



Doctor of Business Leadership

Title: A framework for enhancing Organisational Performance through linkages between Leadership style and Organisational Culture: the case of the South African Police Service (SAPS)

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DECLARATION

I declare that “**A framework for enhancing Organisational Performance through linkages between Leadership style and Organisational Culture: the case of South African Police Service (SAPS)**” is my own work and that all the sources that I have indicated are acknowledged by means of complete references.

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to find the relationships between leadership style, organisational culture and organisational performance and subsequently develop a conceptual framework for enhancing Organisational Performance through the linkage between Leadership style and Organisational Culture in the public sector, in the South African Police Service (SAPS). Many of the previous studies have explored the direct relationship between specific culture domains and a specific performance measure and researchers have paid attention to mediators and moderators of the link between organisational culture and performance only in private sectors. According to the literature, leadership style and organisational culture have been independently linked to organisational performance (Ogbonna & Harris, 2000; Denison & Mishra, 1995; Xenikou & Simosi, 2006; Cameron & Quinn, 2011). All these authors focused on the effect of organisational culture and leadership style on organisational performance in the private sector.

In order to achieve the research aim and objectives extensive an intensive literature review of the relevant and current literature was done. The mixed methods approach was applied. Data was collected by the use of self-administered questionnaires for the quantitative data and in-depth interviews and observations for the qualitative data. Regression analysis was used to investigate the relationships between the key study variables and more importantly the mediating and moderating effect on the effect of leadership style on organisational performance.

The results of this study indicated that the transformational leadership style does not have a direct effect on organisational performance but rather through organisational culture as a mediating and moderating variable. It was also found that transformational leadership style and organisational culture affect each other. The implication was that leaders should cultivate an organisational culture which is conducive to work in order to enhance organisational performance.

Key terms: Leadership style; Organisational performance; Organisational culture; Transformational leadership; Transactional leadership; South African Police; Policing; Mediation and Moderation

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1. INTRODUCTION

The constructs of leadership style and organisational culture have been independently linked to organisational performance (Ogbonna and Harris, 2000). All scholars who have investigated the relationship between these constructs (Denison and Mishra, 1995; Xenikou and Simosi, 2006; Cameron and Quinn, 2011) have emphasised the effect of organisational culture and leadership style on organisational performance. Most of these studies have focused on the direct relationship between organisational culture or leadership style and organisational performance but have rarely investigated organisational culture as a mediator of the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance (Ogbonna and Harries 2000; Xenikou and Simosi, 2006; Tojari, et al., 2011). For example, Steyrer, et al. (2008) investigated the mediating impact of organisational culture on the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance and found that organisational performance can be positively influenced by leadership style. However, Hartnell, et al. (2011), Gregory et al. (2009) and Zheng et al. (2010) found that while there is literature on the direct relationship between organisational culture and organisational performance (Denison, 1990, Cameron and Quinn, 2011), there is a lack of studies of the mediators and moderators (including organisational culture) that link leadership style and organisational performance.

Leadership style is one of the factors that play a significant role in enhancing or retarding the interest and commitment of the individuals in the organisation (Obiwuru et al., 2011). Ahn, et al., (2004) state that leadership always plays an important role in

the growth and development of any organisation. The reason is that leaders of the organisation take all the initiative and decisions taken by the leadership of the organisation can have a broad impact on the performance (Avolio, et al., 2003). Steyrer et al. (2008), and Avolio and Bass (2004) argue that organisational culture also impacts on organisational leadership style. Schimmoeller, (2010) among others, argues that the survival of an organisation depends on the responsiveness and adaptability of its leaders in selecting a leadership style by understanding the situation and members' emotions which is influenced by organisational culture (Block, 2003; Avolio and Bass, (2004); Schimmoeller, 2010; Acar, 2012). Therefore, it is important, as a leader, to understand which leadership style is suited to which organisational type to improve organisational performance, for creating a workplace culture, which could result in improved members' satisfaction and organisational performance (Schein, 2010). The studies on organisational leadership within the operational perspective are very limited, as most studies focus on the private sector. Generally, the SAPS members in terms of the study prefer organisational leaders who can inspire, guide and improve support for boosting their morale (Javidan and Dastmalchain, 2003; Tojari, et al., 2011). This is more of transformational leadership style. However, transactional leadership style is of importance for the SAPS organisation as according to Merhrabani and Mahamad (2011) transactional leadership style is preferable in the public sector while the transformational leadership style shows a positive influence on organisational performance in the private sector (Tojari, et al., 2011).

Organisational culture is considered by many scholars to be the glue that keeps the organisation united and gives members a sense of belonging and commitment (Hofstede et al., 1990; Martin et al., 2006; Hofstede, et al., 2010; Alvesson, 2012).

Schein (2010) Marin (2004) argue that organisational culture is basically a pattern of shared values, assumptions and beliefs that have been developed by a group of people who work in the same organisation. Furthermore, organisational culture has been defined as the organisation and members' identity, sense of commitment, initiative, and method of communication and basis for stability (Lok and Crawford, 2004; Mathew and Ogbonna, 2012).

Organisational studies have defined organisational performance in different ways such as: in terms of generating a profit margin (Cummings and Worsley, 2005), resource acquisition and organisational performance (Kontoghiorghes et al., 2005; Lee and Brower, 2006), in terms of productivity, flexibility or customer satisfaction (Chang and Huang, 2010). According to Overstreet et al., (2013) organisational performance can be measured using two distinct but related constructs; namely, operational and financial performance. Operational performance refers to the firm's ability to efficiently and effectively provide services to the customer whereas financial performance includes, among others, profitability and monetary measures such as return on investment, return on sales and operating ratios. This study focused on performance within an operational organisation, which is quite different from the private sector.

To conclude, the purpose of this study was to determine the relationships between leadership style, organisational culture and organisational performance in the South African Police Service (SAPS). This gave the researcher an opportunity to make a meaningful contribution to the body of knowledge by finding ways of enhancing organisational performance through the linkage between leadership style and organisational culture.

1.2 BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF THE STUDY

1.2.1 International policing

During the early beginnings of the Dark Ages, the history of policing traced its roots back to Anglo-Saxon times in England. Kings demanded complete loyalty and obedience from each of their subjects, in exchange for this security the Kings provided protection from attack from outside invaders or from overzealous lords under the King's control (Anonymous). After the Norman Conquest of England in 1066 it became apparent to the invaders that the Anglo-Saxon system of justice was good and worthy of maintaining in terms of the modified model used. Sheriffs were appointed by the Kings responsible for policing the Kings. The Normans established the "Court Leet" which was responsible for policing the local people. The Head of the Court Leet was the "Comes Stable" which was a term that means "Master of the House". Over a period of time this word became "Constable" which is still used today by members of our modern police services. The Comes Stable was appointed by the King and responsible to keep the peace and order in a specific area (Anonymous, 1996).

Augmenting the watch system was a system of Constables, official law enforcement officers, usually paid by the fee system for warrants they served. The informal modalities of policing continued well after American Revolution until the 1830s that the idea of centralised municipal police department first emerged in the United States. In 1838, the city of Boston established the first American police force, followed by New York City in 1845, Albany, NY and Chicago in 1851, New Orleans and Cincinnati in 1853, Philadelphia in 1855, and Newark, NJ and Baltimore in 1857 (Harring, 1983;

Lundman 1980; Lynch 1984). The “modern police” organisations share similar characteristics:

- They were publicly supported and bureaucratic in form.
- Police officers were full-time employees, not community volunteers or case-by-case fee retainers.
- Departments had permanent and fixed rules and procedures, and employment as police officers was continuous.
- Police departments were accountable to a central governmental authority (Lundman, 1980).

Gary, (2013) states that with more crime, a modern police force in the United States emerged as a response to “disorder” he further indicates that what constitutes social and public order depends largely on who is defining the terms, and in cities of 19th century America was defined by mercantile interests, which through taxes and political influence supported the development of bureaucratic policing institutions. These economic interests had a greater interest in social control than crime control. Private and for profit policing was too disorganised and too crime-specific in form to fulfil the needs.

The emerging commercial elites needed a mechanism to insure a stable and orderly work force, a stable and orderly environment for the conduct of business, and the “collective good” (Spitzer and Scull, 1977).

1.2.1.1 Policing in Scotland

The police service in Scotland underwent a series of major changes after the Second World War. The Scottish Crime Squad was established in 1969 to deal with crimes affecting areas. The drug wing was added to capacitate the Scottish Crime Squad in 1986 (Royal Commission report, 1962) and to enhance the effectiveness and efficiency, a Technical Support Unit was set up in 1989.

The duties of the Scotland Police are set out in Chapter 77 of the Scotland Police Act of 1967 as follows:

- To guard and patrol;
- To prevent the commission of offences;
- To preserve order;
- To protect life and property;
- Where an offence has been committed to take all such lawful measures, and make such reports to the appropriate prosecutor, as may be necessary for the purpose of bringing the offender with all due speed to justice;
- To serve and execute when required any warrant, citation of deliverance issued; and
- To attend any court of law for the purpose of giving evidence.

1.2.1.2 Policing in the Royal Malaysia Police

The history began with the magnificent Malaccan Sultanate. The institution had existed with the functions of the police since the existence of the Hindu Majapahit Kingdom, the Buddhist Sri Vijayan Empire and Malaccan Government.

The Royal Malaysia Police (RMP) today is made up of officers and personnel, ranging from (executing) civil duties that involve traditional policing duties and fostering closer ties with people, to the general operations force that involves duties such as the prevention of the entry of illegal immigrants and the war against the uprising of the communists. The main role of this team is to maintain the security and tranquillity of the country. (Malaysia Police Institution, 2nd ed.).

The Royal Malaysia Police Act, 1967, Section 3 (3):

- To uphold the law and preserve civil harmony;
- To maintain peace and security of the federation;
- To prevent and detect criminal activities;
- To apprehend and prosecute offenders; and
- To gather security intelligence.

Shelley (1994) suggests that there are four different models of policing (i.e. communists, Anglo-Saxon, continental and colonial) that differ based on their sources of legitimacy, organisational structure and police functions. Furthermore, the communist model of policing obtains legitimacy through the communist political party, continental and colonial models have similar organisational structures and functions as the communist model, however, the continental model obtains its legitimacy through the central government while the colonial model establishes legitimacy through colonial authority, and the Anglo-Saxon model contains legitimacy through local government and is based in law. The researcher brought together the different types of police forces as they are established by different forms of government as argued by (Lang-worthy and Travis 1999) that “all police systems rely on state

authority". The modern Royal Malaysian Police was based British colonial rule which brought with it Constitutional government and the common law system.

1.2.2 Policing in Africa

1.2.2.1 Policing in Zambia police

The Republic of Zambia, formerly the British Protectorate of Northern Rhodesia became independent on 24 October 1964. Then the Zambian Police was established in 1964, headed by the Inspector-General of Police under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Home Affairs. The police have often been accused of the violation of individual rights, but the change from police force to police service in the 1990s influenced the operational method on the police to take human and individual rights into consideration (Vuma, 2011).

The Zambian Police Service is spelled out by Article 104 of the Constitution of Zambia.

Act 18 of 1996 as to:

- Protect the life and property;
- Preserve law and order;
- Detect and prevent crime;
- Cooperate with the civilian authority and other security organs established under the Constitution and with the population generally.

1.2.2.2 Policing in Ghana Police

The policing in Ghana was introduced by the British Colonial Authorities to the Gold Coast now the Republic of Ghana in 1821. Prior to that, policing or maintenance of law and order was organised by the traditional authorities such as local headsmen and chiefs. In 1894 the institution of police was formalised. In 1902 the force was split into General, Escort, Mines and Railway police, which was legalised by the Police (Amendment) Ordinance of 1904. The Marine Police was formed in 1916 disbanded 1942 replaced by Customs Excise and Preventive Service.

A large number of Africans were enlisted 1952 into the Police Force. In 1958 the first Ghanaian Police Commissioner, Mr Madjitey was appointed to head the service (Anonymous).

The Ghana Police Service has a motto which is called "Service with Integrity". The functions of the Ghana Police Service as stated in the Police Service Act, 1970 (Act 350) are as follows:

- Crime detection and prevention;
- Apprehension (arrest) and prosecution of offenders;
- Maintenance of law and order; and
- Due enforcement of the law

1.2.2.3 Policing in Uganda Police

The Ugandan police have a colonial origin. In 1899, the Ugandan police force was a paramilitary force under the name "Uganda Armed Constabulary". The king of

Buganda had his own (secret) police force, policing was generally based on customary rules and obligations (Rusch, 1975). The kings, chiefs and elders policed villages and communities, and they overlapped with the police for a long period of time (Uganda police force 2).

The Ugandan police bears a resemblance to the Metro police of London in 1960, the first Inspector General of police was appointed in 1964. The universal image of modern state police of Uganda survived decolonialisation.

The Ugandan Constitution of 1962 states that the general duties of the police are:

- The prevention and detection of crime;
- The apprehension of offenders;
- The preservation of Law and Order;
- The protection of property;
- Enforcement of all laws and regulations; and
- As a military force to discharge military duties, (as quoted after Munanura, 2007).

The reason the researcher chose the countries Zambia, Ghana and Uganda is that they are among the colonial territories in Africa. In that era there was neither property nor citizens' rights for the people and in many cases the people were not citizens of their countries but subjects (Shillington, 1989). In addition, there was no rule of law, colonial laws were themselves very notorious and entitled as a colonial "administration to imprison any African *sujet* indefinitely and without charge or trial "Shillington 1989)

and that is what was happening in South Africa. Europeans invented chiefs and imposed them on the people and always stressed tribal differences and created divisions amongst the people.

1.2.2.4 South African Police Service (SAPS)

Division amongst races in South Africa can be traced back to the Dutch who colonised the area in the 1600's (Clark and Worger, 2004). However, the official recorded date for the establishment of the South African Police force is 1 April 1913. The apartheid rule began in 1948. The system of apartheid government separated the people of South Africa based on race and controlled major functions of a person's life (Clark and Worger, 2004). According to Brogden and Shearing (1993), during the years of apartheid the policing of the South African Police (SAP) ensured that "sustained brutality" was a central feature of the "black South African experience".

Since South Africa entered a new stage of its history on 27 April 1994, the police service has already been one of the key subjects of negotiation and the process of transformation needs. The New Constitution and Bill of Rights was adopted, and establishment of the South African Police Service (SAPS) was a priority in clearing the way towards the creation of the police service to serve all the inhabitants of South Africa.

There were major reforms and structural changes in the South African Police Service. The other reform was the joining of eleven separate police agencies into one national police service. Each homeland police unit was brought together under one main police agency (Morna, 1995; Leggett 2005); including adopting the "kitskonstables". The level

of police competency was lowered as most of the “kitskonstables” receive a six weeks training, and the fact was that many of them were illiterate and could not drive an automobile, essential attributes to proper policing (Leggett 2005).

There was change as the entire country awakened to democracy. This was a troubling time for the nation, expecting much from the government, and the police were expected to take on their role quickly in order to maintain order in radically new times. Section 17 of the Constitution provides South Africans with the right to peacefully and unarmed, to assemble, to demonstrate, picket and to present petitions. However, during public protests there are intentions that result in damaging property, intimidation, assault against those with other views about protest.

Changing to a democratic policing is not an easy task; such shift in policing demands that change take place on all levels. Marks (2003) identifies three levels at which changes need to take place for the effective policing. Firstly, change at the structural level includes making the South African Police Service representative of the South African population. Secondly, Behavioural change, police need to be proactive and not reactive, to be community orientated in order to show the people that they have changed (Marks 2003). Lastly, police culture, tends to be conservative and the police prefer to leave things as they are and not shake things up (Marks 2003 citing Goldstein, 1990).

Current contextual information

The South African Police Service has been under strain with management crises over the past years. Coupled with organisational rank changes to military ranks without any

further training in judgement, discretion and professional conduct, had an effect on police culture and subcultures. In addition, the leadership of the organisation were still the same people who did not change their leadership style and their behaviour was still rooted in the previous police culture, the leadership mind-set and style was the same. The gap between a senior and a junior still exists, this affects the job performance and there is no commitment from employees.

Chen and Silverthorne, (2005) postulates that leadership behaviours have a strong influence on employees and the organisations' outcomes, indicating further that this included work engagement and effecting a positive result in service delivery. When employees are engaged and allowed to express themselves they become more active and there is less possibility of them leaving the organisation.

Transformational change does not end at addressing structures, rank, and processes, it involves shifts in organisational culture and values and results in the adoption of a new organisational paradigm. Furthermore, this study requires the adoption of organisational culture. Schein (1997) suggests that organisational culture is even more important today than it was in the past because of the increased competition, globalisation, mergers and acquisitions, alliances, and various employee/ employer development derived from such internal and external changes. This also involved coordination and integration across organisational units in order to improve efficiency, quality and speed of designing, manufacturing and delivering products and services;

Police organisations have their own structural and cultural milieu that informs facets in the organisations, in particular leadership. Schafer (2008) indicates that the absence

of quality leaders in policing is in part due to a common failure to develop officers to become effective. Currently, there is a great challenge of change in the South African police organisation, as the organisation requires having employees and leaders who adapt, work effectively, and constantly improve the systems and processes, which are commonly focused and share the need of service (Weinberger, 2004). As with other organisations, the SAPS is experiencing diverse challenges in its internal and external operational environment that have an impact on the leadership of the organisation. However, according to a study by Campbell and Kodz (2011), the challenges of linking leadership with organisational performance are particularly pronounced for the police since common performance measures in the police are affected by multiple confounding factors.

As police leaders continue to run an organisation that encounters complex situations such as the growing crime rate, employee disenchantment, and financial constraints, they need suitable models, best practices and strategies in order to get a bearing and successfully deal with this particular issue. Critical encouragement of police officers to perform at the optimum can only happen when there is a supportive organisational culture.

1.3 BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.3.1 Background

Any extraordinary achievement or success accomplished by a leader occurs with the active involvement and support of other members. Collaboration between the two

parties therefore is the critical competency for achieving and sustaining high performance by the organisation (Kouzes and Posner, 2002).

Although many references have been made to a positive relationship between leadership style and organisational culture, empirical investigations that demonstrate the relationships between these two constructs especially in the police service are limited (Block, 2003; Jaskyte, 2004; Tucker and Russell, 2004). Also, the studies that have investigated the variables of organisational culture and leadership style have mainly concentrated on financial performance outcomes (Beukman, 2005; Collins and Porras, 1994; Ogbonna and Harries, 2000).

Lock (2001) indicates that if the relationship between leadership style and organisational culture was demonstrated empirically, it would provide additional confidence to the practice of employing and developing transformational leaders so that an innovative and constructive organisational culture, vital for organisational survival could be accomplished. The advantages of a constructive organisational culture as a mediator transcend financial outcomes such as return on investment and profitability. A constructive organisational culture enhances employees' wellness issues as high morale, productivity, low absenteeism, job satisfaction, turnover and commitment occur which also enhance service delivery (Lock, 2001).

The literature focuses on the organisational performance motivated and determined by leadership style. There has been no attempt as yet to test the linkages of the construct of organisational culture as a mediator between leadership style and organisational performance. This gap in research in the field of organisational behaviour has evolved into the following problem statement; "Does organisational

culture mediate the relationship between the leadership style approach and organisational performance?”

Ultimately, this research problem is founded on the background that necessitates a strategic cultural framework that clarifies the characteristics of an organisation that can build onto the underlying fabric of the organisation – wide values, structures, and a framework that would institutionalise strategic thinking and generate a natural momentum to sustain performance improvements. While the information presented can be broadly applied to other organisations, the identified cultural characteristics detailed in later chapters have been selected with specific consideration for the South African Police Service (SAPS).

1.3.2 Problem Statement

Based on the abovementioned, there is a realisation that limited empirical research has been done on the relationship between leadership style, organisational culture and organisational performance.

There are studies done on this relationship by Conant (2008), Frazier (2013) and Gomez (2013, however, these studies were done in the business environment and the dependent variable was financial performance not operational performance. This study is intended to investigate the relationship between leadership style and organisational (i.e. operational) performance moderated and/or mediated by organisational culture in the public sector. This study attempted to answer the following main research questions (MRQ):

MRQ1 What is the role of organisational culture in enhancing organisational performance in the South African Police Services?

MRQ2 What is the relationship between the organisational culture, leadership style, and organisational performance?

The following are the sub-research questions (SRQ):

SRQ1 What is the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance?

SRQ2 What is the relationship between organisational culture and organisational performance?

SRQ3 What is the relationship between leadership style and organisational culture?

SRQ4 What is the moderating effect of organisational culture on the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance?

SRQ5 What is the mediation effect on the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance?

1.4. AIM AND OBJECTIVES

1.4.1. Aim

To find the relationships between leadership style, organisational culture and organisational performance and subsequently develop a conceptual framework for enhancing organisational performance in the South African Police Service.

1.4.2 Objectives

This study was driven by the following specific objectives:

- To determine the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance.
- To determine the relationship between organisational culture and organisational performance.
- To determine the relationship between leadership style and organisational culture.
- To uncover the mediating and moderating effect of organisational culture on the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance
- To develop a framework for enhancing the organisational performance in the SAPS.

Hypotheses

- **H₀1:** There is no relationship between leadership style and organisational performance.

H₁: There is some relationship between leadership style and organisational performance.

- **H₀2:** There is no relationship between the organisational culture and organisational performance.

H₂: There is some relationship between the organisational culture and organisational performance.

- **H03:** There is no moderating effect of organisational culture on the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance in the SAPS.

H3: There is a moderating effect of organisational culture on the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance in the SAPS.

- **H04:** There is no mediating effect of organisational culture on the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance in the SAPS.

H4: There is a mediating effect of organisational culture on the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance in SAPS.

- **H05:** There is no relationship between leadership style and organisational culture.

H5: There is a relationship between leadership style and organisational culture.

1.5. THE RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

This study justifies its existence, taking into account the history of the organisation, the SAPS. The researcher argues that the study provides solutions. The critical factors supporting the rationale of this study are as follows:

- There must be a new need for organisational culture; and
- Developing intellectual assets as a main source of value as opposed to material assets;

In other words, the researcher strongly believes that maximising the value of employees as intellectual assets requires a culture that promotes their intellectual participation and facilitates both individual and organisational learning. Culture must play a key role in promoting:

- Knowledge management;
- Creativity;
- Participative management; and
- Leadership.

1.6. LITERATURE AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The conceptual framework of this study is based on leadership, leadership style, organisational culture, organisational performance and employee commitment.

Researchers have conducted and recorded extensive research on leadership and various organisational performances (Haakonsson, Burton, Obel and Lauridsen, 2008). A number of studies have explored the relations between leadership and organizational culture (Block, 2003; Mineo, 2009; Ogbonna and Harris, 2000), leadership and employee performance (Lockwood, 2008 and Stroud, 2009), leadership and organisational performance (Chung and Lo, 2007; Jing, Avery and Bergsteiner, 2011; O'Regan, Ghobadian and Sims, 2005; Rowold, 2011), and leadership and performance (Kungis, 2006).

Organisational performance has a long history (Griffin, 1990) with a variety of theories becoming popular over the years, emphasising different aspects of an organisational culture that could affect its performance.

The existence of organisational culture and the effects that it has on organisational performance became popular in the 1970s and 1980s. Ouchi (1981) created Theory Z that assigned seven values to organisational culture (Moorhead and Griffin, 2004). In 1982, Peters and Waterman's research claimed that a strong organisational culture made a company successful (Griffin, 1990). Deal and Kennedy, 1982 showed that their research was based on organisations' values, rites, rituals and communication. The outcome of the research was that an organisation's culture strongly influences its success.

The relationship between organisational culture and organisational performance has been the subject of past and the current research, and number of approaches and results occurred. Kwantes, Simone and Boglarsky (2007) stated that, for the employee who does not fit the culture of the organisation, long-term employment might be difficult. The researchers noted that there must be a match in employees' values and characteristics and those of the organisation. In addition, some organisations use cultural fit as a means of assessing a person when selecting employees like in the SAPS.

1.7. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

1.7.1 Research Design

A concurrent mixed methodology of research was used in the study. Mixed methodology research refers to research that integrate both qualitative and quantitative data within a single study (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011, Wisdom et. al., 2012). Mixed method research designs include: integrating, synthesis, multi- method and mixed methodology (Creswell 2014). Creswell (2012) further, drew a parallel between mixed methods and action research because in both research approaches quantitative and qualitative data are collected within one study.

- Quantitative – questionnaire
- Qualitative – interviews (interview guide)
- Observations

1.7.2 Population and Sampling

Struwig and Stead (2001) point out that population has certain characteristics that are homogeneous (the same), and a sample of one would be adequate to measure those particular attributes. Burger and Silima (2006) further note that the most important reason for sampling is feasibility.

The researcher understands that it is not always possible to study all the employees; therefore, the sample was big enough to assure that all the information and perceptions from respondents that were important would be covered. The purposive

sampling was used to draw a sample from the population, according to their work experience to serve the purpose of the research study.

1.8. SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The government of South Africa has only one police service and that is the SAPS. The SAPS consists of Police Act members and the Public Service Act members from the former public service of the self-governed states and independent states. All the public officials from self-government and independent states were amalgamated into the SAPS, whereby they are working from nine different Provinces and the Divisions. For the purpose of this study, Gauteng Province is identified as the most dynamic and best representation of the organisation. The data was collected from Gauteng Province as a laboratory exercise since the target population is homogenous. The focus was in (Tshwane Clusters) with their various police stations, and the Division of Human Resource Development (three academies) was used for the reason of their cost effectiveness.

1.9. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study raises the awareness of police leaders of the organisation that the organisational culture and leadership style have links with organisational performance. It brings about new energy that can revitalise and stimulate employee performance, leading to enhanced organisational performance and excellent service delivery.

The study might help to achieve an effective leadership style in the organisation and the result may contribute to leaders learning about the importance of organisational

culture and the performance of the organisation. This study was set to investigate the mediating and moderating effect of organisational culture on the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance.

1.10. ASSUMPTIONS

Selected respondents would be truthful and honest when providing their response. The data to be collected would provide a thorough and detailed depiction of some of the challenges faced by employees in the organisation.

1.11. DEFINITIONS

Leadership: Hersey et al. (2001) define leadership in relation to one person attempting to influence the behaviour of an individual or a group. Hersey et al. (2001) further argue that it may be for a personal goal or for the goals of others, and these individuals or groups may not be harmonious to organisational goals.

Organisational Culture: According to Hofstede (1980), organisational culture refers to the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one organisation from another; this includes shared beliefs, values and practices that distinguish one organisation from another. Schein (2004) defines organisational culture as: “a pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved its problem to external adoption and internal integration that has worked long enough to be considered well valid, and therefore, to be taught to new members of the organisation as the correct way to perceive think and feel in the relation to that problems”. According to Cowling, 1996 define organisational culture as “the way we do things within the organisation”.

Organisational performance: Kotter and Heskett (1992) based their definition of performance on a tangible base of economic performance.

Organisational performance has been an important issue for organisations whether profit or non-profit. Even researchers have different opinions and definitions among themselves about organisational performance, thus it remains a contentious issue for the organisational researcher (Barney, 1997). According to Daft, (2001), organisational performance is the organisation's ability to attain its goals by using resources in an efficient and effective manner. Richardo, (2001) defines organisational performance similarly to Daft, as the ability of the organisation to achieve its goals and objectives.

1.12. ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

Apart from the introductory chapter, the thesis consists of the following other chapters:

Chapter 2: Literature review – the chapter deals with literature review of the Leadership style and Organisational culture; Organisational performance.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology – the research design; data collection, population and sampling; ethical considerations of the study.

Chapter 4: Quantitative data analysis and results

Chapter 5: Qualitative data analysis and results

Chapter 6: Conceptual framework – developed conceptual framework .

Chapter 7: Conclusions and recommendations – Is the last chapter of the study. Conclusions and recommendations were made based on the findings of the study

1.13. SUMMARY

This chapter introduced the study. It also presented the problem statement and aim and objectives of the study, the significance, scope, research design and limitations of the study.

Chapter two critically discusses the literature and provides a detailed explanation of the various concepts.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In order to answer the research questions several steps need to be taken. One of these steps is reviewing relevant theory about the concepts of leadership, organisational culture, organisational performance, organisational culture and performance and organisational culture and leadership and employee commitment.

This chapter focuses on a literature review, which helped to conceptualise the study with a focus on the theories and approaches, traits and models relevant to the study. Subsequently, this is followed by a discussion of organisational culture with specific focus on Hofstede's cultural dimensions and Schein and Bagrami's level of organisational culture which were used to meet the aim of the study.

An examination of the literature in the fields of leadership and organisational culture finds that the two concepts have been independently linked to organisational performance. The leadership style has long been shown to elicit above average performance in followers, however, the reasoning behind why this process occurs is unclear. The present study investigates whether organisational culture mediates the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance. Although the relationships between leadership style, organisational culture and organisational performance have been studied before, little critical research attention has been devoted to understanding the links between the concepts and the impact that an association might have on organisational performance.

The absence of critical literature exploring the performance implications of the links between organisational culture and leadership is surprising given the numerous references to the importance of the two concepts on the functioning of organisations (Fielder, 1996; Schein, 1992). By better understanding how leadership style and organisational culture drive performance in regards to a specific organisational goals, organisations can take advantage of the influence that leadership has on everyday interactions with the followers.

The leadership theories to be discussed in this study include Trait approach, Behavioural approach, Contingency approach, New approach, Full range leadership approach, and Transformational and Transactional leadership.

2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Leadership is described as being one of the social sciences' most examined phenomena (Antonakis, et al., 2004). The latest chapter in the almost 100-year history of leadership research is dominated by the development of transformational leadership theory embodied in the Full Range of Leadership Model (Antonakis, et al., 2004; Bass, 1998). Leadership within organisations can take many forms. For the purpose of this study the focus is on Bass and Avolio's (1997) full range leadership theory in an effort to capture a broad spectrum of leadership styles expected to have a bearing on employee performance that lead to organisational performance.

According to Yulk (1998), researchers usually define leadership according to their individual perspectives and the aspects of the phenomenon of most interest to them.

Stogdill (1974) concludes that there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept.

Furthermore, leadership has been defined in terms of traits, behaviour, influence, interaction patterns, role relationship and occupation of an administrative position (Yukl, 1998). Northhouse (1997) for example combines the different approaches to leadership and offers an additional definition of leadership as a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. The emphasis is not on a trait in the leader, but on a process related to a leader and his or her followers.

Schilbach (1983) undertook extensive leadership studies and discussed a framework of basic approaches to leadership in (Gerber et al. 1996). Hence, Robbins (1996) indicates three broad approaches to leadership as well as a move to new approaches as shown in Figure 2.1.

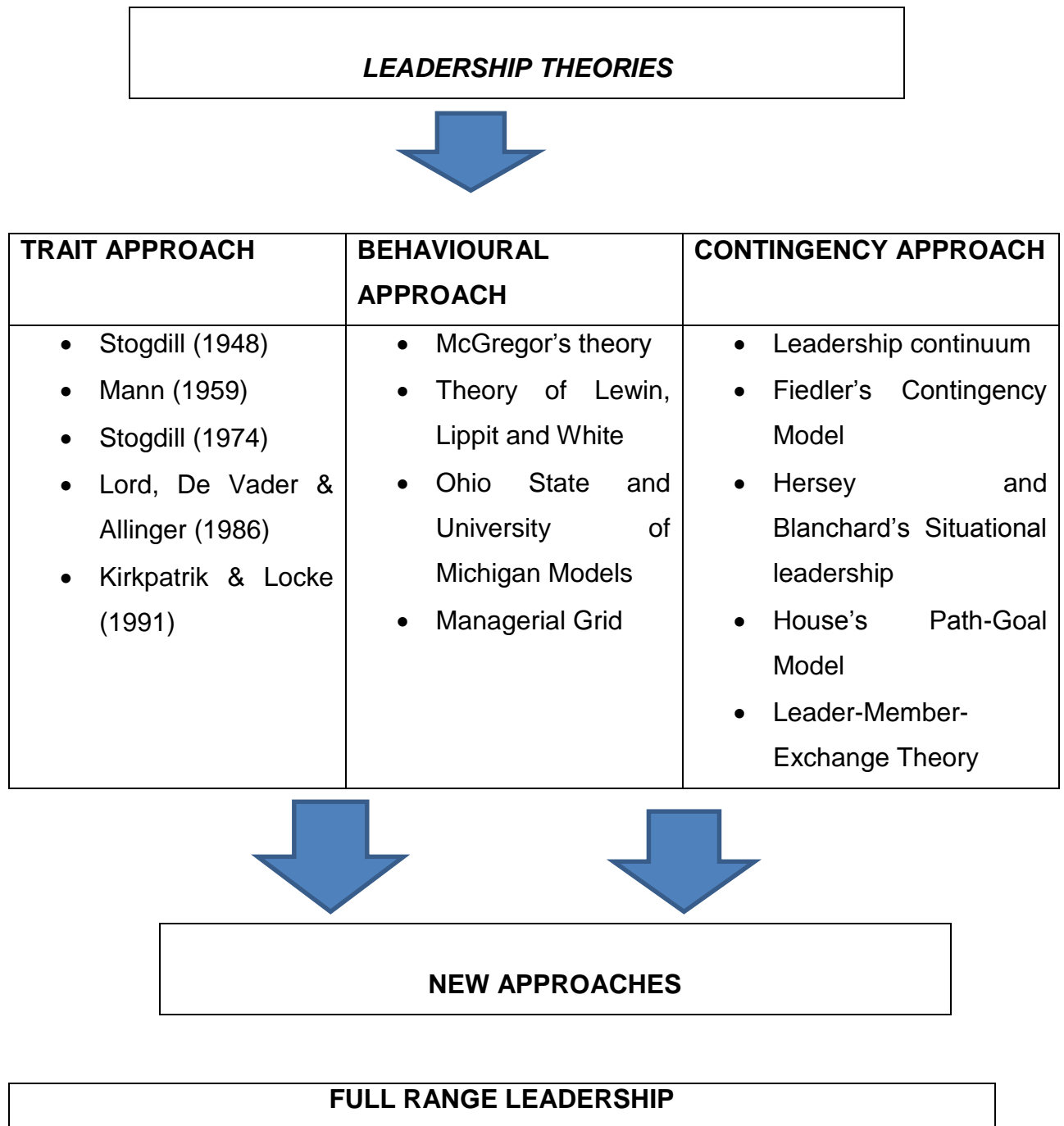


Figure 2.1: The Basic Leadership Approaches

Source: Adapted from Amos and Ristow (1999)

The following section reviews each approach for the purpose of understanding the evolution of the concept of leadership.

