THE CONCEPTUALISATION, DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION OF A SOUTH AFRICAN ORGANISATIONAL LEADERSHIP SCALE

by

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The conceptualisation, development and validation of a South African organisational leadership scale.

I declare that the above thesis is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

I further declare that I submitted the thesis to originality checking software and that it falls within the accepted requirements for originality.

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ABSTRACT

This study conceptualised and developed a South African leadership scale by exploring the nature of organisational leadership. Emic organisational leadership behaviours were identified and defined, theoretically and practically, through a mixed-method study. A structured literature review of bibliographic databases of African leadership literature published from 1960 to 2019 explored how organisational leadership manifested itself in Africa. Categorisation for the structured review was tabulated through coding tables and answered several questions relating to leadership in Africa. Of the 515 reviewed articles, 133 were retained as part of this study.

An exploratory sequential design was chosen as the appropriate procedure for the study. First, qualitative exploration of organisational leadership behaviours was conducted by collecting participant data using Northcutt and McCoy's (2004) Interactive Qualitative Analysis (IQA) methodology. IQA participants induced meaning, and defined, refined, and investigated the relationship of influence between organisational leadership categories. The IQA participants discovered eight leadership affinities: Leadership Culture, Engaging Communication, Support, Delivering Strategy, Emotional Awareness of Leader, Team Dynamics, Vision, Leadership Style, and Characteristics. They were presented in a System Influence Diagram as a visual representation of organisational leadership.

A 32-item organisational leadership instrument and scale with good psychometric properties was developed and administered to a sample of 5305 public and private sector employees. Various statistical tests were performed during the quantitative phase to ensure appropriate scale development. Initial CFA tests (AVE and HTMT analysis) revealed that the OL scale is a one-construct model, suggesting difficulty in separating the nuances of organisational leadership in the South African context using this measuring instrument.

Several EFA tests were performed, and 21 items from the initial 32 were retained. A three-step invariance analysis (configural, metric & scalar) suggested that another two items be dropped off, leaving a one-factor 19-item scale. Various CFA tests (t-tests

and ANOVA) established convergent and discriminant validity using correlations and testing for common method bias. Quantitative hypotheses were verified during the statistical phase and exposed insights into organisational leadership.

The statistical results revealed the inability of respondents to distinguish meaningfully between the IQA affinities, which could stem from underlying beliefs about current organisational leadership practices. This study revealed a uniquely singular emic view of organisational leadership with nuances. Identifying a one-factor organisational leadership model implies that respondents perceived task and relationship leadership behaviours as one category. This study revealed a remarkably unique, emic perspective on leadership in South African organisations, overflowing with intricate nuances.

This research has the potential to modernise our understanding of organisational leadership in South Africa by shedding light on the subtle social and cultural dynamics that influence leadership practice. This improved understanding can enhance organisational leadership practices by allowing organisations to modify their leadership techniques, strategies, and development programmes. This research contributes empirically and practically to the South African field of organisational leadership. This includes developing and validating an emic measurement instrument that may prove useful in future organisational leadership research and as a practical aid for South African organisations seeking to assess and develop their leadership. Overall, this research's contributions are extensive and profound, with implications for academia and organisations.

KEY TERMS

Organisational leadership; structured literature review; Interactive Qualitative Analysis; mixed method study; exploratory sequential design; leadership scale; emic and etic leadership; empirical research; leadership behaviours; South African context.

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1. INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

The discipline of organisational leadership, with its numerous facets and vast potential impact, has always occupied a prominent position within the social sciences. As a subject of extensive research and rapid development, organisational leadership is a thrilling area of academic study, as it plays a crucial role in determining the future of organisations and, ultimately, societies. This study will investigate organisational leadership, generate new insights, and add to this field's vast body of knowledge. This study is positioned within the larger context of organisational leadership. It sheds new light on the profound complexities and nuances characterising organisational leadership by comprehensively analysing the problem statement, research objectives, methodology, and anticipated outcomes.

Organisational leadership is an exceedingly valued commodity and a continuous social process (Vilakati & Schurink, 2021). It is a relevant social science and a fascinating phenomenon which influences and accelerates individual and collective efforts to achieve common objectives (Yukl & Gardner, 2020). Leadership responsibility is a repetitive practise of growth and change, not just a position. Leadership promotes authenticity, and the practice of it over time elucidates values and fosters authentic relationships (Northouse, 2021).

According to Scholtz, Crous and Thomas (2015), effective leadership is the source of organisational success, creating results and influencing ordinary workers to perform at higher levels. Organisational leadership is essential to promote work engagement, effective team dynamics and success (Mahembe & Engelbrecht, 2013). It also inspires managers to be active, influential, and powerful. When it comes to leadership research, its objective is to identify and explain aspects of effective leadership accurately. More research is needed to determine how influential leaders use specific behaviours to improve organisational outcomes and minimise adverse side effects (Yukl & Gardner, 2020). The primary purpose of this study is to advance the current

leadership research through conceptualising and constructing an organisational leadership behaviour scale.

A behavioural leadership approach applies to nearly everything a leader does (Northouse, 2021). Various research studies have been conducted over the last century to identify leadership behaviours and examine the influence of the leader's behaviour on the performance of individuals, teams, and organisations. Many definitions have emerged to describe leadership and the specific components central to the nature of the phenomenon. Seminal concepts include leadership as a process that involves influencing others, occurs in groups or teams, and involves shared goals or a vision (Northouse, 2021). In other words, the organisational leader acts, and the subordinate responds (Yukl & Gardner, 2020). The large amount of leadership studies referred to above has unfortunately produced a plethora of different taxonomies and a lack of clearly understood results regarding the exact nature of organisational leadership.

The growing demand for effective organisational leadership in South Africa is consistently emphasised, driven by significant changes in economic conditions, global and macroeconomic factors. South African organisations thus rely heavily on leadership to develop and engage subordinates, activate high-performance environments, and achieve optimal effectiveness (Mbandlwa & Fagbadebo, 2020). Consequent to its importance, various international leadership scales have emerged over the last half-century, measuring the relationship between the leader and subordinates and the leader's influence on subordinates and the task. Still, the most significant challenge in leadership research remains the need for more understanding and agreement about which behaviour classifications are the most effective in organisations (Dartey-Baah, 2014).

As the discussion reveals, effective leadership behaviour is vital in creating thriving organisations (van Zyl, 2014). Additionally, a leader's behaviour critically impacts subordinates' behaviour (Bakker, Hetland, Olsen, & Espevik, 2022). Behaviours demonstrated by the leader are emulated over time by subordinates and are systematically entrenched into a nomological network of organisational leadership variables. In particular, behaviours contributing to positive organisational outcomes,

such as effectiveness, communication, trust, and commitment, can and will enhance the organisational effectiveness (Den Hartog & De Hoogh, 2009).

Most leadership scales and instruments are developed in established Western or European markets. However, when such instruments are employed in emerging markets such as South Africa, they often do not measure organisational leadership accurately enough, mainly due to contextual factors (Nemashakwe, Zinyemba, & Gumbe, 2023). Furthermore, African organisational leadership research studies are scant (Galperin & Alamuri, 2017). The use of international leadership instruments has thus caused several authors to admit that validity and reliability, at best, have been marginal, as their studies endeavoured to measure leadership in an African context (Nemashakwe, Zinyemba, & Gumbe, 2023). Few studies have attempted to develop a local understanding of leadership and those that have, indicated many limitations due to economic and practical constraints (Acquaah, et al., 2013; Galperin & Alamuri, 2017). Additionally, the current understanding of leadership in Africa is mainly based on Western leadership theory and their cultural foundations, yet Africa has very different cultures (Acquaah et al., 2013). Accordingly, there is an established need to develop more organisational leadership scales that measure dynamic and effective leadership behaviours within a South African context.

Some studies have attempted to integrate elements of different leadership scales based on findings from decades of leadership research. Still, many unanswered questions remain about integrated scales relevance and usefulness. For example, the consequences of disagreement about which leadership classifications are most relevant and meaningful make it problematic to compare and integrate leadership behaviour results. Leadership behaviours are also related to specific cultures and, therefore, cannot be measured universally across the globe (Nemashakwe, Zinyemba, & Gumbe, 2023). Considerable research is thus required to correctly identify and understand emic organisational leadership behaviours and how to measure them, especially in an emerging economy such as South Africa (du Preez & van Zyl, 2015).

Transformation is however taking place in South Africa in all sectors, and leadership capacity is of critical importance (Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020). Managers must build the competence to lead people, drive transformation, and manage performance

simultaneously. The complexity of organisational structures and the diversity of South African cultures therefore create an opportunity to conceptualise and develop a leadership behaviour model, scale and measuring instrument (Frantz, Lawack, & Rhoda, 2020).

This study will present a new leadership paradigm and reframes current thinking about organisational leadership to make it more suited to the needs and challenges of South African organisations in modern times. New leadership perspectives are needed, involving managers' participation in South African organisations on all levels. This will be achieved by developing an emic leadership framework and scale to combine South African organisational leadership theory and practice.

The paradoxical conclusion is that the vast number of leadership studies has led to a deficiency of an accurate understanding of what constitutes organisational leadership behaviours (Northouse, 2021). The paucity of existing emic leadership literature was directly related to the researcher's rationale for choosing a mixed-method study. This exploratory mixed-method study gathered qualitative and quantitative data and combined the data in tandem. It identified leadership behaviours relevant to a South African organisational context by conceptualising and developing an emic leadership behavioural scale. It also explored whether these leadership behaviours were similar or different from etic leadership behaviours as identified in seminal research.

1.2 Background and context

The section delves deeper into the complex structure of organisational leadership. Effective leadership behaviour provides guidance and vision for subordinates yet reviewing leadership research reveals an overabundance of measurement techniques and definitions (Engelbrecht, Wolmarans & Mahembe, 2017). Swales and Feak (2009) note that establishing of a research territory creates a context for the research. Such a research territory is created through the meaning of philosophy and methodology.

In cross-cultural environments, behavioural research studies must distinguish between culture-specific and general aspects of the behaviour (Den Hartog, House,

Hanges, & Ruiz-Quintanilla, 1999). Pike (1967) was the first to use the terms emic and etic as a parallel for phonetics (the general characteristics of vocal sounds and sound construction in languages) and phonemics (sounds used in a specific language). Berry (1969) applied Pike's classification in a cross-cultural psychology study by using the term "etic human behaviour" to understand universal human behaviour. Etic behaviours are extant across different cultures using standard definitions and metrics. However, emic behaviour, which is inherently hidden and unique, is specific to certain cultures. It is described as seen from the perspective of cultural insiders.

All leadership theories depend on their historical, cultural, and ideological context, and over more than 60 different taxonomies have been developed in the last century to define leadership dimensions (Yukl & Gardner, 2020). However, since the 1990s, many researchers have suggested developing more inclusive leadership theories by using emic and etic perspectives (Ayman & Korabik, 2010; Nkomo, 2011; Acquaah et al., 2013; du Preez & van Zyl 2015). Several etic-based leadership studies have sought to distinguish organisational leadership from management by focussing on the role of formal managers. Still, most studies indicated that organisational leaders deal with the entire range of managerial behaviours and activities (Northouse, 2021).

Leadership definitions arising from etic studies are broad, almost always optimistic and inclusive of various aspects of organisational life. Etic-based leadership definitions are also strongly pro-leadership and are inclined to infer more and enhanced leadership as the formula for organisational success. Most etic leadership definitions share little in common except for the word influence. Blom and Alvesson (2015) suggest that most organisational interactions and social relations include the word influence in one form or another and that the word influence, therefore, "does not say enough to describe leadership" (Blom & Alvesson, 2015, p. 271). A thorough review of the literature indicates that there is little consensus or agreement about the primary meaning of organisational leadership. Several authors suggest a broad etic leadership definition as 'having followers', but Saunders et al., (2019) points out that influencing followers does not define leadership comprehensively.

The most frequently used leadership scales and instruments are etic by design (Galperin & Alamuri, 2017); and subsequently, emic or culture-specific aspects remain

latent in these measurement tools (Blom & Alvesson, 2015). Most etic-based leadership research studies recognise the leader's role in creating change and the manager's role in maintaining stability. Yet, it is the same person that needs to accomplish both functions. Research suggests that organisational leadership covers many responsibilities that managers do, including managing operations, solving problems, handling conflicts, managing expenses and general administration (Yukl, 2013).

The general assumption is that leadership and management are ongoing and evolving functions in organisations and that a continuous etic and emic perspective will develop organisational managers into better leaders (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2016). Previous studies agree that the exclusive use of an etic approach is often unsuitable, especially when the emphasis on commonalities can lead to the omission of distinctive characteristics of a specific culture (Grobler & Singh, 2018). This problem can be addressed through the conceptualisation, development and validation of context-specific emic constructs and instruments from a South African perspective.

Etic and emic interpretations must be studied in context (Lu, 2012). An emic leadership perspective is a viewpoint that leadership resides within a single culture. As an emerging and developing country, South Africa has a unique organisational environment. It is one of the sturdiest African economies and a resilient competitor in global markets. South Africa is globally respected for its ethnicity, language, and cultural diversity. This emic perspective challenges etic leadership philosophies so as to conceptualise, identify and define leadership constructs from a South African context. A history of segregation still scars South Africa. Yet, organisational and political leaders keep encouraging South Africans to work together in unity towards a better future and not get stuck on past wrongdoings.

Like many developing countries, South Africa is continuously struggling to endure the intense pressures of unemployment and slow economic growth and change. On the other hand, globalisation and technological advancements exert pressure on South African organisations to utilise their skills, abilities, and knowledge and optimise their productivity to remain profitable and competitive. Scholars and practitioners therefore agree that effective leadership is urgently needed to meet the organisational needs

and challenges faced in the South African economy. Effective leadership facilitates successful organisational change (Groenewalt & Ashfield, 2008). Such effectiveness will be established by the subordinate's alignment with the leader's vision and by generating organisational results (Kotter, 2007).

Based on all-embracing factor analysis research by Yukl (2002), Yukl (2012) identified a seminal taxonomy of fifteen etic organisational leadership behaviours. Also, it reflected discoveries in other taxonomic research connecting specific behaviours to the performance of a team or organisation. This research study will identify and compare emic leadership behaviours to the fifteen etic behaviours that Yukl (2012) identified to determine if organisational leadership is the same or different from an emic and etic perspective. Discovering this cultural distinctiveness in leadership behaviours will create an idea of inclusiveness and will enlarge the cross-cultural leadership findings. This study will consider etic leadership theories to strengthen the efficacy of this cross-cultural emic leadership research study. Therefore, both the emic and etic perspectives will be considered and evaluated simultaneously.

In summary, both etic and emic perspectives are relevant and meaningful. Both views demonstrate the interactive leader-follower relationship (Wang, 2015). South Africa is considered a significant emerging market. Therefore, by conceptualising, identifying, and understanding specific emic leadership behaviours, this study will provide a measure of organisational leadership behaviours in a South African context. Emic organisational leadership behaviours will be conceptualised and defined systematically from a theoretical and practical perspective through a mixed-method approach.

1.3 Problem statement

The research problem should be a clear statement indicating the objective of the study (Creswell J. W., 2015). Much empirical research has attempted to identify specific behaviours that enhance personal leadership and organisational performance (Yukl, Gordon, & Taber, 2002). Scholars concur that the most effective way to measure leadership behaviours is by using field studies with behaviour description

questionnaires, examining the correlation between leadership and several indicators of leadership effectiveness (Yukl & Gardner, 2020). Nevertheless, an examination of the existing literature suggests a need for more agreement about which leadership classifications are the most relevant and meaningful (Yukl & Gardner, 2020).

In South Africa, the need for an innovative leadership perspective arises as a response to the problem of fostering inclusiveness and connectivity between workers and leaders in the workplace. Effective leadership behaviours are required to address this challenge and create an engaging work environment. This study suggests the need for more creative thinking about leadership to bring theory and practice together. There is thus a need to explore the concept of organisational leadership in a South African context.

It remains complex and challenging to compare and integrate findings from decades of research due to the incongruity surrounding which leadership behaviour categories are more pertinent and meaningful for leadership development (Fourie, van der Merwe & van der Merwe, 2017). Organisational leadership is regarded as complex, multi-dimensional and is seen as a function of the organisation (Grobler & Singh, 2018). A significant proportion of leadership behaviour research originates from Western cultures. As a result, the majority of leadership models are tailored to established markets. Few studies have attempted to understand and define leadership behaviours in a country with such cultural diversity and historical segregation as South Africa.

Literature suggests that more African leadership research contributions are needed (Vilakati & Schurink, 2021). Various authors have attempted to identify leadership behaviours in a South African context (Fourie, et al., 2017). Still, most studies have yet to successfully distinguish between Western and South African leadership theories, scales, and instruments (Nkomo, 2011; Nemashakwe et al., 2023). Empirical research reveals that etic leadership instruments often do not measure what the study anticipated (Hayward, Amos, & Baxter, 2008). This study therefore argues the need for a new leadership perspective and paradigm more suited to the challenges faced by twenty-first-century organisations in South Africa. There is a need to recognise, conceptualise, or identify organisational leadership behaviours in a South African context (Grobler & Singh, 2018).

The problem that this study seeks to address lies in the knowledge gap regarding the uniqueness of organisational leadership behaviours in the South African context. Specifically, there is a need to define the characteristics of emic leadership behaviours that are distinctive of South Africa and how these behaviours differ from those observed elsewhere. In addition, this study seeks to determine which aspects of leadership behaviour can be quantified effectively to predict positive organisational leadership behaviour.

Through Interactive Qualitative Analysis, organisational leadership behaviours will be conceptualised by asking participants what they describe as effective leadership. Interactive Qualitative Analysis (IQA) is a study methodology that "attempts to deliver a systemic, rigorous, and accountable structure for qualitative inquiry into phenomena" such as organisational leadership behaviours (Northcutt & McCoy, 2004. p40). The IQA approach allows participants to describe the elements of organisational leadership behaviours, identify leadership constructs and explain the relationships of the leader-follower social system within a South African context. Through IQA, this study has determined the "patterns of influence among the elements" (Northcutt & McCoy, 2004: p41) and produced a visual representation of the leadership behaviour phenomenon ((Northcutt & McCoy, 2004).

A challenge exists due to South Africa's limited comprehension of the distinctive or emic leadership behaviours required to improve the country's socioeconomic situation. This study has investigated the conceptualisation of a leadership framework using the IQA methodology and the identification of emic organisational leadership behaviours to understand better how leadership influences organisations and how emic leadership behaviours differ from etic leadership behaviour. This has required a new leadership paradigm to reframe current thinking about organisational leadership.

In summary, the conceptualisation of emic leadership behaviours in South Africa, enabling the development of a uniquely South African leadership behavioural instrument and scale, would contribute to leadership development.

1.4 Research questions

Leaders influence subordinates to achieve what they cannot do without the presence and guidance of the leader (Gibson, Ivancevich, Donnely & Konopaske, 2012). Research questions limit the purpose statement to questions or statements that can be addressed explicitly in a research study. It is helpful to have three types of questions during a mixed-method study: qualitative questions, quantitative questions, and mixed-methods research questions (Creswell, 2015).

The research questions of this study were formulated as follows: What are the defining factors of organisational leadership behaviour within the context of South Africa, and in what ways do these emic (indigenous to South Africa) leadership behaviours contrast with etic (universal or cross-cultural) leadership behaviours? Additionally, what specific elements of leadership behaviour can be accurately measured to predict the emergence of effective organisational leadership practices?

This study's primary qualitative research question sought to understand organisational leadership behaviour and how to measure this behaviour amongst managers on all levels so that managers with high leadership potential could successfully be identified and developed within organisations.

Secondary qualitative research questions included:
- What are the elements of emic leadership behaviours in the South African organisational system?
- What are the relationships between those behavioural elements?
- Do emic and etic organisational leadership behaviours differ?
- Are some specific organisational leadership behaviours more effective than others?
- Do the qualitative study findings confirm existing organisational leadership models and frameworks?

Quantitative hypotheses are forecasts of outcomes based on literature or theories. It is possible to state them in a null form or a directional form. Hypotheses are a formal way of writing questions, and they are typically found in the experimental research

components of a mixed-methods study (Creswell, 2015). Moreover, a hypothesis is a statement that proposes a possible explanation for the question. Thus, a helpful hypothesis must be a testable statement. Grounded on the research question, the subsequent quantitative hypotheses were tested in the later part of the research:

Hypothesis 1: Leadership behaviours do not vary between public and private organisations.

Hypothesis 2: Participants are expected to assign above-average ratings to their leaders' behaviours.

Hypothesis 3: Male and female leaders do not exhibit different leadership behaviours.

Hypothesis 4: Perceptions of leadership behaviours do not differ between employees in core business functions and those in support roles within organisations.

Hypothesis 5: Leadership behaviours perceived by managers and non-management staff do not differ significantly.

Hypothesis 6: Perceptions of leadership behaviours do not vary among employees based on their tenure within the organisation.

Research knowledge was sought by creating a design which combined quantitative and qualitative research results. The study also determined the extent to which the qualitative findings could be generalised to a specified population. This led to the final and central mixed-method question which drove the purpose of this pragmatic study: What results would emerge by comparing the exploratory qualitative data with the quantitative instrument data, measured as a leadership instrument?

1.5 Purpose and objective of the study

As a clear outline, this study explored organisational leadership within a South African context. Organisational leadership is an essential function of the organisation, and to be effective, leaders should perform many roles. These roles are a series of expected behaviours ascribed to them by virtue of their leadership or management position and are systematically entrenched in a nomological network of hidden variables. Organisational managers are responsible for planning, organising, recruitment,

directing, and controlling, and their leadership role provides the team or organisation with a clear vision and mission (Nahavandi, 2015).

The objectives of this research study were to:

- To explore the concept of emic organisational leadership.
- Conceptualise organisational leadership in a South African context.
- Construct an emic organisational leadership framework.
- Develop a reliable emic leadership scale and instrument using a mixed-method exploratory design.
- Test the uniqueness, reliability, and validity of the scale.
- Compare and identify emic and etic leadership behaviours.

This study explored the concept of organisational leadership and developed a South African leadership behavioural framework. It also addressed the need for a South African leadership scale by identifying the leadership behaviour variables through the Interactive Qualitative Analysis method. This study's unique contribution was its approach and the outcome of a valid and reliable scale relevant to leadership behaviours in a South African organisational context.

The study suggests the need to conceptualise and construct an emic leadership behavioural framework relevant to managers on all levels in South African organisations that can predict constructive organisational leadership behaviours. This was achieved by identifying the relevant variables and developing an organisational leadership behaviour scale. The first part of the study involved qualitatively exploring organisational leadership behaviours by collecting data from participants in a focus group using the Interactive Qualitative Analysis methodology. The qualitative data collection enabled the development of an appropriate leadership framework and instrument.

The second, quantitative aspect followed the qualitative phase to develop and test a valid and reliable leadership behaviour scale. The quantitative research questions were formulated after completing the initial qualitative phase, and a questionnaire was developed. Specific guidelines are needed for developing a scale. These include

determining what to measure; generating an item pool; deciding on a format for measurement; reviewing the initial pool by experts; considering inclusion and validation of items; administering items to a development sample; evaluating the items and optimising the scale strength (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2018).

Instrument data was collected from various participants in public and private organisations. The meticulous design of individual questions, along with the layout of the questionnaire, clear explanation of its purpose, careful planning and execution of its administration, maximised response rates, validity, and reliability. (Creswell, 2015).

In summary, this research study aimed to achieve several objectives. First, it sought to explore the concept of emic organisational leadership. Additionally, the study aimed to conceptualise organisational leadership within this emic context. To further contribute to the field, an organisational leadership framework was constructed. Furthermore, a reliable emic leadership scale and instrument were developed using a mixed-method exploratory design. The scale was then tested to determine its uniqueness, reliability, and validity. Lastly, the study aimed to compare and identify both emic and etic leadership behaviours, shedding light on their similarities and differences.

1.6 Theoretical framework

A research paradigm can be described as a set of mutually shared views and agreements between researchers about how problems should be comprehended and addressed (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019). It is a valuable concept for outlining the thinking about the subject, in this case, leadership, and it delivers a mental framework or lens through which one can examine concepts and design an appropriate study. Research is founded on rudimentary philosophical assumptions about what constitutes valid research and which method(s) is/are suitable for developing knowledge in the specified study. To conduct and evaluate the research, it is also essential to know the assumptions influencing the research method.

Qualitative and quantitative worlds coexist in a mixed-method methodology as the study tries to comprehend the underlying philosophy that notifies both data collection

methods. Mixed-methods researchers are concerned with what philosophical principles provide a foundation for the method of study (Creswell J. W., 2015). In a mixed-method study, the researcher often follows a pragmatism worldview and does not adopt a singular worldview position (Creswell, 2014). One position (positivist, realist or interpretive) may be more suitable than the other for answering specific questions. Accordingly, this research study followed a pragmatic worldview.

Tashakkori and Teddlie (2009) observed that it is more suitable for the researcher to consider a research philosophy indicated on a continuum instead of choosing opposite positions. They pointed out that "at some points, the knower and the known must be interactive, while at others, one may more easily stand apart from what one is studying" (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2009). Pragmatism is instinctively appealing as it prevents researchers from arguing about truth and reality. Pragmatic researchers use what is of interest and value to the study, implementing various ways to collect data they deem suitable and then using the findings to bring about positive changes within the organisational system (Creswell J. W., 2015).

A pragmatism viewpoint acknowledges concepts as relevant only if they support action and acknowledge several ways of deducing the world. Pragmatists maintain a multidimensional perspective; they assert that a single philosophy cannot summarise a comprehensive viewpoint, acknowledging the potential existence of multiple realities.

Positivism and interpretivism are equally restricted paradigms regarding the nature and sources of knowledge. But many research topics fall within one of these two main paradigms. Pragmatism proposes that the most critical cause of the epistemology, ontology, and axiology one can adopt is the research question and that one paradigm may be more suitable than the other for answering questions (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019). The pragmatist view suggests that the research question is the most critical determinant of the research philosophy.

Pragmatics can unite both positivist and interpretivism stances within the scope of a single research study based on a research question. The research question in this study suggests that neither a positivist nor interpretive philosophy should be adopted

but confirms the pragmatist's stance that it is possible to work with variants in the epistemology, ontology, and axiology of organisational leadership. Importantly for this study, research with a pragmatism paradigm was able to incorporate qualitative and quantitative research methods.

According to Bryman (2012), a research procedure comprises ontology, epistemology, and methodology dimensions. Bryman (2012) proposes that a research paradigm is an all-inclusive system of interrelated concepts that describe the nature of enquiry along these three dimensions. In the context of leadership, although it has been studied for centuries, no universally agreed definition exists (Yukl, 2013). In organisations, leadership is developed through values, culture, and beliefs. A pragmatism worldview permits a researcher to examine leadership as a social construct and phenomenon. This leadership worldview should not have a fixed identity as it remains a constant state of construction, deconstruction, clarification, and reconstruction.

The lack of an agreed organisational leadership definition creates opportunities for revisioning it within a particular set of conditions and influences. Therefore, this study did not attempt to align with one generic leadership approach or definition but used this freedom to explore leadership within specific emic cultural and organisational circumstances. Leadership theories and frameworks have developed through a timeline over the last century and have been categorised into several paradigms. These include classical, trait, transformational, spiritual, servant and adaptive theories of leadership, each highlighting their unique features, concepts, and ontologies (Northouse, 2021).

The different paradigms aid researchers in understanding the variety of leadership approaches which can be used concurrently in the same organisation and individuals, contingent on context and condition. It is, therefore, more appropriate to view leadership behaviours as a spectrum instead of a continuum, much like a chameleon with the ability to adapt and blend colours to fit the environment and context.

Leadership paradigms are developed from studying the phenomena in social, historical, cultural, political, and organisational contexts (Northouse, 2021). Consequently, leadership paradigms vary in approach and focus depending on where

leadership is situated, the person, the position, or the process. When studying personhood leadership, the traits, characteristics and competencies of the leader and the leader/follower relationship remain fundamental. In positional leadership, power, authority, role, and hierarchy are essential features with a strong emphasis on the role of the leader within the organisational systems. When leadership is viewed as a process, communication exchange and healthy relationships are the principal focus of attention. The interchange of concepts relating to the person, position and process in organisational leadership theories is not limited. Still, the importance of each provides theories with an identity which can be broadly positioned within current paradigms of organisational leadership.

This study proposed a new emic leadership paradigm to reframe the current view of organisational leadership. This was because a fresh leadership perspective was needed, which involved a contribution from managers on all levels in South African organisations. Consequently, an organisational leadership framework and scale were developed to bring together South African leadership theory and practice to release more creative thinking about leadership and new ways of working.

1.7 Research design and methodology

This section of the chapter will explore the research design and methodology used in the study and expand on the approaches, instruments, data collection and analysis methods used. This section will also explain the stages and processes involved during the study. This study combined quantitative and qualitative techniques and strategies through a mixed-methods approach. Both quantitative and qualitative methods are widely used in business research, and it is therefore necessary to distinguish between both data collection techniques and data analysis procedures.

The research design is the outline for fulfilling the study's objectives (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019). This study combined a deductive and inductive approach. The primary differentiation between these two approaches is that deductive approaches test theory, while inductive approaches focus on generating new theories emerging

from data. Furthermore, an exploratory study was followed which ensured a respected method of discovering what was happening, asking questions to individuals involved and assessing the phenomena in a novel way. This was predominantly useful as the researcher desired to explain the understanding of a problem (Saunders, et al., 2019). A mixed-methods study is both a methodology and a method for directing research (Creswell J. W., 2015). It is a popular research approach in the social sciences. Researchers collect, analyse, and integrate qualitative and quantitative data in a single study to address the research questions. Combining qualitative and quantitative research provides a superior understanding of a research problem than either approach alone. This study therefore followed an exploratory sequential design approach.

The intent of an exploratory sequential design is first to investigate a problem with qualitative methods because the questions may not be known. After this initial exploration, the researcher will use the qualitative findings to build a second quantitative phase. This phase will include designing a robust instrument to measure variables in the study. In this phase, the quantitative instrument will be used in a quantitative data collection and analysis procedure (Creswell, 2015).

Therefore. this study collected quantitative and qualitative data and mixed them one after the other. Mixed methods studies are both a method and methodology for conducting research. This involves collecting, analysing, and incorporating qualitative and quantitative research into a single study. The benefit of this methodology is that both qualitative and quantitative research, in combination, provide a better understanding of a problem than either research approach alone (Creswell, 2015).

Tashakkori and Teddlie (2009) state that quantitative and qualitative methodologies do not exist in isolation, and that research methods will either employ a single data collection technique and corresponding analysis procedures (mono-method). Alternatively, more than one data collection technique and analysis procedure may be used to answer the research question, also known as the multiple methods procedure. This study used a multivariate method by combining a qualitative data collection technique (Interactive Qualitative Analysis) with a quantitative data analysis procedure.

Each collection method (quantitative and qualitative) has strengths and weaknesses (Creswell, 2014). There is furthermore a clear relationship between how the chosen data collection technique, and the study's processes and procedures will affect the results. It is difficult to ascertain the nature of that effect, as all different methods and techniques will have different effects (Saunders, et al., 2019). This study limited the 'method effect' by choosing an exploratory mixed-method design and combining qualitative and quantitative techniques, leading to greater confidence in the conclusions.

1.7.1 Qualitative research phase

Interactive qualitative analysis is a systematic and qualitative process. For the current research, it produced a model which identified organisational leadership behaviours at a broad conceptual level in a South African context. Interactive Qualitative Analysis (IQA) delivers a systematic, thorough and answerable framework for qualitative analysis. IQA is an appropriate design when researchers want to examine how a phenomenon is socially constructed. Additionally, it is an appropriate choice when the researcher wants to develop a theory that demonstrates a systemic understanding of the phenomenon (Northcutt & McCoy, 2004). IQA is different from more traditional forms of qualitative research as it directly challenges the idea that the researcher is the expert who must interpret the participants' data. In an Interactive Qualitative Analysis approach, the participants are entrusted with their data's theoretical analysis and interpretation. Its most notable advantage is that problems of trustworthiness, dependability and confirmability are almost eliminated because the researcher does not interpret the data.

Participants (in this case, organisational managers from the public and private sectors) were selected as representatives of the population, meaning that they were considered the authority on the phenomenon under study (leadership) by virtue of their membership in a particular group. The Interactive Qualitative Analysis design further presumes that the observer and the observed are dependent and therefore challenges the accepted practice in a qualitative inquiry of separating data collection and analysis

and assuming that only the researcher is qualified to interpret the data (Northcutt & McCoy, 2004). Accordingly, participants generated, theorised and analysed the data.

An IQA research design supports a socially constructed ontology and recognises that social constructions are infused with social meaning. The central construct in this study is emic leadership behaviours in an organisational context, which is considered to be organisational social norms. Therefore, the focus group format of Interactive Qualitative Analysis for this study allowed the chance to study the processes by which leaders come to describe and explain the leadership phenomenon and uncover the latent leadership variables. Northcutt and McCoy (2004) further rationalise that during Interactive Qualitative Analysis, "the researcher attempts to uncover the workings and relationships of social systems with analytical assistance of the research participants," and this is done as it "facilitates group processes and focus groups to create representations and therefore offering a chance to create a quilt of meaning" (Northcutt & McCoy, 2004, p. 43).

The epistemological base of Interactive Qualitative Analysis recognises that people know their world through the social construction of meaning. Furthermore, deduction and induction are considered necessary for understanding meaning according to Northcutt (and McCoy (2004), and therefore, participants will be asked to induce meaning. For this purpose, participants had to define, refine, and investigate the influence relationship between leadership categories. Northcutt and McCoy (2004) further state that "IQA contends that decontextualised description is useful and possible as long as they are backed up or grounded, and therefore make a distinction between research and story-telling" (Northcutt & McCoy, 2004, p. 45).

IQA aligns well with theory through the usage of mind maps. When the group creates a mind map, it is a theory, albeit an endogenic theory, that contains a specific set of relationships from which hypotheses can be deduced (Northcutt & McCoy, 2004). A significant strength of the Interactive Qualitative Analysis design is that it creates opportunities for participants to analyse the data collected during the research. Through this transparent process, Interactive Qualitative Analysis was used to map the participants' leadership knowledge and experience with rigour to produce powerful descriptions of the phenomenon.

Fundamentally, IQA is a phenomenological method, which was used for this study through focus groups to construct affinity diagrams describing the leadership phenomenon. It involved both open and axial coding which led to interview protocols guiding the individual interviews. IQA is more focused on rigour than contextual design, is far less modest in its claims, and is far less observational. In summary, IQA was an attractive, unique, and valuable method for the qualitative analysis conducted with the participants.

1.7.2 Quantitative research phase

Measurement is an essential component of science. Researchers collect information about people, matters, incidents, and processes by observing them and making sense of those observations. The methodology used during this part of the study included the development of a leadership scale, sampling, data collection and data analysis. Various researchers recognise that if they adopt haphazard measurement approaches, they risk yielding inaccurate data (Pallant, 2016; Hair, et al., 2019; Creswell, 2015). For this reason, this study developed an emic leadership behaviour scale instead of relying on existing instruments of questionable suitability.

Scales are measurement instruments consisting of groups of items combined into a compounded score. It is intended to reveal levels of theoretical variables not readily observable by direct means (DeVellis, Scale Development, 2003). Researchers develop scales when they want to measure a phenomenon they believe exists because of the theoretical understanding of the world but which cannot be assessed directly. By determining the relationships between measures, we indirectly infer to the relationships between the constructs.

Once the scale was developed, a survey strategy was employed to complete the quantitative part of this study. Sampling is described as selecting components from a population to characterise the population (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). Non-probability sampling was chosen as the preferred method for this study. Judgemental sampling permits the researcher to practise judgement to choose cases that best allow the researcher to answer the research questions and meet the objectives (Saunders, et

al., 2019). Following the correct sampling procedures for the survey, quantitative data were gathered and analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The collected data were examined, and the results proposed explanations for specific connotations between the variables.

The target population to test the behavioural leadership scale consisted of organisational managers across various sectors in the South African economy, both private companies and public sectors. The researcher identified several corporate companies and public sector departments which participated in the research study. Participants were selected because of their managerial positions and were regarded as having the authority to reflect on leadership behaviours. The data needed for this study were collected using a self-administered questionnaire distributed via a structured University program. All responses were treated anonymously. To build a 95% confidence level, this study required a minimum of (n) 384 in the sample size. The estimated population was 10 000, with an expected response (p) distribution rate of 50%.

The final quantitative step examined how this leadership scale differed from etic leadership scales by comparing the efficacy and accuracy of the instruments. During this step, the relationship between organisational leadership behaviours and aspects of organisational behaviour were investigated. Literature suggests that various drivers improve organisational behaviour, including leadership's presence and influence.

Descriptive statistics were used to investigate whether the data were normally distributed. Various statistical tests were applied, including exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to reduce the structure of the leadership framework concerning scale items. Cross-validation tests were also performed to ensure congruence. The instrument was tested across sectors and at different levels in organisations. Furthermore, samples were divided between public and private sectors to test the equivalence or inequivalence of the data (does the structure looks the same for private and public organisations). Discriminant validity tests were performed to test the unique contribution of each of the factors of the leadership scale in terms of other social factors. Multiple regression analysis was performed in SPSS to identify the unique contributions of each of these variables regarding other

variables. Finally, convergent validity tests were performed to determine whether a positive relationship existed between the factors constituting the leadership scale and aspects of organisational behaviour.

1.8 Significance of the study

The significance of this study stems from its endeavour to conceptualise, develop, and empirically validate a new leadership measure firmly anchored in an emic leadership perspective. This research aimed to develop a measure of organisational leadership tailored to South African organisations' specific needs and challenges in the twenty-first century. This research attempted to identify and define the current understanding of organisational leadership in South Africa and to move away from generic leadership principles in favour of a more contextual approach.

This study clarified what constitutes effective organisational leadership behaviour in South Africa. By contrasting emic with etic, or universal leadership behaviours, it will understand how local norms and values influence effective leadership. This fresh viewpoint will examine the unique leadership practices that form the South African organisational landscape.

It is anticipated that the findings of this study will significantly advance our understanding of emic-based organisational leadership. By grounding leadership theory in the lived experiences and knowledge of South African managers and leaders at all public and private organisational levels, this study aims to develop a new model of leadership that is both relevant and effective for South African organisations. In a business environment that is becoming increasingly complex and globalised, this emic model can considerably improve organisational effectiveness. This insight will assist South African organisations in promoting a leadership culture that resonates with their cultural and contextual environment, promoting enhanced performance.

This insight will enable organisations to comprehend and appreciate the unique cultural, social, and historical influences shaping contemporary leadership styles and behaviours in South Africa. It elevates the leadership discussion from generic and

universally applicable leadership practises to a more context-aware and culture-specific understanding. This is essential in a business environment that is becoming increasingly globalised and where effective leadership requires an understanding of the cultural nuances that impact organisational operations and success. Moreover, the valuable insights resulting from this emic perspective will significantly contribute to leadership development programmes, which are likely to result in more successful organisations, thereby boosting productivity.

In conclusion, the purpose of this study is to make a substantial contribution to South African leadership theory. It seeks to shift the paradigm towards a more context-sensitive understanding of leadership that aligns with South African organisations' particular requirements and challenges.

1.9 Chapter outline

The thesis contains seven chapters. Every chapter contains separate but interconnected subsections.

Chapter 1 has introduced the reader to the research theme and profiled the scope of the thesis.

Chapter 2 introduces a review of the leadership literature used in the study.

Chapter 3 delineates the examination of bibliographic databases containing African leadership literature. The results from this review are systematically analysed and evaluated.

Chapter 4 describes the research design and its phases.

Chapter 5 introduces the qualitative and quantitative research findings, indicating whether the research results are supported or rejected.

Chapter 6 presents the deductions from the analysis and explains how the research results align with the research objectives. This chapter highlights the researcher's qualitative and quantitative conclusions. The chapter also explores whether the findings support existing literature or present a new perspective regarding emic organisational leadership.

Chapter 7 is the concluding chapter and summarises the research objectives and findings. This chapter focuses on drawing conclusions from the preceding chapters

and presents recommendations for future research studies on emic organisational leadership.

1.10 Limitations of the study

Several potential limitations could arise in the study. First, the sample used to develop and validate the scale may limit the study's findings. The scale may not accurately represent all South African businesses if the sample is insufficiently diverse in terms of industry, experience, or organisation size. Moreover, given South Africa's rich cultural diversity, the scale may not capture the subtle nuances of leadership across various ethnic and cultural groups, thereby limiting its applicability.

Another potential limitation is cross-cultural validity. Although the scale may be validated in South Africa, its applicability or validity in other cultural or national contexts may be limited, limiting its utility for comparative leadership research.

In addition, it is important to recognise that leadership practises and perceptions change over time because of technological advancements, economic shifts, and societal shifts. Therefore, the scale may lose its relevance and validity if it is not regularly updated and validated.

Also, subjectivity in responses cannot be ignored. As with any scale that relies on self-reporting or observer-reporting, subjectivity and bias can impact the accuracy and reliability of the scale. In addition, the study's definition of organisational leadership may not incorporate all its dimensions or may be contested by other researchers. This could restrict the scale's acceptability and applicability.

Lastly, there is a potential risk of response bias, wherein participants may provide socially preferable responses instead of their true views or behaviours. Despite these limitations, they present opportunities for future research and development.

1.11 Conclusion

This chapter introduced the reader to the vast leadership landscape and provided an overview of the research's context, research question, and overall purpose. This chapter also discussed implementing a mixed-methods strategy as a suitable research instrument, a choice that reflects the complexity of the research problem. This chapter has identified existing knowledge gaps that this study seeks to resolve by thoroughly examining the introductory literature. This chapter also discussed the significance and rationale for this research in the context of South African organisational leadership.

This chapter established the basis for the research investigation. The findings and conclusions of this chapter are crucial for the design and management of the research processes. Choosing a mixed-methods strategy demonstrated a dedication to thoroughly examining the research question, while a review of seminal studies revealed gaps that this study sought to address. This chapter concludes by laying a solid foundation for this research study. This subsequent chapter's objective is to deepen the reader's comprehension of the research question through a comprehensive review of the bibliography, which will guide the reader to the next stage of the research.

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2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Undertaking a literature review is an integral part of any research project. Through this, the researcher charts the relevant intellectual landscape to postulate a research question that will further enhance the field of knowledge (Bryman, 2012). A literature review is a synopsis of the information on a topic over a specified period and builds the foundation of a study (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2016). A suitable review examines the emerging trends instead of summarising what has been written on the subject. A thorough review is achieved by identifying all the relevant literature through structured searches of textbooks, journals and previous research studies, making the identified literature transparent and reproducible (Creswell J. W., 2015).

The chapter one introduction and the perspectives of studies referenced in this chapter agree that there is a need to understand leadership in an African context. More specifically, the reviewed literature suggests a deeper understanding of what constitutes effective leadership behaviours. The goal of this study is to conceptualise organisational leadership behaviours by developing a leadership framework and develop a measurement instrument that is valid and relevant to the South African organisational leadership context. In this review, several leadership theories will be identified for the ultimate development of this new instrument.

Chapter two will address the following properties concerning organisational leadership:

- A review of the most influential leadership theories and the implication of each will be highlighted and discussed.
- A summary of each leadership theory, emphasising each theory's definitions and importance.
- Conceptual leadership models will be explained, and seminal leadership behavioural theories will be discussed.
- Emic and etic perspectives of leadership will be discussed and highlighted.

2.2 Defining leadership

Researching leadership must be viewed in a particular context (Grobler & Singh, 2018). An analysis of current leadership research highlights the wealth of literature on the topic. And these research articles on leadership highlight using qualitative and quantitative study methods in many contexts.

Leadership studies is a popular field of study, and although it has expanded exponentially, there are still few leadership studies in South Africa (Punnet, 2017). Grint (2010, p.1) actually questioned the value of the vast development of leadership texts: "As I read more material, I realised that all my previous truths were built on very dubious foundations, so my understanding decreased as my knowledge increased".

Defining leadership is not a new concept. In the 16th (Rost, 1993) century, the church condemned Machiavelli for his views that leadership should be removed from the dominion of God into the sphere of human activities. Since then, leadership philosophers have incorporated many persona metrics to clarify leadership. Nevertheless, the cause-effect relationship between leader and follower is a cornerstone of leadership. Over the last century, researchers have used many different methods to identify and define leadership effectiveness. For instance, modern-day leadership theories can be traced back to the 1940s, including the trait, behavioural and contingency theories (Yukl & Gardner, 2020). More recent leadership theories include neo-charismatic concepts of leadership (Northouse, 2021).

Indeed, leadership as a concept is vast, multifaceted and has many definitions. This diversity reflects the dynamic nature of leadership and its sensitivity to different organisational, cultural and situational contexts (Kok & van den Heuvel, 2019). An exploration of the field of leadership research uncovered over 220 specific definitions of the concept of leadership (Fairholm, 2015). Some authors have provided a constricted definition of the term, whilst others provided a broader overarching definition of leadership. For this reason, this research emphasises the most pertinent and current definitions of leadership as described by various authors.

Different groups assign different interpretations and meanings to the definition of leadership. For example, leadership practices in the military differ from religious or

organisational leadership practices (Yukl & Gardner, 2020); and the most widely accepted academic definition of leadership is influencing subordinates toward achieving goals (Daft, 2022). Contemporary literature portrays leadership as noteworthy and exceptional, often depicting the leader as idealistic and brave. However, understanding that leadership is academically convincing and emotionally satisfying seems challenging. As a result, organisational leadership skills are in high demand, and the shelves of bookstores are brimming with advice on becoming a leader. Leadership therefore remains an essential and relevant field of research, concept, theory, and construct (Reed, Klutts, & Mattingly, 2019).

Iszatt-White and Saunders (2020) defined leadership as an individual's method of influencing subordinates to achieve a common goal. Bass and Riggio (2006) suggested that the most precise definition of leadership is contingent on the specific leadership aspect of importance to the research. Most authors, however, agree that several factors determine the leadership phenomenon: (a) leadership is viewed as a process, (b) it includes influence, (c) leadership happens in any organisation and team, and (d) agreement on goals (Northouse, 2021).

Thus, the purpose of leadership is to serve the organisation's requirements. Organisations comprise groups of people with a common goal, shared beliefs, and values. They are not randomly made up of people, but individuals join companies consistent with their beliefs and values, trusting that the organisation's purpose will benefit them and society (Kok & van den Heuvel, 2019). Group members are assigned unique positions with different tasks and responsibilities to achieve organisational goals effectively and efficiently. Success in organisational structures thus depends on leadership to give direction, manage control, and inspire ordinary workers to achieve their goals.

Organisations seek individuals with competent leadership skills, trusting that they will bring unique assets to influence and inspire employees at all levels and ultimately improve the bottom line (Northouse, 2021). Providing a healthy culture with effective processes and structures essential for sustaining profitability, productivity, and good customer service is seemingly impossible without effective leadership (van Zyl, Leadership in the African context, 2009).

