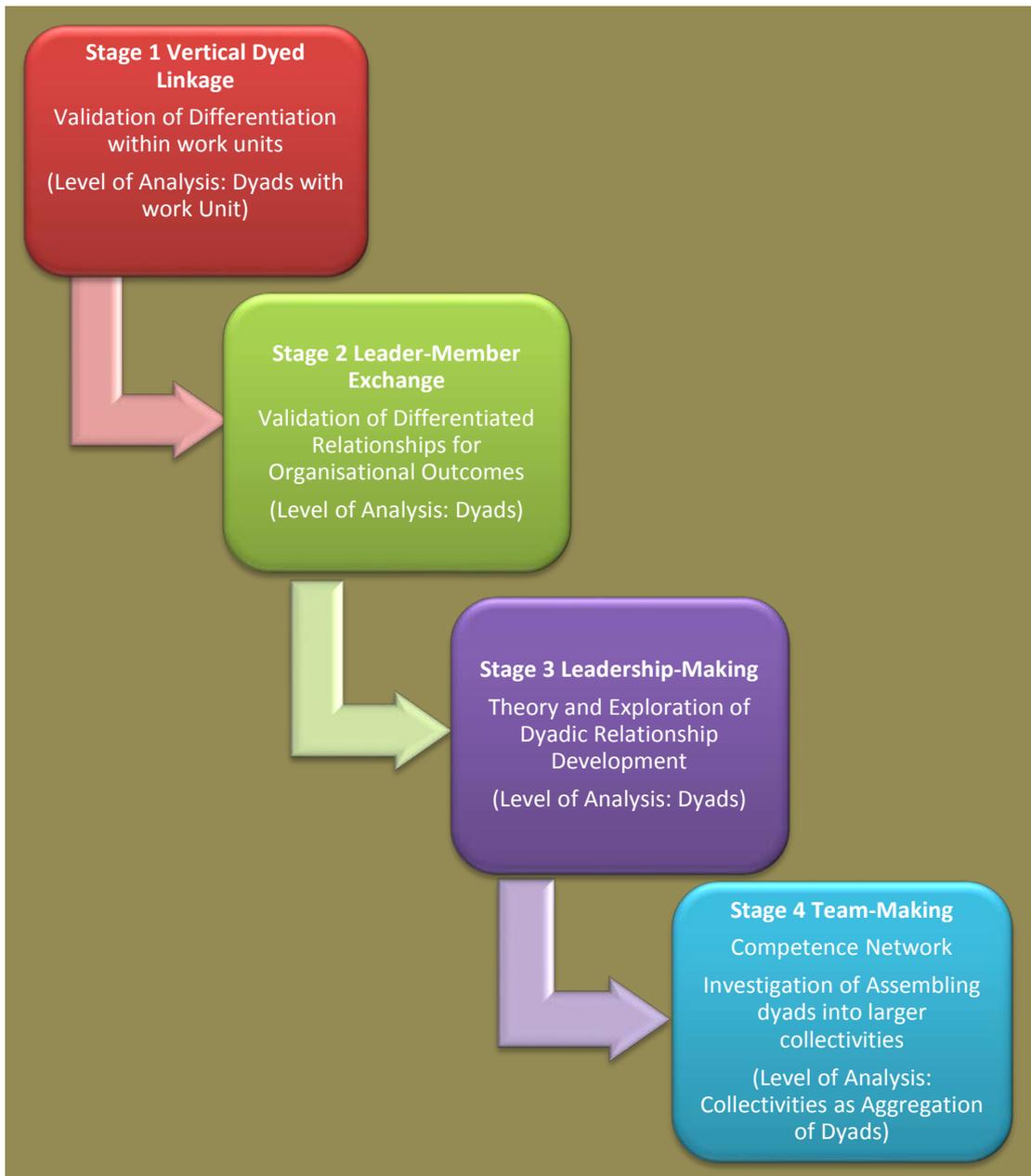


Figure 2.6. Stages in Development of the LMX Theory (Graen & Uhl-Bien 1995, p. 226)

The quality of exchange relationships is generally assumed to involve things such as mutual trust, respect, affection, support, and loyalty. However, LMX includes other aspects of a relationship such as negotiating latitude, incremental influence, shared values, affect, reciprocity, obligation, and mutual trust (Ferris et al., 2009). Several different LMX measures have been

utilised since the theory was first recommended, making it impossible to compare the results of the different research studies (Yukl, 2013).

A criticism of the LMX Theory is that it requires more explanation about the manner in which exchange relationships develops over time. Fairhurst (1993) indicates that evidence from other studies recommend that dyadic relationships typically advance through a series of ups and downs, with shifts in attitudes and behaviour as two parties attempt to solve the desire of autonomy with their desire to develop close relations. The few longitudinal studies conducted propose that the LMX relationship may create other relationships and make them to remain stable (Ferris et al., 2009). Irrespective of the increasing body of research on LMX, Yukl (2013) argues that there is still little knowledge about the actual occurrence of the role-making process. To rectify these inconsistencies, it is recommended in the literature to conduct longitudinal research focusing on the manner in which the interaction will take place over time in more detail and inquire more deeply into each party's changing perceptions of the relationship (Yukl, 2013).

2.5 CONTEMPORARY THEORIES TO LEADERSHIP

Various contemporary theories of leadership have evolved, placing greater emphasis on the importance of the followers' role in leadership (Daft, 2015). These contemporary theories, which will be discussed below, include Neuro-Leadership, Charismatic Leadership, Transactional Leadership, Transformational Leadership, Servant Leadership, Ethical Leadership and Authentic Leadership.

2.5.1 Neuro-Leadership

Although management and leadership research in the past century has expressively enhanced our understanding of human workplace behaviour, current improvements in neuroscience, with the possibility to considerably advances in this field, remain available (Ringleb & Rock, 2008).

Neuro-leadership concentrates on how individuals in social environments formulate decisions, solve problems, regulate their emotions, and collaborate with and encourage others to facilitate change (Ringleb & Rock, 2008). This means that it involves people as opposed to the practical operation of the business. As a field, neuro-leadership is developing in equivalent with the establishment in research technologies which assist researchers with the ability to directly observe how the brain operates. Those technologies assist researchers with the confirmation of and new insights in theories and concepts (Ringleb & Rock, 2008).

According to Olivier Ringleb and Rock (2008, p. 89), “the neuroscience fields, with the most potential to impact neuro-leadership, include cognitive neuroscience, integrative neuroscience, neurophysiology, and particularly social cognitive and affective neuroscience”. The strong capability interface between the leadership and neuroscience spheres of study has become a direct result of several interrelated developments within the neuroscience fields over the past decade (Ringleb & Rock, 2008).

Although several individual leadership and leadership development specialists had made informal references to neuroscience in the 1990s and early 2000s, the first suggestion in the broader academic business literature was in the Harvard Business Review in 2005 (Bennis & O’Toole, 2005). These authors focused on the limitations of the traditional MBA programmes by developing students for leadership roles.

According Ringleb & Rock (2008) neuro-science and social cognitive neuro-science have similar research goals regarding leadership and leadership development. The underlying difference lies in the research instruments applied to achieve research aims. Ringleb and Rock (2008) further state that identifying the comparative advantages and disadvantages of the primary research instruments used in each sphere can assist in organising the neuro-leadership field and recognising research questions of interest going forward.

There is no criticism as yet concerning neuro-leadership as it is a young field and still under development.

2.5.2 Charismatic Leadership

Among the early studies on charisma, the most essential work was written by Weber (1947), whose main interest was the forces of authority in society. Weber (1947) argued that a charismatic leader (CL) is one who possesses admirable qualities which differentiates him from other leaders. The leader in this approach is seen to be bigger than life as perceived by followers.

According to Weber (1947, p. 48) the most commonly cited definition of the Greek word Charisma is that it is “a quality of an individual personality by virtue of which he is set apart from ordinary men and treated as endowed with supernatural, superhuman, or at least specifically exceptional qualities”. This type of leadership is underpinned by followers’ opinions and beliefs; that leaders are gifted with amazing and admirable qualities (Weber, 1947). These qualities set them apart from their followers.

A number of studies have been undertaken to recognise the characteristics of a charismatic leader. Robbins, Ondendaal and Roodt (2016, p. 455) acknowledged four key points which suggests that “they have a vision, they are willing to take personal risk to achieve that vision, they are sensitive to followers’ needs, and they exhibit behaviours that are out of the ordinary”. The key characteristics of the charismatic leader according to Conger & Kanungo (1998) are exhibited in Table 2.3 below.

Table 2.2

Key characteristics of charismatic leaders (Conger & Kanungo, 1998, p. 94)

<i>Vision and articulation</i>	Has a vision that is expressed as an idealised goal; proposes a future better than the status quo and is able to clarify the importance of the vision to make it understandable to others.
<i>Personal risk</i>	Willing to take on high personal risk, incur high costs, and engage in self-sacrifice to achieve the vision.
<i>Sensitivity to followers</i>	Perceptive of others' abilities and responsive to their needs and feelings.
<i>Unconventional behaviour</i>	Engages in behaviours that are perceived as novel and counter to norms.

A mutual thread amongst political, social, religious, military and business leaders is their so-called ownership of personal charisma and epic qualities which have powerful effects on followers, societies, countries or organisations (Sendjaya, 2015). Furthermore, charismatic leaders are grass-root leaders that develop from side-lined society during times of great social crises. Frequently, these leaders develop as a result of a revolution against traditional or legal-rational authority methods. Amongst those who are considered charismatic are persons predominantly in the religious and political domains, such as Jesus Christ, Nelson Mandela, Adolf Hitler, Mahatma Gandhi and Martin Luther Jr, (Weber, 1947). Examples of charismatic leaders in the military domain include Saddam Hussein, Napoleon Bonaparte and Colin Powell, and those in business include Jack Welch, Lee Iacocca and Mary Kay Ash (Yukl, 2013).

Numerous historians, political scientists and sociologists have been fascinated by Weber's (1947) conceptualisation of charismatic authority. Subsequently, the publication of Weber's seminal book "Theory of Social and Economic Organisation", where the concept of charisma is perceived, resulted in research focusing on the locus of charismatic leadership. The key question

is whether charisma is the outcome of the leader's pleasant supernatural gift, the strong connection between the leader and the followers, social settings of the leader, or purely an attribution-based experience?

Some critical questions have been raised concerning more empirical evidence on the validity of charismatic leadership. These concerns relate to the somewhat dark and frequently delicate aspects of charisma, which is the leader's inspiration (Bass, 1999; Graham, 1991). Howell (1988) raised a concern about two types of negative charisma; socialised and personalised charismatic leaders. Socialised charismatic leaders are concerned about developing their followers, whereas personalised charismatic leaders generate within their followers feelings of obedience, dependency, and submission to the goals and needs of leaders. Negative charismatic leadership is regarded as being self-centred, while positive charismatic leadership is being concerned about others. The three predominant leadership skills that make successful outcomes for both the organisation and followers are the leader's strategic vision communication and impression-management skills as well as their general management skills (Conger, 1991).

It is crucial to take the difference between positive and negative charismatic leadership into consideration (Howell, 1988) History is full of accounts of charismatic leaders who caused untold death, destruction, and misery in the process of building an empire, leading a revolution, or founding a new religion. Many entrepreneurs who founded prosperous companies were tyrants and egomaniacs (Conger, 1991). Negative charismatics are likely to have a "narcissistic personality and a personalised power orientation" (Yukl, 1990, p. 231). These types of leaders emphasise devotion of followers to themselves rather to ideological goals, which are used only as a means to manipulate the followers.

Bass (1985) further extended the notion of charismatic leadership into transformational leadership based on Burns' (1978) concept of

transformational leadership. There is a wide resemblance between charismatic and transformational leadership. Although leadership approaches are sometimes regarded as identical, the latter is generally defined more precisely than the former. There is also an argument as to whether the two terms can be used separately. Yukl (2013) argues that the best way is to distinguish between the two types of leadership irrespective of their overlapping processes. According to Bass (1985), charisma is the main component of transformational leadership although it is not the only one. An organisation with a charismatic leader is bound to achieve, but the achievement depends to some degree on the situation and the leader's vision.

2.5.3 Transactional Leadership

According to Bass (1985) transactional leadership also known as managerial leadership, concentrates on the role of supervision, organisation and group performance. It is a leadership style that promotes fulfilment of the followers through both rewards and punishments. Transactional leaders are not willing to change; they prefer things to remain the same. This type of leadership focuses on followers' faults and deviations. Transactional leadership is effective in crisis and emergency situations, as well as when projects need to be carried out in a certain manner (Odumeru & Ogbonna, 2013). Based on Maslow's hierarchy of needs, this style of leadership focuses on the basic level of need satisfaction, as it uses an exchange of rewards for positive outcomes (Hargis, Wyatt & Piotrowski, 2001). A leader can decide to punish followers or subordinates for poor work or negative outcomes, until the problem has been solved (Hargis, Wyatt & Piotrowski, 2001).

Transactional leaders concentrate on contingent reward (also known as contingent positive reinforcement) and contingent penalisation (also known as contingent negative reinforcement). Bass and Avolio (1994) state that contingent rewards (such as praise) are provided to followers when the set goals are achieved on-time, ahead of time, or followers are allowed to work at a certain pace at different times throughout to completion. Contingent

penalisation (such as punishment) is provided when performance quality does not meet the standard and tasks are not met by followers (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Frequently, contingent punishments are forwarded to management-by-exception basis, whereby an exception takes place when something goes wrong.

Management-by-exception carries two routes which are active and passive. According to Hargis et al. (2001), active management-by-exception leaders means that leaders repeatedly watch each followers' performance and suggest changes to their work throughout the process. Passive management-by-exception leaders tend to wait for deviations before making corrections (Hargis et al., 2001). While transactional leadership focuses on applied lower-level needs and being more of a manager in style, transformational leadership which is discussed below, focuses on higher-level needs (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003). The following section describes the transformational leadership approach.