2.2.1 Traits Approach

Yukl (1998) defines traits in terms of personal attributes, such as temperament, personality, motives and values. Leadership was attributed to the supposedly innate qualities with which a person is born (Bernard, 1926).

Leaders are people, who are able to express themselves fully; they know what they want, why they want it, and how to communicate what they want to others in order to gain their co-operation and support (Warren Bennis). Lastly, they know how to achieve their goals (Bennis 1988:3).

These traits differentiate leaders from followers. Researchers, such as Bernard (1926) and Stogdill (1974) have investigated the role of traits in leadership behaviour. The contribution of traits approach was to provide evidence that certain characteristics are intrinsic in individuals and could result in effective leadership.

A survey of early traits research by Stogdill (1948) and Mann (1959) reported that many studies identified personality characteristics that appear to differentiate leaders from followers. However, Peter Wright (1996:34) commented that “others found no differences between leaders and followers with respect to these characteristics, or even people who possessed them were less likely to become leaders.”

Table 2.1 shows the summary of the traits and characteristics that were identified by researchers from the traits approach in terms of Northouse (2001). It is difficult to select certain traits identified as definitive leadership traits. This approach was criticised because it was not possible to define general leadership traits. Tosi et al

(1994) also suggested that the traits theory fails to clarify the relative importance of traits.

Robbins (1996) implies that the trait approach assumes that leadership is basically inborn, meaning that selection would be the key to effective leadership in an organisation.

Table 2.1 Studies of leadership traits and characteristics

Stogdill (1948)	Mann (1959)	Stogdill (1974)	Lord, De Vader and Allinger (1986)	Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991)
-Intelligence -Alertness -Responsibility -Initiative -Persistence -Self-confidence -Sociability	-Intelligence -Masculinity -Adjustment -Dominance -Extroversion -Conservatism	-Achievement -Persistence -Insight -Initiative -Self-confidence -Responsibility Cooperativeness -Tolerance -Influence -Sociability	-Intelligence -Masculinity -Dominance	-Drive -Motivation -Integrity -Confidence -Cognitive ability -Task knowledge

Source: Northouse (2001:18)

Researchers began to study actions that occur between leaders and the context of work, instead of focusing on leader traits (Riggio, et al., 2003). The attention to organisational impact on followers of a leader was shifted. However, Taylor (2009) indicates that traits leaders are born with certain traits and characteristics that distinguish them from other people, while (Gehring, 2007) states that this straight focus

was on personal qualities and characteristics rather than on the behaviours displayed by leaders. Stogdill (1974) came to the conclusion that personality, behaviour and situation had to be included to explain the emergence of leadership.

Police leaders have many opportunities to connect employees to the vision they make which lead towards organisational and personal development (Benner, Tanner, and Chelsea, 1996).

2.2.2 Behavioural Approach

Behavioural approaches to leadership were put forward from the 1940s to the 1960's (Hersey et al. 2001). The approach looked at leadership behaviours in an attempt to determine what successful leaders do, not how they look to others (Halpin & Winer, 1957). Fleishman & Hunt (1973) indicates that the approach emphasises behaviour of the leader.

Hellriegel et al. (2004) stated that the approach is based on what effective and ineffective leaders actually do, how they delegate tasks to subordinates, where and when they communicate to others and how they perform their roles.

The main behavioural models are McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y (1960), the Ohio State and University of Michigan Models in (Hellriegel, et al., 2004) and the Managerial Grid Model of Black and Mouton 1964) as explained below:

McGregor's (1960) Theory X and Theory Y model proposed two distinct theories of leadership behaviours; one negative labelled theory X and the other positive labelled theory Y. His theories contend that leadership behaviours are based on an assumption about employees. His Theory X assumption includes the belief that employees dislike work and will avoid it if possible.

According to McGregor (1960) the managerial behaviours include coercing employees, controlling their tasks and activities, and directing their behaviours. McGregor's (1960) Theory Y assumption included the belief that employees can view work as a positive experience given the right conditions. The managerial behaviour includes providing encouragement, positive reinforcement and rewards.

The University of Michigan study was similar to the Ohio State university study (Robbinson and De Cenzo, 2001; Vroom, 1976). The purpose measure of groups are used to categorize managers as relatively effective or ineffective (Yukl, 1998).

The Ohio State and University of Michigan leadership studies identified two primary independent factors which are consideration of structure (employee-oriented leadership) and initiation of structure (production-oriented leadership). Researchers focused on the behaviours that leaders and how they treated followers. The Ohio State and Michigan study focused on task accomplishment as well as personal relationship (Hersey & Blanchard 1982).

Blake et al. (1964) developed the managerial grid model and they identified two factor model of leadership behaviour similar to that found at Ohio State and University of Michigan models. They called these factors "concern for people" and "concern for output" Flexibility was later added as a third variable. According to Black et al. (1964) leaders can only exhibit behaviours that fall into two primary categories (task-oriented or people-oriented). A leader can be placed in a category depending on the frequency.

The behavioural approach looks at how effective and ineffective leaders execute their duties, the delegation thereof, how and when communication is cascaded to others.

2.2.3 Contingency Approach

Contingency theory is a leader match theory that explains the match to appropriate situations. Fiedler (1978) explains that contingency approach represents a shift in leadership research from focusing on the leader to looking at the leader in conjunction with the situation in which the leader works. Effective leadership occurs when the leader accurately diagnoses the development level of the subordinates in a task situation and uses a leadership style that matches the situation (Blanchard 1993). House (1977) indicates that leadership effectiveness depends on the fit between a leader's behaviour and the characteristics of subordinates and the subordinate's task.

The main contingency theories are the Leadership Continuum of Tannenbaum and Schmidt, Fiedler's Contingency Model, Hersey and Blanchard's Situational model and House's Path-Goal Model and the Leader-Member Exchange theory (Bass, 1990).

2.2.4 Fiedler's Model

Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory posited that effective group performance was dependent upon the appropriate match of the leader's personality and the situation. The leader's personality orientation is centred on the task or interpersonal style. Fiedler (1964, 1967) used the Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) contingency model to portray how the situation moderates relationship between the leader's effectiveness and measure referred to the least preferred co-worker score. The LPC score is determined by asking a leader to think about all past and present co-workers, select the one they worked least well with and rate the subordinate on a set of bipolar adjective scales. The scales include ratings on friendly / unfriendly and cooperative /

uncooperative. The total of the ratings of the scale signifies the LPC score, implying that a low LPC score represents a leader who is generally critical in rating the least preferred co-worker, whereas a leader who is lenient would obtain a high LPC score (Yukl, 1998).

However, after the research finding, the LPC model has been criticised. The criticism was that the model and most of the researchers neglect medium LPC leaders, who probably outnumber the high and the low LPC leaders. Research suggests that medium LPC leaders are more effective than whether high or low LPC leaders in a majority of situations, presumably because they balance affiliation and achievement concerns more successfully (Yukl, 1998). The influence of leaders over members is enhanced through strong relationship.

2.2.5 Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model

Situational theory was popularised in the 1950s. Hersey and Blanchard's (1977) situational leadership theory proposed that leaders should vary their behaviour according to the member's maturity and they classified leader behaviours along two dimensions: directive behaviour and supportive behaviour. Hersey and Blanchard (1977) claimed that the levels of directive and supportive leader behaviour should be based on the level of readiness of the followers.

The effectiveness of the leadership style depends on the situation. Directive behaviour refers to one-way directional communication that is from leader to employee. Supportive behaviour refers to bi-directional communication from the leader providing the employee with emotional support socially. These behaviours are labelled as

delegating, participating telling and selling. As an employee become mature he/she grows in capacity, ability, experience, motivation, self-esteem confidence, the need for socio-emotional support increases.

2.2.6 House's Path-Goal Model

The path-goal leadership was developed by House (1971) to explain the performance and satisfaction of subordinates through the behaviour of their leaders (House, 1971). As a result the function of the leader was to provide coaching, guidance and personal support to employees. The path-goal theory proposed that group members preferred a highly structured regime when presented with ambiguous and interdependent tasks.

2.2.7 Leader-Member Exchange Theory

Leader-Member Exchange theory (LMX) was developed by Danserau et al. (1975) as a response to the Average Leadership Style (ALS), which assumed that leaders maintain similar relationships with all of their employees.

Subordinates become in-group members based on how well they get along with the leader and whether they are willing to expand their roles and responsibilities (Danserau, et al., 1975). The contingency approach assumes that leaders are merely shaped by their situation, when it might be possible that truly effective leaders can shape situation around them (Kotter, 1990). In-group members receive extra opportunities and rewards, while out-group members receive standard benefits.

Therefore, in-group members have high quality exchanges characterised by mutual trust, respect and obligation (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995).

The weakness of the contingency approach is that it failed to provide some universal principles of leadership (Bass, 1990). The principles such as integrity are not governed by any particular situation (Robbins, 1996). The theory has not explained the link between styles and situation (Rice, 1978). The basic approaches also do not pay attention to the needs of the follower and this is contrary to literature on motivational theories (Tosi, et al., 1986). Yukl (2002) states that although situational leadership theories provide insights into reasons for effective leadership, conceptual weakness limit the approach's usefulness. Kotter (1990) noted that the contingency approach assumes that leaders are merely shaped by their situation, when it might be possible that truly effective leaders can shape situations around them.

The contribution of the contingency approach is to demonstrate the importance of situational factors in leadership in a systematic leadership research. Ivancevich and Matteson (1993) indicate that behavioural and contingency approaches have advocates and each attempts to identify the leader behaviours most appropriate for variety of different situations.

2.2.8 New Approaches

The trait, behavioural and contingency approaches as seen above do not agree on how leaders influence followers best. In terms of Bass (1990) these basic approaches lack rigour, generality and the opportunity to employ standard measurements.

Globally, the environment has become more competitive and dynamic, so various leaders throughout the world have realised the need to make changes in their way of operating if their organisations are to survive (Kotter, 1990). A new theory, transformational leadership, has been identified as the most appropriate style after authors like Avolio, Waldman and Yammarino (1991), Bass (1990), Bennis and Nanus (1985) and Burns (1978) completed extensive leadership research.

Figure 2.2 demonstrates that the transformational leadership theory integrates trait, behavioural and situational approaches. The theory recognises that there are certain traits inherent in leaders and followers. Bass (1990) indicates that central to transformational leadership is the fact that the behaviour exhibited by the leader focuses not only on tangible inducements, but more on developing the follower to transcend their own self-interest for the good of the group.

2.2.9 Full Range Leadership Approaches

The latest history of leadership research is dominated by the development of transformational leadership theory embodied in the Full Range of Leadership Model (Antonakis, et al., 2004; Bass, 1998). This approach to leadership focuses on the charismatic and affective elements of leadership.

Figure 2.2 is the model developed by Bass and Avolio (1994; 1997) and encompasses a range of leader behaviour. It starts with transformational leader behaviour to transactional leader behaviour to the lowest leader interaction of laissez-faire leader behaviour (Bass and Avolio, 1994)

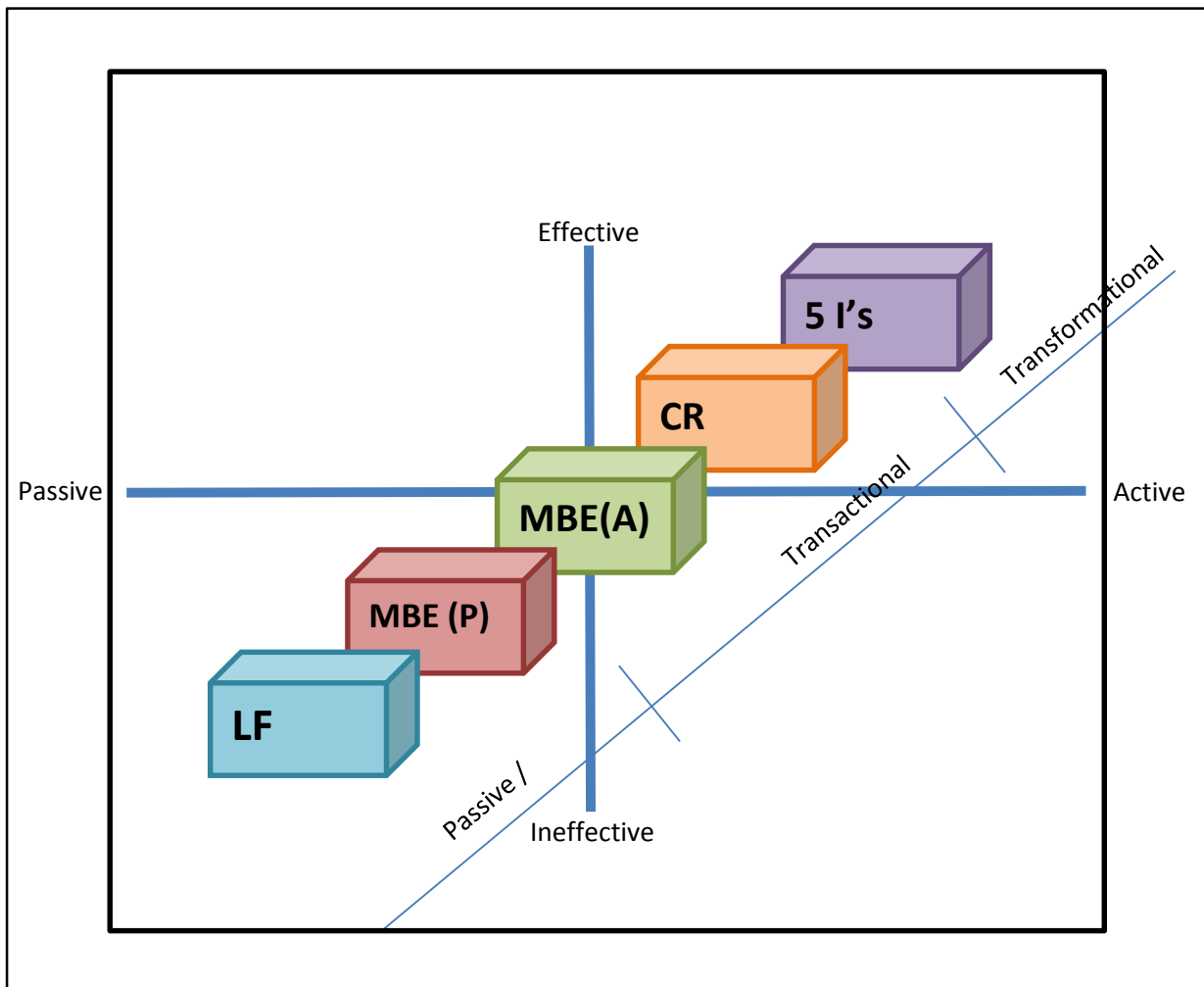


Figure 2.2 a Model of the Full Range Leadership Development Theory

Source: Bass and Avolio (1994)

These leadership styles have been described to have a direct effect on individual and organisational level outcomes (Bass, 1990; Yukl and van Fleet, 1992).

Leadership behaviour has a strong influence on employee and organisation outcomes (Chen & Silverthorne 2005). Schein (1992) argues that leadership today is essentially the creation, the management, and at times the destruction and reconstruction of culture. In fact he says, “the only thing of importance that leaders do is create and

manage culture” and “the unique talent of leaders is their ability to understand and work within culture” (Schein, 1992:5). He further indicates that assessing and improving organisational culture as well as determining when major cultural transformations are necessary is critical to long-term organisational success.

The following questions are asked by Fleming (2009) to clarify on how leaders succeed in achieving large-scale change in their organisations:

- How can leaders create and sustain long-term revolutionary changes in organisations?
- What style of leadership is needed to motivate followers to undertake organisational transformation?

Avolio et al. (1999), Banerji and Krishnan (2000), Barbuto (2005) and Nahavandi (2006) suggest that the transformational leadership concept has the potential to explain how leaders succeed in achieving large-scale change in organisations. Northouse (2003) states that one of the current approaches to leadership that has been researched since the early 1980s is the transformational approach. Burns (1978:4) asserts that “a transforming leader looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower. He further stated that transformational leadership occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality.

2.2.10 Transformational and Transactional Leadership

In the past years, a substantial body of research has accumulated on the transformational and transactional leadership theory. Burns (1978) first introduced transformational and transactional leadership in his treatment of political leadership.

Conger and Kanungo (1998) noted with Burns the difference between transformational and transactional leadership is in terms of what leaders and followers offer one another. Transformational leaders offer a purpose that transcends short-term goals and focuses on higher order intrinsic needs. Transactional leaders, focus on the proper exchange of resources. To Burns, transactional leadership is more common place than is transformational leadership.

Bass (1985) based his theory of transformational leadership on Burn's (1978) conceptualisation, with modifications. Within the transformational leadership concept, Bass and Avolio (1994) identified four components of transformational leadership: Idealised Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individualised Consideration – which are labelled as (the four I's)

- *Idealised Influence*

Idealised Influence indicates whether leaders hold subordinates' trust, maintain their faith and respect, show dedication to them, appeal to their hopes and dreams and act as their role model.

- *Inspirational Motivation*

Inspirational Motivation measures the degree to which leaders provide a vision, use appropriate symbols and images to help others focus on their work, try to make others feel their work is significant.

- *Intellectual Stimulation*

Intellectual Stimulation shows the degree to which leaders encourage others to be creative in looking at old problems in new ways, create an environment that is tolerant of seemingly extreme positions, and nurture people to question their own values and beliefs and those of the organisation.

- *Individualised Consideration*

Individualised Consideration indicates the degree to which leaders show interest in others' well-being, assign projects individually, and pay attention to those who seem less involved in the group.

According to Bass and Avolio (1994) there are three components of transactional leadership: Contingent Reward, Management-by-Exception and Laissez-Faire Leadership.

- *Contingent Reward*

Contingent Reward shows the degree to which leaders tell others what to do in order to be rewarded, emphasise what leaders expect from them, and recognise their accomplishments.

- *Management-by-Exception*

Management-by-exception assesses whether leaders tell others the job requirements, are content with standard performance, and are a believer in "if it isn't broke, fit it.????

– not clear- ED

- *Laissez-Faire Leadership*

Laissez-faire measures whether leaders require little of others, are content to let things ride, and let others do their own thing.

According to the result of Bass's Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), transformational leaders are more likely seen by their subordinates and employees as satisfying and effective leaders than transactional leaders.

Leadership always plays an important role in the growth and development of an organisation (Ahn, et al., 2004). The reason for this is that the leaders and managers of the organisation usually take all the initiatives and decisions, and decisions taken by the leadership of the organisation can have a broad impact on the ultimate organisation results (Avolio, et al., 2003).

2.3 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.3.1 Organisational culture

The cultures of an organisation play a critical role in the organisation's success and the job satisfaction of employees (Gutierrez, Candela and Carver, 2012). Organisational culture is defined as a stable collection of values, symbols, rituals and stories. It encompasses the beliefs and assumptions held by the employees (Dennis and Mishra, 1995) The elements of culture work under the surface and have a powerful influence on human behaviour (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Denison and Mishra 1995. Schein (2010) describes culture as a dynamic phenomenon, as coercive, and as

influencing people in many ways; it is created by the interactions with others and, thus shapes behaviour.

2.3.2 Hostede's Cultural Dimensions

This study adopts Hofstede's cultural dimensions because it allows comparing the basic properties of organisational culture in general. The other aspects of Hostede's dimensions of culture are:

- a. Hostede's dimensions have been among the pioneers in culture studies; and
- b. Hostede's dimensions have been used time and time has been internationally used by many researchers in many countries (Leone, 1996; Gore, 1999; Sin & Tze, 2000; Joiner, 2000; Thomas & Au, 2002; Damanpuor, et.al., 2002).

Sackman (1991) concurs that using the Hostede classification approach enables comparisons between studies which can be neater and the level of objectivity involved is generally higher. Hostede (1980) initially developed the following four "dimensions" of cultural values namely:

- a. *Power distance*: the extent to which the less powerful members of an organisation accept that power is distributed unequally;
- b. *Uncertainty avoidance*: the extent to which people feel threatened by ambiguous situations and have created beliefs and institutions that they try to avoid;
- c. *Individualism / collectivism*: this dimension reflects an ethnic position of the culture in which people are supposed to look after themselves and their immediate families, or a situation in which people belong to group or collectives which are supposed to look after them in exchange for loyalty; and

- d. *Masculinity / femininity*: a situation in which the dominant values are success, money and professions as opposed to the situation in which the dominant values are caring for others and the quality of life.

In addition, according to Hofstede (1980) there are three factors that determine employees' behaviour in the workplace; national culture, occupational culture and organisational culture. The organisational culture is the crucial factor that determines organisation success rather than the national and occupational culture.

Hofstede (1980) identified the dimensions as national culture values.

Schein (1990) defines organisational culture as:

“a pattern of basic assumptions that a group has invented, discovered or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, and that have worked well enough to be considered valid, and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems (Schein, 1990).

Brown (1998) defines organisational culture as “the pattern of beliefs, values and learned ways of coping with experience that have developed during the course of an organisation's history, and which tend to be manifested in its material arrangements and in behaviours of its members”. This process in the organisation is articulated in order to shape how the organisational members should act and behave (Manetje, 2005).

Various researchers tend to define the construct of organisational culture from a broader viewpoint, such as artefacts, symbols, rituals, celebrations, structures and behaviour (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Pondy, et al., 1983; Trice and Beyer, 1993).

In particular, (Schein, 1984; Bagraim, 2001) viewed culture as comprising of different levels:

The table below shows the four dimensions of national cultural values and the consequences of each dimension to the organisation.

Table 2.2: Four values according to Hofstede and their Organisational Consequences

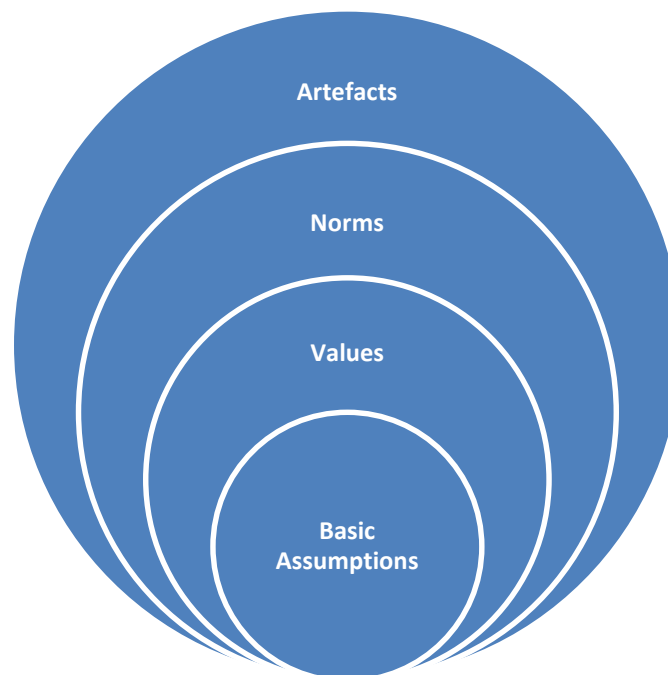
Dimensions	
<p>1. Power Distance Dimension</p> <p>Low (Australia, Israel, Denmark, Sweden, Norway)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Less centralisation • Flatter organisation pyramids • Smaller wage differentials • Structure in which manual and clerical workers are in equal jobs 	<p>High (Philippines, Mexico, Venezuela, India, Brazil)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Greater centralisation • Tall organisation pyramids • Large wage differentials • Structure in which white-collar jobs are valued more than blue-collar jobs
2. The Masculinity / feminity dimension	
<p>Low</p> <p>(Sweden, Denmark, Thailand, Finland)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sex roles are minimised • Organisations do not interfere with people's private lives • More women in more qualified jobs, soft, yielding, intuitive skills are rewarded • Lower job stress • Social rewards are valued 	<p>High</p> <p>(Japan, Australia, Venezuela, Italy, Mexico)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sex roles are clearly differentiated • Organisations may interfere to protect their interests • Fewer women in qualified jobs • Aggression, competition, and justice are rewarded • Higher job stress • Work is valued as a central life interest

3. The Individualism / Collectivism dimension	
<p>Low</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Involvement of individuals with organisations primary morale • Employees expect organisations to look after them like a family and can become very alienated if organisation dissatisfies them • Organisation has a great influence on member's well-being • Employees expect organisation to defend their interests • Policies and practices are based on loyalty and sense if there is duty and group participation • Promotion in form inside • Promotion is on seniority • Less concern with fashion in managerial ideas • Policies and practices vary according to relations 	<p>High</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Involvement of individuals with organisation primarily calculative • Organisations are not expected to look after employees from the cradle to the grave • Organisation has moderate influence on member's well-being • Employees are expected to defend their own interests • Policies and practices should allow individual initiative • Promotion is from inside and outside • Promotion is based on market value • Managers try to be up to date and endorse modern management ideas
4. The uncertainty avoidance dimension	
<p>Low (Denmark, Sweden, Great Britain, United States, India)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Managers are involved in strategy • Managers are more interpersonal oriented and flexible in the styles • Managers are more willing to make individual and risky decisions • High labour turnover • Lower satisfaction scores • Less power through control of uncertainty • Less structuring of activities • Fewer written rules • More generalists • Variability • Greater willingness to take risks • Less ritualistic behaviour 	<p>High (Greece, Portugal, Japan, Peru, France)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Managers are less involved in strategy • Managers are more task-oriented and consistent in their styles • Managers are less willing to make individual and risky decisions • Lower labour turn over • High satisfaction score • More power through control of uncertainty • More structuring of activities • More written rules • More specialists • Standardisation • Less willingness to take risks\More ritualistic behaviour

Source: adopted from Hofstede (1991)

The different layers of an organisational culture can be compared to the layers of an onion. To understand the organisational culture, it has to be peeled, layer by layer. The outer layers are the more easily identifiable and changeable parts of the culture, the layers deeper in the onion are more difficult to identify and change (Buelens et al., 2006). As Schein (1990) and Bagraim (2001) perceive culture as having different layers, other authors perceive culture more as a classification of various organisational core values (Cameroon and Quinn, 2011).

Figure 2.3: Levels of Organisational culture



Source: Schein (1984) and Bagraim (2001).

- a. *Artefacts*: These are tangible and visible aspects of culture shared by members or organisations that are the manifestations of the culture (Denison, 1990). Examples; - manner of dress (uniform), documents such as charters, employee

material (Schein 1984).Artefacts are difficult to interpret as it is not understandable why people are dressed and salute in this manner.

- b. *Norms*: The norms are the second layer of cultural awareness that guides members regarding the appropriate behaviour in a particular situation (Cummings and Worley, 2005). How members define and interpret situations of organisational life and prescribe the bounds of acceptable behaviour (Denison, 1990). In this layer the employees are acceptable in the culture, it is rooted in them, it is their behaviour, without asking why that is how they behave.
- c. *Values*: Values reflect the members preferred means of resolving the problems that the group are facing (Denison, 1990). Values are guiding principles of the group behaviour, whether right or wrong. Members just comply in terms of policies, procedures, regulations, and so forth.
- d. *Basic assumptions*: these represent an unconscious level of culture, at which the underlying values have, over a period of time, been transformed and are taken for granted as an organisationally acceptable way of perceiving the world. By this definition, basic assumptions are also the most difficult to relearn and change, hence, (Bagraim, 2001) indicates that these assumptions are not easily recognisable and difficult to change.

Schein (1990) suggest that cultures are created through the way organisations have reacted to important incidents in the past and have thus evolved certain norms, as well as through the identification of organisational members with their leaders.

The concept of organisational culture is a way of looking and thinking about the behaviour of employees in the organisation and the citizens of the country at large. It is the most important for a successful organisation. A variety of research findings have

accentuated different aspects of its importance (Al-Adailen and Al-tawi, 2011; Baird, Hu and Reeve, 2011; Parboteeah, 2008; Lok and Crawford, 1999).

Wei, Qing, and Baiyin (2009) described organisational cultural evolution through the following stages:

Stage 1: The founders of the culture seek the survival of the organisation, and so begin to engage with the employees by specifying the organisations values, beliefs, and aspirations. This stage uses inspiration as driver to translate the leader's assumptions to values and then, assumptions to symbols.

Stage 2: The implementations of the culture, the cultural values are embedded into the systems, policies and practices as a symbolisation of the artefacts.

Stage 3: Maturity stage occurs when the organisation and its service become stable; the maturation comes from the drivers of this stage, which then define the subculture of the organisation.

Stage 4: Transformation occurs with the restoration of the basic assumptions to the new unified area of growth, which are converted into the new balanced culture and assumptions (Wei et al., 2009).

The importance of the four stages of organisational culture is that they enable the necessary changes to be made so that the organisation can be lead in a new direction.

Throughout the definitions are assumption processes of human interaction as how things are done and how problems should be understood in the organisation.

Furthermore, Schein (2010) emphasises that both leadership of the organisation and organisational culture are two sides of the same coin; neither can be understood on its own. He further argues that the only importance of leaders of an organisation is to create and manage culture (Schein, 2010).

2.3.3 Organisational Performance

Studies of organisational performance have a long history (Griffin, 1990) with a variety of theories becoming popular over the years, each emphasising different aspects of an organisation that could affect its performance. The definition of performance depends on the stakeholder, and any particular measure of performance often tends to compete against another (Denison, 1990).

Every organisation has a culture (Lebo, 1997), but not every organisation has a performance culture. A performance culture reflects an organisational culture with performance as a priority, thus employees expected high performance from co-workers and celebrated accomplishments (Risher, 2007). He further stated that in corporations, the focus on performance is perhaps the most important dimension of its culture. Moorhead and Griffin (2004) identified high performing organisations as those that established values, created vision, reinforced cultural behaviours, and initiated implementation strategies.

Managers regard performance in operational processes as important while stakeholders prefer performance in dividends. According to Langton, (2000) performance implies the action of doing things, using things, and attending to conditions, processing, communicating, and achieving results. Furthermore, he

describes performance as consisting of four dimensions: behaviour, standards, and support and human relations. All four dimensions need to be present for the organisation to perform well. Allerton, (1998) states that a high performance organisation is one in which the culture provides employees with accountability and responsibility necessary to meet customers' needs in a timely manner to ensure business success.

Ricardo (2001) noted that performance measures could include result-oriented behaviour (criterion-based) and relative (normative) measures, education and training, concepts and instruments, including management development and leadership training, which were the necessary building skills and attitudes of performance management. He further indicates that the performance term should be broader based which includes effectiveness, efficiency, economy, quality, consistency behaviour and normative measures (Ricardo, 2001).

Another study by Chien (2004) found that there were five major factors determining organisational performance, namely:

- Leadership styles and environments;
- Organisational culture;
- Job design;
- Model of motive; and
- Human resource polices.

2.3.4 Leadership and Organisational Performance

Leadership has a significant impact on performance and culture has a mediating role between leadership styles and performance of the organisation. Studies on leadership usually categorised as “trait” studies concentrated on identifying the personality traits which characterised successful leaders (Argyris, 1955; Mahoney et al., 1960). In the literature review each every study emphasises the importance of different factors that leadership effectiveness is dependent on and the leader’s diagnosis and understanding of situational factors. According to Mullins, (1999) the major weakness of style and behavioural theories is that they ignore the important role which situational factors play in determining the effectiveness of individual leaders.

Organisational performance does not only mean to define a problem but it also seeks for a solution of a problem (Hefferman and Flood, 2000). Daft (2000) and Richardo (2001) said that achieving organisational objectives is known as organisational performance. However, according to a study by Campbell and Kodz (2011), they indicate that the challenges of linking leadership with organisational performance are particularly pronounced for the police since common performance measures in the police are affected by multiple confounding factors.

Police are required to understand and effectively operate in a complex social, political, and organisational environment (Casey and Mitchell, 2007). Leadership is one of the most important predictors of whether organisations are able to effectively function in dynamic environments (Peterson et al., 2009), and as such the need for effective police leadership is greater than ever (Meaklim and Sims, 2011).

The rapid change that leaders face in the police is systematic. In the case of the SAPS the leaders are responsible for effectively managing good order, control and command of all members under their command and to discipline them, keeping the community safe. The SAPS like other organisations, is experiencing diverse challenges in an internal and external operational environment that could have an impact on leadership in the organisation. Riggio, et al. (2002) assert that organisational effectiveness depends on leadership effectiveness.

It is important for leaders to know which factors influence an organisation's performance in order for them to take appropriate measures to initiate them. Recent studies on leadership have contrasted transactional leadership with transformational leadership. Transactional leaders are said to be instrumental and frequently focus on exchange relationship with their subordinates (Bass and Avolio, 1993). In contrast, transformational leadership aims to transform people and organisations in a literal sense to change them in mind and heart, enlarge vision, insight, and understanding, clarify purposes, make behaviour congruent with belief, principles, or values; and bring about changes that are permanent (Covey, 1992). Therefore, a transformational leader undertakes a change by encouraging vision, inspiring change and allowing employees to feel wanted and important to be part of change.

The organisational leadership is not only for management purposes, but also for ensuring that everyone within the organisation is looking in the same direction and has the same objective.

2.3.5 Organisational Culture and Organisational Performance

Studies relating organisational culture to organisational performance tend to differ in terms of the performance measures that are used, across the types of organisation. The performance measures generally relate to the extent to which goals are relevant to the objectives of the organisation.

Various research authors recognised that there is a relationship between organisational culture and organisational performance. The variety of research on the link occurred since the 1980s. Kotter and Heskett (1992) in the early research, focused on the ways in which the culture of an organisation influenced its economic performance. The authors studied over 200 organisations in various organisational areas, including share values and unwritten rules, and then the authors found that healthy cultures promoted shared values and beliefs. Denison's (1983) review of 34 companies showed that culture has a measureable effect on an organisation's performance. Coogan and Partner (2006) identified 14 corporate culture traits present in organisations that outperformed other organisations. The study reviewed the impact of organisational culture on organisational performance.