Leadership is an essential social sciences topic and a captivating phenomenon that happens in every group of people irrespective of culture, nationality, location, or organisation. It fosters results and empowers managers to be involved and influential. When the leader acts, the subordinate responds (Yukl G. , 2013).

Thus, research findings on leadership conclude that the phenomenon is far more complicated and sophisticated than the often-simplistic view offered in popular books (Northouse, 2016; Manning & Curtis, 2012). Recent studies also question the effectiveness of methods associated with leadership scale development and the theoretical constructs identified in leadership (Yukl G. , 2013). Consequently, the interest in organisational leadership practises has increased steadily in recent decades (Ceri-Booms, Curseu, & Oerlemans, 2017). It is, therefore, vital to identify and understand which taxonomies or behaviours in existing literature contribute meaningfully towards developing a new South African leadership measure.

In concluding this exploration of leadership literature, it is clear that leadership encompasses many definitions. A widely acknowledged definition of leadership emphasises the importance of social influence, group effort, and goal orientation. For the purposes of this study, leadership can be defined as the process of maximising the efforts of others to achieve organisational goals through social influence. This definition emphasises three crucial aspects. First, leadership involves influencing others through social dynamics and interpersonal relationships instead of coercion. Second, effective leadership maximises the potential of team members and inspires them to perform their best on the assigned task. Lastly, leadership is inherently goal-oriented, emphasising the need for distinct, shared objectives to direct the group's collective efforts.

2.3 The nature of leadership

According to Iszatt-White and Saunders (2017), leadership is a contentious topic and difficult for researchers to define; however, the usage of the term "leadership" has risen significantly over the past 50 years. Jackson and Parry (2008) recorded 168 million Google search results for the word "leadership" in 2008. Fast forward nine years and Iszatt-White and Saunders (2017) found 418 million search results on

Google. This thesis conducted a similar experiment as Iszatt-White and Saunders (2017) in 2020 and discovered 2 500 000 000 results on Google searching for the word leadership. It can, therefore, be assumed that more and more leadership definitions and theories will appear over time.

During the last century, various leadership taxonomies emerged with no explicit agreement between scholars regarding what constitutes effective leadership (Yukl & Gardner, 2020). Existing literature reveals a plethora of leadership approaches and constructs to elucidate the complexities of leadership (Yukl & Gardner, 2020; Daft, 2022; Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020; Punnet, 2017' Northouse, 2021; Yukl, 2013).

Some researchers theorise leadership as a trait or behaviour, whereas others interpret leadership from an information-processing perspective or from a relational standpoint. Most scholars and researchers agree that the purpose of leadership in organisations is to influence others and to facilitate individual and collective efforts to achieve shared organisational objectives. Leaders can improve a team's performance by shaping the processes that determine performance.

Various leadership theories have emerged over the past century. To understand leadership holistically, it is important to comprehensively address and study these theories. Leadership advancement included conventional interpretations such as trait, contingency and behavioural theories, and more recent neo-charismatic models, such as full-range leadership, servant, and authentic leadership. In addition, the vast number of leadership research studies provides evidence that leaders can improve the performance of a team, work unit and organisation through a combination of task and relationship strategies.

The most important historical theories are explored in detail below.

2.3.1 The Trait theory of leadership

The trait theory of leadership was the first intentional interest to study leadership. This theory was grounded on a conventional psychological approach which suggested that leaders are born with genetic characteristics or traits that the individual brings to the arena (Yukl & Gardner, 2020; Daft, 2022; Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020; Northouse,

2021). Trait theories developed in the early 20th century and followed the belief that leaders were great men. Only successful leaders were studied, and their characteristics were identified.

Key leadership traits highlighted in Table 1 were: drive, leadership motivation, honesty, integrity, self-confidence, cognitive ability, and business knowledge (Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020). When the characteristics were recognised, it was assumed that individuals with similar traits would also develop into leaders. However, the biggest problem with this theory is that it does not clarify if and how leaders can be developed. This problem led to the establishment of behavioural approaches in leadership.

Table 1: Key leadership traits

Trait	Description
Drive	Achievement, ambition, motivation, energy, resolve, and initiative
Leadership motivation	Yearning to lead, pursuing power to achieve goals
Honesty and integrity	Being consistent in word and deed, trustworthiness
Self-confidence	Assertive decision-making, decisiveness, emotional stability
Cognitive ability	Analyse situations accurately, problem-solving, decision-making ability, managing perceptions of others
Knowledge of the business	Ability to gather and integrate information about the organisation and industry, important for developing a vision, business plans and strategies

Source: (Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020; Northouse, 2021; Daft, 2022)

Despite the evidence for the trait theory, there is a desire among modern-day trait theorists to move past the original trait ideas into a broader understanding of the necessary traits that influential leaders should have. For instance, Zaccaro (2007)

identified that contemporary views on trait theory have evolved from narrow attributes to a broader comprehension of what differentiates leaders from non-leaders. Modern-day traits include skills, personal values, social skills, and emotional intelligence (Zaccaro , 2007). They have an enduring quality that is relevant in different situations. In summary, trait theories originated with ideas about the great men and their inherited attributes. This was discarded over time, but trait theories continued to influence the thinking of researchers on the leadership topic.

2.3.2 The behavioural theories of leadership

The follow-on phase in leadership development focused on studying observable daily leadership behaviours to understand what effective leaders did. Such behavioural theories focus on the leader's actions rather than their personality traits. Also known as the style approach, this theory is still popular today. The research suggests that leadership is categorised mainly by two leader behaviours: relationship and task (Northouse, 2021). Behavioural theories attempt to explain how relationship and task interconnect. Prominent leader behaviour studies originated from Universities in Ohio State and Michigan, where, amongst others, the 150-item Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) was developed (Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020). The leading behavioural theories are Douglas McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y and the Managerial Grid Model of Blake and Mouton. Each theory will be discussed in more detail below.

2.3.2.1 Theory X and Y

Theory X assumes that subordinates are unreliable and unwilling to complete the task and that they should continuously be observed to guarantee that tasks are correctly accomplished. Theory X suggests that leaders must clearly define job descriptions, watchfully direct subordinates, reward well for achieving objectives and discipline subordinates with poor job performance. Theory X centres on compliance and immediate profitability and assumes that subordinates do not enjoy their work, find it monotonous and will side-step additional work if they can. Theory X leaders force subordinates who lack creativity and accountability into compliance. Contrastingly,

Theory Y however, suggests that leaders endorse self-management, self-discipline, and dedication to ensure that subordinates own up and accept responsibility for what they do. Theory Y leaders trust subordinates to do their work and believe that subordinates are intrinsically engaged in their work. They, therefore, trust subordinates to get the task done (Gibson, Ivancevich, Donnely, & Konopaske, 2012; Northouse, 2021; Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020; Northouse, 2021; Daft, 2022)

2.3.2.2 The managerial grid

Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton developed the Managerial Grid theory in the 1960s as an approach which focused on human relations and the technical aspects of the job. The theory consists of five unique leadership positions. These positions signify the relationship between the leader's focus on people and productivity (Northouse, 2021; Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020; Daft, 2022). The Managerial Grid comprises two axis representing behavioural dimensions: concern for production and people.

Concern for production specifies the degree to which the leader focuses on achieving productivity and organisational targets and how work packages should be completed. It relates to successfully executing organisational rules, procedures, and policies. Concern for people, on the other hand, indicates the degree to which the needs of subordinates are considered by the leader when tasks are allocated and executed. The leader considers the personal or professional needs of subordinates. Blake and Mouton's grid is illustrated in Figure 1 below:
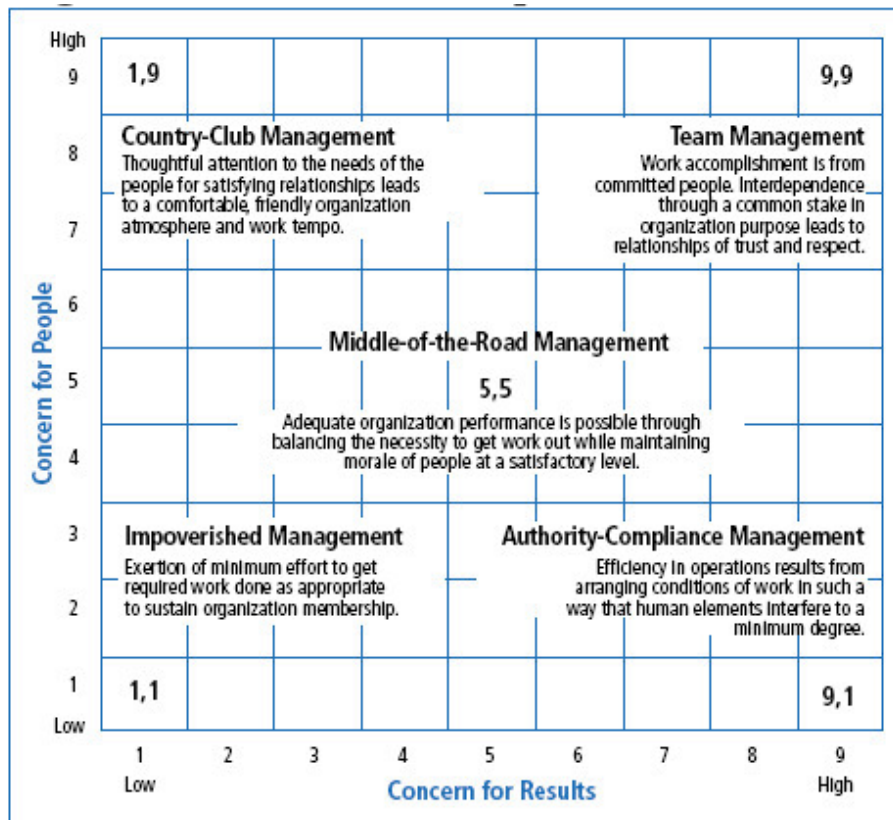
Figure 1: The leadership grid - Blake and Mouton

Sources: (Northouse, 2021; Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020; Daft, 2022)

1. Country Club Manager (1,9)

This leadership style is identified by a low concern for task achievement and deep respect for building and cultivating relationships. Slight emphasis is placed on production, and the leader focuses on subordinates' feelings and attitudes, the country club manager's comfort and subordinates.

2. Impoverished Manager (1,1)

This style is identified by leaders who are not concerned with the task or the relationships. This leader seems aloof, distant, avoidant, withdrawn and uninvolved. The impoverished manager has little, if any, interaction with subordinates and is described as indifferent.

3. Middle-of-the-road Manager (5,5)

This leader is skilled at compromising and concentrating on the task and people. This leader can balance the needs of people while directing the task at hand. The ability to focus attention on both enables the leader to be balanced. A 5,5 score indicates that this leader can resolve differences whilst emphasising productivity.

4. Team Manager (9,9)

The team manager can focus attentively on both people and the task. This style encourages work engagement and team collaboration. This preferred style satisfies the needs of both shareholders and employees. At a score of 9,9, this leader is defined as committed and open.

5. Authority – Compliance Manager (9,1)

This leader focuses primarily on task execution and job requirements but ignores the needs of subordinates. This leader prefers to focus communication on task instruction. At a score of 9,1, subordinates are considered tools to get the job done. This leader is considered demanding and controlling.

The Blake-Mouton Managerial Grid is a practical framework to assist organisational leaders in choosing their focus and perspective. The grid accentuates the need for a balanced leadership position and suggests that the appropriate leadership behaviours in one situation do not necessarily work in another. Behavioural studies assume that effective leaders behave differently from ineffective leaders (Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020). One critique is that this theory fails to show which leadership style is most suitable in various circumstances (Hellegriel, et al., 2004).

2.3.2.3 Contemporary leadership behavioural theories

Leadership research that focuses on behavioural perspectives has flourished in recent years and applies to nearly all behaviours of modern leaders (Northouse, 2021; Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020; Yukl & Gardner, 2020). Various research studies have been conducted over the previous 20 years to identify leadership behaviours and to examine the influence that the leader's behaviour has on the performance of individuals, teams,

and organisations. Many new definitions have emerged to describe leadership and define the specific components central to the nature of the phenomenon. Major concepts still include leadership as a process that involves influencing others; it occurs in groups or teams and involves shared goals or a vision (Northouse, 2021). The total amount of leadership behavioural studies has unfortunately produced a plethora of different taxonomies and a lack of clearly understood results as to the exact nature of organisational leadership.

Contemporary leadership behaviour research has been criticised for its weak theoretical foundation (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2017; Yukl & Gardner, 2020). This is because the central assertion of leadership behaviour theories is that the leader's behaviour is systematically embedded in a nomological network of latent variables that influences the actions of the follower (Ceri-Booms, et al., 2017). From an operational perspective, leaders must manage subordinates to achieve agreed goals and targets (Morgeson, Scott DeRue, & Karam, 2010). In their meta-analysis study, Burke et al. (2006) indicated that both person and task-focused leader behaviours should be studied, as both are positively related to team performance (Burke, et al., 2006).

Behavioural constructs are theoretical tools, and they have little objective reality. When designing leadership studies, therefore, it is imperative to choose research methods suitable for the type of knowledge sought rather than just using a familiar or convenient technique (Yukl & Gardner, 2020).

Current research concurs that managers' leadership behaviours impact organisational performance (Northouse, 2021; Kok & van den Heuvel, 2019; Fairholm, 2015). Literature also proposes that leadership should be studied along with other interdependent variables and not in isolation. Moreover, Kok & van den Heuvel, 2019 suggest that future leadership studies in South Africa should research and investigate the relationship between leadership and aspects of organisational behaviour. If leadership is the method by which a person influences subordinates to accomplish organisational goals, and organisational behaviour is an indicator of the commitment that subordinates display towards their jobs, then it makes sense to interrogate this relationship (Botelho, Powell, Kincaid, & Wang, 2017).

Yukl & Gardner (2020) suggested that the most critical objective in leadership research is to identify the characteristics of behaviour that best describe the leader's influence on the performance of a team, work unit, or organisation. He concluded that research should focus on the two broadly defined categories best described as task-orientated and relationship behaviour. Behavioural theories seek to measure observable characteristics that leaders demonstrate every day rather than determining a leader's inborn traits.

Behaviours are not skills, personality traits or roles. Therefore, a behavioural classification should be observable, recognisable, different, quantifiable, and relevant to all types of leadership present inside the organisational context. The taxonomy should be comprehensive and provide a parsimonious and meaningful theoretical classification that illustrates how leadership behaviours are interrelated (Yukl, Gordon, & Taber, 2002). Research suggests that more successful leadership theories can be developed by categorising behaviours more effectively.

Yukl (2012) identified a seminal behavioural taxonomy of fifteen etic organisational leadership behaviours. It was based on the extensive factor analysis research by Yukl (2002). Also, it reflected findings in other taxonomic research linking specific behaviours to the performance of a team or organisation. This research study identified and compared emic leadership behaviours to the fifteen etic behaviours identified by Yukl (2012).

The fifteen etic leadership behaviours are listed in Table 2 below.

Table 2: Hierarchical taxonomy of leadership behaviours

Task orientated	Clarifying
	Planning
	Monitoring operations
	Problem-solving
Relations orientated	Supporting
	Developing
	Recognising
	Empowering

Change orientated	Advocating change
	Envisioning change
	Encouraging change
	Facilitating collective learning
External	Networking
	External monitoring
	Representing

Source: Yukl (2012)

The paradoxical conclusion is that the vast number of leadership studies have led to a deficiency of an accurate understanding of what constitutes organisational leadership behaviours. This paucity in existing emic leadership literature is directly related to the researcher's rationale for choosing a mixed-method study.

2.3.3 Contingency theories of leadership

Contingency theories are the succeeding stage in the progress of organisational leadership knowledge. These theories suggest no one optimum leadership style (Northouse, 2021; Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020; Yukl & Gardner, 2020). These theories summarise the leadership and management approaches during the 1960s. Scholars argued that preceding theories failed as they overlooked external factors that influenced organisational structures and the leadership style (Robbins & Judge, 2019).

Leadership styles are central to contingency theories. Situations faced by leaders differ from moment to moment and are not on the same level of leadership (Northouse, 2021). Thus, effective leadership performance depends on using specific styles as determined by the condition faced by the leader (Gibson, et al., 2012). Numerous theories and models have emerged to understand which factors determined the effectiveness of the interaction between the leader and subordinate in each situation. For instance, influential contingency models include the Tannenbaum-Schmidt Continuum, Fielders Contingency Model, Situational Leadership, Path-Goal theory,

and the Leader-Member Exchange Theory (Northouse, 2021; Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020; Gibson, et al., 2012). Each model is explored below.

2.3.3.1 The Tannenbaum-Schmidt continuum

Also referred to as the Leadership Continuum model, the Tannenbaum-Schmidt Continuum proposes that the leader's approach can be charted alongside a continuum (Northouse, 2021). Starting with autocratic authority on the one end of the continuum to subordinates enjoying autonomy on the other, the continuum is depicted as seven points to describe the specific leadership styles:

1. Tells – Using this style, the leader provides instructions to the subordinate in a directive manner. This style is used when there are low levels of competence or a lack of trust. The leader will change away from this direct management style as competence in the subordinate develops.

2. Sells - This style is characterised by direct behaviour from the leader with some back-and-forth negations between the subordinate and the leader. Ultimately, final decisions are still made by the leader, but the subordinate is allowed to give input and have their ideas and thoughts heard.

3. Suggests - Using this style, leader makes subordinates feel as if they made real contributions regarding the final decision. The amount of input depends on the subordinate's competence level and the level of trust that exists at this point. This style provides growth opportunities for the subordinate, and they gain confidence in decision-making.

4. Consult - This style leads to a cooperative relationship between the subordinated and leader. The leader chooses this position on the continuum when they are confident that the subordinate is competent and when they can trust the decision-making capability of the subordinate. High levels of subordinate skills, ability, and knowledge is a requirement on this level. This style has proven to keep subordinates engaged in their work.

5. Joins - This style on the continuum suggests that the leader interacts more as a team member instead of the authoritarian one who tells the subordinate what to do. At this point, power is still held by the leader who will be held accountable for the decisions, but the subordinate is empowered to make their own decisions. This style is observed in experienced teams consisting of competent individuals.

6. Delegates – Shifting to the opposite side of the continuum, this leader uses delegation to cultivate trust. Using this style, the leader steps back, trusting that the subordinate will get the job done. The leader implements control measures to safeguard that the subordinate remains on track but renounces involvement in the decision-making process.

7. Abdicates – On the opposite side of the continuum, this leader essentially forsakes any participation in decision-making. This leader completely trusts the subordinate to achieve the task from start to finish.

Figure 2 highlights the seven styles across the continuum, as discussed.
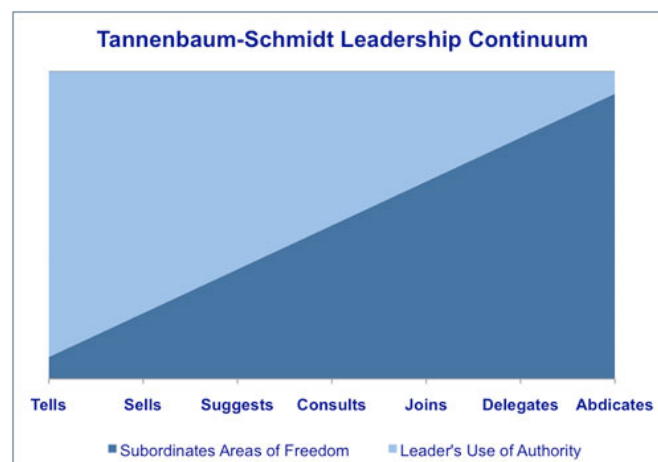
Figure 2: The Tannenbaum-Schmidt continuum
Sources: (Northouse, 2021; Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020; Daft, 2022)

2.3.3.2 Fiedler's contingency theory

Fiedler's Contingency theory suggests that leaders choose one of two specific styles: task or relationship-positioned leadership (Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020). Fiedler

discovered that leaders are more effective when they select a style that complements their personality. Thus, leaders more comfortable with task-focused activities tend to emphasise task completion, whereas relationship-driven leaders are likely to produce a more relationship-orientated style by supporting individuals. Fiedler suggested specific components which could influence the chosen style of a leader. These include the relationship between the leader and subordinate, the task structure, and the positional power of the leader. Figure 3 illustrates the situational characteristics of the Contingency model (Northouse, 2021; Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020; Gibson, et al., 2012).

Fiedler hypothesised that leadership styles remain static. Therefore, they can be measured by using a scale known as the Least-Preferred Co-Worker (LPC) Scale. The scale indicates which subordinates the leader least prefers working with. High scores suggest a relationship-orientated leader, and low scores indicate a more task-orientated leader. This theory proposes that every situation necessitates a different leadership style, and the chosen style is contingent on the level of trust and respect between the leader and subordinate. Figure 3 illustrates which leadership style should be used in certain circumstances. This model supports the concept of matching the leader style with specific situations.

Situational characteristics

Situation	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Leader–member relations	Good	Good	Good	Good	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor
Task-structure	High	High	Low	Low	High	High	Low	Low
Position power	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak

Preferred leadership styles	Task-motivated (low LPC)	Relationship-motivated (high LPC)	Task-motivated (low LPC)

Very favorable ————————————————————— Very unfavorable

Figure 3: Summary of Fiedler's contingency model

Sources: (Northouse, 2021; Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020; Gibson, et al., 2012)

Fiedler's contingency methodology postulates that there is not one singular leadership style that will fit every situation. This theory therefore characterises another noteworthy shift in leadership research, moving from traits and behaviours when considering the leader suited for any situation (Northouse, 2021; Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020; Daft, 2022).

2.3.3.3 Situational leadership model

This leadership theory postulates that effectiveness is determined by the situation and not just by a specific leadership approach. P Hershey and K Blanchard's theory proposes that each subordinate task is unique and needs a particular leadership approach.

The model suggests that an effective leader can alter their chosen leadership style to achieve organisational goals and objectives. The theory is based on two constructs: the style of the leader and the developmental level of the subordinate (Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020).

The model suggests that the leader requires three competencies:

- Diagnosing – being able to understand complex situations and the current reality in relation to the vision.
- Adapting – an ability to change the way the leader behaves.
- Communicating – the skill of knowing how to get a message across to subordinates in a specific situation.

Situational leadership suggests that subordinates move on a development path from D1 – D4 as illustrated in the bottom part of the diagram in Figure 4. Leadership effectiveness is contingent on determining the subordinate's levels of commitment and competence and appropriately adapting their leadership approach to correctly match the leader's style with the developmental level of the subordinate.
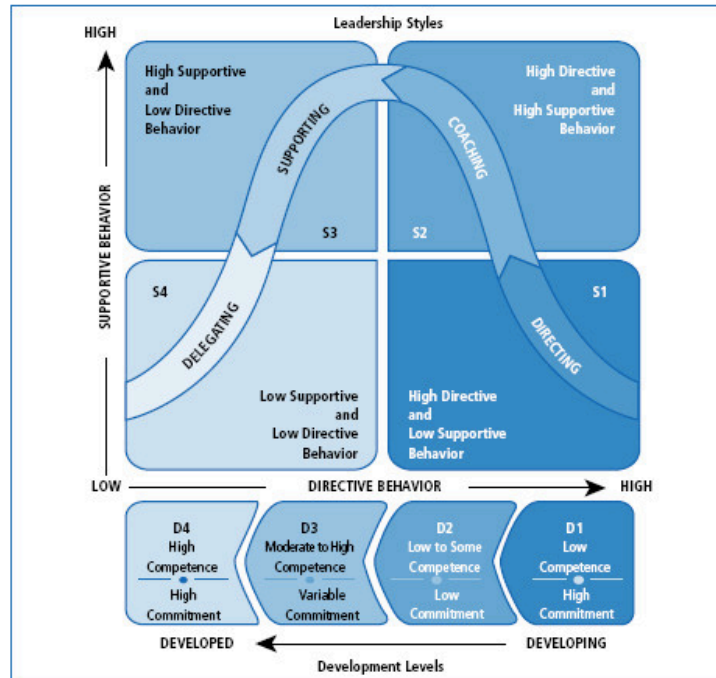
Figure 4: Situational leadership model

Sources: Northouse, 2021; Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020; Daft, 2022

(a) Leader Styles

Situational leadership theory is categorised by four distinct styles, each with a letter-number arrangement:

S-1 Directing – A one-way directional movement of information from the leader to the subordinate regarding the execution of the task.

S-2 Selling – Using this style, the leader endeavours to persuade subordinates of the benefits of achieving the task. There is give-and-take communication, but ultimately the leader makes the final decisions concerning the task execution.

S-3 Participating – When choosing this style, the leader allows the subordinate to participate in democratic decision-making actively. This style focuses on mentoring subordinates and improving relationships more than emphasising task execution.

S-4 Delegating – The fourth style is characterised by the leader delegating authority and tasks to subordinates. Using this style, the leader remains accountable but allows subordinates to make their own decisions.

(b) Developmental levels

Developmental levels refer to the levels of competence and commitment of the subordinate in any specific work-related situation. Competence is defined as the subordinate's ability to demonstrate the necessary skills, talent and knowledge to complete a particular task. At the same time, commitment refers to the motivation and attitude of the subordinate's towards completing a task. These developmental levels are illustrated in Figure 4. There are many permutations of competence and commitment, as illustrated in the figure 4 (Northouse, 2021; Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020; Daft, 2022).

D1 - Low competence and high commitment – these subordinates can be labelled as new to the job or task and have not developed the necessary competence to finish the task, yet they are committed to doing it. Subordinate commitment levels are high.

D2 – Low competence and low commitment – subordinates can be labelled as having some competence and low commitment levels. Subordinates have developed some job competence but have lost commitment to do the task or job.

D3 – Moderate to high competence and variable commitment – subordinates have developed adequate to high levels of competence, but commitment levels now vary. These subordinates are skilled at the task, but commitment levels vary to achieve it consistently.

D4 - High competence and high commitment – the highest level of performance. Subordinates demonstrate high levels of competence and high levels of commitment.

In conclusion, the Situational Leadership model provides an insightful perspective on leadership, emphasising the adaptability and flexibility required of effective leaders. Instead of endorsing a singular 'best' leadership style, it emphasises the importance of aligning both directive and supportive leadership behaviours with the development level or readiness of the team or individual. By classifying leadership as directing,

coaching, supporting, and delegating, this model emphasises the multifaceted nature of leadership, with each style offering distinct benefits in various contexts.

Consequently, the Situational Leadership Model encourages leaders to remain flexible and adaptable, adapting their approach to the changing needs of their team and the circumstance at hand, thereby fostering optimal performance and growth.

2.3.3.4 Path-goal model

Path–goal theory was conceptualised by R House and predicts leadership success in different circumstances. The theory suggests that a good leader provides clear direction and influences the subordinate's views of personal and work goals and pathways to goal achievement (Daft, 2022).

Path-goal theory clarifies the course needed when leaders support subordinates in choosing and defining goals (Northouse, 2021; Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020; Daft, 2022). The leader simplifies the path for the subordinate towards task achievement by removing obstacles in the way. Path-goal theory includes elements of leadership behaviours, task clarity, subordinates' characteristics, and inspiration. The model postulates that leadership behaviours influence the motivation and production levels of subordinates (Robbins & Judge, 2019).

The Path-Goal model proposes that the leader is accountable for developing a well-defined pathway for the subordinate to realise organisational success. The leader selects and then applies the most suitable style to accomplish the goals. This method requires a flexible leader to choose the most appropriate technique for goal achievement.
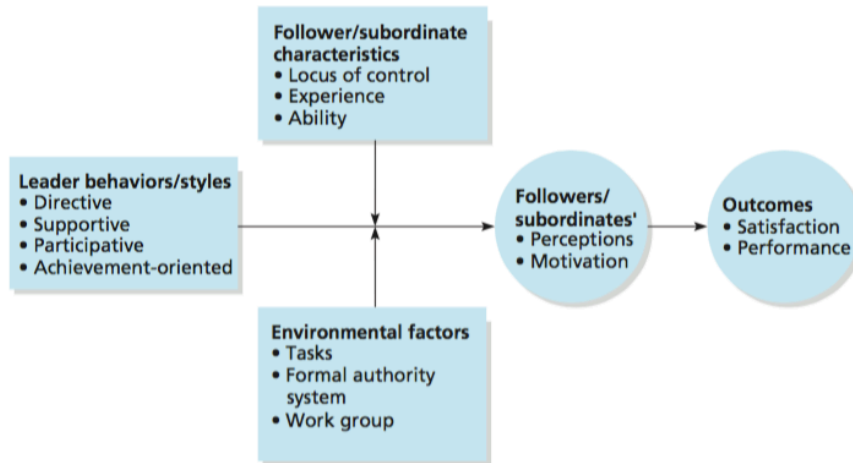
Figure 5: Path-goal model

Sources: Northouse, 2021; Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020; Daft, 2022

The following leadership behaviours are related to the Path-Goal theory, as illustrated in Figure 5 (Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020).

1. Directive – A style characterised by a directive leader who informs subordinates what needs to be done and how the task should be executed.
2. Supportive – An approachable leader who shows concern for the welfare of the subordinates. Leader behaviours are aimed at increasing subordinate self-esteem and making the task more interesting to improve task execution.
3. Participative – A consultative state that encourages opinions and shared decision-making between the leader and the subordinates. This style is appropriate when employees are skilled experts.
4. Achievement orientated – A leader who sets challenging goals for subordinates and consistently challenges them to achieve higher performance levels. Norms of excellence are created, which leads to subordinate confidence, as the leader always seeks improvement from subordinates.

Figure 5 above mentions environmental factors. These refer to elements outside the subordinate's control but still influence how the tasks are performed. Examples include the team structure or the inflexible system of the organisation (Gibson, et al., 2012). Figure 5 also illustrates the variables that impact the path-goal theory and how different leadership styles connect with the characteristics of subordinates and the task at hand.

Path-goal theory proposes that subordinates with an elevated need for relationships prefer supportive leadership behaviours, whereas task-driven subordinates favour a directive leader. In addition, the subordinate's self-belief is essential, as high levels of self-efficacy typically indicate that subordinates tend not to agree with directive leadership behaviours. Northhouse (2021) determined that an internal locus of control subordinate would favour participative leadership, compared to subordinates with a high external locus of control which necessitate directive leadership. Locus of control is defined as the perceived level of control of events that people have in their lives.

2.3.3.5 Leader-member exchange model (LMX)

LMX theory states that leaders compartmentalise subordinates into clusters known as "in-group members and out-group members". The "in-group members" share a similar value system as the leader. "Out-group members" do not share much with the leader and have a different value system. The theory suggests that in-group members receive more challenging tasks and receive more meaningful rewards. Research indicates that in-group members are more engaged, have higher performance levels and feel more optimistic about the organisation (Northouse, 2021; Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020; Gibson, et al., 2012).

Out-group members are not considered team members that the leader enjoys working with; accordingly, these subordinates receive fewer stimulating tasks and projects. They are given little encouragement, and as a result, they can quickly become disillusioned and resign. The interaction between the leader and subordinate is low, and subordinates' express dissatisfaction by being actively disengaged at work.

LMX theory states that the leader's belief in the subordinates' morals will impact their behaviour towards the subordinate; this in return influences the subordinates' conduct towards the leader. Table 3 summarises the seminal Contingency theories.

Table 3: Summary of the most significant contingency theories

	Contingency Model	Path-Goal Model	Situational Leadership Model	Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)
Leadership abilities	Leaders are relationship or task orientated. Task allocation should pair the leaders' style.	Leaders can use a variety of motivational techniques to improve performance.	Leaders alter their style concerning the task and relationship based on the situation.	Leaders adapt their style regularly. Leaders exhibit different behaviours with subordinates.
Assumptions about subordinates	Subordinates desire different leadership styles, contingent on the task make-up.	Subordinates have varied needs that must be satisfied.	Subordinate's willingness to be accountable in each situation.	Subordinates are classified as In or Out groups.
Leader effectiveness	The leader's success is dependent on the interaction between the leader's character and the environment.	Leaders streamline the path towards the goal and choose the behaviours best matched for subordinates to accomplish the task.	Leaders correct their style based on the situation. They have a choice between a directive, a coach, supportive or to delegate a task.	The observant leader can adjust their style to fit the subordinates' needs.
Research concerns	Inconclusive evidence about the exactness of the model.	This model has created limited research interest in modern times.	Insufficient research to get a conclusion concerning the effectiveness of the theory.	This theory has produced a limited quantity of research to support its assumptions.

Sources: (Northouse, 2021; Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020; Gibson, et al., 2012).

2.3.4 Neo-charismatic theories

Trait, behavioural, and contingency theorists could not agree on how best leaders should influence subordinates. The consequence is that researchers discovered more current theories, called Neo-charismatic leadership theories. Various models have emerged focussing on the leader's ability to demonstrate emotionally acceptable

behaviour to the subordinates (Robbins & Judge, 2019). The most crucial Neo-charismatic theory is full-range Leadership which consists of transformational and transactional leadership. These theories will be discussed below (Robbins & Judge, 2019).

2.3.4.1 Full range leadership

Historical leadership models have shown that there are constantly better or more comprehensive ways to lead others, and research suggests that it would be ignorant to present one best leadership theory. B Bass and B Avolio developed Full-Range Leadership (Northouse, 2021), and their approach combined various leadership constructs, including skills, attitudes, traits, and behaviours that were required within an organisational system. Table 4 illustrates the Full-Range Leadership theory and deliberates on seven leadership aspects of it. The combination of these factors presents a transformational. transactional or laissez-faire (Avoidant) leader. These styles are mapped at varying points on the full range leadership continuum, thus, producing challenges as well as opportunities for leadership development.

Figure 6 represents the Full Range leadership model and indicates the factors placed on a continuum, from transformational to transactional leadership to avoidant leadership.
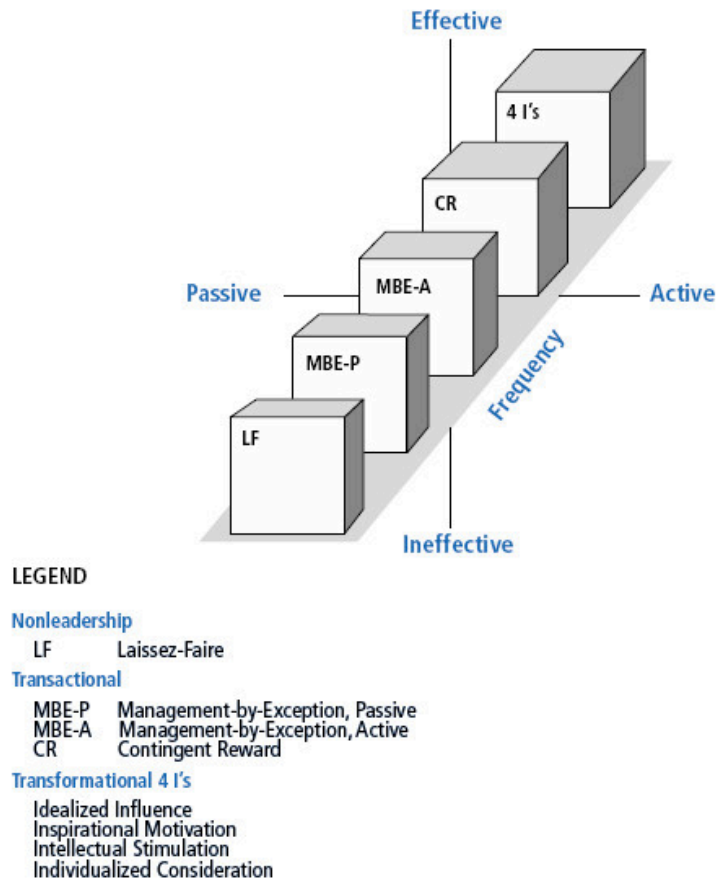
Figure 6: Full-range leadership model

Sources: Northouse, 2021; Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020; Yukl & Gardner, 2020

Transformational leadership is the most popular modern-day leadership theory (Northouse, 2021). In 1978, James MacGregor categorised leadership into two distinct types: transformational and transactional leadership. Transformational leaders grow and develop the needs and potential of subordinates to achieve more in organisations (Avolio & Bass, 2004). This commitment to growing people is a lifespan development process. Contrastingly, transactional leaders uncompromisingly state their performance expectations and then manage that accordingly. Transactional leaders provide the necessary rewards for achievement and closely monitor mistakes.

This model generates opportunities and challenges for leadership advancement. The theory suggests that subordinates will imitate the leaders in whatsoever style,

proposing that a similar style will be repeatedly duplicated in organisations. Research indicates that more than a third of the papers published in Leadership Quarterly are about transformational leadership theory (Northouse, 2021). Therefore, this theory holds a dominant and seminal position in leadership research. As the name suggests, it is a progression of people's transformation. The theory postulates that transformational leaders can create a work environment where subordinates feel engaged to work with vigour and dedication to improve results for themselves and the organisation (Baumruk, Gorman, & Gorman, 2006).

The body of research supports transformational leadership's effectiveness compared to transactional leadership. For example, seminal work by Bass (1985) indicated that transformational leaders create higher levels of work satisfaction for subordinates. Research suggests that the theory remains relevant in this fast-changing VUCA world, as leaders aim to give subordinates more autonomy and responsibility. Table 4 below offers a summary of the full-range leadership model.

Table 4: Overview of Full-Range Leadership

Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership	Laissez-faire Leadership
Factor 1	**Factor 5**	**Factor 7**
Idealised influence	Contingent reward	Laissez-faire
Factor 2	**Factor 6**	
Inspirational motivation	Management-by-exception	
	(Active & Passive)	
Factor 3		
Intellectual stimulation		
Factor 4		
Individualised consideration		

Sources: Northouse, 2021; Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020; Yukl & Gardner, 2020

Table 4 and Figure 6 list the seven factors of the Full Range leadership theory. These factors are included in the transactional and transformational leadership models. A brief discussion of each factor follows:

(a) Idealised Influence (Factor 1) is an emotional element of transformational leadership. It suggests that leaders must be role models in their behaviour so that subordinates can emulate them. This factor indicates that the leader can positively influence subordinates through values. These leaders are known for doing the right things and providing direction and vision.

(b) Inspirational Motivation (Factor 2) describes leaders who can communicate clearly and with great expectations. These leaders encourage teamwork and motivate the team to be part of the organisation's vision. These leaders promote collaboration, and subordinates feel their work is essential under the leader's guidance.

(c) Intellectual Stimulation (Factor 3) defines leaders who permit subordinates to be creative. They challenge subordinates' self-beliefs and inspire them to discover new ways of working.

(d) Individualised Consideration (Factor 4) describes leaders who foster supportive environments and pay attention to the needs of subordinates. These leaders use delegation, and coach subordinates to grow their self-efficacy to overcome obstacles.

(e) Contingent Reward (Factor 5) is an exchange process where subordinates' efforts are exchanged for rewards. These leaders focus on what needs to be achieved and what the reward will be.

(f) Management-by-Exception (Factor 6) leaders tell subordinates the performance standards and job requirements. It can take an active or passive form. Active leadership happens when the leader observes subordinates strictly for errors and then uses remedial action when instructions are violated. Passive Management-by-Exception occurs when the leader responds once errors have occurred.

(g) Laissez-Faire (Factor 7) signifies the avoidance of leadership. These leaders abdicate responsibilities and delay decisions. This leader allows subordinates to make their own decisions without involvement.

2.3.4.2 Transformational leadership

The Full Range Leadership Model is a comprehensive framework that outlines the entire spectrum of leadership styles. The model, which ranges from laissez-faire leadership on one end to transformational leadership on the other, with transactional leadership in the middle, reflects how leaders can influence their teams and organisations. In the following discussion, we will examine the relevant components of this influential model, their distinctive characteristics, and how they interact to produce effective leadership.

Transformational leadership emphasises subordinates' development to improve performance (Northouse, 2021). Transformational leaders possess abilities and skills to motivate and inspire subordinates to achieve results at a higher level (Northouse, 2021; Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020; Yukl & Gardner, 2020; Gibson, et al., 2012). Such leaders can be found in organisations where subordinates require an inspirational person to navigate the team through volatile and unclear environments. These leaders grow the self-awareness levels of subordinates to create moral working environments and move subordinates beyond self-interest for the good of the team and organisation. Transformational leaders improve team performance and develop higher character levels in subordinates.

Bennis and Nanus (2007) conducted a study with 90 leaders. This revealed four characteristics of transformational leaders in organisations. (a) A clearly articulated vision for the future; (b) These leaders are great relationship builders and nurture shared meaning for subordinates; (c) They foster trust through open communication; (d) Transformational leaders use personal mastery to grow the competence of people. Bennis and Nanus determined that transformational leaders had a reciprocal influence on subordinates (Bennis & Nanus, 2007).

Transformational leadership is very relevant in organisations today. Volatile markets and fast-changing environments demand transformational leaders in organisations since they:

- Are confronted with a turbulent environment known as VUCA (volatility, uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity).

- Need more and quicker innovation to persist in a competitive market.

- Are confronted with high staff turnover.

- Need to attract quality employees.

- Require employees that can increase productivity.

- Need employees who are creative problem solvers.

Transformational leaders are required in organisations where subordinates need to be challenged to grow their potential, or in flat organisational structures where subordinates need to feel empowered (Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020). Transformational leaders proactively raise their subordinates' awareness of the importance of shared goals as they assist them in accomplishing targets (Yukl G. , 2013).

Burns (1985) seminally outlined transformational leaders as organisational citizens who:

a) Make subordinates aware of the significance of attaining targets.
b) Assist subordinates in developing plans to reach them.
c) Motivate subordinates to better themselves for the benefit of themselves and the organisation.
d) Advance subordinates to become independent (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Subordinates develop strong emotions towards transformational leaders as measured by idealised influence (behaviours and attitudes). These leaders create high levels of work engagement by being inspirational, as measured by the construct inspirational motivation (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2018). They foster close relationships with subordinates and demonstrate empathy as indicated by the construct of individualised consideration. These leaders also generate curiosity and interest in subordinates as they discover new work methods, measured by intellectual stimulation.

Transformational leadership impacts organisations positively when:

- Subordinates agree with the vision as set out by the leader.

- Leaders widen the curiosities and interests of subordinates.

- Leaders stimulate subordinates to grow and develop themselves.

- Leaders live the values of the organisation.

- Leaders influence subordinates enough to exhibit extraordinary effort to achieve tasks.

Table 5 provides a brief overview of transformational leadership, one of the main components of the overall leadership model. This leadership style, characterised by the capacity to inspire and motivate employees to work for the greater benefit of a self-interested, group or organisation, is widely acknowledged to positively affect performance and satisfaction. The table below summarises the dimensions, essential characteristics, and potential impact of transformational leadership on teams and organisations.

Table 5: Summary of transformational leadership

Construct	Conduct	Descriptors
Individualised Consideration	Leader supports subordinates to expand their potential by developing their skills, knowledge, and competencies.	• personal attention • learning opportunities • treated as an individual • coach • help and support
Intellectual Stimulation	Leader challenges subordinates to think differently about problems and solutions.	• sets high expectations • clear vision • communicates expectations clearly and motivates subordinates
Inspirational Motivation	Leader converses performance standards clearly.	• Communicate a clear purpose • sets high standards • communicate expectations clearly
Idealised Influence (Attributes)	Subordinates have faith and trust in their leader.	• proud • belief • respect

and	• trust
(Behaviours)	

Source: (Bass & Riggio, 2006)

The research proposes that transformational leadership pleases the higher-level needs of subordinates by being inspirational and encouraging subordinates to make significant contributions (Yukl & Gardner, 2020). This theory suggests that leaders have many tools to increase work engagement by developing a transformational leadership style (Bakker, Hetland, Olsen, & Espevik, 2022). Some suggestions include the following:

- Coaching – A leader needs to be thoughtful toward the potential career paths of subordinates.
- Development - Providing subordinates with skills and presenting them with opportunities through training interventions.
- Feedback - Offer regular feedback sessions on work progress and discover ways to reward them appropriately.
- Responsibility - Be clear about performance expectations and hold subordinates accountable for their results.
- Participation – Involve subordinates in the decision-making process. Ask for their views and opinions to discover what is important to them.
- Communication – Clear and frequent information-sharing sessions where the leader must listen and respond appropriately.

Nemanich and Keller (2007) examined the effect of transformational leadership on 447 employees at one multinational organisation which merged with another. The research indicated that leadership constructs such as encouraging an idealised future, inspirational motivation, individualised consideration, and intellectual stimulation were positively associated with work engagement and organisational performance (Nemanich & Keller, 2007).

Rowold and Heinitz (2007) conducted a leadership study of 220 employees in Germany. The research indicated that the presence of transformational leadership improved subordinates' performance as well as company profits. Groenewald and

Ashfield (2008) noticed a connection between organisational stability and transformational leadership. The study determined that transformational leaders reduce insecurity in organisations and direct subordinates through changing environments to achieve goals (Groenewalt & Ashfield, 2008).

Bakker, et al. (2022) examined the impact of transformational leadership on follower behaviour using the transformational leadership model. The study indicated that this leadership style could develop subordinates' talents and inspire personal growth, which positively impacts work engagement and performance. An analysis of the responses of 57 Norwegian Navy cadets over a 30-day period revealed that when leaders engage in transformational behaviour, followers are more likely to utilise their strengths and take the initiative, resulting in greater engagement and improved performance.

The results of these case studies contribute to the literature on transformational leadership by demonstrating how leaders can inspire their adherents to lead independently. Furthermore, these studies indicate that transformational leaders recognise the needs of subordinates but still emphasise productivity. Examples of well-known transformational leaders include Elon Musk, Jeff Bezos, Steve Jobs, Richard Branson, Tony Hsieh and Herb Kelleher.

During the last 60 years, leadership research centred around autocratic versus democratic leadership, participative versus directive decision making and relationship versus task-focused leadership. Recent research suggests a significant shift in leadership approaches towards fostering a culture of motivation, inspiration and empowerment. This shift is driven by a strong emphasis on individual development and developing the unique strengths of subordinates. Therefore, current leadership practices emphasise organisational change and growing individuals (Daft, 2022).

Transformational and transactional leadership styles can supplement each other, but Robbins & Judge (2019) proposed that a transactional leader who lacked transformational abilities would be a run-of-the-mill leader (Robbins & Judge, 2019). Various studies agree that transformational leadership generates better organisational performance than transactional leadership (Yukl & Gardner, 2020). Transformational leadership produces better results than expected, whereas transactional leadership

produce results in line with expected outcomes (Northouse, 2021). Table 6 indicates the main distinctions between the styles.

Transformational and transactional leadership are often contrasted in the study of full-range leadership, each with distinctive characteristics and implications. Transformational leadership involves inspiring and motivating followers to exceed their personal goals for the collective benefit of the organisation, frequently fostering a culture of innovation, ethical behaviour, and sustainable growth. In contrast, transactional leadership relies on a system of rewards and punishments to accomplish specific objectives and maintain the status quo. Although both leadership styles can be effective in various contexts, they offer different perspectives on how leaders influence team dynamics and shape organisational culture.