2.5.4 Transformational leadership

According to Robbins et al. (2016), transformational leaders show interest in their followers by guiding and motivating them towards reaching their set goals. This style is concerned with the individual's achievements and it stimulates and encourages followers to walk the extra mile to attain organisational goals (Si & Wei, 2012). Followers are developed to be innovative and to take risks in order to assist leaders to achieve goals (Bass & Avolio, 1994)

Transformational leaders tend to be productive, and inspire their followers to be productive too. Their followers are more likely to familiarise themselves with determined goals as they believe that goals are aligned with the organisational strategy (Robbins et al., 2016). Transformational leadership factors include Idealised Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual

Stimulation and Individualised Consideration (Bass, 1990; Judge & Piccolo 2004):

- Idealised Influence: It is the degree to which the leader portrays a sense of reverence and trustworthiness in order to be recognised by his/her followers. The leader provides vision and a sense of mission, instils pride, gains respect and trust.
- Inspirational Motivation: It is when leaders apply high standards, communicate optimism about the goal achievement in future and offer assistance in the tasks that should be executed. This implies that the leader communicates high expectations, uses symbols to focus efforts and expresses important purposes in simple ways.
- Intellectual Stimulation: It is the degree to which the leader takes risks and inspires followers to share their ideas. The leader promotes intelligence, rationality, and careful problem solving.
- Individualised Consideration: It is the degree to which a leader focuses on each follower's essentials, coaches, and attends to the follower's wants. The leader gives personal attention, treats each employee individually, coaches and advises.

According to Sendjaya (2015) and Bass and Avolio (1994), apart from charisma there are two elements that are essential to convert the transformation process into reality, namely intellectual stimulation and individualisation. Individuals who identify themselves with transformational leadership proclaim that this style influences them to perform beyond expected levels of performance. Their followers are eager to do more than is required, because of their devotion, intrinsic work behaviour and the mission that compels them to surpass beyond required limits (Sendjaya, 2015). Since charisma is the significant concept fundamental to transformational leadership behaviour, attaining charisma in the eyes of one's employees is pivotal to succeeding as a leader.

Graham (1991) proposes two additional development behaviours in transformational leadership that acknowledge the followers' intrinsic competences of positive inspiration and allows the followers to query the leaders' supported opinions. According to Graham (1991), there are two shortcomings in Bass' (1985) model of transformational leadership, namely its manipulative leadership style and the incompatibility of the model with the original model on which it is based. Graham (1991) thus disputes that transformational leadership energises and promotes followers arguing that it keeps followers' weak and dependent. This implies that there is nothing in the transformational leadership model that says leaders should serve followers for the good of followers. However, Humphrey (2012) highlights that transformational leaders exhibit a leadership style that values followers' collective task performance, offer a platform to learn from common experience, and assign their followers the permission to perform learned experiences professionally. In order to understand transformational leadership, it is useful to compare it to transactional leadership as presented in Table 2.3 below.

Table 2.3

Comparison between Transactional Leadership and Transformational Leadership (Odumeru & Ogbonna, 2013).

Transactional Leadership	Transformational Leadership
Leadership is responsive.	Leadership is proactive.
Works within organisational structure.	Works to change the organisational culture by implementing new ideas.
Employees achieve objectives through rewards and punishments set by leader.	Employees achieve objectives through higher ideals and moral value.
Motivates followers by appealing to their own self.	Motivates followers by encouraging them to put group interests first.
Management-by-exception: maintains the status quo; stresses correct actions to improve performance.	Individualised consideration: each behaviour is directed to each individual to express consideration and support.
	Intellectual stimulation: promotes creative and innovative ideas to solve problems.

2.5.5 Servant Leadership

Greenleaf (1977) coined the term servant leadership (SL) following his career as a leader. This theory is based on his personal reading of Hesse (1956). This is a story about a spiritual pilgrimage, the Journey to the East (Greenleaf, 1977). According to (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 7)

“In the story we see a band of men on a mythical journey the central figure of the story is Leo, who accompanies the party as the servant who does their menial chores, but who also sustains them with his spirit and his song. He is a person of extraordinary presence. All goes well until Leo disappears. Then the group falls into disarray and the journey is abandoned. They cannot make it without the servant Leo. The narrator, one of the parties, after some years of wandering, finds Leo and is taken into the Order that had sponsored the journey. There he discovers that Leo, whom he had known first as servant, was in fact the titular head of the Order, its guiding spirit, a great and noble leader”.

The origin of SL has been taught and represented by Jesus Christ and His disciples over 2,000 years ago before the works of Hesse or Greenleaf. Jesus Christ showed in a most desirable way what it means to serve others through the symbolic act of foot-washing common to Palestinian Jews of His day (Ford, 1991). Greenleaf (1977) discovered Hesse’s character of Leo and became interested in the combination of servanthood and leadership. Leo’s leadership was exhibited through his competence to assist the group of pilgrims to attain a goal and through his servanthood which contributed to meeting their needs. It was Greenleaf (1977) who first introduced and circulated the notion of SL to the education and business arena.

According to Stone, Russell and Patterson (2004). The focus of SL is to empower, coach, train and develop followers into what they are capable of becoming. To define Greenleaf's paradigm shift, Spears (1998) identified the following ten characteristics of a servant-leader:

- Listening: A leader must be able to understand and know signals of their followers.
- Empathy: The leader must be able to identify the followers' needs and wants even if the followers refuse to obey instructions from their leaders.
- Healing: Leaders should be aware of their ability to assist individuals holistically, particularly individuals with whom they connect.
- Awareness: A leader must be able to view situations with a comprehensive and a broad picture.
- Persuasion: Leaders should be convincing rather than using their power in making decisions in an organisation. As a result they are in a better position to reach consensus within groups.
- Conceptualisation: The leader must have the ability to comprehend an encounter within the organisation objectively. This will allow the servant leadership to stretch their approach to the problem beyond the ordinary solution.
- Foresight: A leader should have the capability to apprehend encounters from the past with the aspects related to the present and probable repercussions of a decision in the near future.
- Stewardship: A leader must vow to always fulfil the necessities of those around you through the incorporation of transparency rather than dominance.
- Commitment to the growth of people: SL strikes a clear interest in the development of those within the organisation by involving subordinates in decision making and allowing recommendations from them.
- Building community: A leader must encourage a communal relationship within the organisation by promoting a sense of collectively amongst individuals.

A study conducted by Schneider and George (2011) reports about the positive influence of SL on the soft and hard measures of corporate performance in an organisation. Irrespective of conceptual differences in its focus, and comparative to other leadership approaches, their findings propose that servant leadership is a better predictor than transformational leadership in relation to a few key outcome variables.

These variables include team performance, employee satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to stay (Schneider & George, 2011). Greenleaf's (1977) notion of SL expresses the principle of leadership as the fundamental responsibility of leaders. Hence this style focuses on the needs and development of followers. Towards their followers, the servant leader ensures that "the highest priority needs are being served, which enables followers, while being served, to become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants" (Greenleaf, 1977 p. 27). The foundation of this model is based on four doctrines of moral authority (Greenleaf, 1977):

- Conscience in the essence of moral authority is sacrifice;
- Inspiring commitment to a worthy cause;
- Teaching that ends and means are inseparable; and
- Introducing the world of relationships.

Further studies by Sendjaya (2015) confirm the evidence for positive effects of SL on key organisational outcomes such as creativity and innovation, trust, organisational citizenship behaviour, job satisfaction and employee engagement. These studies are specifically of interest as they employed the multidimensional measure of Servant Leadership Behaviour Scale (SLBS) (Sendjaya, 2015). Another study by Northouse (2010) elucidates the servant leadership notion as focusing on recognising the values and behaviours of the leaders using the SLBS.

Compared to other leadership theories, there is little empirical evidence that proposes a leadership style that provides higher levels of outcomes than servant leadership (Peterson, Galvin & Lange, 2012). Hence SL is sometimes compared to charismatic, transformational, authentic and spiritual leadership (Sendjaya, 2015).

2.5.6 Ethical leadership theory

Ethical leadership plays an important role from an organisational viewpoint as it forms the philosophical and political arena. It is assumed that the leader is both a moral person and a moral manager (Yukl, 2013). This leadership theory encourages the followers to set ethical standards demonstrate their standards in measurement and resolutions inspire and underpin an ethical frame of reference as well as make judgement that symbolises ethical norms (Brown, Treviño & Harrison, 2005; Treviño, Brown & Hartman, 2003).

Research shows that followers of an ethical leader treat their leader as their hero, and as a result the leader stimulates followers to go above and beyond expectations by making an effort to do the job right (Brown, et al., 2005). Acknowledging the significance of leadership, it is envisaged in the literature that ethical leadership operates as a moderator between labour and work engagement (Brown & Mitchell, 2010; Newman, Guy & Mastracci, 2009). The moral dimension to leadership undertakes honesty and trustworthiness in a sense that the leader exhibits interest in his followers and shows respect towards them.

According to Christensen and Kohls (2003, p. 322), an ethical decision is defined as “a decision in which all stakeholders have been accorded intrinsic value by the decision-maker”. Hannah, Avolio and Walumbwa (2011) found in their study that moral courage is positively related to the extent to which followers behave ethically and refrain from unethical acts. This suggests that in order to promote moral courage, it is essential that leaders display moral perspective, self-awareness, and established transparency and openness

towards their followers (Christensen & Kohls, 2003). Moral courage is an intervening mechanism associating authentic leadership with followers' ethical behaviour. The findings of Hannah et al. (2011), discovered that authentic leadership may be an element in attracting follower moral courage.

2.6 AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP

2.6.1 Authenticity

The history of authenticity can be traced from Greek philosophy and is expressed by the Greek saying "Know Thyself" which was endorsed in the Temple of Apollo at Delphi (Parke & Wormell, 1956). Trilling (1972) argued that the origins of the word authentic can be traced down to the Greek word *authento* meaning "to have full power". Emanating from the positive psychology literature, Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) state that authenticity can be defined as acknowledging one's personal experiences, as well as the thoughts, emotions, needs, wants, preferences, or beliefs.

Harter, Schmidt and Hayes (2002) indicates that the concept authenticity formed the root of the Greek philosophy "To thine own be true" while the contemporary idea of authenticity only developed over the past 80 years.

Authenticity refers to acknowledging one's personal experiences (values, thoughts, emotions and beliefs), and acting in harmony with one's true self (expressing what you really think and believe and behaving accordingly (Harter et al., 2002).

According to Harter et al. (2002) historically, the definition of authenticity is being "true to oneself", a phrase first used by Shakespeare. Harter et al. (2002) extended what it means to be an authentic leader through a study and summary of several authentic constructs in the literature; arguing that authenticity tends to be evident during times of drastic social change. This theory is formed on the principle that when challenged with change, there is a

struggle between the individual's accountability for autonomy and freedom with the social responsibility to maintain the common norms and values of the community. According to Heidegger (1962), drastic social change is a requirement for observable authenticity. Kernis and Goldman (2006, p. 284) expanded on the idea of authentic functioning whereby they referred to an individual as the "master of his or her domain" by stating that "contemporary psychological views of authenticity owe a great deal of debt to the works of philosophy where authenticity is loosely set within topics such as metaphysics or ontology firmly entrenched in particular movements, such as existentialism or phenomenology, and localized to specific authors like Sartre or Heidegger.

The four vital mental and behavioural procedures that clarify how people realise and create a common sense are as follows (Kernis & Goldman, 2006):

- Authentic functioning of peoples;
- Self-understanding;
- Openness to objectively recognizing their ontological realities (e.g. evaluating their desirable and understanding self-aspects) and actions; and
- Orientation towards interpersonal relationships.

According to Fields (2007), authenticity must be associated with integrity which is defined as having personal values grounded in morality in order for the leader to be respected by employees and to be able to influence his actions. Nelder and Schriesheim (2011) stated that the concept authenticity has been the subject of great research interest recently and is considered by many to be the original construct establishing the foundations of all contemporary positive leadership theories.

2.6.2 The authentic leader

Authenticity, as applied to leadership, first became known from the fields of sociology and education (Chan, Hannah & Gardner, 2005). Whitehead (2009) defines an authentic leader as a person who is as follows:

- self-aware, modest, continuously pursuing progress, aware of those being directed and watches out for the wellbeing of others;
- nurtures a high extent of trust by fostering an ethical and moral framework; and
- is dedicated to organisational achievement within the concept of social values.

George and Sims (2007), describe authentic leaders as being genuine and truthful to what they believe in. These leaders stimulate trust and acquire genuine associations with others because their followers admire them and they motivate them to high levels of performance. Authentic leaders believe in doing things their own way rather than expecting others to guide them, and they prefer going their own way and being their own persons (Walumbwa et al., 2008). As they grow as authentic leaders, they focus more on serving others than obtaining individual achievements or credits.

Walumbwa et al. (2008; p. 94) state that authentic leadership (AL) is “a pattern of leader behaviour that draws upon and promotes both positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate, to foster greater self-awareness, an internalized moral perspective, balanced processing of information, and relational transparency on the part of leaders working with followers, fostering positive self-development.” Yukl (2013, p. 345) in turn states that “authentic leaders are leaders that have high-self-awareness about their values, beliefs, emotions, self-identities, and abilities”. Thus, AL means that the leader’s behaviour attracts and encourages psychological competencies in positive ethical environment that sustains self-awareness, an internalised moral perspective, balanced processing of information and extended openness of how leaders interact with the employees, encouraging positive self-development (Walumbwa et al., 2008). This leadership style is defined as the degree to which subordinates observe their leader exhibit the acceptance of organisational and personal obligation for actions, outcomes and mistakes; to be non-influencing subordinates; and to display a role over self (Henderson & Hoy, 1983).

The leadership tendency of being self-aware and self-regulating is well linked with the authenticity component of servant leadership (Avolio & Gardner; 2005). Both styles use constructive modelling to develop others (Sendjaya, 2015). A recent study discovered that leaders who hold outstanding moral reasoning do not necessarily display moral action regardless how authentic they understand themselves to be or others think they are (Sendjaya, Pekerti, Härtel, Hirst & Butarbutar, 2014). The same study realised that one might score high on authenticity and Machiavellianism, and that the two are equally elite. This finding can be justified by the need for authentic leaders to retain a sense of self-concordance, meaning they prefer to perform their role in harmony with their beliefs irrespective of the effort, or the results, or otherwise they should stop being morally authentic. Nevertheless, their self-concordance is completely grounded on their internal preferences instead of externally enforced values (Hannah et al., 2011).