Organisational culture is a powerful force that establishes and reinforces certain ways of doing things so strongly that it can lead to organisational success or failure.

The research of Chehade, et al. (2006) showed that the average organisation's concept of organisational culture was that it was not measurable and could not sustain in-depth analysis. Consequently, researchers faced dilemmas such as substantiating the relationship between organisational culture and organisational performance, and assessing organisational culture and organisational performance (Wilderom, et al., 2000). Denison and Mishra (1995), Gordon and DiTomaso (1992), and Kotter and

Heskett (1992), assessed organisational culture by using only leaders or executives. This has been criticised by a few scholars, for example Ashkanasy (2000) argued that to study organisational culture, it was imperative that researchers investigate all levels of staff of the organisation. This study is going to look at all levels from the landscapers, junior leaders/managers, middle managers/leaders to the senior leaders or managers. There is a need to use organisation culture practice to study organisational culture performance relationship because most studies link values to performance (Lee, 2006; Salzainna, 2004; Mazlina, 2004; Jaundi, 2000; Markannen, 2001; Sin and Tze, 2000; Kasa and Pihie, 1997; Denison and Mishra, 1995).

2.3.6 Leadership and Organisational Culture

It has been suggested that leaders can help develop, shape and maintain a desired organisational culture and that they may affect organisational performance by creating new sets of shared values (Conger and Kanungo, 1987; Schein, 1990; Trice and Beyer, 1993). Leaders have an important role in emerging organisational culture. Leaders are the definers, and givers of culture, who can create and infuse the values, beliefs and assumptions that they believe are necessary and good for the organisation (Denison, 1990); Schein, 1990).

As the organisation grows and develops, employees draw on their own experiences, and the resulting culture reflects the total group experience as well as those parts of the founders' beliefs that seemed to work in practice. The extent to which organisational values are shared among employees is another important point to keep in mind when linking leadership and organisational culture. Waldman and Yammarino

(1999) suggested that the degree of buy-in of the leaders' culture-related messages determines the homogeneity or heterogeneity of organisational culture.

Schein (1992) observes that organisational culture and leadership are intertwined. He illustrates this inter connection by looking at the relationship between leadership and culture in the context of the organisational life cycle. With regard to the consensus of opinion on the links between organisational culture and leadership, Bass and Avolio (1993) mirror the argument of Schein (1992) by suggesting that the relationship between the two concepts represents an on-going interplay in which the leader shapes the culture and in turn is shaped by the resulting culture.

Bass (1985) examines the impact of different styles of leadership on culture by demonstrating the relationship of the two. He argues that transactional leaders tend to operate within the confines and limits of the existing culture, while transformational leaders frequently work towards changing the organizational culture in line with their vision. The link between leadership style and organisational performance, the relationship between organisational culture and performance, and the interplay between leadership and culture have each been studied separately.



Figure 2.4: Framework leadership style, organisational performance mediated by organisational culture

Source: Proposed conceptual framework

The link between leadership style and organisational performance is mediated by the nature and form of organisational culture. Schimmoeller (2010) argues that the survival of an organisation depends on responsiveness and adaptability of its leaders in selecting a leadership style by understanding the situation and members emotion which is influenced by organisational culture (Block, 2003; Avolio and Bass, 2004; Schimmoeller, 2010; Acar, 2012). Therefore, leaders of the organisations are responsible for creating a workplace culture, which could result in improved employee satisfaction and organisational performance (Schein, 2010). Furthermore, leaders are required to consider the important factors including employee's situation, beliefs, and values and assumptions, which are influenced by organisational culture before a certain style of leadership is selected (Alvesson, 2012).

2.4 SUMMARY

This chapter presented a review of the literature in leadership, organisational culture, organisational performance, leadership and organisational performance, organisational culture and organisational performance and organisational culture and leadership and employee commitment. Each and every employee in the organisation has different values and beliefs that he/she must work with. Then, does the employee him/herself internalise the organisation's culture to know whether he/she comes up to standard with them or not, since the organisational culture has a deep impact on the performance of the employees for them to be productive.

Research of the link between organisational culture and performance has increased substantially (Lim, 1995). Organisational culture has been identified as a mediating variable in this study. The most important contribution of culture towards the understanding of organisations appears to be a descriptive and explanatory tool.

Some writers suggest that the style of a leader affects performance; certain types of culture are linked to superior performance; culture and leadership are related, the precise nature and form of interaction between these three concepts is not fully understood.

The next chapter is about the research design and methodology.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with methods that are applicable in order to establish relationships between leadership style, organisational performance and organisational culture. Aspects that are covered include research design, population and sampling, data collection, data analysis, validity and reliability and ethical considerations.

This study aims to find the relationships between leadership style, organisational culture and organisational performance and subsequently to develop a conceptual framework for enhancing organisational performance in the South African Police Service. The specific objectives are:

- To determine the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance;
- To determine the relationship between organisational culture and organisational performance;
- To determine the relationship between leadership style and organisational culture;
- To uncover the mediating and moderating effect of organisational culture on the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance;
- To develop a framework for enhancing organisational performance in the SAPS.

3.2. EPISTEMOLOGICAL AND ONTOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Based on research problems addressed in past literature, the positivists approach has been selected. The positivist approach was followed when researchers believe that reality was stable and can be described from an objective point of view (Remenji, et al., 1988). As explained by Hirschheim and Klein (1992) the positivist method identifies reasons for a problem based on a deductive process.

In the positivist / deductive method, according to Bryman and Bell (2011) and Creswell (2009) there are three fundamentals explained as constructing the hypothesis / model or a relationship and the execution of quantitative methods and value-free explanation provided by the researcher on the research problem. It is understood from Alvesson and Skoldberg (2009), Bryman and Bell (2011) and Creswell (2009) to describe variables using quantitative measures while deploying a hypothesis testing on a particular sample to generalise to a larger population. However, the inquiry methods available under positivism are observing, measuring, distributing surveys and questionnaires (Minges, 2003).

Developing the conceptual framework is based on the literature review presented in Chapter Two, where it reviewed literature related to leadership style, organisational performance and organisational culture. The conceptual framework was built using rationales for example (Cameron and Quinn, 2011) in order to reach the targets of the investigation. The post-positivist method focuses on identifying the differences between the phenomenon in order to identify cause and effect (Guba and Lincoln, 1994), the investigation focuses on the relationship of common variables in relation to certain phenomena; namely leadership style, organisational performance mediated by organisational culture in the SAPS.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

Descriptive approach (qualitative) was used to describe the phenomenon under investigation in which case the researcher attempted to give a profile of the problems, people and events pertaining to the target population. It was also used to describe their characteristics.

Survey design (quantitative) in the form of a questionnaire was designed to collect quantitative data from the random sample of officials. Statistical methods were used to analyse the data. Survey design is a quick and systematic way of collecting data.

3.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Mixed method research is more than simply collecting data from respondents. Mixed method research refers to research that integrates both qualitative and quantitative data within a single study (Creswell and Clark, 2011, Wisdom et. al., 2012). The mixing of qualitative and quantitative compact within a study is an important aspect of mixed methods research (Simons and Lathlean, 2010; Maudsley, 2011). The elements of qualitative and quantitative are interlinked during mixing to provide an integrated response to the research question that is deeper than would be possible by either method alone (Glogowska, 2011; Zhang and Creswell, 2013).

Other terms for mixed method research designs include: integrating, synthesis, multi method and mixed methodology (Creswell, 2014). Creswell (2012) further, drew a parallel between mixed methods and action research because in both research approaches quantitative and qualitative data are collected within one study. This type of study was best conducted through the mixed methods approach. One of the benefits

of mixed design is that it brings together both the qualitative and quantitative data to tell the full story (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011).

Using mixed methodology allows researchers to rely on more than one data source (Creswell, 2009) moreover; Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) say that using a mixed methods design provides strengths that offset the weaknesses of both qualitative and quantitative research.

Mixed method research capitalises on the strength of both qualitative and quantitative research combining data collection, while compensating for their limitations to provide on integrated understanding of the research topic (Andrew and Halcomb, 2009; Wisdom, et. al., 2012; Scammon, et.al., 2013).

The mixed methods approach involves collecting qualitative and quantitative data analysing and integrating the results into a coherent report. However, these approaches have both merits and demerits which are detailed in Table 3.1.

Table: 3.1 Advantages and disadvantages of mixed methods

Advantages	Disadvantages
Methodological triangulation improves reliability.	Mapping a data set upon another is complicated.
Better understands the problem being investigated.	Novice researchers may under analyse data
Multiple sources of data arranges into themes.	In sociology data cannot be aggregated to arrive at an overall truth.
Inductive data analysis building themes into conceptual units of information.	Extensive data collection and time intensive analyses of text and numeric data.

Focuses on respondent's meanings and not finding it in literature or the researcher's views.	Calculations of reliability depend on the researcher's documentation of procedures.
The initial plan for research cannot be tightly prescribed.	Anecdotalism poses a threat to validity.
Theoretical lens used to view studies.	Not based on a unified methodological concept.
Particularly for an interpretive inquiry.	Findings are not generalised.
Holistic account of the problem or issue being studied.	Subjective and reflexive, the researcher's communication becomes part of the knowledge.

Source: Patton (1990)

The decision to use a mixed methods design was based on the additional value that using both methods of data collection would provide above using a single method of data collection in answering the research question (Creswell and Clark, 2011; Scammon, et.al., 2013). In essence, qualitative data provides a detailed understanding of a problem while quantitative data provides a more general understanding of a problem (Creswell and Clark, 2011).

The nature of the study has both quantitative and qualitative aspects. It is also known that using one research methodology such as quantitative methodology might leave gaps in the study results which would make a researcher fail to come up with a comprehensive research report. The use of a qualitative method helped to address this concern and the qualitative aspects of the research study. The quantitative method addressed the quantitative aspects of the phenomenon.

3.4.1 Population and Sampling

The South African Police Service members number plus minus one hundred and eighty thousand (180 000) including the Public Service Act members. Within this number, Colonels are 2 115, Lieutenant Colonels are 6 141, Captains 15 556, Warrant officers 36 419, Sergeants 20 009 and Constables 63 063.

For this study, the samples were selected from employees classified as Police officials (Functional) members within the South African Police Service: Warrant officers, Captains, Lieutenant-colonels and Colonels, who are working in police stations existing in Gauteng Province, in Pretoria, Tshwane clusters; and the members from Division Human Resources Development Academies, which are SAPS Academy Tshwane, SAPS Academy Hammanskraal and SAPS Academy Roodeplaatdam. These Academies are also within Gauteng Province. Only four (4) Pretoria clusters were selected for the research to be conducted.

The findings and recommendations can be generalised to all Pretoria clusters as the issues or challenges might be the same. For the purpose of this study the **population size** is the number of employees to be selected from the four Pretoria clusters. In terms of this study the population is **255**.

A concurrent mixed methodology of research was used during the study because some of the issues to be investigated are quantitative in nature and others are qualitative in nature. Mixed methodology also helped to triangulate the study. While the quantitative methodology tends to be more objective, the qualitative methodology tends to be more subjective, therefore the two methodologies complement each other. This helped the researcher to come up with a more comprehensive study.

The study focused on Gauteng Province within Tshwane clusters. Tshwane consists of the following clusters: Tshwane Central, Tshwane West, Tshwane East and Tshwane North. The above clusters with their police stations were selected for cost effectiveness and assured that the relevant information in terms of the data collection is covered.

The findings and recommendations are generalised in terms of the selected Tshwane clusters as the issues or challenges might be the same.

For the purpose of this study the **population size** is the number of employees to be selected from the four Tshwane clusters. In terms of this study the population is **255**. The above clusters with the police stations were selected for cost effectiveness and assured that the relevant information in terms of the data collection is covered.

Stratified random sampling was used to select the random sample for the quantitative methodology whereas a purposive sampling method was applied to select a minimum of 14 senior police officials for the qualitative method. The saturation point principle was applied to get the right sample size for the qualitative sample.

The population size of senior police officials who qualified to be respondents in this study was 255. Thus, 156 was about 62 per cent of the population which was more than enough according to the statistics theory. Statistical theory dictates a random sample of size 30 according to the central limit theorem. The number 154 was reached by using the Yaro Yamani (1964's) sample size calculation formula. Stratified sampling was used to make sure that a representative sample of the police officials was obtained. The sampling method ensured that every section of the police force was well represented in the sample, in each and every respect. As explained by Yaro Yamani

(1964), with a five per cent margin of error, the required sample size was estimated using the following formula:

$$n = N / \{1 + N (e^2)\}$$

Where:

n = the desired sample size

N = the population

e = acceptable margin error limit (0.05 on the basis of 95% confidence level)

Therefore, if N = 250

$$n = 250 / (1 + 250(0.0025))$$

$$= 250 / (1 + 0.625)$$

$$= 250 / 1.625$$

$$= \text{approximately } 154.$$

3.4.2 Quantitative Methodology

Denscombe (2010) reiterates that the data, rather than the types of research related to the distinction between qualitative and quantitative studies. In the quantitative method the data collected enables the researcher to look for patterns and relations between variables or data sets. Quantitative studies are based on objective measurements that can be observed. The other characteristics of quantitative methods include numeric data, scientific structure, procedure and instrument, generalisability.

Table 3.2 Advantages and disadvantage of quantitative method

Advantages	Disadvantages
Data is scientific and lends itself to different types of statistical techniques. Is based on principles of mathematics and probability.	The data quality depends on the methods used to collect the data and the questions that are asked.
The statistical test of significance provides added credibility and increased confidence in the findings.	Technical aspects of data analysis may shift attention from the purpose of the research.
The analysis of quantitative data provided a firm basis for description and analysis. In principle, the authenticity of quantities can be checked by others.	Data overload can cause the research to be swamped by too much complexity.
Large volumes of quantitative data can be analysed relatively quickly.	Researchers can influence the findings in subtle ways.
Data can be concisely presented and organised in tables and charts to communicate the findings.	Researchers exercise choice when conducting their data analysis and these decisions can influence the findings.

Explanatory

Quantitative methodology was used because the variables leadership style, organisational culture and organisational performance were measured quantitatively and numerical data were obtained. Quantitative data tend to be more objective than qualitative data. Because mixed methodology was used in this study, quantitative and qualitative methodologies complement each other in terms of making the study more objective on the side of quantitative methodology and making the study more comprehensive on the side of qualitative methodology. The quantitative methodology

involved collecting quantitative data using a questionnaire which comprised four sections. Section 1 collected demographic data, section 2 was for measuring transformational leadership style, section 3 for organisational culture and section 4 consisted of questions on organisational performance. The questionnaire was self-administered. It was hand delivered, supported by e-mail and telephone facilities.

3.4.3 Qualitative Methodology

A qualitative approach is appropriate when a detailed understanding is needed and a research problem needs to be explored and solved (Patton, 1990). According to Creswell (2013), this approach is most suitable when the researcher wants to be flexible and is seeking to understand the context or setting of the respondents.

This study used pragmatism as an interpretive framework, using inductive and deductive evidence to discuss the values that reflect the researcher's and respondents' views (Creswell, 2013). The pragmatic approach is better suited to small-scale studies (30-250) which use non-probability sampling techniques (Denscombe, 2010). Patton (1990) and Denscombe (2010) support the view that the pragmatic approach can produce data that is sufficiently accurate for research purposes. The advantages and disadvantages of qualitative approach are listed in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 Advantages and disadvantages of qualitative method

Advantages	Disadvantages
Richness and detail to the data are well suited to complex social situations. Small-scale research generating rich in-depth study focused areas.	Data may be less representative and therefore cannot be generalised to other similar circumstances.

Tolerance of ambiguity and contradictions. Reflects the social reality being investigated.	Interpretations are bounded up in the self of the researcher.
Draws on the interpretive skills of the researcher to open up the possibility of alternative valid explanations.	There is a possibility of decontextualising the meanings in the process of coding and categorising data.
Descriptions and theories that are generated are grounded in reality.	There is a risk of over simplifying the explanations. The analysis of the data takes longer.

For the qualitative research, a smaller but focused sample was used. Purposive sampling was used to have key informants in the sample. Data analysis was holistic and contextual. Triangulation was applied where, apart from interviewing the participants; the researcher also used observation and official documents to collect data. So, study issues were examined from various angles to construct a rich and meaningful picture of a complex, multifaceted situation. An interview guide with open – ended questions was used. Official documents including reports were analysed for a better understanding of the issues pertaining to the constructs that were being investigated.

For the qualitative research, the sample size was determined by the principle of reaching saturation point. The theoretical sampling method was used. A minimum of 14-16 senior police officials were targeted, and a qualified interviewer conducted in-depth interviews until such a time when any additional interviewee did not add any new insight or knowledge then he stopped. The interviewer signed a confidentiality agreement.

3.4.4. Data Collection

Martin et al. (1999) describe that the data gathering process for qualitative research may vary from observation at specific location to an extensive survey of large corporations across the world. Personal opinion of a respondent was the nature of data that was collected. The quantitative data was collected by using a structured questionnaire, whereas qualitative data was obtained by interviewing senior officers of the South African Police Service.

3.4.4.1. Quantitative Data Collection

The study was conducted in Gauteng Province within four (4) Pretoria, Tshwane clusters, as shown in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4: SAPS Tshwane clusters

<i>Tshwane Central Cluster</i>	<i>Tshwane North Cluster</i>	<i>Tshwane East Cluster</i>	<i>Tshwane West Cluster</i>
Brooklyn Garsfontein Pretoria Moot Sunnyside Villieria	Akasia Pretoria North Rietgat Loate	Eersterus Mamelodi Mamelodi East Sinoville	Attridgeville Erasmia Hercules Laudium Pretoria West

Warrant officers, Captains, Lieutenant-Colonels and Colonels were interviewed as they had the necessary experience for the study. Constables and Sergeants were excluded because they did not have the required experience in organisation. Most of

the Constables and Sergeants had less than ten years of working experience within the organisation.

The researcher contacted the respondents through their relief commanders at the police stations. The appointment was made by the researcher with relief commanders in terms of their different shifts. A (transcriber) interviewer (not the researcher) was contracted to go to the Division Human Resource Development Academies as the permission had been already granted. He explained to the senior managers about the purpose of the visit and the aim of the study. He interviewed the respondents using an interview guide with follow-up questions. The researcher also explained to the relief commanders the purpose of the study, requested the participation of all members and to complete the questionnaire, but mentioning that it was voluntary.

Questionnaires

A questionnaire is an instrument that provides an advantage that you can send it to a large number of respondents to gather their opinions, including those who are far away from the researcher (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005). The questionnaire consisted of four sections. Section A collected demographic data, section B leadership style, section C organisational culture and section D consisted of questions on organisational performance. The questionnaire was self-administered. It was hand delivered and supported by e-mail and telephone facilities.

3.4.4.1.1 Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire design covers leadership style, organisational culture and organisational performance.

- a. The leadership style aspect is based on Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) that has been used in studies to establish the leadership style in organisations developed by (Avolio and Bass, 2004).
- b. The organisational culture aspect is based on Organisational Culture Assessment instrument (OCAI) which has been proven to be accurate and effective in diagnosing organisational culture (Cameron and Quinn, 2011).
- c. Organisational performance aspect is based on a number of studies that have measured organisations' performance as uni-or bi-dimensional, following the suggestion of Day and Nedungadi (1994), it was resolved to gauge performance on dimensions which reflected a broad balance between customer focus and competitor-centred perspective which for the purpose of this study reflected on the operational performance of policing.

Before the questionnaire was distributed to potential respondents, a pilot study was carried out. The pilot was done to identify and remove non value adding aspects in the instrument (Maholtra, et al., 2012).

The questionnaire also communicates the required time to complete the questionnaire. All responses were anonymous and voluntary (Churchill et al., 2011). A questionnaire was preferred for the reasons given in Table 3.4. However, the researcher was cognisant of the disadvantages of using questionnaire instruments, which are also shown in the table.

Table: 3.5 the advantages and disadvantages of using a questionnaire (Walsh, 2001)

Advantages	Disadvantages
Can be cheap and effective way of collecting data	Response rates are often low
Can collect a large amount of data relatively quickly	You don't know actually who completed the questionnaire
It is relatively a reliable method of data collection	Researcher cannot be sure that respondents understood questions and can't use follow up questions to explore unusual answers
A comparison of the respondents answers is possible	Responses can be limited by restricted ranges, scales and forced choices.
	Respondents tend to be people who have stronger views or attitudes on the subject being surveyed.

A questionnaire was well laid out and guided respondents through an enhanced respondent participation and minimised respondent error (Malhotra et al., 2012). The aspects communicated in the questionnaire include the identity of the researcher, the purpose of the research as well as a request to provide information.

3.4.4.2 Qualitative Data Collection

The researcher contacted the participants through their commanders and section commanders at the SAPS Academies. The participants were selected by using the purposive sampling method. The criteria for someone to qualify included that someone had at least some years of experience in the organisation.

Qualitative data was obtained from individual in-depth interviews of 14 senior police officials and from direct observation. The interviews were tape recorded but with the respondents' permission and the data was transcribed verbatim for the analysis. Qualitative data was collected by using an interview guide. The key themes around which comprehensive or in-depth interview data was collected, were based on a critical review of relevant and current literature and on items identified from credible or accredited multiple sources (i.e., peer reviewed publications including journals and research books) to ensure the credibility of the study.

Interviews

Interviews have advantages that are illustrated in Table 3.6. However, they also have disadvantages that are also highlighted in the table.

Table: 3.6 the advantages and disadvantages of interviews (Creswell, 2009)

Advantages	Disadvantages
Useful when respondents cannot be directly observed.	Provides indirect information filtered through the views of the interviewees.
Respondents can provide historical information. Allows the researcher control over the line of questioning.	Provides information in a designated place rather than a natural field setting. The researcher's presence may bias response.
	Not all people are equally articulate and perceptive.

The researcher contacted the participants through their relief commanders and section commanders at the police stations. They were selected by using the purposive sampling method.

Permission was granted to the researcher to conduct research in the SAPS. The SAPS Gauteng Provincial office sent a permission letter to the Provincial Head: Legal Service – SAPS; The Deputy Provincial Commissioner: Human Resource Management – SAPS Gauteng and to all the four (4) Pretoria / Tshwane Cluster Commanders and to Division Human Resource Development for Academies. The researcher made an appointment and had the permission letter as proof to conduct research in the SAPS and the consent form for the respondents. In some police stations, the appointment was made telephonically to section, support heads and relief commanders and a follow up was made to the letter sent by the Provincial Commissioner Gauteng. Usually every police station conducts a parade daily in the morning, and so, after confirming with the Station Commander and the Support Manager of the station, members were informed and briefed at the parade about the interviewer's visit date, time, venue and the reason of visit.

The researcher elaborated further to the respondents when she arrived, having consent forms, to request the participation of all members to complete the questionnaire, but mentioning that it was voluntary.

3.4.5 Data Analysis

Mixed method research is research that combines data collection, analysis, and discussion from both qualitative and quantitative sets of data (Creswell, 2014). Blanche et al. (2006) indicate that the objective of data analysis is to enable the researcher to take a closer look at the emerging trends and interpret the findings to answer questions arising from the research.

3.4.5.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

Data analysis involved both descriptive analysis and inferential analysis. Descriptive analysis entailed drawing frequency tables and diagrammatical representation of data including histograms, bar diagrams, pie-charts and graphing. Measures of central tendency (i.e., mean, median and mode) and measures of variation or dispersion (i.e., standard deviation and range) were also calculated to profile the population.

For inferential analysis, regression analysis was used. The linear regression model can be written as:

$$Y = \alpha + \beta x + e$$

Where x is a non-random variable and e is a random error distributed with mean zero and variance σ^2 . In this case, Y represents the dependent variable which was the organisational performance, and x represents the independent variables, namely, organisational culture as well as leadership style. A mediator variable explains the relationship between an independent variable and the dependent variable. If organisational culture is a mediator between leadership style and organisational performance then including both leadership style and organisational culture in one regression would greatly reduce the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance.

3.4.5.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

According to Burns and Grove (2003), data analysis involves a mechanism for reducing and organizing data to produce findings that require interpretation by the researcher. De Vos (2002) states that it is a challenging process and requires much

creativity to transform raw data to useful information to facilitate decision making. There are a variety of ways in which people can approach data analysis, the important thing, however, is to pay attention when data is analysed and to think critically about conclusions that will be drawn. For qualitative research, data analysis consists of a number of steps which involve recording of data, preliminary analysis, reading and writing memos, categorisation and coding as well as generating themes and patterns. In this study, data analysis used the following steps:

Preliminary analysis

First the recorded data was subjected to preliminary analysis. De Vos (2005) argues that the interaction between data collection and analysis is a distinguishing feature of qualitative research. The author further emphasises that at this stage the researcher is guided by initial concepts and developing understanding but he/she shifts and modifies them as the information is gathered and analysed. In this study, the researcher collected data from senior police officials while provisionally formulating the meanings the data gave in terms of addressing the research questions. This provided an opportunity for the researcher to seek further clarity when it was necessary by interviewing respondents again to enrich descriptions of their understanding on the subject matter.

Reading and writing memos

According to De Vos (2005), writing memos in the margins of the transcripts helps in classifying and interpreting of data. Such memos are often short phrases, ideas or key concepts that can occur to the reader. So, following De Vos (2005), in this study, in

order to capture all the ideas from the respondents, the researcher wrote some notes (memos) after reading the data several times. This helped to code and categorise the data, and to identify patterns and themes that were unfolding.

Coding

Categories were coded – resulting in frequency counts (Lee, 1999). Blanche et al. (2006) state that coding ‘entails marking different sections of the data as being instances of, or relevant to, one or more of your themes. You can for example code a phrase, a line, a sentence, or a paragraph, identifying these textual ‘bits’ by virtue of their containing material that pertains to the themes under consideration’. Coding helped to ease the interpretation of the qualitative data.

Generating themes and patterns

As mentioned above, after completing the process of reading and writing memos, coding and categorising the data, patterns and trends were identified and themes were generated, which were also coded to create frequency distributions. The process of identifying salient themes, recurring ideas and patterns included classifying the information into groups that reflected various meanings of the phenomenon. Common themes were carefully identified along with trends and patterns. The researcher also noted the common expressions used by respondents.

The last step of data analysis involved searching for alternative explanations, that is, a gradual building of an explanation through an iterative process where the data or evidence was examined to review the initial theoretical positions and re-examined

again from this revised theoretical position. The identified common themes and patterns were considered in addressing the study objectives.

In summary, the various stages of data analysis were as follows:

Stage	Purpose
<i>Codes</i>	Identifying anchors that allow the key points of the data to be gathered
<i>Concepts</i>	Collections of codes of similar content that allows the data to be grouped into a concept
<i>Categories</i>	Broad groups of similar concepts that are used to generate a proposition or <i>theory</i>
<i>Proposition</i>	A collection of categories that detail the subject of the research

After the quantitative data and qualitative data had been analysed, the two sets of results were integrated or merged.

3.4.6 Validity and Reliability

Quantitative Phase

A measure is said to be valid if it accurately reflects the concept it was intended to measure. In this study, assessing the validity of a measure typically included quantifying convergent validity and discriminant validity. Pearson's correlation coefficient is the most commonly used statistic to quantify convergent and divergent validity. Content validity was addressed in the development stage of the measurement tool. This is the degree to which the measures cover the whole range of meanings or

aspects of the concept or construct to be measured. Most common approaches of assessing content validity are expert views of the clarity comprehensiveness and redundancy of the measurement tool. At the analytical stage, a correlation matrix was generated to assess the convergent validity of the measure. A coefficient of 0.3 to 0.4 was used as a benchmark to assess the validity of a newly developed construct (Cappelleri, et al., 2004).

A representative sample was used in this study for the quantitative research. A representative sample was selected by randomly selecting the respondents to be interviewed and ensuring that the sample size was large enough or adequate, over 30 (according to statistical theory) for the study. This ensured that every characteristic of the target population that mattered was well represented in the sample.

Reliability can be assessed by repeating the same test or measure (test-retest) administering an equivalent form (parallel test forms); by using single-administration methods, subdividing the test into two or more equivalent parts, or by looking at internal consistency – measured with Cronbach's coefficient alpha. This study used the Cronbach alpha statistic to measure reliability of the study.

Reliability refers to the accuracy and precision of a measurement procedure (Thorndike, Cunningham, Thorndike, and Hagen, 1991). Reliability can be viewed as an instrument's lack of error. In addition, reliability is a function of the properties of the underlying construct being measured, the test itself, the groups being assessed, the testing, environment, and the purpose of the assessment.

Reliability answers the question: How well does the instrument measure what it purports to measure? In this study, as mentioned earlier, reliability was assessed by using Cronbach's coefficient alpha statistic (Cronbach, 1951). According to literature, a coefficient of .6 is normally regarded as good enough.

The questionnaire was evaluated according to the principles of a pilot survey. For example, the measurement tool should not be too long, the questions should not be vague or ambiguous, the order of questions and format should be appropriate, and so forth. The questionnaire was piloted to be refined and /or to perfect its concepts and wording. The formats of the questionnaire and the questions were tested at the time of the pilot survey to determine the time needed to fill in questionnaires and discover potential problems. After the pilot survey, the questionnaire was fine-tuned and tested for reliability using Cronbach's alpha coefficient.

Qualitative Phase

Validity determines whether the measuring instrument truly measures what it was intended to measure or how truthful the research results are. The extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study is referred to as reliability. If the results can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the instrument is reliable.

Triangulation was used to address the validity and reliability issues of the study. More than one source of data or data collection methods were used to improve the validity and reliability of the results. The methods included observation, in-depth interviewing as well as content analysis of official documents which included official reports, policy

documents, minutes of meetings, and so forth. Supplementing qualitative data with quantitative data also helped to address the weakness of subjectivity of qualitative data. Triangulation helps to avoid bias in multiple sources of data, and so it was used to cross check or validate the data (Creswell, 2007; Denzin and Lincoln, 1998; Patton, 1987) by using in-depth interviews, observations, and document reviews to corroborate empirical evidence.

To ensure reliability in the qualitative research phase, examination of trustworthiness of the results was crucial. Key informants, who were thought to possess the relevant accurate information, were identified and selected to be interviewed. The guiding principle of the number of participants to be interviewed was the saturation point principle. Three people were interviewed at the beginning; then the researcher went on adding participants until the stage, when any additional participants did not add any new insight or information and then stopped. This saturation point was reached at the fourteenth participant. The researcher made sure that the data collection tool was validated by also asking for inputs from the experts in the field and the supervisor. This and piloting the questionnaire before being rolled out to the field, helped to address content and construct validity of the results.

To reiterate, the key themes around which comprehensive or in-depth interview data was collected, was based on a critical review of relevant literature and on items identified from credible or accredited multiple sources (peer reviewed publications including journals and research books) to ensure the credibility of the study. The recorded interviews were transcribed verbatim and when analysing the data, interesting quotes from the participants were included in the results to ensure credibility and authenticity of information. Also the contextual issues as well as detailed

research design and methodology of the study had to be reported to ensure repeatability of the study.

When interviewing, there are strategies that serve as checks against narrow or distorted data collection and analysis and enhance opportunities to obtain richly contextualised information. These other ways of improving validity included:

- **Being a good listener.** Participants do much of the talking.
- **Record accurately.** Detailed notes or electronic recordings.
- **Initiate writing early.** To allow records to be made when needed.
- **Include the primary data in the final report.**
- **Seek feedback.** Experts asked to critique the research manuscript to ensure that information is reported accurately and completely.
- **Write accurately.** Incorrect grammar, misspelled words, statement inconsistency, and so forth jeopardise the validity of an otherwise good study.

3.4.7 Ethical Considerations

The researcher attached the UNISA consent form to the questionnaire, explaining to them the ethical issues such as that participation is voluntary, that they can at any time withdraw from participation without any negative consequences and that the information they provided would be anonymous, and so forth. The following was also explained to respondents:

- Involvement in the study was voluntary, and participants were not obliged to divulge information, and could withdraw from the study at any time without any negative consequences.

- Being aware that the results of the study, including personal details would be anonymously processed into the study report.
- In view of the requirements of research, to agree that the data collected during the study could be processed by the researcher.
- Participants could, at any stage, without prejudice, withdraw their consent and participation in the study.
- Participants were to understand that significant new findings developed during the course of the research, which might relate to their participation would be made available to them if they willing.

The respondent/participant involvement and willingness in this research was appreciated.

In terms of this study, all ethical requirements had been followed through all steps. The researcher did not manipulate any data. Respondents/participants completed a consent form. They were assured of confidentiality on completion of the questionnaires or participating in the study.

The SAPS has a clear protocol governing access to its information and personnel. The researcher applied for permission from the South African Police Service: Provincial Commissioner, Gauteng Province to conduct the research unconditionally. The researcher received a permission letter to conduct the research within the SAPS organisation. The researcher did not divulge any confidential information to a third party and ensured the protection of respondents' identities.

3.5 SUMMARY

The study used the mixed method approach to address the research questions and achieve the study objectives. The chapter has discussed the population and sampling method used. The data collection has also been explained in this chapter; on how data collection methods were utilised and the different data collection tools that were used to collect and analyse the data to address the research questions. Ethical consideration to be followed was also discussed to ensure that the process and procedures of respect, beneficence and justice were upheld during the process of research.

The next chapter will give the quantitative data analysis and results.

CHAPTER FOUR

QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The current chapter presents the results and interpretation of the collected quantitative data. Moreover, this chapter tests the relationships between constructs and tests the proposed hypotheses presented in Chapter One. Quantitative data was collected using survey questionnaires, while different statistical tests were employed to test the relationships. Cooper and Schindler (2005) assert that a researcher should do a pilot study of data gathering tools before proceeding with the research. A pilot study was conducted among the respondents from the target population to evaluate the survey questionnaire for readability, comprehensibility, and cultural accuracy of its content before the main survey. This helped the researcher to identify the shortfalls in the measurement instrument and to evaluate the preliminary validity and reliability of the questionnaire. The respondents of the pilot study gave their input saying that the time for completing the questionnaire was right; however, there were questions which were not very clear. These were modified to make them straightforward, short and very clear.