Table 6: Distinctions between transformational and transactional leadership

Purpose		Ethics		Time	
Transformational	Transactional	Transformational	Transactional	Transformational	Transactional
Producing a common purpose and resolution.	Disjointed purpose leads to upholding the status quo.	Exceedingly high ethical standards of self and organisation.	No obvious ethics - the leader's aims may be ethical or unethical.	Attention is on long term goals.	Focus is on the leader's and subordinates' shorter-term requirements.

Sources: Northouse, 2021; Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020; Yukl & Gardner, 2020

Table 6 compares transformational and transactional leadership in detail, concentrating on the dimensions of purpose, ethics, and time. It differentiates transformational leadership from transactional leadership, which focuses more on rewarding or punishing performance based on predetermined goals. Transformational leadership strives to inspire and motivate followers to exceed their personal goals for the greater good of the organisation (Mokgolo, Mokgolo, & Modiba, 2012). The table also discusses the ethical aspect of both leadership styles, highlighting how transformational leaders frequently serve as role models and promote a culture of honesty and integrity. In contrast, transactional leaders predominantly operate within an undetermined ethical framework. It also emphasises the temporal perspective of each leadership style. Transformational leadership tends to be more forward-thinking

and long-term oriented, whereas transactional leadership focuses primarily on immediate results.

In conclusion, transformational leadership is a powerful theory and method for fostering a culture of continuous improvement and promoting positive change within organisations (Bakker, Hetland, Olsen, & Espevik, 2022). It's not just about managing; it's also about inspiring and motivating team members to exceed their individual goals for the organisation's collective success. Developing effective organisational leadership, particularly transformational leadership, is a lifetime commitment for leaders. Continuous growth and self-improvement are necessary for leaders to influence others and effect transformational change in their organisations. Because change is the only constant in our continually evolving world, leaders must continuously alter and enhance their leadership practises. Ultimately, leaders can ensure the long-term success of their organisations by maintaining a commitment to self-improvement and cultivating transformational leadership skills.

2.3.4.3 Transactional leadership

Transactional leaders are task focused. These leaders are good at setting goals, observing performance, and providing consequences for both failure and success (Gibson, et al., 2012). Transactional leadership is viewed as a contract, as the leader trades remuneration rewards or punitive penalties for task completion (Avolio & Bass, 2004). This leadership style endorses a give-and-take between the subordinate and leader and is detected in four constructs: constructive, corrective, passive and active (Northouse, 2021).

Offering rewards for achieving goals and checking for faults and mistakes are core actions connected to the role of management in organisations. Transactional leaders exhibit these behaviours by offering rewards for task attainment and watching deviations and errors. Transactional leadership describes leaders who identify what subordinates desire (the reward) and then assist them in achieving a level of performance that will ensure results, knowing that the reward will please their needs (Northouse, 2021; Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020; Yukl & Gardner, 2020).

Transactional leaders focus on task achievement and managing errors, whereas transformational leaders use change management practices to improve work methods to achieve the organisational vision. Transformational leaders can change organisational culture, systems, processes, and business philosophies (Gibson, et al., 2012; Baumruk, et al., 2006).

Every construct will be discussed below (Avolio & Bass, 2004):

- Constructive state refers to transactional leaders who set up work agreements whilst determining the subordinates' level of competence. They agree on the rewards that may be expected for successfully completing the tasks.
- Using the corrective state, transactional leaders focus on setting work standards.
- Using the passive state, the leader waits for work mistakes to happen before taking decisive corrective action.
- During the active state, the leader proactively monitors possible mistakes and faults.

Transactional leadership is present in most organisations and has been widely accepted. Leaders provide subordinates with something that they want in exchange for something that the leaders want. Transactional leaders persuade subordinates by exchanging tangible rewards for desired task outcomes. An example would be to provide subordinated financial bonuses for achieving a specific performance target. Transactional leaders compensate subordinates when they realise agreed objectives (Northouse, 2021; Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020; Yukl & Gardner, 2020).

Transactional leadership refers to a reasonable negotiation regarding the needs and desires of both parties (Yukl & Gardner, 2020). The leader and subordinate deliberate what targets must be achieved, what resources will be required, the conditions that need to be met and what the rewards will be. Transactional leaders clarify the task, responsibility, structure, term, and expectation with the subordinate to reach the desired outcomes (Bakker, Hetland, Olsen, & Espevik, 2022).

Transactional Leadership consists of three outcomes. These are:

2.3.4.3.1 Contingent reward (CR)

This construct is the most positive element of transactional leadership. Leaders use it to define what and how things should be done and then reward subordinates when the goals have been achieved. Contingent reward requires clear understandings to be in place about what each party will do. Leaders use goal-setting techniques to show subordinates what needs to be completed to receive the desired reward. The target-setting process may be directive or participatory, depending on the competence level of the subordinate. Contingent reward is the keystone to developing effective teams in organisations. This construct also forms the foundation of organisational trust and is effective when leaders work with subordinates to agree on what needs to be done. Contingent reward, however, does not develop the potential of subordinates.

2.3.4.3.2 Management by exception

This transactional style refers to managers who focus on critical performance areas. Only noteworthy nonconformities from the plan are conveyed to the leader's attention and are then actioned. The leader's attention is fixated only on areas in the business demanding urgent action for improvement.

Management by exception comprises an active and passive state. Using the active state, leaders look for errors before they happen. Once mistakes or errors have been detected, leaders take instantaneous action and will insist on immediate correction of the errors. This management style will most likely produce a workforce of risk-avoiders that will focus on meeting operating standards. Subordinates will not try to innovate, as this may create undesirable responses from the leader. Subordinates working under this leadership style will not execute work at optimum levels.

The second state of Management by Exception is known as passive. Using this state, errors must occur before the leader acts; therefore, leaders do not actively look for errors and will only act when the mistakes have happened. They leave subordinates alone until errors are brought to their attention. This reactive style therefore

concentrates on corrective and disciplinary action once mistakes have occurred, as these leaders will criticise rather than praise.

The active and passive forms create atmospheres that do not encourage creativity and innovation as subordinates try to avoid risk and only achieve at an acceptable performance standard.

2.3.4.3.3 Laissez-faire (Avoidant)

This leadership style defines leaders who think that the development and management of subordinates are the duty of the organisation or someone else. These leaders do not take any initiative or action, yet they will defend their leadership style, believing they empower subordinates by giving them autonomy. These leaders think they delegate, but they do not; they are indifferent with no development plans for subordinates, and should a subordinate develop under this leadership style; it will simply be by chance. This style is labelled as ineffective or non-leadership.

In summary, transformational leadership is a prevalent leadership theory which has captured the imagination of scholars, practitioners, and organisations. Transactional and transformational leadership research have both become popular since transformational leadership is viewed as an answer for creating higher levels of work engagement. Studies suggest numerous strengths related to transformational leadership.

Firstly, the theory has been exhaustively researched from many perspectives, including quantitative, qualitative, and mixed-method perspectives. It has been the focal point of leadership research from 1990 to 2000, with 34% of all journal papers published on transformational leadership theory (Northouse, 2021).

Secondly, transformational leadership centres around the influence that leaders have on subordinates, yet the theory focuses on subordinates' needs. Thirdly, this approach supplements other leadership theories. Fourthly, it concentrates on the subordinate's development and, finally, research studies recommend it as an effective style of organisational leadership (Northouse, 2021).

Leadership is not a mystery but a visual function in the organisation (Yukl G. , 2013). The Full-range leadership continuum ranges from ineffective styles (Passive Avoidant) to the most dynamic and current style known as transformational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Transactional leadership relies on management by exception and contingent reward to drive performance. On the other hand, transformational leadership exhibits sought-after qualities such as being creative and aware of the needs of subordinates and being able to motivate subordinates. Research suggests that transformational leaders enable employees to grow and develop by encouraging participation and involvement on all levels (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Managers who have transformational leadership abilities will engage subordinates by noticing their strengths, communicating expectations for performance, facilitating their development, and inspiring them to perform beyond what the organisation expects.

2.3.5 Servant leadership

Business excellence is needed to improve organisational processes (Mbandlwa & Fagbadebo, 2020). Therefore, organisations are responsible for developing managers who will become leaders and will empower subordinates to deliver on the organisational strategy. There is a palpable and rapid shift in many organisations away from the old-style hierarchical and autocratic leadership models toward becoming serving leaders as a better way of building relationships with subordinates (Grint, 2010). Servant leaders are virtuous, exhibit a sincere commitment to their followers, and serve the organisational requirements of their subordinates (Mahembe & Engelbrecht, 2013; Northouse, 2021; Daft, 2022)

Organisational servant leadership is about improving subordinates to achieve shared goals by accelerating individual development and empowering subordinates whilst remaining concerned with the welfare and health of followers (Daft, 2022). Servant leadership seeks to involve others in decision-making, is firmly based on ethical and caring behaviour, and enhances the growth of subordinates while improving the caring and quality of organisational life. R Greenleaf introduced servant leadership for the first time in 1977 and believed that a servant leader is, first and foremost, a subordinate with the intention to serve (Greenleaf, 2003). Servant leadership is a holistic approach aiming to engage followers in four dimensions: emotional, relational, ethical, and

spiritual. Its purpose is to empower subordinates to grow into what they can become (Eva, Robin, Sendjaya, van Dierendock, & Liden, 2019).

Current studies suggest that servant leadership research can be characterised into three distinct phases. The first phase fixated on the theoretical development of servant leadership, concentrating on the works of Greenleaf (1977), while the second phase, also known as the measurement phase, focused on developing and categorising measurements of servant leadership. This phase also tested the relationships between servant leadership and cross-sectional research outcomes. We are now in the third phase of servant leadership research (Eva, et al., 2019). This is known as the model development improvement phase, moving beyond superficial relationships to comprehending the antecedents, mediating and moderating conditions of servant leadership. Reviewing the research indicated a proliferation of studies on servant leadership, with over 100 articles and two meta-analyses published on Servant leadership in the last four years alone (Eva, Robin, Sendjaya, van Dierendock, & Liden, 2019).

Servant leaders focus their priorities first on followers and then on organisational goals (Sendjaya, 2015). The words servant and leader are typically supposed to be opposites, but by intentionally bringing those words together, Robert Greenleaf gave birth to the contradictory term servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977). A servant leader's highest priority is serving subordinates' needs. The servant-leader, therefore, is the servant first. It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to help others in a meaningful way (Smith, Montagno, & Kuzmeko, 2004).

Traditional leadership models are trait, behaviour or contingency-based, but servant leadership emerges from the deep-seated values and principles of the leader (Eva, Robin, Sendjaya, van Dierendock, & Liden, 2019). And although both servant leadership and transformational leadership are influential styles that prioritise the well-being and growth of followers, their primary emphasis differs. A transformational leader prioritises inspiring and motivating followers to surpass their individual goals. It involves encouraging change and innovation and encouraging followers to leave their comfort zone and pursue ambitious objectives (Bakker, Hetland, Olsen, & Espevik, 2022). In contrast, a servant leader prioritises the needs and development of followers. Oftentimes, servant leaders place the team's welfare, development, and

empowerment ahead of their own aspirations. The primary purpose of servant leadership is to facilitate individual development and foster a strong sense of community. Servant leadership theory postulates that leaders develop subordinates to the point of self-actualisation by serving them and ensures that subordinates' needs have the highest priority.

Greenleaf (1977) suggested that the best test for servant leadership is: do those served grow as persons? While serving, do subordinates become healthier, wiser, more autonomous, and more likely to become servant leaders? Furthermore, what is the effect on the least privileged; will they benefit, or at least not be further deprived? (Greenleaf, 1977). Greenleaf identified ten servant leadership characteristics: listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualisation, foresight, stewardship, growth of people, and building community.

Each of these concepts is discussed in more detail below (Northouse, 2021):

2.3.5.1 Listening

Traditionally leaders have been respected for their decision-making and communication skills. Though these are also essential skills for the servant leader, they need to be reinforced through a deep commitment to listening intently to subordinates. The servant leader seeks to identify a group's will and helps clarify that will by listening and understanding. Listening also includes hearing one's inner voice, therefore listening, combined with moments of reflection, is crucial to the development of the servant leader.

2.3.5.2 Empathy

A servant leader attempts to empathise with others, and makes subordinates feel accepted and recognised for their uniqueness. Servant leaders assume the good intentions of subordinates and do not reject them as humans, even when a leader is obliged not to accept certain behaviours. They are skilled, empathetic listeners.

2.3.5.3 Healing

Healing is a commanding force for organisational transformation, thus,a great strength of servant leaders is the ability to heal themselves and their relationships with subordinates. Greenleaf (1977) writes, "There is something subtle communicated to one who is being served and led if, implicit in the compact between servant-leader and led, is the understanding that the search for wholeness is something they share".

2.3.5.4 Awareness

Self-awareness boosts the servant-leader and assists them in understanding concerns relating to power, ethics, and values. Such awareness allows them to view most circumstances from an integrated, holistic perspective.

2.3.5.5 Persuasion

Another characteristic of a servant leader is their ability to persuade followers rather than relying on their positional authority. Servant leaders try to convince others rather than force obedience, and this component offers one of the most apparent differences between the traditional authoritarian model and that of servant leadership. A servant leader is successful at consensus-building within groups.

2.3.5.6 Conceptualisation

Servant leaders develop their abilities to dream grand visions, and this ability to look at a problem from a conceptualising perspective means that they think beyond the day-to-day realities. Traditional leadership is consumed by the need to achieve short-term operational goals, however, servant leaders broaden their thinking by seeking a delicate balance between theoretical thinking and a practical operational approach.

2.3.5.7 Foresight

Closely related to conceptualisation, foresight is the ability to predict a situation's likely outcome. It is a characteristic which allows the servant leader to learn lessons from the past, face the present realities, and consider the likely consequence of a decision for the future. Foresight is deeply entrenched within an intuitive mind.

2.3.5.8 Stewardship

Stewardship is defined as keeping something in trust for another. For example, Robert Greenleaf's view of all organisations was one in which managers and subordinates both played significant roles in holding their institutions in trust for the greater good of society. Servant leadership suggests a strong commitment to serving the needs of others and emphasises the use of openness and influence rather than command and control.

2.3.5.9 Commitment to the growth of people

Servant leaders believe that subordinates have an intrinsic value beyond their physical contributions at work, and they are deeply committed to the development of subordinates in their organisations. Consequently, the servant leader recognises the tremendous responsibility to do everything possible to nurture subordinates' personal and professional growth.

2.3.5.10 Building community

Servant leaders build up communities within a given organisation. They believe that organisational communities can be rebuilt not by mass movements but by each servant-leader demonstrating their unlimited liability for a specific community-related group. It is therefore a requirement that a servant leader prioritises the needs of subordinates to assist them in becoming more knowledgeable and healthier. This will allow them to take on more responsibilities in the workplace (Yukl & Gardner, 2020).

The ten characteristics of servant leadership are by no means exhaustive. They do, however, communicate the potential that this theory offers to those open to its invitation and challenge. Interest in servant leadership theory continues to increase, and significant progress has been made over the past four decades; however, the theory still has its critics. Unanswered questions remain regarding the conceptual and empirical commonality between servant and transformational leadership, and ethical and authentic leadership (Yasir & Mohamad, 2016). Research also criticises servant leadership as it is perceived to be restricted by its research design limitations.

In this section, several qualities and benefits of servant leadership have been highlighted, but research also indicates possible negative consequences of servant leadership. There is thus an ominous risk to organisations if they choose the welfare of the employees above the need for financial performance in the organisation. It is, therefore, an intelligent balancing act. Northouse (2021) suggests that more research is required to understand the impact of servant leadership on the various stakeholders in organisations.

Table 7 below provides a concise and exhaustive summary of the important leadership theories that have influenced our understanding of leadership over time. These include the Great Man Theory, which asserts that leaders are born, not made; trait theory, which identifies specific characteristics associated with effective leadership; behavioural theories focusing on the specific behaviour of successful leaders; participation theories emphasising the involvement of team members in the decision-making process; situational leadership theory, which asserts that effective leadership depends on the situation; and contingency theories, which focus on the influence of external factors on leadership.

This table is intended to summarise the key principles of each leadership theory and provide an overview of their distinct perspectives on leadership. The objective is to develop a comparative framework that highlights the similarities and differences of each theory in order to comprehend their individual and collective contributions to leadership theory and practise. By summarising these perspectives, the table is a useful resource for both novices and seasoned leaders seeking to expand their understanding of leadership. It provides an overview of the development of leadership theories over time, illustrating their adaptation to shifting social and organisational contexts.

Table 7: Summary of the seminal leadership theories

	Theory Definition	Sub-Theories	Leader traits and effectiveness	Research concerns
Great Man Theory	Leaders are born with traits of leadership, therefore, leadership cannot be developed or made.	None.	Leaders are gifted with different traits at birth which cannot be pre-determined.	Leadership is only gifted to a few people. Many birthed leaders displayed inappropriate behaviour.
Trait Theory	Builds on the Great Man theory. Individuals inherit qualities and abilities. Those born with special characteristics become great leaders.	None.	Traits had to be identified and compared with others, such as: charisma, confidence, creativity, intelligence, initiative, accountability.	Traits are not dependant on the situation and does not focus on results or improvements. Also, traits do not change or develop over time.
Behavioural Theories	The leader's success is dependant by the demonstrated behaviour of the leader and can be learned or developed.	Role Theory	Role theory suggest that leader behaviour is influenced by the expectations of other members.	The theory assume that people will act or behave as anticipated in the required leadership role.
		Blake-Mouton Managerial Grid	Based on two aspects, concern for person and concern for task with five different leadership styles: 'impoverished management', 'country club', 'Middle-of-the-road', 'Team management' and 'Task-oriented'. It fits well in a competitive environment.	The model is regarded as too simplistic for the complex problems that leaders face and that many dimensions of leadership are not included. Also, factors outside of leader is not considered such as cultures, team, and business environment.

Participative Leadership	Leaders can adapt their approach and style by looking for clues regarding the task, team, and individuals.	Lewin's Leadership Styles Theory	Three important leadership styles were identified as authoritarian (do not consult), democratic (participation) and laissez-faire (low involvement).	There cannot be only three types of leaders and, therefore, the model is too simplistic and inadequate.
		Likert's Leadership Style Theory	Likert developed four management systems of leadership: Exploitive authoritative, Benevolent authoritative, Consultative leadership, and Participative leadership.	Based on decision making with a top-down approach of the industrial era. Not that relevant to flat structured modern-day organisations.
Situational Leadership	The leadership style is dependent on a situation. Leaders aligns leadership activities with the organisational goals.	Situational Leadership	Derived from four basic behaviours: Tell, Participate, Delegate, and Sell, based on the maturity levels of subordinates.	This theory focusses on immediate or short-term goals or when repetitive tasks must be completed.
		Vroom-Yetton-Jago Leadership Theory	Leaders make decisions in different situations and the best suited style. Three factors are incorporated into five decision-making styles.	This theory focusses only on one aspect of the leader behaviour - selecting different decision processes for different problem situations.
		Path-Goal Theory	The leader must provide clarity of the path to achieve desired goals and clarity on benefits to the team on achieving them.	The theory does not explain the relationship between leader behaviour and

			subordinate motivation.	
Contingency Leadership	Leaders are either task or relationship orientated. Job design should match the leaders' style.	Fiedler's LPC Theory	There is no one best leadership style for all situations. Therefore, the right leader must match with the right situation.	This theory is limited as leadership styles cannot be changed as per the situation.
		Leader-Member Exchange	Compartmentalise subordinates into groups known as "in-group members and out-group members". In-group members receive more challenging tasks and receive more meaningful rewards.	The theory does have the potential to alienate subordinates and break down team dynamics as well social identity.
Transactional Leadership	A managerial functioning leadership style with emphasis on supervision and team performance. Leaders are more task-oriented in this approach and use rewards and punishments for motivation.	None	The approach postulates that the performance of the team is purely based on the chain of command and the goal of the subordinate is to obey the directions of the leader by following rules.	This theory has the capability of decreasing employee engagement, motivation, performance, and creativity.
Transformational Leadership	This theory increases the performance level, engagement, and morale of subordinates based on the personality and behaviour of the leader.	None	Four factors include idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration.	This theory does not consider the impact that narcistic or destructive leaders with charisma and power can have in organisations.
	Leaders are seen as servants of their subordinates and get	None	Servant leader focus on the needs of others before	Servant leaders minimise their managerial

Servant Leadership	results through attention to their followers' needs.		they consider their own and include principles such as honour other, inspire vision, ethics, empower others, humility.	authority and decisions can therefore take longer. Leaders are possibly seen as weak.

2.4 Emic and etic leadership perspectives

Leadership is a popular field of knowledge that has grown exponentially (Blom & Alvesson, 2015). Moreover, scholars and researchers convey a worldview to their research, whether they make it explicit, and this can be defined as a "set of beliefs or values that inform the researcher how to undertake the study" (Guba, 1990, p. 17). These beliefs may relate to the types of evidence used to make claims (epistemology) or whether the researcher considers reality singular or multiple (ontology). For example, reality can be found in a theory which assists in explaining behaviour among a large number of people, or reality can be determined by different individual perspectives instead of one general elucidation (Creswell J. W., 2015).

In cross-cultural environments, behavioural research studies must distinguish between culture-specific and general aspects of the behaviour (Den Hartog, et al., 1999). As briefly mentioned in Chapter 1, Pike (1967) was the first to use the terms "emic" and "etic" to differentiate between phonetics (the general characteristics of vowel sounds in distinct languages) and phonemics (the specific use of one language). Berry (1969) subsequently applied these terms to cross-cultural psychology. He used the term "ethical human behaviour" to define the universal study of human behaviour, expanding the application of Pike's classification beyond linguistics. By definition, etic behaviours are extant across different cultures using standard definitions and metrics. Emic behaviour is latent and unique to specific cultures. It is described as seen from the perspective of cultural insiders (Ion, Iliescu, Ilie, & Ispas, 2016).

All leadership theories are dependent on their historical, cultural and ideological context, and various taxonomies have been developed in the last century to define

leadership dimensions (Northouse, 2021). Moreover, since the end of the 1990s, many researchers have suggested developing more inclusive leadership theories by using emic and etic perspectives in their studies (Ayman & Korabik, 2010; Den Hartog et al., 1999; Nkomo, 2011). Several etic-based leadership studies have sought to distinguish organisational leadership from management by focussing on the role of formal managers. Still, most studies, however, indicated that organisational leaders deal with the entire range of managerial behaviours and activities (Hunter, et al., 2007).

Leadership definitions arising from etic studies are broad, almost always optimistic and inclusive of various aspects of organisational life. Such leadership definitions are also strongly pro-leadership and are inclined to infer more and enhanced leadership as the formula for organisational success. Nevertheless, the majority of etic leadership definitions share little in common except for the word influence (Day & Antonakis, 2012). In this regard, Blom and Alvesson (2015) suggest that most organisational interactions and social relations include the word influence in one form or another and that the word influence, therefore, "does not say enough to describe leadership" (Blom & Alvesson, 2015). Overall, an exhaustive review of the literature indicates that there is little consensus or agreement about the primary meaning of organisational leadership. Several authors suggest a broad etic leadership definition as 'having followers', but Grint (2010) points out that influencing followers does not define leadership comprehensively.

Most leadership scales and instruments are etic by design, and subsequently, emic (culture-specific) aspects remain latent in these measurement tools (Blom & Alvesson, 2015). Most etic-based leadership research studies recognise the leader's role in creating change and the manager's role in maintaining stability, yet, it is the same person that needs to accomplish both roles. Research suggests that organisational leadership covers many responsibilities that managers do, including managing operations, solving problems, handling conflicts, managing expenses and general administration.

The general assumption is that leadership and management are ongoing and evolving functions in organisations and that a continuous etic and emic perspective will develop

organisational managers into better leaders. Previous studies agree that the exclusive use of an etic approach is often unsuitable, especially when the emphasis on commonalities can lead to the omission of distinctive characteristics of a specific culture (Grobler & Singh, 2018). This problem can be addressed through the conceptualisation, development and validation of context-specific emic constructs and instruments (from a South African perspective).

Etic and emic interpretations must be studied in context (Ion, et al., 2016). An emic leadership perspective is a viewpoint that leadership resides within a single culture (Lu, 2012). For instance, South Africa, an emerging and developing country, has a unique organisational environment; it is one of the sturdiest African economies and a resilient competitor in global markets. Additionally, it is globally respected for its diversity in ethnicity, language and culture (Mbandlwa & Fagbadebo, 2020). This emic perspective challenges etic leadership philosophies in trying to conceptualise, identify and define leadership constructs in a South African context. Furthermore, a history of segregation still scars South Africa, yet organisational and political leaders keep on encouraging South Africans to work together in unity towards a better future and not to get stuck on the wrongdoings of the past.

In this study, emic organisational leadership behaviours have been conceptualised and defined systematically from both a theoretical and practical perspective through a mixed-method methodology. Discovering this cultural distinctiveness in leadership behaviours has created an idea of inclusiveness and has enlarged cross-cultural leadership findings. This study has considered etic leadership theories to strengthen the efficacy of this cross-cultural emic leadership research study. Therefore, both the emic and etic perspectives have been considered and evaluated simultaneously.

In summary, both etic and emic perspectives are relevant and meaningful. Both perspectives demonstrate the interactive leader-follower relationship (Wang, 2015). South Africa is regarded as an important emerging market. By conceptualising, identifying and understanding specific emic leadership behaviours, this study has provided a measure of organisational leadership behaviours in a South African context.

2.5 Contemporary Leadership Theories

Contemporary leadership theories depart from traditional leadership models to better explain and navigate the complexities of the contemporary organisational environment. These theories emerged in the late 20th and early 21st centuries in response to the increasing complexity, diversity, and rapid change of a globalised world. Some contemporary theories of these include:

- Digital Leadership: Leaders utilise digital technologies effectively to improve communication, collaboration, and innovation, while also addressing related ethical and privacy concerns (Sagbas & Erdogan, 2022).
- Agile Leadership: This leadership style prioritises adaptability, resiliency, and responsiveness, and promotes continuous learning, innovation, and an agile approach to problem-solving (Akkaya, 2020).
- Sustainable Leadership: Leaders balance their economic, social, and environmental responsibilities, making decisions that support long-term organisational success without jeopardising the health of future generations or the planet (Liao, 2022).
- Complexity Leadership Theory (CLT) arose in response to the increasing complexity of today's organisational environments. It moves away from the traditional, top-down hierarchical leadership structure and instead emphasises leadership as a complex and interactive dynamic. It was developed in the early 21st century by Uhl-Bien, Marion, and McKelvey in 2007.

Although many newer theories can be reviewed, this study will explore Complexity Leadership Theory as the theory sought to provide a more modern framework for understanding leadership, considering the interactive and emergent nature of complex organisational systems.

2.5.1 Complexity leadership theory

Complexity Leadership Theory (CLT) is a modern leadership theory emphasising the dynamic interplay between order and disorder in organisational systems. Uhl-Bien, Marion, and McKelvey presented CLT at the beginning of the twenty-first century. Traditional leadership models from the previous century, which were designed for top-down bureaucratic structures, have proved successful in economies based on physical production (Uhl-Bien, 2021). However, these models cannot compete with our emerging knowledge economy (Uhl-Bien, Marion, & McKelvey, Complexity Leadership Theory: Shifting leadership from the industrial age to the knowledge era, 2007).

Complexity leadership theory promotes learning, creativity, and adaptation of complex adaptive systems (CAS) in knowledge-based organisations (Olalere, 2015). It describes three interdependent leadership roles: adaptive leadership, administrative leadership, and enabling leadership. These roles illustrate the dynamic interaction between the traditional functions of an organisation and the spontaneous and informal dynamics of complex adaptive systems (CAS) (Baltaci & Balci, 2017). The three constructs contribute to developing a nuanced, multifaceted, and adaptable view of leadership in today's increasingly complex organisational environment.

Administrative leadership is the first concept in CLT and refers to the formal, hierarchical leadership found in traditional organisational management. This style of leadership emphasises the planning, coordination, and monitoring of activities in accordance with organisational objectives. It focuses on bureaucratic and transactional processes such as strategy implementation, resource alignment, people management, and organisational performance monitoring. Given the limitations of a strictly top-down approach to managing complexity, administrative leadership must coexist and work synergistically with other forms of leadership in the context of CLT. In today's dynamic environment, while it is still essential for maintaining order, consistency and efficiency, it is not the only form of leadership that organisations need to flourish (Baltaci & Balci, 2017).

The second concept, adaptive leadership, is a non-traditional form of leadership that occurs within an organisation through communication, as opposed to formal leadership roles. Complex systems are characterised by emergent, self-organising, and adaptive interactions. This form of leadership is dynamic, adaptable, and flexible and can respond in real-time to changing conditions. Unlike administrative leadership, which is more structured and hierarchical, adaptive leadership permits innovation, creativity, and learning to occur organically within an organisation. By encouraging diverse perspectives and valuing all members' contributions, organisations can better adjust to changing conditions, seize new opportunities, and overcome unanticipated obstacles (Baltaci & Balci, 2017).

The third concept of CLT, enabling leadership, is the link between administrative and adaptive leadership. CLT empowers leaders to cultivate an environment conducive to adaptive leadership development. They accomplish this by fostering relationships, nurturing collaboration, facilitating communication, and managing potential tensions and conflicts between the administrative and adaptive facets of leadership. Enabling leaders acknowledge both the value of administrative leadership's order and the value of adaptive leadership's innovation. Then, they work to strike a balance between these opposing forces so that the organisation can capitalise on the benefits of both while mitigating the potential drawbacks of each. This includes managing the distinctions between these forms of leadership, limiting power dynamics, and cultivating a culture that values stability and change, efficiency and innovation, control and autonomy (Baltaci & Balci, 2017).

In conclusion, the three CLT constructs provide a holistic leadership perspective best adapted for managing the complexity and unpredictability of the contemporary organisational environment. By recognising the order provided by administrative leadership and the adaptability of adaptive leadership and balancing these forces with enabling leadership, organisations can better meet the challenges and capture the opportunities of the twenty-first century. Thus, CLT reflects an evolution in our understanding of organisational leadership that emphasises the importance of adaptability, flexibility, and dynamic interaction in complex systems.

Complexity leadership theory and other contemporary leadership theories, such as digital, agile, and sustainable leadership, provide a diverse and new perspective for understanding leadership in today's complex organisational environment. These theories emphasise the significance of employing technology, preserving adaptability, prioritising sustainability, and promoting a balance between economic, social, and environmental responsibilities. They offer a novel perspective that enables us to view leadership not as a static entity but as a dynamic, evolving process. This perspective is essential as we enter the 21st century, an era marked by accelerated technological advancements, increasing globalisation, and the need for sustainable practises. As we continue to understand and implement these theories, we will be better equipped to lead in today's complexities and anticipate tomorrow's challenges.

2.6 Conclusions on Leadership Theories

This chapter investigated the history and fundamental theories of leadership. Common philosophies emphasise the importance of the leader's ability to influence, motivate, and inspire followers, adapt their leadership style to different organisational circumstances, and uphold moral standards. The reviewed literature indicated that effective organisational leadership requires a blend of attributes, developed skills, and context-specific responses. Literature also highlighted the connection between supportive environments and organisational success. Combining the literature review in this chapter, this study postulates an all-encompassing leadership definition as a multi-dimensional social process that involves influencing and directing subordinates towards achieving shared goals by being adaptable, ethical, empowering, and by building effective relationships.

2.7 Summary of Chapter

In this chapter, we have examined some of the most significant and pertinent leadership theories. The significance of these theories' contributions to the development of leadership thought has been analysed, providing a deeper understanding of the dynamics of organisational leadership. The literature review

assisted in identifying the key factors underlying the investigation of the ethical and emic leadership behaviour scales central to this study.

The review of relevant literature emphasises the importance of leaders in organisations. The leader's strategies and decisions significantly impact the performance and success of any organisational unit. This exemplifies the complexity of leadership, in which leaders must navigate a process involving multiple interdependent tasks and people-focused behaviours.

Literature reveals that leadership is manifested through a complex web of situational and person-centered variables. There are numerous leadership theories, each with strengths, weaknesses, and context-specific differences. The review of the relevant literature revealed that academics have differing views on how to define effective organisational leadership and evaluate the significance of these theories.

This contributes to the complexity and depth of the discourse on leadership. In addition to highlighting the most recent trends and developments in leadership studies, the primary objective of this literature review was to provide a theoretical foundation for understanding leadership and the role of leaders in organisations. The thorough examination of existing literature established a solid foundation for the study, providing critical insights and a context for leadership research in South African organisations.

3. A STRUCTURED REVIEW OF LEADERSHIP LITERATURE IN AFRICA

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the reader with an overview of the previous research on leadership in an African context. A literature review process is a crucial research tool used to organise the abundance of knowledge for a specific academic question and is integral to any research project (Sharma, Aryan, Singh & Kaur, 2018). Furthermore, a review's quality depends on how well the information is synthesised in a systematic, transparent and reproducible manner (Creswell, 2015). This chapter will be presented in the form of a systematic literature review.

A systematic review collects and critically analyses multiple research studies by adopting a scientific, replicable, transparent process. A systematic review is among the highest levels of evidence for guiding decision-making and minimising bias through exhaustive literature searches (Sharma, et al., 2018). Systematic reviews together with pre-defined inclusion and exclusion criteria provide audit trails of the decisions, procedures and conclusions made by the reviewer's (Okoli, 2015; Tranfield, Denyer & Smart, 2003). Moreover, a systematic review provides insights through theoretical analysis and increases methodological rigour.

This chapter will address the following essential aspects concerning organisational leadership:

- A systematic review of bibliographic databases of African leadership literature published from 1960 to 2019 will be introduced and discussed (This period spans nearly six decades of leadership literature in Africa and provides valuable historical context and insight into the evolution of leadership theory and practise in African contexts).
- The results from the systematic literature review will be analysed, assessed and reviewed.

Leadership has evolved from the trait theory, through the contingency and situational models, to human relationships (Sharma,et al., 2018). However, there is a growing need for effective organisational leadership in Africa (Fourie, et al., 2017). Business environments have changed significantly over the last few years due to competition and global and macro-environmental forces. Therefore, organisations rely much on leadership to inspire and develop subordinates, create high-performing environments and achieve effectiveness.

Organisational leadership in Africa is one topic that creates opinionated conversations (Mbandlwa & Fagbadebo, 2020). Some debate that poor practices are the reason for low levels of responsible leadership in organisations, yet others believe leadership to be the solution for developing economies in Africa (Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020). Consequently, leadership practices provide an exciting opportunity for researchers interested in understanding the phenomena better (Manning & Curtis, 2012).

A literature review aims to identify, read and summarise the content relevant to its topic, moreover, it does not develop new arguments but considers the arguments of all researchers. Nevertheless, traditional reviews often lack rigour and thoroughness and can be biased by the researcher (Tranfield, Denyer, & Smart, 2003). A systematic literature review is considered one of the highest levels of evidence to inform future decision-making as it collects and analyses multiple research studies. Tranfield, Denyer, and Smart (2003), in their seminal work on the systematic review methodology, stress the need for an evidence-informed approach. This study therefore followed the methodological rigour suggested by them. Literature for a structured review is identified via organised searches of bibliographical databases, and the examination must be reproducible. Unlike a systematic literature review, a structured literature review is conducted by one person who completes the data extraction based on pre-defined inclusion and exclusion criteria, but the methodological rigour remains the same.

The current review mapped the existing research articles on leadership in Africa over the last 59 years, thus contributing to organisational leadership theory through a systematically and inductive approach to its research in Africa. The period 1960-2019 was selected to conduct a systematic review of African leadership literature for a

number of reasons. This expansive time frame helps to illustrate the rich and varied landscape of leadership theory and practise at various phases of African history.

Firstly, the period since the 1960s is a significant one in the history of many African nations, as it was during this time that many countries achieved independence. Thus, indigenous leadership styles and theories began to evolve and integrate, providing a useful starting point for comprehending the origins of African leadership practise. Second, this exhaustive timeline enabled this study to evaluate the development of leadership theory and practise over time. It explored how social change, economic development, globalisation, and other external influences have shaped and transformed African leadership.   Finally, extending the review up to 2019 ensures that the most recent and pertinent trends and issues in leadership were considered. Faced with today's difficulties such as technological advancements, shifting workforce demographics, and globalisation, leadership dynamics continue to evolve.

This review is expected to substantially contribute to the understanding of leadership in the African context by providing ample historical context, revealing patterns and changes over time, highlighting current trends in the African leadership literature, and encompassing such a broad time frame.

After considering the limitations of various search strategies, this researcher decided on the following steps to identify and analyse the articles included in the structured review.

The first step was to limit the review to digitised research articles. Respected academic journals were used for this study: EBSCO Host, Emerald, Sage, Science Direct and Sabinet. Articles published between 1960 and 2019 were included in the review. Search terms were "Leadership" and "Africa". These terms yielded 515 articles, as indicated in Table 8 below.

Table 8: Summary of articles downloaded

Journal	No of articles
Ebsco – Academic Search Premier	66
Ebsco – Business Source Complete	83
Ebsco – Masterfile	13
Ebsco - Socindex	44
Emerald	52
Sage	72
Science direct	136
Sabinet	49
Total	**515**

In a second step, articles that did not centre around leadership were removed. Each article was examined to determine if leadership was identified or measured in any form or way (i.e. organisational, political, cultural, religious, educational). Articles were kept where leadership were central to the argument and not merely used as business terminology. Several duplicates were also removed. During the second step, 344 articles were removed, which left a total of 171 leadership articles.

In a third step, the remaining 171 articles were subjected to another assessment by the researcher. Duplicates were removed, and articles that did not meet the leadership criteria were removed. This step entailed identifying articles with substantive and clearly identified leadership concepts or their application in Africa as part of its core research or argument. It was found that another 38 of these articles did not substantively reflect on the notion of leadership in Africa. Therefore 133 articles were included as the final sample.

The fourth step comprised a detailed coding analysis of each article. The intention was to recognise important themes regarding organisational leadership behaviours in an African and Southern African context. Other important topics included the method of study and emic approaches. As depicted in Figure 7, 382 out of 515 articles were rejected on the ground that it was not strongly related to the leadership topic. Finally,

133 articles were used for the structured review, which was strongly associated with leadership studies.

Selection of articles for review

```
              ┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
              │  Total articles sourced initially = 515 │
              └─────────────────────────────────────┘
                              │
                              │
┌───────────────────────────┐│
│ Articles out in first review = │◄─────┐
│      344 (Rejected)        │       │
└───────────────────────────┘       │
                                     │     ┌─────────────────────────┐
                                     ├────►│ Articles out in second   │
                                     │     │ review = 38 (Rejected)   │
                                     │     └─────────────────────────┘
                                     ▼
              ┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
              │ Articles related to the leadership  │
              │      study = 133 (Accepted)          │
              └─────────────────────────────────────┘
```
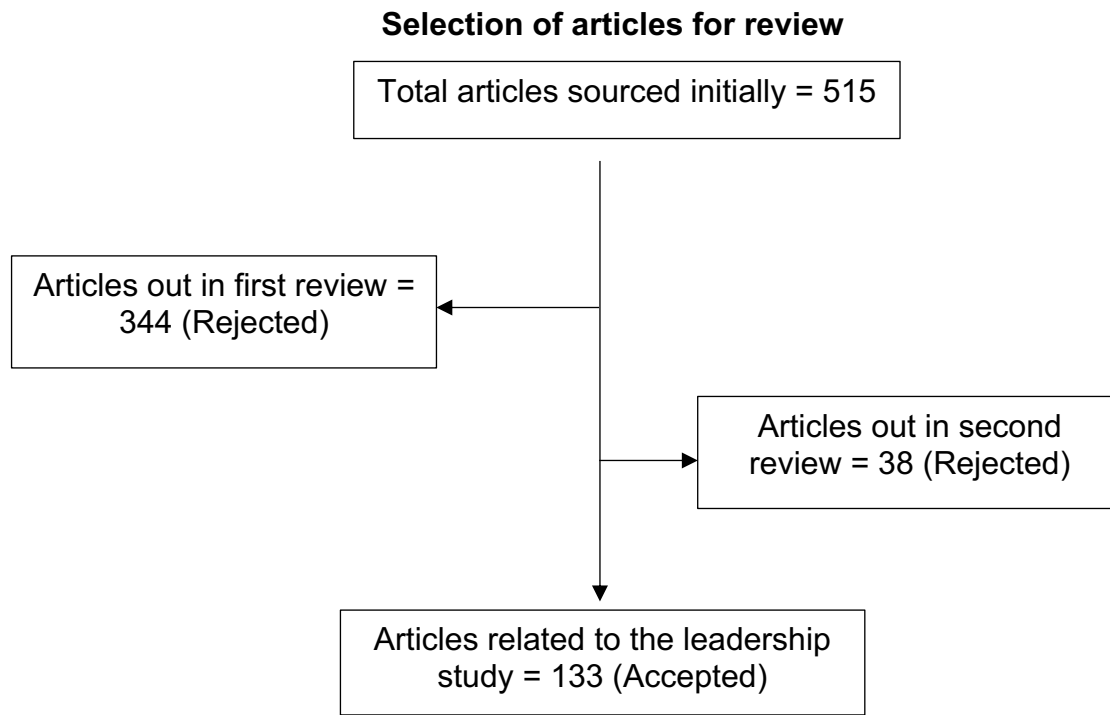
Figure 7: Selection of articles for review

This structured review was divided into five essential tasks:

- Explore the research articles that have been published between 1960 and 2019;
- A succinct outline of the accepted articles;
- Categorise the articles based on a coding framework;
- Investigate the most important trends relevant to this study;
- Suggest areas for future research.

Categorisation for the structured review had to be tabulated using a coding table. The structured literate review was intended to answer several questions, including the following:

- Is there evidence to indicate that leadership in Africa is different or similar to that of leadership in other parts of the world?

- What are the contextual factors that influence leadership and management in Africa?

- Have organisational leadership behaviours been identified that are unique to Africa?

- Are the similarities or differences in the perceptions of people in Africa and the rest of the world about organisational leadership?

3.2 Methods and coding techniques

To get to a point where conclusions could be drawn, the researcher had to code and categorise distinct features in each of the 133 articles. Each classification area had to be coded as A, B, C, D and E, respectively. Additionally, some articles covered multiple topics or domains; as a result, multiple codes were assigned to some articles on various important areas. Table 9 highlights the different classification areas used for this structured literature review.

Table 9: Summary of articles downloaded

Context	Developed countries
	Developing countries and emerging countries
	Least developed countries
	Not applicable
Geographical area	Northern Africa
	Eastern Africa
	Central Africa
	Western Africa
	Southern Africa
	Africa
Objective	Empirical study
	Case study
	Literature review
	Conceptual / Theoretical
	Other
Topics	Leadership style in general
	Moderating factors

		Mediating factors
		Attributes, Traits or Character
		Leadership perception
		Behaviour
		Other
		Leadership competencies
Theme		Political Leadership
		Leadership and Management
		Leadership Styles
		Leadership and Gender
		Leadership Development
		Leadership and Development
		Leadership and African Values
		Traditional Leadership
		Individual Leadership
		Leadership and Ideology
		Leadership in Education
		Leadership and Religion
		Local Leadership
		Leadership Communication
		Leadership Succession
		Leadership and Culture
		Leadership Effectiveness
		Autocratic
Leadership style evaluated		Empowering
		Strategic
		Transformational
		Laissez faire
		Mixed style
		Transactional
		Ubuntu
		Servant
		Traditional
		Motivational
		Ethical
		Not applicable
		Authentic
		Other
Type of study		Organisational
		Political
		Cultural
		Religious

	Educational School
	Educational University
	Other
Type of organisation	Government
	Manufacturing
	Service
	Trading
	Mixed
Time period	Less than 1 year
	2011-2018
	2000-2010
	1990-1999
	1980-1989
	1970-1979
	1960-1969
Method	Quantitative
	Qualitative
	Mixed method
	Case study
	Other
Measuring instrument	Existing
	New
	Other/None
IQA used	Yes
	No
Sample size	0-50
	51-100
	More than 100
	Other
Size of industry	Large
	Small and medium
	Other/None
Results	New perspectives
	Consistent with previous literature
	Previous model with different dataset/time period
	Comparative study
	Others
Type of Instrument	Emic instrument
	Etic Instrument
	None
Origin of main authors/university	American
	European

	African	
	Mixed	
	Other	
Gender of Author	Male	
	Female	
	Both	
Domain	Leadership	
	Management	
	Both	
	Neither	

In Table 9, the first classification is listed as context. Countries were classified into four series, i.e. developed country, developing and emerging countries, underdeveloped countries, and if the research were not done in a particular country, it was then categorised as not applicable. Codes A to D were used to classify the context of the study.

The following classification in Table 9 is the geographical area. For this review six geographical regions were identified, namely Northern Africa, Eastern Africa, Central Africa, Western Africa, and Southern Africa, represented by codes A to E. Code F was assigned to articles belonging to Africa but not to a specific region.

The third classification is based on the objective of the study. Code A was assigned to empirical studies in which a direct or indirect observation was made to gain leadership knowledge. Code B was used for the case study method. If the article made contributions based on a literature review of previous studies, it came under Code C. Code D was used if the article made a conceptual or theoretical contribution. In contrast, Code E was used for studies that did not fall into the above categories.

Topics of leadership formed the fourth classification. A topic refers to the subject presented within writing, in this case, leadership and explains what the article researched. Articles that investigated leadership style were coded as A. If leadership was considered the moderating factor, it came under Code B. If leadership was seen as the reason for the effect, the mediating factor it was coded under C. If the article highlighted the attributes, traits or characteristics of the leader, it came under Code D. Perceptions around leadership were coded as E. When the article focussed on leadership behaviours the article was coded as F. Code H was used for articles

concentrating on leadership competencies. If the article did not belong to any of the previous categorisations, it was coded as G.

The fifth classification was based on the leadership theme presented in the articles. This classification allowed the researcher to understand the central leadership idea conveyed in the articles. This classification further narrowed down the leadership research area, and codes ranging from A to O were assigned. It included themes resembling political leadership, leadership and management, leadership styles, leadership and gender, leadership development, leadership and African values, traditional leadership, individual leadership, leadership and ideology, leadership in education, local leadership, leadership communication, leadership culture, and leadership effectiveness.

The sixth classification attempted to categorise the leadership style evaluated in the article. It is coded from A to L. This classification is important because the leadership style motivates people and provides direction. Twelve specific styles were identified for the coding, and one code was assigned to a category where no leadership style was studied.

The type of study forms the basis of the seventh classification. It attempts to identify and categorise leadership articles based on the type of study. Codes A to G were assigned to organisational, political, cultural, religious, educational school and university studies. If the article did not belong to any previous categorisations, it was coded as other under G.

The eighth classification describes the industry. If the article studied leadership in government, it was coded as A. Code B was used for research done in manufacturing organisations. Service industries were coded as C and trading as D. Mixed industries were coded as E.