According to Sendjaya (2015) as authenticity is assured by personal view of ethics and morality, it is reasonable for unethical leaders to entitle themselves as authentic as long as their behaviours are in line with their. Begley (2001) argued that authentic leaders may be regarded as a symbol for professionally operative, ethically healthy practices in educational administration. Hence this leadership is knowledge based. According to Ilies, Morgeson, and Nahrgang (2005) AL is described as leaders who are conscious of their beliefs and values, are self-confident, genuine, consistent and trustworthy; with emphasis on building followers' strengths, stretching their thinking and forming a positive and attractive organisational context. Shamir and Eilam's (2005) definition advocates that authentic leaders can be separated from less authentic or inauthentic leaders using the following four self-related characteristics:

- The degree of person-role merge;
- The level of self-concept clarity and the extent to which this clarity centres around strongly held values and convictions;
- The extent to which their goals are self-concordant; and

- The degree to which their behaviour is consistent with their self-concept.

This implies that authentic leaders do not fake leadership. Shamir and Eilam (2005, p. 396) indicate that authentic leaders provide a representation of their “true” and “real” self; and this leads them to the principle of a value-based mission. Authentic leaders are originals and not copies; they take responsibility for their actions based on their values and principles because there is consistency between what they say and do (Shamir & Eilam 2005).

Gardner et al. (2005) attempted to integrate these numerous viewpoints and definitions of authentic leadership to recommend a self-based model and follower development. The model emphasises the core self-awareness and self-regulation elements of authentic leadership (Gardner et al., 2005). Gardner et al., (2011, p. 1139) state that:

“Authentic leadership relational results seem to be positively related to personal identification, positive leader modelling, follower job satisfaction, trust in leadership, organisational commitment, follower work engagement, follower work happiness, and follower job performance among others, the available findings from quantitative studies provide support for the predictions advanced by and derived from authentic leadership theory”.

Spitzmuller and Ilies (2010) highlight that authentic leaders frequently reflect on whether their deeds are dependable on them, confirming that their integrity takes priority over external control practices. Clapp-Smith et al. (2009) also confirm that the issue is not with the leader’s personal authenticity, but in the manner in which that authenticity can be expressed to others in order to motivate them to work towards common goal attainment. According to Sosik and Cameron (2010), personal intelligence may assist authentic leaders to be

more self-aware about how they present themselves to others within their surroundings. Leaders who exhibit such self-awareness are associated with positive leadership outcomes such as career advancement, promotions, managerial effectiveness and a high level of followers' trust.

Literature indicates that different schools of thought attempted to understand the elements that determine the effectiveness of leaders based on the work of Bass (1985) and Burns (1978), which gave rise to the idea of charismatic, transformational and visionary leadership and neo-charismatic approaches. A research study by Bass and Steidlmeiers (1999) on transformational leadership gave rise to an argument on the subject of authenticity in the field of leadership. In terms of AL in health care, a study conducted with nurses indicated that AL is labelled as the core element of actual leadership needed to build an ethical and healthier work setting in order to advocate excellence in care (Avolio et al., 2004).

2.6.3 Dimensions of authentic leadership

Kernis (2003) acknowledged four elements of authenticity as awareness, unbiased processing, action and relational. Each of these elements is integrated into the proposed model of AL and follower development. Ilies et al. (2005) specified an additional discussion of these elements of authenticity and their association to leaders and followers' well-being. Kernis and Goldman (2006) describe the AL dimensions as follows:

- Awareness: Understanding and believing in one's opinions, aims and views.
- Unbiased processing: Awareness of one's positive and negative dimensions.
- Behaviour/action: Performing according to ones' values and needs, unlike performing as if you are pleasing others or avoiding punishment.
- Relational orientation: Accomplishing and appreciating honesty and faithfulness of one's close relationship.

Deci and Ryan (2000) modified and simplified empirical research developments regarding the functionality methods by which authenticity increases self-esteem. In a study conducted by Kernis (2003), authenticity scores were positively associated with life satisfaction and high self-esteem, while they are negatively associated with contingent self-esteem. Avolio and Gardner (2005) developed the social psychological constructs and urged that moral development was a requirement for AL advancement. Moral development occurs when an authentic leader disclaims unethical behaviours as it transpires and creates a mutual ethical culture. Followers are likely to copy this ethical culture when faced with ethical dilemma, because ethical behaviour is the pattern entrenched in their belief system (Lord & Brown, 2004).

For the first time Ilies et al. (2005) termed the construct of AL as a four-factor model including self-awareness, unbiased processing, internalised moral perspective and authentic relational orientation. Walumbwa and colleagues validated these dimensions through a study in the USA (individualist country) and in China (collective country) to construct a theory based measure (Walumbwa et al., 2008). Table 2.6 below sets out the development of the AL dimensions in chronological order.

Table 2.4

The Development of AL Dimensions in Chronological Age (Walumbwa et al., 2008)

Authentic leadership dimensions	SOURCE
Authenticity, intentionality, spirituality, and sensibility.	Bhindi and Duignan (1997)
Pursuing purpose with passion; practising solid values; leading with heart; establishing enduring relationships; demonstrating self-discipline.	George (2003)
Hopeful, open-ended, visionary and creative.	Begley, (2004)
Values/moral perspective knowledge, and strength, confident, hopeful, resilient and high moral.	Avolio and Gardner (2005)
Self-awareness, positive self-regulation, positive self-development, and/or a positive moral perspective.	Cooper, Scandura, & Schriesheim (2005)
Awareness of the values and beliefs, self-confident, genuine, reliable and trustworthy, and focus on building followers' strengths, broadening their thinking and creating a positive and engaging organizational context.	Ilies et al. (2005)
Awareness, unbiased processing, relational orientation, and behaviour/action.	Kernis and Goldman, (2006)
Self-awareness, balanced processing, relational transparency, and an internalised moral perspective.	Walumbwa, et al. (2008)

A review of the literature modification of some of the four dimensions to show both the conceptual and empirical awareness about their structure as presented below (Gardner et al., 2005):

- Unbiased processing of information was replaced by the dimension of balanced processing acknowledging that all individuals are naturally biased and processors of information, particularly concerning self-relevant.

- The behaviour/action dimension was retitled internalised moral perspective to enhance the leaders' reflection towards assurance to core ethical values.
- Supplementary, two dimensions of internalised regulation and moral perspective that had earlier been suggested to be theoretically dissimilar were joined to form the internalised moral perspective component (Gardner et al., 2005). These dimensions could not be reliably differentiated because both exhibit behaviour that is stable with internal standards and values (Walumbwa et al., 2008).
- The four-component model of AL was operationalised and validated by Walumbwa and colleagues using the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

For the purposes of this study, the AL model characterised by the following four dimensions was used (Walumbwa et al., 2008):

- Self-awareness: Exhibiting the knowledge of how leaders understand the world and their own strengths and weaknesses.
- Relational transparency: Revealing how the leader portrays a true and authentic self.
- Internalised moral perspective: Showing self-regulation and personal moral standard.
- Balanced processing: This implies how leaders petition and accurately contemplate other opinions.

2.6.4 Factors that influence authentic leadership behaviour

Research has shown that there are various factors which influence AL behaviour (Brown & Treviño, 2006) and these factors are discussed below.

2.6.4.1 *Age*

Research investigating the relationship between age and AL is still scarce. Different studies have been reported on the relationship between ethical decision making and age (Sweeney, Arnold & Pierce, 2010). However, preliminary evidence supports the relationship between AL and several behavioural elements to be a significant predictor of followers' satisfaction. Bateman and Valentine (2010) argued that age and ethical decision-making correlated significantly. Age is regarded as an aspect that influences the individual's levels of engagement, commitment, satisfaction and citizenship behaviour (Swaminathan & Jawahar, 2013).

2.6.4.2 *Gender*

According to Monzani, Hernandez Bark, Van Dick and Peiro (2015), the dissimilarities between female and male managers relate to problems at work due to gender and leadership role expectations. Furthermore, because of the dissimilarities, it is difficult for female leaders to identify themselves as authentic leaders (Monzani et al., 2015). Although gender roles seem to be changing, recent research demonstrates that gender roles still significantly differ for females and males in leadership (Bosak & Sczesney, 2011). The surfacing of bettering forms of leadership changed the traditional leader-centric and influence-based focus into a follower-centred and growth-oriented viewpoint (Avolio, 2007).

Irrespective of many positive work outcomes for organisations linked to highly effective managers (e.g. reduced turnover, higher work commitment, satisfaction or extra behaviours (Riketta, 2005), it is believed that authenticity not only energises the managers to grow their followers authentically, but also to re-shape their followers' anticipations to be more corresponding with female role beliefs (Monzani et al., 2015).

The debate around AL is complicated by gender socialisation (Gardiner, 2015). Gender socialisation is the reason why many male leaders concentrate on authenticity as self-knowledge and self-reliance (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Instead, there are scholarly explanations of authenticity that surface from allegedly gender-neutral actions (Gardiner, 2015; Shaw, 2010; Sinclair, 2013). Matters unrelated to leaders' success, such as overweight, having grey hair, or displaying poor dress sense, may have an undesirable outcome on their leadership. It is still imperative to appreciate how gender norms affect the perception of leaders (Gardiner, 2015).

2.6.4.3 *Trust*

Research assessing the relationship between trust and AL is also limited. A study by Clapp-Smith et al., (2009) established AL to be positively related to employee performance reflecting trust in the leader. According to Luthans, Norman and Hughes (2006) trust is the principle of classic social exchange. The important requirement for a trustworthy relationship is openness, which in turn is an element of relational transparency. As leaders recognise the importance of relational transparency, the leader-follower relationship will lead to trust, which will result in a positive/healthy psychological contract (Rousseau, 1995).

Followers as employees may choose to trust the organisation on the basis of the trust that the leader exhibits (Sendjaya & Pekerti, 2010). Norman, Avolio and Luthans (2010) established that the leader displays the level of positive psychological competencies that have a positive relationship with the follower's alleged trust in the leader. It is also essential that, via their moral traits, leaders can exhibit their affection reflexion for others; if there is no empathy, trust cannot be built (George et al., 2007). The dominant components that develop employees' trust for their leaders are integrity, goodwill, and professional competency (Colquitt, Scott & LePine, 2007)

When followers recognise that they are genuinely supported and considered, they improve their engagement at work. Earning employees' trust is a crucial aspect of being an efficient leader. It plays a pivotal role in the relationship between individuals and organisations. The main concerns previously were "trust in whom?" (Perry & Mankin, 2004). Avolio, Gardner et al. (2004) revealed that employees' trust in leadership is linked with positive attitudes and behaviour. In addition, Dirk and Ferrin (2002) concurred that when employees identify with their leaders, trust will prevail and they will be eager to engage in their work.

In their meta-analysis, Dirk and Ferrin (2002) established that trust in leaders is associated with the selection of important organisational outcomes such as organisational citizenship behaviours, high satisfaction with leaders, and low employee turnover. Trust plays a negotiating role between the leader's actions and attitudinal elements, such as job satisfaction, while it has no mediating impact on organisational citizenship behaviours, which is a behavioural outcome. In other words, there is an interchangeable effect between trust and employees' attitudes in those employees that acknowledge their leader as trustworthy. Their well-being can be positively changed, and they will be productive in their work. When the employees consider their leader to be authentic, the ambition of employees to reciprocate freely improves, which in turn generates trust and dependency; and assists employees to be fully productive (Dirk and Ferrin, 2002).

2.6.4.4 *Values*

Values have been defined as morals that exceed specific situations and can be ranked in terms of relative importance (Jimenez-Lopez, Roales-Nieto, Seco & Preciado, 2016). Leaders are defined by their values and behaviours. Values of authentic leader are formed by personal beliefs, acquired through study, introspection, discussion with others and life-time experience. These values define the leader's moral scope (George, 2003). Interacting with others around a shared purpose and values becomes possible when you can feel the

association of your own purpose and values with those of your organisation. This enables employees to trust the leader, increase commitment and produce higher levels of performance (Craig, George & Snook, 2015). Such leaders acknowledge the truth about their moral scope and the sense of doing the right thing. Integrity is one element that is required in every authentic leader, while the development of basic values is crucial (George, 2003).

Through reflection, authentic leaders can be transparent with regard to their core values, identity and motives or goals (Gardner et al., 2005). Kernis (2003) concurred with Gardner et al. (2005) by stating that self-awareness is a process during which individuals reflect upon their unique values, identity, emotions and motives or goals. Internalised values can be defined as conceptions of the desirable that guide the way social actors (e.g. organisational leaders, policy-makers, individual persons) select actions, evaluate people and events, and explain their actions and evaluations (Schwartz, 1999). Sheldon and Elliot's (1999), self-concordance model of goal striving states that people accomplish higher levels of personal growth when the goals set are suitable for their actual value, needs and interests.

2.7 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP AND ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR VARIABLES

AL is somewhat new, and already there have been several empirical studies associating it to work attitudes and outcomes, not much research has been conducted in the health care context (Wong & Laschinger, 2013). Studies have indicated a positive relationship between AL and performance (Clapp-Smith et al., 2009; Walumbwa et al., 2008), organisational citizenship behaviour (Peus, Wesche, Streicher, Braun & Frey, 2012), psychological empowerment (Walumbwa et al., 2010), trust in management (Clapp-Smith et al., 2009; Walumbwa et al., 2010), organisational commitment (Peus et al., 2012), and work engagement (Walumbwa et al., 2010).

A survey by Wong and Laschinger (2013) found that nurses' perception of their managers' AL positively predicted trust in the manager, work engagement, voice behaviour, and perceptions of unit care in an acute care nurses in Ontario. The results indicate that AL has a direct influence on trust and an indirect influence on work engagement. Furthermore, Giallonardo, Wong and Iwasiw (2010) examined the influence of preceptors' AL on new graduate nurses' work attitudes (work engagement and job satisfaction), and found that these AL preceptors were meaningfully and positively correlated to work engagement.

To date, research has related AL to positive work attitudes and behaviours (Spence Laschinger, Wong & Grau, 2013). Laschinger, Finegan and Wilk (2011) confirmed this effect by using an additional model. However, the model is an all-inclusive interpretation of leadership that monitors behaviours that are confined by many general leadership models (George, 2003). For example, leaders who exhibit integrity in addition to charisma did demonstrate the ability to achieve over time (McCall & Lombardo, 1983). Though AL correlates with work engagement, the correlation between it and burnout has not been empirically established (Laschinger et al., 2013).

Research has also related AL to positive work attitudes such as job satisfaction and impartial performance in a few studies. It is reasonable to envisage that authentic leaders may manipulate job satisfaction and performance via its influence on structural empowerment (Wong & Laschinger, 2013). This advocates humane creativity and accomplishes sustainable positive outcomes in an organisation.