The aim of the study was to find the relationships between leadership style, organisational culture and organisational performance and consequently develop a conceptual framework for enhancing organisational performance in the South African Police Service.

4.1.1 Response Rate

A total of **255** self-administered questionnaires were presented to potential respondents (in four Tshwane clusters which included Tshwane Central, Tshwane West, Tshwane East and Tshwane North) for completion. Each questionnaire was accompanied by a consent form explaining the purpose of the research. Respondents were assured that data collected was for academic purposes only, that their answers would remain confidential and their names would not be revealed in the research report.

The researcher personally delivered the questionnaires to the relief commanders at the stations and this involved travelling up to 200 km per day to ensure a high response rate. In some cases the researcher left the questionnaires with the relief commanders or human resource managers explaining the purpose of the study and provided the approval letter to conduct the research. In some instances the researcher was not present when questionnaires were being completed by the respondents. Respondents were asked to answer at their own convenience and return them to the human resource manager or relief commander. By doing this, the researcher avoided putting pressure on respondents as it was during the festive season in December 2016, and the police stations were very busy. A total of **156** positive responses were received. The completed and returned questionnaires were without any missing information. This gave a response rate of 61.2%.

The responses per cluster are indicated in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Response rate

Name of Cluster	No of questionnaires sent	No. of questionnaires returned
Tshwane Central Cluster	60	53
Tshwane West Cluster	75	35
Tshwane East Cluster	60	28
Tshwane West Cluster	60	36
TOTAL	255	156 (61.2%)

The response rate was considered to be adequate according to Sekaran (2006). The author argues that the response rate of 30% is acceptable for surveys. Similarly, 37 responses are greater than what Hair et al. (2010) suggested for regression analysis.

4.1.2 Reliability Analysis

A reliability test for each dimension was done before data analysis was done. Cronbach's alpha coefficient is widely used as a measure of checking internal reliability. According to Nunnally (1978), a value of 0.7 for the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is considered adequate to ensure internal consistency of the questionnaire. The results are shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Reliability statistics of the survey questionnaire

Construct	No. of Items	Cronbach's alpha
Leadership style	36	.868
Organisational culture	36	.959
Organisational performance	17	.965

The Cronbach's alpha results as indicated in the table range from 0.868 to 0.965 for the variables (in the questionnaire used for the study). This implies that the data collection instrument was reliable. Flynn, Schroeder and Sakakibara (1994) argued that a Cronbach's alpha of 0.6 and above is considered an effective reliability measure for judging a scale. Also, Hair et al. (2010) state that researchers generally agree that the lower limit for Cronbach's alpha may be as low as 0.60 in an exploratory research. All these confirm that, the survey instrument used in this study had an acceptable reliability as far as internal consistency was concerned.

This study used a survey questionnaire which was self-administered. Self-administered questionnaires have the advantage when it comes to versatility and speed, and ensuring that all interested parties of this study could comprehend the concepts examined (Grossnickle and Raskin, 2001). The other advantage of self-administered questionnaires is primarily "accuracy" (Aaker, et al., 2010). The questionnaires were accompanied by a covering letter which clearly explained the purpose of the research as well as an assurance of confidentiality and anonymity of respondents. The researcher indicated to the respondents who had interest in the title that after finishing the analysis, results and findings would be available.

The remaining part of Chapter Four is divided as follows. Section 4.2 presents descriptive statistics where the researcher discusses the demographic characteristics of the respondents, section 4.3 presents the inferential analysis, section 4.4 discusses the results and section 4.5 provides the summary.

4.2 DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

In this section, demographic information of the respondents is presented according to gender, age, years in the organisation and position of the respondent in the organisation.

4.2.1 Gender

Table 4.3 and figure 4.1 show that in the sample, almost 80% of the respondents were males. Because the sample used was randomly selected, this implies that the overwhelming majority of police officers in the SAPS are males. It might also imply that policing duties are naturally dominated by males.

Table 4.3: Gender

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent
Male	119	76.3	76.8
Female	36	23.1	23.2
Total	155	99.4	100.0
Missing	1	.6	
Total	156	100.0	

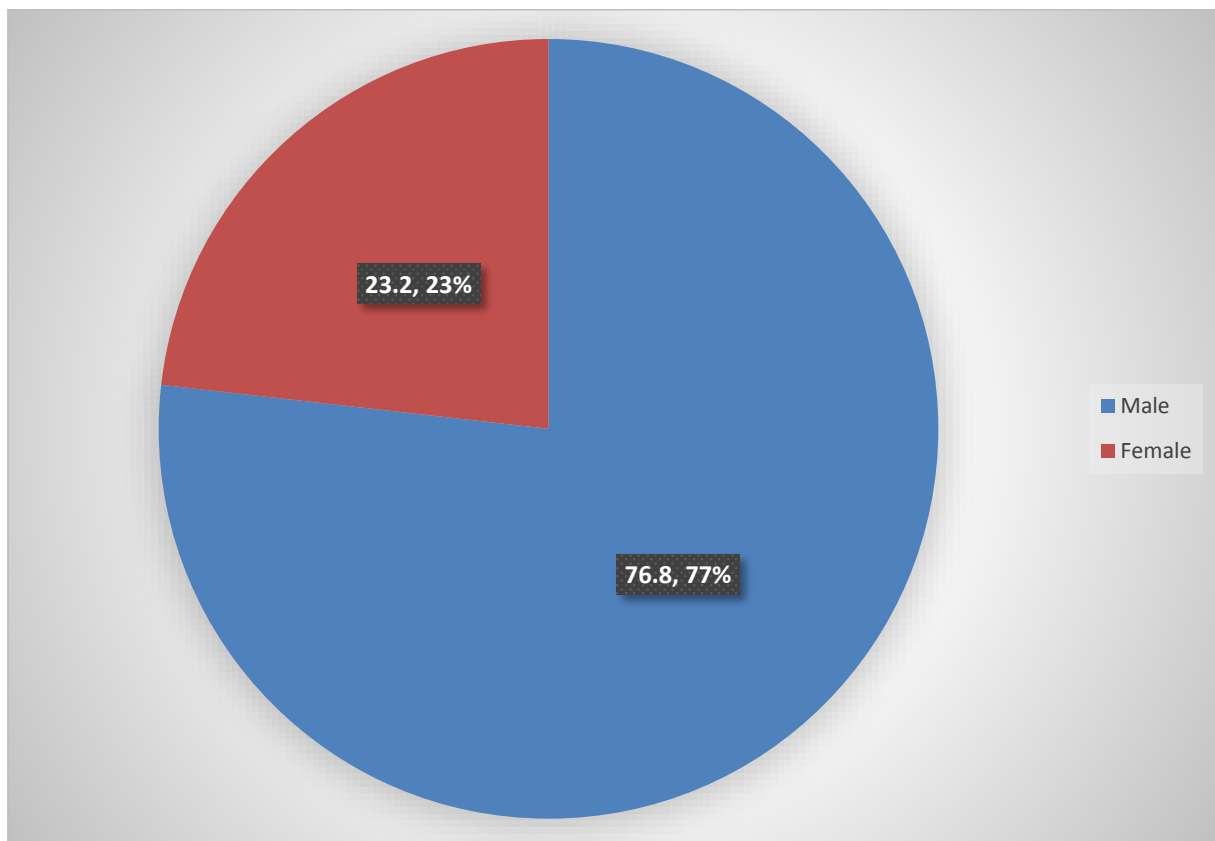


Figure 4.1: Gender

4.2.2 Age Group

According to the results in Table 4.4, the majority of the respondents (34.0% and 42.3%) fell in “35 – 44” and “45 – 54” age groups respectively. About 87% of the respondents were younger than 54 years old.

Table 4.4: Age group

Years	Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
Under 25	3	1.9	1.9	1.9
25 – 34	13	8.3	8.3	10.3
35 – 44	53	34.0	34.0	44.2
45 – 54	66	42.3	42.3	86.5
55 – 60	19	12.2	12.2	98.7
60 and over	2	1.3	1.3	100.0
Total	156	100.0	100.0	

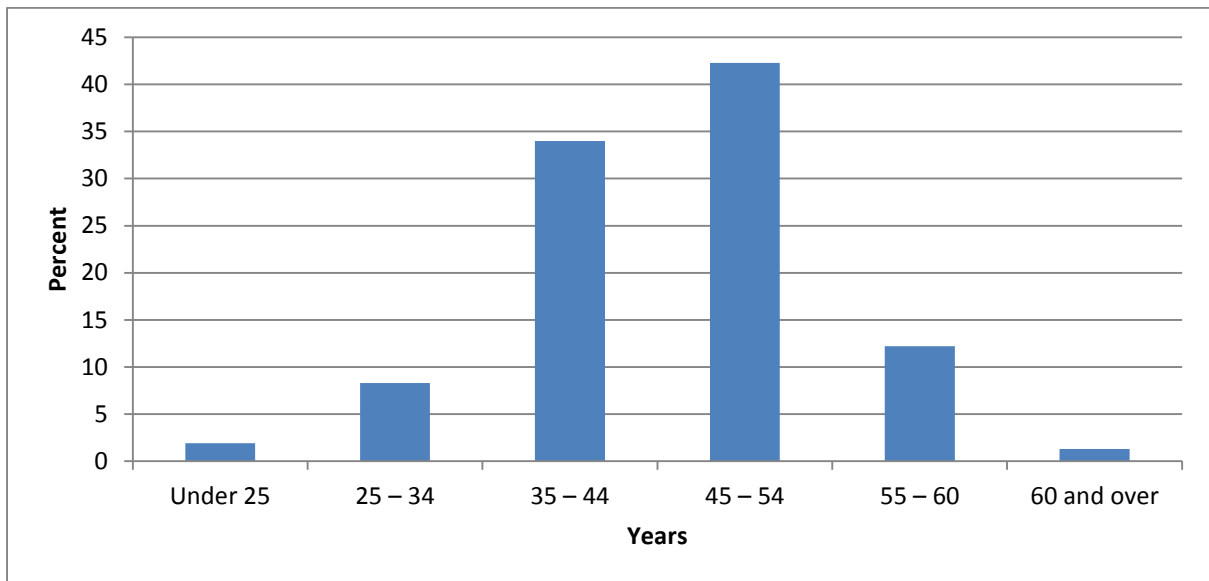


Figure 4.2 Age group

4.2.3 Years in Organisation

Relatively a large number of respondents had been in the organisation for 21 – 25 years (20.5%) and 26 – 30 years (31.4%). Only about 12% (of them) had worked for the organisation for 5 – 10 years. This implies that the overwhelming majority of the respondents had good knowledge of the issues surrounding the organisation, which was good for the study. See also Figure 4.3.

Table 4.5: Years in organisation

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
5 – 10	18	11.5	11.5	11.5
11 – 15	17	10.9	10.9	22.4
16 – 20	19	12.2	12.2	34.6
21 – 25	32	20.5	20.5	55.1
26 – 30	49	31.4	31.4	86.5
31 – 35	14	9.0	9.0	95.5
36 and over	7	4.5	4.5	100.0
Total	156	100.0	100.0	

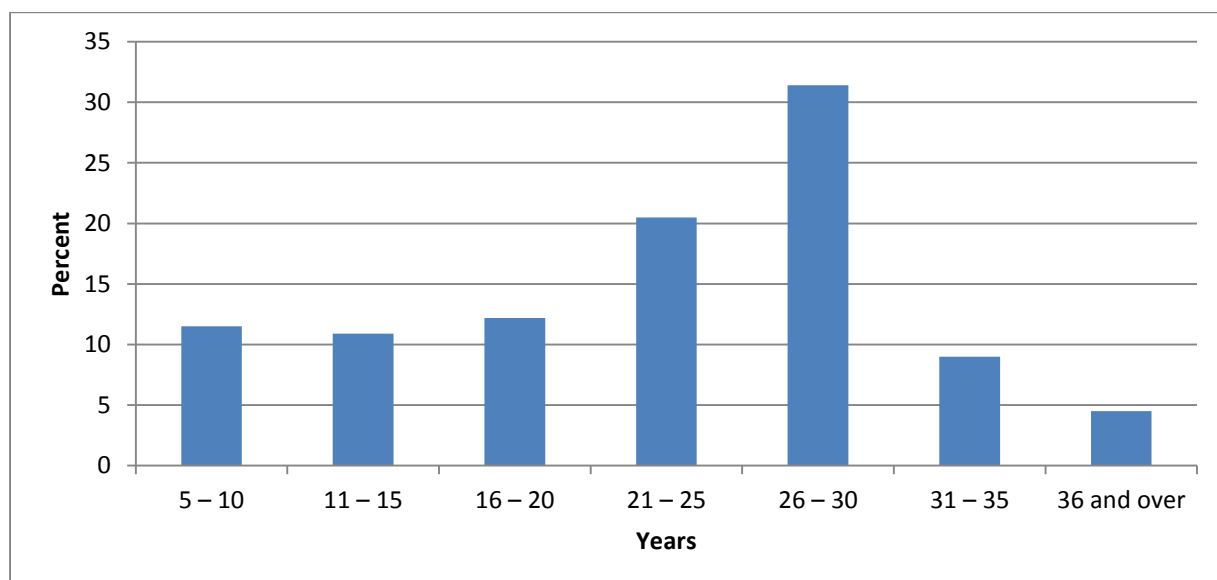


Figure 4.3: Years in organisation

4.2.4 Position in Organisation

Out of 156 respondents, about 56% were Warrant officers and 31% were Captains according to Table 4.4 and Figure 4.4.

Table 4.6: Position in organisation

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent
W/officer	88	56.4	56.4
Captain	48	30.8	30.8
Lieutenant Colonel	18	11.5	11.5
Colonel	2	1.3	1.3
Total	156	100.0	100.0

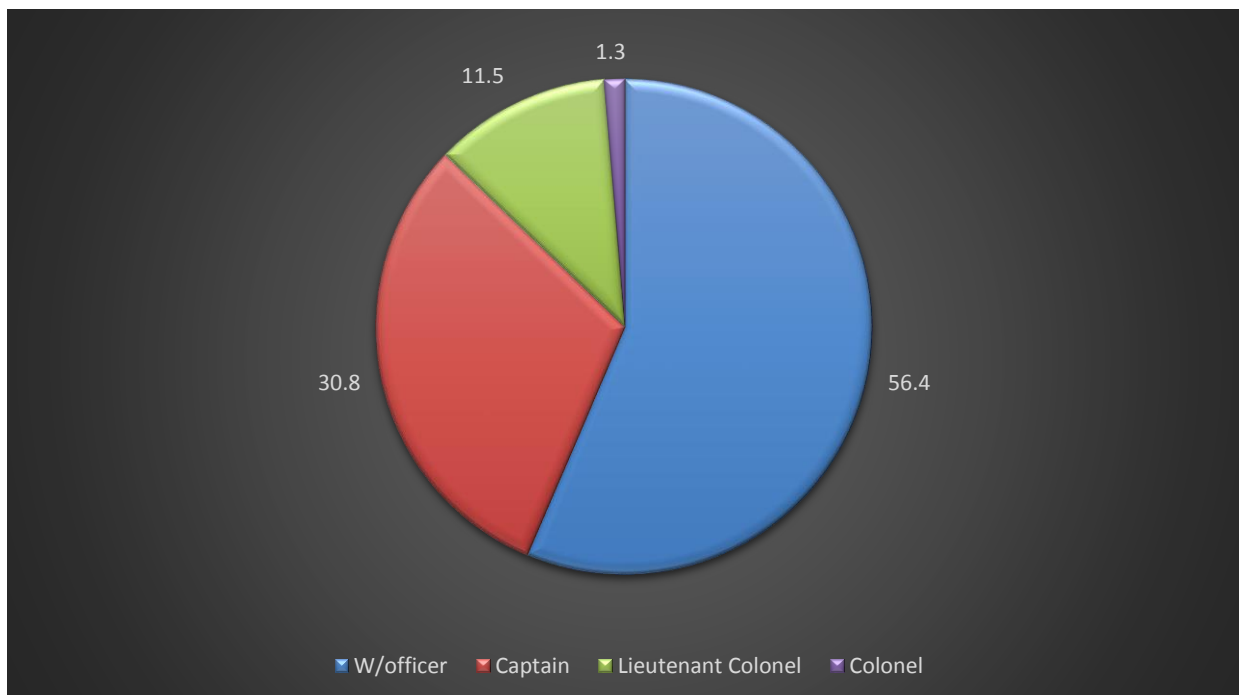


Figure 4.4: Position in organisation

4.3 KEY STUDY CONSTRUCTS

This section presents results on the key study constructs, leadership style in section 4.3.2, organisation culture in section 4.3.3 and organisation performance in section 4.3.4. A scale of 0 – 4 was used to measure the perception of the respondents on leadership style, where 0 = not at all, 1 = once in a while, 2 = sometimes, 3 = fairly often and 4 = always; and a scale of 1 – 5 was used to measure the perceptions on organisational culture and organisational performance, where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree and 5 = strongly agree.

4.3.1 Descriptive Analysis of Measurement Variables

In this sub-section, the results of descriptive analysis on the individual items that were used to measure the key study constructs are presented (see tables 1 to 3 in Appendix A and figures 1 to 3). Frequency distributions of the scores are shown in columns 3 to 7, mean scores in column 8, standard deviation (std.dev.) in column 9, median in column 10, t value and probability (prob.) in brackets in column 11 and rejection or acceptance of the null hypothesis (that the mean score was equal to “0” (not at all) for leadership style; and that it equalled to “3” (neutral) for organisational culture and organisational performance) is shown in the last column 12.

4.3.2 Leadership Style

Table 1 (Appendix A) and Figure 4.5 show the descriptive statistics of leadership style. The results indicate that most of the mean scores are between a “2” (sometimes) and

a “3” (fairly often). The items with the minimum mean scores are: L7 - Is absent when needed (1.4) and L33 - Delays responding to urgent questions (1.4) (between once in a while and sometimes). The item with the maximum mean score is: L25 - Displays a sense of power and confidence (2.8) (between sometimes and fairly often).

A single-sample t-test was used to test the null hypothesis that the mean score was equal to “0” (Not at all). If the probability of the calculated t-value from the sample score values was less than 0.05 (the level of significance), the null hypothesis would be rejected to mean that the mean score was greater than “0”, otherwise it would be accepted. The null hypothesis was rejected for all the items.

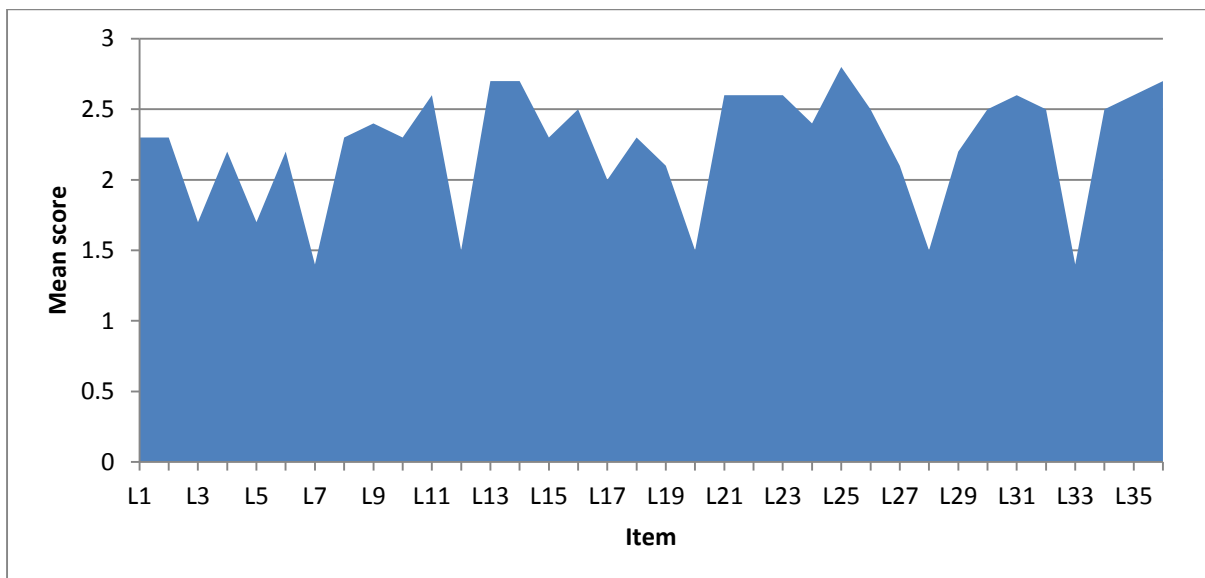


Figure 4.5: Leadership style Mean Scores

4.3.3 Organisational Culture

Table 2 (Appendix A) and Figure 4.6 show the descriptive statistics of organisational culture. Most of the mean scores for the organisational culture items fall between a “3” (neutral) and a “4” (agree). The items with the minimum mean scores are: OC24 - The

interests of the final customer get ignored in our decisions (2.7) (between disagree and neutral); and OC17 - It is easy to coordinates projects across functional units in this organisation (3.0); OC23 - Customer inputs directly influence our decisions (3.0) and OC36 - Our vision creates excitement and motivation for our employees (3.0) (neutral). The item with the maximum mean score is: OC12 - Ethical codes guides our behaviour (3.7) (almost agreed).

The null hypothesis that the mean score was “3” (neutral) was accepted for items: OC3 - Everyone believes that she / he can have a positive impact, OC14 - It is easy to reach consensus, even on difficult issues, OC15 - We often have trouble in reaching agreements on key issues, OC17 - It is easy to coordinates projects across functional units in this organisation, OC23 - Customer inputs directly influences our decisions, OC26 - We encourage and reward those who take risks, OP34 - We have a shared vision of what this organisation be like in the future, OC35 - Leaders of our organisation have a long- term orientation and OC36 - Our vision creates excitement and motivation for our employees; but was rejected for all the others. For the other items, the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis that the mean score was greater than “3” was accepted; which meant that the respondents agreed with these items. Item OC24 – “The interests of the final customer get ignored in our decisions” was exceptional, the alternative hypothesis that its mean score was less than “3” was accepted, which meant that the respondents disagreed with this statement.

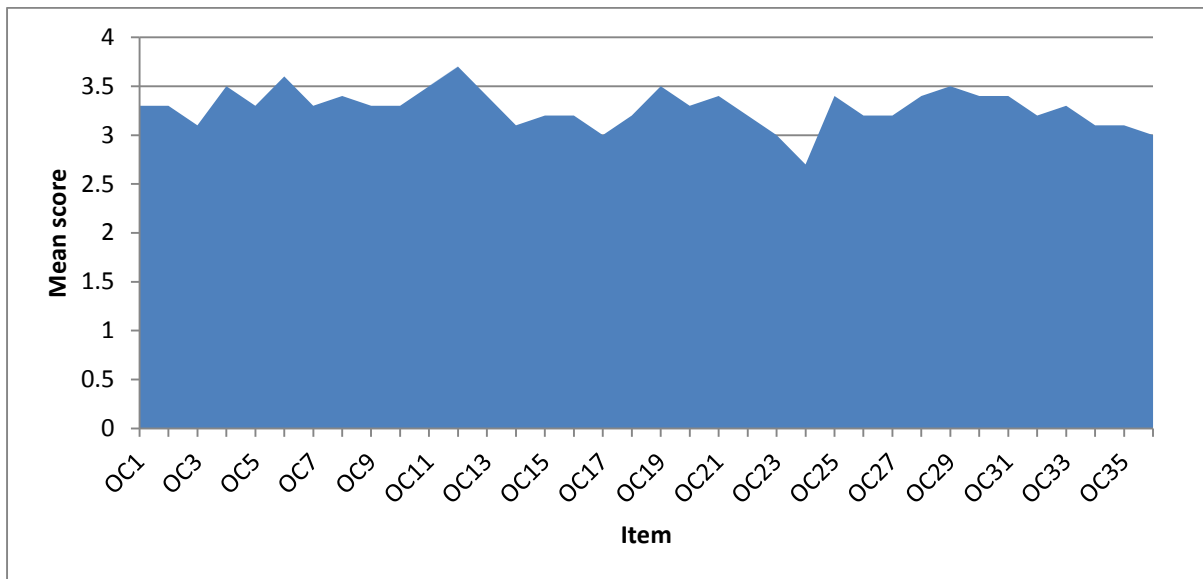


Figure 4.6: Organisational mean scores

4.3.4 Organisational Performance

Table 4.7 and Figure 4.7 show the results of organisational performance. The results indicate that most of the mean scores lie between a “3” (neutral) and a “4” (agree). The items with the minimum mean scores are: OP4 - The community is satisfied with the service provided by the police (3.0) (neutral), OP7 - The community is feeling safe and secure all the times. (3.0) and OP15 - The community is confident and has trust in the police (3.0) (neutral). The item with the maximum mean score is: OP2 - The police members are approachable and polite when interacting with the community (3.7) (almost agreed).

The null hypothesis that the mean score was “3” was accepted for items: OP4 - The community is satisfied with the service provided by the police, OP6 - Police reduce crime to the extent that satisfies the community., OP7 - The community is feeling safe and secure all the time, OP12 - Police operate economically to control costs in a responsible manner and OP15 - The community is confident and have trust in the

police; but was rejected for all the others. For all the other items, the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis that the mean score was greater than “3” was accepted. This meant that the respondents agreed with these statements.

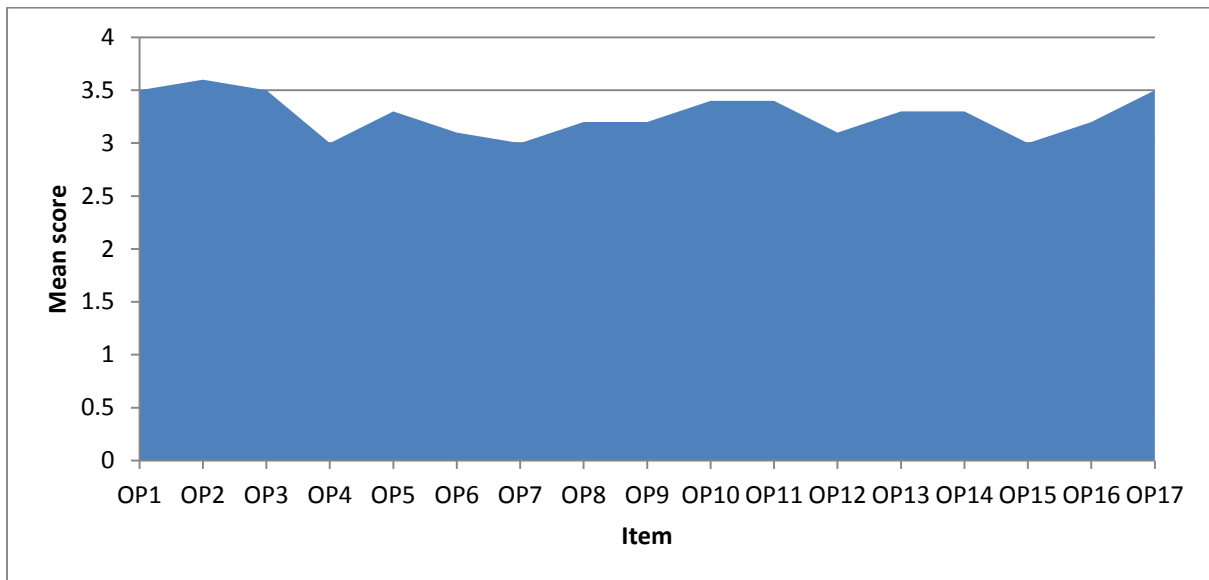


Figure 4.7: Organisational performance mean scores

4.4 INFERENCE ANALYSIS

This sub-section presents the results of inferential analysis, where the hypotheses that were stated in Chapter One are tested. To use leadership style, organisational culture and organisational performance in the analysis, the scores of all the relevant items that were used to measure a construct were added together and the sum was divided by the number of the items added to obtain the mean score for a particular respondent or observation. To obtain an overall mean score for a construct, all the mean scores were added and the sum was divided by the sample size, n.

4.4.1 Descriptive Statistics, T-tests, Correlations and Normality Tests

4.4.1.1 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics provide an opportunity to summarise the descriptive coefficients of a database that might be helpful in the analysis of the entire population or a particular data sample. Furthermore, descriptive statistics allow observing data from a meaningful point of view, using a combination of tabulated descriptions and statistical commentary.

The descriptive statistics of the key constructs are shown in Table 4.7. It is indicated that the overall mean score of leadership style was 2.2 (sometimes) with a standard deviation of 0.6; that of organisational culture was 3.2 (near neutral) with a standard deviation of 0.8; and for organisational performance; it was 3.3 (near neutral) with a standard deviation of 0.9. The median values were 2.3, 3.3 and 3.3 respectively. The results might imply that, on average, the answer to the leadership style items was “sometimes”; and that the respondents were undecided on the issues surrounding organisational culture and organisational performance.

Table 4.7: Overall mean scores for key constructs

	Leadership Style	Organisational Culture	Organisational Performance
N	155	156	156
Mean	2.2460	3.2483	3.2669
Std. Deviation	.56983	.75162	.89765
Median	2.2778	3.3238	3.2941
Minimum	.42	.40	1.00
Maximum	3.36	4.67	5.00

4.4.1.2 T-tests

The t-test results are shown in table 4.8. The results indicate that the null hypothesis that the mean score was equal to 0 (not at all) was rejected and the alternative hypothesis that it was greater than 0 was accepted for leadership style; and that for the null hypothesis that the mean score was equal to 3 (neutral) was rejected and the alternative hypothesis that it was greater than 3 was accepted.

Table 4.8: T-test results

i. Organisational Culture and Organisational Performance

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Organisational Culture	156	3.248	.752	.060
Organisational Performance	156	3.267	.898	.072

	Test Value = 3					
	t	df	Prob. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Leadership style						
Organisational Culture	4.126	155	.000	.248	.129	.367
Organisational Performance	3.713	155	.000	.267	.125	.409

ii. Leadership style

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Leadership style	155	2.246	.570	.046

	Test Value = 0					
	T	df	Prob. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Leadership style	49.072	154	.000	2.246	2.156	2.336

4.4.1.3 Correlational Analysis

The results in Table 4.9 indicate that leadership style is positively related to organisational culture ($r = 0.4$, $p = .000 < .01$) at the 1% level and is weakly related to organisational performance ($r = 0.2$, $p = .028 < .05$) at the 5% level. Organisational culture is also highly positively related to organisational performance ($r = 0.6$, $p = .000 < .01$). If a variable is not normally distributed, nonparametric tests are used. So, Spearman's rho was also used to investigate the relationships. According to Table 4.10 leadership style is not related to organisational performance.

Table 4.9: Pearson Correlations

		Leadership Style	Organisational Culture	Organisational Performance
Leadership Style	Pearson Correlation	1	.369**	.177*
	Prob. (2-tailed)		.000	.028
	N	155	155	155
Organisational Culture	Pearson Correlation	.369**	1	.594**
	Prob. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	155	156	156
Organisational Performance	Pearson Correlation	.177*	.594**	1
	Prob. (2-tailed)	.028	.000	
	N	155	156	156

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

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

Table 4.10: Spearman's rho

			Leadership Style	Organisational Culture	Organisational Performance
Spearman's rho	Leadership Style	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.349**	.092
		Prob. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.256
		N	155	155	155
	Organisational Culture	Correlation Coefficient	.349**	1.000	.565**
		Prob. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.000
		N	155	156	156
	Organisational Performance	Correlation Coefficient	.092	.565**	1.000
		Prob. (2-tailed)	.256	.000	.
		N	155	156	156

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

4.4.1.4 Normality Tests

The SPSS Explore procedure was used to test the dependent variables (i.e., leadership style and organisational performance) for the normality assumption and the following results were obtained. For the organisational performance regression model, leadership style was used as the independent variable and organisational culture was used as a moderating variable or mediating variable between them. For the leadership style regression model, only organisational culture was used as the independent variable. Years in the organisation and position in the organisation were used as other independent variables or covariates in both regression models.

Table 4.11 shows the descriptive statistics of leadership style and organisational performance.