The ninth classification depicts the published period of the researched articles. In research reviews, it is essential to distinguish between the periods when the research was undertaken. The categorisation was done by creating seven codes ranging from A to G. Code A is assigned to articles with a time frame of less than a year (2019),

Code B indicates articles between 2011-2018, and Code C depicts articles published between 2000-2010, Code D was assigned to articles published between 1990-1999, Code E was given to articles between 1980-1989, Code F to articles published from 1970-1979 and Code G depicts articles published between 1960-1969.

The tenth classification involves identifying the research method used for the studies reviewed. Codes A to E have been assigned to this category. Of particular interest to this study is the mixed-method technique. Code A was used for qualitative studies, Code B for quantitative studies, Code C for mixed method studies and Code D for case studies. If a research article did not fall into these categories, it was marked as Code E, other.

The eleventh classification reveals the measuring instrument used during the study. This is directly linked to quantitative and mixed-method studies. If an existing instrument and scale was used it was coded as A. If a new instrument and scale was designed, Code B was used for the categorisation. If no measuring instrument was used, it was coded as C for none (e.g. qualitative and case studies).

The twelfth classification indicates whether Interactive Qualitative Analysis (IQA) was used as a systems method for qualitative research. IQA assists qualitative data collection through systematic coding and analysis. If IQA was used in the article, Code A was used, and if IQA was not used, Code B was chosen.

Sample size forms the basis of the thirteenth classification. The sample size reveals the group of subjects selected from the population. Codes ranged from A to D in this category. If a sample size was between 0-50, Code A was used. Code B included a sample size of 51-100, Code C indicated a sample size of more than 100, and Code D covered articles that did not fall into any of the above-mentioned categories.

The fourteenth classification indicated the industry's size and was coded from A to C. Different industries show different results, based on the number of employees, the span of control and the level of centralisation. Larger scale industries were coded as A, whereas small and medium industries were classified as B. Code C was used for others.

The fifteenth category indicated the results of the study. This category was divided into five groups from A to E. An attempt was made during this coding to understand the results from the study, based on the information gathered. It included whether new perspectives were formed or if the results were consistent with previous and other studies.

Identifying the origin of the instrument formed the bases of the sixteenth categorisation. Emic and etic perspectives indicate if culture-specific instruments were used during a study. If an etic instrument was used, the article was coded as A, and B was coded where an emic instrument was employed. Code C was used if no instrument was mentioned.

The seventeenth classification revealed the origin of the authors as either America, European, African, Mixed or other. It was important to identify whether or not an African author conducted the leadership study about Africa. The origin of the author was coded from A to E.

The gender of the author is the eighteenth classification and indicates if the authors of the article were male, female or a combination of both. Codes A to C was used for this classification.

Lastly, the nineteenth classification revealed whether the study was conducted under the domain of leadership, management, both or neither. There are different perspectives about the similarities and differences between organisational leadership and management. This categorisation allows insight into this debate and the categorisation of the domain. Codes A to D were used in this categorisation.

3.3 Results and discussion

This section explores the results of categorising the 131 leadership articles based on the codes assigned in the previous section. The coding results are indicated in Table 10, followed by an analysis and interpretation. Based on the results, research gaps will be identified for future research.

Table 10: Coding and categorisation of the reviewed literature

Context				
	Developed countries	A	5	4%
	Developing countries and emerging countries	B	120	90%
	Least developed countries	C	6	5%
	Not applicable	D	2	2%

Geographical area				
	Northern Africa	A	2	2%
	Eastern Africa	B	6	5%
	Central Africa	C	0	0%
	Western Africa	D	7	5%
	Southern Africa	E	89	67%
	Africa	F	29	22%

Objective				
	Emperical study	A	80	60%
	Case study	B	9	7%
	Literature review	C	16	12%
	Conceptual / Theoretical	D	28	21%
	Other	E	0	0%

Topics				
	Leadership style in general	A	39	29%
	Moderating factors (contexualising the effect)	B	12	9%
	Mediating factors (the reason for the effect)	C	6	5%
	Attributes, Traits or Character	D	32	24%
	Leadership perception	E	32	24%
	Behaviour	F	5	4%
	Other	G	2	2%
	Leadership competencies	H	5	4%

Theme				
Theme	Political Leadership	A	10	8%
	Leadership and Management	B	23	17%
	Leadership Styles	C	40	30%
	Leadership and Gender	D	5	4%
	Leadership Development	E	22	17%
	Leadership and Development	F	3	2%
	Leadership and African Values	G	4	3%
	Traditional Leadership	H	4	3%
	Individual Leadership	I	1	1%
	Leadership and Ideology	J	1	1%
	Leadership in Education	K	12	9%
	Local Leadership	L	4	3%
	Leadership Communication	M	1	1%
	Leadership and Culture	N	1	1%
	Leadership Effectiveness	O	2	2%

Leadership style evaluated				
Leadership style evaluated	Autocratic	A	5	4%
	Empowering	B	2	2%
	Strategic	C	5	4%
	Transformational	D	22	17%
	Laissez faire	E	0	0%
	Mixed style	F	35	26%
	Transactional	G	0	0%
	Ubuntu	H	7	5%
	Servant	I	4	3%
	Traditional	J	3	2%
	Motivational	K	0	0%
	Ethical	L	6	5%
	Not applicable	M	23	17%
	Authentic	N	6	5%
	Other	O	15	11%

Type of study				
Type of study	Organisational	A	67	50%
	Political	B	13	10%
	Cultural	C	8	6%

	Religious	D	0	0%
	Educational School	E	16	12%
	Educational University	F	13	10%
	Other	G	16	12%

Type of organisation	Government	A	33	25%
	Manufacturing	B	8	6%
	Service	C	14	11%
	Trading	D	4	3%
	Mixed	E	74	56%

Time period	Less than 1 year	A	3	2%
	2011-2018	B	84	63%
	2000-2010	C	37	28%
	1990-1999	D	7	5%
	1980-1989	E	2	2%
	1970-1979	F	0	0%
	1960-1969	G	0	0%

Method	Quantitative	A	55	41%
	Qualitative	B	23	17%
	Mixed method	C	7	5%
	Case study	D	8	6%
	Other	E	40	30%

Measuring instrument	Existing	A	40	30%
	New	B	22	17%
	Other/None	C	71	53%

IQA used	Yes	A	0	0%
	No	B	133	100%

Sample size	0-50	A	26	20%
	51-100	B	8	6%
	More than 100	C	51	38%
	Other	D	48	36%

Size of industry	Large	A	95	71%
	Small and medium	B	5	4%
	Other/None	C	33	25%

Results	New perspectives	A	106	80%
	Consistent with previous literature	B	22	17%
	Previous model with different dataset/time period	C	0	0
	Comparative study	D	3	2%
	Others	E	2	2%

Type of Instrument	Emic instrument	A	16	12%
	Etic Instrument	B	47	35%
	None	C	70	53%

Origin of authors or university	American	A	22	17%
	European	B	11	8%
	African	C	86	65%
	Mixed	D	11	8%
	Other	E	3	2%

Gender of Author	Male	A	67	50%
	Female	B	17	13%
	Both	C	49	37%

Domain	Leadership	A	110	83%
	Management	B	4	3%
	Both	C	19	14%
	Neither	D	0	0%

3.3.1 Context

Most leadership research articles (90%) have been done in developing African countries, as depicted in Figure 8.
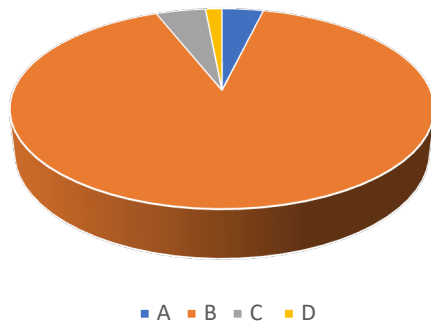
Figure 8: Context of literature

Category A: Developed countries, B: Developing countries and emerging countries, C: Least developed countries, D: Not applicable

3.3.2 Geographical area

Most articles (67%) focused on research in the Southern African region, as displayed in Figure 9.
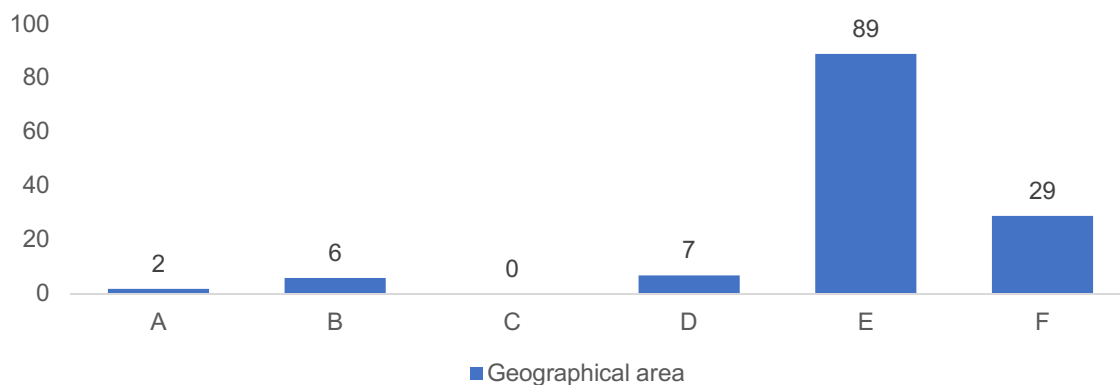
Figure 9: Geographical area of the reviewed literature

Category A: Northern Africa, B: Eastern Africa, C: Central Africa, D: Western Africa, E: Southern Africa, F: Africa

3.3.3 Objective

The results depicted in Figure 10, indicate that 60% of the reviewed articles employed the empirical method, while 7% were case studies, 12% were literature reviews, and 21% of the articles were conceptual studies.
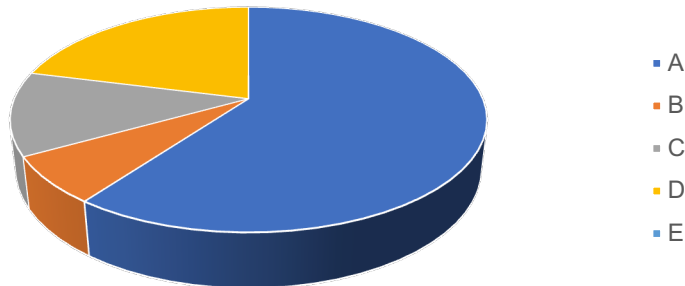
Figure 10: Objectives of the reviewed literature

Category A: Empirical, B: Case study, C: Literature review, D: Conceptual / Theoretical, E: Other

3.3.4 Topics

Figure 11 reveals that the focus point of most studies is leadership style at 29%, followed closely by identifying the attributes of leaders as well as dealing with the perceptions of what leadership is at 24%.
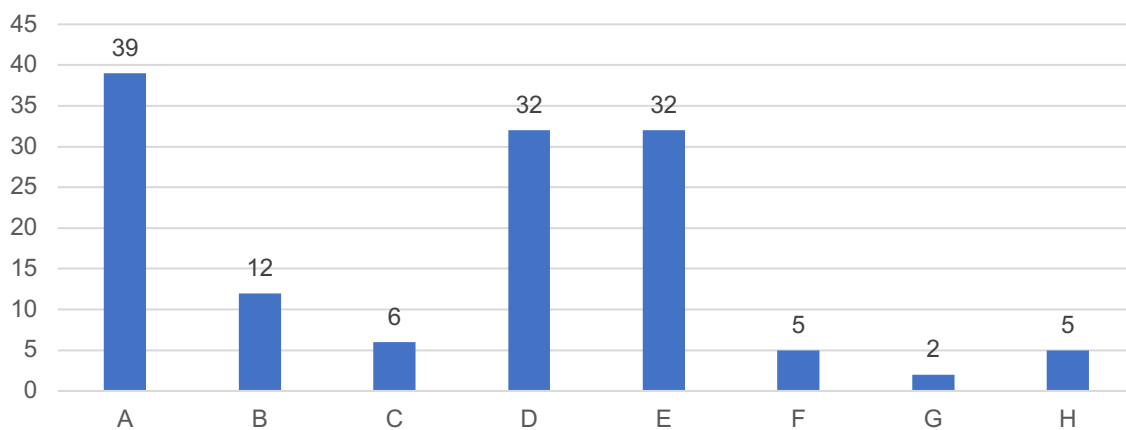
Figure 11: Topics of the reviewed literature

Category A: Leadership style in general, B: Moderating factors, C: Mediating factors, D: Attributes, Traits or Character, E: Leadership perception, F: Behaviour, G: Other, H: Leadership competencies

3.3.5 Theme

Figure 12 reveals that the focus point of most studies (30%) are on the leadership style, followed closely by identifying the attributes of leaders (17%) as well as dealing with the perceptions of what leadership is (17%).
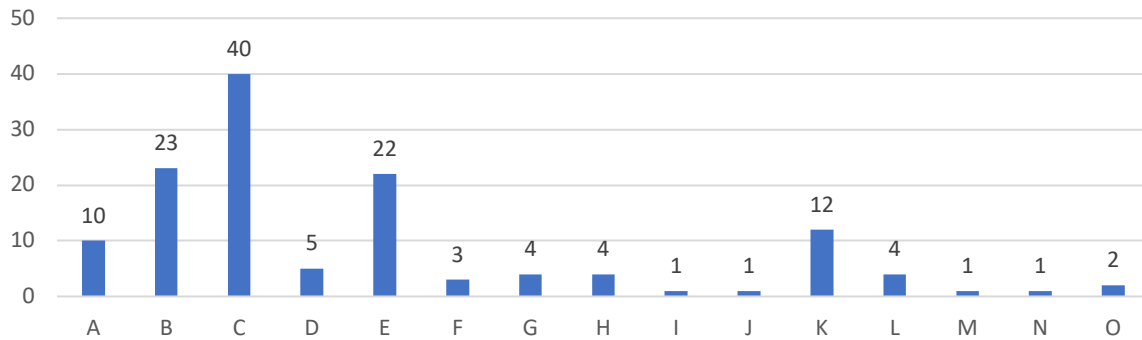
Figure 12: Leadership themes of the reviewed literature

Category A: Political Leadership, B: Leadership and Management, C: Leadership Styles, D: Leadership and Gender, E: Leadership Development, F: Leadership and Development, G: Leadership and African Values, H: Traditional Leadership, I: Individual Leadership, J: Leadership and Ideology, K: Leadership in Education, L: Local Leadership, M: Leadership Communication, N: Leadership and Culture, O: Leadership Effectiveness

3.3.6 Leadership style evaluated

The majority of studies (26%) included more than one specific leadership style, while 17% of articles focused on transformational leadership and 17% of articles did not focus on a specific leadership style.
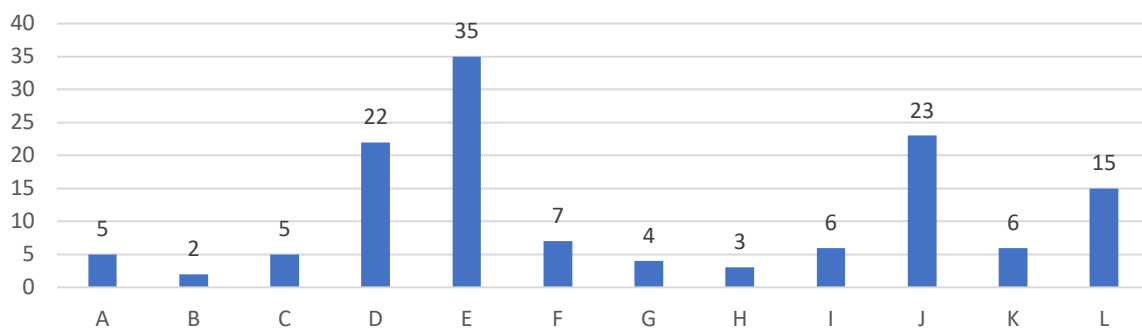
Figure 13: Leadership styles evaluated by the reviewed literature

Category A: Autocratic, B: Empowering, C: Strategic, D: Transformational, E: Mixed style, F: Ubuntu, G: Servant, H: Traditional Leadership, I: Ethical, J: Not applicable, K: Authentic, L: Other

3.3.7 Type of study

The majority of studies (50%) were conducted in an organisational environment, 10% focussed on political environment, and the education environment (combined) accounted for 22% of the studies (School and University).
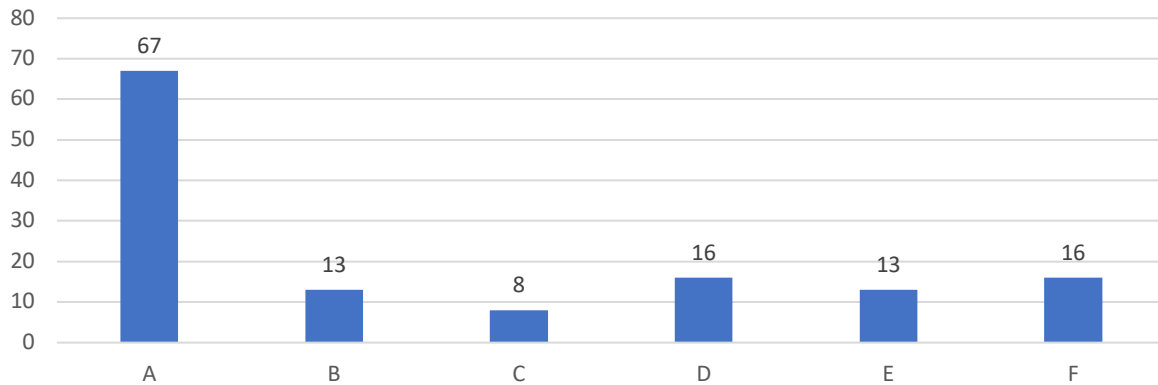
Figure 14: Type of study evaluated by the reviewed literature

Category A: Organisational, B: Political, C: Cultural, D: Educational School, E: Educational University, F: Other

3.3.8 Type of organisation

A total of 25% of the reviewed articles focussed on leadership in government, while 56% of articles did not choose a specific organisation for their research.
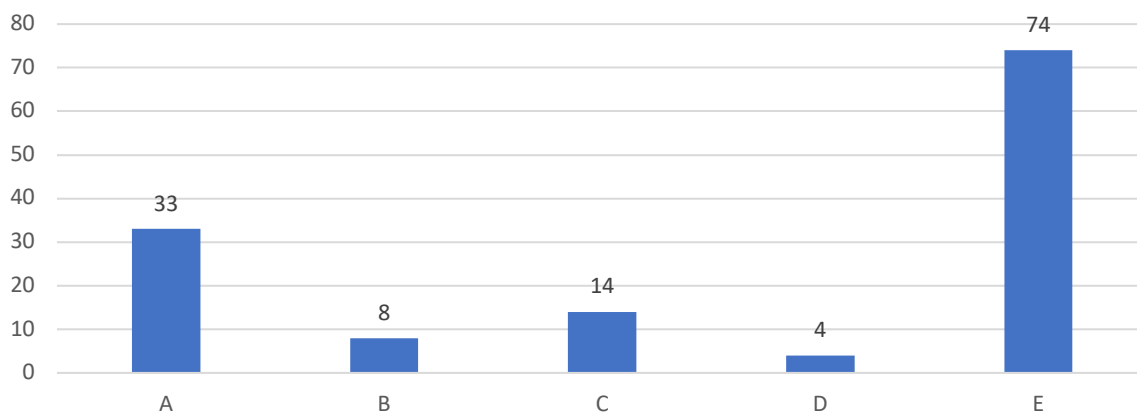
Figure 15: Type of organisation evaluated by the reviewed literature

Category A: Government, B: Manufacturing, C: Service, D: Trading, E: Mixed

3.3.9 Time period

63% of the evaluated articles were published between 2011 and 2018, whereas no articles were reviewed between 1960 and 1979.
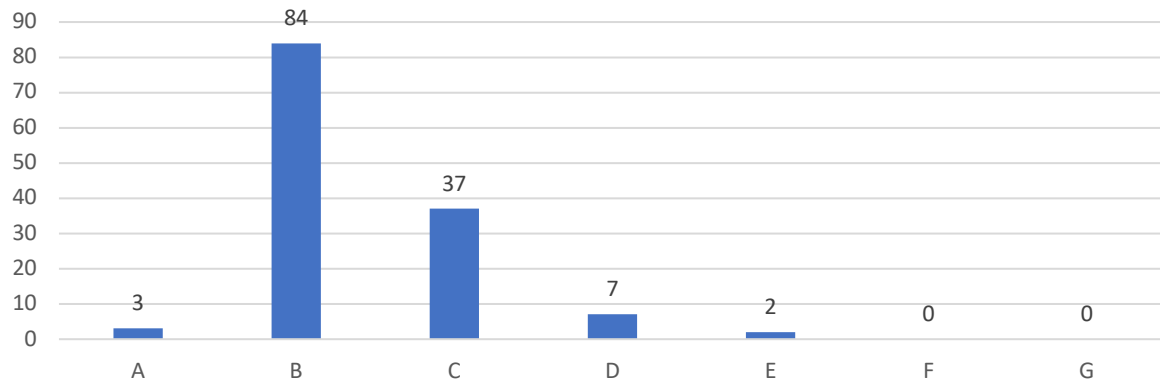
Figure 16: Time period studied by the reviewed literature

Category A: Less than a year, B: 2011-2018, C: 2000-2010, D: 1990-1999, E: 1980-1989, F: 1970-1979, G: 1960-1969

3.3.10 Method

A total of 41% of the reviewed articles used quantitative measures, 17% used qualitative measures, while only 5% employed a mixed-method study.
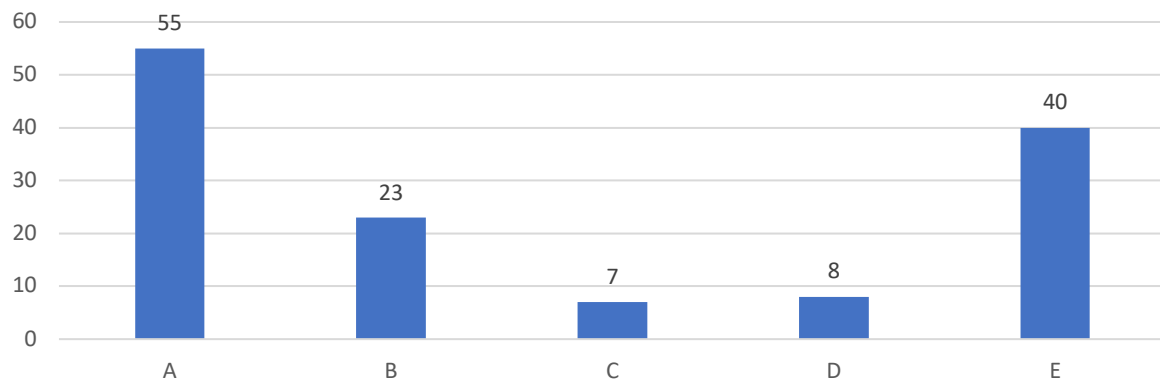
Figure 17: Method of research in the reviewed literature

Category A: Quantitative, B: Qualitative, C: Mixed method, D: Case study, E: Other

3.3.11 Measuring instrument

Only 17% of the reviewed studies developed new instruments and scales.
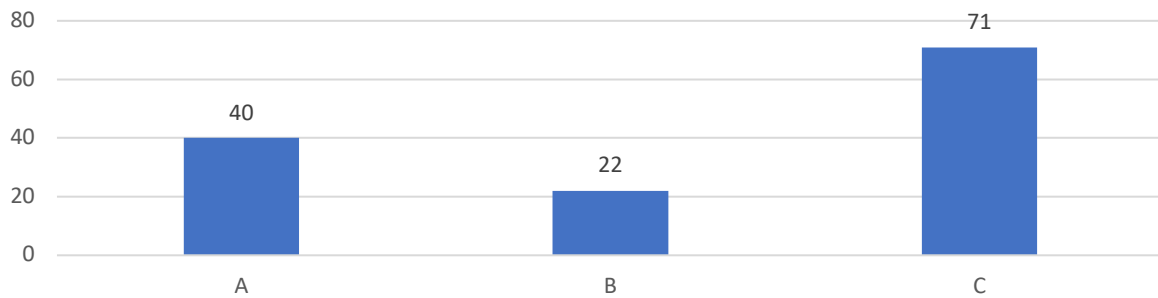
Figure 18: Measuring instrument used in the reviewed literature

Category A: Existing, B: New, C: None

3.3.12 IQA

This classification revealed how many of the 131 reviewed articles used Interactive Qualitative Analysis as a systems method for coding the research results. IQA was not identified as a research method in any of the 131 studies, as indicated in Figure 19. It confirms the opportunity for this study to use IQA as a research method.
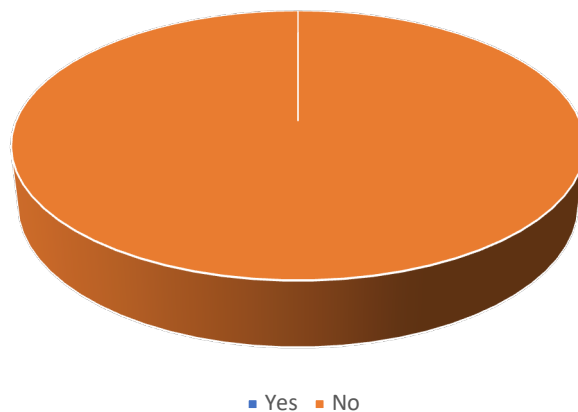
Figure 19: Interactive Qualitative Analysis (IQA) used in the reviewed literature

Category A: Yes, B: No

3.3.13 Sample size

Most articles (38%) used a sample size of more than 100.
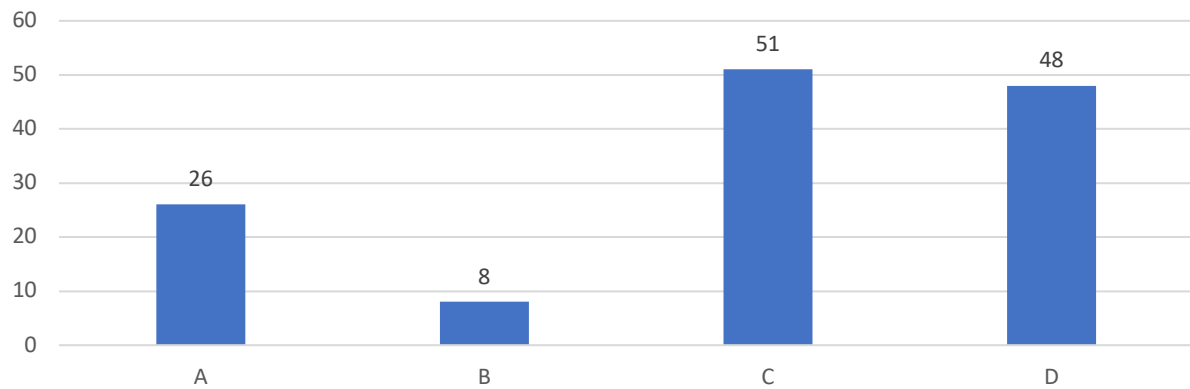
Figure 20: Sample size in the reviewed literature

Category A: 0-50, B: 51-100, C: More than 100, D: Other

3.3.14 Size of the industry

Research was carried out in large corporations for 71% of the time.
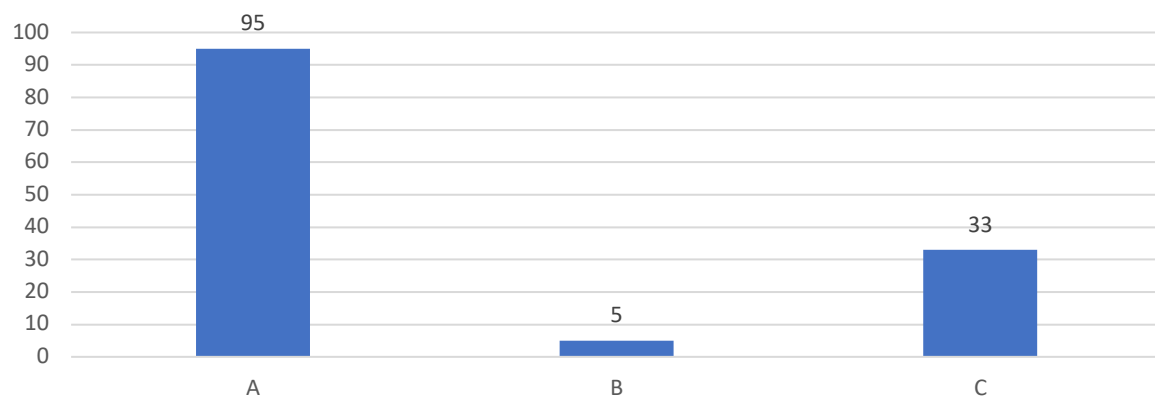
Figure 21: Industry size

Category A: Large, B: Small and medium, C: Other

3.3.15 Results

Overall, 80% of the reviewed articles presented some or other new insight, as illustrated in Figure 22.
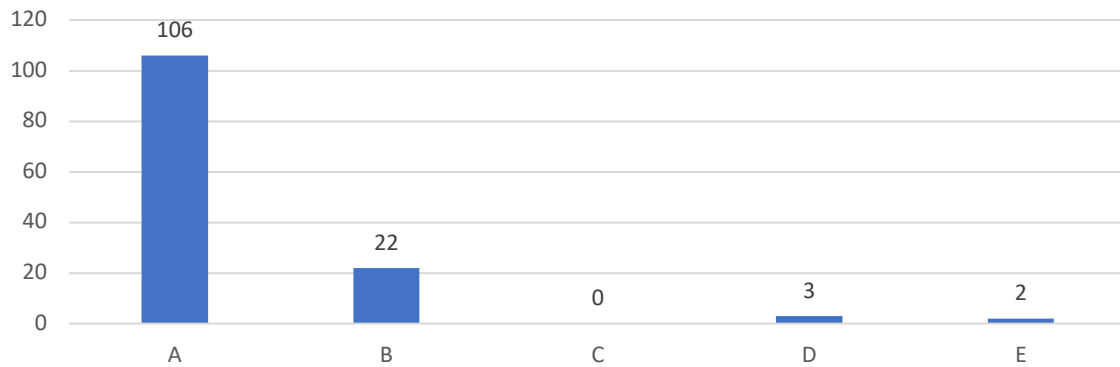
Figure 22: Results of the existing literature

Category A: New perspectives, B: Consistent with previous literature, C: Previous model with different dataset/time period, D: Comparative study, E: Others

3.3.16 Emic vs etic instruments

Only 12% of the instruments in the reviewed articles were emic by nature and therefore developed in a particular culture.
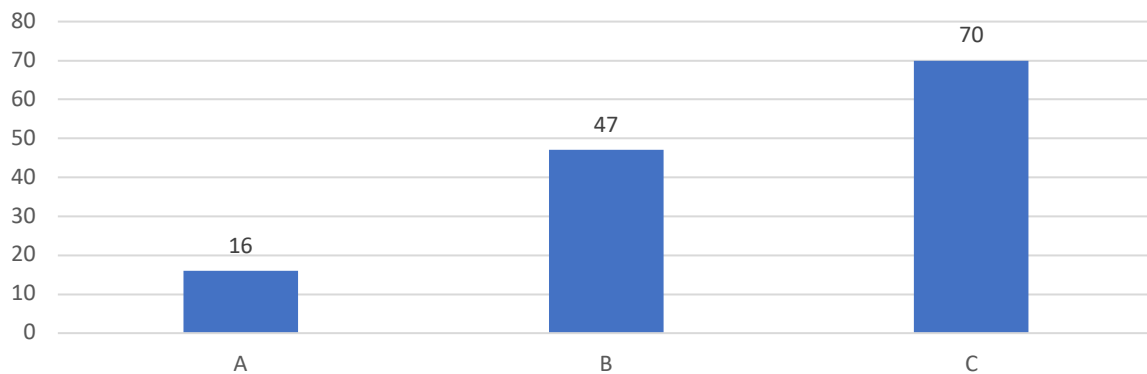
Figure 23: Results of emic and etic instruments

Category A: Emic, B: Etic, C: None

3.3.17 Origin of authors

The majority of the reviewed articles (65%) had authors who originated from Africa.
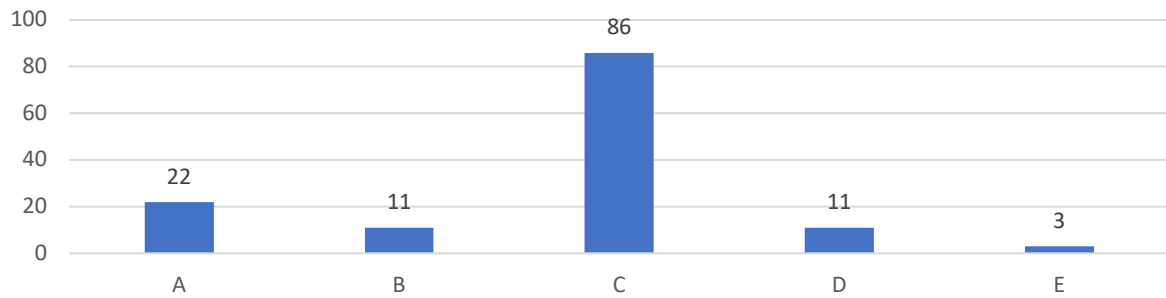
Figure 24: Results of origin of authors

Category A: American, B: European, C: African, D: Mixed, E: Other

3.3.18 Gender of the author

Fifty percent of the reviewed literature was written by men, 13% by females only and 37% by a combination of the sexes.
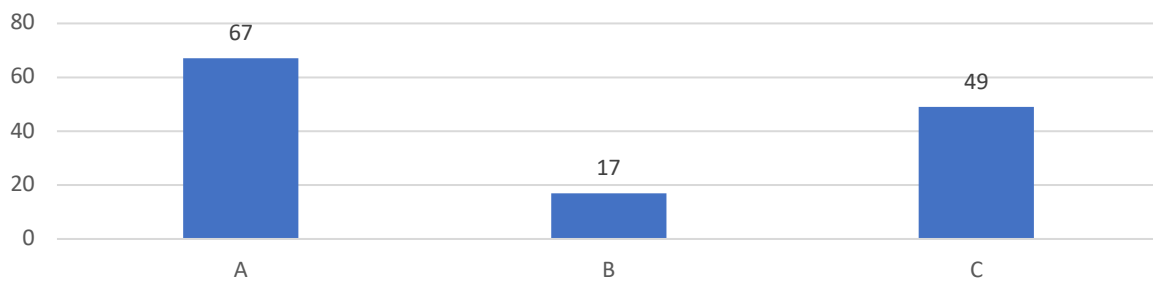
Figure 25: Gender of the author

Category A: Male, B: Female, C: Both

3.3.19 Leadership or management domain

The total of 83% of the reviewed articles were identified under the leadership domain, and only 3% under the management domain.
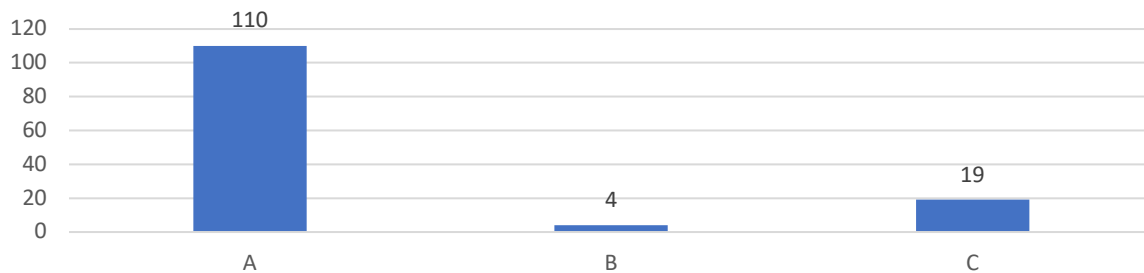
Figure 26: Domain of the existing literature

Category A: Leadership, B: Management, C: Both

3.3.20 Summary of major trends

This study examined the extensive literature on African leadership published between 1960 and 2019. Data extracted from various bibliographic databases provide a comprehensive overview of the general contexts, themes, methodologies, and demographics that have shaped debates on leadership on this continent. Statistics include a variety of factors, including geographic distribution, research objectives, evaluated topics, and leadership styles. This summary below in table 11 not only provides an insightful overview of past and current research but also exposes patterns and trends, making it a valuable resource for guiding future research directions in the field of African leadership. offer insight.

Table 11: Summary table of major trends

Category	Most Common Response	Percentage
Context	Developing and emerging countries	90%
Geographical Area	Southern Africa	67%
Objective	Empirical Study	60%
Topics	Leadership style in general	29%
Theme	Leadership styles	30%
Leadership Style Evaluated	Mixed style	26%
Type of Study	Organisational	50%
Type of Organisation	Mixed	56%

Time Period	2011-2018	63%
Method	Quantitative	41%
Measuring Instrument	Existing	30%
Sample Size	More than 100	38%
Size of Industry	Large	71%
Results	New perspectives	80%
Type of Instrument	Emic	12%
Origin of Main Authors	African	65%
Gender of Author	Male	50%
Domain	Leadership	83%

3.4 Discussion and future recommendations

Leadership in Africa continues to fascinate and energise scholars and researchers. The contribution of the structured review consisted of a summary of the research addressed by the selected articles and the identification of potential research openings. This research examined 131 articles that focused intently on leadership practises in Africa. The structured review of the literature revealed a noticeable scarcity of research on organisational leadership in Africa and an abundance of unexplored research opportunities on the continent to investigate this topic in greater depth.

One constraint of this structured literature review was the challenge in addressing certain questions that were initially proposed at the onset of the systematic review. The researcher failed to identify the contextual factors that influenced leadership and management in Africa. Additionally, the review also failed to reveal any explicit leadership behaviours that were unique to Africa. In reviewing the articles, few similarities or differences were identified regarding the perceptions of people in Africa and the rest of the world about leadership. This structured review therefore has validated the reasons for this study by investigating current organisational leadership behaviours in an African context.

Various international leadership instruments have emerged over the last half-century, measuring the relationship between the leader and the subordinate and the leader's influence on the task. This structured literate review confirmed the argument that South African organisational leadership behaviour research studies are scant (Kok & van den Heuvel, 2019). Leadership behaviour plays a vital role in creating successful organisations and influences the behaviour of subordinates (Northouse, 2021; Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020; Yukl & Gardner, 2020). This structured literature review confirmed that most leadership behavioural scales and instruments were developed in established Western or European markets and then adapted to the African market.

The structured literature review suggests that organisational leadership covers many responsibilities that managers do, including managing operations, solving problems, handling conflicts, managing expenses and general administration. Yet, few articles were categorised under the management domain. Several etic-based leadership studies have sought to distinguish organisational leadership from management by focusing on the role of formal managers. Still, most studies indicated that organisational leaders deal with the entire range of managerial behaviours and activities.

Various articles developed and confirmed leadership theories based on instruments developed outside of Africa. Nonetheless, the evidence revealed that developing new organisational leadership theory remains challenging. There is a need to establish an organisational dialogue about current leadership practices and develop a more uniquely African leadership theory.

The structured literature review revealed that there was not one emic, mixed methods study that employed the IQA methodology to identify leadership behaviours. This study aims to make a unique contribution to understanding leadership behaviours relevant to a South African organisational context by conceptualising and developing an emic leadership behavioural scale. It. This study has also examined whether leadership behaviours are similar or different from etic leadership behaviours as identified in seminal research.

The review of the articles also indicated the use of qualitative and quantitative study methods in many contexts. This structured literature review questions the effectiveness of leadership development methods and the theoretical constructs identified in African leadership. The scarcity of existing emic leadership literature is directly related to the researcher's rationale for choosing a mixed-method study. The goal of this study was to conceptualise organisational leadership behaviours by developing a leadership framework and developing an emic measurement instrument that is valid and relevant to the South African organisational leadership context. This was achieved through a mixed method study using Interactive Qualitative Analysis (IQA).

During the structured literature review, careful notes were taken to identify if any quantitative articles mentioned or analysed the common method bias, as it has a long history in the behavioural sciences. Many of the reviewed instruments were self-reporting, which often leads to common method bias (CMB). CMB occurs when variations in responses are caused by the instrument rather than the actual predispositions of the respondents that the instrument attempts to uncover. Put differently, the instrument introduces a bias, and consequently, the results might be contaminated. Common method bias was investigated by noting whether Harman's single factor score was loaded into one common factor. A few articles listed common method bias as a limitation to the study, but no articles were found where Harman's single factor score was loaded as a factor.

Using international (etic) leadership instruments has caused several authors to admit that validity and reliability have been marginal at best, as their studies endeavoured to measure leadership behaviours in a South African context (Punnet, 2017). Some of the reviewed studies have attempted to integrate elements of different leadership scales based on findings from decades of leadership research, however, many unanswered questions remain about the relevance and usefulness of integrated scales. For example, the consequences of disagreement about which behaviour classifications are most relevant and meaningful, make it problematic to compare and integrate leadership behaviour results. Various studies concur that leadership behaviours are related to specific cultures and can, therefore, not be measured

universally across the globe (Daft, 2022). Moreover, opportunities exist to identify emic organisational leadership behaviours in South Africa correctly.

The private sector in Africa is an important theme, as highlighted in numerous studies, especially in the fields of economics and business management. This structured review revealed that leadership in the private sector remains under-researched and provides opportunities for developing emic organisational leadership scales.

This structured literature review has important significance for two specific reasons. Firstly, it has consolidated the existing research done on leadership in Africa from 1960 to 2019. Secondly, it has identified gaps and opportunities for research in identifying uniquely South African leadership behaviours by employing a mixed-method study through Interactive Qualitative Analysis.

3.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, a structured literature review of African leadership research conducted between 1960 and 2019 revealed several significant trends and insights that cast light on the evolution of leadership research on the African continent. Geographic diversity highlights the significance of investigating leadership in specific socioeconomic and cultural contexts, with an emphasis on developing and emerging nations, particularly Southern Africa.

The review revealed that the vast majority of studies were empirical, indicating a strong preference for evidence-based research that provides concrete insights into leadership practises. The fact that 'Leadership Styles' is a significant theme demonstrates an ongoing interest in comprehending the distinct leadership styles that define and shape African leadership. The prevalence of the 'mixed styles' approach demonstrates an understanding of the multifaceted and complex nature of leadership and reinforces the notion that no singular leadership style is universally applicable and effective. doing.

The tendency to focus on organisational areas and the frequent use of quantitative techniques indicate a desire for concrete, quantifiable outcomes and a concentration on the impact of leadership in structured environments. This indicates that the research in this area is grounded in practical concerns and aims to resolve genuine organisational challenges.

Notably, most of the research was generated by African authors, highlighting the significance of indigenous perspectives to the global leadership debate. The propensity to examine large industries suggests a concentration on sectors with significant economic and social impact, emphasising this research's practical implications and potential impact.

In summary, this structured literature review provided a comprehensive overview of the evolution and current status of leadership research in Africa. It demonstrated the diversity of leadership research on the continent and highlighted the sociocultural and economic complexity of the continent. It also emphasised the significant contributions of African scholars to the field of leadership research. These insights serve as beneficial guidelines for future research, assisting researchers in identifying gaps and opportunities and formulating research plans.

4. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This thesis is concerned with the science of social research. Social research is a method employed by researchers to discover more about people in specific contexts to understand better the needs of people (Bryman, 2012). Different social groups think and behave differently. Therefore, various characteristics of human behaviour need to be studied in a social world, such as leadership in organisations.

This chapter's purpose is to introduce the philosophical assumptions underlying this study, as well as the research framework, strategy, and empirical techniques utilised. This chapter defines the scope and limitations of the research design and situates the study within the existing literature on organisational leadership. Finally, the chapter indicates that a variety of considerations are used in the process of conducting social research.

This chapter is divided into several sections. In the first section, the research paradigm of this study will be explored. The following section highlights the research strategy employed and describes the approach used in this mixed-method study. Further on in the chapter are sections with detailed explanations of the qualitative and quantitative stages of the study, selection of participants, data collection and analysis practices. Finally, the chapter will end with a comprehensive discussion of the data collection and analysis methods and a brief discussion of the expectations from the theoretical framework.

4.2 The research paradigm

A research paradigm is a set of shared beliefs and agreements between researchers about how problems should be understood and addressed (Creswell, 2015). When conducting social research, the word "paradigm" indicates the philosophical underpinnings and rudimentary beliefs that govern the study and outline the researcher's worldview (Lincoln & Denzin, 2011). Paradigms can be viewed as

abstract but still provide real-world tools to solve complicated research problems (Abbot, 2004). Each paradigm has a different perspective on the axiology, ontology, epistemology, methodology, and research rhetoric (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019). Paradigms are a valuable construct for outlining the thinking about the subject, in this case, leadership.

Thus, a research paradigm delivers a mental framework or lens through which one can examine concepts and design an appropriate study. Research is based on underlying philosophical assumptions about what constitutes good research and which research method(s) is/are suitable for developing knowledge in the given study. To conduct and evaluate the research, it is essential to know the assumptions. Table 12 below explains the research paradigm adapted from Hay's perspective (Hay, 2002).

Table 12: A research paradigm

Ontology	Epistemology	Theoretical Perspective	Methodology	Methods	Sources
→	→	→	→	→	→
What is reality?	How can we know reality / knowledge?	What approach should we use to acquire the knowledge?	What procedure can we use to acquire the knowledge?	What tools are at our disposal to acquire the knowledge?	What data can we collect?

Source: (Hay, 2002)

Understanding the nature of the relationship between theory and research is a complex matter. According to Bryman (2012), the most common definition of theory is an explanation of observed regularities; it provides the context within which social phenomena can be interpreted and comprehended. The research philosophy includes essential assumptions about how the researcher views the world. These assumptions guide the research strategy and the chosen researcher's methods (Saunders, et al., 2019).

Research is based on underlying philosophical assumptions about what makes it valid and which research method(s) is/are appropriate for developing knowledge.

Therefore, to conduct and evaluate the research, it is essential to know its assumptions. A pragmatism paradigm was identified as the appropriate philosophy for this study. A pragmatism research approach accepts concepts as relevant only if they support action and acknowledge that there are several different ways of interpreting the world (Frega & da Silva, 2011). This implies an epistemology and ontology belief that focuses on what works instead of what might be considered the absolute or objective truth. Pragmatists reject the view that one specific method would reveal truths regarding the real world. Instead, there is a relationship between research and the theory (Bryman, 2012). The nature of this relationship can be deductive by approach if theory guides the research or inductive by approach if theory is its outcome. This mixed-method study combines a deductive and inductive approach to fulfil the research objectives.

There is a rich yet neglected history of influences and interactions between the pragmatist view and the field of social sciences. History indicates that pragmatists have shaped and evolved their philosophical understanding through conversations with the social sciences and that the social sciences have been influenced by pragmatists. As a result, pragmatists, over time, have had to learn how to integrate social science into their logical thought. (Frega & da Silva, 2011).