Emphasis on research focusing on the topic of AL has recently steadily increased in both real-world (George, 2003) and academic domains (Avolio et al., 2004). The reason for this focus is that AL is recognised as an original concept of all positive forms of leadership and in addressing organisational and societal problems (George, 2003).

2.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the construct of AL was defined and conceptualised. The chapter started with a discussion of the differences between management and leadership, including a description of leadership. Different approaches to leadership were explained which included the trait, behavioural, situational and contemporary approaches. The next chapter will focus on the second construct of this study which is organisational commitment.

CHAPTER 3: ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The construct organisational commitment (OC) is conceptualised in this chapter, focussing on its theoretical definition and a model of the construct. The chapter also describes factors that influence OC. The chapter will conclude with a discussion of the theoretical relationship between OC and authentic leadership (AL).

3.2 DEFINITION OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

According to Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), all definitions of OC acknowledge the idea that commitment is a compelling energy that directs employees' behaviour. The absence of an agreement on the definition of commitment has significantly lead to the description of OC as a multidimensional construct (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Scholl (1981) and Brown (1996) propose that commitment inspires behaviour independently of other intentions and attitudes. Hence commitment differs from motivation or general attitudes. For example, commitment can make an individual behave in a way when observed by a neutral observer that might appear opposing to their own self-interest (Pallant, 2013).

Employees' OC is a multidimensional construct that can accommodate a variety of methods and has the capability to encourage organisational effectiveness and employee wellbeing (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). According to McNeese-Smith and Crook (2003), commitment is defined as the relative strength of an individual's identification with an attachment in a certain organisation. This identification can be symbolised through the following three related factors (McNeese-Smith & Crook, 2003):

- A strong belief in and adherence to an organisation's goals and values;
- Readiness to exercise significant energy on behalf of the organisation;
- and

- A strong wish to maintain membership of the organisation.

Literature indicates that different forms of commitment depend on the organisation's operational policies and procedures (Lee, Magnini & Kim 2011; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). DeCotiis and Summers (1987) divided the OC concept into two elements. The first element relates to the internalisation of organisational goals and values, while the second element relates to an individual's ability to achieve organisational goals and adhere to its values. Meyer, Stanley and Parfyonova (2012) emphasised that OC is a psychological state or mind-set that attaches an individual to the organisation. According to Tsai and Huang (2008), such commitment encompasses the strongest emotional element and embraces common interests, principles, values and goals.

According to Meyer and Allen (1997) commitment refers to an individual's devotion to an organisation. It is displayed through an individual's intention to stay and endure during any course of action. There are two noticeable ongoing organisational concerns faced by managers, and they include stimulating commitment of employees and staff retention (Chew & Chan, 2008). The manner in which the organisation is committed to its employees and vice versa proves that both the leader and the followers trust each other (Shahnawaz & Tafri, 2009).

The construct OC has been labelled and calculated in different ways (Allen & Meyer, 1990). It has been the target of an immense deal of empirical study, both as being meaningful, significant and antecedent of some work-related variables. Jacobs and Roodt (2007) conceptualises commitment in their study as an attachment between employees and their companies. OC is the way in which employees are connected to their organisation (Shahnawaz & Tafri 2009). Literature also states that it is a basic component of an outcome of whether or not an employee discovers meaning in his work (Vander et al., 2006).

OC refers to the relative intensity of an individual's identification with and involvement in a specific organisation (Ezirim, Nwibere, & Emecheta, 2012). It emphasises an individual's identification with and participation in an organisation. Mowday et al. (1979, 1982) further add to the description of this construct by distinguishing the following three factors linked to OC:

- Having trust in the organisation's goals and values;
- Being willing to exert reasonable energy on behalf of the organisation; and
- Having a powerful longing to remain in the organisation.

A study in a hospital conducted by Jacobs and Roodt (2007), found that employees who are committed to their jobs are less likely to leave their jobs due to the interest and longing to satisfy the patients' needs. Hence OC has also been a widespread research topic of retention rather than job satisfaction. Employees become loyal to their organisation before developing attitudes such as job satisfaction (Neininger et al., 2010). For the organisation to accomplish its mission and vision, it is dependent on its employees' commitment to their job. This means that a highly committed pool of employees positively leads to an increased retention rate, decreases operating costs and advocates employee performance. Liou (2008) defines OC as a common expression that incorporates an active relationship with an organisation, such that individuals become to empower themselves by participating in the organisation's well-being.

Different conceptualisations of the construct OC are also reflected in the manner in which researchers measure this construct. Utapo (2003) measured commitment in two ways, namely agreeing to values and objectives and longing to stay in the organisation. However, Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber (2009) as well as (Quevedo, 2006) measured it in three ways, namely recognising the organisational objectives, being involved with the organisational obligations and being faithful to the organisation.

OC has been defined generally by Allen and Meyer (1996, p. 252) as “a psychological link between the employee and the organisation that makes it less likely that the employee will voluntarily leave the organisation”. Employees work in different organisations and are supported by ethical work climates that are formed by the policies and procedures of the organisations (Treviño, Butterfield & McCabe, 1998). These structures provide an explanatory outline that affect the experiences of employees in organisations and influence their commitment to their organisation (Cullen, Parboteeah & Victor, 2003).

3.3 A MODEL OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Meyer and Allen (1997) developed a Three Component Model (TCM) which measures three dimensions of Organisational Commitment, namely Affective, Continuance and Normative commitment. This model suggests that employees with a strong Affective Commitment (high ACS) stay because they want to, those with strong Normative Commitment (high NCS) stay because they feel they ought to, and those with strong Continuance Commitment (high CCS) stay because they have to do so (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Employees who are committed to the organisation are assessed through these three concepts to determine the nature of their commitment. These concepts are depicted in figure 3.1 below.



Figure 3.1. A Model of Organisational Commitment (AL-Abrow & Abrishamkar, 2013, p. 298).

Meyer and Allen (1997) found that employees who want to remain in their jobs (high ACS) have a tendency to achieve at higher level than those who do not want to stay in their jobs. Employees who do not take their responsibilities seriously (high NCS) but want to remain in their jobs, also have a tendency to accomplish more than those who feel uncommitted (low NCS). The three dimensions of the Three Component Model shown in Figure 3.1 are discussed in more detail below.

3.3.1 Affective commitment

Affective Commitment refers to an emotional affiliation towards an organisation; it is the power of an individual's association with the organisation. Kliuchinkov (2011) describes Affective Commitment as "an

emotional bond between an individual and an organisation". Hence Affective Commitment is measured by an individual's longing to stay with the employer (Liou, 2008). An employee's Affective Commitment is reliant on the employees' positive feelings towards the organisation. It is the nature of organisational policies and activities that promote a positive relationship between an employee and the organisation. Meyer and Allen (1997) highlight that employees with a strong Affective Commitment stay because they want to; hence they are more likely to continue with their work responsibilities.

Recent research has shown that Affective Commitment of employees is vital for business leaders if they are to attract, motivate and retain key talent (Morrow, 2011). Affective Commitment establishes emotional bonds that can cause employees to create a sense of responsibility and duty to their organisations. Another study conducted by Kim and Miller (2008) reported a direct link between ethical work environment and Affective Commitment in the tourism industry of Korea. Furthermore, Martin (2008) states that employees cannot behave in a manner that suggests that they are being forced to stay with the employer even if they are not happy. Literature also indicates that career development is essential for increasing employees' Affective Commitment to their organisations and for diminishing their intentions to resign (Manetje, 2006). Morrow (2011) demonstrated that Affective Commitment results in positive job attitudes and affects outcomes such as employee's intention to leave the organisation.

3.3.2 Continuance commitment

Mowday et al. (1982, p. 26) state that "continuance commitment relates to the process by which individuals become locked into certain organisations and how they deal with this problem". Hence Continuance Commitment is interpreted based on the existing benefits that employees are fearful of losing by leaving their employer (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Hafer & Martin, 2006). This means that employees tend to compromise the benefits of their staying with the organisation against the cost of changing jobs and starting all over again

(Allen & Meyer, 1990). Continuance refers to the commitment of an employee in relation to the cost that he will incur when leaving the organisation (due to the high cost of leaving). In this case the an employee remains with the employer because of the alleged loss of sunken costs (Ezirim et al., 2012).

According to Ledimo (2015) and Manetje and Martins (2009) lack of job alternatives and positive work experiences lead to the development of Continuance Commitment. As a result an employee tends to stay in an organisation when he has invested a great deal of time and effort in it (Nguyen, Felfe & Fookan 2014). According to Tolentino (2013), this kind of commitment is based on the value that an employee obtains from the organisation. Owing to this kind of commitment, employees stay because they are afraid of losing something of value such as benefits or their positions of seniority.

3.3.3 Normative commitment

Normative Commitment refers to the extent to which an individual stays with an employer due to a sense of obligation (Manetje & Martins, 2009). For instance, individuals may feel that they are obliged to stay with their employer because they think that it is morally right to continue carrying out their duties (Meyer & Allen, 1991). An organisation may also invest more resources in training and developing an individual, who then feels normatively obliged to stay with their employer (Kuo, 2013).

In terms of Normative Commitment, employees feel that it is the right thing to remain with the organisation as they feel at home with the organisation of their choice (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Hence Normative Commitment is different from Affective Commitment because it signals an impression of ethical obligation rather than emotional attachment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). This kind of commitment is measured by an individual's sense of obligation to the employer (Tolentino 2013; Ledimo, 2015).

3.4 FACTORS INFLUENCING ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

The influence of individual differences on OC and organisational outcomes seems to be complex (Lee & Peccei, 2007). Various factors have been found to influence OC behaviours, and these factors are discussed in more detail below.

3.4.1 Age and gender

There are several studies conducted on the relationship between gender, age and OC. Ledimo (2015) argues that these studies present contradictory results on the relationship between commitment and these biographical factors. Hence the relationship between these factors and OC is not conclusive in nature. In a study conducted by Kriel (2008), it was found that there is a statistically significant positive correlation between the age of respondents and Affective Commitment. The results of the study indicated that the majority of the gender reporting to the Administration Manager Dataset happened to be females. Ferreira and Coetzee (2010) established that older people tend to be affectively and normatively more committed to their organisations than their younger counterparts.

Contrary to the above studies, Cohen (1993) established that there is a negative relationship between OC and age. The justification for this relationship is based on the argument that younger employees might be more committed because they are aware of their lack of experience and have less job opportunities. This implies that as soon as they gain experience, alternative employment opportunities may increase for them. As a result, this may decrease the perception of the extent of the cost of leaving the organisation rather than being unemployed. Meyer and Allen (1984) suggest that the levels of OC differ across different age groups because low correlation of commitment with age indicates that the relationships are not easy or direct, but mediated by employment stages. Another study on age found that older employees tend to be more efficient and affectively

committed to their organisation than younger counterparts (Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010). Researchers have also discovered that age is a factor that controls individual levels of engagement, satisfaction and commitment (Schaufeli, Bakkerand & Salanova, 2006; Swaminathan & Jawahar, 2013).

According to Wang (2014), women who perform well in their work environment are likely to be engaged, satisfied and committed to their organisation, they are inclined to engage in flexible behaviour that promotes the functioning of the organisation. Coetzee, Schreuder and Tladinyane (2007) also found that male counterparts in the service industry appeared to be committed to an organisation that provides them with the independence to do their jobs, while females tended to be committed to an organisation that respects person and family concerns. Older people who enjoy a higher level of ethical beliefs and who are not influenced by peer pressure are likely to perceive their work environment as being favourable and are prepared to go an extra mile or engage in activities that benefit the employer (Wang, 2014).

3.4.2 Trust

Organisational trust is another factor that is critical because it enhances the success of the organisation (Fard & Karimi, 2015). All forms of commitment should be differentiated from organisational trust because trust refers to the level of acknowledging control while commitment emphasises attachment. Nyhan (1999) established that there is a positive relationship between trust and Affective Commitment across three public sector organisations. This study suggests that an increase in trust yields an increase in commitment. Hence employees are inclined to be happy with their leader because they have developed trust in the leader's intentions, going beyond the transactional basis for trust (Avolio, 1999).

According to Gardner et al. (2005), trust in leadership is mainly guided by a leader's actions and values. It has been proven through meta-analysis that trust in the leader is linked to improved levels of job satisfaction,

organisational citizenship behaviours, organisational and goal commitment, and job performance among followers (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Research has also demonstrated that an employee's perception of company layoffs and frequency of reorganisation are associated with OC and trust (Perry, 2004).

3.4.3 Values

Values are defined by Jimenez-Lopez et al. (2016, p. 80) as “abstract beliefs about desirable end states or behaviours that transcend specific situations, guide evaluation and behaviour and can be rank-ordered in terms of relative importance”. The significance of ethical values has been highlighted by theorists within the field of organisational psychology. Horton, Tschudin and Forget (2007, p. 717) also describe values as “what is important, worthwhile and worth striving for”. Values represent basic beliefs of what is right, good or anticipated, and motivate both social and professional behaviours (Jimenez-Lopez et al., 2016).

Maben, Latter Macleod and Clark (2007) indicated that values that are developed during nursing training can be endorsed to the many ethical codes and requirements imposed on students nurses while training. It is recommended that core values, which include being ethically responsible and accountable, are essential for any profession. Values also define who we are as individuals; contrary to this society, culture, morals and beliefs that influence how individual personal values are defined (Horton et al., 2007). Professional behaviour is influenced by personal values (Hammell, & Whalley, 2013). Most studies have agreed that values, attitudes and beliefs of employees have an influence on the organisation's culture (Manley, 2004; Tillott, Walsh & Moxham, 2013). Huang, You and Tsai (2012) discovered that the assumption of employees concerning ethical work climate has a significant relationship with the organisation, including Affective, Normative and Continuance Commitment.

The definition of Affective Commitment stresses the employee bond with the organisation, attracted by things such as acceptance of organisational goals, values and a strong wish to connect with the organisation (Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1974). Greenberg (1999, p. 87) also concur that Affective Commitment is “the strength of people’s desires to continue working for an organisation because they agree with its underlying goals and values”. This implies that when an employee is in agreement with his/her organisation’s values, the employee develops Affective Commitment to his/her organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

3.5 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND ORGANISATIONAL OUTCOMES

OC has often been associated with various organisational outcomes or variables (Ledimo, 2015). The following section explores OC in relations to job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour, employee retention and employee engagement.