Table 4.11: Descriptive statistics of leadership style and organisational performance

		Statistic	Std. Error	
Leadership Style	Mean	2.2	0.05	
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	2.2	
		Upper Bound	2.3	
	5% Trimmed Mean	2.3		
	Median	2.3		
	Variance	0.3		
	Std. Deviation	0.6		
	Minimum	0.4		
	Maximum	3.4		
	Range	2.9		
	Interquartile Range	0.8		
	Skewness	-0.4	0.2	
	Kurtosis	-0.1	0.4	
Organisational Culture	Mean	3.2	0.1	
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.1	
		Upper Bound	3.4	
	5% Trimmed Mean	3.3		
	Median	3.3		
	Variance	0.6		
	Std. Deviation	0.8		
	Minimum	0.4		
	Maximum	4.7		
	Range	4.3		
	Interquartile Range	1.0		

	Skewness		-0.8	0.2
	Kurtosis		1.0	0.4
Organisational Performance	Mean		3.3	0.1
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.1	
		Upper Bound	3.4	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.3	
	Median		3.3	
	Variance		0.8	
	Std. Deviation		0.9	
	Minimum		1.0	
	Maximum		5.0	
	Range		4.0	
	Interquartile Range		1.1	
	Skewness		-0.4	0.2
	Kurtosis		-0.2	0.4

The skewness of leadership style is -0.4 which implies that the distribution is skewed to the left, but it is near zero which is the skewness level of a normal distribution. The kurtosis is .988 which is also less than 3 which is believed to be the level beyond which one would start worrying about the normality assumption. Similar values of skewedness and kurtosis were obtained for organisational performance (-0.4 and -0.2 for skewness and kurtosis respectively). The stem-and-leaf diagrams below also indicate that the distributions approximate normality.

i. Leadership Style

Stem-and-Leaf Plot

Frequency Stem & Leaf

1.00 Extremes (= <.4)

3.00 0 . 899

2.00 1 . 01

5.00 1 . 22333

9.00 1 . 444445555

13.00 1 . 6666667777777

16.00 1 . 888888888899999

21.00 2 . 0000000000011111111

17.00 2 . 22222222233333333

21.00 2 . 4444444455555555555

23.00 2 . 66666666666666777777777

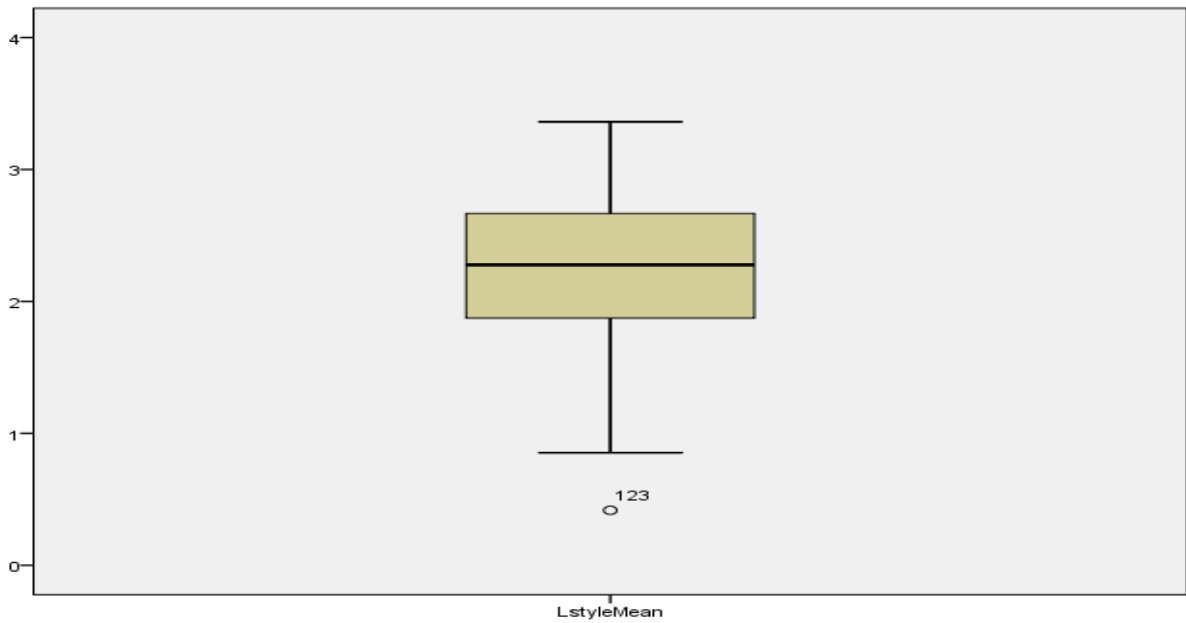
12.00 2 . 888888999999

7.00 3 . 0000011

5.00 3 . 33333

Stem width: 1.00

Each leaf: 1 case(s)



ii. Organisational Performance

Stem-and-Leaf Plot

Frequency Stem & Leaf

2.00 Extremes (= < 1.0)

6.00 1 . 222223

4.00 1 . 7788

17.00 2 . 00000111222233444

25.00 2 . 5555666777777777788889999

36.00 3 . 0000001111111122222222222334444444444

31.00 3 . 5555566666666667777777788888899

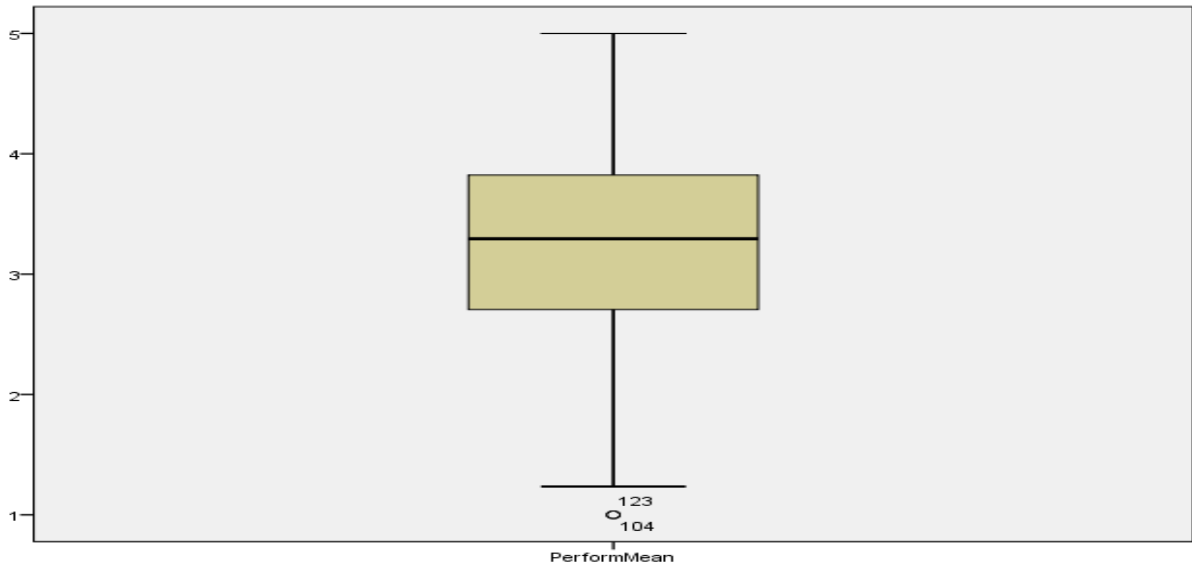
19.00 4 . 0000000011122244444

13.00 4 . 555567777788

2.00 5 . 00

Stem width: 1.00

Each leaf: 1 case(s)



Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Prob.	Statistic	df	Prob.
Leadership Style	.077	155	.027	.985	155	.089
Organisational Culture	.060	155	.200*	.968	155	.001
Organisational Performance	.056	155	.200*	.982	155	.039

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Shapiro-Wilk's test (which is better than Kolmogorov-Smirnov test) shows that the null hypothesis that organisational performance follows the normal distribution is rejected at the 5% level. This means that if regression analysis was done with the original values of the variable, the results might not have been valid. So, particularly, organisational performance was transformed to make it normally distributed before the analysis was done. The SPSS's Quad. (i.e., $4y^{**2} + 3Y + 6$) transformation was used.

Figures 4.8 show the histogram, normal Q-Q plot and detrended normal Q-Q plot of leadership style.

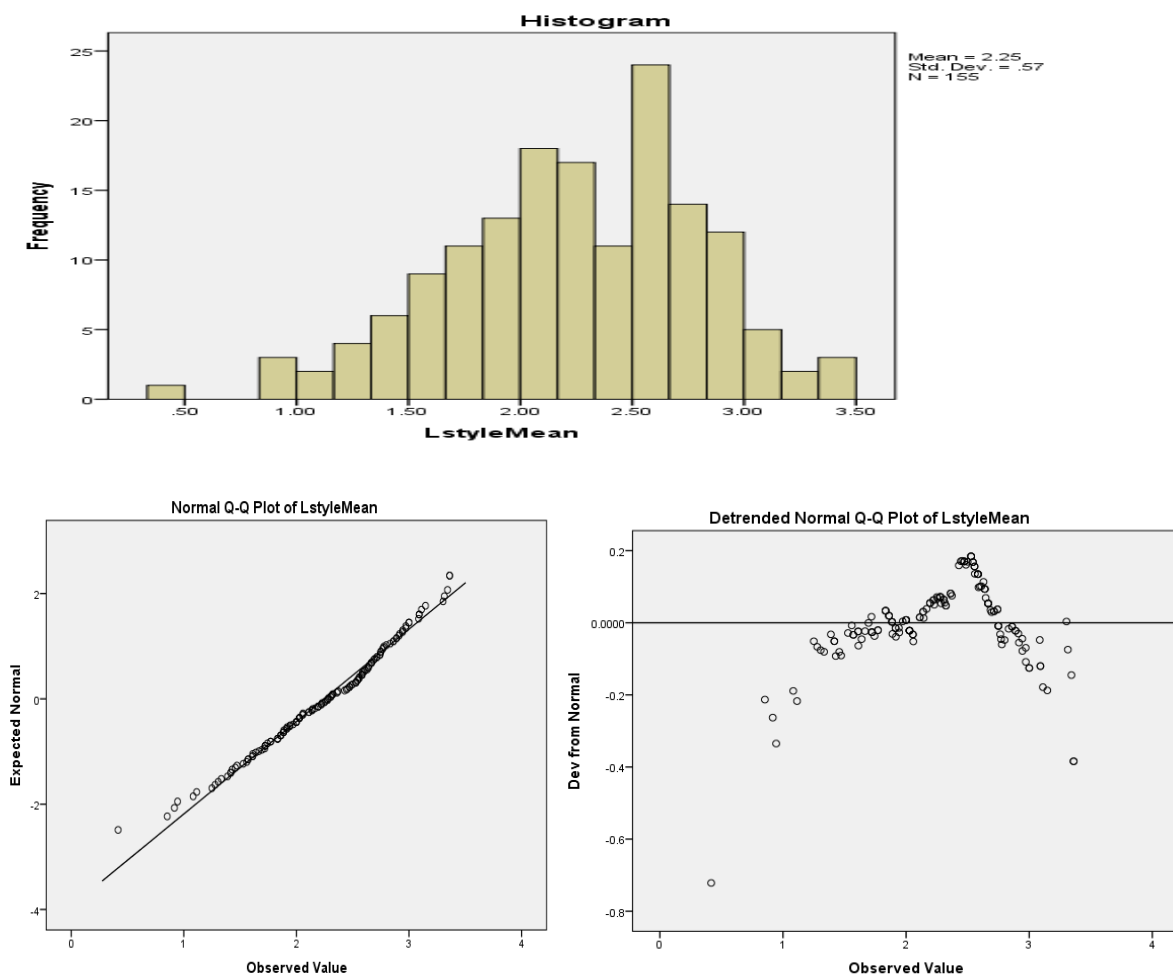


Figure 4.8: Normal Q-Q plot and detrended normal Q-Q plot of leadership style

Table 4.12: Descriptive statistics of the transformed leadership style and organisational performance

		Statistic	Std. Error	
Leadership Style (Quad.)	Mean	34.2	0.9	
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	32.4	
		Upper Bound	36.0	
	5% Trimmed Mean	34.0		
	Median	33.6		
	Variance	133.9		
	Std. Deviation	11.6		
	Minimum	7.9		
	Maximum	61.3		
	Range	53.3		
	Interquartile Range	17.0		
	Skewness	0.2	0.2	
	Kurtosis	-0.5	0.4	
Organisational Performance (Quad.)	Mean	61.5	2.0	
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	57.5	
		Upper Bound	65.5	
	5% Trimmed Mean	61.2		
	Median	59.3		
	Variance	640.7		
	Std. Deviation	25.3		
	Minimum	13.0		
	Maximum	121.0		
	Range	108.0		
	Interquartile Range	32.5		
	Skewness	0.3	0.2	
	Kurtosis	-0.5	0.4	

The skewness and kurtosis values indicate that the two transformed variables are approximately normally distributed.

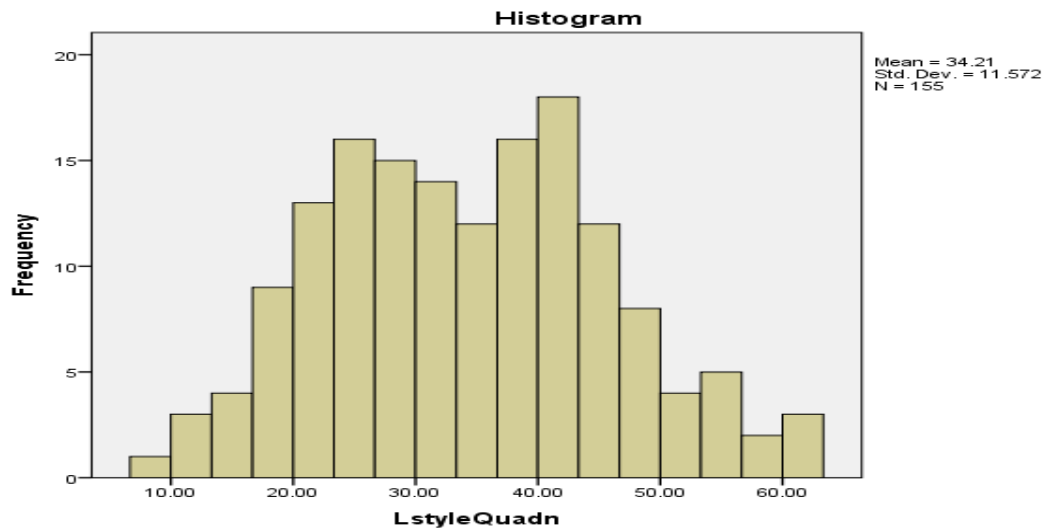
Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Prob.	Statistic	df	Prob.
Leadership Style (Quad.)	0.063	155	0.200*	0.988	155	0.230
Organisational Performance (Quad.)	0.049	155	0.200*	0.983	155	0.058

According to the Shapiro-Wilk's test, the null hypotheses that leadership style ($p=0.230>0.05$) or organisational performance ($p=0.058>0.05$) is normally distributed is not rejected at least at the 5% level. Also, figures 4.9 and 4.10 indicate that the variables are approximately normally distributed.

i. Leadership Style (transformed)

Histogram



Stem-and-Leaf Plot

Frequency Stem & Leaf

```

1.00  0 . 7
5.00  1 . 12234
11.00 1 . 66677888899
19.00 2 . 0001111222333333444
25.00 2 . 55555556666667888888888999
23.00 3 . 00000111122233333344444
19.00 3 . 55567777788999999999
26.00 4 . 0000001111122222333444444
12.00 4 . 5556778888899

```

8.00 5 . 00113334

3.00 5 . 599

3.00 6 . 011

Stem width: 10.00

Each leaf: 1 case(s)

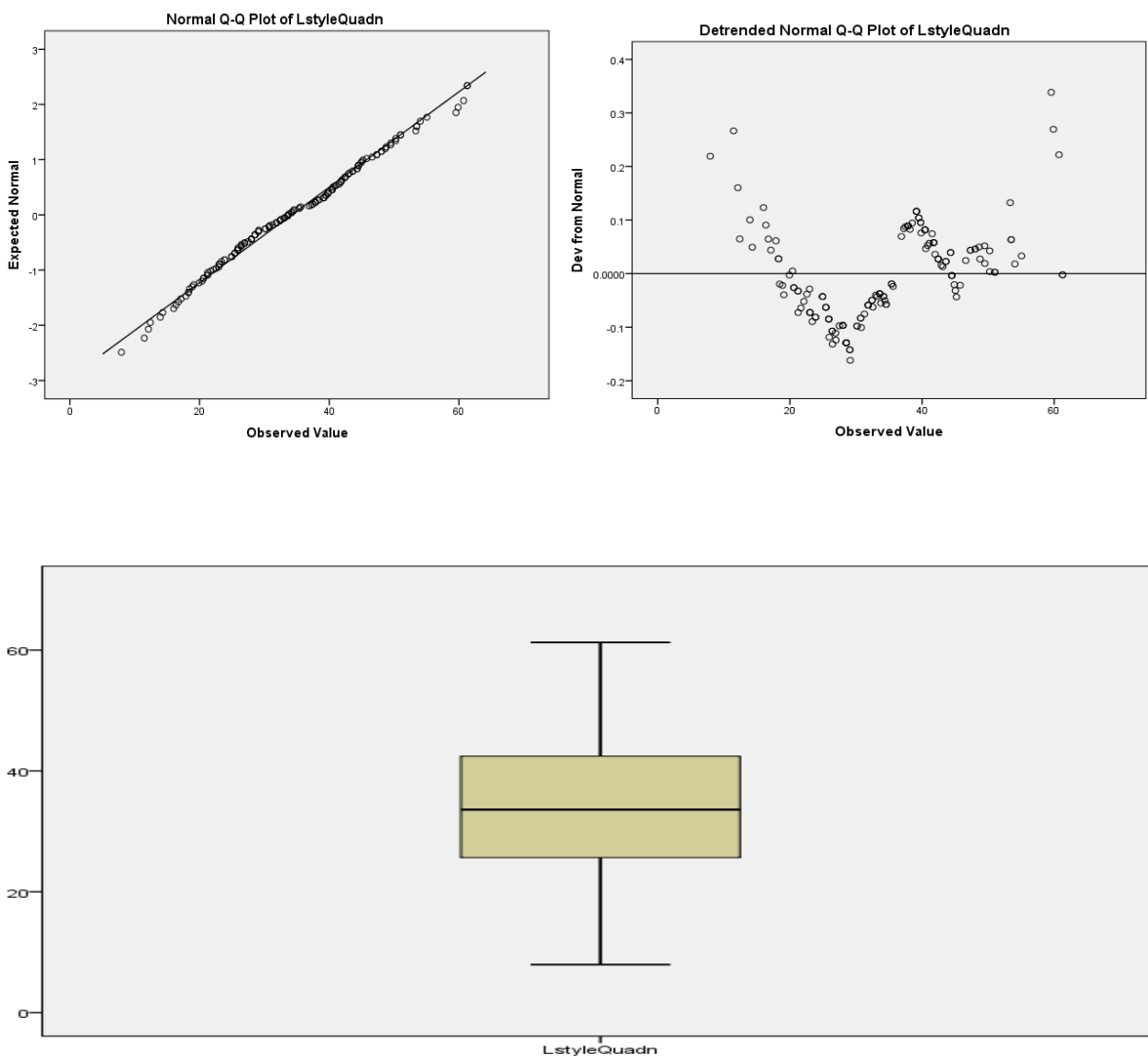
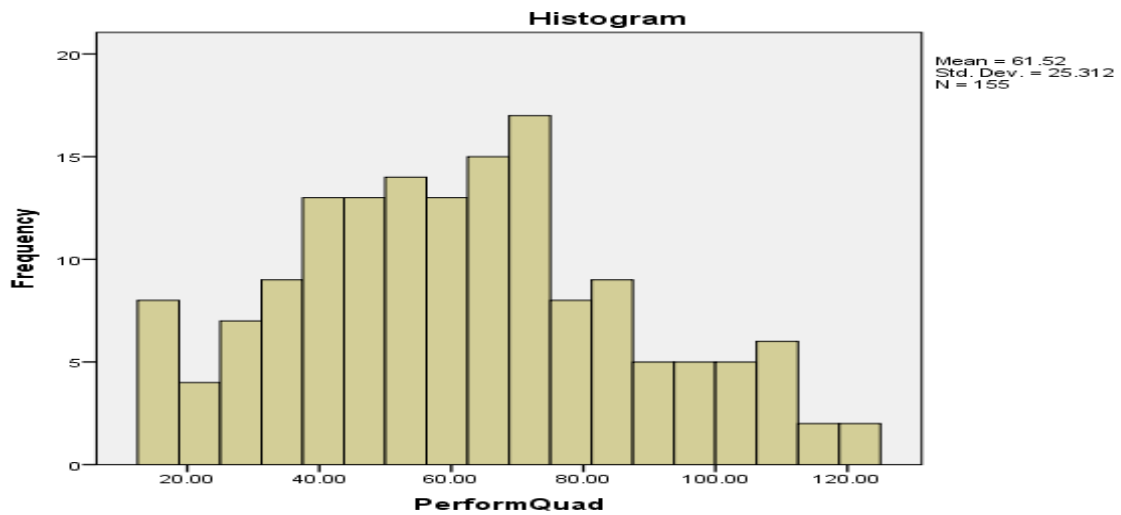


Figure 4.9: Normal Q-Q plot and detrended normal Q-Q plot of transformed leadership style

ii. Organisational Performance (transformed)



Stem-and-Leaf Plot

Frequency Stem & Leaf

8.00	1 . 33566667
9.00	2 . 334488999
15.00	3 . 001223355667999
22.00	4 . 011133333344444466779999
26.00	5 . 111222444455555777779999999
16.00	6 . 12223444444666888
25.00	7 . 0000000002223333355557799
11.00	8 . 22222224688
8.00	9 . 02277779
10.00	10 . 0012368888
3.00	11 . 135

2.00 12 . 11

Stem width: 10.00

Each leaf: 1 case(s)

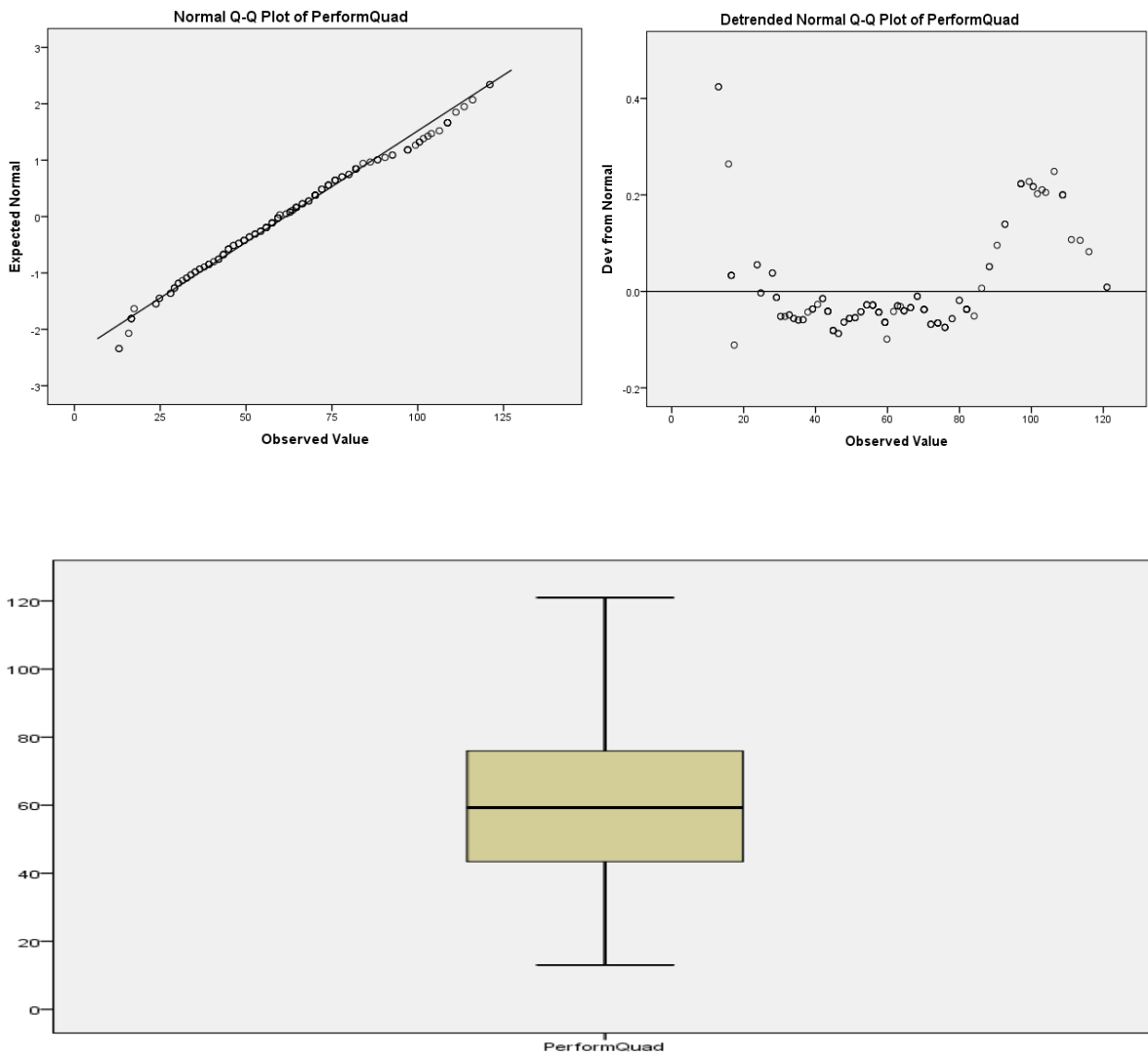


Figure 4.10: Normal Q-Q plot and detrended normal Q-Q plot of transformed organisational performance

4.4.2. Regression Analysis

In this study, multiple regression was used to analyse the data. As mentioned above, the dependent variables were organisational performance and leadership style. Years in the organisation and position in the organisation (used as dummy variables) were covariates. Leadership style was the independent variable whereas organisational culture was either a moderator or mediator for the organisational performance regression model; and organisational culture was the independent variable for the leadership style regression model. A moderator is a variable that alters the direction or strength of the relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable. This implies that the effect of an independent variable depends on the level of another variable referred to as a moderating variable, just like an interaction effect. A mediator helps to explain a relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable. The multiple regression model used in this study was

$$y_i = \alpha + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \dots + \beta_4 x_{i4} + e_i,$$

Where y_i is the i^{th} observation on the organisational performance variable or leadership style, α is the constant, x_i is the j^{th} observation on the j^{th} independent variable, and β_j is the effect of the j^{th} independent variable on the dependent variable and e_i is the error of the i^{th} observation.

Statistical significance was tested by the F test of the overall model fit and t tests of individual parameters. In order to test for the moderation effect of organisational culture on the effect of leadership style on organisational performance, a new variable

was created by multiplying leadership style by organisational culture and including the interaction term in the regression model. Two regression models were then fitted; the first one included only the independent variable (i.e., leadership style), covariates and organisational culture. The second, apart from the independent variable and organisational culture, also included the newly created interaction variable. Because in multiple regression, interaction variables are often highly correlated with the variables from which they are created, organisational culture was dropped from the second regression model to reduce the effect of the multicollinearity problem on the regression analysis. If the interaction variable was significant, then this would mean that there is a moderating effect of organisational culture on the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance.

To test for mediation, again, two models were fitted. The first one was fitted with only the covariates and leadership style, and the second one, apart from including these variables, also included organisational culture. The mediation effect of organisational culture was identified by examining whether the differences between the coefficients of the first model and those of the second model were statistically significant. The SPSS Package was used to analyse the data and the results follow.

4.4.2.1 Full Regression Model

i. Organisational Performance

Years in the organisation, position, organisational culture and leadership style were included in the regression model as independent variables (see Table 4.11). Three dummy variables were created from the “years in the organisation” variable for the year groups: 5 – 15 years, 16 – 25 years and 26 years and over, and group “5 – 15”

years was used as the reference year group. For position in the organisation, only three positions were used as there were only two Colonels in the sample, and “Warrant officer” was used as the reference group.

Table 4.13: Full regression model

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.632	.399	.374	20.02754	2.128

ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Prob.
Regression	38862.861	6	6477.144	16.148	.000
Residual	58560.920	146	401.102		
Total	97423.781	152			

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Prob.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
Constant	16.638	8.807		1.889	.061
16 - 25 years	-9.559	4.505	-.178	-2.122	.036
26 years and over	-10.359	4.344	-.204	-2.385	.018
Captain	-9.019	3.658	-.166	-2.465	.015
Lieutenant Colonel	-9.984	5.494	-.124	-1.817	.071
Leadership Style	-2.896	3.107	-.065	-.932	.353
Organisational Culture	19.489	2.354	.579	8.280	.000

Coefficients

Model	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Multicollinearity Statistics	
	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
Constant				
16 - 25 years	-18.463	-.655	.587	1.703
26 years and over	-18.944	-1.775	.563	1.777
Captain	-16.250	-1.789	.910	1.099
Lieutenant Colonel	-20.841	.873	.880	1.137
Leadership Style	-9.037	3.245	.839	1.191
Organisational Culture	14.837	24.140	.842	1.188

Residuals Statistics

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	8.0252	94.9673	61.8353	15.98989	153
Residual	-49.62608	66.02404	.00000	19.62828	153
Std. Predicted Value	-3.365	2.072	.000	1.000	153
Std. Residual	-2.478	3.297	.000	.980	153

The results indicate that the regression model is highly significant ($F = 16.1, p = .000 < 0.01$) and all the independent variables except leadership style ($t = -0.932, p = 0.353 > 0.05$) affect organisational performance at least at the 10% level of statistical significance. The adjusted R -square is 0.374, which means that the regression model explains about 37% of the variation in the data. Years in the organisation and position are related with organisational performance negatively. For example, on average, “16 – 25” age group ($t = -2.1, p = 0.036 < 0.05$) is associated with a lower level of organisational performance compared to the “5 – 15” age group according to the perceptions of the respondents. Likewise, on average, the position of “captain” ($t = -$

2.5, $p = 0.015 < 0.05$) is associated with a lower level of organisational performance compared to the "Warrant Officer" position. It can be concluded that leadership style ($t = -.932$, $p = 0.353 > 0.05$) does not affect organisational performance and has been accepted.

Therefore, *null hypothesis 1*: there is no relationship between leadership style and organisational performance and has not been rejected;

and

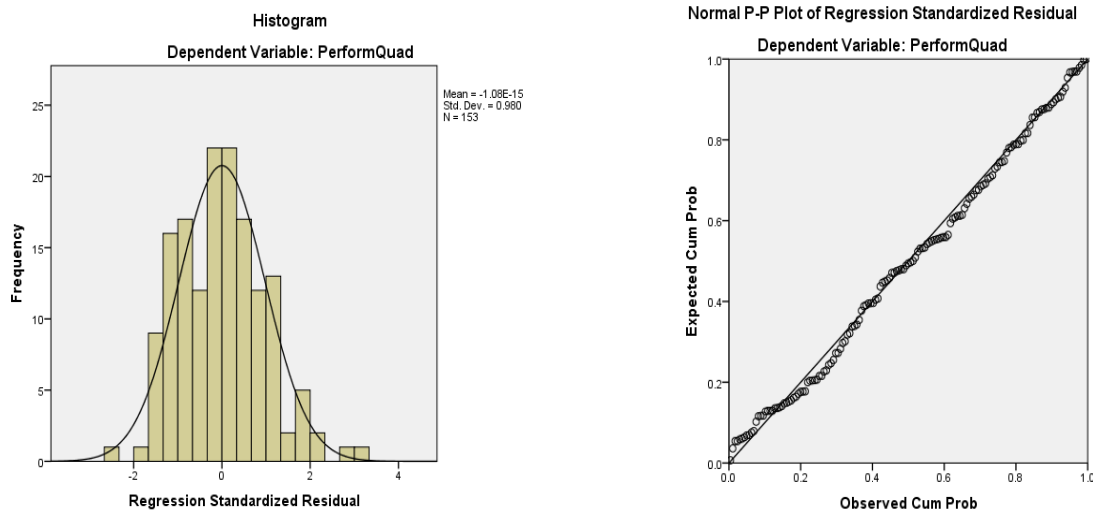
Null hypothesis 2: there is no relationship between the organisational culture and organisational performance. The null hypothesis has been rejected and therefore, the alternative hypothesis has been accepted.

That organisational culture ($t=8.280$, $p=.000 < 0.05$) affects the organisational performance that has been accepted.

The Durbin-Watson statistic of 2.1 is close to 2 meaning that there is no serial correlation. Multicollinearity statistics indicate that there is no multicollinearity problem as all VIF values are quite acceptable, far less than 10, the level at which one would start worrying about the multicollinearity problem as a serious problem that requires correction.

The charts, histograms and the normal Q-Q plot below indicate that the distribution of the residuals is approximately normal as almost all the residual data points lie on the straight diagonal line.

Charts



4.4.2.2 Full Regression Model (with the interaction term)

Table 4.12 shows the regression results when the interaction variable was added to the model. Still, the results indicate that the regression model is highly significant ($F = 13.8$, $p = .000 < 0.01$) and with similar results; all the independent variables except leadership style ($t = -0.932$, $p = 0.353 > 0.05$) and the interaction variable ($t = -0.265$, $p = 0.791 > 0.05$) affect organisational performance at least at the 10% level of statistical significance. The adjusted R -square, instead of increasing, it was reduced from 0.374 to 0.370, which means that the regression model explains 37% of the variation in the data. This might have been caused by the multicollinearity problem. The Durbin-Watson statistic of 2.1 is close to 2 meaning that there is no serial correlation. As

expected, multicollinearity statistics indicate that there is a big multicollinearity problem as the VIF values for leadership style, organisational culture and the interaction variable are unacceptably high (over 10), which requires correction.

Table 4.14: Regression model (with the interaction term)

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.632	.399	.370	20.09161	2.130

ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Prob.
Regression	38891.237	7	5555.891	13.763	.000
Residual	58532.544	145	403.673		
Total	97423.781	152			

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Prob.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
Constant	11.181	22.397		.499	.618
16 - 25 years	-9.576	4.520	-.178	-2.119	.036
26 years and over	-10.304	4.362	-.203	-2.362	.020
Captain	-8.937	3.683	-.164	-2.426	.016
Lieutenant Colonel	-9.912	5.518	-.123	-1.796	.075
Leadership Style	-.391	9.949	-.009	-.039	.969
Organisational Culture	21.296	7.214	.633	2.952	.004
Leadership Style X Organisational Culture	-.817	3.082	-.093	-.265	.791

Coefficients

Model	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
Constant	-33.085	55.448		
16 - 25 years	-18.510	-.643	.587	1.704
26 years and over	-18.926	-1.682	.561	1.781
Captain	-16.217	-1.657	.903	1.107
Lieutenant Colonel	-20.818	.994	.877	1.140
Leadership Style	-20.055	19.272	.082	12.137
Organisational Culture	7.038	35.553	.090	11.087
Leadership Style X Organisational Culture	-6.908	5.274	.034	29.756

Residuals Statistics

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	8.9994	94.3205	61.8353	15.99573	153
Residual	-49.63407	66.84089	.00000	19.62352	153
Std. Predicted Value	-3.303	2.031	.000	1.000	153
Std. Residual	-2.470	3.327	.000	.977	153

The charts, histogram and the normal Q-Q plot below, however, indicate that the distribution of the residuals are approximately normal as almost all the residual data points lie on the straight diagonal line.