Observed regularities (theory) can be developed, known as the inductive approach, or existing theory can be tested through a deductive approach. The most common view of the nature between social research and theory is through deductive theory, as the researcher applies considerations based on what is known concerning a particular domain. The researcher then infers a hypothesis that must be subjected to empirical analysis (Creswell 2015).

Some researchers, however, attempt to approach the relationship between research and theory from the inductive perspective, where theory is the study's outcome. The induction method involves depicting interpretations out of the observations. This thesis will attempt to do both. Figure 27 below illustrates the difference between deductive and inductive research.

Deductive approach:

```
                              ┌──────────┐
                              │  Theory  │
                              └────┬─────┘
                                   │
                                   ▼
                    ┌─────────────────────────────┐
                    │   Observations / Findings   │
                    └─────────────────────────────┘
```

Inductive approach:

```
                    ┌─────────────────────────────┐
                    │   Observations / Findings   │
                    └──────────────┬──────────────┘
                                   │
                                   ▼
                              ┌──────────┐
                              │  Theory  │
                              └──────────┘
```
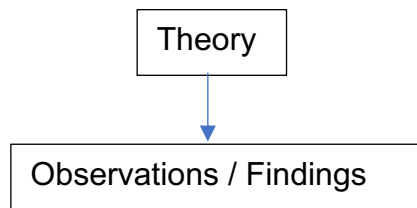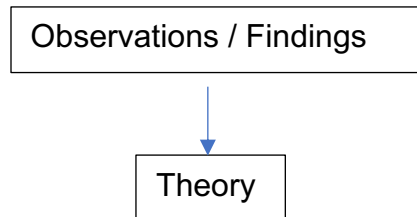
Figure 27: Difference between deductive and inductive research

Source: (Bryman, 2012)

Several strategies are available to students including experiments, surveys, case studies, grounded theory, ethnography and surveys. This study employed a grounded theory and survey strategy and used the mixed method approach as the choice for the research study. Cross-sectional time horizons allowed for data collection and analyses.

Each scholar and researcher impose a worldview to their research, whether they make it explicit or not. A worldview is a substitute for a paradigm (Patton, 2002). These beliefs could refer to the researcher's evidence to make claims (epistemology) or whether the researcher considers reality as singular or multiple (ontology). For instance, reality can be found in a theory that helps to explain the behaviour of a large number of people, or reality can be determined by various individual perspectives as opposed to a single general explanation (Creswell 2015).

Ontology positions explore beliefs regarding the substance of reality or what reality is. Ontological perspectives can be achieved through an objectivism or constructionism view. Objectivism is an ontological position that suggests social phenomena and their significance exist independently of social actors. However, a constructionist position

postulates that social phenomena and their significances are constantly being accomplished by social actors (Bryman, 2012). An objectivist ontological orientation is explored through a quantitative research strategy, and a constructionism ontological orientation is explored through a qualitative research strategy.

Epistemology, on the other hand, assists in developing a framework for knowledge-based on truths and beliefs (Creswell, 2015). Epistemology is concerned with questions regarding the nature of knowledge and finding different methods of gaining knowledge. Questions such as: "What do we know?" and "How do we know it?" challenge the propositions of truth, knowledge and beliefs. The most important question is whether researchers can or should study the social world based on the same doctrines, procedures and philosophy as the natural sciences (Bryman, 2012).

Many factors influence social research. Over and above theory, ontology and epistemology, researchers should consider values and practical implications (Bryman, 2012). Values can be defined as the set of personal convictions or beliefs of the researcher and which can interfere at several points during the process of social research. These include selecting the research area, formulating the research question, choosing the research method, constructing the research design, data collection methods, data analysis, data interpretation and conclusions. A typical example could be when a researcher develops sympathy or affection during observation or intensive interviewing. Another example is when the researcher develops a close relationship with the people in the study to the point where bias develops, and they struggle to separate social science research from the subjects.

Practical considerations and decisions signify how the research will be conducted. These real-world issues can influence the decisions of research strategy, study design and methods employed. A good example would be the considerations needed to conduct responsible qualitative focus group research during the Covid-19 pandemic. Figure 28 below summarises the factors that must be considered (Bryman, 2012). In summary, Axiology represents the role of values and morals in research; ontology explains the suppositions of the researcher about the nature of reality; epistemology highlights the beliefs about how the researcher understands the world; methodology

refs to the researcher's understanding of how to gain knowledge and rhetoric is the communal language of research (Lincoln & Denzin, 2011).
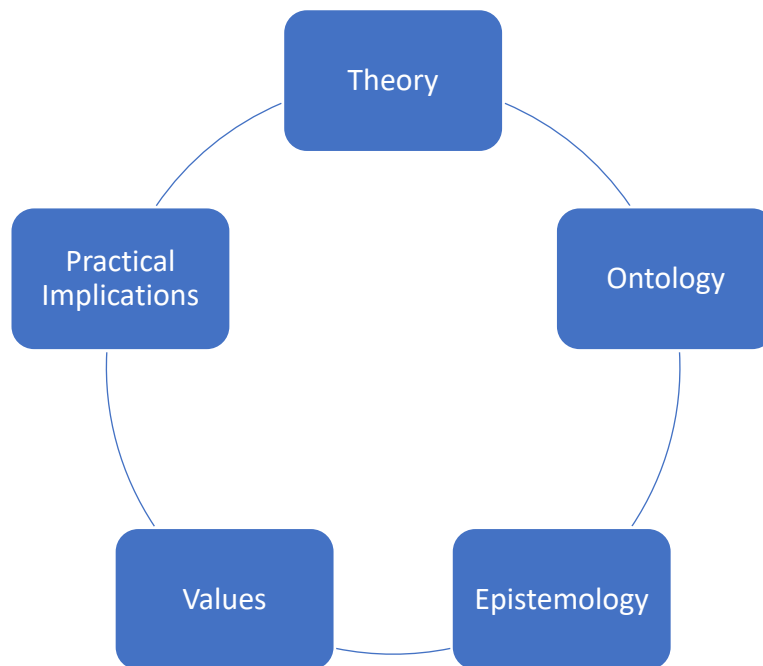
Figure 28: Factors to consider during social research

Source: (Bryman, 2012)

Positivist researchers consider a singular reality which is measurable and known. They are, therefore, prone to use quantitative research methods to measure this reality. Constructivists/Interpretivists claim that there cannot be just one reality or truth and that reality must be interpreted through qualitative approaches to get those multiple realities. Alternatively, pragmatists see reality as continually evolving and being renegotiated, deliberated, decoded, and analysed. They, therefore, choose the most suited method to use that will solve the problem.

Positivism and interpretivism are equally restricted paradigms regarding the nature and sources of knowledge, yet most research topics fall within one of these main paradigms. Pragmatism proposes that the most critical determinant of the epistemology, ontology and axiology one can adopt is the research question and that one paradigm may be more appropriate than the other for answering particular

questions (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019). According to pragmatism the research question is the most crucial determinant of the research philosophy. A pragmatism paradigm was identified as the appropriate framework for this study. The pragmatism research viewpoint assumes concepts only to be relevant if they support action and acknowledge several different ways of interpreting the world. Thus, pragmatists have no single point of view; they believe that no specific philosophy can provide the entire viewpoint and that there may well be multiple realities.

Furthermore, pragmatists can unite both positivist and constructivists/interpretivism stances within the scope of a single research study according to the nature of the research question. The research question in this study did not suggest unambiguously that either a positivist or interpretivist philosophy should be adopted. Still, it confirmed the pragmatist's view that it is possible to work with variations in the epistemology, ontology, and axiology of organisational leadership. Moreover, research with a pragmatism paradigm could incorporate qualitative and quantitative research methods.

Table 13 below is adapted from the work of Patel (2015). It provides a detailed theoretical perspective of each paradigm.

Table 13: Overview of different research paradigms

Paradigm	Ontology (What is the reality?)	Epistemology (How do the researcher know that reality?)	Theoretical Perspective (Which approach is most suited?)	Methodology (How will the researcher go about find out?)	Method (What techniques will the researcher use to find out?)
Positivist	There is only one single truth or reality.	Reality can be measured. The emphasis on finding reliable and valid tools to obtain the truth.	Positivism and Post-positivism.	Experimental research and Survey research.	Quantitative research that includes sampling, questionnaires and statistical analysis. Could also include Focus group interviews.

Constructivist/ Interpretivist	There is no single truth or reality. Trust and reality are created by humans, normally in groups.	Truth and reality must be decoded. It is used to uncover hidden meanings and underlying activities.	Reality must be interpreted through phenomenology, hermeneutics and symbolic interactionism.	Grounded theory, Ethnography, Phenomenological research, Heuristic inquiry, Action research	Qualitative research methods that includes observations, participant interviews, non-participant interviews, case studies, history.
Pragmatist	Reality is continually evolving, debated, renegotiated and interpreted dependent on its usefulness in new situations.	The most preferred method is the one that solves the problem. Discovering the meaning might change the underlying purpose or aim.	Research through design.	Mixed methods Design-based research, Action research.	A combination of any of the above including data extracting, usability testing and physical prototypes.

Source: (Patel, 2015)

Swales and Feak (2009) note that by establishing a research territory, the researcher creates a context for the research. Various scholars agree that a research territory is created through the meaning of philosophy and methodology. Thus, qualitative and quantitative worlds coexist in a mixed-method, as the researcher tries to understand the underlying philosophy that informs both data collection methods.

Mixed methods researchers are concerned with what philosophical principles provide a foundation for the study method (Creswell, 2015). In a mixed method study, the researcher often follows a pragmatism worldview and does not adopt a particular worldview position (Saunders, et al., 2019). A pragmatist worldview posits that the research question remains the most critical determinant of the epistemology, ontology and axiology during the study. One position (positivist, realist or interpretive) may be more suitable than the other for answering specific parts of the research questions. Accordingly, this research study followed a pragmatic worldview.

Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) observed that it is more appropriate for the researcher to consider a research philosophy indicated on a continuum instead of choosing opposite positions. They pointed out that "at some points, the knower and the known must be interactive, while at others, one may more easily stand apart from what one is studying" (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2009). Pragmatism is instinctively appealing as it prevents researchers from engaging in arguments about truth and reality. Instead, pragmatic researchers use what is of interest and value to the study, implementing various ways to collect data that they deem suitable and then apply findings to bring about positive changes within the organisational system (Creswell, 2015).

When observed as an organisational concept, leadership is formed by the beliefs, values, culture and assumptions of the individual and establishment in which it functions. However, pragmatism permits the researcher to examine leadership as a social construct and phenomenon. This leadership worldview should not have a fixed identity as it remains a constant state of construction, deconstruction, clarification, and reconstruction. Moreover, the lack of a universally accepted organisational leadership definition creates opportunities for revisioning leadership within a particular set of conditions and influences. Therefore, this study did not attempt to align with one generic leadership approach or definition but used this freedom to explore leadership within particular emic cultural and organisational circumstances.

Leadership paradigms, theories and frameworks have developed through a timeline over the last century and have been taxonomised into several categories. These include classical, trait, transformational, spiritual, servant and adaptive theories of leadership, each highlighting their unique features, concepts and ontologies (Northouse, 2021). While a paradigm can be a valuable construct for a study to support interpretation and understanding, a single leadership paradigm is improbable in a pure form because it is part of developing thinking and examining experiences. Furthermore, the different paradigm characteristics help researchers to understand the range of leadership approaches that can be used concurrently in the same organisation and individuals, depending on context and situation. It is, therefore, more appropriate to view leadership behaviours as a spectrum instead of a continuum.

Leadership paradigms are developed from studying social, historical, cultural, political and organisational contexts. Such theories, therefore, emphasise different essentials and values relevant to the purpose and nature of leadership. Consequently, they may vary in approach and focus, contingent on where leadership is situated, the person, the position or the process. When studying personhood leadership, the leader's traits, characteristics and competencies and the leader/follower relationship remain fundamental. In positional leadership, power, authority, role and hierarchy are essential features with a strong emphasis on the role of the leader within the organisational systems. However, when leadership is viewed as a process, communication exchange and healthy relationships are the principal focus of attention. The interchange of concepts relating to the person, position and process in organisational leadership theories is not limited. Still, the importance of each provides theories with an identity that can be broadly positioned within current paradigms of organisational leadership.

This study will present a new emic leadership paradigm and has reframed current thinking about organisational leadership to suit the needs and challenges of South African organisations in the twenty-first century. A new leadership perspective is needed, involving managers' participation on all levels in South African private and public organisations. This study developed a comprehensive organisational leadership framework which embraced inclusiveness and connectivity between workers and leaders in the South African workplace. An organisational leadership framework and scale were developed to bring organisational leadership theory and practice together, release more creative thinking about South African leadership and develop more efficient and new ways of working.

4.3 Research design

The research design is the blueprint for fulfilling the research objectives (Creswell, 2014). The primary distinction between inductive and deductive approaches to research is that while a deductive approach is concerned with validating theory, an inductive approach focuses on generating new theories that emerge from the data (Babbie, 2016). This research study combined both methods, firstly through induction

in which broad leadership principles were developed from specific observations (IQA) and secondly through deduction in which specific expectancies of hypotheses were created and tested.

Babbie (2016) refers to a science wheel, where the theory and research cycle in social sciences can be equated to a relay race. Babbie (2016) suggests that not all contributors start and stop at the same point, but they share a common goal to investigate the levels of social life. This research study applied both sides of the social science wheel, as illustrated below in Figure 29.
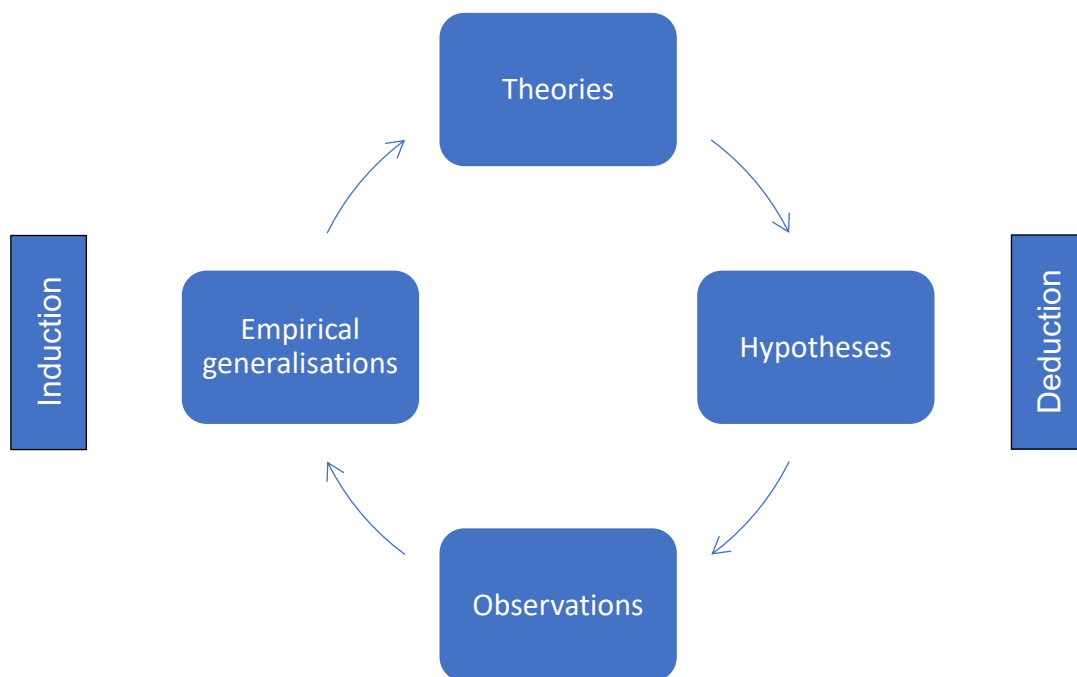
Figure 29: The wheel of science

Source: (Babbie, 2016)

An exploratory study is a valuable method of discovering what is happening, discovering new insights, asking questions to individuals involved, and assessing phenomena in a new light. This is particularly useful when the researcher wishes to clarify the precise nature of a problem (Saunders, et al., 2019).

A mixed-methods study is both a research technique and methodology. Researchers collect, analyse, and integrate qualitative and quantitative data in a single study to address the research questions. Combining qualitative and quantitative research methods has become popular since the mixed method design delivers detailed and complete data to realise the research objectives and answer the research questions (Bryman, 2012). Furthermore, combining qualitative and quantitative research provides a superior understanding of a research problem than either approach alone (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Accordingly, this study followed a mixed-method research design.

Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) established a functional and parsimonious classification of four different categories in mixed-method research designs, highlighting more similarities than differences amongst mixed methods techniques. Their typology includes triangulation, embedded, explanatory, and exploratory (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Table 14 below summarises the differences in their classification with ten variants for the four notions.

Table 14: Overview of four different mixed methods designs

Type of Design	Variants	Notation
Triangulation	Convergence	QUAN + QUAL
	Data transformation	
	Validating Quantitative data	
	Multilevel	
Embedded	Embedded experimental	QUAN (qual)
	Embedded correlational	Or
		QUAL (quan)
Explanatory	Follow-up explanations	QUAN ⟶ qual
	Participant selection	
Exploratory	Instrument development	QUAL ⟶ quan
	Taxonomy development	

Source: (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009)

Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) designed seven steps for choosing the appropriate mixed method design. The purpose of the steps is to assist the researcher in determining the suitability of a mixed method design to the best mixed-method research design for the study. The steps include:

Step 1: Determining if the research questions require a monomethod or mixed-method design.

Step 2: Being aware of how many mixed method typologies exist and obtain more information about each of them.

Step 3: Identify the best-suited mixed method design typology and understand that the researcher might have eventually created their own.

Step 4: Being aware of the required criteria accentuated by each mixed method design typologies and their implications to the study.

Step 5: Creating a list of wide-ranging criteria before selecting specific criteria that are most important to the study.

Step 6: Applying the chosen criteria to possible designs, ultimately choosing the best design for the study.

Step 7: In unique cases, developing a new mixed method using creativity and flexibility, as no similar research project exists.

This study employed the exploratory model, which included first qualitative data collection, followed by quantitative data collection (QUAL $\longrightarrow$ quan). This study developed an organisational leadership instrument and identified organisational leadership behaviours. The exploratory model was chosen to acquire a more precise picture from the qualitative data and then used the quantitative data to better understand and explain the phenomena in question (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).

Creswell (2007) indicated that a mixed method study involves integrating qualitative data that tends to be more open-ended and without predetermined responses with quantitative data that includes close-ended responses found in psychological instruments such as questionnaires. Creswell (2007) further dedicated his focus primarily to three models. These include convergent parallel mixed methods, explanatory sequential mixed methods and exploratory sequential mixed methods.

The explanatory method (also known as sequential design) is a two-stage mixed method design. Let us explore each in more depth.

Convergent parallel mixed methods merge quantitative and qualitative data to examine the research problem comprehensively. During this study, the researcher collects both data forms simultaneously and integrates the data to interpret the research results. During an explanatory sequential mixed methods study, the researcher first collects quantitative data, analyses the results and then starts with the qualitative part of the study. Explanatory means that the quantitative data results are clarified further with the qualitative data. This type of study is considered sequential because the quantitative phase follows on the qualitative phase.

Exploratory sequential mixed methods are the converse of the explanatory sequential mixed methods study. The exploratory or sequential design starts with collecting and examining qualitative data, followed by collecting and examining quantitative data. The researcher begins by collecting qualitative research data and exploring the understandings or views of participants. Data is then analysed and used to develop the second quantitative phase. Finally, the qualitative phase is necessary to develop an instrument that best suits the study and to use in the quantitative phase (Creswell, 2014). This study followed an exploratory sequential mixed methods design.

To conduct an exploratory sequential design, the researcher will need to implement the following exploratory sequential design procedures:

- Collect and analyse qualitative data.
- Examine the results from the qualitative analysis and use the information to design a quantitative component (in this case, a leadership framework).
- Develop a new leadership scale and instrument.
- Test the new quantitative component (scale). The new measures will be put into an existing quantitative database. The new instrument was tested for the validity and reliability of its scores placed in an experimental trial.
- Collect and analyse quantitative data through the means of a survey strategy.

- The final step was to report the data and how effectively the instrument measured organisational leadership behaviours. Did the instrument provide a better-contextualised emic understanding of organisational leadership behaviours compared to etic instruments?

An exploratory sequential design   first explores a problem (in this case, what constitutes effective organisational leadership in South Africa?) with qualitative methods because the answers to the questions are unknown. After this initial exploration, the researcher uses these qualitative findings to develop a leadership framework and scale to build a second quantitative phase. This phase involves designing a scale and instrument to measure the variables in the study, developing activities for an experimental intervention, and designing a typology that is then compared with existing leadership instruments. In this phase, the quantitative instrument is used in a quantitative data collection and analysis procedure, as explained by Creswell (2014). Below find Figure 30 with a notation of the sequential exploratory design used for this study. The arrows indicate a sequential form of data collection, with one form (qualitative) building onto the other (quantitative).

Sequential exploratory design

| QUAL | ⟶ | quan |

QUAL	QUAL	quan	quan	
Data	Data	Data	Data	Interpretation
Collection	Analysis	Collection	Analsysis	of Entire Analysis
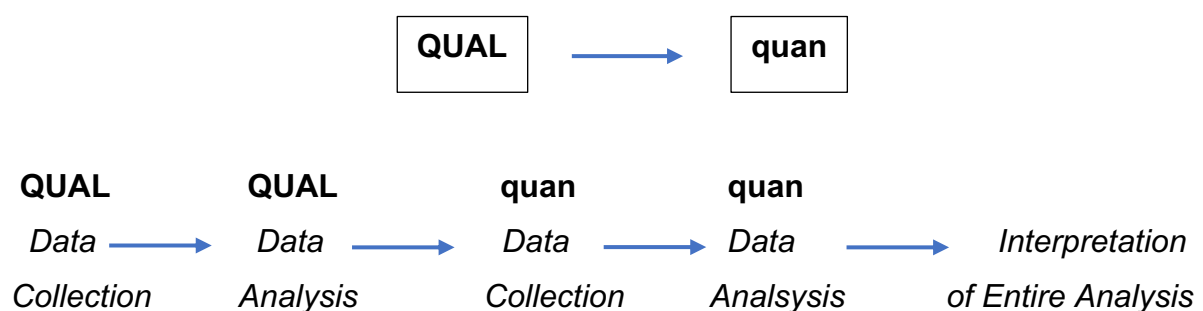
Figure 30: Sequential exploratory design steps

Source: (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007)

Theory influences research, and constructing empirically sound theory necessitates a mutual relationship between data and theory. Therefore, grounded theory was chosen as the preferred theory employed during this study. Grounded theory requires the collection and analysis of data and sets out to explore and develop theory from the methodically obtained data, examined using comparative analysis (Creswell, 2014). Creswell (2009) defines grounded theory as a strategy of inquiry in which the researcher derives a general, abstract theory of a process, action or interaction grounded in participants' views. Grounded theory, also known as process theory, describes an informative process of events, activities, actions, and interactions that occur over time. Grounded theorists progress through the systematic procedures of collecting data, identifying and connecting categories and creating a theory explaining the process. A grounded theory provides a step-by-step, systematic way of analysing data which enables the researcher to generate a broad theory about a central qualitative phenomenon grounded in the data (Creswell J. W., 2012).

A mixed-method design is functional when the first phase of this study is exploratory (Creswell J. W., 2015). In underdeveloped countries, where instruments are usually drawn from the Western world, researchers first need to explore what measures will work in the setting. The qualitative results will yield specific information from individuals, and new measures will be developed in the design.

In the first phase, this study employed Interactive Qualitative Analysis (IQA) as a strategy for the qualitative data collection to explore the grounded theory. IQA is a systematic and qualitative process that involves collecting and analysing qualitative data in a systems diagram. IQA will develop the framework that identifies organisational leadership behaviours at a broad conceptual level in the South African context.

An Interactive Qualitative Analysis is a research design that establishes an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon through focus groups and guided group dialogue (Northcutt & McCoy, 2004). Moreover, it is a systems methodology for qualitative research which examines cause-and-effect relationships based on structures of meaning. Through this, group members close to the phenomenon of leadership described their experiences and articulated perceived relationships to produce a

leadership behaviour theory and a conceptual map. This became a systems representation of how the group understood the leadership phenomenon in South African organisations. The open coding process clustered information into affinities through inductive logic and identifying specific examples by the focus group (referred to as axial coding).

The second phase was introduced by developing a leadership scale and then testing the scale's validity and reliability. An instrument needs strong psychometric properties and many sources are available for proper scale development and instrument construction (DeVellis, Scale Development, 2003). The following guidelines from DeVellis (2003) were used in developing the new leadership behavioural scale:

- Determining clearly what it is the researcher wants to measure.
- Generating an item pool and choosing items that reflect the scale's purpose.
- Determine the format for measurement (Thurstone scaling, Guttman scaling, scales with equally weighted items).
- Understanding the optimum number of response categories.
- Having the initial item pool reviewed by experts.
- Consider the inclusion of validation items.
- Administer items to a development sample.
- Initial examination of items' performance (evaluate the items).
- Optimise the scale length.

An organisational leadership questionnaire (OL) was developed using a Likert scale of 32 questions, measuring eight factors, and is attached as Annexure 1. The newly developed organisational leadership scale was distributed to MBA and MBL students at the Unisa SBL School. Each student was required to sample 60 employees in their organisation, thus ensuring a large sample size from various private and public organisations to test the scale's uniqueness, reliability and validity.

4.4 The research methodology

This section of the chapter discusses the research methodology used in the study, including approaches, instruments, data collection and analysis methods. It also explains the stages and processes involved during the study. Both quantitative and qualitative methods are widely used in business research to differentiate between data collection techniques and data analysis procedures.

The methodology of a research strategy is determined by identifying the research question and the subject being investigated (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Accordingly, the chosen research method should be a functional tool to answer the research question.

Tashakkori and Teddlie (2009) state that quantitative and qualitative methodologies do not exist in isolation and that research methods will either employ a single data collection technique and corresponding analysis procedures (mono-method) or the use of more than one data collection technique and analysis procedures to answer the research question, also known as the multiple methods procedure. This study used a mono-method procedure combining a single qualitative data collection technique (Interactive Qualitative Analysis) with a quantitative data analysis procedure.

Quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques and analysis procedures each have strengths and weaknesses (Creswell, 2014). Therefore, there is a distinct relationship between the data collection technique and the results achieved. The results will be affected by the methods and procedures used in the study, and it is not easy to ascertain the nature of that effect, as all different techniques and strategies will have different effects (Saunders, et al., 2019). This study limited the 'method effect' by choosing an exploratory mixed-method design and combining qualitative and quantitative techniques. This led to greater confidence in the conclusions.

In mixed methods research, a diagram of procedures is a figure used to convey the procedures used in the mixed methods design. It includes information about the data collection, analysis and interpretation of a study. A mixed-method design is complex, with multiple qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis steps. Therefore, it is helpful to have a visual diagram to illustrate all the study components together.

Mixed methods studies might be complicated to understand, and a diagram of the procedures can be helpful to the readers (Creswell, 2015).

Creswell (2015) indicates that diagrams can be drawn vertically or horizontally. It is essential not to overdraw the diagram but to keep it straightforward. The diagram needs to fit on a single page, arrows should not go in many directions, and the data collection configuration, data analysis, and interpretation for both the qualitative and quantitative phases should be well illustrated.

Creswell (2015) highlighted essential elements of a procedural diagram:
- Boxes indicate data collection and analysis for both qualitative and quantitative research.
- Circles indicate the integration and interpretation of a study.
- Procedures for the data collection and analysis phases must be briefly described with text and shown as bulleted points.
- Products that will result from each phase of data collection and analysis must be briefly described with text.
- Arrows indicate the sequence of procedures.

Below in Figure 31, find the exploratory sequential design diagram for this leadership study. It indicates the two phases of the mixed methods study and highlights the procedures for the data collection and analysis phases.

Phase I Qualitative Research

Qualitative Data Collection

Interactive Qualitative Analysis (IQA) – virtual focus group (14 participants)

Qualitative Data Analysis

Identifying themes : Primary and secondary drivers (causes), pivots (delta from null), and primary and secondary outcomes (effects)
Affinity diagrams: Open and axial coding

Qualitative Findings

Development of System Influence Diagram

Phase II Quantitative Research

Scale and Instrument Development

Creating a 32-item instrument measuring 8 organisational leadership factors

Quantitative Test of the Instrument

Administer survey to approximately 5000 individuals

Determine factor structure of items and conduct reliability analysis for scales

Quantitative Results

Determine how groups differ using ANOVA test

Figure 31: Exploratory sequential design of this study

Note. Design for this study. Own work.

4.5 Qualitative research phase

Interactive Qualitative Analysis (IQA) is a research method that attempts to deliver a systemic, rigorous and accountable framework for qualitative analysis. IQA is an appropriate design when researchers want to examine how a phenomenon is socially constructed and when the researcher wants to develop a theory which demonstrates a systemic understanding of the phenomenon (Northcutt & McCoy, 2004).

Interactive Qualitative Analysis is different from more traditional forms of qualitative research as it directly challenges the idea that the researcher is the expert who must interpret the participants' data. An Interactive Qualitative Analysis approach entrusts participants with theoretical analysis and interpretation of their data. The most notable advantage is that issues of trustworthiness, dependability and confirmability are almost eliminated because the researcher does not interpret the data. Furthermore, the   ontological foundation of Interactive Qualitative Analysis highlights the interdependence of knowledge and power positions between the researcher and the participant's (Northcutt & McCoy, 2004). It is consistent with a modern paradigm that

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addresses marginalisation, power, and the politics of the knowledge (Popkewitz & Brennan, 1997).

Participants (in this case, organisational managers) were selected as representatives of the population, because of their managerial positions and were regarded as having the authority to reflect on productive leadership behaviours. The Interactive Qualitative Analysis design further assumes that the observer and the observed are dependent which therefore challenges the accepted practice in the qualitative inquiry of separating data collection and analysis and assuming that only the researcher is qualified to interpret the data (Northcutt & McCoy, 2004). Accordingly, participants were allowed to generate, theorise on and interpret their data.

An Interactive Qualitative Analysis research design supports a socially constructed ontology and recognises that social constructions are infused with social meaning. The central construct in this study was emic leadership behaviours in an organisational context, considered to be organisational social norms. Therefore, the focus group format of Interactive Qualitative Analysis afforded the chance to study the very processes by which leaders come to describe and explain the leadership phenomenon and to uncover the latent leadership variables.

Northcutt and McCoy (2004) further rationalise that during Interactive Qualitative Analysis, "the researcher attempts to uncover the workings and relationships of social systems with analytical assistance of the research participants," and this is done as it "facilitates group processes and focus groups to create representations and therefore offering a chance to create a quilt of meaning" (Northcutt & McCoy, 2004, p. 43).

The epistemological base of Interactive Qualitative Analysis recognises that people know their world (organisational leadership) through the social construction of meaning. Deduction and induction are considered necessary to understand meaning (Northcutt & McCoy, 2004). Therefore, participants were requested to induce meaning through defining, refining, and investigating the influence relationships between the organisational leadership categories. Northcutt and McCoy (2004) further state that "IQA contends that decontextualised description is useful and possible as long as they are backed up or grounded, and therefore make a distinction between research and

story-telling" (Northcutt & McCoy, 2004). Thus, Interactive Qualitative Analysis allowed participants to construct organisational leadership meanings and develop a system representation.

IQA aligns well with theory through the usage of mind maps. When the group creates a mind map they create an endogenic theory that contains a specific set of relationships from which hypotheses can be deduced (Northcutt & McCoy, 2004). Significant strengths and factors of the Interactive Qualitative Analysis design are that it creates opportunities for participants to analyse the data collected during the research. Through this transparent process, Interactive Qualitative Analysis was used to map the participants' leadership knowledge and experience with rigour to produce powerful descriptions of the phenomenon.

Fundamentally, the IQA is a phenomenological method which enabled the focus groups to construct affinity diagrams describing the organisational leadership phenomenon. It involves both open and axial coding. In summary, IQA was an attractive, unique, and valuable method for the qualitative analysis conducted with the participants. However, IQA is more focused on rigour than contextual design, is far less modest in its claims, and is far less observational.

Ethical clearance was requested from the University of South Africa on 12 October 2020 (Form1:2020) and was granted on 23 November 2020, Ref#: 2020_SBL_AC_014_FA. A copy of the certificate is attached as Annexure D. The researcher collected the data under the supervision of Professor Anton Grobler. The outcome from the IQA allowed the researcher to conceptualise and develop an Organisational Leadership scale. The IQA results were then used to create an organisational leadership measure, which was included in the 2021 structured Leadership programme of Prof Anton Grobler with a battery of other instruments.

4.5.1 The IQA process

The following IQA procedure was followed throughout the qualitative phase based on the recommendations of Northcutt and McCoy (2004), and is explained in more detail below:

Step 1: Identifying constituents

Northcutt and McCoy (2004) postulate that IQA populations should consist of participants with mutual experiences who live or work within similar structures or have related experiences. Leaders in South African organisations were selected as the population for this phase of the study. Purposive sampling was used for selecting individuals in the study's qualitative phase (IQA), and snowball sampling was chosen as the sampling method.

This method involved a primary data source (existing organisational managers) nominating other potential data sources (other managers) who were able to participate in the research study. The Snowball sampling method is purely based on referrals, and that is how a researcher is able to generate a sample. Consequently, more than 50 email invitations were generated inviting managers on all levels of organisations to participate in the study. There were three requirements for leaders to partake in the IQA session: (i) the participants need to have experience as an organisational leader at any level in an organisation; (ii) have more than three years of experience as an organisational leader in any organisation, public or private; (iii) commit to connecting online via MS Teams for a full day.

Due to Covid-19, only one focus group session was held and this was conducted virtually through Microsoft Teams. As per IQA process requirements, a minimum of 12 participants should partake in an IQA session(Northcutt and McCoy, 2004). Therefore, only selected organisational managers could participate in the once-off virtual IQA session.

Fourteen delegates from different organisations and industries attended the full-day virtual session on 24 February 2021. The demographics and experience of the group are shared in the next chapter. A copy of the invitation that was sent through email is attached as Annexure B.

STEP 2: IQA focus group (constituency) sessions

The aim of the IQA focus group was to capture the perceptions about effective organisational leadership behaviours through the randomly selected group of organisational leaders. The virtual IQA group session took six hours to complete and

was recorded through MS Teams. The primary role of the researcher was to guide the process and keep the participants focused on generating and classifying the leadership ideas produced throughout the session (Northcutt & McCoy, 2004).

The start of the IQA session was the introductory stage, and members were encouraged to introduce themselves to break the ice. They also had the opportunity to share their work and management experience with the group. The researcher thanked the participants for their time and clarified the significance of their contribution in the study's outcome. The researcher informed participants that the session was recorded and shared Microsoft Power Point slides that guided the process. The purpose of the study, the research question and the aim of the study were shared with the participants, followed by a clarification of the IQA procedure. Background information about the structured literature review was shared, and an overview of the study was provided.

The demographics were recorded via MS Forms for every participant, including age, race, sector, industry, highest education, gender, years in a leadership role and frequency of contact with other leaders. This was important to report on the groups' composition to ensure fair representation and limit bias, especially in the diverse South African context. During this process, the researcher explained to the participants that their identities would be protected as far as possible.

Step 3: Brainstorming the fundamentals of meaning
After the introductory stage was completed, the researcher conducted a guided facilitator-led activity consisting of two phases. Firstly, to set the scene, the researcher read a statement to the group, and secondly, a guided visualisation activity was conducted. The rationale for this step was to prepare the participants for the session, specifically regarding their relaxation and concentration.

First stage:
The researcher provided background information and shared the taxonomy of Yukl (2012), describing the fifteen etic leadership behaviours.

Second stage:

Constituents were invited to participate in a visualisation activity by closing their eyes, taking a few deep breaths, and clearing their thoughts. Next, the researcher began reading through the statement listed in the next paragraph. The researcher paused after every sentence to allow the participants a couple of moments to reflect and clarify their thinking:

Visualise yourself in your work environment and your exposure to organisational leadership. Now, reflect on the part that leadership plays in this setting. Visualise engaging with or acting like an organisational leader. Observe your environment. Take note of your surroundings, the sights and sounds related to being or being the leader. Concentrate on what it feels like to be with a leader or be that leader. Now tell me about organisational leadership.

The participants were then requested to script their thoughts down on paper. With the face-to-face focus group, the members would have written their views using words, phrases or sentences on a piece of paper/ card. However, due to Covid-19 constraints, the online group was invited to brainstorm on paper and then type their thoughts into the Microsoft Teams group Chat. The group was requested to type as many ideas as possible in the Chat within 15 minutes. The researcher also guided the constituents to post one idea or concept at a time in the Chat.

Step 4: Clarification of meaning

This stage intended to reach a collectively constructed, collective meaning of each thought among the participants (Northcutt & McCoy, 2004). This stage was realised through a facilitated process where each thought was clarified. During the facilitated conversation, members were requested to add additional thoughts which came to mind.

In face-to-face focus sessions, the facilitator would appoint two assistants from the group to support the process. One assistant would read each thought aloud while the other stuck the piece of paper onto a wall. The researcher would then request the focus group member who wrote the idea down to clarify what they intended, and the rest of the participants were permitted to ask questions. However, for the virtual focus

group, the researcher directed the session by using Microsoft Teams Chat and requesting the member who typed in the thought in the chat to clarify it further. The researcher then encouraged the rest of the participants to ask questions concerning each statement in the Chat.

Step 5: Affinity analysis – Inductive and axial coding

After the meaning of each word or expression was clarified, the members identified commonalities or themes within the replies by grouping similar words with comparable meanings into clusters. These clusters were given names as chosen by the group members. Each thematically prearranged cluster of words is known as an affinity, and the method is described as inductive coding. Axial coding is referred to as the process of naming every affinity.

Inductive coding:

During the online IQA session, the researcher typed up the words and sentences from the MS Teams chat into MS PowerPoint in block format, thereby creating a virtual wall of all the words used to describe leadership in organisations. Then, by utilising the MS Teams share screen functionality, members applied a colour-coding method to cluster the views into themes. Each word or phrase was grouped into themes by the constituents, and the researcher then applied colour to the blocks as per the group's instructions. The researcher then moved the colour-coded block into clusters using the functionality available in PowerPoint.

Axial coding:

Each affinity was named and defined as part of the facilitated axial coding process. The constituents conducted this procedure which included both inductive and deductive thinking, with the result being groups of refined affinities and sub-affinities below which words were grouped. Each affinity definition needed to be clear and grounded in the information of the coloured words allocated under them (Northcutt & McCoy, 2004). The constituents were randomly divided into smaller groups (through virtual breakout rooms).

The participants were divided into breakout room groups, and each group was allocated two to three affinities. They were requested to title each affinity and provide

a detailed definition for the affinity by utilising the information to capture its meaning. The breakout groups were requested to stay true to the language used by the constituents and capture what the contributors were expressing. Next, the researcher visited each room and guided the members as required. Following this process, the virtual affinity analysis method closely emulated the face-to-face IQA approach. The breakout groups then shared their responses regarding the suggested definitions to accomplish group consensus.

Step 6: Theoretical coding

Northcutt and McCoy (2004) state that theoretical coding facilitates a methodical method of constructing hypotheses connecting each possible pair of affinities. This process offers the group members a strict procedure to establish if there is a direct influence between each likely pair of affinities. Theoretical coding comprises of the following steps:

1. Generating a set of descriptions of the relationships between the affinities.
2. Summarising these descriptions into a composite group description.

The cause-and-effect relationships between affinities were discovered by completing an Affinity Relationship Table (ART). This procedure can occur at an individual level, inside small groups through group discussions or by the use of a questionnaire (Bargate, 2014; Northcutt & McCoy, 2004). During the focus group, eight affinities were identified and defined.

In this study, four breakout room groups completed the detailed ART's virtually. The researcher emailed each group the ART template, and each breakout room group was instructed to determine the affiliation between all eight pairs of affinities in the following ways:

A directly influences B;
B directly influences A; or,
There is no relationship between A and B.

Additionally, the breakout room groups were asked to deliver an if / then statement in hypothesis form indicating the cause-and-effect relationship detailed for the pair of affinities. As an example, if the organisational leader does A, then B happens.

The completed ART's were emailed to the researcher while the session was still open. The focus groups were concluded once all four groups submitted the ART's. During the conclusion, the researcher facilitated a discussion, where members were requested to share what they learned from the IQA procedure. The following phases in the research were then clarified, the group members were acknowledged and thanked for their time, and the virtual MS Teams meeting ended. After the focus group meeting ended, the researcher compiled a composite affinity relationship table for each breakout room group, and all the ART's were joint into a combined group description. This was used for the resulting steps in the analysis of the data. The composite ART's based on the input from each focus group is shown in the next chapter under the results section.

Once a focus group SID was completed and verified through listening to the session recordings, the researcher emailed all the participants a feedback document based on their group's findings where the SID and supporting affinities were shown. The statistical results for the Combined Affinity Frequency Chart, the inter-relational diagram (IRD) and the Pareto tables will be shared in the following results chapter.

Step 7: Rationalising the system

During the last IQA step, the researcher used the combined ART from the virtual focus group and designed an Interrelationship Diagram (IRD). The IRD is developed by applying the Pareto Protocol, a statistical technique used to establish the optimal relationships to include in the IRD (Bargate, 2014). In systems terminology, the Pareto Principle proposes that "20% of the variables in a system will account for 80% of the total variation in outcomes" (Northcutt & McCoy, 2004). The procedure included the precise counting of the frequency of each relationship and arranging them into descending order. The Pareto principle was then applied to establish the system's suitable level for affinity relationships. These were the most significant number of

relationships accounting for the most variation in the system. The relationships were then scrutinised to discover if there were any conflicting relationships.

All non-conflicting relationships were then documented in a matrix IRD comprising of all the apparent relationships within the system. This method is comparable to double-entry bookkeeping, where every relationship is recorded twice in the IRD. The results of the IRD enabled the researcher to conclude the driver, pivot and outcome variables and was signified in a System Influence Diagram (SID). Positive delta affinities were relative drivers or causes and affinities with a negative delta were relative outcomes.

The affinity with the highest positive delta resultant from many OUTs but no INs, was considered the primary driver or important cause. This primary driver affects other affinities but is not affected by others. The secondary drivers are a proximate cause in the system and show more OUTs than INs. Any affinities with an equal quantity of OUTs and INs, was categorised as a pivot and had a position in the middle of the system. The secondary outcomes revealed a comparative effect in that there were more INs than OUTs. The primary outcome is the most noteworthy effect caused by other affinities but does not affect them, i.e., there are many INs but no OUTs (Northcutt & McCoy, 2004).

The resultant IRDs were subsequently used to develop the leadership system for the virtual focus group, which based on Northcutt and McCoy (2004), is a "visual representation of an entire system of influences and outcomes and is created by representing the information present in the IRD as a system of affinities and the relationships between them".

Initially, the relationships were plotted out in a cluttered SID, signifying all relationships per the IRD. To attain the final SID, SID assignments were placed out horizontally in their tentative SID sequence, with drivers on the left to outcomes on the right. Arrows presenting the path of the relationship were included between each affinity according to the Composite Affinity Relationship Table. Unnecessary links were then removed, resulting in an organised System Influence Diagram. Unnecessary links are links between two affinities that can be realised through an intermediate affinity (Northcutt & McCoy, 2004). The subsequent SID is an illustrative representation indicating how

the leadership system preserves its dynamics and where it can be influenced to alter the outcomes.

After the virtual IQA group SID was concluded and confirmed through listening to the session recordings, the researcher emailed the focus group members a feedback document. The document included the SID and affinity findings of the group. The following results chapter will share the statistical results for the Combined Affinity Frequency Chart, the inter-relational diagram (IRD), and the Pareto tables.

The purpose of the qualitative phase was to conceptualise and explore the true nature of leadership behaviours within a South African organisational context.

4.6 Quantitative research phase

The process of quantitative research typically includes the following: (i) Theory, (ii) Hypothesis, (iii) Research design, (iv) Devise measures of concepts, (v) Choose research subjects/respondents, (vi) Administer research instruments / collect data, (vii) Process data, (viii) Analyse data, (viii) Findings and conclusions, (x) Writing up the findings and conclusions. Steps (i) – (vii) will be discussed in detail in this chapter, and measures (viii) – (x) in Chapter 5.

4.6.1 Theory

The word theory is used in various ways; but most commonly, its meaning refers to the explanation of observed regularities. Deductive theory signifies the most general outlook of the nature of the relationship between theory and social research (Bryman, 2012). The researcher infers a hypothesis (or hypotheses) based on what is known in a specific domain, in this case, organisational leadership. The theory, then, must be subjected to empirical scrutiny. The social researcher must deduce a hypothesis skilfully and be able to translate it into operational terms. Theory and deduction of hypotheses come before the process of gathering data. Typically, the process of deduction involves (i) theory, (ii) hypothesis, (iii) data collection, (iv) findings or results, (v) hypotheses confirmation and (vi) amendment of theory.

The theory of this research study was derived from the IQA process. The purpose of the IQA phase was to explore organisational leadership theory and investigate the true nature of leadership behaviours within a South African organisational context. The theory was developed through identifying leadership affinities and was conceptualised in a systems diagram.

4.6.2 Hypothesis

The research question of this study is: What are the defining factors of organisational leadership behaviour within the context of South Africa, and in what ways do these emic (indigenous to South Africa) leadership behaviours contrast with etic (universal or cross-cultural) leadership behaviours? Additionally, what specific elements of leadership behaviour can be accurately measured to predict the emergence of productive organisational leadership practices? Primarily, the qualitative research question in this study sought to understand and explore the true nature of leadership behaviours within a South African organisational context and how to measure this behaviour amongst managers on all levels. This study's primary objective was to investigate and uncover the fundamental elements of leadership behaviour at all levels of management in South African organisational settings. Using Interactive Qualitative Analysis (IQA), this study attempted to develop an accurate scale for identifying and developing high-potential managers within their respective organisations.

Quantitative hypotheses are predictions of outcomes based on the literature or theories. In a sense, a hypothesis is a form of research question, but is not always stated in a question format. Hypotheses provide an expectation of what will be discovered about the phenomenon, and they can be stated in a null form or a directional form. Hypotheses are a formal way of writing questions, and they are typically found in the experimental research components of a mixed-methods study (Creswell, 2015). A hypothesis is a statement proposing a possible explanation to the question.

Useful hypotheses must be testable statements. Based on the research question, the following quantitative hypotheses were tested in this research:

Hypothesis 1: Leadership behaviours do not vary between public and private organisations.

Hypothesis 2: Participants are expected to assign above-average ratings to their leaders' behaviours.

Hypothesis 3: Male and female leaders do not exhibit different leadership behaviours.

Hypothesis 4: Perceptions of leadership behaviours do not differ between employees in core business functions and those in support roles within organisations.