3.5.1 Job satisfaction

The concept job satisfaction refers to an employee’s affective responses to a job based on a variety of elements (Field, 2005). According to Spector (2000), job satisfaction is the extent to which employees enjoy their jobs, while job dissatisfaction is the extent to which employees are not happy with their jobs. In general, research revealed that overall job satisfaction is a significant predictor of OC because individual elements of job satisfaction manipulate OC to changeable degrees (Rutherford, Boles, Hamwi, Madupalli & Rutherford, 2009).

Martins and Coetzee (2007) state that job satisfaction is closely associated with employee satisfaction as it refers to a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from an employee’s appraisal of his organisation. This suggests that employee satisfaction is closely linked to job satisfaction and

intention to stay or leave the employer. In their study, Sempane, Rieger and Roodt (2002) demonstrated that job satisfaction does not occur in isolation, as it relies on organisational variables such as size, pay, policies and procedures, leadership and working conditions which form part of the organisational climate. Both job satisfaction and performance attention need to be observed by the organisation (Bowling, 2007). Job satisfaction is one of those experiences that makes it hard for an individual to make a choice of leaving or staying with their employer, irrespective of available opportunities outside the organisation (Martins & Coetzee, 2007). Hence job dissatisfaction is associated with high absenteeism and turnover rates (Ledimo, 2012).

A study conducted by Fu and Deshpande (2012) established that there is a positive relationship between ethical behaviour, job satisfaction and OC. This finding highlighted that high job satisfaction leads to a strong OC. According to MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne (1998), job satisfaction is a determinant of OC. Job satisfaction can be considered as an outcome of a job, resulting from what an individual wants in a job in comparison to the real outcomes that the job offers the individual (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2002).

3.5.2 Organisational citizenship behaviour

According to Bolino and Turnley (2003), organisational citizenship behaviour is characterised by employees' ability to go an extra mile for organisational success. It is rare to obtain a level of organisational effectiveness with individuals who are only focusing on their daily job specifications (Tsai & Huang, 2008). Hence managers tend to support organisational citizenship behaviours to increase organisational effectiveness (Organ & Podsakoff, 2006). Employees who exhibit fulfilment physically, mentally, emotionally and spiritually with their work environment are expected to have strong relationships with their colleagues. They portray a good alignment between their personal goals and organisational values; which reflects that their job is more than just a "job" and they are prepared to go an extra mile as an act of organisational citizenship (Millian, Czaplewski & Ferguson, 2003).

Literature indicates that organisational citizenship behaviour enables employees to perform above their job requirements, hence successful organisations benefit from those employees who perform beyond expectations (Podsakoff et al., 2009). Neininger et al. (2009) in their study established that OC is characterised by positive attitudes that affects an employees' intentions to resign, citizenship behaviour, performance and job satisfaction.

3.5.3 Employee retention

Netswera, Rankhumise and Mavundla (2005) describe employee retention factors as issues that influence an individual to stay or to leave an organisation, depending on the individual's choice. There are six critical factors that are required in the retention of employees, namely training and development opportunities, compensation, work life-balance, supervisor support, career opportunity and job characteristics (Dockel & Coetzee, 2006). A study conducted in the IT industry also revealed that shortages in IT professionals are as a result of high turnover of employees in the industry due to low OC based on an unethical organisational climate (Oz, 2001).

Employee retention, productivity, quality orientation and corporate financial success are indicated as outcomes of high-performance and high-commitment strategies. The aim of retention policies is to recognise and preserve committed employees on the merits of profitability to both the employee and the employer (Sutherland & Jordaan, 2004). Most measures of OC were established to predict employee retention (Meyer, Becker & Vandenberghe, 2004). Hence retention is considered to be a motivating goal for employees to stay with their organisation (Meyer et al., 2004). For organisations to increase staff retention and commitment, Kraimer, Seibert, Wayne, Liden and Bravo (2011) found that organisations can offer programmes and training opportunities that support employee growth and development.

3.5.4 Employee engagement

Employee engagement is a state which is positive, fulfilling, and is symbolised by vigour, dedication and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2006). Towers (2007) conducted employee surveys among 90 000 employees in 18 countries and defines engagement as the employees' eagerness and ability to contribute to the organisation's success. According to Saks (2006), individuals who continue to engage themselves by performing according to the required standards, do so because of the continuation of favourable reciprocal exchanges. Hence individuals who are committed to their work are more likely to have more trusting and high-quality relationships with their employer and will, therefore, be more likely to demonstrate more positive attitudes and intentions toward the organisation.

Markos and Sridevi (2010) by state that engagement is the extent to which employees go the extra mile and put uncommitted capability into their work, contributing more of their energy, creativity and love for their work. Saks (2006) states that engaged employees are normally attached to their organisation. Research supports the notion that organisations with high levels of employee engagement have positive organisational results (Shuck & Wollard, 2010; Truss et al.,2006). Employee engagement is closely associated to job satisfaction and employee commitment. Literature also indicates that employees who are engaged, are emotionally obsessed, highly committed to their jobs, and display great willingness to go the extra mile (Ledimo, 2012; Markos & Sridev, 2010).

Employee engagement provides structure and encourages employees to dedicate their time, loyalty and commitment in order to meet the customer's needs (Kuo, 2013). Most studies have found that there is a positive relationship between employee engagement and Affective Commitment (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner & Schaufeli, 2001; Hakanen et al., 2006; Saks, 2006). Another study by Schaufeli and Salanova (2007) discovered that when employee engagement levels increase the levels of OC also increase.

Saks (2006) also found that amongst 102 employees working in a variety of jobs for a study in Canada, employee engagement symbolises a mediating role in the relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and factors such as job satisfaction, OC and intention to quit. In their study, Albdour and Altarawneh (2014) established that employee engagement correlated positively with Affective and Normative Commitment and negatively with Continuance Commitment. These results are similar to those of Saks (2006).

3.6 THEORETICAL RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

According to Kliuchinkov (2011), there is a positive relationship between AL and Affective and Normative Commitment. Luthans and Avolio (2009, p. 303) regard AL as “very basic, genuine elements of positive leadership development”. Hence followers are able to identify with the leaders’ personality, wants and desires (personal identification) as well as their role-position as a leader and as an agent for the entire organisation. OC is also described as an element that reflects the connection and identification of the individual to the organisation (Samad, 2005). This identification influence followers’ OC (Avolio et al., 2004).

AL also promotes moral-and-value-based on OC, as both Affective and Normative types of commitment are embedded in values and morality. A study by Kliuchinkov (2011) demonstrated that there is a correlation between AL and two types of organisational commitment namely, Affective and Normative in an Commitment. AL is considered as a strategy to promote commitment of employees in failing Ukrainian and Russian businesses and the study demonstrated that this leadership style is important in improving OC that is built on ethical values (Kliuchinkov, 2011).

Public service organisations are currently faced with various challenges. The global economic collapse calls for the formation of a new leadership style to

overcome first-time financial pressures, and to enhance productivity and quality services (Hafford-Letchfield, 2010). Discussions about the current leadership in organisations reflect concerns and challenges faced by organisation to source leaders who are skilled to lead the public workforce (Brookes, 2011).

Leroy, Palanski and Simons (2012) established that AL is related to a leader's behavioural integrity and to his followers' Affective Commitment. AL directs followers' recognition of the organisation because the leaders are considered as being honest. This influences followers to align their words and actions, thus making it easier for them to trust their leader and identify with their leader as an organisational agent (Leroy et al., 2012), a leader's integrity is related to follower work role performance, and this effect is fully negotiated through follower's OC. Research by Simmons (2008) and Vogelgesang et al. (2013) revealed that when leaders demonstrate transparent communication and abide by the act of communication, the association between their words and actions stimulate a perception of a leader as having integrity among followers, and determine the establishment of an effective leader-follower relationship. Therefore, leaders are expected to convey the importance of a goal by talking the talk and choose actions that are in line with those goals through walking the talk, then followers are inclined to prioritise organisational goals in performing their jobs (Halbesleben et al., 2013; Simons, 2008).

Literature indicates that various relationships have been established between the leader's integrity and the follower's outcomes such as increased job performance (Palanski & Yammarino, 2007; Vogelgesang et al., 2013), organisational citizenship behaviours, (Dineen, Lewicki, Tomlinso, 2006), OC (Leroy et al., 2012) and work engagement (Vogelgesang et al., 2013). It is a fact that unexpected events occur speedily and often in hospitals, and every patient is unique with regard to medical history, genetics, medications, and allergies. Leaders in this situation cannot be available for all employees every time when a problem occurs, hence leaders are expected to communicate with their employees in a way that empowers them to act on their own.

Empowerment enhances performance in an organisation at different levels such as individual, group and organisational (Maynard, Gilson & Mathieu, 2012).

A study was conducted to validate the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire compared to the construct AL. It was found that AL was related to OC and stimulates the followers to become more engaged and committed to organisational goals (Walumbwa et al., 2008). Jensen and Luthans (2006) confirmed this relationship by establishing that AL is a strong predictor of OC. In addition, Peterson et al. (2012), in their results across two studies found that AL predicted followers' job performance through its influence on followers' positive emotions. Employees' perception of AL tends to moderate or influence their commitment and trust to the leadership and organisation (Avolio et al., 2004). Luthans and Avolio (2009) also indicated in their findings that AL is a valid construct in determining the outcome performance of the organisation.

Walumbwa et al. (2011) established that the construct AL includes a mediator of trust at an organisational or group level. Additional studies performed by Ilies et al. (2005) as well Avolio et al. (2004) also confirmed that AL is an important organisational performance construct. Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004) argued that transparent relationships and authentic leaders' inspired employees to be more engaged and to be committed to the objectives of their organisation. Jensen and Luthans (2006) supported this theoretical relationship by demonstrating that AL is a strong predictor of OC.

It is evident from the above studies discussed in this section that there is a positive relationship between AL and OC, either directly or indirectly. Yet, there is dearth of research in the South African context regarding this relationship. During the literature review there were no studies that could be found which investigated the relationship between AL and OC especially in the Healthcare sector in South Africa. To address this gap in theory, the aim

of this study is to determine the relationship between AL and OC in a State Hospital in South Africa.

3.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The concept organisational commitment was conceptualised in this chapter, focusing on its theoretical definition and a model of the construct. The chapter also described factors that influence OC. The chapter concluded with a discussion of the theoretical relationship between AL and OC. In the next chapter the research methodology will be discussed.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the research methodology is discussed. The discussion focusses on the research design, the research approach and the research method. As part of the research method, the population, sample and measuring instruments are discussed. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the research procedure and statistical analysis conducted.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Mouton and Marais (1996), a research design refers to the process applied in the collection and analysis of data as a method related to the significance of the research purpose. It is a research plan that is created to maximise the validity and the reliability of the findings; subject to the costs, limitations and practical complications of doing the research study (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013).

4.3 RESEARCH APPROACH

A quantitative, non-experimental research approach was used to gather data for the statistical analysis (Salkind, 2012). Babbie (2010) indicates that participants might be screened according to specific selection criteria, with care taken to ensure representation of important segments of the population. The group of participants does not constitute a fully representative microcosm of the relevant population.

Primary data were collected through the administration of paper-and-pencil measuring instruments for data analysis purposes. This approach was used as a cross-sectional survey to obtain a snap-shot at one point in time of a sample which provides data that can be generalised to the population under study (Babbie, 2010).

4.4 RESEARCH METHOD

4.4.1 Population and sample

Howell (1988, p.6) defines a population as “the complete set of events in which you are interested”, while Neuman (1997) states that a population creates a process of systematically selecting cases for inclusion in a research project. The population for this study consisted of all employees (5000) of a State Hospital (SH) in Gauteng, South Africa.

Probability sampling was used to identify a sample of 222 participants. According to Babbie (2010) probability sampling will ensure that all members of the population will have an equal chance of being selected as part of the sample. The sample of participants consists of males and females ranging in ages from 16 to 70 years from all occupational levels and job levels in the organisation.

The selected sample of participants was considered an adequate representation of the population for survey purposes because the sample is a 4.4% representation of the total population in this organisation (Babbie, 2010; Wiley, 2010) A representative sample is the key to ensure the internal and external validity of a study. Babbie (2010) indicates that internal validity is the extent to which a study can rule out alternative explanations of the results and external validity is the degree to which the conclusions in a study would hold for other persons in other places and at other times.

4.4.2 Measuring instruments

Two instruments were used to gather data for this study. The construct authentic leadership (AL) was measured using the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) and the construct organisational commitment (OC) was measured through the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ).

4.4.2.1 Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ)

Development and purpose of ALQ: The Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) was developed by Walumbwa et al. (2008) to measure the construct AL.

Dimensions of ALQ: The four dimensions of the AL are measured by 16 statements which represent the behavioural indicators of authentic leaders based on his/her followers' perceptions. The four dimensions are self-awareness, relational transparency, internalised moral perspective and balanced processing, which are set out in table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1

ALQ Dimensions and Items

AL dimension	Number of items
1. Self-awareness	4
2. Relational transparency	4
3. Internalised moral perspective	4
4. Balanced processing	4
Total	16

Validity and reliability of ALQ: According to Law, Wong and Mobey (1998), the ALQ produced the following high internal reliability scores for self-awareness: (0.73); relational transparency (0.77); internalised moral perspective (0.73) and balanced processing, (0.70). Clapp-Smith et al. (2009) in their recent study confirmed the validity of the ALQ, stating that each of the dimensions and overall 16-item scale demonstrated high internal reliability. A confirmatory factor analysis was also conducted to ensure consistent item loading and it displayed factor-analytic fit (Clapp-Smith et al., 2009; Walumba et al., 2008).

Description and administration of ALQ: The ALQ is a self-rating instrument using a 5-point Likert rating scale where 1 is highly unlikely and 5 is highly likely. Examples of the items of the ALQ are presented per dimension in table 4.2 below.

Table 4.2

Example of ALQ Dimensions Statements (Walumba et al., 2008)

ALQ dimension	Example of items
Self-awareness	My supervisor knows when it is time to re-evaluate his or her positions on important issues
Relational transparency	My supervisor says exactly what he or she means
Internalised moral perspective	My supervisor makes difficult decisions based on high standards of ethical conduct
Balanced processing	My supervisor listens carefully to different points of view before coming to conclusions

Justification for using the ALQ: The ALQ was used to measure AL in this study because it had been shown to be a reliable instrument (Law et al., 1998). It is also considered as one of only a few available instruments to measure the construct AL (Walumbwa et al., 2008). See Appendix A for an example of the ALQ.