Charts

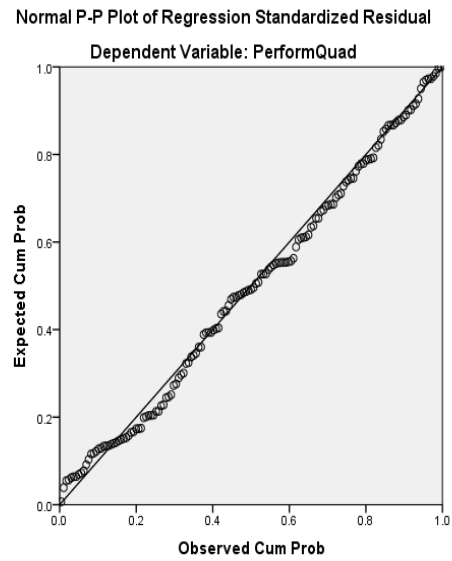
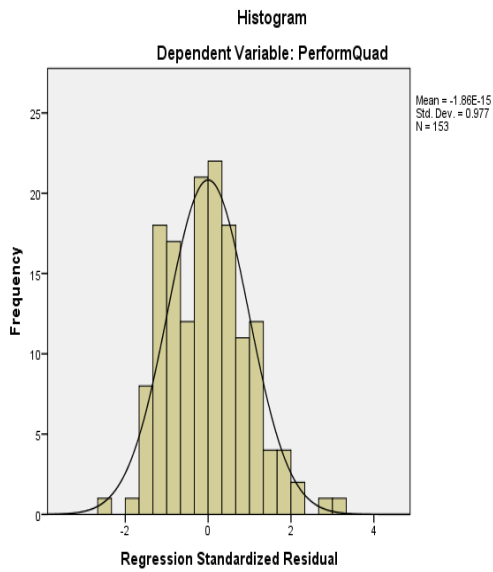


Table 4.15: Pearson Correlations

		Leadership Style	Organisational Culture	Interaction between Leadership style and Organisational Performance
Leadership Style	Pearson Correlation	1	.369**	.820**
	Prob. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	155	155	155
Organisational Culture	Pearson Correlation	.369**	1	.806**
	Prob. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	155	156	155
Interaction between Leadership style and Organisational Performance	Pearson Correlation	.820**	.806**	1
	Prob. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	155	155	155

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

As mentioned earlier, in order to correct the regression analysis for the multicollinearity problem, organisational culture was removed from the model and the results shown in Table 4.14 were obtained. According to the table, the results indicate that the regression model is highly significant ($F = 13.872$, $p = .000 < 0.01$). All the independent variables are significant at least at the 10% level of statistical significance, including leadership style ($t = -4.868$, $p = .000 < .01$) with a negative coefficient and the interaction variable ($t = 7.517$, $p = .000 < .01$). The adjusted R -square was reduced from 0.374 to 0.337, which means that the regression model explains 34% of the variation in the data. The reduction might have been caused, most likely, by the exclusion of organisational culture from the model. The Durbin-Watson statistic of 2.1 is close to 2 meaning that there is no serial correlation. Multicollinearity statistics indicate that the multicollinearity problem is no longer a serious problem as all the VIF values are far less than 10.

Table 4.16: Regression model (with the interaction term) but with organisational culture excluded

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.603	.363	.337	22.957	2.079

ANOVA

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Prob.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
Constant	78.297	8.466		9.249	.000
16 - 25 years	-10.919	5.164	-.182	-2.114	.036
26 years and over	-12.168	4.979	-.215	-2.444	.016
Captain	-11.073	4.191	-.183	-2.642	.009
Lieutenant Colonel	-11.869	6.298	-.133	-1.884	.061
Leadership Style	-28.479	5.850	-.576	-4.868	.000
Leadership Style X Organisational Culture	8.663	1.152	.886	7.517	.000

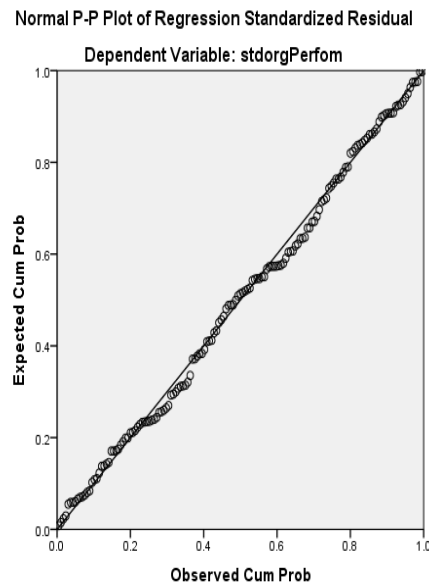
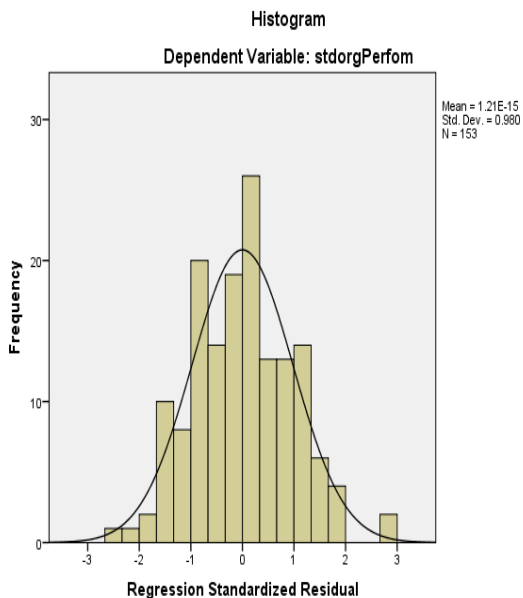
Coefficients

Model	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
Constant	61.566	95.029		
16 - 25 years	-21.125	-.713	.587	1.703
26 years and over	-22.008	-2.328	.563	1.777
Captain	-19.355	-2.791	.911	1.098
Lieutenant Colonel	-24.316	.579	.879	1.137
Leadership Style	-40.041	-16.917	.311	3.214
Leadership Style X Organisational Culture	6.385	10.941	.314	3.188

Residuals Statistics

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	2.711	106.972	65.221	16.988	153
Residual	-55.168	65.579	.00000	22.500	153
Std. Predicted Value	-3.680	2.458	.000	1.000	153
Std. Residual	-2.403	2.857	.000	.980	153

The charts, histogram and the normal Q-Q plot below, however, indicate that the distribution of the residuals are approximately normal as almost all the residual data points lie on the straight diagonal line.



It is interesting to note that, when the interaction variable was added and organisational culture was dropped for the sake of reducing the multicollinearity problem, unlike the regression model in Table 4.11, both leadership style and the interaction variable became significant. The coefficient of leadership style is negative which implies that it decreases the organisational performance. The fact that the

interaction variable is significant means that the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance is affected by or depends on organisational culture. Organisational culture moderates the relationship by causing leadership style to reduce organisational performance.

Therefore, *null hypothesis 3*: there is no moderating effect of organisational culture on the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance has been rejected and alternative hypothesis that there is a moderating effect of organisational culture on the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance has been accepted.

4.4.2.3 Regression Model (with only leadership style and covariates)

To test for organisational culture as a mediator between leadership style and organisational performance, at first, the regression model included only the covariates and leadership style. Then, both the covariates and leadership style, and organisational culture were included in the same regression model. This was done to find out whether organisational culture would greatly decrease or increase the relationships between leadership style and organisational performance. When the regression model was fitted without organisational culture, the results in Table 4.15 were obtained.

The results show that, apart from the covariates (i.e., years in the organisation and position), leadership style ($t = 2.059$, $p = 0.041 < 0.05$) also affects organisational performance positively at the 5% level. On average, if the level of leadership style

increases from say, “not at all” towards “always”, according to the perceptions of the respondents, organisational performance increases, holding other factors constant.

Table 4.17: Regression model (without organisational culture)

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.341	.117	.087	24.19635	1.873

ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Prob.
Regression	11360.642	5	2272.128	3.881	.002
Residual	86063.140	147	585.464		
Total	97423.781	152			

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Prob.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
Constant	59.235	8.637		6.858	.000
16 - 25 years	-13.110	5.418	-.244	-2.420	.017
26 years and over	-10.703	5.247	-.211	-2.040	.043
Captain	-10.217	4.417	-.188	-2.313	.022
Lieutenant Colonel	-9.884	6.637	-.123	-1.489	.139
Leadership Style	7.120	3.458	.160	2.059	.041

Coefficients

Model	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Multicollinearity Statistics	
	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
Constant	42.166	76.303		
16 - 25 years	-23.818	-2.402	.592	1.688
26 years and over	-21.073	-.332	.563	1.777
Captain	-18.945	-1.489	.911	1.098
Lieutenant Colonel	-23.000	3.232	.880	1.137
Leadership Style	.287	13.953	.989	1.011

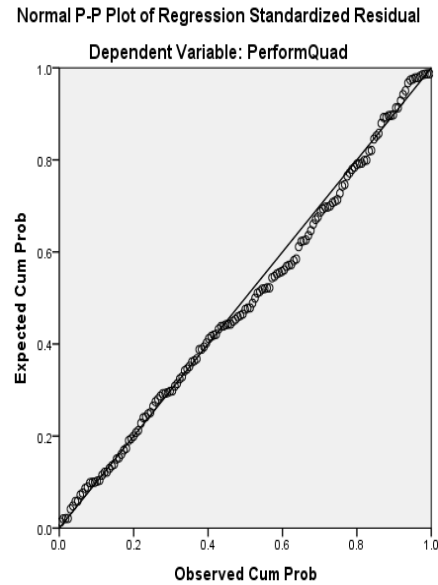
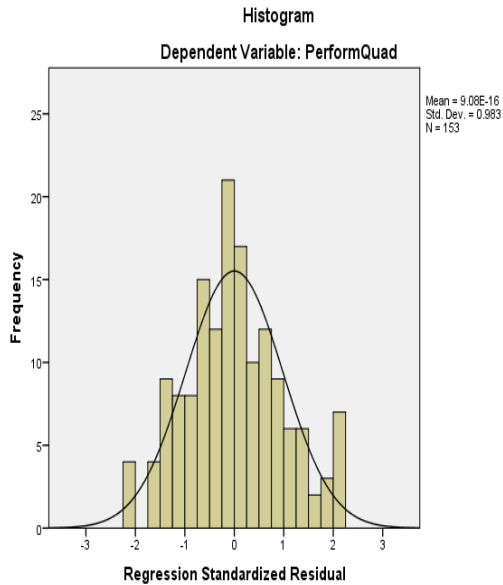
Residuals Statistics

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	41.2814	79.8040	61.8353	8.64529	153
Residual	-53.51183	54.07418	.00000	23.79506	153
Std. Predicted Value	-2.377	2.078	.000	1.000	153
Std. Residual	-2.212	2.235	.000	.983	153

The Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.9 is close to 2 meaning that there is no serial correlation. Multicollinearity statistics indicate that there is no Multicollinearity problem as the VIF values are all far below 10.

The charts below indicate that the residuals are approximately normally distributed.

Charts



When the regression model included organisational culture as well, the results in table 4.11 showed that there was no relationship between leadership style ($t = -.932$, $p = 0.353 > 0.05$) and organisational performance (see Table 4.16). This implies that organisational culture mediates the effect of leadership style on organisational performance and so, it helps to explain their relationship.

Therefore, hypothesis 4: There is no mediating effect of organisational culture on the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance in the SAPS, has been rejected and the alternative hypothesis that there is a mediating effect of organisational culture on the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance has been accepted.

4.4.2.4 Leadership Style and Organisational Culture Regression Model

The relationship between leadership style and organisational culture was investigated by fitting a leadership style regression model with the covariates and organisational culture as independent variables and the following results were obtained.

The results in Table 4.16 indicate that the regression model is highly significant ($F = 5.625$, $p = .000 < 0.01$) and only organisational culture ($t = 5.124$, $p = 0.000 < 0.01$) is highly significant at the 1% level.

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant relationship between leadership style and Organisational culture

The results mean that organisational culture affects leadership style. Hence, hypothesis 5 is rejected and the alternative hypothesis that there is a significant relationship between leadership style and organisational culture is accepted. The adjusted R -square is 0.132, which means that the regression model explains about 13% of the variation in the data. The Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.8 is close to 2 meaning that there is no serial correlation. Multicollinearity statistics also indicate that there is no Multicollinearity problem as all VIF values are quite acceptable, far less than 10. Years in the organisation and position do not affect leadership style.

Table 4.18: Leadership style regression model (using original values of leadership style)

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.401	.161	.132	.53164	1.796

ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Prob.
Regression	7.950	5	1.590	5.625	.000
Residual	41.548	147	.283		
Total	49.497	152			

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Prob.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
Constant	1.206	.212		5.698	.000
Organisational Culture	.295	.058	.389	5.124	.000
16 - 25 years	.181	.119	.149	1.522	.130
26 years and over	.064	.115	.056	.558	.578
Captain	-.019	.097	-.016	-.197	.844
Lieutenant Colonel	-.057	.146	-.031	-.390	.697

Coefficients

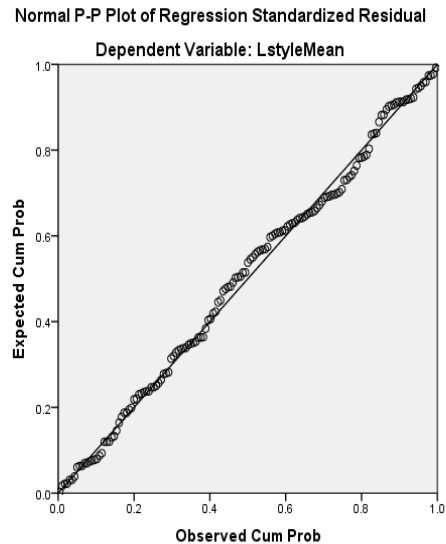
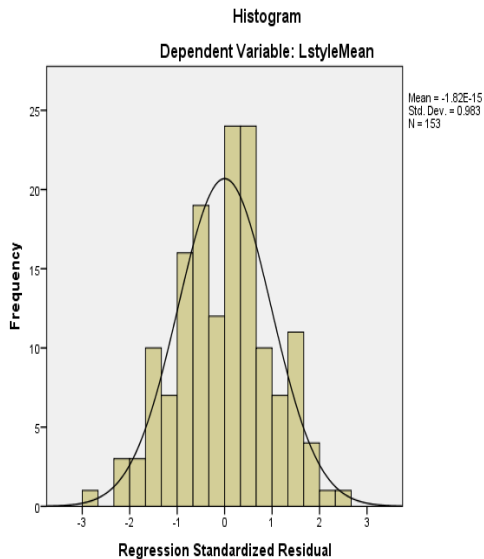
Model	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Multicollinearity Statistics	
	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	.787	1.624		
Organisational Culture	.181	.409	.992	1.008
16 - 25 years	-.054	.415	.596	1.677
26 years and over	-.163	.292	.564	1.773
Captain	-.211	.173	.910	1.099
Lieutenant Colonel	-.345	.231	.880	1.136

Residuals Statistics

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	1.3058	2.6899	2.2395	.22869	153
Residual	-1.50638	1.27751	.00000	.52282	153
Std. Predicted Value	-4.083	1.970	.000	1.000	153
Std. Residual	-2.833	2.403	.000	.983	153

The charts, histogram and the normal Q-Q plot below indicate that the distribution of the residuals are approximately normal as almost all the residual data points lie on the straight diagonal line.

Charts



The results indicate that the effect of organisational culture on leadership style is to increase it because its coefficient is positive.

4.4.2.5 Leadership Style Regression Model (transformed)

The regression model was again fitted using the transformed leadership style variable and the following results were obtained. It can be noted that the results in table 4.19 are very similar to those obtained in Table 4.17. They also imply that organisational culture increases leadership style.

Table 4.19: Leadership style regression model (using transformed leadership style)

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.384 ^a	.148	.119	10.87841	1.814

ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Prob.
1	Regression	3014.238	5	602.848	5.094	.000
	Residual	17395.956	147	118.340		
	Total	20410.194	152			

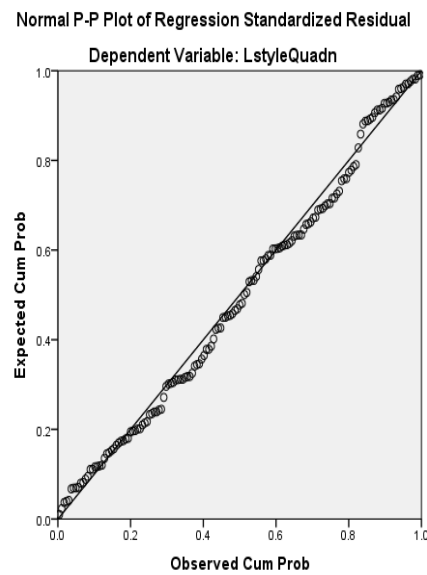
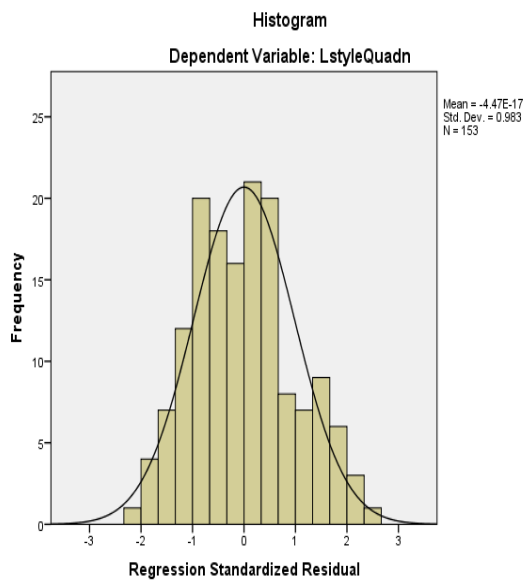
Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Prob.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
Constant	13.735	4.330		3.172	.002
Organisational Culture	5.682	1.178	.369	4.825	.000
16 - 25 years	4.005	2.428	.163	1.649	.101
26 years and over	1.994	2.357	.086	.846	.399
Captain	-.604	1.987	-.024	-.304	.761
Lieutenant Colonel	-1.236	2.982	-.034	-.414	.679

Coefficients

Model	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Multicollinearity Statistics	
	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
Constant	5.179	22.292		
Organisational Culture	3.355	8.009	.992	1.008
16 - 25 years	-.793	8.803	.596	1.677
26 years and over	-2.664	6.651	.564	1.773
Captain	-4.531	3.322	.910	1.099
Lieutenant Colonel	-7.130	4.658	.880	1.136

Residuals Statistics

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	15.4306	42.6235	34.0731	4.45315	153
Residual	-25.25169	25.74198	.00000	10.69799	153
Std. Predicted Value	-4.186	1.920	.000	1.000	153
Std. Residual	-2.321	2.366	.000	.983	153



4.4.2.6 Organisational Performance and Organisational Culture

The organisational performance regression model was again fitted only with the covariates and organisational culture as independent variables to investigate the relationship between organisational culture and organisational performance and the results shown in Table 4.18 were obtained.

The results indicate that the regression model is highly significant ($F = 19.307$, $p = .000 < 0.01$) and apart from the covariates being significant as seen before, organisational culture ($t = 8.683$, $p = 0.000 < 0.01$) is also highly significant with a positive coefficient at the 1% level. This implies that, organisational culture affects organisational performance such that if organisational culture increases, organisational performance also increases, holding other factors constant. The adjusted R -square is 0.374, which means that the regression model explains about 37% of the variation in the data. The Durbin-Watson statistic of 2.1 is close to 2 meaning that there is no serial correlation. Multicollinearity statistics also indicate that

there is no Multicollinearity problem as all VIF values are quite acceptable, far less than 10.

Table 4.20: Organisational performance and organisational culture

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.628 ^a	.395	.374	20.03133	2.091

ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Prob.
Regression	38734.071	5	7746.814	19.307	.000
Residual	59385.595	148	401.254		
Total	98119.666	153			

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Prob.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
Constant	12.643	7.959		1.588	.114
Organisational Culture	18.788	2.164	.558	8.683	.000
16 - 25 years	-10.184	4.470	-.189	-2.278	.024
26 years and over	-10.447	4.339	-.206	-2.408	.017
Captain	-8.971	3.659	-.165	-2.452	.015
Lieutenant Colonel	-8.614	5.379	-.110	-1.601	.111

Coefficients

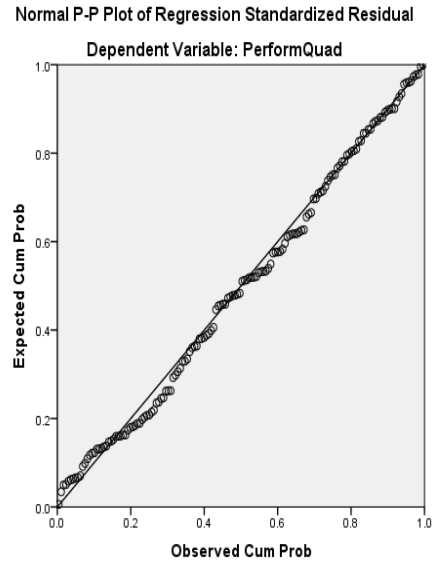
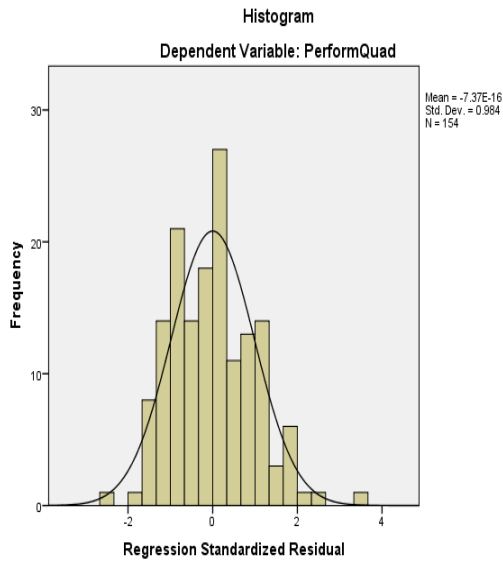
Model	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Multicollinearity Statistics	
	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	-3.085	28.371		
Organisational Culture	14.512	23.064	.991	1.009
16 - 25 years	-19.018	-1.351	.595	1.681
26 years and over	-19.021	-1.873	.560	1.787
Captain	-16.201	-1.741	.907	1.102
Lieutenant Colonel	-19.243	2.016	.872	1.146

Residuals Statistics

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	11.2765	96.1456	62.0072	15.91112	154
Residual	-50.57411	68.38955	.00000	19.70130	154
Std. Predicted Value	-3.188	2.146	.000	1.000	154
Std. Residual	-2.525	3.414	.000	.984	154

The charts below indicate that the distribution of the residuals are approximately normal as almost all the residual data points lie on the straight diagonal line.

Charts



4.4.2.7 Organisational Culture and Leadership Style

When a regression model was fitted with organisational culture as a dependent variable and age, years in organisation, position and leadership style as independent variables, the following results were obtained.

Table 4.21: Organisational culture regression model

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.398	.158	.129	.702	1.912

ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Prob.
Regression	13.595	5	2.719	5.520	.000
Residual	72.412	147	.493		
Total	86.007	152			

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Prob.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
Constant	2.186	.251		8.724	.000
16 - 25 years	-.182	.157	-.114	-1.159	.248
26 years and over	-.018	.152	-.012	-.116	.908
Captain	-.061	.128	-.038	-.480	.632
Lieutenant Colonel	.005	.193	.002	.027	.979
Leadership Style	.514	.100	.390	5.124	.000

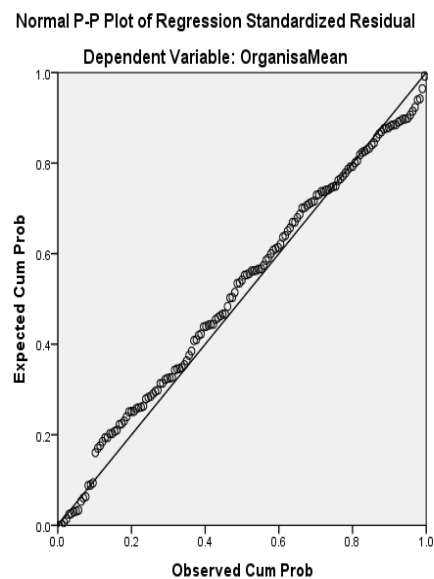
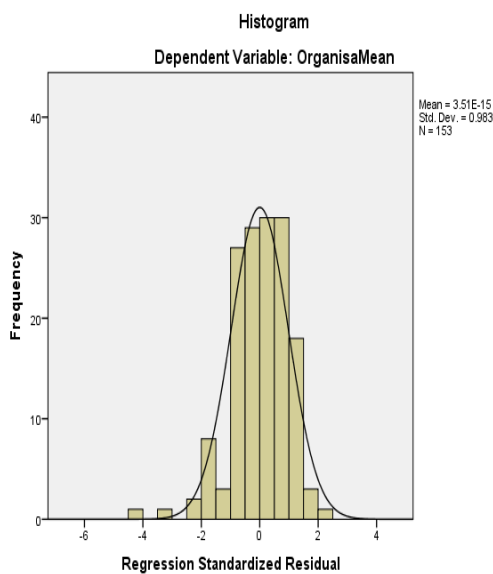
Coefficients

Model	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Multicollinearity Statistics	
	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
Constant				
16 - 25 years	1.691	2.681	.592	1.688
26 years and over	-.493	.128	.563	1.777
Captain	-.318	.283	.911	1.098
Lieutenant Colonel	-.315	.192	.880	1.137
Leadership Style	-.375	.386	.989	1.011

The results indicate that the regression model is highly significant ($F = 5.520$, $p = .000 < 0.01$) and leadership style ($t = 5.124$, $p = 0.000 < 0.01$) is highly significant with a positive coefficient at the 1% level. This implies that, leadership style effects organisational culture such that if leadership style is enhanced, organisational culture also increases, holding other factors constant. The adjusted R -square is 0.129, which means that the regression model explains about 13% of the variation in the data. This implies that a lot of variation in organisational culture is not explained by the model. The Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.912 is close to 2 meaning that there is no serial correlation. Multicollinearity statistics also indicate that there is no Multicollinearity problem as all VIF values are quite acceptable, far less than 10.

The charts below indicate that the distribution of the residuals are approximately normal as almost all the residual data points lie on the straight diagonal line.

Charts



4.5 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The main focus of the study was to find the relationship between leadership style, organisational culture and organisational performance and consequently develop a conceptual framework for enhancing organisational performance in the SAPS.

The objective was to find a relationship between leadership style and organisational performance and to determine the role of the organisational culture in enhancing organisational performance. The role of the organisational culture was investigated in terms of finding out how organisational culture affects the relationships between leadership style and organisational performance.

Five research questions, based on this study were proposed to assist the researcher in achieving the objectives of this research. The first research question was: what is the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance? Secondly, what is the relationship between organisational culture and organisational performance? Thirdly, what is the relationship between leadership style and organisational style? Fourthly, what is the moderation effect of organisational culture on the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance? Finally, the fifth question, what is the mediation effect on the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance?

In order for the researcher to answer these questions and test the hypothesis, the researcher chose the techniques based on the nature of the key variables that is dependent and independent variables. The mixed method approach was adopted for this study, as it was discussed in Chapter Three; the research was analysed using both the quantitative and qualitative data analysis method techniques. The data collected through the survey questionnaire were complemented with the data collected

using in-depth interviews and observation. This helped to get a better and comprehensive response to ensure that all short falls or gaps that might have happened would be filled.

The descriptive statistics showed that most of the mean scores for organisational culture items fell between a “3” (neutral) and “4” (agree). This meant that the respondents agreed with the statements. Table 4.22 summarises the results:

Table 4.22: Research Objectives and Hypotheses Assessment

Objectives	Hypotheses	T-Test	Results
To determine the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance.	H ₁ There is a relationship between leadership style and organisational performance.	t = -.932, p=.000 < 0.05	Supported
To determine the relationship between organisational culture and organisational performance.	H ₂ There is a relationship between the organisational culture and organisational performance.	t =8.280, p=.000<0.05	Supported
To determine the relationship between leadership style and organisational culture	H ₃ There is a relationship between leadership style and organisational culture.	t = 5.124, p=0.000<0.01	Supported
To uncover the mediating and	H ₄ There is a moderating effect of organisational	t = 7.517, p = .000<.01	Supported

<p>moderating effect of organisational culture on the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance.</p>	<p>culture on the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance.</p>		
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It was found that leadership style is positively correlated with organisational performance ($r = 0.2$, $p = .028 < .05$) at the 5% level. It was found that leadership style has a positive influence on organisational performance. It was also found that organisational performance is a function of years in organisation, age, position, leadership style and organisational culture. These findings support the previous studies by Haakonsson, et al. (2008), Steyre, et al. (2008) and de Poel, et al. (2012) that leadership style is one of the main constructs that influence organisational performance.

The results of correlational analysis indicated that organisational culture is highly related to organisational performance. Also, regression analysis indicated that there is a relationship between the organisational culture and organisational performance. Previous researchers discovered an association between organisational culture and organisational performance (e.g., Dension, 1990; Dension and Mishra, 1995; Dutt, 2009; Zheng, et al., 2010; Hartnell, et al., 2011). For example, members tend to feel more satisfied when their needs are aligned with the culture of the organisation (Lok and Crawford, 2004; Dutt, 2009). It has been found that organisational culture is relevant to supervisors or leaders and that it explains much of what happens within

the organisation, while it influences organisational performance (Armstrong, 1998; Fey and Dension, 2003; Tojari, et al., 2011).

As discussed in Chapter Two of the literature review, there are several previous studies that have indicated the relationship between organisational culture and leadership style (Ogbonna and Harries, 2000; Tojari et al., 2011; Schein, 2010). Most of this literature indicates that leaders have an impact on organisational culture. Leaders implement organisational change by changing organisational culture. The correlation analysis in this study also indicated that leadership style is related to organisational culture.

The results of this study support the findings of Denison et al. (2004), Gergory, et al. (2009), Zheng, et al. (2010), and Cameron and Quinn (2011) that there is a relationship between organisational culture, leadership style and organisational performance.

It was found that organisational performance is affected by or depends on organisational culture, and that organisational culture moderates the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance. There is a moderating effect of organisational culture on the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance.

According to Crandall and Crandall (2008), organisations that focus on hierarchy culture like the SAPS are mandated by rules, policies, procedures and order. These organisations are dominant in stability, order control and have internal control focus (Cameron and Quinn, 2011) and are formalised structure, with code of ethics in place providing instructions on member's duties and behaviour. The primary focus within these organisations is to provide stability and order (Cameron and Quinn, 2011).

The study found that organisational culture mediates the effect of leadership style on organisational performance. The results are in line with the literature which indicates a direct relationship between leadership style and organisational culture (e.g., Block, 2003; Sharma and Sharma, 2010; Schimmoeller, 2010; Acar, 2012); a relationship between leadership style and organisational performance (Robinson, et al., 2008; Wang, et al., 2010; Timothy, et al., 2011; de Poel, et al., 2012) as well as the relationships among three constructs, that is, leadership style, organisational culture and organisational performance (Ogbonna and Harris, 2000; Parry and Proctor-Thomson, 2003; Xenikou and Simosi, 2006; Tojari, et al., 2011). Ogbonna and Harris (2000), Xenikou and Simosi (2006), and Tojari, et al. (2011) investigated the mediating impact of organisational culture on the relationship between organisational culture and leadership performance and obtained similar results.

Leaders must choose an appropriate leadership style to use in order to achieve higher organisational performance. Leadership style that is not appropriate and not aligned to the organisational culture of the organisation could result in demotivation of members, less moral, dissatisfaction, which could result in a lower organisational performance (Lok and Crawford, 2004; Steyrer, et al., 2008).

Hence, the results are in line with the literature that claims that there is a relationship between organisational culture and leadership style (Ogbonna and Harris, 2000; Xenikou and Simosi, 2006; Tsai et al., 2009; Schein, 2010; Acar, 2012).

4.6 SUMMARY

It has been found that:

1. Organisational performance is a function of years in an organisation, age, position, leadership style and organisational culture.
2. Leadership style does not affect organisational performance directly but through organisational culture.
3. Organisational culture affects the organisational performance.
4. The interaction between leadership style and organisational culture affects the organisational performance.
5. Leadership style is a function of years in an organisation, age, position, organisational culture.
6. Organisational culture affects leadership style positively, and leadership style positively affects organisational culture. Alternatively, there is a positive relationship between leadership style and organisational culture.

The next chapter will give the qualitative data analysis and results.

CHAPTER FIVE

QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the results of qualitative data analysis. Qualitative data was obtained from individual in-depth interviews of 14 senior police officials and direct observation. The interviews were tape recorded with the respondents' permission and the data was transcribed verbatim for the analysis. The qualitative data was collected by using an interview guide and observation. Qualitative data was analysed by categorisation of the data into patterns, trends and themes. The data was collected, based on a critical review of relevant and current literature identified from credible or accredited multiple sources. A professional interviewer (and transcriber) was hired to conduct the in-depth interviews on behalf of the researcher. He signed a confidentiality agreement.

5.2 DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

The Table 4.23 below show the demographic characteristics of the participants. A total of 14 people comprising 10 (73%) males and four (27%) females were interviewed. Six (43%) of them were of between 40 and 45 years and eight (57%) between 46 and 55 years of age. Ten (73%) participants had a B-Tech degree in policing, three (21%) had a National Police Diploma and one (6%) had Grade 12 education but was very experienced. Ten (73%) of the 14 participants had been in the SAPS for 25 to 30 years.

Table 4.23: Interviewees demographic background

Gender	Age	Qualifications	Years in the organisation
10 males	8 respondents 45 – 55 years	10 respondents National Police Diploma	10 respondents 25 to 30 years in the organisation
	6 respondents 40 – 45 years	3 respondents B-Tech in Policing	2 respondents 20 to 25 years in the organisation
4 females		1 respondent Grade 12 (very experienced)	2 respondents 15 to 20 years in the organisation

The results imply that males are dominating in the organisation; that the majority (73%) had a good knowledge about the organisation; and that most of the police members have a National Diploma in Policing and B-Tech in Policing as there was a time previously when the organisation was subsidising the members who studied with Tshwane Technicon. In terms of experience in the organisation, the majority (10 out of 14 participants) were well experienced in the service.

5.3 RESULTS

Qualitative data was obtained through observation and in-depth interviews with senior managers of the SAPS who were stationed at Division Human Resource Development. The findings of the qualitative data are presented below:

5.3.1 Things enjoyed doing within the organisation.

The following things were described as the things enjoyed doing in SAPS.