Hypothesis 5: Leadership behaviours perceived by managers and non-management staff do not differ significantly.

Hypothesis 6: Perceptions of leadership behaviours do not vary among employees based on their tenure within the organisation.

These hypotheses led to the final mixed-method question driving the aim of this pragmatic study: What results will emerge from comparing the exploratory qualitative data with the quantitative instrument data, measured by a leadership instrument?

4.6.3 Quantitative research design

4.6.3.1 Scale development

Various researchers recognise that if they adopt haphazard measurement approaches, they risk yielding inaccurate data (Pallant, 2016; Hair, et al., 2019). For this reason, this study developed an emic leadership behaviour scale instead of relying on existing instruments of questionable suitability. The scale's development was based on the Interactive Qualitative Analysis phase findings explained in the previous section.

Scales are measurement instruments that are collections of items combined into a composite score (Hair, et al., 2018). They are intended to reveal levels of theoretical variables not readily observable by direct means (Hair, et al., 2018). Researchers develop scales when they want to measure a phenomenon they believe exists because of their theoretical understanding, but which cannot be assessed directly. By determining the relationships between measures, we indirectly infer the relationships between the constructs (Hair, et al., 2018).

One of the primary purposes of survey research is to investigate attitudes. The most common method for conducting such an investigation is by using a Likert scale. Named after Rensis Likert, the Likert scale is a multi-indicator or multi-item measurement tool. The objective of the Likert scale is to measure the strength of feelings about the item in question (Bryman, 2012). The Likert scale comprises a series of items (statements) which focus on a specific issue: in this case, the eight organisational leadership affinities identified in the Interactive Qualitative Analysis. Every response indicates their level of agreement or disagreement with the statements. A Likert scale is typically presented in a five-point scale format starting from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' and having a middle position of uncertain. The reply of each respondent on all the items is then scored, and the results for every item are totalled to create an overall score. Bryman (2012) suggests that, for the scale to work, each item must be a statement, not a question. Additionally, items must all relate to a similar object (in this case, organisational leadership). Lastly, the items in the scale must be interrelated to ensure the internal reliability of the scale.

Following DeVellis's (2003) guidelines, this research developed the new leadership behavioural scale to measure what constitutes effective leadership behaviours in organisations. Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill (2009) suggested two essential principles for evaluating the effectiveness of a measurement tool.

These include:

- The validity, the extent to which a test measures what we wish to measure.
- Reliability, the accuracy and precision of a measurement procedure.

DeVellis (2003) postulated that research should clearly determine what it wants to measure. This study therefore measured the eight leadership affinities as defined in the qualitative phase, and a Likert Scale was chosen to measure the responses to each item. A Likert scale is the most common item format in instruments measuring opinions, beliefs and attitudes. In line with standard practice and to avoid the challenges of a neutral/ undecided option, the responses to the statements formed a

five-point continuum from "strongly disagree," "disagree," "uncertain," "agree," and "strongly agree".

To test the reliability and validation of the measure, a scale of 32 items was administered to a population sample as part of the survey strategy method.

4.6.3.2 Instrument used to collect the data

For this research, a questionnaire was formulated using the eight affinities discovered in the qualitative phase of the study. Table 15 highlights the scales (affinities) and the questions that tested that specific scale. The complete questionnaire is in Annexure III.

Table 15: Affinities, theme and questions of the leadership scale

Affinity	Theme Explanation	Questions
1. Leader Awareness	Manage and understand the intra (own) and inner (others) states to influence subordinates positively towards the achievement of organisational goals.	1. In my organisation, leaders manage their own emotions effectively. 2. In my organisation, leaders share their feelings appropriately. 3. In my organisation, leaders value and care for people. 4. In my organisation, leaders consider different viewpoints with compassion and understanding.
2. Leadership Culture	The DNA of winning together, trusting each other, having high ethical standards, and recognising subordinates.	5. In my organisation, leaders trust me to get the job done. 6. In my organisation, leaders demonstrate high ethical standards. 7. In my organisation, leaders understand what winning means. 8. In my organisation, leaders recognise me as an important member of the team.
3. Leader Vision	The ability to plan and imagine an ideal future state,	9. In my organisation, leaders provide me with a clear picture of the ideal future.

		translated it into an actionable and workable plan.
		10. In my organisation, leaders direct me with clear objectives.
		11. In my organisation, leaders frequently discuss the future state and where we are now.
		12. In my organisation, leaders develop workable plans to achieve organisational objectives.
4. Leadership Style and Characteristics	Achieving extra ordinary results and achievements from a diverse group of people through courage, humility, innovation, integrity, guided by aligned values.	13. In my organisation, leaders take responsibility, even when under pressure.
		14. In my organisation, leaders are inspirational because of their actions.
		15. In my organisation, leaders are humble and act with integrity.
		16. In my organisation, leaders change and innovate processes and procedures.
5. Engaging Communication	Providing constant, motivating and transparent messages whilst sharing relevant knowledge and mentoring simultaneously.	17. In my organisation, leaders communicate openly and transparently.
		18. In my organisation, leaders regularly provide clear expectations of what I need to do.
		19. In my organisation, leaders coach and mentor me to achieve success.
		20. In my organisation, leaders challenge me through engaging conversations.
6. Support	Through understanding and connectivity, leaders create a safe space where subordinates are engaged and willing to take on risks.	21. In my organisation, leaders create a safe emotional space to work in.
		22. In my organisation, leaders understand my individual development needs.
		23. In my organisation, leaders are available when I need them.
		24. In my organisation, leaders encourage me to take risks.

7. Team Dynamics	Using the collective energy and diversity of the team members effectively in achieving the organisational objectives.	25. In my organisation, leaders embrace diversity.
		26. In my organisation, leaders use collective energy of team members to achieve goals.
		27. In my organisation, leaders create a sense of belonging and unity amongst team members.
		28. In my organisation, leaders inspire us by developing healthy relationships.
8. Delivering Strategy	Driving a stake into the ground and achieve consistent results sustainably through appropriate reward and recognition.	29. In my organisation, leaders challenge my results. (what is possible?)
		30. In my organisation, leaders drive results intensely.
		31. In my organisation, leaders keep me accountable for my results.
		32. In my organisation, leaders recognise consistent performance.

4.6.3.3 Quantitative research design strategy

Quantitative research is focused on the deductive testing of hypotheses and theories, with a solid reference to numbers and mathematical processes. Quantitative research describes any form of data collection that either directly or indirectly provides numerical values that allow for data analysis through graphs and statistics to generate statistical data (Saunders, et al., 2016).

One of the biggest criticisms of quantitative research is the reliance on instruments and procedures that are etic by nature. Too often, etic instruments are employed to measure an emic phenomenon, causing concerns about the reliability and validity of the results. During this study, an emic instrument was developed based on the results of the qualitative phase of the study. Once the instrument was developed, a survey strategy was employed to complete the quantitative research part of this study.

The quantitative data was gathered and analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics review the characteristics of a data set and describe a

sample, and there cannot be uncertainty in descriptive statistics as the research only describes the measured items. The study did not attempt to draw conclusions about the characteristics of a larger population. Commons tools of descriptive statistics include central tendency (using the mean or the median to discover the midpoint of the dataset), dispersion (how far out from the midpoint do the data spread) and skewness (informing the researcher if the spreading of values is symmetric or skewed).

Inferential statistics lets the researcher test a hypothesis or evaluate whether the data applies to the broader population. In other words, taking data from the sample and making conclusions about a larger population from which the sample was drawn). For inferential statistics to be effective, the study must clearly define the population being studied (in this case organisational managers), extract a representative sample from the population and use analyses which include the sampling error. Finally, the data collected was examined, and the results were used to propose reasons for specific associations between the variables.

4.6.3.4 Time horizon

The time horizon was cross-sectional in this study. Quantitative research studies are intended to examine a phenomenon collected from a population. Thus, data could either be collected at a single point in time (cross-sectional) or by collecting data across multiple points in time (longitudinal). Cross-sectional studies are commonly used in exploratory research and often employ the survey strategy. This research intended to study a particular phenomenon at a certain point in time and therefore, applied the cross-sectional approach.

4.6.3.5 Research environment

Research outcomes vary depending on whether they happen in natural environmental or field conditions, or in controlled, laboratory conditions (Cooper & Schindler, 2010). This study was completed under field conditions within the South African public and private sectors.

4.6.3.6 Sampling design

Sampling is the process of choosing elements from a population to represent the population (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). In securing a sample, several vital questions must be answered, and each question necessitates unique information.

The target population to test the behavioural leadership scale was organisational managers across various sectors in both private and public sectors of the South African economy. The leadership scale was incorporated in a range of instruments used by students enrolled in a Master of Business Administration (MBA) or Master of Business Leadership (MBL) degree through UNISA's Graduate School of Business Leadership. Using their organisations, the students gained access to the target population (respondents). The students, therefore, worked as fellow researchers collecting data from different South African organisations.

This study required a minimum of (n) 384 in the sample size to build a 95% confidence level. The estimated population size was 10 000, with an expected response (p) distribution rate of 50%. The sampling framework consisted of 48 public sector organisations and 49 private sector organisations which participated. Each MBL and MBA student obtained 60 questionnaires for their respective organisations. Therefore, over 5000 surveys were completed. All fellow researchers had to populate and submit the data from the completed questionnaires on an Excel document by the 18th of July 2021 to Professor Anton Grobler. The aggregate data was statistically used to determine the validity and reliability of the Organisational Leadership Behavioural Scale. All responses were treated as anonymous.

Non-probability sampling (or judgemental sampling) was used during this study; it is arbitrary and subjective. When a study chooses subjectively, it is usually done with a pattern or scheme in mind. The design for this research was to observe how this emic leadership scale differed from other etic leadership scales by comparing the efficacy and accuracy of the instruments.

Judgemental sampling enables the researcher to use judgement to select cases that best allow the researcher to answer the research questions and meet the objectives (Saunders, et al., 2019). During this final step, the relationship between organisational leadership behaviours and aspects of organisational behaviour was investigated.

Literature suggests various drivers improve organisational behaviour, including leadership's presence and influence.

4.6.3.7 Descriptive statistics

The research questions and objectives must guide the choice of statistics (Saunders, et al., 2016). Descriptive statistics describe and summarise data in a meaningful way so that patterns and observations can emerge from the analysis. Descriptive statistics do not allow deductions to be drawn outside of what the data reflect but are a modest yet effective way to describe the data. It is a method for presenting quantitative descriptions appropriately and permits the researcher to describe and compare variables numerically. Furthermore, it is beneficial to summarise the findings of descriptive statistical data by using a combination of tables, graphs, charts, and statistical commentary to discuss the results.

Once the data is collected, the researcher will utilise a coding process to successfully conduct quantitative analysis (Babbie, 2016). A detailed data analysis plan was developed by the researcher, and a Senior Manager of Information Services at the University of South Africa assisted the researcher in his capacity as a statistical consultant. During the discussions, the following topics were explored: (i) MS Excel database editing and variable mapping (ii) Cleaning of data (iii) IBM SPSS database design (iv) Importing of data (v) Statistical analysis including case screening, sample profiles, scale development, univariate analysis (descriptive and construct level), bivariate analysis (group differences and construct level) and Multivariate analysis (correlation and construct level). It should be stated that although the statistical consultant advised the researcher with the statistical design and analysis, the researcher made final decisions regarding the study's data analysis based on the predetermined data analysis plan and the study's objectives.

Descriptive statistics allowed the development of a valid and reliable measure of Organisational Leadership within an organisational context. Their application determined the statistical relationship between Organisation Leadership, as measured with the new instrument, and various organisational behaviour constructs. During scale development, researchers should be aware of two important characteristics: reliability and validity (Pallant, 2016). The scale's reliability reveals how free the

instrument is from random error. The most used indicators of a scale's reliability are (i) test-retest reliability (also known as 'temporal stability) and internal consistency. This is the degree to which the items in the scale are all measuring the same underlying attribute. It can be measured in various ways, but the most commonly used statistical method is Cronbach's coefficient alpha (Pallant, 2016). Cronbach's alpha indicates the average correlation between all the items on the scale. Values range from 0 to 1, with higher values signifying greater reliability. Different scales require different levels of reliability, depending on the nature and purpose of the scale, but Nunnally (1978) advocates a minimum level of 0.7.

The validity of a scale refers to the degree to which the scale measures what it is supposed to measure (Pallant, 2016). The main categories of validity are content validity, criterion validity and construct validity. Content validity indicates the adequacy with which a measure or scale has sampled from the intended area of content. Criterion validity interests the relationship between scale scores and specific quantified, measurable criteria. Construct validity comprises testing a scale not against a single criterion but in terms of theoretically derived hypotheses regarding the nature of the underlying variables or constructs. It is explored by examining its relationship with other constructs, both related (convergent validity) and unrelated (discriminant validity).

For the current leadership measure, various statistical tests were applied, including confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and exploratory factor analysis (EFA), to reduce the number of scale items within the leadership framework structure. Cross-validation tests were also performed to ensure congruence.

Specific steps were employed, which included:
- Case screening was done to inspect the missing value analysis, and a number of cases were identified and excluded.
- Common Method Bias was investigated using Harman's single factor test (EFA) as well as the Common Latent Factor | Marker Variable (Social Desirability Scale) (CFA).

- Invariance analysis (configural, metric, scalar) to calculate construct scores for the scale.
- Analysing descriptive statistics by conducting t-tests.
- Group differences were inspected based on summated average scores.
- Scale validation was done by convergent and discriminant validity (correlations and multiple regression) and assessed in relation to Construct validity.

Construct validity was tested and refers to the broad approach to ensure the validity of a set of items representative of a conceptual definition. It includes specific sub-elements of convergent validity, discriminant validity and nomological validity. Convergent validity refers to the degree to which two measures (scales) of the same concept are correlated, whereas discriminant validity refers to the degree to which two concepts are distinct. Every scale in the analysis must be shown to have discriminant validity from all other scales. Nomological validity refers to the extent to which the scale makes accurate predictions of other concepts in a theoretically-based model.

The instrument was tested across sectors and at different levels in organisations. Samples were divided between public and private sectors to test the equivalence or inequivalence of the data (does the structure looks the same for private and public organisations). Descriptive statistics were used in this study to investigate whether the data were normally distributed or not. Discriminant validity tests were also performed to test the unique contribution of each of the factors of the leadership scale in terms of other social factors. Multiple regression analysis was performed through SPSS to identify the unique influences of the variables on each other. Convergent validity tests were also performed to determine whether a positive relationship existed between the factors of the leadership scale and aspects of organisational behaviour.

4.7 Summary

This chapter provided a comprehensive overview of the study's methodology and design. This research aims to provide a deeper understanding of the nuances pertinent to organisational leadership by applying the principles of social research. The choice of a mixed-methods study reflects the research's commitment to a holistic

understanding of the phenomena. This study employed an exploratory model that collected quantitative data first and then qualitative data second.

The research process is guided by a pragmatic paradigm, which is regarded as the most suitable philosophical basis for this study. The emphasis of this paradigm on practical outcomes and real-world applications is well suited to multi-dimensional research on organisational leadership. The pragmatism paradigm is also compatible with the implementation of interactive qualitative analysis (IQA) in the qualitative phase of research. IQA is supported by the theory and application of system influence diagrams, which provide a systematic, verifiable, and rigorous framework for qualitative analysis, assuring the accuracy of interpreted data. A 32-item organisational leadership scale was also presented as an essential tool in this chapter. The quantitative data collection method relied on non-probability sampling with a sample size of over 5,000 respondents.

In conclusion, this chapter provided an exhaustive framework for investigating the complexities of organisational leadership. Using a pragmatic paradigm, the design and implementation of a mixed method of IQA and organisational leadership scales demonstrate a commitment to the rigorous and comprehensive investigation.

Chapter 5 describes the presentation, analysis, and interpretation of data according to the systematic methodology described in this chapter. This methodology ensures that the findings provide a thorough understanding of the nature of organisational leadership, paving the way for future research in this field.

5. PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter is a significant advance in understanding the complexities of organisational leadership, and it draws directly on the methodological framework established in Chapter 4. The fourth chapter elaborated on the research design's philosophical assumptions, combining a mixed-methods strategy with a pragmatist paradigm. This combination utilised extensive quantitative and qualitative data systematically collected from sampled respondents. Using interactive qualitative analysis (IQA) during the qualitative phase and developing the 32-point Organisational Leadership Scale allowed this research to provide insight into organisational leadership.

In Chapter 5, the emphasis transfers from the design of a research strategy to its implementation and results. In this section, we delve into the qualitative and quantitative aspects of the study by analysing, interpreting, and presenting the data in a manner that moves us closer to our ultimate study objective, to develop an emic organisational leadership scale. The qualitative section investigated the social construction of leadership and aimed to develop a systems-theoretic understanding of it. In parallel, the quantitative phase measured and tested research hypotheses using structured response categories.

In conclusion, this chapter presents and analyse quantitative and qualitative data, providing detailed interpretations highlighting organisational leadership fundamentals. Examining the complexities of leadership behaviour and its impact on South African organisations, this chapter seeks to make an important contribution to the field of organisational leadership.

5.2 Qualitative research findings

The study employed an exploratory sequential mixed method design, first collecting and analysing qualitative data through IQA, and then translating these findings into a measurable scale for statistical testing. The objective of the qualitative phase was to define South African organisational leadership behaviours and develop a suitable scale for measuring them.

The results of the qualitative phase answered the following sub-questions:
- What constituted effective South African organisational leadership in 2021?
- How do leadership behaviours manifest themselves in an organisational context?
- What factors comprise leaders' perceptions of effective leadership behavioural practices within an organisational context?
- What are the primary drivers of organisational leadership?
- What are the primary outcomes of organisational leadership?
- How do these factors relate to each other in a perceived system of cause and effect?
- What correlations were observed between leadership and management practices?

There were three requirements for leaders to partake in the session:
- The participants needed to have experience as organisational leaders at any level.
- The participants had more than three years of experience as a corporate leader.
- The participants needed to commit to connecting online via MS Teams for a period of one day.

The selected group, who made up the target sample of 14, were all experienced organisational leaders with a mean (average) of 17 years in corporate leadership positions. Of the group, 57% were male, and 43% were female and who worked in 10 different industries. The average age of the participants was 49, with the youngest being 35 and the oldest 65. A total of 14% of the target population had grade 12, 21% obtained a diploma, 21% received an undergraduate degree, 36% of the target

population had a master's degree, and 7% obtained a PhD. Regarding race, 71% of the population was white, 7% coloured, 7% Indian and 14% black.

In this study, eight IQA affinities were identified as listed in Table 16.

Table 16: IQA Affinities

1	Leadership Culture
2	Engaging Communication
3	Support
4	Delivering Strategy
5	Emotional Awareness of Leader
6	Team Dynamics
7	Vision
8	Leadership Style and Characteristics

After the IQA focus group session, the researcher used the composite affinity relationship table (ART) from the focus group and designed the interrelationship diagram (IRD). According to Northcutt and McCoy (2004), the IRD is developed by applying the Pareto Protocol, a statistical method used to determine the optimal relationships to comprise the IRD. The process included the exact count of the frequency of each relationship and sorting them into descending order, as illustrated in Table 17.

Table 17: Frequency table

Combined Interview Theoretical Code Frequency Table					
Affinity Pair Relationship	Frequency	Affinity Pair Relationship	Frequency	Affinity Pair Relationship	Frequency
1 → 2	4	2 → 6	4	4 → 7	0
1 ← 2	0	2 ← 6	0	4 ← 7	4
1 → 3	3	2 → 7	2	4 → 8	0
1 ← 3	1	2 ← 7	2	4 ← 8	4
1 → 4	4	2 → 8	0	5 → 6	4
1 ← 4	0	2 ← 8	4	5 ← 6	0
1 → 5	0	3 → 4	3	5 → 7	3
1 ← 5	4	3 ← 4	1	5 ← 7	0
1 → 6	4	3 → 5	0	5 → 8	3

1 ← 6	0	3 ← 5	4	5 ← 8	1
1 → 7	3	3 → 6	3	6 → 7	1
1 ← 7	1	3 ← 6	1	6 ← 7	2
1 → 8	0	3 → 7	1	6 → 8	1
1 ← 8	4	3 ← 7	3	6 ← 8	3
2 → 3	2	3 → 8	0	7 → 8	2
2 ← 3	2	3 ← 8	4	7 ← 8	2
2 → 4	4	4 → 5	0		
2 ← 4	0	4 ← 5	4		
2 → 5	1	4 → 6	0		
2 ← 5	3	4 ← 6	4		

1: Leadership Culture, 2: Engaging Communication, 3: Support, 4: Delivering Strategy, 5: Emotional Awareness of Leader, 6: Team Dynamics, 7: Vision, 8: Leadership Style and Characteristics

In the next step, the Pareto principle was applied to establish the system's suitable level for affinity relationships. These were the greatest number of relationships accounting for the maximum variation in the system. The relationships were then investigated to discover if there were any conflicting relationships.

The non-conflicting relationships were documented in a IRD matrix, comprising of all the apparent relationships within the system, as illustrated in Table 18. This double-entry system records each IRD twice. The result of the IRD allowed the researcher to establish the driver, pivot and outcome variables and was presented in a System Influence Diagram (SID). Affinities with positive delta were the relative drivers or causes, and those with a negative delta were relative outcomes.

Table 18: Interrelationship diagram

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	OUT	IN	Δ
1		↑	↑	↑	←	↑	↑	←	5	2	3
2	←		↑	↑	←	↑	↑	←	4	3	1
3	←	←		↑	←	↑	←	←	2	5	-3
4	←	←	←		←	←	←	←	0	7	-7
5	↑	↑	↑	↑		↑	↑	↑	7	0	7
6	←	←	←	↑	←		←	←	1	6	-5
7	←	←	↑	↑	←	↑		↑	4	3	1
8	↑	↑	↑	↑	←	↑	←		5	2	3

1: Leadership Culture, 2: Engaging Communication, 3: Support, 4: Delivering Strategy, 5: Emotional Awareness of Leader, 6: Team Dynamics, 7: Vision, 8: Leadership Style and Characteristics

Note: Count the number of up arrows (↑) or *Outs*
Count the number of left arrows (←) or *Ins*
Subtract the number of *Ins* from the *Outs* to determine the (Δ) *Deltas*
Δ = Out- In

Table 19: Tabular IRD – Sorted in descending order of Δ

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	OUT	IN	Δ
5	↑	↑	↑	↑		↑	↑	↑	7	0	7
8	↑	↑	↑	↑	←	↑	←		5	2	3
1		↑	↑	↑	←	↑	↑	←	5	2	3
2	←		↑	↑	←	↑	↑	←	4	3	1
7	←	←	↑	↑	←	↑		↑	4	3	1
3	←	←		↑	←	↑	←	←	2	5	-3
6	←	←	←	↑	←		←	←	1	6	-5
4	←	←	←		←	←	←	←	0	7	-7

1: Leadership Culture, 2: Engaging Communication, 3: Support, 4: Delivering Strategy, 5: Emotional Awareness of Leader, 6: Team Dynamics, 7: Vision, 8: Leadership Style and Characteristics

As seen in Table 19, the affinity with the highest positive delta resultant from many OUTs but no INs, was considered the primary driver or important cause (number five: Emotional Awareness of Leader). This primary driver affects other affinities but is not affected by others. The secondary drivers (numbers eight and one) are proximate causes in the system and show more OUTs than INs. If there was an affinity with an equal number of OUTs and INs, it was labelled as a pivot and had a position in the middle of the system. In this case, the secondary outcomes revealed a relative effect in that there were more INs than OUTs and the primary outcome (number four: Delivering Strategy) was the most significant effect caused by other affinities but did not affect them, i.e. there are many INs but no OUTs (Northcutt & McCoy, 2004).

The resulting IRDs were then used to develop the system for the virtual focus group (Northcutt and McCoy,2004). To achieve the final SID, SID assignments are plotted out horizontally in their tentative SID order, i.e., drivers on the left to outcomes on the right. Arrows showing the direction of the relationship were included between each affinity according to the Composite Affinity Relationship Table. Redundant links are links between two affinities that can be achieved through an intermediary affinity (Northcutt & McCoy, 2004). Redundant links were then removed, resulting in an uncluttered System Influence Diagram. A tentative System Influence Diagram was created, as illustrated in Table 20 below.

Table 20: Tentative system influence diagram

Tentative SID Assignments	
5 Emotional Awareness	Primary Driver
8 Leadership Style and Characteristics	Secondary Driver
1 Leadership Culture	Secondary Driver
2 Engaging Communication	Secondary Driver
7 Vision	Secondary Driver
3 Support	Secondary Outcome
6 Team Dynamics	Secondary Outcome
4 Delivering Strategy	Primary Outcome

From the SID data, leadership constructs manifested themselves with a clear primary driver and outcome. There were notably no pivots in the results of this study. The primary driver was identified as the emotional awareness of the leader, and the primary outcome was to deliver on strategy. The SID in Figure 32 provides an insightful picture of the final IQA System Influence Diagram from the focus group held virtually on 24 February 2021. It is worth noting that some of the organisational leadership affinities identified in this part of the study correlate strongly with management theory. The resulting SID is a graphic representation showing how the system maintains its dynamics and where it can be influenced to change its outcomes, as in Figure 33.

ORGANISATIONAL LEADERSHIP SYSTEM INFLUENCE DIAGRAM
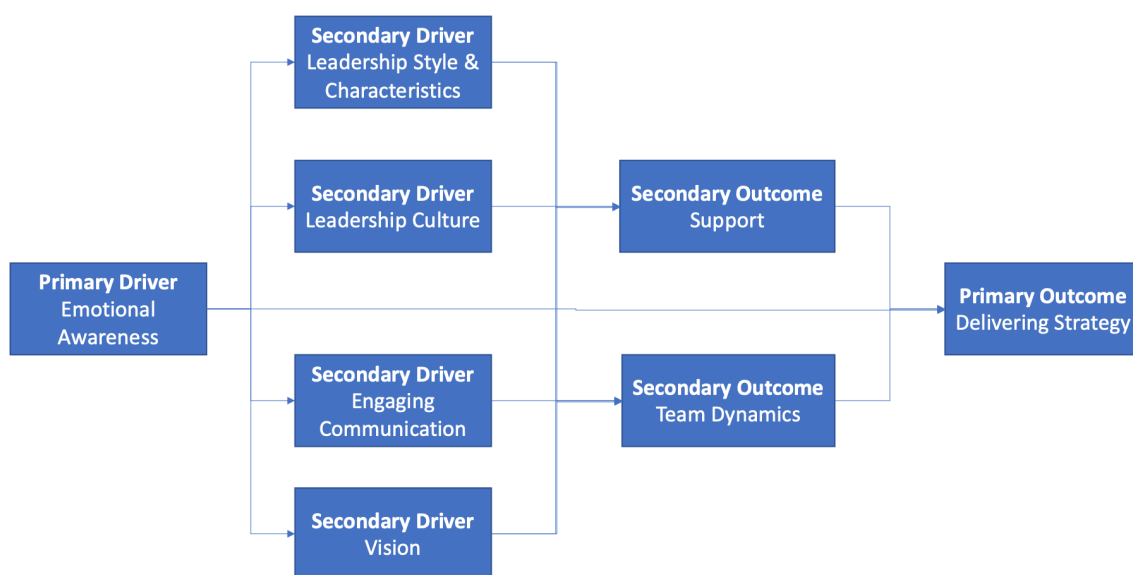
Figure 32: System influence diagram (SID)

The eight affinities are listed below, with a detailed description of the meaning of each affinity. The focus group determined the affinity definition during the virtual IQA session.

Affinity 1: Leadership culture

The DNA of winning together, trusting each other, having high ethical standards, and recognising subordinates.

Affinity 2: Engaging communication

We provide constant, motivating, and transparent messages while simultaneously sharing relevant knowledge and mentoring.

Affinity 3: Support

Leaders create a safe space through understanding and connectivity where subordinates are engaged and are willing to take risks.

Affinity 4: Delivering strategy

Driving a stake into the ground and achieving consistent results sustainably through appropriate reward and recognition.

Affinity 5: Emotional awareness of leader

Manage and understand the intra (own) and inner (others) states to influence subordinates positively towards achieving organisational goals.

Affinity 6: Team dynamics

Using the collective energy and diversity of the team members effectively in achieving organisational objectives.

Affinity 7: Vision

The ability to plan and imagine an ideal future state translated it into an actionable and workable plan.

Affinity 8: Leadership style and characteristics

We are achieving extraordinary results and achievements from a diverse group of people through courage, humility, innovation, and integrity, guided by aligned values.

The purpose of the qualitative phase was to conceptualise and explore the true nature of leadership behaviours within a South African organisational context. A total of 32 items were developed, all presented as a positive statement, to measure the eight leadership factors. Below find a summary of the factors and which questions measured which factor:

Factor 1: Leader Awareness (items 1, 2, 3, 4)
Factor 2: Leadership Culture (items 5, 6, 7, 8)
Factor 3: Leader Vision (items 9, 10, 11, 12)
Factor 4: Leadership Style and Characteristics (items 13, 14, 15, 16)
Factor 5: Engaging Communication (items 17, 18, 19, 20)
Factor 6: Support (items 21, 22, 23, 24)
Factor 7: Team Dynamics (items 25, 26, 27, 28)
Factor 8: Delivering Strategy (items 29, 30, 31, 32)

Based on the findings of the IQA session, organisational leadership in a South African context can be defined as exhibiting high levels of awareness (self and others) and ethical standards whilst creating a winning mindset in subordinates. These leaders nurture trusting relationships with subordinates whilst displaying courage, humility, innovation, and integrity, all guided by aligned values. They communicate engagingly and transparently to create a safe space where subordinates are encouraged to take risks. These leaders deliver extraordinary results from a diverse group of people through appropriate reward and recognition practices.

5.3 Quantitative research findings

This section expands on the quantitative elements and outcomes of this study. The conceptualisation and development of the study were achieved by (i) conducting a literature review of leadership (chapter 2); (ii) coding a structured literature review of leadership articles in selected bibliographic databases of African leadership literature

published from 1960 to 2019 (chapter 3); (iii) collecting and analysing qualitative data using Interactive Qualitative Analysis to identify organisational leadership behaviours; and (iv) developing a valid organisational leadership scale (chapter 4). The conceptualisation and development phases of the study culminated in a measure. This section of the study explores the validity and reliability of the leadership measure.

To test the reliability and validity of the measure, the OL scale of 32 items was included in a battery of instruments used by students pursuing a Master of Business Leadership (MBL) or Master of Business Administration (MBA) degree through UNISA's Graduate School of Business Leadership. The students, using their respective employers, gained access to 5308 respondents. The students acted as fellow researchers and field workers collecting data from different South African organisations. The aggregate data was used to statistically determine the validity and reliability of the Organisational Leadership Behavioural Scale (OL).

The data analysis plan was conceptualised and consisted of the following nine steps: (i) statistical objectives, (ii) data sources and methodology, (iii) case screening, (iv) sample and other observed characteristics, (v) scale development, (vi) construct descriptive, (vii) group differences based on summated averages scores, (viii) assessing internal consistency reliability of validated scales and (viii) scale validation in terms of convergent and discriminant validity (correlations & multiple regression).

Each of these steps is explored in a detailed analysis below.

5.3.1 Quantitative objectives

Data analysis processes and coding schemes must be appropriate to the nature and objectives of the study (Babbie, 2016). The current study's purposes included conceptualising and developing a valid measure of organisational leadership within a South African context and determining the statistical relationships of constructs in organisation leadership, as measured with the new instrument, and various organisational behaviour constructs.

5.3.2 Data sources and methodology

During concepts of measurements, the researcher must decide whom to study and why (Babbie, 2016). The population for a research study is the group of people about which the researcher wants to draw conclusions, and is referred to as the complete set. In this study, the population were employees on various levels (managerial and non-managerial) in South African public and private organisations about whom the researcher wanted to draw conclusions. Due to its size, it would be impossible to study all the members of this population (complete set). However, the researcher collected a sample from the population to understand what can be learned. The subset of the population is referred to as the sample. Babbie (2016) suggests that the sample must represent the population as closely as possible.

The sample size in this study (n = 5 308) could be described as public and private sector employees within the Republic of South Africa. The targeted population consisted of private companies and public sectors employees across various sectors in the South African economy. The Organisational Leadership Behavioural Scale (OL) was included in a range of instruments used by students pursuing a Master of Business Leadership (MBL) or Master of Business Administration (MBA) degree through UNISA's Graduate School of Business Leadership.

Using their respective employers, the students gained access to the respondents (target population) through their employers. The students, therefore, acted as field workers collecting data from different South African organisations. The data sources were anonymously obtained from 48 public and 49 private sector organisations. All fellow researchers had to populate and submit the sample (data) from the completed questionnaires on an Excel document by the 18th of July 2021 to Professor Anton Grobler. A statistical consultant assisted the researcher in the MS Excel database editing and analysis in SPSS. Fieldworkers were provided with clear instructions and guidelines about the steps and processes involved in collecting the data from their respective organisations.

5.3.3 Case screening

It is essential to examine the data for errors and inconsistencies before it is analysed because errors in data can have profound implications on the analysis of data. Pallant

(2016) suggests two steps in the screening and cleaning of the data. These include: (i) checking for errors (if the variables for scores are out of range); and (ii) finding and correcting the errors in the data file.

There are always risks involved with the specific data collection method chosen by the researcher. In this study, a large data sample of n=5308 was collected by Master of Business Leadership (MBL) or Master of Business Administration (MBA) degree students as part of a more extensive study. The risk involved was that the researcher of this study entrusted fellow students to act as field workers to collect the required data.

Fieldwork is challenging because of the battle between what is theoretically suitable on the one hand and what is practically achievable on the other hand (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019). It is preferred to safeguard representativeness in the sample, consistency of procedures and good data collection, as employees in organisations may constrain access to information or lose the questionnaires (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2016). In this study, the researcher regarded the sample size of n=5308 as suitable for representing the population of South African public and private workers.

5.3.3.1 Missing value analysis

Neither researcher nor supervisor can guarantee the quality of data. To overcome this risk, several statistical steps should be taken during a study to ensure the accuracy of the data. The first step in this study was to conduct a missing value analysis, and the researcher discovered that only 3 out of the n=5308 cases had missing values. These 3 cases (with missing values) were excluded from further analysis. Therefore, n = 5305 was the sample size for all other statistical purposes.

Pallant (2016) further suggests that the presence of many missing cases should cause the researcher to ask why. However, 3 missing cases out of 5308 amount to an insignificant number of 0,05%. The number was low enough to exclude the 3 cases and continue work with the remainder of the data set without deep-diving into the reason for the missing data. It is also important to note that no cases in the sample size of n=5305 were corrected or altered in any way.

5.3.3.2 Unengaged responses

When soliciting questions from respondents, the researcher must decide on a specific response format beforehand, as this will have implications during the statistical analysis phase of the study (Pallant, 2016). Researchers should thus try and provide as wide a range of responses to the questions as possible (Pallant, 2016). This study used a Likert-type scale to ensure a wide range of answers, as illustrated below in Table 21.

Table 21: Likert-type Scale

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

By providing 5 points on the scale, the researcher aimed for a wide range of possible scores to increase the accuracy of the data during the statistical analysis. The advantage of a Likert scale is that it is relatively easy to construct and administer. Additionally, the instructions that accompany the scale are usually easy to understand. The disadvantage of a Likert scale is that it takes a long time to complete in comparison to the semantic differential scale. Another disadvantage of the Likert scale is that care needs to be taken using it in cross-cultural research, as there may be cultural differences in the willingness to express agreement or disagreement (DeVellis, 2012).

The researcher had to consider the risk and reality that South Africa has 11 official languages, and that the questionnaire would only be administered in English. Only 4,892,623 South Africans speak English as their first language which makes up 9.6% of the country's total population (South Africa Info, 2022). This can cause a variation in the interpretations of the questions. It would seem a real art to be able to design and write clear questionnaire items, especially in a South African context with its multi-dimensional cultures and languages. To improve the quality of questions, it is suggested to avoid long, complex questions, double negatives, double-barrelled questions, abbreviations, jargon, words with double meaning and leading questions

(Pallant, 2016). The researcher attempted to apply these rules stringently during the design of the questions.

When considering scales, inverse or negatively coded items can be defined as directionally opposite to the logic of the construct being measured (Weijters, Geuens, & Schillewaert, 2009). Some authors argue that negative coded items reduce acquiescence bias, which is when respondents tend to agree with every statement as an adaption response pattern (Baumgartner & Steenkamp, 2001). The researcher considered including inverse or negatively coded items into the scales, as it is common practice in social science research (Pallant, 2016). However, there can be a dilemma in combining negative and positive scales in the same instrument. Some studies indicate that a combination of positive and negative coded items fails to reduce acquiescence bias and that, in some cases, the quantity of responses between both types of coded items is very similar (Sauro & Lewis, 2011).

Various studies indicated and revealed problems associated with negative coded items, such as responding inconsistently or not paying attention to the difference between items worded positively and negatively (Van Sonderen, Sanderman, & Coyne, 2013). Some studies even indicated lower scores on the negative coded items (Weems, Onwuegbuzie, Schreiber, & Eggers, 2003). These low negative scores will result in low levels of correlation between the items and the total scores, which will lead to reduced reliability in the intended scale. A common problem with negatively coded items is that they are more intercorrelated, especially on unidimensional scales (Salazar, 2015).

However, the evidence of previous studies indicated that including only positive items could lead to acquiescence bias, and that including negative items could make matters worse, as the combination of both positive and negative items in many cases truly affects the internal consistency of the scales. After careful consideration and based on the advice of various studies, the researcher decided to only include positive items in the scale.

Using statistics and applying the standard deviation, the researcher could identify unengaged responses. These results were achieved by applying the standard

deviation not across specific items in the scale or the scale itself but across the cases in the sample. The number of cases with zero standard deviation was = 0: 409 out of n = 5 305. Removing all cases with a standard deviation lower than 0,5 provided a total of <0.5: 1671 cases. This means that 3634 cases remained if all cases with a standard deviation lower than <0,5 were removed from the data set. Below find Table 22 indicating that only 7,7% of the respondents showed zero variations in the answers.

Table 22: Zero standard deviation data

sd_OL = 0					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	4896	92,3	92,3	92,3
	1	409	7,7	7,7	100,0
	Total	**5305**	**100**	**100**	

Analysing the data, the researcher discovered that 31,5% of the respondents showed a standard deviation of less than 0,50%. The results are illustrated in Table 23 below.

Table 23: Standard deviation data less than 0.50%

sd_OL <0.50					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	3634	68,5	68,5	68,5
	1	1671	31,5	31,5	100
	Total	**5305**	**100**	**100**	

One of the most challenging decisions during statistical analysis is to decide if cases with low or no standard deviations should be included or excluded. It is challenging to account for unengaged respondents on a single scale. Can the researcher assume that the low deviation was due to unengaged respondents? Does the low deviation indicate something thought-provoking about how those respondents' viewed leadership in their organisations, or are the low standard deviations an indication of a homogenous scale? A battery of other instruments was included in the questionnaire, and the other instruments indicated acceptable variation which meant that respondents engaged differently with the different scales. The OL scale showed a unique characteristic that the respondents could agree with each statement.

Therefore, excluding the respondents who agreed with every statement would be biased. Consequently, it can be anticipated that, in future studies, a portion of the sample population will agree with the OL scale statements.

As described, the OL scale allows for specific similar ratings. When asked to rate organisational leaders, certain respondents are comfortable rating their leaders high on all the questions. In contrast, other respondents (as seen in the histogram below) are far more critical of their leader's behaviours. How employees feel and reflect about their organisational leaders directly impacts the ratings. Figure 33 below indicates the initial histogram of standard deviations on the OL scale. Over and above the 409 respondents that showed zero deviation, the rest of the histogram indicate an acceptable spread of deviations.
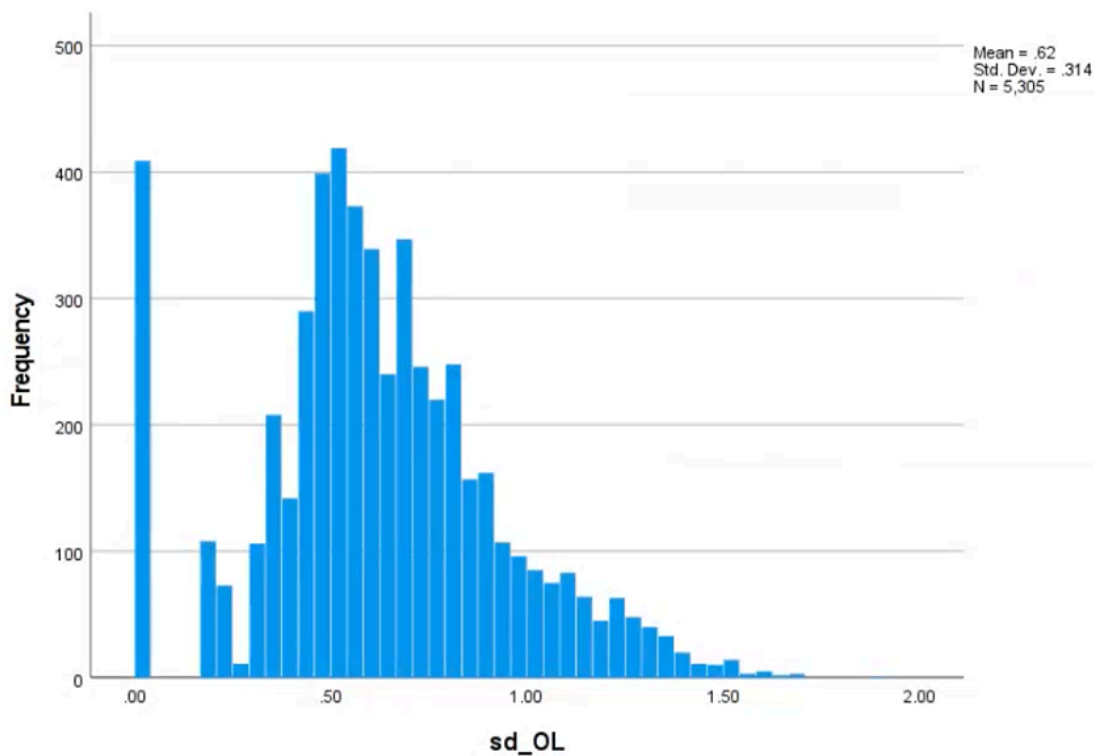
Figure 33: Standard deviation histogram

An important question considered at this point during the statistical analysis process was what impact the exclusion of zero standard deviation cases (0:409) would have on the interpretation of the data. The OL scale (Organisational Leadership) showed a

unique characteristic that some respondents could agree with each statement, depending on the quality of leadership in their organisation. After careful consideration, it would, however, be biased to exclude respondents who agreed with every statement.

When developing a scale, the researcher always anticipates a wide range of responses, and the question needs to be asked why certain respondents choose to rate each of the questions with similar scores. DeVellis (2003) postulates that researchers often add questions together in what they assume to be a suitable scale without giving much thought to the consequences of the questions. According to Pallant (2016), scale development is a critical skill, and the scale's quality is heavily dependent on the quality and variety of chosen questions. The OL scale was developed with much consideration based on the eight outcomes of the IQA session. Four carefully selected questions were designed for each IQA construct, amounting to thirty-two questions. The questions were based on the keywords used by participants during the IQA session to keep the information as accurate as possible.

5.3.4 Demographics

Demographics relate to the study of populations based on socioeconomic factors such as race, sex, and age. If all the population members were identical in all characteristics, then there would not be a need for thorough sampling procedures (Babbie, 2016).

These characteristics are expressed in a statistical and graphic format. The respondents' (n=5305) sector, gender, business role, management role, age, number of years with the company, highest education, race, and post-level demographics in this research study are aggregated and summarized on the following pages.