4.4.2.2 Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

Development and purpose of OCQ: The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) was developed by Meyer and Allen (1997) to measure the perceptions of organisational members regarding the construct OC.

Dimensions of OCQ: The three dimensions of OC which are measured by OCQ: are Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment and Normative Commitment (Meyer & 1997). An overall OCQ score is also derived based on

the scores of the three dimensions. Table 4.3 below indicates the three OC dimensions and the number of items used to measure each dimension.

Table 4.3

OCQ Dimensions and Items

OCQ dimensions	Number of items
Affective commitment	8
Continuance commitment	8
Normative commitment	8
Total	24

Validity and reliability of OCQ: Each of the subscales and the overall 24-item scale demonstrated adequate internal reliability. Meyer, Allen and Smith, (1993) obtained the following reliability scores for the OCQ dimensions: Affective Commitment (0.82): Continuance Commitment (0.74) and Normative Commitment (0.83). The median reliabilities for the Affective, Continuance and Normative scales were found to be 0.85, 0.79 and 0.73 respectively (Meyer et al., 1993). In addition to demonstrating the instrument's validity (convergent and discriminant validity), the items also demonstrate internal reliability of more than 0.7, which is above the recommended minimum value of 0.7 by Nunnally (1978).

Description and administration of OCQ: The OCQ is a self-rating measure and uses a 6-point Likert rating scale where 1 is strongly disagree and 6 is strongly agree. Examples of the items for the dimensions of the OCQ are indicated in table 4.4 below.

Table 4.4

Example of OCQ Dimensions Statements (Meyer & Allen 1997)

OCQ dimensions	Example of items
Affective commitment	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation
Continuance commitment	It will be costly for me to leave my organisation now
Normative commitment	I believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organisation

Justification for using ALQ: In terms of this study, the OCQ's reliability and validity were the basis of choosing the instrument to measure OC. It is considered to be aligned to the conceptualisation of OC in this study as a three dimensional construct (Meyer & Allen 1997; Mowday et al., 1982).

4.5 RESEARCH PROCEDURE

As a requirement by the South African Department of Health, permission to conduct the research was obtained from the Research Committee of the Faculty of Health at the University of Pretoria (UP) and the Chair of the Development Department (CoD) of the State Hospital (SH). Institutional ethical clearance was also obtained from University of South Africa's Ethics Committee, in the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology (IOP) as the supervising department.

To adhere to ethical practices during data collection, the researcher's contact details were included in the participants' Informed Consent Form to enable participants to contact the researcher. This form also enlightened the participants about the purpose of the study, the voluntary nature of participation, anonymity of the data and their right to get feedback of the results. The two questionnaires as measuring instruments of the variables for this study together with the Biographical Form were distributed to the sample participants (n=222) for completion. Clear instructions for all questionnaires

were provided for ease of completion by participants. Participants were provided with a return envelope with the researcher's address to send completed questionnaires and to enhance the confidentiality of the data collection process. See Appendix B for an example of the Biographical Form, and Appendix C for an example of the Informed Consent Form. Furthermore, the researcher provided participants with a deadline for returning completed questionnaires.

4.6 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Statistical analysis was carried out using the IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 23 (IBM, 2015).

In terms of descriptive statistics, frequencies, means and standard deviations were used to describe the sample (Clark & Watson, 1995; Field, 2005). Frequency distributions show the number of observations falling into each number of the graph and it allows the researcher to see the general characteristics of a particular variable of the participants in the research (Clark & Watson, 1995). Mean and standard deviations were calculated in order to identify the distribution of scores on the measuring instruments (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000).

Cronbach's alpha was used to determine the reliability of the two measurement instruments (Field, 2005). It is an ideal measure of reliability between the variables. In this study a Cronbach alpha of .60 is considered as low, a Cronbach alpha of .70 is regarded as acceptable and a Cronbach alpha of .90 is considered to be high (Bernardi, 1994). Nunnally (1978, p. 245) noted that "for the purpose of basic analysis, Cronbach alpha should be at least .70, and that it is better to have the alpha closer to .80".

In order to determine the relationship between AL and OC, Pearson's Correlation Coefficient was used (Cohen, 1992). Finally, regression analysis as a form of inferential analysis was considered relevant in this study to

determine to what the degree AL could predict OC (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

4.7 FORMULATION OF HYPOTHESIS

Research hypotheses were formulated as part of the study to indicate a possible relationship between AL and OC.

The following hypotheses were formulated:

- H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between AL and OC.
- H1: There is a statistically significant relationship between AL and overall OC.
- H2: There is a statistically significant relationship AL and the OC dimension of Affective Commitment.
- H3: There is a statistically significant relationship between AL and the OC dimension of Continuance Commitment.
- H4: There is a statistically significant relationship between AL and OC dimension of Normative Commitment

The research hypotheses will be tested by analysing the statistical relationship between AL and OC.

4.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter the research methodology was discussed. The discussion focussed on the research design, the research approach and the research method. As part of the research method, the population, sample and measuring instruments were discussed. The chapter concluded with a discussion of the research procedure and the conduction of the statistical analysis. In the next chapter the research results are discussed.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 5 presents the research results of this empirical study. Descriptive statistics in the form of frequency distributions, means and standard deviations will be discussed and the reliability of the two measuring instruments is also described. The chapter also focuses on the correlation coefficients results to determine the relationship between authentic leadership and organisational commitment. In conclusion, this chapter presents the inferential results based on the regression analysis to establish the ability of authentic leadership to predict organisational commitment.

5.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics in the form of frequency distributions, means and standard deviations are presented based on the responses of the research participants in the sample to the Biographical Questionnaire and the measuring instruments.

5.2.1 Biographical information

Frequency distributions were calculated to reflect the distribution of the biographical information of the participants in the sample, namely years of service, age, race, gender, job level, educational level, job classification and business unit/department. According to Tredoux and Durrkheim (2002, p. 19) “a frequency distribution is a graphical representation of a data set indicating the set of scores on a variable together with their frequency”. Table 5.1 below displays the characteristics and frequency distributions of the sample.

Table 5.1

Biographical Characteristics and Frequency Distributions of the Sample (n = 222)

Characteristics	Category	Frequency	Percentage %	Cumulative %
Years of service	0 to 1 year	41	18.47	18.47
	2 to 3 years	23	10.36	28.83
	4 to 5 years	45	20.27	49.01
	6 to 10 years	47	21.17	70.27
	11and 15 years	24	10.81	81.08
	16 years and longer	42	18.92	100
	Total	222	100%	100%
Age	22 years and younger	85	38.29	38.29
	23 years to 34 years	89	40.09	78.38
	53 years and above	48	21.62	100
	Total	222	100%	100%
Race	African	197	89.14	89.14
	Coloured	8	03.62	92.76
	Indian	4	01.81	94.57
	White	12	05.43	100
	Total	222	100%	100%
Gender	Male	42	18.92	18.92

	Female	180	81.08	100
	Total	222	100%	100%
Job Level	Top Management	2	00.9	00.9
	Executive Management	3	01.35	2.25
	Manager	25	11.26	13.51
	Supervisor	30	13.51	27.02
	Employee	162	72.97	100
	Total	222	100%	100%
Educational Level	Grade 8 and below	9	04.05	04.05
	Grades 9 to 10	9	04.05	08.1
	Grades 11 to 12	25	11.26	19.36
	Certificate	49	22.07	41.43
	Diploma	84	37.84	79.27
	1st Degree	23	10.36	89.63
	Post-graduate Qualification	23	10.36	100
	Total	222	100%	100%
Job Classification	Management	19	08.56	8.56
	Professional	134	60.36	68.92
	Technical Specialist	3	01.35	70.27
	Administrative	29	13.06	83.33
	Auxiliary Services	33	14.86	

	Sales and Marketing	1	00.45	98.19
	Finance	1	00.45	98.64
	Other	2	00.9	100
	Total	222	100%	100%
Business Unit/Department	Ward Services	153	68.9	68.9
	Theatre	5	11.26	80.16
	Admissions	14	06.31	86.47
	Emergency Services	9	04.05	90.52
	Customer Services	8	03.6	94.12
	Finance	4	01.8	95.92
	Human Resources	4	01.8	97.72
	Information Technology	2	00.9	98.62
	Public Relations	1	00.45	100
	Total	222	100%	100%

Years of service: The frequency distributions of the sample indicated that the majority of the sample had 10 years of services (41.44%), while in terms of the lowest years of service, 10.36% of the sample only had 0 to 5 years of service.

Age: With regard to age, the frequency distributions of the sample reflect that the majority of the participants are between 24 to 34 years of age (40.09%), while participants aged from 53 and above were the least (21.62%).

Race: This category revealed that 89.14% of the samples were Africans, while the smallest race group of participants are Indians with 1.81%.

Gender: Female participants were the most with 81.08% while male participants that took part in the study were fewer at 18.92%.

Job level: With regard to job level, the majority of the samples were general employees. Only 0.9% of the sample was top management.

Educational level: The majority of the sample had a Diploma as their highest educational level (37.84%). Participants with the lowest educational level completed (Grade 8) comprised only 4.05% of the sample.

Job classification: The participants consisted mainly of professionals (60.36%), while sales and marketing as well as finance had the lowest number of participants at 00.45% each.

Business Unit/ Department: The majority of participants are employed in Ward Services (68.90%) while the smallest number (0.45%) was in public relations.

In summary, the majority of the sample had between 4 and 10 years of service, were younger than 34 years old and were black female professional employees with a post-school certificate or diploma and work in the hospital's Ward Services.

5.2.2 Descriptive statistics: Measurement instruments

Means were used in this study as a measure of central tendency to present the scores generated for each of the four dimensions of the ALQ and the three dimensions of the OCQ. Standard deviations were also used to estimate the degree to which responses differed from the mean response (Salkind, 2012).

5.2.2.1 Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ)

Table 5.2 below depicts the means and standard deviations for the four dimensions of the ALQ.

Table 5.2

Means and Standard Deviations for the Four ALQ Dimensions (n = 222)

ALQ dimensions	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
Self-awareness	2.00	5.00	3.98	0.58
Internalised moral perspective	2.50	5.00	4.11	0.57
Balanced processing	1.75	5.00	3.82	0.70
Relational processing	1.75	5.00	3.89	0.67
Overall Authentic Leadership			3.95	0.50

Mean scores of the ALQ dimensions ranged from a high of 4.11 to a low 3.82. The results indicate that the participants obtained the highest mean score for Internalised Moral Perspective (M = 4.11; SD = 0.57) followed by Self-Awareness (M = 3.98; SD = 0.58); Relational Processing (M = 3.89; SD = 0.67) and lastly Balanced Processing (M = 3.82; SD = 0.70).

Participants' above average perception of their leaders' Internalised Moral Perspective suggests that they regard their leaders as showing strong self-regulation and personal moral standards in their roles. Overall, the

participants in this study demonstrated an above average perception of the variable authentic leadership (M = 3.95; 0.50).

5.2.2.2 Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

Table 5.3 below shows the means and standard deviations for the three dimensions of the OCQ.

Table 5.3:

Means and Standard Deviations for the Three OCQ Dimensions (n = 222)

OCQ dimensions	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
Affective commitment	1.00	5.00	3.38	0.97
Continuance commitment	1.38	5.00	3.23	0.84
Normative commitment	1.75	5.00	3.56	0.79
Overall organisational commitment			3.39	0.69

The OCQ measurement instrument mean scores ranged from a high of 3.56 to a low of 3.23. In terms of the three dimensions scores, participants indicated above average perceptions in all dimensions with the highest mean score for Normative Commitment (M = 3.56; SD = 0.79); followed by Affective Commitment (M = 3.38; SD = 0.97), and lastly Continuance Commitment (M = 3.23; SD = 0.84).

Participants' above average perception of their commitment levels for these three dimensions of organisational commitment suggest that their intentions to remain with the organisation is either based on normative, affective or continuance reasons. Overall, the participants demonstrated an above average perception of OC (M = 3.95; 0.50) in this study.

5.3 RELIABILITY OF THE MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENTS

The reliability of the two measurement instruments was determined by calculating their Cronbach's alphas. According to Pallant (2013), a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.70 is acceptable for research purposes, while coefficients of 0.80 and higher are considered to be more than acceptable. These criteria were used to determine the reliability of the measuring instruments and their dimensions in this study.

5.3.1 Reliability of the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ)

Table 5.4 below indicates that the ALQ as a measure of Overall AL has an internal consistency of 0.82. This reliability score is considered to be high and more than acceptable for this study (Pallant, 2013).

Table 5.4

Reliability of the ALQ (n = 222)

ALQ dimensions	Cronbach's alpha coefficients
Self-awareness	0.49
Self-awareness	0.52
Balanced processing	0.57
Relational processing	0.47
Overall authentic leadership	0.82

The reliability scores for the four dimensions of the ALQ varied between 0.47 for Relational Processing to 0.57 for Balance Processing, which are considered low and unacceptable for this research (Pallant, 2013). A study by Walumbwa et al. (2008) also obtained low similar reliability scores in their use of the ALQ. Owing to the relatively low reliability scores obtained for the four sub-dimensions of the ALQ, only the Overall AL score was used for further analysis in this study due to its acceptable reliability level.

5.3.2 Reliability of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

Table 5.5 below indicates that the reliability score of the OCQ as a measure of Overall OC has an internal consistence of 0.89, which is considered to be high and acceptable for this study (Pallant, 2013).

Table 5.5

Reliability of the OCQ (n = 222)

OCQ dimensions	Cronbach's alpha coefficients
Affective commitment	0.90
Continuance commitment	0.78
Normative commitment	0.79
Overall organisational commitment	0.89

With regard to the OCQ dimensions, table 5.5 indicates that the reliability scores for the three dimensions of the OCQ varied between 0.90 for Affective Commitment to 0.78 for Continuance Commitment. In terms of the reliability criterion, all dimensions demonstrated high reliability scores and are considered to be more than acceptable for this study (Pallant, 2013). Hence, the Overall OC and the scores of the three OCQ dimensions were used for further analysis in this study.

5.4 INFERENCE STATISTICS

The following discussion focuses on the inferential statistics conducted using correlation coefficients and regression analysis.