- (1) Community policing, especially patrols;
- (2) Community enrichment where the police inform the community about crime and crime prevention;
- (3) Report writing, which might involve any other thing where you give the report to the high echelons of the police about any occurrence on issues;
- (4) Presentation or lecturing where you teach fellow colleagues or learners about any educational matters as a lecturer or as a presenter;
- (5) The disciplinary process, whether you are the chairperson or the state representative; and
- (6) Logistics, especially procurement.

As a follow-up question to question 1, participants were asked whether there were things that bothered them. The answers included the following:

The general placing of members at different posts is not satisfactory, that is, the systematic way it is done. For example, promoting and then transferring a person who has been doing office work like forensics to a police station to perform operational duties. It takes three years to teach that person to understand what is happening at the police station, and during those three years, the morale of the members doing crime investigations will be affected negatively. Members are instructed, without any

complaints and they comply grieving because they are a junior. (Not sure what you are trying to say here)

5.3.2 Different things about work

The participants were asked to describe the different things about their work. They were for example, asked to compare themselves with other fellow colleagues in the same positions, whether things were the same or different.

They reported that academy orders and national instruction had an influence on the way the organisation does things because they differed from organisational orders. The reason for this was because academy orders differ from one academy to another which inherently has an impact on the staff functions.

5.3.3 Communication with commanders on work-related issues

In general, the participants said that feedback about the work environment and issues surrounding a subordinate obtained from a supervisor did not help them. There was always an element of trying to show that the commander was above the subordinate. Police culture always favoured top managers to foster an autocratic style of leadership (due to its nature).

5.3.4 Encouragement received from supervisors or colleagues

Generally, there was no encouragement/support from supervisors or colleagues. Their participation somehow seemed to be sarcastic. The complaint was that members of the police force only got the obvious encouragement, which could easily be identified and seen by everyone. The encouragement which could not be openly identified was left out; so one would not know whether one had done a great thing or not.

5.3.5 Positive or negative impact work had on members' lives

There were both positive and negative impacts as follows.

Positive impacts:

- (1) It taught members to be decisive, that is, to be able to take a decision whether difficult or not;
- (2) It taught them to have confidence in themselves;
- (3) It caused their behaviour and conduct to improve;
- (4) It taught them to know how to behave and how to conduct themselves in public;
and
- (5) It taught them to be politically aware of the situation in the country.

Negative impacts:

There was no recognition for good work done, no support. A participant reiterated, “...people go around looking for mistakes in order to break you down”.

5.3.6 Feeling safe while working or being confident about the future within the SAPS

Most of the participants (73%) said they felt safe and were confident about the future within the organisation.

5.3.7 How involved in planning or decision making within working space

Members of the police force were actively involved in making decisions and plans. “I’m very much active in that regard”, a participant said.

5.3.8 Communication: Information flow within a section or unit

In general, the participants said that they were not satisfied with the way information flows within their sections for it was done through: word of mouth in the form of PEP talks and meetings, electronically and telephonically. The channels to be followed in terms of rank structure were not being used. Most participants reported that they did not get information at station level as they did not have e-mail, and the only information that reached them was that information which commanders wanted them to get.

5.3.9 Trust of community in SAPS

There was trust on the side of the community in the police because if there was no trust, according to the participants, the community would not have been opening cases, reporting criminal activities to the police or giving witness in cases when the

police did their investigations. There would also not have been organisations such as Independent Police Investigative Directive (IPID) which is also part of the police. Participants, in general, continued to say that there was trust even where there were police killings, which happened for some reason (such as peoples' marches or protests because of dissatisfaction with the public service) and the police were called in for law enforcement. For example, at Marikana, the police were not killed because the people were angry with the police; the crux of the matter was not a clash between the police and the miners but the dissatisfaction of the miners with their management and then the police, as law enforcement agents, were then called in for law enforcement. Also for the Sharpsville massacre (i.e., the 1976 riots), the people were not angry with the police but were angry at the system of the government of the day (which was not the police). It was either the Development Affairs or Home Affairs, where the people were fighting for pass laws and Afrikaans as a medium of instruction. So the police were not a target of the criminals because of being police, but rather the members themselves.

5.3.10 Major changes perceived in the organisation before and after 1994

(- comparing the old system to the new system)

Before 1994, the larger section of the community which is "Blacks" were not informed about the activities of the police - they knew little as little was communicated to them. After 1994, there has been transparency and people have started to know more about the police. So the changes are: transparency and more information to the Black majority. Changes include things like the Batho Pele principles. People have started to know how police duties are constituted, the duties of the police, the commissioner, the portfolio committee, the minister and the legality thereof.

5.3.11 Other comments

Dissatisfaction with the placement of the members of the police regardless of the legality of the constitution was emphasised. Members are not given an opportunity to give ideas as they are junior.

One participant said, "I think we do not need ladies in the operational leadership. We need them only in the operational, functional duties because that job is stressful and we know naturally that ladies are people who are have moods and then once you have a lady there she's tired, she's thinking about this and that - you always have problems like what we have seen with our Generals. There was this, in the Marikana issue; there was a female general of the province of North West. There was a national female general commissioner of the police; two high level ladies they could not help each other to handle the situation in a very better way. Because they are ladies they were not capable". The participant thought that ladies should be given jobs which are not stressful, such as administrative or financial duties, training jobs and forensic laboratory jobs where they do scientific research.

5.3.12 Summary

Hierarchical culture in the organisation still plays a role. Members are instructed, statements like "you comply and complain later" are autocratic in nature because it means that one has to first do as told and later can lay a complaint. This discourages junior members to apply their minds in whatever they do. Policies, regulations and national instructions are there to be complied with whether you like it or not; whether it is practically applicable or not.

Members are transferred without any consultation to other stations, sections, units, and their experience or expertise is not considered. Commanders / supervisors use policies, rules and regulations to suit themselves to punish others especially junior members. Decisions are made and are only taken from the top without proper consultation and subordinates are there to implement and not to question.

The issue of consultation is sometimes practised where members are given an opportunity to choose where to be moved or placed, but the emphasis is on placing members in terms of service delivery. Police culture always favours top managers and fosters an autocratic style of leadership due to its nature of existence.

The rank structure on its own favours top management irrespective of the skills they possess. They are also expected in terms of police culture to always give instructions for the junior members to follow.

There is no encouragement from the supervisors / commanders; and any appreciation or recognitions for good work instead the commanders will look for mistakes and find the opportunity to use the regulations or policies against members

5.4 DISCUSSION OF THE QUALITATIVE RESULTS

The purpose of the qualitative research was to generate propositions by employing an inductive approach. From the findings, it can be noted that if leaders of the SAPS organisation frequently use the transformational leadership style, it would enhance

employee satisfaction. By observation, the researcher realised that members are not satisfied or do not prefer the leadership style that is used currently. This calls for leaders to empower followers and set challenging expectations in order to enhance performance. If the members are satisfied, they are more likely to be productive, less absent, less stressed, less suicidal and more likely to stay longer in the organisation and the performance of the organisation will improve.

This in turn would lead to high performance among the members of the organisation and having pride to work for the organisation. However, the current and frequently emphasised leadership style involves following up what the members are doing all the time and pointing out their mistakes and being transferred elsewhere. Some participants perceived that the hierarchical culture negatively influenced the performance of the organisation.

The study revealed that hierarchical culture in the organisation still played a role. Members are instructed; then they comply and complain later. Members are transferred without any consultation to other stations or units, and previous experience or expertise is not considered. When a member arrives in a new place he/she will be demotivated his / her morale being down. It is important as a leader to consider the members timeously on the ground about changes, for example promotions or transferring or placing of members.

It was found that commanders / supervisors use policies, rules and regulations as it suits them to punish others especially junior members. The other main factor that affects the members is when there is a change of top management, just because

members were working with the other senior managers that are moved from the Division or Section all the poor members that were reporting to those members must feel the heat or be moved to other places without consultation. Employee engagement should reach down to the lowest level of the organisation because it is at this point where the impact is greatest.

Consultation is sometimes practised where members will be given an opportunity to choose where to be moved or placed, but the participants emphasised that members are placed in terms of service delivery. They sometimes do not act until problems become serious. The supervisors / commanders should have a sense of innovation and should encourage members to seek more opportunities and possibilities, not just to achieve performance targets within expectations. They must also understand the needs and values of the members. Respecting members is also very important for building positive healthy relationship between commanders and members in the organisation.

Some participants feel that the supervisors / commanders do not pay attention to their needs. This would help the organisation to achieve higher performance. The commanders should strive to enhance the knowledge of their subordinates, improve their style of command and control, and influence their members positively to ensure a healthy relationship between them and the members for the purpose of achieving the objectives of the organisation. The commanders/ supervisors should avoid inconsistent behaviour, and spend time coaching, paying attention to members' abilities and needs, and should help them to develop their skills and provide a

supportive environment. The majority of the participants indicated that there is no encouragement from the supervisors / commanders.

Another issue raised by the participants is that there is no appreciation or recognition for good work; instead, the commanders look for mistakes and get the opportunity to use the regulations or policies against members. According to Snape (1996) and Erkutlu (2008), rewarding and encouraging members consistently is considered to be one of the important motivators.

This study found that SAPS is still dominated by males. The mind-set of the leaders in SAPS is not yet transformed; there exists a culture of the organisation, where people believe that the organisation is a place for men. They believe that female police officers must not do operational duties because of the “Marikana” issue according to some participants. What happened at Marikana was unfortunate. Many miners died when coincidentally, the National Commissioner and Provincial Commissioner were females, but the operational commander and all the members that were involved or formed part of the operation to give command and control of the situation were males. The Major Generals, Brigadiers and Colonels that were present at that moment were males. It was not about females that they were not able to do operational duties. One of the participants indicated that the crux of the matter at Marikana was not a clash between police and miners but the dissatisfaction of miners with their management and then the police as law enforcement officers were called in to calm down the situation.

According to participants, there is trust in the community about the police because the community still opens cases, reports criminal activities to the police and give witness in cases when the police have investigations.

Through observation, this study revealed that there is a positive relationship between the age of employees and the organisation. An explanation for this could be that when members get older, their alternative employment opportunities become limited. As a result, they are likely to develop more positive attitudes towards their organisation and as a result, their performance increases. This supports the findings of Angle and Perry (1983), Mathieu and Zajac (1990) and Meyer and Allen (1991). The authors indicated that when an individual gets older and remains with an organisation longer, the individual's opportunities for alternatives employment tend to decrease; instead the employee commits him/herself to the organisation. SAPS needs leaders / commanders that excel in the art of communication, motivation, mutual respect, which instil confidence and enthusiasm, credibility and integrity on a consistent basis.

5.5 INTEGRATION OF QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE RESULTS

Researchers such as Bryman (2007), Creswell and Plano Clark (2007), Tashakkori and Creswell (2007), and Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) generally acknowledged the importance of research questions in a mixed-methods research. However, the literature does not reveal any legitimate source that can prescribe how to write a mixed-methods research question because it is somewhat more complex to outline a research question in a mixed-methods study than in any particular methodology study. According to Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2006), mixed-methods research questions are

questions that entrench both quantitative and qualitative research questions within the individual question. It requires both qualitative data and quantitative data to be collected and analysed sequentially or concurrently and iteratively, as it is asserted by (Tashakkori and Creswell, 2013) that mixed-methods research questions can be stated in one of three ways. The first way is to write qualitative and quantitative questions separately followed by an open mixed-methods question. The second way is to write a combined research question which is briefly divided into separate qualitative and quantitative sub-questions. Likewise, the third way is to write research questions for each phase as the study progresses. For the purpose of this study the third way was chosen.

The researcher preferred the mixed-methods approach due to the identified gaps in the literature and the complex nature of the research problem. It is generally understood that, at the most basic level, quantitative research involves the collection and analysis of numerical data, whilst qualitative research considers narrative or experiential data (Hayes et al., 2013).

In this study, the quantitative results showed that leadership style affects organisational performance directly but only if organisational culture is not included in the regression model. When organisational culture was included in the regression model, leadership style was shown not to affect organisational performance which indicated that organisational culture mediates and/or moderates the effect of leadership style on organisational performance. In qualitative research, the key informants stated that they were dissatisfied by the way their commanders / superiors treated them. There is an element of the “commander” being above the subordinate.

The literature reviewed in this study defined transformational leadership style as the leadership style by which leaders motivate their followers via inspiration. The followers are offered challenges and support personality development. Leaders should concentrate on intangible qualities such as shared ideas, share values and vision in an effort to build up good relationships inside the organisation (Bass, 1985). In this study, the correlation analysis showed that organisational culture has a positive relationship with leadership style and organisational performance which is compatible with the findings of other studies that claimed that there is a relationship between organisational culture, leadership style and organisational performance (Denison et al., 2004; Gergory et al., 2009; Zheng, et al., 2010; Cameroon and Quinn, 2011).

The results of this study show that organisational culture affects organisational performance positively, yet the key informants alluded that the police culture naturally always favoured top managers. Schein, 2010 identified the imperatives of organisational culture on organisational success. Daniels et al. (2004) and Piercy et al. (2002) acknowledge that culture is a main source of differences in organisational performance. Magee (2002) argues that the relationship between organisational culture and organisational performance cannot be quantified since both variables depend on each other for the success of the organisation. In addition, the managers or leaders at all levels must instil a culture that promotes the attainment of organisational objectives / goals and increase employees' performance by managing their differences and desires, and integrate them to shared values (Cabrera and Banache, 1999). Furthermore, this study shows that there is a moderating effect of organisational culture on the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance. This result is also compatible with the literature which argues that there

is a strong relationship between organisational culture and organisational performance (for e.g., Ogbonna and Harris, 2000; Parry and Proctor-Thomson, 2003; Xenikou and Simosi, 2006; Steyrer, et al., 2008; de Poel, et al., 2012). Some of the results have indicated a communication breakdown because of the line of command to be followed. According to Xenikou and Simosi (2006), organisational culture and transformational leadership have been theoretically and empirically linked to organisational performance. Organisational performance was also found to depend on members' years in the organisation, age and position in the organisation.

The interaction between leadership style and organisational culture was found to affect the organisational performance. According to the key informants, generally, the system used for placing members in the SAPS is not good. For example, members are transferred or moved to one place to another without looking at the skill or experience of that member because of the instruction from above. It takes three to five years for that member to adjust in the new place and perform well.

Years in the organisation, age, and position in the organisation are related to performance. For example, on average, "16-25" age group is associated with a lower level of organisational performance compared to the "5 – 15" age group according to the perceptions of the participants. Likewise, on average, the position of "Captain" is associated with a lower level of organisational performance compared to the "Warrant officer" position. This implies that the morale of the older generation in the organisation is low. This is supported by the finding of this study that there is no encouragement or support for members from the supervisors / commanders. Their participation somehow tends to be sarcastic. The members of the police only get the obvious encouragement; the commanders will always look for mistakes from the juniors and reprimand them.

The organisation must develop a culture that will support, encourage and reward high performance, and adopt an organisational culture that perpetuates excellence performance (Dartey-Baah et al., 2011). Owusu (2005) referred to organisational culture as “the underlying assumptions, beliefs, values, attitudes, and expectations shared by an organisation’s members including unwritten codes of conduct and behaviour such as practices which are rewarded and those which are reprimanded”. The main argument of the organisational culture and organisational performance link is the belief that certain organisational cultures lead to superior organisational performance (Ogbonna and Harris, 2000). This is done by the culture by defining the boundaries of the organisation in a manner which facilitates individual interaction and or by limiting the scope of line of communication to the appropriate levels (Krefting and Frost, 1985). Avolio et al. (1991) noted that organisational culture holds the key to increased commitment and best service. Bass and Avolio (1993) argue that leadership and culture are so well interconnected that it is possible to describe an organisational culture as characterised by transformational qualities.

The findings of this study are in line with Cameron and Quinn’s (2011) argument that organisational culture changes as organisations move on in their life cycle. The organisation’s culture needs to be established in a manner in which employees feel that they are part of the organisation.

5.6 SUMMARY

In this chapter, qualitative data was analysed and the developed conceptual framework for enhancing organisational performance through the linkage between

leadership style and organisational culture has been presented. The qualitative results complimented those of the quantitative research in Chapter Four, making the answers to the research questions more comprehensive.

Chapter Six presents the developed framework.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this study was to develop a conceptual framework to enhance Organisational Performance through linkages between Leadership style and Organisational Culture: the case of SAPS. Chapter Two discussed the relevant and current literature around the issues of the above constructs, and presented a conceptual framework for the study. Chapter Three discussed the research methods that were used; Chapter Four and Five presented data analyses and quantitative and qualitative results respectively leading to the identification of the drivers and enablers coupled with their relationships concerning the necessary conceptual framework as described below.

6.2 PROPOSED CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The last objective of this study is to develop a conceptual model for enhancing organisational performance.

Figure 6.1 shows the conceptual framework.

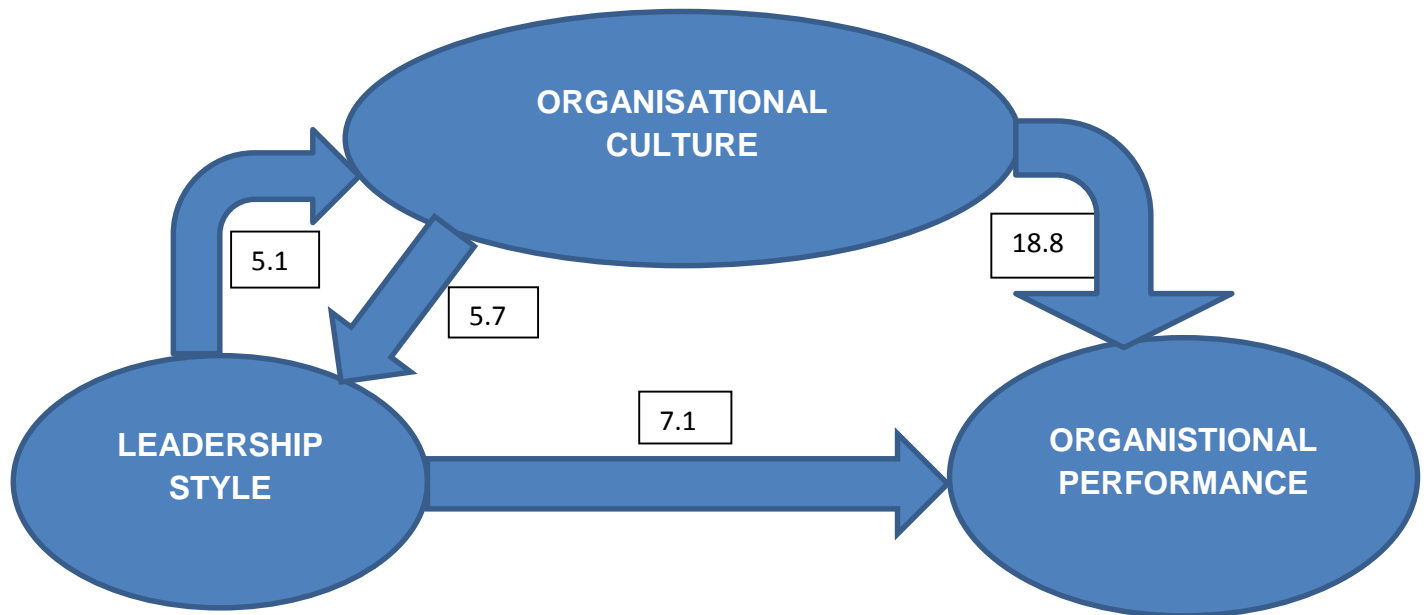


Figure: 6.1: Developed Conceptual Framework

NB: Figures represents regression coefficients

In order for the transformational leadership to enhance organisational performance, leadership must make sure that organisational culture is conducive to positive contribution of members to the organisational performance.

In the previous section the researcher provided the discussion of quantitative and qualitative data and their results including those of hypotheses testing. Based on the results, transformational leadership style and instructional organisational culture should be encouraged in order to enhance organisational performance, but at the same time, the interests and needs of the members must be attended to. The study shows that organisational culture of the organisation should be de-militarised to suit a situation where SAPS now has relatively a large number of young

members/generation (more or less 50%). According to Bass (1985), transformational leaders do work within the culture as it exists but are primarily concerned with changing organisational culture. Bass proposes that transformational leadership promotes a working environment characterised by the achievement of high goals, self-actualisation and personal development. Similarly, Bass and Avolio (1993) suggested that transformational leaders move their organisations in the direction of more transformational qualities in their cultures, like accomplishment, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration, therefore transformational leadership has an effect on culture. Block (2003) found that employees who rated their supervisors high were more to perceive the culture of their organisation as adaptive, involving, integrating and having a clear mission. In terms of this study organisational culture affects organisational performance positively. Denison (2000) points out that the organisational culture is the fundamental values, beliefs, and moral principles of the organisation that plays a vital role in the organisational performance. The members in the organisation play an important role, effective organisations make their employees able, establish their organisation on the basis of working teams and develop the capabilities of their human resources at all levels; thus the members of the organisation feel commitment against their work and see themselves as part of the body of the organisation. At all levels in the organisation the individuals must feel that they are involved in decision making within their working environment and these decisions are effective in their work.

The SAPS leadership must make sure that members are motivated, and communication skills of the leaders and good inter-personal relationship are enhanced. Members are supposed to get some kind of value rewards when they act

in a way that is of interest to the organisation and the leader. These studies show that the leadership style, organisational culture and organisational performance are interlinked. The conceptual framework is based on the literature review and the findings of the study, hence the suggestion is that there are number of factors relevant to leadership style and organisational culture that can make the organisational performance improve. These factors are hierarchy culture, communication, relationship, support and between a supervisor/ commander and members. The performance of the any organisation in terms of growth or excelling is usually derived from the services of that organisation.

The leadership of the organisational must have a good sense of humour in order to enhance the effect of communication, create a friendly environment and make the interaction interesting and sustainable with their members and colleagues. Through good human relationships, self-awareness, courage, trust, confidence of the employees, the organisation can be made effective for higher performance. A trust relationship between leaders and employees was a concern in terms of the study. Barret, 1997 claims that an organisational culture that is based on trust and courage is an organisational culture that supports creativity and innovation. The trust relationship in an organisation should be strengthened when supervisors and members act openly towards each other.

There must be a balance between the needs of the employees (members of SAPS) and the expectations or needs of the organisation.

6.3 SUMMARY

The leadership is vitally important at all levels within the organisation. Leadership is the moral and intellectual ability to utilise and work for what is best for the organisation and the employees. The leaders, commanders and the supervisors have to sustain organisational performance for the organisation to serve the community growing in the future with the members in the organisation. Member's morale had to be rebuilt. The other vital role of leaders of the organisation is to shape organisational performance for the success of the organisation.

Next chapter, is last chapter, conclusions and recommendations were made based on the findings of the study.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapters Four and Five presented the quantitative and qualitative results respectively. Chapter Five also presented the developed conceptual framework for organisational performance in the SAPS. This chapter provides the conclusions and recommendations of the study.

The main aim of the study was to find the relationships between leadership style, organisational culture and organisational performance and subsequently develop a conceptual framework for enhancing organisational performance in the South African Police Service. The objectives of the study were: to determine the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance; to determine the relationship between organisational culture and organisational performance; to determine the relationship between leadership style and organisational culture; to uncover the mediating and moderating effect of organisational culture on the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance; to uncover the mediating effect of organisational culture on the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance; and to develop a framework for enhancing the organisational performance in the SAPS.

To achieve the study's objectives, the concurrent mixed-methods approach was applied. Self-administered survey questionnaires were used to collect the quantitative data and in-depth interviews and observations were used to obtain qualitative data. This methodology helped to get more comprehensive results.

The remaining part of the thesis is divided as follows. Section 7 .2 presents the conclusions of the study, including subsection of original contribution and another one for the evaluation and limitations of the study; and section 7 .3 provides recommendations. At the end, the researcher suggests further research.

7.2 CONCLUSIONS

It was found that organisational culture plays an important role in achieving a high organisational performance, as leadership style is correlated with organisational culture as well as organisational performance. Organisational culture has been found to mediate and moderate the effect of leadership style on organisational performance. Therefore, in order to achieve higher organisational effectiveness and performance, the top management of SAPS should promote organisational culture and leadership style that are consistent with each.

7.2.1 Results

This section presents the answers to the research questions and shows how the specific objectives were achieved one by one:

Objective 1: To determine the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance.

The results indicated that leadership style affects organisational performance. The members of the organisation perceive that hierarchical culture in SAPS still plays a

role because it automatically favours the senior management. The members still work on instruction, and comply without any questioning.

Objective 2: To determine the relationship between organisational culture and organisational performance.

The results indicated that organisational culture positively affects organisational performance, but also affects the leadership style. Years in the organisation, position and age of the participants are also related with organisational performance. It is interesting to note that position negatively affects organisational performance. According to the participants, the existing police culture always favours the top managers, and as seniors, they foster an autocratic style of leadership due to its nature of cultural existence.

It was found that the majority of members do not perform their duties with passion or pride for being police officers; they just work for the sake of having a job - as the senior members will always be right. There is a gap between seniors and juniors. If a member has concerns, he or she has to follow the rank structure or line of command, not even being able to reach the person who can assist him or her.

Objective 3: To determine the relationship between leadership style and organisational culture

It was found that leadership style affects organisational culture, and organisational culture affects leadership style, that is, there is a positive relationship between

leadership style and organisational culture. The policies, regulations and national instructions are there to be complied with whether you like it or not, or whether it is applicable or not.

Objective 4: To uncover the mediating and moderating effect of organisational culture on the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance

It was found that organisational culture moderates the effect of leadership style on organisational performance, and that it mediates the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance. Hence, organisational culture helps to explain the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance such that if the organisational culture is conducive to a positive contribution by members to the organisation, organisational performance will be enhanced, otherwise, it will not be.

According to the participants of the qualitative research, there is no encouragement from the supervisors / commanders and any appreciation or recognition for good work; instead, the commanders will look for mistakes and get the opportunity to use the regulations or policies against the members. This is most likely caused by the existing police culture.

Objective 5: To develop a framework for enhancing the organisational performance in the SAPS.

The developed conceptual framework was presented in Chapter Five. According to this framework, in order for the transformational leadership to enhance organisational performance, leadership must make sure that organisational culture is conducive to a

positive contribution of members to the SAPS. The study supports the theory of Robbins and Coulter (2005) which suggests that transformational leaders who are charismatic motivate members by inspiring them, considering their needs individually, and stimulating members' intellectual needs.

In conclusion, it has been found that transformational leadership style affects organisational performance; and that organisational culture plays a big role in the SAPS by moderating and mediating the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance. Hierarchical culture in the organisation still plays a role. Members are instructed; then they should comply and complain later. Members are transferred without any consultation to other stations or units, and their previous experience or expertise is not considered. Commanders / supervisors use policies, rules and regulations as they suit them to punish others especially junior members.

The issue of consultation is sometimes practised where members are given an opportunity to choose where to be moved or placed, but normally, members are placed in terms of the service delivery. There is no encouragement from the supervisors / commanders; and any appreciation, or recognitions for good work; instead, the commanders will look for mistakes and get the opportunity to use the regulations or policies against the members.

7.2.2 Evaluation and limitations of the study

Triangulation was used to address the validity and reliability issues of the study. More than one source of data or data collection method was used to improve the validity and reliability of the results. A reliability test for each dimension was done before data

analysis was done and Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used as a measure of checking internal reliability. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient estimates ranged from 0.868 to 0.965 for the key study variables, implying that the study was reliable.

The response rate was 61.2%. This might have been caused by the data being collected during the festive season of December 2016, and as a result, this might have affected the validity and reliability of the study. However, the potential negative effect of this issue must have been minimised by using the qualitative research to complement the quantitative research in terms of obtaining in-depth information on the matters that were being investigated.

7.2.3 Original contribution to the body of knowledge

The aim of the study was to investigate the relationship between leadership style, organisational culture and organisational performance and subsequently develop a conceptual framework for enhancing organisational performance in the South African Police Service. Such an investigation has not been done comprehensively in the public sector before.

This study filled this gap by doing a similar study in police service, identifying the role of organisational culture in enhancing organisational performance. This contributes theoretically to the body of knowledge in the field of leadership. Practically, the study has contributed to the body of knowledge by way of developing a conceptual framework which can be applied in the police force anywhere in the world, with some adjustments to suit the environment.

7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

It has emerged that links between organisational culture and organisational performance, and between leadership style and organisational performance exist.

1. First and foremost, the developed leadership framework should be applied in SAPS and similar law enforcement. The organisational culture in the police service should be re-examined and improved upon in terms of making sure that instructional organisational culture is encouraged in order to enhance organisational performance.

The Organisation has one engagement policy (without any differentiation for the generations of employees), yet the youth have different needs, desires, and attitudes, so, a further study should be done to find a way of catering/ to can address the issue of the youth generation. “One-size-fits-all’ plans are not appropriate for today’s multigenerational workplace.

2. Organisational culture should be de-militarised to suit a situation where we now have a large number of young members/generation (more or less 50%). The leadership should encourage an informal dialogue between commanders or supervisors and the members by providing a suitable ‘shared space’ that could permit them to take ownership and responsibility of many involved problems so that the members can assist in resolving them. There is always an element of showing that the commander is above the subordinate, which is detrimental to a good “employee – leader” relationship.

The hierarchical organisational structure is based on top leaders' decision-making and autocratic management approach which is usually dominant in all layers of an organisational pyramid. Therefore, the organisational structure should be flattened by giving the middle and junior managers space to speak their mind, come up with suggestions and eliminate the organisational layers for sustainable knowledge sharing to all other members in the organisation. The leadership of the organisation should consider making changes by removing these barriers and allowing young stars to put their ideas into practice in daily work planning so that they can combine different types of explicit knowledge.

Therefore, senior management in the organisation should increase members' involvement in the different tasks through mentorship, coaching and advice to get to know the process, policies, regulations, and other activities within the organisation and stop working on instruction from seniors.

3. It is important that the organisation's top management re-examines the organisational culture and the leadership style relationship in two ways because both these variables have a significant impact on organisational performance, and they cannot be separated from each other since they affect each other.

The low level of organisational performance and motivation of members are attributed to supervisor or leadership style, but there are still other factors that are believed to affect the members' performance and motivation. Future research could focus on other factors that might also affect employees' loyalty and commitment. Such factors include personal growth, achievement,

recognition, and responsibility (Herzberg et al., 1959). Supervision or command and control, and supervisors' leadership style are just among the causes that affect members' morale and encouragement.

SAPS leadership consists of members who are skilled professionals with expertise and whose integrity is beyond reproach. Hence, in order to enhance organisational performance, the leadership must ensure that organisational culture is conducive to positive contribution by members to the organisational performance.

4. In this study, leadership style could be classified predominantly as transactional leadership style (Arzi & Farahbod, 2014) and to a lesser degree as transformational leadership style. This is based on the way subordinates are influenced by the leadership.

Even though organisational culture affects organisational performance positively, the low morale of the members and lack of communication channels or skills of the leaders and lack of good inter-personal relationship might be impacting organisational performance negatively. There is always an element of trying to show that the commander is above the subordinate. The existing Police culture also discourages consultation since the instructions must always be top-down that is, from higher ranking official to lower ranking official.

7.4 SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

A similar study should be done in other public law enforcement organisations. It is also suggested that future research should involve other variables as well, including different types of organisational culture and different leadership styles.