5.3.4.1 Sector

The demographic classification of the sector in this study indicated that 54% of the respondents in this population were employed in the private sector, and 46% were employed in the public sector. Figure 34 below indicates that more sample respondents were in the private sector.
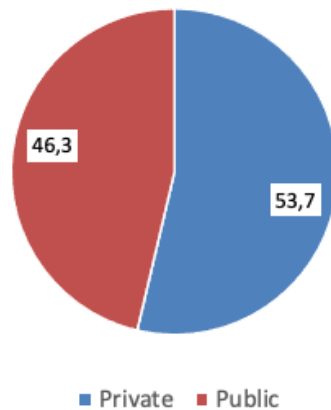
Figure 34: Demographic classification of sector

5.3.4.2 Gender

The demographic classification of gender in this study indicated that 49% of the respondents in this population were male, and 51% were females. Figure 35 below indicates a small difference in the number of males participating in the study compared to females.
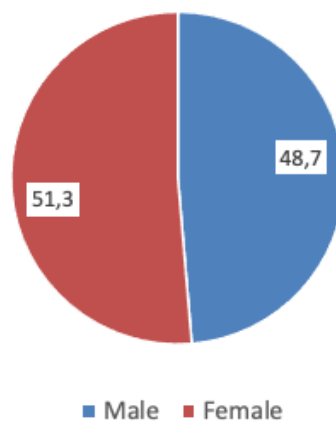
Figure 35: Demographic classification of gender

5.3.4.3 Business role

The demographic classification of the business role indicated that 44% of the respondents in this population were in core business roles, and 56% were in support functions. Figure 36 below shows that more participants in the sample were in support functions in organisations.
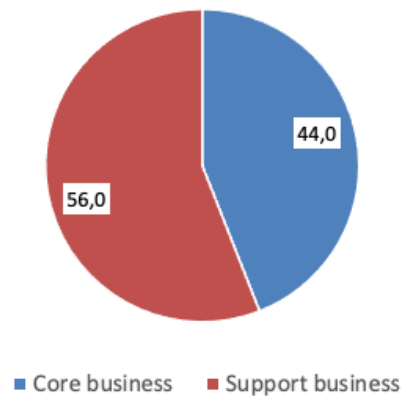
Figure 36: Demographic classification of business role

5.3.4.4 Age of participants

The demographic classification of the age in this study indicated that most of the respondents were between 30-39 years, followed by the age group 40-49 years. The age group of 21-29 is the third biggest group in the sample, and respondents under the age of 21 make up the smallest group. Figure 37 below indicates the spread of age groups in the sample size.
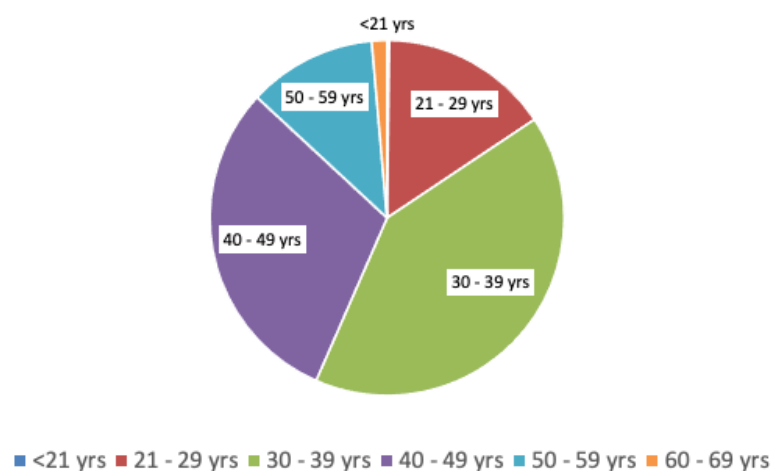
Figure 37: Demographic classification of age

5.3.4.5 Management role

The demographic classification of the role of the participants in this study indicated that most of the respondents were in non-management positions. Figure 38 below suggests that the vast majority of the respondents who rated leadership in their organisations were themselves not managers.
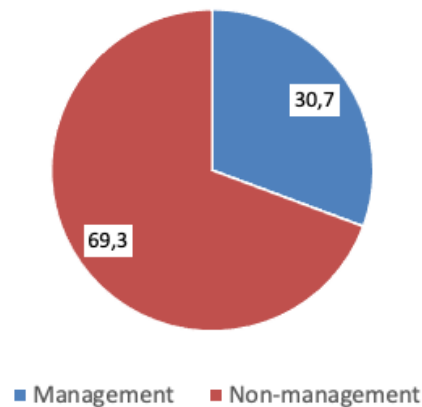
Figure 38: Demographic classification of management role

5.3.4.6 Highest education

The demographic classification of the role of the participants in this study indicated that most of the respondents has some sort of tertiary qualification. Figure 39 below suggests that most of the respondents who rated leadership in their organisations were educated past matric.
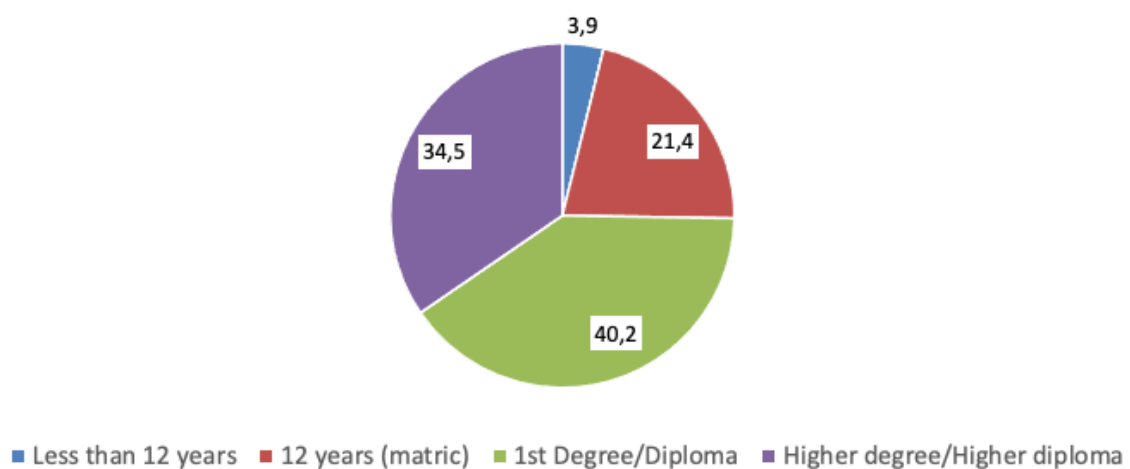
Figure 39: Demographic classification for the highest level of education

5.3.4.7 Race

The demographic classification of race in this study indicated that 64% of the respondents in this population were Black, 18% White, 12% Coloured, and 6% Asian. This demographic is of particular importance to this study and the OL scale. Ubuntu leadership is a central philosophy in Black African cultures, and the characteristics of Ubuntu influenced the OL scale. The values of Ubuntu can be summarised as group solidarity, conformity, compassion, human dignity and collective dignity (Mgibi & Maree, 2005). Figure 40 below indicates the race classification.
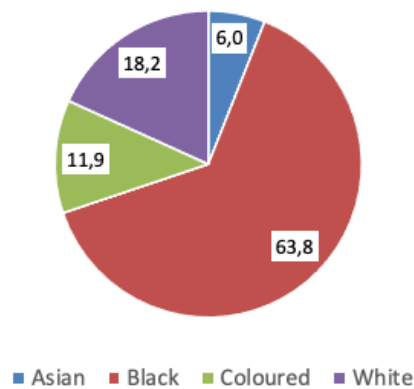
Figure 40: Demographic classification of race

5.3.4.8 Post level

The demographic classification of post level in this study indicated that 41% of the respondents were skilled technically, and academically qualified workers. Figure 41 below shows the position classification.

Figure 41:   Demographic classification of position in the organisation

Table 24 below summarises and details the demographic characteristics of the survey respondents. This heterogeneous group represented a vast array of industries, genders, company roles, age groups, managerial responsibilities, educational levels, racial backgrounds, and job levels. Understanding this demographic information is crucial because it provides context for the collected data and facilitates subsequent analysis and interpretation of results.

Table 24: Summary of demographics

Demographic Factor	Classification	Percentage
Sector	Private	54%
	Public	46%
Gender	Male	49%
	Female	51%
Business Role	Core Business Roles	44%
	Support Functions	56%
Age Group	21-29 years	16%
	30-39 years	41%
	40-49 years	30%
	50+ years	12%
Management Role	Non-Management	70%
	Management	30%
Highest Education	Post-Matric Qualification	74%
Race	Black	64%
	White	18%
	Coloured	12%
	Asian	6%
Post Level	Skilled Technically and Academically Qualified Workers	41%
	Professionally qualified, specialists and middle management	28%
	Top management, senior management	5%

5.3.5 Scale development

Before analysing the data, checking the data set for errors (case screening) is essential. Once the researcher is confident that there are no errors in the data file, the descriptive phase of the data analysis can commence. Descriptive statistics are helpful too (i) define the characteristics of the sample and (ii) ensure there is no violation of the assumptions underlying the statistical methods that are used to address the research questions (Pallant, 2016).

5.3.5.1 Item screening

Pallant (2016) suggests that the researcher must apply descriptive statistics to the variables to test these assumptions. Descriptive statistics can be calculated in various ways and deliver multiple information, including the mean, standard deviation, range of scores, skewness, and kurtosis. When assessing the distribution of scores, it would be assumed that scores would present as normally distributed. The normality of distribution can be illustrated as a symmetrical, bell-shaped curve, with the highest frequencies in the middle of the curve and more minor frequencies towards the extremes. The output received from descriptive statistics deliver data and information concerning the distribution of scores on continuous variables, including mean, skewness, and kurtosis.

The mean is a measure of central tendency. It refers to the average of all the data values in the data set, also referred to as the average value of the data range. Pallant (2016) explains that the skewness value indicates the symmetry of the distribution, and that kurtosis provides a measure to indicate whether the data are light-tailed or heavily tailed relative to the normal distribution. The skewness and kurtosis values will be zero in a perfect world with normal distribution. This is, however, an uncommon occurrence in the field of social sciences.

Skewness indicates the symmetry or rather the distortion or lop-sidedness that strays from the symmetrical bell curve, also known as a normal distribution in a data set. When the curve shifts to the left or right, it is understood to be skewed. Positive skewness values typically indicate that scores are clustered and presented to the left of a graph; negative skewness values indicate that scores are clustered and shown to the right.

The descriptive statistics of the complete data set (n=5305) indicated negative skewness values for each of the 32 items ranging from the lowest of -0,31 to the highest of -1,09 as shown in table 25. However, it should be noted that when dealing with a considerable sample size (like in this study), skewness would not be expected to substantively influence the analyses of the data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Kurtosis is another statistical measure used to describe scores distribution. While skewness distinguishes extreme values in one from the other tail, kurtosis measures the extreme values in either tail. Kurtosis measures the degree to which there are outliers. The kurtosis value will be zero in a normal distribution. Positive kurtosis specifies that the data reveal more extreme outliers than a normal distribution. Negative kurtosis indicates that the data present fewer extreme outliers than a standard distribution (IBM, 2022).

The kurtosis ratio compared to its standard error can be applied to test normality. Normality is usually rejected when the ratio is more than +2 or less than -2. Any higher positive value for kurtosis denotes that the tails of the distribution are lengthier than those of a normal distribution and higher negative values for kurtosis indicates a distribution with shorter tails. Kurtosis is categorised into the three classifications: (i) mesokurtic distribution, (ii) leptokurtic distribution and (iii) platykurtic distribution (IBM, 2022).

Mesokurtic distribution refers to a normal distribution in that the extreme value characteristic is the same as that of the normal distribution. Leptokurtic displays greater kurtosis than mesokurtic distribution and typically have long tails or outliers. Leptokurtic data will appear in a narrow vertical range. Platykurtic distribution has short tails (scarcity of outliers) and will occur with short and broad peaks (Simply Psychology, 2022). All three categories are illustrated in Figure 42 below.
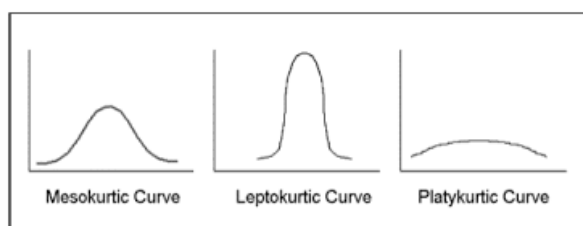
Figure 42: Types of kurtosis in statistics

As indicated in Table 25 below, descriptive statistics for the OL scale showed a kurtosis ratio higher than +2 for 25 of the 32 items of the scale (78% of the items). This clearly indicates a leptokurtic curve with the OL data set. The descriptive statistics of the complete data set (n=5305) indicated negative skewness and positive kurtosis.

Table 25: Item descriptive for the OL scale

	n	Mean			Skewness		Kurtosis		
	Statistic	Statistic	SE	SD	Statistic	SE	Statistic	SE	Ratio (K/SE)
[OL.1] Manage their own emotions effectively	5305	3,46	0,014	1,042	-0,498	0,034	-0,258	0,067	3,8
[OL.2] Share their feelings appropriately	5305	3,36	0,014	1,037	-0,393	0,034	-0,376	0,067	5,6
[OL.3] Value and care for people	5305	3,61	0,014	1,052	-0,657	0,034	-0,057	0,067	0,8
[OL.4] Consider different viewpoints with compassion and understanding	5305	3,55	0,014	1,042	-0,572	0,034	-0,171	0,067	2,6
[OL.5] Trust me to get the job done	5305	4,01	0,012	0,886	-0,990	0,034	1,232	0,067	18,3
[OL.6] Demonstrate high ethical standards	5305	3,81	0,013	0,959	-0,809	0,034	0,526	0,067	7,8
[OL.7] Understand what winning means	5305	3,90	0,013	0,931	-0,887	0,034	0,805	0,067	12,0
[OL.8] Recognise me as an important member of the team	5305	3,82	0,013	0,981	-0,861	0,034	0,643	0,067	9,6
[OL.9] Provide me with a clear picture of the ideal future	5305	3,55	0,015	1,075	-0,532	0,034	-0,322	0,067	4,8
[OL.10] Direct me with clear objectives	5305	3,67	0,014	1,021	-0,738	0,034	0,121	0,067	1,8
[OL.11] Frequently discuss the future state and where we are now	5305	3,52	0,015	1,107	-0,563	0,034	-0,412	0,067	6,1
[OL.12] Develop workable plans to achieve organisational objectives	5305	3,66	0,014	1,021	-0,756	0,034	0,184	0,067	2,7
[OL.13] Take responsibility, even when under pressure	5305	3,65	0,014	1,051	-0,732	0,034	0,047	0,067	0,7
[OL.14] Are inspirational because of their actions	5305	3,51	0,015	1,073	-0,588	0,034	-0,221	0,067	3,3
[OL.15] Are humble and act with integrity	5305	3,60	0,015	1,061	-0,708	0,034	0,019	0,067	0,3
[OL.16] Change and innovate processes and procedures	5305	3,58	0,014	1,015	-0,648	0,034	-0,029	0,067	0,4
[OL.17] Communicate openly and transparently	5305	3,55	0,015	1,106	-0,626	0,034	-0,275	0,067	4,1
[OL.18] Regularly provide clear expectations of what I need to do	5305	3,67	0,014	1,020	-0,770	0,034	0,196	0,067	2,9
[OL.19] Coach and mentor me to achieve success	5305	3,40	0,016	1,152	-0,451	0,034	-0,618	0,067	9,2
[OL.20] Challenge me through engaging conversations	5305	3,50	0,015	1,091	-0,585	0,034	-0,330	0,067	4,9
[OL.21] Create a safe emotional space to work in	5305	3,55	0,015	1,106	-0,641	0,034	-0,273	0,067	4,1
[OL.22] Understand my individual development needs	5305	3,40	0,016	1,132	-0,488	0,034	-0,514	0,067	7,6
[OL.23] Are available when I need them	5305	3,63	0,015	1,084	-0,733	0,034	-0,030	0,067	0,4

[OL.24] Encourage me to take risks	5305	3,31	0,015	1,119	-0,313	0,034	-0,635	0,067	9,4
[OL.25] Embrace diversity	5305	3,65	0,014	1,040	-0,748	0,034	0,179	0,067	2,7
[OL.26] Use collective energy of team members to achieve goals	5305	3,66	0,014	1,020	-0,734	0,034	0,147	0,067	2,2
[OL.27] Create a sense of belonging and unity amongst team members	5305	3,62	0,015	1,067	-0,663	0,034	-0,140	0,067	2,1
[OL.28] Inspire us by developing healthy relationships	5305	3,57	0,015	1,072	-0,599	0,034	-0,228	0,067	3,4
[OL.29] Challenge my results (what is possible?)	5305	3,58	0,014	1,009	-0,613	0,034	0,044	0,067	0,6
[OL.30] Drive results intensely	5305	3,74	0,013	0,983	-0,777	0,034	0,411	0,067	6,1
[OL.31] Keep me accountable for my results	5305	3,97	0,012	0,892	-1,097	0,034	1,568	0,067	23,3
[OL.32] Recognise consistent performance	5305	3,67	0,015	1,062	-0,703	0,034	-0,038	0,067	0,6

In questioning the item descriptive results, the researcher interpreted the data of the 32 items with regard to the mean of average = 3,65 and why the descriptive statistics indicated negative skewness and positive kurtosis.

During the study's scale development phase, the researcher considered the impact of the phrasing of the statement leading to each of the 32 questions. He finally settled on one of three different statement options, as each would have had an impact on the measurement of the statistics. The statement leading to each of the 32 questions, however, had to be guided by the study's objectives.

The three types of questions considered about organisational leadership were (i) 'Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following about leaders in any organisation' (ii) 'In my organisation, leaders' and lastly (iii) 'My direct leader or supervisor'. Each of these statements would bring forward different results.

The study's objective was to develop a valid and reliable measure of organisational leadership. The aim was not to measure the leadership behaviours of 'my leader', rather, the study's objective guided the researcher to choose the second option from the three. This option excluded personal emotional bias towards one leader in the organisation, whether good or bad. This differentiation was essential for future research, as the OL scale does not measure the leadership behaviour of a specific manager but rather the broader organisational leadership culture. The OL scale is about perceptions broadly in organisations and representsthe perceptions of

employees (managerial and non-managerial) about leadership behaviours in South African organisations.

The statistical mean resulted in an average midpoint of between 3 and 4 for 31 of the 32 items, indicating that most respondents were uncertain about how they felt about the leadership behaviours demonstrated by leaders in their respective organisations. It is critical to note that there were various levels of standard deviation amongst the list of 32 items. The chosen midpoint in this scale was the word 'uncertain', instead of using the words 'neither agree nor disagree' or 'neutral'.

DeVellis (2012) argues that scale development remains an art and that careful planning is needed to ensure the results measure the study's objectives. The biggest concern for the researcher with using the midpoint 'neither agree nor disagree' was the risk that respondents might satisfice. Satisficing can be defined as the behaviour of respondents when they answer something to satisfy the researcher or field worker whilst minimising their cognitive effort (Krosnick, 1991). Early studies indicate that offering a midpoint provides the respondents an in-between alternative to competing midpoints, regardless of the word used (Bishop, 1987). Additionally, when a midpoint is offered, respondents will often choose to declare a neutral attitude, compared to providing a scale where it is omitted (Sturgis, Roberts, & Smith, 2012).

Research suggests that offering a midpoint increases the propensity of respondents to report their opinions in the middle category. But additionally, Schuman and Presser (1981) discovered little evidence that omitting the midpoint influenced the distribution of responses across the directional categories or the correlations between their results and other variables in the dataset. Sturgis et al. (2012) claimed that using the words neither or nor as the middle point of a scale is as good as saying 'I do not know'. In other words, unknown. Based on the literature review, the researcher decided to use the word 'uncertain' as a middle for this study as it describes a specific attitude of not being known or definite. The researcher anticipated during scale development that the word 'uncertain' would create more satisficing, as the respondents would search through the available alternatives until the most appropriate option was met.

The researcher expected that top-performing leaders would be scored at a 4 and 5, as it would indicate healthy leadership behaviours in organisations. Scores of 1 and 2 would indicate poor levels of leadership, and a 3 shows a group not being sure. Uncertain is, therefore, the midpoint of the OL scale as the respondents would not tell if the leader's behaviours were good or bad. This reflective scale indicates that most of the sample size was uncertain about whether the leadership behaviours were appropriate.

5.3.5.2 Confirmatory factor analysis

The following statistical analysis step was designed to test the theoretical, conceptual model as defined in the IQA. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) assesses how well a predetermined measurement instrument collected of measured variables and factors fits reality as captured by data (Hair, et al., 2018). It also enables the researcher to examine how well the measured variables characterise a set of hidden theoretical constructs. Before computing the results, the researcher specifies how many factors exist in the set of variables and decides which factor each variable will load on. Therefore, the statistical method does not assign variables to factors. Instead, the researcher assigns the variables to the factors, grounded on the theory being tested (in this case, organisational leadership behaviours) before the results can be attained. In this research, the terms factor and construct were used interchangeably.

Combining CFA results with construct validity tests gives the researcher insight into the quality of the theoretical measurement model. Hair et al. (2016) postulates that the significance of evaluating the quality of measures in a behavioural model cannot be over-emphasised. CFA exposes an instrument, as only a valid measurement can provide valid conclusions.

On the other hand, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) searches the data and offers information that will analytically suggest how many factors are needed to correctly represent that data. EFA factors result from statistical results and not theory. During an EFA analysis, every measurable variable load on each factor, thereby producing what is known as a factor loading estimate for every variable on all the factors (Hair, et al., 2018). EFA turns out to be beneficial in identifying variables with modest commonality with others being considered. An essential difference between EFA and

CFA is that EFA creates a loading for each variable on every factor, and the researcher does not have control over it.

With confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), a factor distinctively determines each of the variables and the measurement tool can only be as good as the measurement principles used in the development of the theory (Hair, et al., 2018). Based on the qualitative part of the study, eight organisational leadership factors were identified, and each factor recognised four items, totalling 32 items on the scale. The eight factors measured during the CFA statistical analysis are listed below in Table 26.

Table 26: Identified factors of the OL scale

Construct	Description	Items	# items
OL_LA	Leader Awareness	1- 4	4
OL_LC	Leadership Culture	5-8	4
OL_LV	Leader Vision	9-12	4
OL_LSC	Leadership Style and Characteristics	13-16	4
OL_EC	Engaging Communication	17-20	4
OL_S	Support	21-24	4
OL_TD	Team Dynamics	25-28	4
OL_DS	Delivering Strategy	29-32	4
OL	**Organisational Leadership**	**1-32**	**32**

Structural equation models, like CFA, are often represented through visual representations, known as path diagrams. Path diagrams illustrate the theoretical patterns and constraints between the measured variables and their related constructs and the relationship amongst all constructs.

The paths between the measured items and the latent constructs (loadings) are founded on measurement theory based on sound psychometric principles such as: (i) loadings that only theoretically link a measured item to its matching latent factor are unreservedly estimated (ii) all other probable loadings are presumed to be equal to zero (iii) there is no co-variance between the remainders, which are signified by the error variance terms in a model (Hair, et al., 2018). Hair et al. (2016) denotes five elements are required to develop an effective CFA measurement model: (i) latent

constructs, (ii) measured variables, (iii) a pattern of item loadings on specific constructs, (iv) a relationship among constructs, (iv) the error variance and covariance for each indicator. All latent concepts in CFA are specified as ellipses (ovals) and measured variables as rectangles.

Two-headed curved arrows display covariance relationships, and the indicator variables are typically denoted by X. The associations between the latent constructs and the measured variables (also known as the factor loadings, as in EFA) are characterised by single-headed arrows from the construct to the measured variable. The error variance is usually indicated as e, which refers to the extent to which the latent factor does not account for the variable variance.

In this study, the theory was first developed based on the factors identified in the IQA and then tested through confirmatory factor analysis. Construct validity was determined by establishing both subsets: (i) convergent and (ii) discriminant validity.

5.3.5.2.1 Convergent validity

Convergent validity examines whether constructs (in this case, the four items categorised under each IQA factor) are related to each other as expected. As illustrated in table 27, the confirmatory factor analysis results indicated high convergent validity with normal to high standardised loadings between the subconstructs and their respective items. Standard loading estimates should be higher than 0,5 and ideally higher than 0,7 to signify convergent validity.

Additionally, construct reliability should be above 0,7 to indicate adequate convergence or internal consistency (Hair, et al., 2018). The standard regression coefficients (weights), as displayed in Table 27 below, resulted from the regression analysis and were standardised to illustrate that variables are equal to one.

Table 27: Standard regression weights (convergent validity)

			Estimate
OL.1	<---	OL_LA	0,740
OL.2	<---	OL_LA	0,773
OL.3	<---	OL_LA	0,842
OL.4	<---	OL_LA	0,833
OL.5	<---	OL_LC	0,700
OL.6	<---	OL_LC	0,820
OL.7	<---	OL_LC	0,786
OL.8	<---	OL_LC	0,786
OL.9	<---	OL_LV	0,833
OL.10	<---	OL_LV	0,829
OL.11	<---	OL_LV	0,815
OL.12	<---	OL_LV	0,799
OL.13	<---	OL_LSC	0,830
OL.14	<---	OL_LSC	0,882
OL.15	<---	OL_LSC	0,851
OL.16	<---	OL_LSC	0,803
OL.17	<---	OL_EC	0,827
OL.18	<---	OL_EC	0,809
OL.19	<---	OL_EC	0,831
OL.20	<---	OL_EC	0,819
OL.21	<---	OL_S	0,832
OL.22	<---	OL_S	0,837
OL.23	<---	OL_S	0,778
OL.24	<---	OL_S	0,735
OL.25	<---	OL_TD	0,782
OL.26	<---	OL_TD	0,839
OL.27	<---	OL_TD	0,862
OL.28	<---	OL_TD	0,866
OL.29	<---	OL_DS	0,783
OL.30	<---	OL_DS	0,777
OL.31	<---	OL_DS	0,679
OL.32	<---	OL_DS	0,796

5.3.5.2.2 Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity tests whether constructs that should not be related are in fact unrelated and have met the accepted requirement to determine the relationships between latent variables (Hair J. F., Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2022). The discriminant validity tests in this study suggested a poor model fit. As illustrated in Figure 43 below,

the model fitted well (confirmatory factor analysis), but it was difficult to discriminate between items. In other words, the variables did not relate more to their own factors than the others.
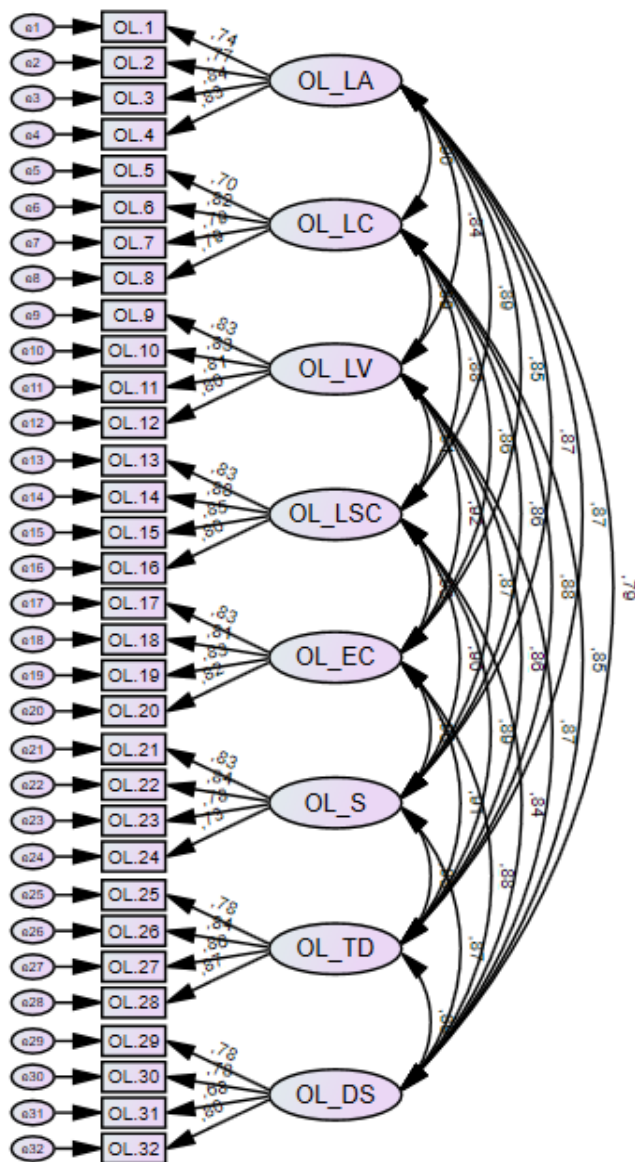
Figure 43: Confirmatory factor analysis of OL scale

5.3.5.2.3 Model fit amongst indices

Models with an excellent fit yield reliable results on various indices (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). When the different indices indicate similar conclusions, deciding which indices to report becomes a personal choice. Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) argue that CFI and RMSEA are the most used indices, but it remains the researcher's choice of

which index to use. RMSEA is beneficial for performing powerful calculations and ACI to compare models that are not nested (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Often various indices are reported; accordingly, below find Table 28 indicating good model fit across different indices.

Table 28: Model fit

	CMIN	P-value	CMIN/df	GFI	AGFI	NFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	PCLOSE	SRMR
Terrible			>5	<0,90	<0,90	<0,90	<0,90	<0,90	>0,08	<0,01	>0,10
Acceptable		>0.05	3-5	>0,90	>0,90	>0,90	>0,90	0,90-0,95	0,06-0,08	0,01-0,05	0,08-0,10
Excellent			<3	>0,95	>0,95	>0,95	>0,95	>0,95	<0,06	>0,05	<0,08
Fit type	Absolute	Absolute	Absolute	Absolute	Parsimony	Incremental	Incremental	Incremental	Absolute	Absolute	Absolute

Sources: (Hair, et al., 2014), (Awang, 2012), (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010), (Hu & Bentler, 1999), (Moss, 2016)

The results of this study are displayed against the various fit indices in Table 29 below. Each index statistically calculates and measures how well the data fit into the model as it should be measured against the acceptable norms listed in Table 28 above. The p-value tests the hypothesis that the theoretical model equals the data model. The p-value in the data model can be expected to be significant due to the large sample size (n=5305).

The following analysis step is to understand why the degrees of freedom are so high (df=436) by calculating the ratio between the degrees of freedom and the Chi-Square value, illustrated in table 29 as CMIN/df = 13,75.

Based on the acceptable norms in table 28, the following facts about the data presented in Table 29 should be noted: (i) CMIN/df is regarded as a terrible fit, (ii) GFI is an acceptable fit, (iii) AGFI is an acceptable fit, (iv) NFI is an excellent fit, (v) TLI is an excellent fit, (vi) CFI is an excellent fit, (vii) RMSEA is an excellent fit, (viii) PCLOSE is an excellent fit, SRMR is an excellent fit.

Table 29: Model fit summary for OL scale

CMIN	5995,45
df	436
P-value	≤0,001
CMIN/df	13,751
GFI	0,93
AGFI	0,91
NFI	0,96
TLI	0,96
CFI	0,96
RMSEA	0,049
PCLOSE	0,925
SRMR	0,024

5.3.5.2.4 Validity analysis

Validity indicates how precisely a chosen method measures what it is intended to measure. Composite reliability (also called construct reliability) is a modern approach to measure a scale's overall reliability during the CFA process. Composite reliability, similar to the coefficient alpha, is a measure of the internal consistency of the scale items and can be calculated directly from the computerised output (Netemeyer, Bearden, & Sharma, 2003).

A more rigorous way to test the internal stability is to assess the amount of variance captured by each construct's measure, relative to the amount of variance due to measurement error, also known as the average variance extracted (AVE). When a researcher combines composite reliability and AVE, scales can be established in a well-organised manner without forgoing internal consistency (Netemeyer, Bearden, & Sharma, 2003).

Hair et al. (2014) suggests that a composite reliability of 0,7 or higher is acceptable, and for the OL scale (8 items) was all above 0,8; therefore, the composite reliability of the OL scale was in order. Additionally, AVE scores should be higher than 0,5 for the scale to be considered acceptable (Pasamar, Johnston, & Tanwar, 2020). This confirms the work of Fornell and Larcker (1981), which states that a construct

becomes questionable when the AVE score is lower than 0,5. Table 30 below indicates the OL scale's validity analysis and AVE scores.

Table 30: Validity analysis

Validity Analysis

	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)	OL_LA	OL_LC	OL_LV	OL_LSC	OL_EC	OL_S	OL_TD	OL_DS
OL_LA	0,875	0,637	0,801	0,881	0,798							
OL_LC	0,856	0,599	0,801	0,862	0,895***	0,774						
OL_LV	0,891	0,671	0,845	0,891	0,839***	0,886***	0,819					
OL_LSC	0,907	0,709	0,867	0,910	0,887***	0,877***	0,907***	0,842				
OL_EC	0,893	0,675	0,922	0,893	0,855***	0,861***	0,920***	0,931***	0,822			
OL_S	0,874	0,635	0,922	0,880	0,870***	0,861***	0,874***	0,896***	0,960***	0,797		
OL_TD	0,904	0,702	0,872	0,908	0,872***	0,878***	0,862***	0,886***	0,908***	0,934***	0,838	
OL_DS	0,845	0,578	0,797	0,851	0,787***	0,846***	0,867***	0,841***	0,883***	0,874***	0,893***	0,760

When investigating discriminant validity, the researcher should be able to differentiate between the constructs. If the correlations between these constructs are high, it is difficult to identify between the different constructs. The OL scale raises discriminant validity concerns, as illustrated in table 30 above, as the square root of the AVE for each of the constructs is less than the correlation with the others (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Threats to construct validity originate from different sources, and therefore, researchers must employ different approaches to evaluate the results (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015). The Fornell and Lacker (1981) approach for variance-based structural equation modelling has been most dominant in determining discriminant validity. Still, based on the recommendation of Henseler et al. (2015), the researcher decided to investigate a second and more modern approach to assess discriminant validity. Henseler et al. (2015) suggest a process referred to as a multitrait-multimethod matrix.

The heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT) approach demonstrates better performance using the Monte Carlo simulation in which Henseler et al. (2015) compared this new approach to the r and Larcker (1981) standard and the assessment of cross-loadings. They successfully provided recommendations on managing

discriminant validity issues through the HTMT assessment. Based on their standard, HTMT threshold values must be lower than 0,850 for strict and 0.900 for generous discriminant validity (Henseler, et al., 2015).

The HTMT analysis assessed the OL scale, and the results indicated that all eight factors were higher than the required 0,850, and few were in the liberal discriminant validity band of 0,850-0,900. The results are displayed in Table 31 below.

Table 31: HTMT analysis

HTMT Analysis

	OL_LA	OL_LC	OL_LV	OL_LSC	OL_EC	OL_S	OL_TD	OL_DS
OL_LA								
OL_LC	0,879							
OL_LV	0,830	0,881						
OL_LSC	0,885	0,876	0,915					
OL_EC	0,850	0,857	0,922	0,938				
OL_S	0,865	0,857	0,872	0,897	0,956			
OL_TD	0,869	0,876	0,862	0,890	0,909	0,939		
OL_DS	0,767	0,835	0,860	0,839	0,873	0,864	0,883	

Although the IQA identified eight different organisational leadership constructs, the outcome of the baseline model test and the HTMT analysis indicated that the OL scale is a one construct model. The CFA analysis could not identify a multi-dimensional model as identified in IQA.

During this phase of the statistical analysis, the researcher could argue and prove convergent validity, but not discriminant validity. In other words, the model fits well, but the researcher struggled to discriminate between the 32 items. This statistical analysis suggests that it is difficult to separate the nuances of organisational leadership in the South African context on a measuring instrument.

5.3.5.3 Common method bias

Thus far, the researcher has attempted various statistical steps to ensure the rigour of the quantitative phase of the study. These included (i) clarifying the statistical objectives of the study, (ii) collecting data from appropriate sources, (iii) case screening by conducting a missing values analysis and considering the reasons and effects for unengaged responses, (iv) demographics and other characteristics and (v) scale development.

During the scale development phase of this study, the researcher screened the items by assessing variation per item (mean, SD, skewness, kurtosis) and inspected cases with a high ratio of Kurtosis/SE (>10) and the frequency distribution. Additionally, baseline and final confirmatory factor analyses were conducted. The results suggest a poor fit due to a lack of discriminant validity. The next step in analysing the statistics was to investigate common method bias by conducting an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to assess the probability of a single-factor model.

Common method bias (CMB) has been identified as a standard feature in self-reported questionnaires. Common method variance can be defined as a variance due to the measurement method instead of the constructs that the measures represent (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Lee, 2003). For more than fifty years, beginning with the earliest work of Campbell and Fiske (1959), social researchers have agreed that common method bias is a potential problem in behavioural research. The probability of its incidence remains greater when the dependent and independent variables are obtained from the same individual (Podsakoff, et al., 2003).

Method biases are one of the main contributors that cause measurement error and threaten the legitimacy of the inferences regarding the relationships between the measures (Podsakoff, et al., 2003). Additionally, measurement error has a systematic and random component (Nunnally, 1978). Podsakoff et al. (2003) state that although both measurement errors are challenging, systematic measurement error, in particular, poses severe problems. The reason is that systematic measurement errors deliver alternative explanations for the perceived relationships between measures of different constructs of the one hypothesised.

Common method variance is one of the primary sources of systematic measurement errors and arises from the measurement technique rather than the construct of interest (Podsakoff, et al., 2003). Researchers can minimise and even eliminate the effects of common method variance by using procedural remedies. Nevertheless, procedural remedies may, in some situations, not remedy the problem, and, in these situations, statistical remedies are more suited. Harman's single-factor test is a popular statistical approach to address the issue of common method variance.

Therefore, the possibility of common method bias was statistically examined using a Harman Single factor test to avoid any false implications and to identify the possible new or emerging factors. Harman's single-factor test necessitates loading all the items (measures) into an exploratory factor analysis (EFA). This method for investigating the possibility of common method variance (bias) comprises using the first eigenvalue attained from principal components analysis of the set of measured items used in the model.

Principal components offer the researcher information about the patterns in the data. Harman's single-factor test suggests that, should a single factor account for less than half (<50%) of the common variance among the items, then common method variance is not likely to be present. Based upon Harman's single-factor test, the study discovered that squared loadings accounted for more than half the common variance among the items at 59.380%, which suggested that one factor accounted for explaining most of the variance for the research.

Table 32 below indicates the squared loadings extraction sums indicating a one-factor model.

Table 32: Principal component analysis

Component	Initial Eigenvalues	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings				
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	19,002	59,380	59,380	19,002	59,380	59,380
2	1,100	3,437	62,817			
3	0,931	2,909	65,726			

4	0,852	2,662	68,388			
5	0,729	2,278	70,666			
6	0,600	1,876	72,542			
7	0,549	1,716	74,258			
8	0,499	1,559	75,817			
9	0,476	1,486	77,303			
10	0,462	1,445	78,748			
11	0,427	1,335	80,083			
12	0,421	1,315	81,398			
13	0,393	1,229	82,627			
14	0,376	1,175	83,802			
15	0,363	1,135	84,937			
16	0,353	1,102	86,039			
17	0,351	1,096	87,135			
18	0,326	1,018	88,153			
19	0,323	1,009	89,162			
20	0,320	1,001	90,163			
21	0,312	0,976	91,139			
22	0,302	0,942	92,082			
23	0,288	0,899	92,981			
24	0,282	0,881	93,861			
25	0,278	0,870	94,731			
26	0,265	0,828	95,559			
27	0,259	0,808	96,367			
28	0,251	0,786	97,153			
29	0,245	0,765	97,918			
30	0,237	0,742	98,660			
31	0,219	0,684	99,344			
32	0,210	0,656	100,000			

Several studies have recognised that Common Method Variance (CMV) can meaningfully influence research findings if not managed correctly through procedural and statistical remedies (Tesheen, Ramayah, & Sulaiman, 2017). Nonetheless, few researchers attempt to remedy CMV through procedural remedies. Accordingly, statistical remedies are highly recommended to manage and control the effects of CMB from data analysis.

5.3.5.4 Exploratory factor analysis

The primary purpose of an exploratory factor analysis is to discover a way to summarise or condense the data obtained from the original form (32 factors in the OL scale) into a smaller and more composite dimension without the loss of critical

information (Hair, et al., 2018). Factor analysis therefore searches and identifies the minimum number of factors to be used which best characterise the interrelations among a set of variables (Pallant, 2016). Hair et al. (2016) further argue the need for a solid conceptual foundation to support the hypothesis that a structure does exist, even before an exploratory factor analysis is performed. An exploratory factor analysis will always generate factors.

The most frequent method employed to identify factors is known as component analysis. Pallant (2016) postulates that the researcher must conclude the number of factors that best define the relationship among variables. Thus, the process of factor analysis is a balancing act between discovering a solution with as few factors as reasonably possible and the desire to clarify as many variances in the data set as possible.

The exploratory factor analysis (EFA) approach involves consideration of the possible emergence of new hypothetical constructs that still align with the research theory. The purpose of EFA is to collect and explore information about the interrelationships among a set of variables and then discover the odd variables, therefore EFA assists in recognising the factor structure among items of the measurement scale (Pallant, 2016). Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) further suggest that exploratory factor analysis is required for testing data based on a newly developed measurement scale, although a confirmatory factor analysis test is more suitable for testing existing scales, consequently, the researcher adopted an exploratory approach with the OL scale.

Pallant (2016) further suggests three steps involved in conducting a factor analysis. These include (i) assessing the suitability of the data for factor analysis, (ii) extraction of the factors, and (iii) rotation and the interpretation of factors. Each of these steps will be discussed in more depth.

5.3.5.4.1 Assessing the suitability of the data for a factor analysis

To determine the suitability of a data set for factor analysis, the researcher must consider the sample size and the strength of the relationship among the variables. Although researchers have no agreement about the suitable sample size, Pallant (2016) postulates that the larger the sample size, the better. Tabachnick and Fidell

(2013) also indicate that smaller samples cause less reliable correlation coefficients and proposed a minimum of 300 cases in the data set to conduct an exploratory factor analysis. Therefore, this study's sample size was appropriately large enough (n=5305). Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) further suggest that an investigation of the correlation matrix can address the strength of the relationships between variables.

5.3.5.4.2 Split-Sample validation

The most accessible form of validation is using a split-sample approach (Hair, et al., 2018). The sample of n=5305 was divided into two sub-samples during this approach. The first sample set was used for estimation purposes and is referred to as the estimation sample. The second sample set was the holdout sample and was used for validation purposes. The hold-out sample was processed later to discover how well the estimated model fitted into this sample. The holdout sample provided a means to validate the model as it was not used in the estimated sample. It almost simulated the processes of having done two studies.

To ensure a high level of statistical rigour during this study, the researcher employed the strategy of sample validation. To generate an estimation sample, the researcher considered the sample size and ratio of cases to variables. Hair et al. (2016) suggest a general rule of a 10:1 ratio. There were 32 items on the OL scale; consequently the researcher randomly selected 320 cases from the data set through SPSS.

5.3.5.4.3 Extraction of factors

Extraction of factors refers to determining the minimum number of factors that can best represent the interrelationships among a set of variables. Factor extraction is conducted through an algorithm created in the SPSS statistical analysis programme. SPSS identifies correlations between items through rotational techniques on various dimensions to determine which factors are closely related through eigenvalues and distances. It should be noted that the exploratory factor analysis can produce several models that should be investigated or assessed in the context of the theory.

Researchers suggest adopting an exploratory approach by testing the different methods until a suitable solution is found (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Pallant (2016) recommends three approaches to be used in the decision regarding how many factors

to retain. These include (i) Kaiser's criterion, (ii) scree test, and (iii) parallel analysis test. The outcome of these tests will determine the number of factors in the model.

The factor analysis conducted on the sample (n=5305) indicated meaningful correlations between the factors through a correlation matrix. A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was also performed on the data set. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin index varies from 0 to 1, but Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) suggested a .6 as the lowest value for respectable factor analysis.

During factor analysis, the hypothesis was tested to determine whether the matrix was an identity matrix. Therefore, $H0$: Matrix = Identity Matrix. The statistical theory generally suggests that a p-value of less than 0,05 should reject the null hypothesis. The results of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin index during this study produced a result of Sig. = 0,000, thereby creating little or no confidence in a null hypothesis and rejecting it. This indicates meaningful correlations between the factors. Table 33 shows the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin index results.

Table 33: Principal component analysis

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0,972
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	9648,080
	df	496
	Sig.	≤0,001

5.3.5.4.3.1 Kaiser's criterion

Pallant (2016) further postulates that the Kaiser's criterion (eigenvalue rule) method is the most commonly used technique to extract factors; furthermore, only factors with an eigenvalue rule of 1,0 or higher should be retained (The eigenvalue of a factor signifies the amount of the total variance described by that factor). The extraction method used to test Kaiser's criterion was the principal axis factoring which indicated that, when factors are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance. The results in Table 34 of the principal axis factoring indicated a possible 2-factor model, but with a big percentage (60%) loaded into one factor.

Table 34: Kaiser's criterion results

Total Variance Explained							
Factor	Initial Eigenvalues	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings				
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	19,571	61,158	61,158	19,209	60,027	60,027	19,132
2	1,368	4,274	65,432	0,996	3,112	63,139	3,355
3	0,987	3,085	68,517				
4	0,836	2,612	71,129				
5	0,804	2,512	73,642				
6	0,645	2,016	75,658				
7	0,600	1,874	77,532				
8	0,517	1,616	79,148				
9	0,489	1,527	80,675				
10	0,455	1,422	82,097				
11	0,427	1,336	83,432				
12	0,422	1,317	84,750				
13	0,392	1,225	85,975				
14	0,376	1,174	87,149				
15	0,351	1,096	88,245				
16	0,340	1,061	89,306				
17	0,324	1,012	90,318				
18	0,294	0,919	91,237				
19	0,293	0,917	92,154				
20	0,275	0,861	93,015				
21	0,258	0,806	93,821				
22	0,246	0,770	94,591				
23	0,236	0,739	95,329				
24	0,203	0,636	95,965				
25	0,202	0,631	96,596				
26	0,200	0,625	97,221				
27	0,175	0,548	97,769				
28	0,165	0,516	98,286				
29	0,162	0,507	98,792				

30	0,141	0,442	99,234				
31	0,126	0,393	99,627				
32	0,119	0,373	100,000				

5.3.5.4.3.2 Scree test

The second approach is known as the Catell's scree test. This uses the IBM SPSS program to plot the eigenvalues visually so that the researcher can discover the point where the profile of the curve changes direction to become horizontal. This approach suggests retaining only items above the break of the elbow (in the plot) as these factors will meaningfully explain the variances in the data. The scree plot test, as illustrated in Figure 44, also indicated a possible 2-factor model.
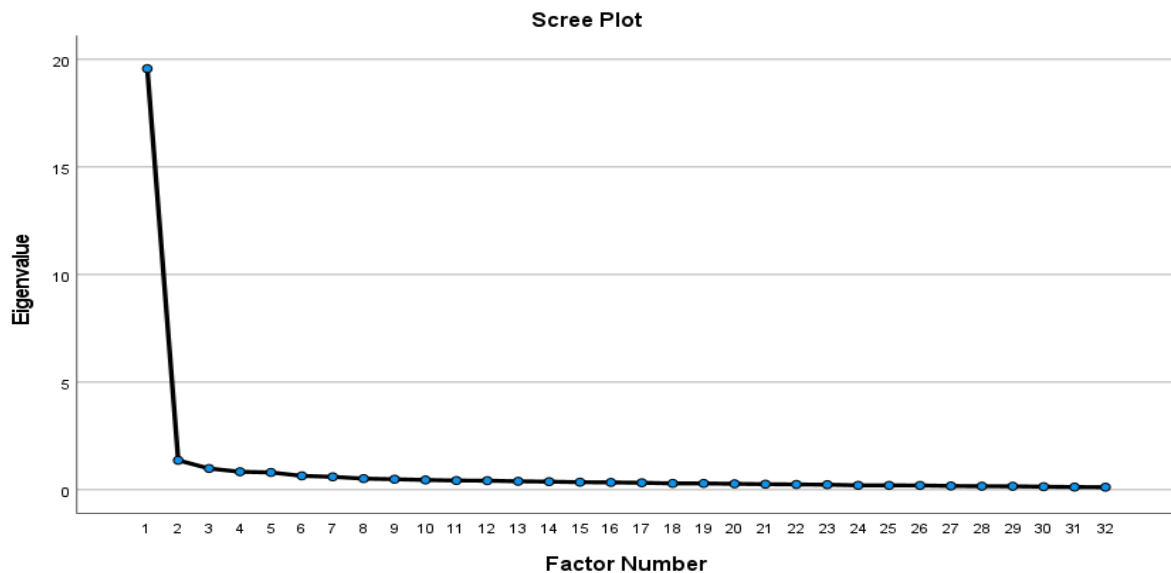
Figure 44: Scree plot test

5.3.5.4.3.3 Parallel analysis test

The third and final technique is referred to as Horn's parallel analysis test and has gained much popularity in recent literature (Pallant, 2016). This method comprises paralleling the eigenvalues' size with those obtained from a random data set of the same size. Eigenvalues that surpass the corresponding values from the random data set are to be retained. This test has shown to be most accurate, as the parallel test only identifies the correct number of factors to retain. Kaiser's criterion and Catell's scree tests tend to overrate the number of factors (Pallant, 2016). Various journals

now require researchers to report their findings using a parallel analysis test before considering publishing the documents (Pallant, 2016)

The extraction method for the parallel analysis test was principal axis factoring, and factor rotation converged in 8 iterations. The pattern matrix indicated which items loaded on factor 1. The higher the value, the greater the weight that each factor had. The results, as indicated in Table 35, suggested a one-factor model.