5.4.1 Correlation coefficients

The main aim of this study was to determine whether there is a statistically significant relationship between AL and OC. In order to determine this relationship, the Pearson's Product Moment correlation coefficients were

firstly calculated between the Overall ALQ score and the Overall OCQ score. Secondly, the Pearson's Product Moment correlation coefficients were also calculated between the Overall ALQ score and the three dimensions of the OCQ. According to Mukaka (2012), a correlation coefficient of less than 0.3 indicates a weak statistical relationship between variables, a correlation coefficient between 0.3 and 0.6 indicates an average statistical relationship, while a correlation coefficient above 0.6 indicates a strong statistical relationship. For this study, relationships will be considered to be statistically significant at the 0.05 level (Pallant, 2013).

Table 5.6 below indicates the correlations obtained between the overall scores of the ALQ and OCQ dimensions.

Table 5.6:

Correlations between the ALQ and the OCQ Dimensions

Variables	Overall authentic leadership	Overall organisational commitment	Affective commitment	Continuance commitment	Normative commitment
Authentic leadership	1				
Organisational commitment	.19* + r	1			
Affective commitment	.12* + r	.79***+++ r	1		
Continuance commitment	.13*+ r	.80*** +++ r	.37** ++ r	1	
Normative commitment	.20* + r	.79*** +++ r	.41** ++ r	.57 *** +++ r	1

*** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$ (two-tailed) +++ $r \geq 0.50$ (large practical effect size) ++ $r \geq 0.30 \leq 0.49$ (medium practical effect size) + $r \leq 0.29$ (small practical effect size).

The results indicate that there are statistically significant relationships between AL and OC and all the dimensions of OC. ($r \geq .12 \geq r \geq .80$; small to large practical effect; $p \leq .05$). A statistically significant positive correlation is evident between Overall AL and Overall OC ($r = .19$; small practical effect; $p \leq .05$). Results also reflect a statistical significant positive correlation between

Overall AL and the OC dimensions, namely: Affective Commitment ($r = .12$; small practical effect; $p \leq .05$); Continuance Commitment ($r = .13$; small practical effect; $p \leq .05$) and Normative Commitment ($r = .20$; small practical effect; $p \leq .05$).

In terms of the inter-correlations between Overall OC and its dimensions, the results also show that Overall OC correlates positively and significantly with Affective Commitment ($r = .79$; large practical effect; $p \leq .05$), Continuance Commitment ($r = .80$; large practical effect; $p \leq .05$), and Normative Commitment ($r = .79$; large practical effect; $p \leq .05$). These results are supported by similar results obtained by Kliuchnikov (2011).

Statistically significant positive correlations were observed between Affective and Continuance Commitment ($r = .37$; medium practical effect; $p \leq .05$), and Normative Commitment ($r = .41$; medium practical effect; $p \leq .05$). A statistically significant positive correlation was also obtained between Continuance Commitment and Normative Commitment ($r = .57$; large practical effect; $p \leq .05$).

The correlation coefficients obtained between Overall AL and the OC dimensions, although all statistically significant at the 0.05 level, were all of small practical effect, ranging from a low of 0.12 to a high of 0.20. These small correlations indicate that the relationships between the variables were weak, despite being statistically significant.

5.4.2 Multiple regression analysis

Four standard regression analyses were conducted with AL as the independent variable and OC and its three dimensions as the dependent variables. The purpose of the regression analysis was to establish whether AL could predict OC and its dimensions (Pallant, 2013). The results of the regression analyses are presented in tables 5.7, 5.8, 5.9, and 5.10 below.

Table 5.7

Model Summary of the Standard Multiple Regression Analysis with Authentic Leadership as the Independent Variable and Organisational Commitment as the Dependent Variable

Variables	Coefficients					t	ρ
	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients		Std error		
	Beta	Std error	Beta				
Constant	2.34	0.37				6.38	0.000
Overall	0.27	0.09.	0.19	0.09		2.89	0.004
Authentic Leadership							

$\rho \leq 0.05$

Model	Anova			Model Summary		
	Sum of Squares	df	F	Sig (ρ)	R Square	Adjusted R Square
Regression	3.87783	1	8.38	0.004	0.04	0.03
Residual	100.93576	218				
Total	104.81358	219				

* $\rho \leq 0.05$

Table 5.7 indicates that AL accounted for a statistically significant amount of variance in OC (adjusted $r^2 = 0.03$, $F(1,218) = 8.38$, $p \leq 0.05$). This implies that that 3% of the variance of OC can be attributed to AL.

Table 5.8:

Model Summary of Standard multiple Regression Analysis with Authentic Leadership as the Independent Variable and Affective Commitment as the Dependent Variable

Variables	Coefficients					t	ρ
	Unstandardised		Standardised		Std error		
	coefficients		coefficients				
	Beta	Std error	Beta				
Constant	2.43	0.52				4.68	0.000
Overall	0.24	0.13.	0.12	0.013		1.82	0.070
Authentic Leadership							

$\rho \leq 0.05$

Model	Anova				Model Summary	
	Sum of Squares	df	F	Sig (ρ)	R Square	Adjusted R Square
Regression	3.10590	1	3.33	0.07	0.02	0.01
Residual	203.62783	218				
Total	206.73374	219				

* $\rho \leq 0.05$ (two tailed)

Table 5.8 indicates that AL did not account for a statistically significant amount of variance in Affective Commitment (adjusted $r^2 = 0.01$, $F(1,218) = 3.33$, $p \geq 0.05$). The results suggest that only 1% of the variance of Affective Commitment can be explained by AL.

Table 5.9

Model Summary of the Standard Multiple Regression Analysis with Authentic Leadership as the Independent Variable and Continuance Commitment as the Dependent Variable

Variables	Coefficients					t	ρ
	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients		Std error		
	Beta	Std error	Beta				
Constant	2.31	0.45				5.13	0.000
Overall	0.24	0.11	0.14	0.11		2.09	0.04
Authentic Leadership							

$\rho \leq 0.05$

Model	Anova			Model Summary		
	Sum of Squares	df	F	Sig (ρ)	R Square	Adjusted R Square
Regression	3.04716	1	4.36	0.34	0.02	0.02
Residual	152.32288	218				
Total	155.37004	219				

* $\rho \leq 0.05$ (two tailed)

Table 5.9 indicates that AL did not account for a statistically significant amount of variance in Continuance Commitment (adjusted $r^2 = 0.02$, $F(1.218) = 4.36$, $p \leq 0.05$). The results indicate that AL could not predict the dimension of Continuance Commitment.

Table 5.10

Model Summary of the standard Multiple Regression Analysis with Authentic Leadership as the Independent Variable and Normative Commitment as the Dependent Variable

Variables	Coefficients					t	ρ
	Unstandardised		Standardised		Std error		
	coefficients		coefficients				
	Beta	Std error	Beta				
Constant	2.28	0.42				5.49	0.000
Overall	0.32	0.10	0.20	0.10		3.09	0.002
Authentic Leadership							

$\rho \leq 0.05$

Model	Anova				Model Summary	
	Sum of Squares	df	F	Sig (ρ)	R Square	Adjusted R Square
Regression	5.67609	1	9.52	0.002	0.04	0.04
Residual	130.00782	218				
Total	165.68391	219				

* $\rho \leq 0.05$ (two tailed)

Table 5.10 indicates that AL accounted for a statistically significant amount of variance in the dimension of Normative Commitment (adjusted $r^2 = 0.04$, $F(1,218) = 9.52$, $\rho \leq 0.05$). This means that 4% of the variance of Normative Commitment can be explained by AL.

In summary, AL was able to predict Overall OC (3%), and one of its dimensions, namely Normative Commitment (4%), all at the $\rho \leq 0.05$ level of significance. However, AL was unable to significantly predict the dimensions of Continuance Commitment and Affective Commitment. Although two of the regression scores obtained in this study were statistically significant, the

amount of variance they explained was extremely small, ranging from a low of 3% to a high of 4%. This contradicts similar studies by Kliuchnikov (2011). These results indicate that AL can predict the Overall Normative Commitment of employees in a State Hospital in South Africa.

5.5 INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

5.5.1 Biographical information

The majority of participants (41.44%) had 6 to 10 years of service with the State Hospital. In terms of age, and of the respondents were aged between 23 and 34 years of age (40.09%), with only 21.62% being 53 years of age and above. Regarding race, African participants were the majority. The biographical profile of the participants' gender indicates that there are more females in the sample than males.

The State Hospital in this study could therefore be described as a female-dominated work environment, due to the traditional roles of the nursing and administrative positions that are preferred by women. In terms of job position, the profiles of the participants indicate that they are mostly general employees, followed by supervisors, managers and executive management. Top management constituted a small part of sample. With regard to the participants' highest qualifications the majority of participants' had a post-school certificate or Diploma while the majority were employed in the Business Unit or department known as Ward Services.

5.5.2 ALQ and OCQ Scores

Regarding AL, participants obtained the highest mean score for Internalised Moral Perspective (4.11), followed by Self-Awareness (3.98), Relational Processing (3.89) and Balanced Processing (3.82). These results indicate that the participants in the sample perceived their leaders at the State Hospital in this study as being authentic. Their leaders' self-identity and awareness of

their deeply held values encourages positive moral judgement of employees (Al Hassan, Saher, Zahid, Gull, Aslam & Aslam 2013). The current findings are in line with different studies conducted in various organisations by Avolio and Gardner (2005) and Mazutis and Slawinski (2007), which found that AL promotes the self-regulatory process and assists employees to obtain clarity about shared moral values and emotions (Al Hassan et al., 2013).

In terms of OC, the high mean scores obtained for Affective Commitment (3.38) indicate that participants in the sample feel committed owing to their desire to work for the State Hospital in this study. The Normative Commitment score (3.56) suggests that participants in the State Hospital feel that they have an obligation to remain with the organisation because they ought to. High mean scores for Normative Commitment in this study compares well with similar findings reported by Allen and Meyer (1990), Spector (2008), Suliman and Ilse (2000) and Coetzee et al. (2007). These findings suggested that employees have a sense of obligation towards their employer because of their own values being met or owing to favours done for the employees by their organisation.

The high mean score obtained for Continuance Commitment (3.23) reflects a positive perception of this dimension. The findings suggest that participants are reluctant to leave the State Hospital because of the high cost involved in leaving. This is based on their preference for working in a secure and stable work environment, which is typical of state owned organisations. According to Spector (2008), Continuance Commitment develops because of the benefits accrued from working for the organisation and lack of available alternative jobs. The researcher is of the opinion that the need for a secure and stable work environment (Continuance Commitment) that was identified by the majority of employees at the State Hospital in this study could be due to aspects such as the current economic recession being experienced world-wide. Factors affecting the South African economy in particular are load shedding, strikes, fees must fall movement as well as the demands for the insourcing of security guards, cleaners and garden services. These aspects

have led to an increase in retrenchments in many organisations and a general feeling of insecurity among employees. As such, most employees at the State Hospital may feel that they would rather remain with their current organisation than face the insecurity of finding alternative employment.

5.5.3 Reliability of measuring instruments

The ALQ demonstrated an acceptable level of internal consistency (0.82). It was observed that the reliability scores obtained for the four dimensions of AL were below the required acceptable cut-off point (dimension results 0.47, 0.49, 0.52 and 0.57, respectively). It can therefore be concluded that for this study the ALQ was a reliable instrument for measuring Overall AL (0.82) but not for measuring the individual dimensions of AL. The high reliability score obtained for the Overall AL score is supported by results obtained by Walumba et al. (2008).

Regarding the OCQ, the Overall OC measure demonstrated acceptable reliability (0.89). The three OC dimensions namely Affective, Continuance and Normative Commitment (0.90, 0.78 and 0.79) indicated acceptable internal consistency. It can therefore be concluded that for this study the OCQ was a reliable instrument for measuring OC and its dimensions. The high reliability scores obtained for the OCQ are supported by results (Pallant, 2013)

5.5.4 Correlations between AL and OC

The following original hypotheses were formulated for this study and presented in chapters 1 and 4:

- H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between AL and OC.
- H1: There is a statistically significant relationship between AL and OC.
- H2: There is a statistically significant relationship between AL and the dimension Affective Commitment.

- H3: There is a statistically significant relationship between AL and the dimension Continuance Commitment.
- H4: There is a statistically significant relationship between AL and the dimension Normative Commitment.

The results of this study support H1 which hypothesised that there is a statistically significant relationship between AL and OC. This implies that employees who perceive their leaders as authentic are likely to be committed to their organisation. Hence employees are inclined to identify and to be involved in the organisational goals and values. These findings are in line with the study by Kliuchnikov (2011) that found that AL related positively to employees' level of OC. Hence the null hypothesis (H0) is rejected and the research hypothesis (H1) is accepted.

Findings of this study also support H2, which hypothesised that there is a statistically significant relationship between AL and the dimension Affective Commitment. This implies that there is a positive relationship between an authentic leader's moral viewpoint and development of authentic followers who share the leader's values and beliefs, and OC. Hence followers are inclined to associate themselves with the organisation when such a relationship exists (Gardner et al., 2011; Javaid, Luqman, Amir & Umair, 2015; Jensen & Luthans, 2006; Shamir & Eilam, 2005;). The results also indicate a positive relationship between authentic leader and the dimension Continuance Commitment. This suggests that the expectation of the AL to be transparent and truthful assists employees to have confidence in the organisation's future (Gardner., et al 2011; Northouse, 2007).

In summary, table 5.11 below indicates that owing to the empirical results obtained in this study, the null hypothesis (H0) was rejected while all four of the research hypotheses were accepted. However, the researcher is of the opinion that these relationships, although statistically significant, should be interpreted with caution due to the low correlation coefficients obtained between the variables.

Table 5.11

Summary: Acceptance and Rejection of Hypotheses

Hypotheses	Decision
H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between AL and OC.	Rejected
H1: There is a statistically significant relationship AL and OC.	Accepted
H2: There is a statistically significant relationship between AL and the dimension Affective Commitment.	Accepted
H3: There is a statistically significant relationship between AL and the dimension Continuance Commitment.	Accepted
H4: There is a statistically significant relationship between AL and the dimension Normative Commitment.	Accepted

The researcher is of the opinion that these low correlation coefficients obtained could also be an indication that AL is not the most appropriate leadership style to ensure the commitment of employees in a State Hospital in South Africa. State hospitals are faced with numerous challenges, such as ineffective management, a lack of personnel and other resources, long working hours and stressful working conditions. Perhaps employees require different leaders who will apply other approaches, yet the leaders should be respected for their integrity to ensure their commitment to the healthcare environment. It is assumed that employees might be more committed if they had leaders who inspired them, created a vision for them, paid individual attention to them, and stimulated their creativity. However, these opinions would have to be researched to determine their credibility.