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APPENDIX A

Table 1: Leadership Style mean scores

	A. Leadership style	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Always	Mean	Std.dev	Median	T (p)	Reject/ Accept
		0	1	2	3	4					
1	Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts	13 (8)	18 (12)	59 (38)	38 (24)	25 (16)	2.3	1.1	2	25.0 (.000)	Reject
2	Re-examines critical assumptions to questions whether they are appropriate	15 (10)	12 (8)	63 (40)	45 (29)	19 (12)	2.3	1.1	2	25.8 (.000)	Reject
3	Fails to interfere until problems become serious	40 (26)	25 (16)	48 (31)	24 (15)	18 (12)	1.7	1.3	2	16.1 (.000)	Reject
4	Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	13 (8)	29 (19)	47 (30)	42 (27)	25 (16)	2.2	1.2	2	23.8 (.000)	Reject
5	Avoids getting involved when important issues arise	47 (30)	15 (10)	38 (24)	32 (21)	17 (11)	1.7	1.4	2	14.9 (.000)	Reject
6	Talks about his/her most important values and beliefs	21 (14)	21 (14)	41 (26)	45 (29)	26 (17)	2.2	1.3	2	21.7 (.000)	Reject
7	Is absent when needed	57 (37)	25 (16)	40 (26)	22 (14)	12 (8)	1.4	1.3	1	13.3 (.000)	Reject
8	Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems	18 (12)	16 (10)	48 (31)	33 (21)	35 (22)	2.3	1.3	2	22.4 (.000)	Reject
9	Talks optimistically about the future	12 (8)	23 (15)	47 (30)	29 (19)	42 (27)	2.4	1.3	2	24.0 (.000)	Reject
10	In stills pride in me for being associated with him/her	24 (15)	13 (8)	42 (27)	43 (28)	34 (22)	2.3	1.3	2	21.9 (.000)	Reject
11	Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets	16 (10)	13 (8)	38 (24)	46 (30)	42 (27)	2.6	1.3	3	25.2 (.000)	Reject
12	Waits for things to go wrong before taking action	65 (42)	15 (10)	26 (17)	34 (22)	15 (10)	1.5	1.5	1	12.6 (.000)	Reject
13	Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	12 (8)	16 (10)	33 (21)	44 (28)	48 (31)	2.7	1.2	3	26.4 (.000)	Reject
14	Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	11 (7)	11(7)	40 (26)	51 (33)	41 (26)	2.7	1.2	3	28.4 (.000)	Reject
15	Spends time teaching and coaching	23 (15)	22 (14)	38 (24)	30 (19)	41 (26)	2.3	1.4	2	20.4 (.000)	Reject
16	Makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved	16 (10)	13 (8)	39 (25)	46 (30)	40 (26)	2.5	1.3	3	25.0 (.000)	Reject
17	Shows that he/she is a firm believer in "If it ain't broke, don't fix it."	32 (21)	17 (11)	43 (28)	39 (28)	20 (13)	2.0	1.3	2	18.4 (.000)	Reject
18	Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group	17 (11)	17 (11)	37 (24)	31 (20)	32 (21)	2.3	1.3	2	20.4 (.000)	Reject
19	Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group	34 (22)	17 (11)	31 (20)	34 (22)	35 (22)	2.1	1.5	2	17.8 (.000)	Reject
20	Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action	61 (39)	15 (10)	29 (19)	28 (18)	19 (12)	1.5	1.5	1.5	12.8 (.000)	Reject
21	Acts in ways that builds my respect	22 (14)	11 (7)	36 (23)	32 (21)	54 (35)	2.6	1.4	3	22.7 (.000)	Reject
22	Concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures	16 (10)	10 (6)	47 (30)	38 (24)	45 (29)	2.6	1.3	3	25.4 (.000)	Reject
23	Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions	12 (8)	13 (8)	43 (28)	50 (32)	37 (24)	2.6	1.2	3	27.3 (.000)	Reject

24	Keeps track of all mistakes	20 (13)	15 (10)	47 (30)	35 (22)	37 (24)	2.4	1.3	2	22.4 (.000)	Reject
25	Displays a sense of power and confidence	9 (6)	13 (8)	30 (19)	45 (29)	56 (36)	2.8	1.2	3	29.4 (.000)	Reject
26	Articulates a compelling vision of the future	11 (7)	19 (12)	39 (25)	46 (30)	38 (24)	2.5	1.2	3	26.1 (.000)	Reject
27	Directs my attention toward failures to meet standards	25 (16)	21 (14)	49 (31)	36 (23)	23 (15)	2.1	1.3	2	20.2 (.000)	Reject
28	Avoids making decisions	62 (40)	14 (9)	37 (24)	30 (19)	13 (8)	1.5	1.4	2	13.2 (.000)	Reject
29	Considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others	31 (20)	8 (5)	45 (29)	45 (29)	26 (17)	2.2	1.3	2	20.2 (.000)	Reject
30	Gets me to look at problems from many different angles	20 (13)	12 (8)	40 (26)	41 (26)	43 (28)	2.5	1.3	3	23.5 (.000)	Reject
31	Helps me to develop my strengths	21 (14)	13 (8)	32 (21)	34 (22)	55 (35)	2.6	1.4	3	23.0 (.000)	Reject
32	Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	21 (14)	12 (8)	34 (22)	39 (25)	49 (31)	2.5	1.4	3	23.1 (.000)	Reject
33	Delays responding to urgent questions	59 (38)	20 (13)	38 (24)	27 (17)	12 (8)	1.4	1.4	1	13.3 (.000)	Reject
34	Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission	16 (10)	14 (9)	40 (26)	43 (28)	41 (26)	2.5	1.3	3	24.7 (.000)	Reject
35	Expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations	18 (12)	11 (7)	40 (26)	37 (24)	50 (32)	2.6	1.3	3	24.5 (.000)	Reject
36	Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved	12 (8)	13 (8)	38 (24)	33 (21)	60 (39)	2.7	1.3	3	27.1 (.000)	Reject

Table 2: Organisational Culture mean scores

	B. Organisation Culture	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean	Std. dev	Median	T (p)	Reject/ Accept
		1	2	3	4	5					
1	Decisions are usually made in a level where best information is available	13 (8)	26 (17)	45 (29)	47 (30)	23 (15)	3.3	1.2	3	2.8 (.005)	Reject
2	Information is widely shared so that everyone can get it	11 (7)	30 (19)	43 (28)	45 (29)	24 (15)	3.3	1.2	3	2.9 (.005)	Reject
3	Everyone believes that she / he can have a positive impact	10 (6)	34 (22)	52 (33)	40 (26)	17 (11)	3.1	1.1	3	1.5 (.139)	Accept
4	Working is like being part of the team	7 (5)	31 (20)	40 (26)	40 (26)	37 (24)	3.5	1.2	3	4.7 (.000)	Reject
5	We rely on the coordination to get the work done, rather than hierarchy	12 (8)	27 (17)	39 (25)	54 (35)	22 (14)	3.3	1.2	3	3.3 (.001)	Reject
6	Teams are the building block of this organisation	11 (7)	19 (12)	33 (21)	52 (33)	40 (26)	3.6	1.2	4	6.1 (.000)	Reject
7	We constantly improve compared to our competitors	13 (8)	22 (14)	43 (28)	56 (36)	19 (12)	3.3	1.1	3	3.3 (.001)	Reject
8	We continue to invest in the skills of employees	13 (8)	18 (12)	39 (25)	53 (34)	28 (18)	3.4	1.2	4	4.5 (.000)	Reject
9	The capability of people is viewed as an important source of competitive advantage	12 (8)	25 (16)	46 (30)	52 (33)	18 (12)	3.3	1.1	3	2.8 (.005)	Reject
10	Leaders and managers follow the guideline that they have set for the organisation	13 (8)	22 (14)	48 (31)	53 (34)	19 (12)	3.3	1.1	3	3.1 (.002)	Reject
11	There is a clear and a consistent set of values that governs the way we do things	7 (5)	15 (10)	47 (30)	62 (40)	24 (15)	3.5	1.0	4	6.4 (.000)	Reject
12	Ethical codes guides our behaviour	7 (5)	13 (8)	36 (23)	61 (39)	36 (23)	3.7	1.1	4	8.0 (.000)	Reject
13	When disagreements occurs, we work hard to	9 (6)	36 (23)	50 (32)	44 (28)	15 (10)	3.4	1.2	4	4.5 (.000)	Reject

	achieve solutions that benefits both parties										
14	It is easy to reach consensus, even on difficult issues	9 (6)	36 (23)	50 (32)	44 (28)	15 (10)	3.1	1.1	3	1.5 (.132)	Accept
15	We often have trouble in reaching agreements on key issues	9 (6)	36 (23)	43 (28)	55 (35)	12 (8)	3.2	1.1	3	1.9 (.059)	Accept
16	People from different organisational units still share a common perspective	7 (5)	29 (19)	59 (38)	48 (31)	11 (7)	3.2	1.0	3	2.2 (.026)	Reject
17	It is easy to coordinates projects across functional units in this organisation	11 (7)	34 (22)	61 (39)	38 (24)	12 (8)	3.0	1.0	3	0.5 (.641)	Accept
18	There is a good alignment of goals across levels of this organisation	10 (6)	28 (18)	52 (33)	54 (35)	12 (8)	3.2	1.0	3	2.3 (.021)	Reject
19	We are very responsive	7 (5)	25 (16)	33 (21)	58 (37)	28 (18)	3.5	1.1	4	5.5 (.000)	Reject
20	We respond well to other competitors and other changes	6 (4)	28 (18)	46 (30)	57 (37)	17 (11)	3.3	1.0	3	4.0 (.000)	Reject
21	We continually adopt new and improved ways to do things	6 (4)	25 (16)	36 (23)	63 (40)	19 (12)	3.4	1.0	4	5.0 (.000)	Reject
22	Customer commends and recommendations often leads to changes	8 (5)	28 (18)	55 (35)	50 (32)	14 (9)	3.2	2		2.7 (.008)	Reject
23	Customer inputs directly influences our decisions	7 (5)	40 (26)	52 (33)	44 (28)	8 (5)	3.0	1.0	3	0.5 (.619)	Accept
24	The interests of the final customer get ignored in our decisions	18 (12)	50 (32)	61 (39)	21 (14)	6 (4)	2.7	1.0	3	-4.3 (.000)	Reject
25	We view failure as an opportunity to learn and improve	7 (5)	23 (15)	45 (29)	60 (39)	20 (13)	3.4	1.0	4	4.9 (.000)	Reject
26	We encourage and reward those who take risk	17 (11)	31 (20)	36 (23)	49 (31)	20 (13)	3.2	1.2	3	1.6 (.112)	Accept
27	We make certain that we coordinate our actions and effort in different units	7 (5)	25 (16)	58 (37)	51 (33)	12 (8)	3.2	1.0	3	3.0 (.003)	Reject
28	There is a long terms purpose and direction	7 (5)	22 (14)	47 (30)	62 (40)	15 (10)	3.4	1.0	4	4.5 (.000)	Reject
29	There is a clear mission that gives meaning and direction to our work	7 (5)	21 (14)	40 (26)	63 (40)	22 (14)	3.5	1.0	4	5.6 (.000)	Reject
30	There is a clear strategy for the future	10 (6)	24 (15)	41 (26)	54 (35)	25 (16)	3.4	1.1	4	4.3 (.000)	Reject
31	There is a widespread agreement about our goals of the organisation	5 (3)	21 (14)	54 (35)	58 (37)	14 (9)	3.4	1.0	3	4.7 (.000)	Reject
32	Leaders of this organisation set goals that are ambitious but realistic	8 (5)	31 (20)	51 (33)	55 (35)	9 (6)	3.2	1.0	3	2.1 (.036)	Reject
33	The leadership clearly stated the objectives we are trying to meet	6 (4)	33 (21)	44 (28)	58 (37)	13 (8)	3.3	1.0	3	3.1 (.002)	Reject
34	We have a shared vision of what this organisation will be like in the future	16 (10)	24 (15)	57 (37)	44 (28)	12 (8)	3.1	1.1	3	0.9 (.373)	Accept
35	Leaders of our organisation have a long term orientation	9 (6)	29 (19)	61 (39)	41 (26)	13 (8)	3.1	1.0	3	1.6 (.112)	Accept
36	Our vision creates excitement and motivation for our employees	18 (12)	37 (24)	44 (28)	39 (25)	14 (9)	3.0	1.2	3	-0.4 (.676)	Accept

Table 3: Organisational performance mean scores

	C. Organisational Performance	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean	Std. dev	Median	T (p)	Reject/ Accept
		1	2	3	4	5					
1	The police members are sensitive to community needs.	12 (8)	24 (15)	34 (22)	53 (34)	33 (21)	3.5	1.2	4	4.7 (.000)	Reject
2	The police members are approachable, and polite when interacting with the community.	6 (4)	21 (14)	35 (22)	61 (39)	32 (21)	3.6	1.1	4	6.8 (.000)	Reject
3	Police respond promptly within 20 minutes to a call for service.	8 (6)	21 (14)	50 (32)	46 (30)	31 (20)	3.5	1.1	3	5.1 (.000)	Reject
4	The community is satisfied with the service provided by the police	11 (7)	36 (23)	61 (39)	34 (22)	14 (9)	3.0	1.0	3	0.3 (.760)	Accept
5	Police members demonstrate honesty and with integrity when interacting with community.	9 (6)	25 (16)	50 (32)	49 (31)	22 (14)	3.3	1.1	3	3.7 (.000)	Reject
6	Police reduce crime to the extent that satisfies the community.	12 (8)	33 (21)	53 (34)	45 (29)	13 (8)	3.1	1.1	3	1.1 (.295)	Accept
7	The community is feeling safe and secured all the times.	14 (9)	41 (26)	52 (33)	32 (21)	16 (10)	3.0	1.1	3	-0.4 (.720)	Accept
8	Police reduce the fear of brutality within the community.	11 (7)	27 (17)	58 (37)	37 (24)	23 (15)	3.2	1.1	3	2.4 (.016)	Reject
9	Police reduce fear and enhance security (feel safe at home and neighbourhood).	11 (7)	30 (19)	46 (30)	51 (33)	18 (12)	3.2	1.1	3	2.5 (.012)	Reject
10	Police are calling offenders to account to prevent and deter offenders from committing future crime.	6 (4)	23 (15)	48 (31)	62 (40)	17 (11)	3.4	1.0	4	4.9 (.000)	Reject
11	The police are reducing crime to the well-being and the safety of community.	8 (5)	23 (15)	48 (31)	56 (36)	20 (13)	3.4	1.1	3	4.4 (.000)	Reject
12	Police operate economically to control costs in a responsible manner.	13 (8)	26 (17)	59 (38)	43 (28)	14 (9)	3.1	1.1	3	1.4 (.154)	Accept
13	Police provide excellent service to the community above and beyond crime fighting.	10 (6)	29 (19)	45 (29)	49 (31)	22 (14)	3.3	1.1	3	3.2 (.002)	Reject
14	Police provide good service to community that increases legitimacy.	7 (5)	30 (19)	47 (30)	54 (35)	17 (11)	3.3	1.0	3	3.4 (.001)	Reject
15	The community is confident and have trust in the police.	15 (10)	37 (24)	51 (33)	38 (24)	12 (8)	3.0	1.1	3	-0.4 (.713)	Accept
16	Because of the service rendered by the police the community is safe, secure place to live, visit, work.	8 (5)	31 (20)	54 (35)	40 (26)	22 (14)	3.2	1.1	3	2.7 (.007)	Reject
17	The vulnerable people (children / elderly) are protected by the police.	10 (6)	24 (15)	35 (22)	55 (35)	31 (20)	3.5	1.2	4	5.0 (.000)	Reject

APPENDIX B

Questionnaire

My name is Linkie Slinga Masilela, I am conducting research on “A framework for enhancing Organisational Performance through linkages between Leadership style and Organisational Culture: the case of South African Police Service (SAPS)”

The estimated time to complete the questionnaire is about 15 - 20 minutes. Your participation in this study is strictly voluntary.

Section A: Demographic Information

The following personal information is necessary for statistical purposes to summarise the conclusion of the study in a proper manner and to reflect the opinions of respondents on different post levels of ages, and gender in the SAPS.

No	Questions	Please mark (X) only in one option	
1	Gender	Male	Female
2	Your age group	Under 25	25 - 34
		35 – 44	45 - 54
		55 - 60	60 and over
3	How many years in the Organisation	5 – 10	10 - 15
		15 - 20	20 - 25
		25 - 30	30 - 35
		35 and over	
4	Your position in the Organisation	W/Officers	Captain
		Lieutenant Colonel	Colonel

Section B: Leadership style

This section is designed to help you describe the leadership style of your manager / supervisor. Describe the leadership style as you perceive it.

Please answer all questions below by using an “X” from the rating scale that best reflects your perception.

Please answer these questionnaires anonymously.

0 Not at all	1 Once in a while	2 Sometimes	3 Fairly often	4 Always
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No	My manager / supervisor					
1	Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts	0	1	2	3	4
2	Re-examines critical assumptions to questions whether they are appropriate	0	1	2	3	4
3	Fails to interfere until problems become serious	0	1	2	3	4
4	Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	0	1	2	3	4
5	Avoids getting involved when important issues arise	0	1	2	3	4
6	Talks about his/her most important values and beliefs	0	1	2	3	4
7	Is absent when needed	0	1	2	3	4
8	Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems	0	1	2	3	4
9	Talks optimistically about the future	0	1	2	3	4
10	In stills pride in me for being associated with him/her	0	1	2	3	4
11	Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets	0	1	2	3	4
12	Waits for things to go wrong before taking action	0	1	2	3	4
13	Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	0	1	2	3	4
14	Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	0	1	2	3	4
15	Spends time teaching and coaching	0	1	2	3	4
16	Makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved	0	1	2	3	4
17	Shows that he/she is a firm believer in “If it ain’t broke, don’t fix it.”	0	1	2	3	4
18	Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group	0	1	2	3	4

No	My manager / supervisor					
19	Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group	0	1	2	3	4
20	Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action	0	1	2	3	4
21	Acts in ways that builds my respect	0	1	2	3	4
22	Concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures	0	1	2	3	4
23	Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions	0	1	2	3	4
24	Keeps track of all mistakes	0	1	2	3	4
25	Displays a sense of power and confidence	0	1	2	3	4
26	Articulates a compelling vision of the future	0	1	2	3	4
27	Directs my attention toward failures to meet standards	0	1	2	3	4
28	Avoids making decisions	0	1	2	3	4
29	Considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others	0	1	2	3	4
30	Gets me to look at problems from many different angles	0	1	2	3	4
31	Helps me to develop my strengths	0	1	2	3	4
32	Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	0	1	2	3	4
33	Delays responding to urgent questions	0	1	2	3	4
34	Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission	0	1	2	3	4
35	Expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations	0	1	2	3	4
36	Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved	0	1	2	3	4

Section C: Organisational Culture

This section of the questionnaire is to describe the organisational culture and organisational performance of the place you work at.

Please mark “X” in only one option: Please rate the extent to which you agree with each statement.

1 Strong Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
-------------------------	---------------	--------------	------------	---------------------

No	In my organisation: ...					
1	Decisions are usually made in a level where best information is available	1	2	3	4	5
2	Information is widely shared so that everyone can get it	1	2	3	4	5
3	Everyone believes that she / he can have a positive impact	1	2	3	4	5
4	Working is like being part of the team	1	2	3	4	5
5	We rely on the coordination to get the work done, rather than hierarchy	1	2	3	4	5
6	Teams are the building block of this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
7	We constantly improve compared to our competitors	1	2	3	4	5
8	We continue to invest in the skills of employees	1	2	3	4	5
9	The capability of people is viewed as an important source of competitive advantage	1	2	3	4	5
10	Leaders and managers follow the guideline that they have set for the organisation	1	2	3	4	5
11	There is a clear and a consistent set of values that governs the way we do things	1	2	3	4	5
12	Ethical codes guides our behaviour	1	2	3	4	5
13	When disagreements occurs, we work hard to achieve solutions that benefits both parties	1	2	3	4	5
14	It is easy to reach consensus, even on difficult issues	1	2	3	4	5
15	We often have trouble in reaching agreements on key issues	1	2	3	4	5
16	People from different organisational units still share a common perspective	1	2	3	4	5
17	It is easy to coordinates projects across functional units in this organisation	1	2	3	4	5

No	In my organisation: ...					
18	There is a good alignment of goals across levels of this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
19	We are very responsive	1	2	3	4	5
20	We respond well to other competitors and other changes	1	2	3	4	5
21	We continually adopt new and improved ways to do things	1	2	3	4	5
22	Customer comments and recommendations often leads to changes	1	2	3	4	5
23	Customer inputs directly influences our decisions	1	2	3	4	5
24	The interests of the final customer get ignored in our decisions	1	2	3	4	5
25	We view failure as an opportunity to learn and improve	1	2	3	4	5
26	We encourage and reward those who take risk	1	2	3	4	5
27	We make certain that we coordinate our actions and effort in different units	1	2	3	4	5
28	There is a long terms purpose and direction	1	2	3	4	5
29	There is a clear mission that gives meaning and direction to our work	1	2	3	4	5
30	There is a clear strategy for the future	1	2	3	4	5
31	There is a widespread agreement about our goals of the organisation	1	2	3	4	5
32	Leaders of this organisation set goals that are ambitious but realistic	1	2	3	4	5
33	The leadership clearly stated the objectives we are trying to meet	1	2	3	4	5
34	We have a shared vision of what this organisation will be like in the future	1	2	3	4	5
35	Leaders of our organisation have a long term orientation	1	2	3	4	5
36	Our vision creates excitement and motivation for our employees	1	2	3	4	5

Section D: Organisational Performance

This section is to measure organisational performance of the place you work at.

Please mark “X” in only one option; rate the extent to which you agree with each statement.

Note: 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree; 3= Neutral; 4= Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree

1	The police members are sensitive to community needs.	1	2	3	4	5
2	The police members are approachable, and polite when interacting with the community.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Police respond promptly within 20 minutes to a call for service.	1	2	3	4	5
4	The community is satisfied with the service provided by the police	1	2	3	4	5
5	Police members demonstrate honestly and with integrity when interacting with community.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Police reduce crime to the extent that satisfies the community.	1	2	3	4	5
7	The community is feeling safe and secured all the times.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Police reduce the fear of brutality within the community.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Police reduce fear and enhance security (feel safe at home and neighbourhood).	1	2	3	4	5
10	Police are calling offenders to account to prevent and deter offenders from committing future crime.	1	2	3	4	5
11	The police are reducing crime to the well-being and the safety of community.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Police operate economically to control costs in a responsible manner.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Police provide excellent service to the community above and beyond crime fighting.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Police provide good service to community that increases legitimacy.	1	2	3	4	5
15	The community is confident and have trust in the police.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Because of the service rendered by the police the community is safe, secure place to live, visit, work.	1	2	3	4	5
17	The vulnerable people (children / elderly) are protected by the police.	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for your participation.

APPENDIX C

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Cnr Janade and Alexandra Avenues, Midrand, 1685, Tel: +27 11 652 0000, Fax: +27 11 652 0299
E-mail: sbl@unisa.ac.za Website: www.unisa.ac.za/sbl

SCHOOL OF BUSINESS LEADERSHIP RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE (GSBL CRERC)

24 November 2016

Ref #: 2016_SBL_DBL_030_FA
Name of applicant: Ms L
Masilela
Student #: 71036873

Dear Ms Masilela

Decision: Ethics Approval

Student: Ms L Masilela, masilelasm@saps.gov.za, 012 407 2034

Supervisor: Prof NT Ngwenya, ngwennt@unisa.ac.za, 011 652 0366

Project Title: The relationship between leadership style, organisational culture and organisational performance: A case of South African Police services (SAPS)

Qualification: Doctorate in Business Leadership (DBL)

Thank you for applying for research ethics clearance, SBL Research Ethics Review Committee reviewed your application in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics.

**Outcome of the SBL Research Committee:
Approval is granted for the duration of the Project**

The application was reviewed in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics by the SBL Research Ethics Review Committee on the 09/11/2016.

The proposed research may now commence with the proviso that:

- 1) The researcher/s will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.
- 2) Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study, as well as changes in the methodology, should be communicated in writing to the SBL Research Ethics Review Committee.

45
years
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GRADUATE SCHOOL OF
BUSINESS LEADERSHIP
UNISA

- 3) An amended application could be requested if there are substantial changes from the existing proposal, especially if those changes affect any of the study-related risks for the research participants.
- 4) The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study.

Kind regards,



Prof R Ramphal

Chairperson: SBL Research Ethics Committee

011 - 652 0363 or ramphrr@unisa.ac.za



Dr R Mokate

CEO and Executive Director: Graduate School of Business Leadership

011- 652 0256/mokatrd@unisa.ac.za

APPENDIX D

G.P. S 002-C222

SAPS 21

SUID-AFRIKAANSE POLISIEDIENS



SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

Private Bag / Privaatsak X 57, BRAAMFONTEIN, 2017

Reference Verwysing	3/34/2(201503043)
Enquiries	Lt. Col. Peters
Nevras	SAC Linda Ladzani
Telephone Telefoon	(011) 274- 7529
Fax number Faksnommer	(011) 547- 9189

OFFICE OF THE
PROVINCIAL COMMISSIONER
SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE
GAUTENG

2015-11-26

- A. The Provincial Head: Legal Service
S A Police Service
GAUTENG
- B. The Deputy Provincial Commissioner: Human Resource Management
S A Police Service
GAUTENG


APPLICATION FOR RESEARCH: COL. S MASILELA: A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR LEADERSHIP STYLE AND ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE HARNESSING THE RELATION BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

- A: For recommendation.
- B: For approval.

1. Attached herewith is an application of Colonel S. Masilela to conduct research within the South African Police Service.
2. The application has been evaluated by the Provincial Research Office (Strategic Management) as per attached Annexure and found to be in compliance with National Instruction 1 of 2006: Research.
3. In the opinion of the Research Office, the research will assist the South African Police Service to raise awareness to the police leaders of the organisation that the organisational culture and the leadership style have linked to organisational performance; thus assisting in achieving effective leadership style in the organisation and the result will contribute to leaders to learn about the importance of organisational culture and the performance of the organisation.

APPLICATION FOR RESEARCH: COL S MASILELA: A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR LEADERSHIP STYLE AND ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE HARNESSING THE RELATION BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

4. In line with National Instruction 1 of 2006, you are afforded the opportunity to comment on the relevance and feasibility of the proposed research within your area of responsibility. Any objections against the research will be noted and you will be requested to clarify and motivate those with the Provincial Head: Organisational Development & Strategic Management.
5. In order to ensure the effective and efficient finalisation of this application you are requested to submit your comments to Strategic Management office within the allocated timeframe.
6. Your cooperation and assistance is appreciated.



PROVINCIAL HEAD: ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT & STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT: GAUTENG
SJ PHETO
Date: 2015/11/27

BRIGADIER

PROVINCIAL HEAD: ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT & STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT: GAUTENG

SJ PHETO

Date:

APPLICATION FOR RESEARCH: COL. S MASILELA: A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR LEADERSHIP STYLE AND ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE HARNESSING THE RELATION BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

A. RECOMMENDATION BY PROVINCIAL HEAD: LEGAL SERVICE
TIME ALLOCATED: 3 days

<i>COMMENTS WITH REGARDS TO ANY LEGAL OBJECTIONS AGAINST THE RESEARCH WITH ANY ADDITIONAL LIMITATIONS TO RESEARCHER:</i>			
APPLICATION RECOMMENDED:	YES	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	NO
SIGNATURE	DATE: 2015/12/04		



PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE SAPS

RESEARCH TOPIC: A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR LEADERSHIP STYLE AND ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE AND THE RELATIONSHIP HARNESSING THE ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

RESEARCHER: COL. S MASILELA

Permission is hereby granted to the researcher above to conduct research in the SAPS based on the conditions of National Instruction 1 of 2006 (as handed to the researcher) and within the limitations as set out below and in the approved research proposal.

This permission must be accompanied with the signed Indemnity, Undertaking & Declaration and presented to the commander present when the researcher is conducting research.

This permission is valid for a period of Twelve (12) months after signing.

Any enquiries with regard to this permission must be directed to Lt. Col. Peters or SAC Linda Ladzani at PetersNS@saps.gov.za / Ladzanim@saps.org.za.

RESEARCH LIMITATIONS / BOUNDARIES:

Research Instruments:	Questionnaires Semi-structured interviews
Target audience / subjects:	Police officials
Geographical target:	Pretoria Cluster / Division HRD / SAPS Academy Tshwane / SAPS Academy Hammanskraal and SAPS Academy Roodeplaas
Access to official documents:	No


DEPUTY PROVINCIAL COMMISSIONER: HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT: GAUTENG
DS DE LANGE

MAJOR GENERAL

DEPUTY PROVINCIAL COMMISSIONER: HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT: GAUTENG

DS DE LANGE

APPENDIX E



The Chairperson of SBL Ethics
SCHOOL OF BUSINESS LEADERSHIP
RESEARCH ETHICS SECTION

RESEARCH ETHICS: TRANSCRIBE QUALITATIVE INTERVIEWS: LINKIE S MASILELA

1. According to SBL Research Ethics Review Committee concerns dated 28 October 2016, number 16 and 17 i.e. Section 7.2.1 page 44 and Section 7.2.2 page 45 the concerns are the same. the requested

1.1 In terms of that, Mr Lucas Reneebotse Mogoane will transcribe qualitative interview for this study and he will sign a confidentiality agreement of which the copy will be send to you.

Principal researcher

L S MASILELA

Date:

2016-12-01

APPENDIX F

Graduate School of Business Leadership, University of South Africa PO Box 392 Unisa 0003 South Africa
Cnr Janadri & Alexandra Avenue Midrand 1685 Tel: +27 11 652 0000 Fax: +27 11 652 0299
Email: sbl@unisa.ac.za Website: www.sblunisa.ac.za



FIELD WORKERS CODE OF CONDUCT

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLE, ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE: A CASE OF SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE (SAPS)

Committed to the principle that the confidentiality of individual data obtained through questionnaires and interviews must be protected. This principle holds whether or not any specific guarantee of confidentiality was given at time of interview or self-response, or whether or not there are specific contractual obligations. When guarantees have been given or contractual obligations regarding confidentiality have been entered into, they may impose additional requirements which are to be adhered to strictly.

Procedures for Maintaining Confidentiality

1. All field workers shall sign this assurance of confidentiality and upholding ethical standards.
2. Field workers shall keep completely confidential the names of respondents, all information or opinions collected in the course of interviews, and any information about respondents learned incidentally during field work.
3. Field workers shall exercise reasonable caution to prevent access by others to questionnaire data in their possession.
4. Field worker, upon encountering a respondent or information pertaining to a respondent that s/he knows personally, shall immediately terminate the activity and contact the researcher for instructions.
5. Reasonable caution shall be exercised in limiting access to questionnaire data to only those persons who are working on the research and who have been instructed in the applicable confidentiality requirements.
6. Where questionnaire data have been determined to be particularly sensitive by the researcher or supervisor, such questionnaire data shall be kept in locked containers or in a locked room except when actually being used.
7. When records with identifiers are to be transmitted to another party, such as for keypunching or key taping, the other party shall be informed of these procedures and shall sign an Assurance of Confidentiality form.
8. Fieldworker shall be responsible for ensuring that all confidentiality and ethical standards are upheld and maintained.



9. Fieldworkers involved in handling questionnaire data during the research are instructed in these procedures throughout the period of questionnaire performance.
10. When there are specific ethical obligations regarding confidentiality or other, the researcher shall develop additional procedures to comply with these obligations and shall instruct field staff and any other persons who work on the research in these additional procedures.
11. At the end of the period, the researcher shall arrange for proper storage of questionnaire data including any particular contractual requirements for storage.
12. The researcher shall ensure that questionnaire practices adhere to the provisions of the law, confidentiality and ethical standards of universities and organisations.
13. The researcher and field researchers must ensure that procedures are established in each questionnaire to inform each respondent of the authority for the questionnaire, the purpose and use of the questionnaire, the voluntary nature of the questionnaire.

I hereby certify that I have carefully read and will cooperate fully with the above procedures. I will keep completely confidential all information arising from questionnaires concerning individual respondents to which I gain access.

I will not discuss, disclose, disseminate, or provide access to questionnaire data and identifiers except as authorised by the researcher or supervisor. I will comply with any additional university procedures established.

I will devote my best efforts to ensure that there is compliance with the required procedures. I give my personal pledge that I shall abide by this assurance of confidentiality.

L R Moyoane

Name and Surname

0530642-2

Identity/Staff Number

[Signature]

Signature

01 DEC 2016

Date

APPENDIX G

INTERVIEW GUIDE

No	Interview Questions
1	How would you describe yourself? How long have u been in the organisation?
2	That is your back ground with the organisation?
3	Describe the things you enjoy doing within the organisations? Is there anything that bothers you about the organisation?
4	Can you tell me the things you like most about your work? What are you're feeling about your work?
5	What do you see as your most important responsibilities?
6	Do you find some things different about your work? Can you tell me about them, please?
7	Do you communicate with your Commander with work related issues? Can you tell me what all was about? What was the reaction of your Commander?
8	Do you feel that you receive encouragement from your supervisor or colleagues?
9	How is the relationship? How well do you communicate with your supervisor / colleagues?
10	Do you feel safe to working in this organisation? If not can you tell me why?
11	How involved are you in planning or decision-making within your working space? Can you explain to me please?
12	How information is cascaded / distributed to you? Are you feeling satisfied about the communication flow till reaches you?
13	How much influence do you have within the environment you work in?
14	Could you tell me what positive / negative impacts your work has had on your life?
15	What major changes do you perceive about in the organisations pre-1994 and post-1994? How was the old system compared to current system in the organisation?
16	Do you feel u need additional training to do work? If so, in what areas?
17	Do you feel you have an opportunity to use fully your knowledge and skills in your working environment? If not, can you tell me why?
18	Do you feel confident about the future within the organisation?
19	What comments or questions do you have for me? Is there anything you would like me to explain to you?
20	What would you like to tell me that you've thought about during the interview?

APPENDIX H

Graduate School of Business Leadership, University of South Africa PO Box 392 Unisa 0003 South Africa
Cnr Smuts and First Avenue Midrand 1685 Tel: +27 11 652 0000 Fax: +27 11 652 0299
Email: sbl@unisa.ac.za Website: www.sblunisa.ac.za



Informed consent for participation in an

Academic research project

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLE, ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE: A CASE OF SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE (SAPS)

Dear Respondent

You are herewith invited to participate in an academic research study conducted by **Linkie Slinga Masilela** a student in the Doctorate in Business Leadership at UNISA's Graduate School of Business Leadership (SBL).

The purpose of the study is to investigate: **A framework for enhancing Organisational performance through linkages between Leadership style and Organisational Culture: the Case of South African Police Service (SAPS).**

All your answers will be treated as confidential, and you will not be identified in any of the research reports emanating from this research.

Your participation in this study is very important to us. You may however choose not to participate and you may also withdraw from the study at any time without any negative consequences.

Please answer the questions in the attached questionnaire as completely and honestly as possible. This should not take more than 15-20 minutes of your time.

The results of the study will be used for academic purposes only and may be published in an academic journal. We will provide you with a summary of our findings on request.

Please contact my supervisor, **Prof NT Ngwenya**: email address ngwennt@unisa.co.za if you have any questions or comments regarding the study. Please sign below to indicate your willingness to participate in the study.

Yours sincerely

Linkie Slinga Masilela

Iherewith give my consent to participate in the study. I have read the letter and understand my rights with regard to participating in the research.

Respondent's signature

Date

APPENDIX I

Joan Hette~~m~~a

250 Troye St

Muckleneuk

Pretoria 0002

Date: 29 June 2017

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to certify that I have duly edited a Doctorate of Business Leadership in the Graduate School of Business Leadership, UNISA by Linkie Slinga Masilela – *A framework for enhancing Organisational Performance through linkages between Leadership Style and Organisational Culture – the case of the South African Police Service (SAPS)*.

I have a BA majoring in Latin and English from the University of Pretoria, Honours in English Language and Literature from Unisa and Troisième Degré in French from the Alliance Francaise. Throughout my 37-year fulltime career and the twenty years since, I have been involved with the process of writing English, editing English or lecturing in the field of Media Studies, English for Journalism and Business English at various tertiary institutions (Tshwane University of Technology, Boston College, Damelin College, Rosebank College and College Campus) as well as editing documents and theses for students at universities throughout the country. I have also served as a judge for the annual competition of the Publications Forum of South Africa for the past eight years.

Yours sincerely,



J A Hettema

Joan Ann Hettema (née Thies) 072-126-5174/ 012-440-4753

jhettema@absamail.co.za