5.5.5 Regression Analysis

The results of the standard regression analyses conducted indicate that AL could significantly predict Overall OC. However, the amount of variance explained by AL regarding the relationship between this construct and the two dimensions of OC (Affective and Continuance Commitment) were extremely low. These results indicate that there could be other variables that were not

measured in this study, or which could play a more important role than AL, in predicting the three dimensions of OC (Ramos & Yudko, 2006).

5.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the research results. Descriptive statistics in the form of frequency distributions, means and standard deviations were presented, followed by a discussion of the reliability results obtained for the two measuring instruments. The chapter focused on the correlation coefficients results to determine the relationship between authentic leadership and organisational commitment. In conclusion, the chapter presented the inferential results based on the regression analysis to establish the ability of authentic leadership to predict organisational commitment. In the next chapter the conclusions, limitations and recommendations will be discussed.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the conclusions, limitations and recommendations of the study will be discussed. The chapter will start with the conclusions reached regarding the general aim, literature aims, empirical aims as well as research hypotheses of the study. Thereafter the limitations of the study will be discussed and suggestions for further research will be made. Recommendations for the participating State Hospital will also be made, and the chapter will be concluded with the recommendations for the field of IOP regarding AL and OC.

6.2 CONCLUSIONS REGARDING THE AIMS OF THE STUDY

6.2.1 Conclusions regarding the specific literature aims of the study

The specific literature aims of the study were the following:

6.2.1.1 Conceptualisation of the construct authentic leadership

The literature review aim of conceptualising the construct authentic leadership was achieved in Chapter 2 of this study. From this conceptualisation, the following conclusions can be drawn:

- Based on the literature, AL is defined as a leader's behaviour that attracts and encourages psychological competencies and a positive ethical environment that sustains self-awareness, an internalised moral perspective, and balanced processing of information (Walumbwa et al., 2008). There is general consensus in the literature that AL consists of four dimensions, namely self-awareness, rational transparency, internalised moral perspective and balanced processing (Branson, 2010; George, 2003; Ilies et al. 2005; Kernis & Goldman, 2006; Walumbwa et al., 2008).

- Literature indicates that AL behaviour is influenced by the variables age, gender, education, trust and values of an authentic leader (Bosak & Sczesney, 2011; Clapp-Smith, et al., 2009; Sweeney et al., 2010).
- There is evidence of previous studies indicating that there is a positive, theoretical relationship between AL and attitudes, trust in management, performance and work engagement (Clapp-Smith et al., 2009; Peus et al., 2012; Walumbwa et al., 2008; Wong et al., 2010).

6.2.1.2 Conceptualisation of the construct organisational commitment

The literature review to conceptualise the organisational commitment was achieved in Chapter 3 of this study. The following conclusions are drawn based on the literature:

- All definitions of OC acknowledge that commitment is a compelling energy that directs employee behaviour (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).
- Employees acquire multiple work-related commitments and OC is conceptualised as a multidimensional construct (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).
- There is general consensus in the literature that OC consists of three dimensions, namely Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment and Normative Commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997).
- Various factors have been found to influence OC behaviour, including age, gender, engagement and trust (Coetzee et al., 2007; Nyhan, 1999; Perruci & Schwartz, 2002; Wang, 2014).
- There is a positive theoretical relationship between OC and job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour, retention and employee engagement (Fu & Deshpande, 2012; Hakanen et al., 2006; Meyer et al., 2004 ; Neiningen et al., 2010).
- When an organisation values its employees it can lead to respect, growth and empowerment, which in turn can result in increased levels of OC.

6.2.1.3 Conceptualisation of the theoretical relationship between authentic leadership and organisational commitment

This theoretical aim was also achieved in Chapter 3 of this study. From this conceptualisation, the following conclusions can be drawn:

- The literature reports on various studies in which a positive, significant relationship was found between AL and OC.
- Positive, significant relationships have also been found between AL and the three dimensions of OC, namely Affective, Continuance and Normative Commitment.

6.2.2 Conclusions regarding the specific empirical aims of the study

6.2.2.1 Measure authentic leadership by means of the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) in a State Hospital in SA

This empirical aim was achieved in Chapter 5 of this study. The Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) was completed by a sample of 222 participants who are employees at a State Hospital in South Africa. From this data gathering, the following conclusions can be drawn:

- The mean of the ALQ was 3.95, which indicated that the majority of the respondents perceived their leaders as applying a high level of AL in the State Hospital.
- Respondents scored their leaders the highest on Internalised Moral Perspective (showing self-regulation and personal moral standard) with a mean of 4.11, and the lowest on Balanced Processing (how leaders petition and accurately contemplate others' opinions), with a mean of 3.82. However, respondents perceived their leaders as applying high levels of all four dimensions of AL in the State Hospital.
- The ALQ demonstrated a high overall internal consistency of 0.82, which was considered acceptable for this study.

- All four dimensions of the ALQ produced low internal consistency scores ranging from 0.49 to 0.57, which were considered to be below the acceptable level for this research and were not used for further analysis in the study.
- The ALQ was thus considered to be a reliable instrument for measuring Overall AL, but not for measuring the four dimensions of AL.

6.2.2.2 Measure organisational commitment by means of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) in a State Hospital in SA

In Chapter 5, this empirical aim for this study was also achieved. The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) was completed by a sample of 222 participants who are employees at a State Hospital in South Africa. From this data gathering, the following conclusions can be drawn:

- The high mean score obtained for the dimension Affective Commitment (3.38) indicated that participants felt committed owing to a desire to work for the organisation.
- In terms of the dimension Normative Commitment, the high mean score obtained (3.56) suggests that respondents felt an obligation to remain with the organisation because they ought to.
- The high mean score observed for the dimension Continuance Commitment (3.23), reflects that respondents see it as a too high cost to leave their organisation based on their preference for working in a secure and stable work environment.
- The Overall OC score demonstrated a high internal consistency of 0.89, which was considered acceptable for this study.
- All three dimensions of OC indicated high internal consistency scores ranging from 0.78 to 0.90, which were considered acceptable for this study.
- The OCQ was thus considered to be a reliable instrument for measuring OC and its three dimensions.

6.2.2.3 *Determine the relationship between authentic leadership and organisational commitment*

This empirical aim was achieved in Chapter 5 of this study. Pearson's Product Moment correlation coefficients were computed to determine the relationship between AL and OC and its three dimensions. From this analysis, the following conclusions can be drawn:

- All the variables demonstrated statistically significant positive correlations with each other ($r \geq .12 \geq r \geq .80$; small to large practical effect; $p \leq .05$).
- A statistically significant positive correlation is evident between AL and OC ($r = .19$; small practical effect; $p \leq .05$).
- A statistically significant positive correlation was also observed between AL and the dimensions Affective Commitment ($r = .12$; small practical effect; $p \leq .05$), Continuance Commitment ($r = .13$; small practical effect; $p \leq .05$), and Normative Commitment ($r = .20$; small practical effect; $p \leq .05$).
- The results also indicates that Overall OC correlates significantly and positively with the dimensions Affective Commitment ($r = .79$; large practical effect; $p \leq .05$), Continuance Commitment ($r = .80$; large practical effect; $p \leq .05$), and Normative Commitment ($r = .79$; large practical effect; $p \leq .05$).
- Statistically significant positive correlations were also observed between the dimensions Affective and Continuance Commitment ($r = .37$; medium practical effect; $p \leq .05$), and Normative Commitment ($r = .41$; medium practical effect; $p \leq .05$).
- The results also confirmed a statistically significant positive correlation between the dimensions Continuance Commitment and Normative Commitment ($r = .57$; large practical effect; $p \leq .05$).
- The correlation coefficients observed between Overall AL and OC and its three dimensions, although all statistically significant at the 0.05 level, were all of small effect, ranging from a low of 0.12 to a

high of 0.20. These small correlations indicate that the relationships between the variables were weak, despite being statistically significant.

- In summary, it can be concluded that there is indeed a statistically significant relationship between AL and OC and its three dimensions in a State Hospital in South Africa.

6.2.2.4 Determine whether authentic leadership can predict organisational commitment in a State Hospital in South Africa

In terms of this empirical aim, it was achieved in Chapter 5 of this study. Four standard regression analyses were conducted between the Overall AL as the independent variable and OC and its three dimensions as the dependent variables. The purpose was to determine whether Overall AL could predict OC and its three dimensions. From this analysis the following conclusions can be drawn:

- Overall AL could statistically significantly predict Overall OC, accounting for 3% of the variance of Overall OC.
- Overall AL could not statistically significantly predict the dimension OC of Continuance Commitment.
- Overall AL could statistically significantly predict the dimension of Normative Commitment, accounting for 4% of the variance of Normative Commitment.
- Overall AL could not statistically significantly predict the dimension of Affective Commitment, accounting for 1% to the variance of Affective Commitment.
- In summary, it can be concluded that Overall AL could statistically significantly predict Overall OC and one of its dimensions (Normative Commitment), but was unable to predict the dimensions Affective and Continuance Commitment in a State Hospital in South Africa.

6.2.2.5 *To make practical recommendations for the practice of IOP*

- This will be covered in section 6.4

6.2.3 Conclusions regarding the general aim of the study

The general aim of the study was to determine the relationship between AL and OC in a State Hospital in South Africa. The results of the empirical study conducted indicated that there is a positive statistically significant relationship between these two variables, although the practical effect of this relationship was small. It can therefore be concluded that the general aim of the study has been achieved.

6.2.4 Conclusions regarding the research hypotheses

The research hypotheses for the study were the following:

H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between AL and OC.

H1: There is a statistically significant relationship between AL and OC.

H2: There is a statistically significant relationship between AL and the dimension Affective Commitment.

H3: There is a statistically significant relationship between AL and the dimension Continuance Commitment.

H4: There is a statistically significant relationship between AL and the dimension Normative Commitment.

The following conclusions were reached regarding the research hypotheses formulated above for this study:

- The results of the study support H1 which hypothesised that there is a statistically significant positive relationship between AL and OC. This implies that employees, who perceive their leaders as authentic, are likely to identify with and become involved in the fulfilment of their

organisational goals and values. The null hypothesis (H0) is thus rejected and the research hypothesis (H1) is accepted

- In terms of the second hypothesis, the results of this study also support H2 in that there is a statistically significant relationship between AL and the dimension Affective Commitment. The findings suggest that the theoretical assumption that an authentic leaders' moral viewpoint and his/her development of authentic followers who share his/her values and beliefs has a positive impact on follower OC. Hence employees as followers are inclined to associate themselves with the organisation. As a result, H2 was thus accepted.
- With regards to the results of this study H3 is supported, in that there is a statistically significant positive relationship between AL and the dimension Continuance Commitment. Hence H3 of this study is accepted.
- The results of this study also support H4, which hypothesised that there is a statistically significant positive relationship between AL and the dimension Normative Commitment. It is therefore concluded that H4 is accepted.
- In summary, the null hypothesis (H0) was rejected, while the four research hypotheses were accepted. However, the researcher is of the opinion that these relationships, although all statistically significant, should be interpreted with caution due to the low correlation coefficients obtained between the variables.

6.3 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

6.3.1 Limitations of the literature review

- There is a vast amount of international literature regarding the relationship between AL and OC.
- However, there is paucity of literature on the theoretical relationship between these two variables in the South African context, especially in

the healthcare sector. This made it difficult to refer to local studies and benchmark the results of this study against similar research.

6.3.2 Limitations of the empirical study

- The first limitation of the empirical study is the small sample that was used in this study, namely 222 respondents which may not be representative of employees in the organisation of study.
- The second limitation is the extent to which these findings can be generalised to other healthcare sector organisations. As the study was conducted in a single State Hospital, the results cannot be generalised to other State or Private Hospitals in South Africa.
- The third limitation is that employees who were on leave did not have the opportunity to participate in the study together with medical doctors due to their busy schedule.

6.4 RECOMMENDATION OF THE STUDY

6.4.1 Recommendations for further research

Recommendations for further research on the relationship between AL and OC are made based on the conclusions and limitations of this study:

- AL is an important contemporary approach to leadership; hence it should be studied further to determine its relationship with other organisational variables besides OC.
- The relationship between AL and OC needs to be explored further in other contexts such as public- and private-sector organisations in order to allow the results to be generalised.
- Future research regarding the relationship between AL and OC using longitudinal studies should also be considered for in-depth knowledge of the variables.

- Moderating variables which could influence the relationship between AL and OC should also receive attention in future studies.
- The relationship between other leadership approaches and OC should also receive attention to determine which leadership style has the greatest impact on OC.

6.4.2 Recommendations for the participating state hospital

- The researcher is of the opinion that the results of this study should be communicated to all employees in order to create an awareness of its employees' current perception in terms of AL and commitment levels. 3
- State Hospitals are generally faced with numerous challenges, such as ineffective management, a lack of personnel and other resources, long working hours and stressful working conditions. Under these circumstances OC is of critical importance to ensure the effectiveness of the State Hospital. This organisation should thus invest in leadership development programmes to build the capacity of its current leaders.
- Leaders that are required in modern organisations are those who are able to inspire, create a vision, pay individual attention and stimulate employees' creativity. These initiatives could be more successful in ensuring the commitment of State Hospital employees. As such, it is recommended that the participating State Hospital consider other approaches to leadership besides AL to ensure the commitment of its employees.

6.4.3 Recommendation for the practice of Industrial and Organisational Psychology

The following recommendations are made for the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology (IOP) in general, and for leadership practitioners and managers in particular:

- As Industrial and Organisational Psychologists (IOPs) are interested in leadership and its ability to ensure OC it is recommended that practitioners in this field focus on the role of leadership in State Hospitals.
- Leadership development programmes and coaching should focus on creating an ideal climate for employees to develop commitment.
- Organisational development practitioners can also implement initiatives that will enhance Affective Commitment for staff retention purposes.

6.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter the conclusions, limitations and recommendations of the study were discussed. The chapter started with the conclusions reached regarding the general aim, literature aims, empirical aims as well as the reach hypotheses of the study. Thereafter the limitations of the study were discussed and suggestions for future research were made. Recommendations for the participating State Hospital were also made, and the chapter was concluded with recommendations for the field of IOP regarding AL and OC.

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