Table 35: Pattern matrix

	Factor	
	1	2
[OL.15] Are humble and act with integrity	0,904	
[OL.14] Are inspirational because of their actions	0,878	
[OL.21] Create a safe emotional space to work in	0,856	
[OL.6] Demonstrate high ethical standards	0,851	
[OL.4] Consider different viewpoints with compassion and understanding	0,846	
[OL.27] Create a sense of belonging and unity amongst team members	0,826	
[OL.17] Communicate openly and transparently	0,819	
[OL.3] Value and care for people	0,816	
[OL.13] Take responsibility, even when under pressure	0,815	
[OL.26] Use collective energy of team members to achieve goals	0,813	
[OL.28] Inspire us by developing healthy relationships	0,795	
[OL.18] Regularly provide clear expectations of what I need to do	0,791	
[OL.2] Share their feelings appropriately	0,782	
[OL.1] Manage their own emotions effectively	0,782	
[OL.22] Understand my individual development needs	0,778	
[OL.20] Challenge me through engaging conversations	0,778	
[OL.23] Are available when I need them	0,775	
[OL.25] Embrace diversity	0,773	
[OL.12] Develop workable plans to achieve organisational objectives	0,768	
[OL.16] Change and innovate processes and procedures	0,763	
[OL.19] Coach and mentor me to achieve success	0,760	
[OL.10] Direct me with clear objectives	0,747	
[OL.9] Provide me with a clear picture of the ideal future	0,746	
[OL.8] Recognise me as an important member of the team	0,726	
[OL.11] Frequently discuss the future state and where we are now	0,710	
[OL.5] Trust me to get the job done	0,681	
[OL.24] Encourage me to take risks	0,678	
[OL.7] Understand what winning means	0,661	
[OL.32] Recognise consistent performance	0,656	0,330
[OL.29] Challenge my results (what is possible?)	0,608	0,347
[OL.30] Drive results intensely	0,511	0,477
[OL.31] Keep me accountable for my results	0,437	0,525

5.3.5.4.3.4 Monte Carlo PCA for parallel analysis

The last method used employed a Monte Carlo parallel analysis test by simulating eigenvalues. The researcher and statistician coded the program to accept 32 variables and 320 subjects to simulate a set of eigenvalues as if 100 samples were selected. The results allowed the researcher to compare the parallel analysis results against the other factor tests. The results, as illustrated in the parallel analysis indicated in Table 36 revealed and confirmed a one-factor model.

Table 36: Pattern matrix

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues		
	Total	**% of Variance**	**Cumulative %**
1	19,571	61,158	61,158
2	1,368	4,274	65,432
3	0,987	3,085	68,517
4	0,836	2,612	71,129
5	0,804	2,512	73,642
6	0,645	2,016	75,658
7	0,600	1,874	77,532

Lastly, the factor correlation matrix indicated in Table 37 below that the OL scale is a one-factor model.

Table 37: Factor correlation matrix

Factor	1	2
1	1,000	0,299
2	0,299	1,000

Keeping 32 items to measure a one-factor model would not be logical. The question is how many items should be retained to measure a one-factor OL model effectively. The researcher's next step was to reduce the items to a meaningful sample. Based on discussions with the statistician and supervisor, the researcher decided to create a cut-off point at 0,75. This meant that all items measured on the pattern matrix on 0,75 and higher were kept as constructs of the OL scale. The consequence was that 21 items were saved from the original 32 items to represent the new OL scale. The following items were retained, as illustrated in table 38 below.

Table 38: Pattern matrix

	Factor	
	1	2
[OL.15] Are humble and act with integrity	0,904	
[OL.14] Are inspirational because of their actions	0,878	
[OL.21] Create a safe emotional space to work in	0,856	
[OL.6] Demonstrate high ethical standards	0,851	
[OL.4] Consider different viewpoints with compassion and understanding	0,846	
[OL.27] Create a sense of belonging and unity amongst team members	0,826	
[OL.17] Communicate openly and transparently	0,819	
[OL.3] Value and care for people	0,816	
[OL.13] Take responsibility, even when under pressure	0,815	
[OL.26] Use collective energy of team members to achieve goals	0,813	
[OL.28] Inspire us by developing healthy relationships	0,795	
[OL.18] Regularly provide clear expectations of what I need to do	0,791	
[OL.2] Share their feelings appropriately	0,782	
[OL.1] Manage their own emotions effectively	0,782	
[OL.22] Understand my individual development needs	0,778	
[OL.20] Challenge me through engaging conversations	0,778	
[OL.23] Are available when I need them	0,775	
[OL.25] Embrace diversity	0,773	
[OL.12] Develop workable plans to achieve organisational objectives	0,768	
[OL.16] Change and innovate processes and procedures	0,763	
[OL.19] Coach and mentor me to achieve success	0,760	

A valuable exercise at this statistical analysis stage was to correlate the kept items (21 items) with the eight IQA constructs. It is worth noting that all items under the categories of leadership awareness, leadership style, communication and team dynamics were retained. It is also worth noting that none of the items categorised under delivering strategy was retained. The researcher will expand on this discovery in the next chapter. Table 39 below indicates the retained questions correlated to the IQA constructs.

Table 39: Retained items correlated to IQA constructs

Retained Items		IQA Construct
Question	1	Leader Awareness
Question	2	Leader Awareness
Question	3	Leader Awareness
Question	4	Leader Awareness
Question	6	Leadership Culture
Question	12	Leader Vision
Question	13	Leadership Style and Characteristics
Question	14	Leadership Style and Characteristics
Question	15	Leadership Style and Characteristics
Question	16	Leadership Style and Characteristics
Question	17	Engaging Communication
Question	18	Engaging Communication
Question	19	Engaging Communication
Question	20	Engaging Communication
Question	21	Support
Question	22	Support
Question	23	Support
Question	25	Team Dynamics
Question	26	Team Dynamics
Question	27	Team Dynamics
Question	28	Team Dynamics

The exploratory factor analysis yielded noteworthy results. An EFA explores the emergence of new hypothetical constructs that align with the theory. The researcher used a split-sample validation process based on the advice of Hair et al. (2016). The holdout sample (or estimation sample) was created based on a 10:1 ratio. Therefore, the holdout sample of 320 cases was randomly selected from the 32 items on the OL scale.

Three approaches were employed to determine the EFA based on the factor extraction advice of Pallant (2016). These steps included (i) Kaiser's criterion (eigenvalue rule > 1), (ii) Scree test and (iii) Parallel analysis. From the results n=320 (from n=5 305), the first test produced an eigen>1 and 2 factors extracted, but the extraction sums of squared loadings on the first factor was = 60,027% (based on eigen > 1).

Although two factors were extracted, the data suggested that the second factor was small and insignificant. The parallel analysis test indicated a one-factor model, and the scree plot also suggested a one-factor model. The researcher used 0,75 as the cut-off point during the parallel analysis test and retained 21 out of the 32 items. The next step was to run confirmatory factor analysis tests on the 21 included items of the OL scale.

5.3.5.5 Confirmatory factor analysis (One-factor analysis from EFA)

During this step of the spilt sample validation procedure, the researcher had to conduct a confirmatory factor analysis (one-factor analysis from EFA) on the remainder of the data set (5 305 – 320). To ensure the study's rigour, a holdout or validation sample was retained (5305 - 320 = 4 985) and had to be tested to understand how well the estimated model fits the sample. The holdout sample was not used in calculating the model (estimate sample of 320) and, therefore, provided an independent way of validating the model. Due to the large sample size, the holdout sample of n=4985 was more than sufficient to conduct a confirmatory factor analysis. To conduct a confirmatory factor analysis, the IBM SPSS system was used. The one-factor CFA model was built on the OL scale's latent factors which were obtained from the estimation sample during the EFA. These 21 factors met the model fit criteria. Model fit estimates for the CFA have been indicated in Table 40 below.

Table 40: Model fit summary

Measure	Threshold Limit	Current CFA Model
GFI	>0,90	0,92
AGFI	>0,90	0,90
NFI	>0,90	0,96
TLI	>0,90	0,95
CFI	>0,90	0,96

Hairet al. (2016) suggest specific rules regarding construct validity. These include (i) standard loadings estimates higher than 0,5 to indicate convergent validity, (ii) an AVE of 0,5 or greater to ensure sufficient convergent validity, (iii) the AVE approximations of two factors must be greater than the square of the correlation between the factors to prove discriminant validity and, (iv) the construct reliability must be 0,7 or higher as

indication of adequate internal consistency. Based upon these threshold limits recommended by Hair et al. (2016), the estimates met the acceptable norms. As illustrated in Table 41 and Figure 45, the latent factor loadings were all above the thresholds.

Table 41: Validity analysis

	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)	OL
OL	0,971	0,613	≤0,001	0,972	0,783
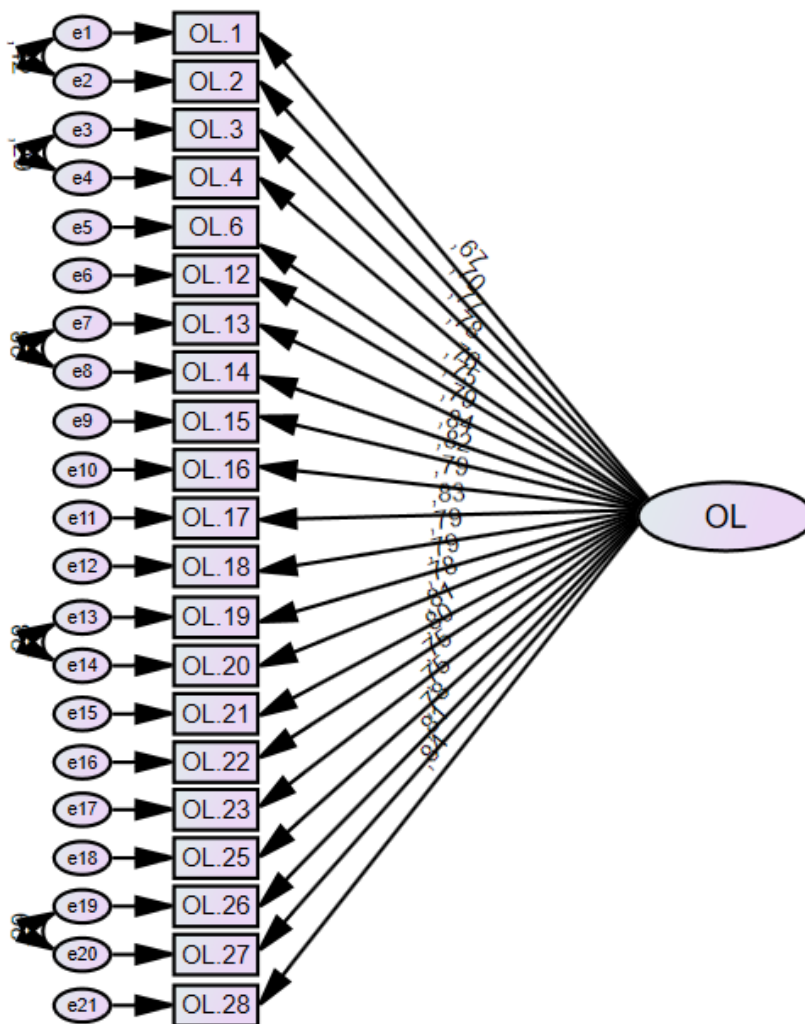
Figure 45: One-factor confirmatory factor analysis

The standardised regression weights of the CFA are illustrated below in Table 42 and were found to be within norms.

Table 42: Standardised regression weights

			Estimate
OL.1	<---	OL	0,67
OL.2	<---	OL	0,703
OL.3	<---	OL	0,772
OL.4	<---	OL	0,775
OL.6	<---	OL	0,757
OL.12	<---	OL	0,752
OL.13	<---	OL	0,789
OL.14	<---	OL	0,839
OL.15	<---	OL	0,824
OL.16	<---	OL	0,789
OL.17	<---	OL	0,825
OL.18	<---	OL	0,788
OL.19	<---	OL	0,794
OL.20	<---	OL	0,781
OL.21	<---	OL	0,813
OL.22	<---	OL	0,803
OL.23	<---	OL	0,752
OL.25	<---	OL	0,753
OL.26	<---	OL	0,784
OL.27	<---	OL	0,814
OL.28	<---	OL	0,839

5.3.5.6 Common method bias (One-factor analysis from EFA)

As previously mentioned, Common method bias (CMB) is a feature in self- reported questionnaires and a potential problem in behavioural research work. The variance in this case is due to the measurement method rather than the constructs that the measures signify (Podsakoff, et al., 2003). Therefore, the occurrence remains higher when the dependent and independent variables are obtained from the same individual.

Eichhorn (2014) suggest that common method bias frequently occurs in empirical survey research and offer recommendations to measure it. The suggested procedural methods include: (i) Harman Single Factor, (ii) Common Latent Factor, and (iii) Common Marker Variable (Eichhorn, 2014). The first technique to explore the possibility of common method bias (Harman Single factor test) was earlier introduced into the study to explore factor analysis, where every variable was loaded onto a single factor. The findings of the Harman Single factor test indicated a one-factor model. The

second method, known as the common latent variable, introduces a new latent variable. If all the variables are related to it, those paths are constrained to be equal, and the variance of the common factor is constrained to be 1. This method is set to a threshold of 0,50. For the current data, the outcome of the results indicated a common latent factor of 0,206 for all variables shown, and its t-value suggested significance. The common method variance is the square of that value (0,042). Therefore, the Common Marker Variable technique suggests no significant common method bias in this data since the calculated variance (4,2%) is below 50% (Eichhorn, 2014).

The last technique, known as the common marker variable, enables the researcher to include measures (a scale) that are presumed to be influencing the reason for the bias. The idea of creating a marker variable was conceptualised by Lindell and Whitney (2001) to investigate the common method bias by establishing the correlation between the marker variable and the latent variables (Tesheen, et al., 2017). The marker variable should have no expected theoretical relationship with the latent variables.

The Social Desirability (SD) scale was included in the battery of instruments with the exclusive role of marker variance. The scale consisted of 5 items related to the respondent's feelings. The recommendation of Tesheen et al. (2017) is that if the correlation between the marker variable and any latent variable is greater than 0,3 (r > 0,3), then there would be an issue with common method bias.

The result of this test indicated that the correlation between the latent variables (OL scale) and the marker variable (SD) as a condition of common method bias was low, with a correlation of r=-0,138 . Figure 46 below indicates the results of the common method bias tests.
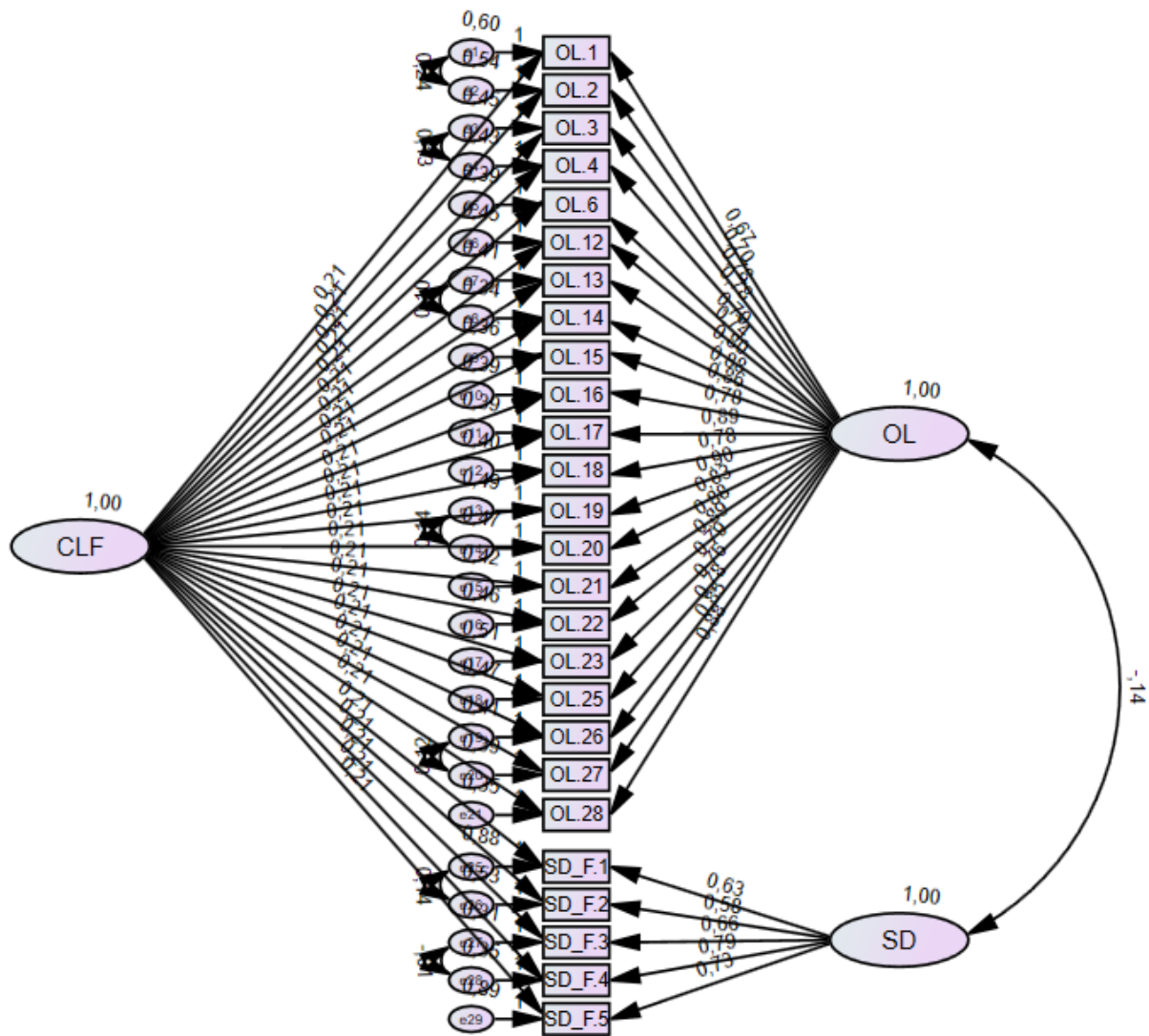
Figure 46: One-factor common method bias

We have briefly discussed common method bias and how it could influence this empirical study. Three methods were used to detect and measure the presence of common method bias in the study.

5.3.5.7 Invariance analysis

Measurement invariance suggests that, when using the same instrument in different conditions or groups, the instrument will measure the constructs exactly and yield similar representations of the same construct (Hair, et al., 2018). Invariance is established by evaluating whether the data fits into the specified model (Chen, Sousa,

& West, Testing Measurement Invariance of Second-Order Factor Models, 2005). Moreover, measuring invariance is paramount if the researcher wants to make group comparisons (Chen, et al., 2005). Statistical comparisons, such as regression coefficients and means, can only be made if measures can be compared across different groups. In this study, comparing public and private organisations provided a deeper insight into organisational leadership practices, and allowed the researcher to test the theory. Accordingly, invariance analysis tests were of utmost importance.

The leading measure for comparisons remains the chi-square difference (Δx^2), as it can be measured by a statistical significance level. Hair et al. (2018) suggest specific stages, and each stage introduces new constraints on the previous less-constrained model. The steps include (i) configural invariance, (ii) matrix invariance and (iii) scalar invariance. (Hair, et al., 2018) Each stage will be explored, and the constraints will be tested in more depth below.

5.3.5.7.1 Configural invariance

The first step confirms that the same fundamental factor structure is present in both groups (Public and Private) to assess whether the same items measure the latent construct across the two groups. Hair et al. (2018) postulate that each group must have the same number of constructs in their CFA models and that each group meets the acceptable levels of model fit and construct validity.

These requirements have been established earlier in the chapter (see figure 45 for CFA), but the question remains whether the constructs are congeneric across the two groups and if the fit indices will be in order? Configural invariance estimates factor models simultaneously but without any constraints. It serves as a baseline model and, therefore, only needs to assess overall model fit to test whether configural invariance holds. Consequently, the Private and public data were split and analysed to understand the model fit.

Table 43 below indicates the model fit.

Table 43: Configural invariance model fit

Measurement	CFA Results	Sector Configural Invariance
GFI	0,92	0,91
AGFI	0,90	0,89
NFI	0,96	0,95
TLI	0,95	0,95
CFI	0,96	0,95
RMSEA	0,065	0,048
PCLOSE	0,000	0,983

Final n=4984

Configural invariance was supported after the test, as evidenced by acceptable model statistics in table 43 when estimating groups freely, i.e., without constraints. This configural invariance model became the baseline model of the rest of the comparisons.

5.3.5.7.2 Metric invariance

Metric invariance step offers the first comparison between the MCFA model groups and indicates the similarity of factor loadings. Metric invariance signifies similarity in the relationships between measured variables and constructs (Hair, et al., 2018). This is regarded as a critical step in testing invariance. The degree of invariance defines cross-group similarity past the basic factor structure.

Metric invariance is a regression analysis that assesses whether those items' factor loadings are equivalent across the two groups (public and private). This means, in other words, whether respondents across the two groups attribute the same meaning to the latent construct under study. To assess metric invariance, the researcher must compare the fit of the metric model (factor loadings are constrained to be equal across groups, but intercepts can differ) with the fit of the configural model (factor loadings are unconstrained across groups). If there is no significant difference in model fit using the chi-square difference test, there is evidence to suggest that the factor loadings are invariant across groups.

Metric invariance was not supported, as was evidenced by a significant chi-square model difference test (p=0,011) between the unconstrained and fully constrained

models where the regression weights were constrained. The results are displayed as indicated in Table 44 below.

Table 44: Metric invariance model fit (Chi-square model difference test)

Chi-square model difference test	CMN	df	P-value	Invariant
Unconstrained	4662,16	368		
Fully constrained	4700,87	389		
Number of groups		2		
Difference	38,712	21	0,011	NO

Since the metric invariance was not supported, the researcher next had to conduct a critical ratio test as displayed in Table 45 to compare the estimates of the two groups (private and public) and to identify where the differences were.

Table 45: Critical ratios test

			Private		Public		
			Estimate	P	Estimate	P	z-score
OL.1	<---	OL	0,678	≤0,001	0,687	≤0,001	0,334
OL.2	<---	OL	0,716	≤0,001	0,722	≤0,001	0,245
OL.3	<---	OL	0,814	≤0,001	0,787	≤0,001	-1,083
OL.4	<---	OL	0,807	≤0,001	0,780	≤0,001	-1,075
OL.6	<---	OL	0,734	≤0,001	0,701	≤0,001	-1,415
OL.12	<---	OL	0,747	≤0,001	0,767	≤0,001	0,819
OL.13	<---	OL	0,804	≤0,001	0,815	≤0,001	0,414
OL.14	<---	OL	0,881	≤0,001	0,882	≤0,001	0,039
OL.15	<---	OL	0,870	≤0,001	0,852	≤0,001	-0,721
OL.16	**<---**	**OL**	**0,748**	**≤0,000**	**0,814**	**≤0,000**	**2,74***
OL.17	<---	OL	0,881	≤0,001	0,923	≤0,001	1,640
OL.18	<---	OL	0,787	≤0,001	0,794	≤0,001	0,272
OL.19	<---	OL	0,896	≤0,001	0,903	≤0,001	0,239
OL.20	<---	OL	0,822	≤0,001	0,854	≤0,001	1,257
OL.21	<---	OL	0,877	≤0,001	0,901	≤0,001	0,925
OL.22	<---	OL	0,892	≤0,001	0,903	≤0,001	0,432
OL.23	**<---**	**OL**	**0,774**	**≤0,000**	**0,823**	**≤0,000**	**1,854***
OL.25	<---	OL	0,759	≤0,001	0,786	≤0,001	1,067
OL.26	<---	OL	0,784	≤0,001	0,812	≤0,001	1,164
OL.27	<---	OL	0,872	≤0,001	0,851	≤0,001	-0,837
OL.28	<---	OL	0,884	≤0,001	0,900	≤0,001	0,666

Notes: *** p-value < 0.01; ** p-value < 0.05; * p-value < 0.10

Critical ratios tests identified OL.16 and OL.23 to be problematic items and were removed from the model. Configural invariance had to be tested again, (after the two items were removed) and chi-square model difference test was redone. The new model as displayed in Table 46 below supports metric invariance.

Table 46: Second metric invariance model fit (Chi-square model difference test)

Chi-square model difference test	CMN	df	P-value	Invariant
Unconstrained	3884,95	294		
Fully constrained	3908,17	313		
Number of groups		2		
Difference	23,219	19	0,228	YES

Up to this point, both configural and, metric invariance tests were performed (stage one and two), and the statistics found both tests to be in order. The last stage involved a scalar invariance test which will be discussed in the next section.

5.3.5.7.3 Scalar invariance

Item intercepts are considered the origin or starting value of the scale on which the factor is based. Scalar invariance is the third phase and examines the equality of the intercept terms in the equations explaining the variables (Hair, et al., 2018). Thus, scalar invariance tests are essential for comparing construct levels such as mean scores across the different groups. This implies that the meaning of the construct (the factor loadings) and the levels of the underlying items (intercepts) are equal in groups. Consequently, groups can be compared on their scores on the latent variable.

Historically, measurement invariance was analysed with a single criterion, the significance of the change in x^2 for models. Chen et al. (2005) mention that the shift by researchers from a focus on absolute fit (with regards to x^2) to an alternate fit index came about because x^2 is excessively sensitive to slight deviations in large samples, such in this study. Threshold values are suggested when dealing with large samples with adequate power, equivalent group sizes and mixed variances. (Putnick & Bornstein, 2016). The following criteria are to be used: a -0,01 change in CFI, coupled with changes in the RSWA of ,015 and SRMR of ,030 for matric variance and 0,015 for scalar invariance (Chen, 2007). Putnick and Bornstein (2016) suggest that there is no agreement about the best-fit indices for all conditions and propose that the

researcher should ultimately choose the correct fit criteria. The study will contribute to the body of knowledge through the chosen statistical strategies.

Scalar invariance was not supported based on the Chi-square difference test. This was evidenced by the significant chi-square model comparison test (p<0,001) between the unconstrained and fully constrained models, where the regression intercepts were constrained. The suggestion was to remove the intercept constraints to achieve partial metric invariance. Scalar invariance was however supported, based on guidelines by Chen (2007) in Putnick and Bornstein (2016), as evidenced by delta-values meeting recommended minimums. Table 47 below indicates the acceptable outcomes based on the criteria of Chen (2007).

Table 47: Scalar invariance results

Model Fit Indices	Metric	Scalar	Delta	Criteria	Outcome
CFI	0,95	0,96	0,001	<0,01	Supported
RMSEA	0,048	0,048	0,000	<0,015	Supported
SRMR	0,028	0,027	0,000	<0,015	Supported

Complete measurement in all steps is not always possible. Accordingly, it has become a general practice to accept some violations regarding invariance measurement and to continue testing relations or mean differences by applying a partial invariance (Putnick & Bornstein, 2016). Byrne, Shavelson, and Muthén (1989) suggested no restriction on the number of parameters except for those that make logical sense. Ideally, more than half of the factors should be invariant (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). Factors can be considered partially invariant when most of the items on the factor are deemed invariant; however, there are no empirical studies that suggest these recommendations (Putnick & Bornstein, 2016).

The statistics up to this point conceptualised a scale by combining individual variables in a one-factor scale. The organisational leadership (OL) scale resulted in 19 items that were statistically measured in the following sections of the study.

5.3.6 Construct descriptive (Of validated OL19 scale)

When analysing descriptive statistics, the researcher is interested in answering questions relating to (i) the spread of the data, (ii) the centre of the data, (iii)the extremes noted in the data and (iv) the shape of the distribution (IBM, 2022).

The descriptive procedure in SPSS computes a set of descriptive statistics for the chosen variables, in this case, the validated OL19 scale. Descriptive statistics measure central tendency and comprise many indicators, including the mean, mode, median, standard deviation, variance, skewness, and kurtosis (IBM, 2022). The output derived from the descriptive statistics provides data and information concerning the distribution of scores on continuous variables, including mean, skewness and kurtosis, as indicated in table 48 below.

Table 48: Descriptive statistics (OL19 scale)

Indicator		Statistic
N		3505
Mean		3,57
95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3,54
	Upper Bound	3,59
5% Trimmed Mean		3,60
Median		3,74
Variance		0,718
Std. Deviation		0,847
Minimum		1,00
Maximum		5,00
Range		4,00
Interquartile Range		1,11
Skewness		-0,608
Kurtosis		0,111

The mean (3,57) provides insight into the measures of central tendency. For the OL19, therefore the mean = 3,57 is, therefore, the average of the data values. The skewness value (-0,608) indicates the symmetry of the distribution, and the negative skewness values indicate that scores are clustered and presented to the right of a graph. This creates a visible histogram tail, as illustrated in figure 47 below. The kurtosis value

(0,111) provides a measure to indicate that the data are light-tailed relative to the normal distribution.

Therefore, the descriptive statistics of the validated data set (n=5305) indicated negative skewness values for each of the 19 items. However, it should be noted, based on the work of Tabachnick and Fidell (2013), that skewness will not substantively influence the analyses of the data when dealing with large sample sizes.Kurtosis describes distribution and measures the extreme values or outliers in either tail, and will be zero in a normal distribution. The positive kurtosis value of (0,111) specifies that the data reveal more extreme outliers than a normal distribution. To test normality, the ratio of kurtosis compared to its standard error should be applied, and normality is generally rejected when the ratio is more than +2 or less than -2. The kurtosis value of (0,111) was well within the normality test requirements.
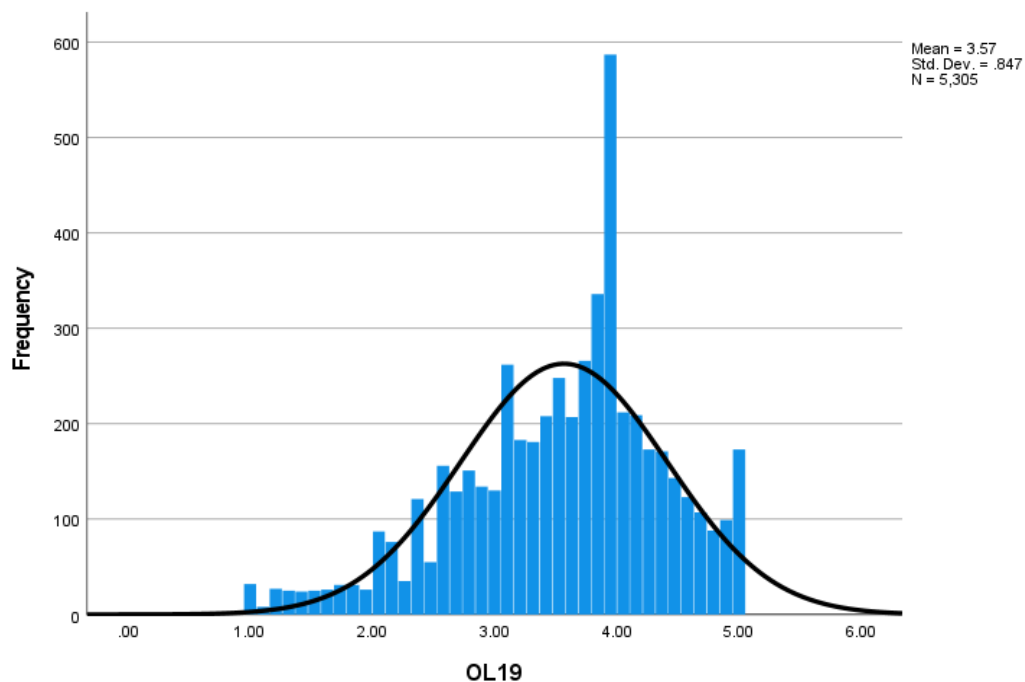
Figure 47: Histogram of OL19 scale

The histogram, as displayed in Figure 47 yielded remarkable results, and the findings will be discussed in more depth in the next chapter. Worth noting though are the following (i) there was a variation in the distribution along the total spectrum of 1 to 5; (ii) the modules or most frequent value in the range was above 4 (very high), indicating that most respondents experienced leadership in organisations as moderately

effective; (iii) there was a small group of respondents that experienced leadership very positively with a rating of 5 across all 19 items; (iv) a tail is visible here on the histogram (still within the norm of standard error of kurtosis); (v) a slight variance existed between scores of 1 and 2; (vi) spikes occur on the actual numbers 1,2,3,4 and 5; therefore, if a line was drawn on the actual numbers, the graph will look similar; (vii) more respondents rated their leaders on a score of 3 instead of 5; (viii) the front end of the graph (4-5) is lower than the tail where there are higher spikes between 2,3 and 4; (viiii) there was a portion of the respondents who rated their organisational leaders very low (1), why did they rate their leaders so low?; (x) the differences in the division of the data can be compared to a wave with a clear tail; (xi) the researcher expected that people would have rated their leaders higher than what the histogram indicates; (xii) this histogram can be used as a template (benchmark) to measure leadership in other organisations.

In summary, the histogram clearly illustrates the unidimensional measure which was part of the study's objective: The conceptualisation, development and validation of an Organisational Leadership measure within a South African organisational context.

5.3.7 Hypotheses testing

Various statistical hypothesis tests were performed to understand the assumptions regarding a population parameter. The methodology employed by the researcher during this cross-sectional study included conducting t-tests for two groups (e.g., sector analysis) and one-way ANOVA tests where more than one group was assessed (e.g., years of service). The type of test depended on the type of the data and the intention for the analysis. The researcher used hypothesis testing to measure the credibility of various hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1: Leadership behaviours do not vary between public and private organisations.

An independent-samples T-test was performed to understand whether organisational leadership differed between private and public sectors. As indicated in Table 49, 54% of the respondents were employed in the private sector and 46% in the public sector. The standard deviations for the two groups indicated a difference, and the means

showed that respondents in private organisations rated their leaders higher than those in public organisations.

Table 49: Group statistics (OL19 scale)

Sector		n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
OL19	Private	2847	3,69	0,828	0,01553
	Public	2457	3,42	0,845	0,01706

Table 50 indicates the independent samples test for the group statistics test.

H0: Equal variances are assumed between public and private sectors.

H1: Equal variances not assumed between public and private sectors.

Table 50: Group statistics independent samples test

		H0: Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					
		F	Sig.	t	df	Significance		Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
						One-Sided p	Two-Sided p		
OL19	H0: Equal variances assumed	7,200	0,007	11,894	5302	≤0,001	≤0,001	0,27392	0,02303
	H1: Equal variances not assumed			11,876	5156,994	≤0,001	≤0,001	0,27392	0,02306

Results reject the H0 hypothesis in favour of H1. The Significance Two-Sided p-value is greater than p<.001. In table 51 below, the difference in effect size according to Cohen's d value is 0,328. Thus the value difference between the public and private sectors can be described as a medium variance. Pallant (2016) suggests a 0,2 as a small effect; 0,5 as a medium effect and 0,8 and above as a significant effect. The effect size for the difference between public and private organisations can be considered moderate with a small to medium effect size.

Table 51: Group statistics independent samples effect sizes

		Standardizer[a]	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
OL19	Cohen's d	0,83637	0,328	0,273	0,382
	Hedges' correction	0,83649	0,327	0,273	0,382
	Glass's delta	0,84544	0,324	0,269	0,379

The first observation indicates that in the South African context, the respondents rated higher on the private sector than the public. Secondly, it suggests that the leadership practices differing amongst private and public organisations in the South African context. This will be further explored in the next chapter. Accordingly, hypothesis 1 is accepted.

Hypothesis 2: Participants are expected to assign above-average ratings to their leaders' behaviours. The average (mean) is equal to 3, or more significant than 3, or smaller than 3.

HO: M = 3
H1: M >3
H2: M<3

The descriptive statistics in table 48 indicated a mean score of 3,57 (average) and a median score (middle point) of 3,74. It is important to note that the mean is lower than 4, indicating that not all the participants agreed with the leadership practices in their organisations. This will be explored further in the next chapter.

The 95% Confidence Interval for the mean (Table 48) does not indicate a number lower than 3 or higher than 3. The lower bound interval was at 3,54% and the higher bound interval at 3,59%. This showed a meaningful difference in the data. Accordingly, H1 is the accepted hypothesis.

For ease of interpretation, the Likert scale can be calibrated with only four statistical distances: 1 to 2, 2 to 3, 3 to 4, and 4 to 5. Increments in the scale are calculated by taking the four distance points and dividing them into five (4/5=0,8).

Accordingly, increments on the scale are by 0,8 between the four points. The interpretation of the index values should statistically be interpreted as follows:

<u>Scale index</u>
1,00 – 1,80 (Strongly disagree)
1,81 – 2,60 (Disagree)
2,61 – 3,41 (Uncertain)
3,41 – 4,20 (Agree)
4,21 – 5,00 (Strongly Agree)

From the above interpretation, the researcher deduced that the mean score of 3,57 differed from the scoring point 3 and that the mean (3,57) fell under the range of 3,41 – 4,20 (Agree). This indicates that the mean respondents responded positively to the organisational leadership measures. It is important to note that the mean was not in the index range of 4,21 – 5,00 (strongly agree). This result indicates possible room for improvement and will be explored in the next chapter.

This index interpretation contributes to the validity of the scale in the context of the population, and also indicates something about the current state of organisational leadership in a South African context. It is recommended that this scale be tested in other countries to see how the mean would differ from the South African score.

Hypothesis 3: Male and female leaders do not exhibit different leadership behaviours.

H0: Equal variances assumed between males and females.
H1: Equal variances not assumed between males and females.

Table 52: Gender

Gender		n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
OL19	Male	2582	3,57	0,831	0,01634
	Female	2723	3,56	0,863	0,01654

An independent samples T-Test (2 groups) was conducted, and the results are presented in Table 52. The mean result for males (n=2585) was 3,57, and the mean result for females (n=2723) was 3,56. The results indicate no perceived difference in the leadership behaviours demonstrated by different genders in the workplace. This is a meaningful and vital discovery with much current debate about gender and leadership in the South African workplace. The effect sizes between the two groups, as displayed in table 53 below, were insignificantly small and the zero hypotheses was accepted.

Table 53: Gender independent samples effect sizes

		Standardizer[a]	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
OL19	Cohen's d	0,84744	0,015	-0,039	0,068
	Hedges' correction	0,84756	0,015	-0,039	0,068
	Glass's delta	0,86318	0,014	-0,039	0,068

Hypothesis 4: Perceptions of leadership behaviours do not differ between employees in core business functions and those in support roles within organisations.

H0: Equal variances assumed between core and support functions
H1: Equal variances not assumed between core and support functions

Table 54: Business role

Business Role		n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
OL19	Core business	2331	3,61	0,82560	0,01710
	Support business	29961	3,53	0,86263	0,01585

An independent samples T-Test (2 groups) was conducted. The findings indicated in Table 54 that 44% of the respondents were in core business functions, and 56% were in support functions. The results of the independent sample effect, as displayed in Table 55 below, indicates a point estimate of 0,091. This is considered a small effect based on a large sample size, yet it is important to indicate a difference.

Table 55: Business role independent samples effect sizes

		Standardizer[a]	Point Estimate
OL19	Cohen's d	0,84652	0,091
	Hedges' correction	0,84664	0,091
	Glass's delta	0,86263	0,089

Accordingly, the H1 hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis 5: Leadership behaviours perceived by managers and non-management staff do not differ significantly.

H0: Equal variances assumed between management and non-management.
H1: Equal variances not assumed between management and non-management.

Table 56: Management role

Management role		n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
OL19	Management	1624	3,62	0,818	0,02031
	Non-management	3671	3,54	0,859	0,01418

Another independent samples T-Test (2 groups) was conducted. As illustrated in Table 56, the findings indicate that 31% of the respondents were in management positions, and 69% were in non-management positions.

The results of the independent sample effect in table 57 below indicate a point estimate of 0,094. This is considered a small effect based on large sample size, yet it is essential to tell a difference. The next chapter will explore this difference further with an in-depth discussion regarding leadership and management positions.

Table 57: Management role independent samples effect sizes

		Standardizer[a]	Point Estimate
OL19	Cohen's d	0,84671	0,094
	Hedges' correction	0,84683	0,094
	Glass's delta	0,85891	0,093

The H1 hypothesis is accepted.

A meaningful difference can be determined on the point estimate of cohen's d effect sizes. A frequently used interpretation is to refer to effect sizes as small (d = 0.2), medium (d = 0.5), and large (d = 0.8) based on benchmarks suggested by Pallant (2016). It must, however, be noted that these values are arbitrary and should not be interpreted rigidly.

Hypothesis 6: Perceptions of leadership behaviours do not vary among employees based on their tenure within the organisation.

H0: Equal variances assumed between the years of service in the organisation
H1: Equal variances not assumed between the years of service in the organisation

Table 58: Years' service independent samples effect sizes

					95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
0-2	687	3,72	0,83740	0,03195	3,6573	3,7827
2-5	1427	3,66	0,80994	0,02144	3,6166	3,7007
5-10	1377	3,49	0,84840	0,02286	3,4484	3,5381
10-15	866	3,45	0,86576	0,02942	3,3970	3,5125

15+	917	3,53	0,85135	0,02811	3,4792	3,5895
Total	5274	3,57	0,84518	0,01164	3,5455	3,5912

The results of the One-way tests in Table 58 indicate that people with fewer years' service rated the leadership behaviours higher (or more positive) than those who have been employed in an organisation for 5 years or longer.

In table 59 below the means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed, based on the recommendations of Tukey honestly significant difference test. The results from the test confirmed the findings in table 57 that the group sizes are unequal.

Therefore, the H6 hypothesis is accepted.

Table 59: Number of years with company (grouped)

Number of years with company (grouped)		n	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
			1	2
Tukey HSD[a,b]	10-15	866	3,4547	
	5-10	1377	3,4932	
	15+	917	3,5344	
	2-5	1427		3,6587
	0-2	687		3,7200
	Sig.		0,223	0,490

Table 60 below provides a summary of hypotheses testing conducted as part of a cross-sectional study to understand leadership behaviour in organisations. Various statistical methods, including t-tests and one-way tests, were used to test six hypotheses, and various factors, including industry, gender, functional role, leadership role, and tenure, were evaluated. The purpose of this table is to provide a concise summary of the test results and fast insight into the acceptance or rejection of each hypothesis and its implications.

Table 60: Summary of Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Method	Result	Notes
Hypothesis 1: Leadership behaviours do not vary between public and private organisations.	T-test	Rejected H0, Accepted H1	The leadership practices differ between private and public organisations. Private sector rated higher.
Hypothesis 2: Participants are expected to assign above-average ratings to their leaders' behaviours.	Descriptive Statistics	Rejected H0, Accepted H1	Mean score of 3,57 indicating respondents responded positively to the organisational leadership measures.
Hypothesis 3: Male and female leaders do not exhibit different leadership behaviours.	T-test	Accepted H0	No perceived difference in the leadership behaviours demonstrated by different genders in the workplace.
Hypothesis 4: Perceptions of leadership behaviours do not differ between employees in core business functions and those in support roles within organisations	T-test	Rejected H0, Accepted H1	A difference is found, yet with a small effect size.
Hypothesis 5: Leadership behaviours perceived by managers and non-management staff do not differ significantly.	T-test	Rejected H0, Accepted H1	A difference is found, yet with a small effect size.
Hypothesis 6: Perceptions of leadership behaviours do not vary among employees based on their tenure within the organisation.	One-way test	Rejected H0, Accepted H1	People with fewer years' service rated the leadership behaviours higher than those with longer service duration

5.3.8 Assessing internal consistency reliability of (validated) scales

As part of this study, the researcher correlated the internal consistency of the OL scale with several well established and validated scales. Table 61 below indicate the scales that were chosen for the validation.

Table 61: List of Assessed Validated Scales

Construct	Description	# items
OUL	Organisational Ubuntu Leadership	10
SL	Servant Leadership	7
AL	Authentic Leadership	16
TrF	Transformational Leadership	22
EL	Ethical Leadership	8
Tlb	Task Leadership Behaviour	9
Trs_L	Transactional Leadership	16

5.3.9 Scale validation - convergent and discriminant validity (correlations & multiple regression)

The researcher took a broad approach to ensure the validity of a set of items as representative of a conceptual definition. It included specific sub-elements of convergent validity (the degree to which two scales of the same concept are correlated), discriminant validity (the degree to which two concepts are distinct) and nomological validity (the extent to which the scale makes accurate predictions of other concepts in a theoretically based model).

From the results in table 62 it is evident that all leadership scales are related and indicate a positive association. The researcher expected a moderate to high correlation between the leadership scales as they measure different dimensions of the same construct, leadership. Although the results indicated a correlation, none proved to be problematic.

For example, OL19 correlated 0,718 with OUL (Organisational Ubuntu Leadership). The mathematical calculation of 0,718 x 0,718 = 0,51 indicates that one scale only explains 51% of the variation in the other scale. The same rationale can be applied to each of the different scales. It is interesting to observe a modest negative correlation

between OL 19 and transactional leadership factors. This will be explored in more detail in the next chapter.

Table 62: List of assessed validated scales

Scale Name		OL19	
OL19 Organisational Leadership	Pearson Correlation	--	
	n	5305	
OUL Organisational Ubuntu Leadership	Pearson Correlation	0,718**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	≤0,001	
	n	2552	
SL Servant Leadership	Pearson Correlation	0,718**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	≤0,001	
	n	2552	
AL_sa Authentic Leadership	Pearson Correlation	0,734**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	≤0,001	
	n	2552	
AL_rt Authentic Leadership	Pearson Correlation	0,741**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	≤0,001	
	n	2552	
AL_imp Authentic Leadership	Pearson Correlation	0,697**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	≤0,001	
	n	2552	
AL_bp Authentic Leadership	Pearson Correlation	0,736**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	≤0,001	
	n	2552	
AL Authentic Leadership	Pearson Correlation	0,784**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	≤0,001	
	n	2552	
TrF_LAV Transformational Leadership	Pearson Correlation	,0,730**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	≤0,001	
	n	2552	
TrF_PAM Transformational Leadership	Pearson Correlation	0,719**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	≤0,001	
	n	2552	
TrF_FAGG Transformational Leadership	Pearson Correlation	0,729**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	≤0,001	
	n	2552	
TrF_HPE Transformational Leadership	Pearson Correlation	0,577**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	≤0,001	
	n	2552	
TrF_ISU Transformational Leadership	Pearson Correlation	0,453**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	≤0,001	

		n	2552
TrF_IS Transformational Leadership	Pearson Correlation		0,676**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		≤0,001
	n		2552
TrF Transformational Leadership	Pearson Correlation		0,772**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		≤0,001
	n		2552
EL Ethical Leadership	Pearson Correlation		0,677**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		≤0,001
	n		2464
Tlb Task Leadership Behaviour	Pearson Correlation		0,542**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		≤0,001
	n		2753
Trs_L Transactional Leadership	Pearson Correlation		-0,110**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		≤0,001
	n		2753
Trs_LMBE_act Transactional Leadership	Pearson Correlation		0,511**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		≤0,001
	n		2753
Trs_LCR Transactional Leadership	Pearson Correlation		-0,161**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		≤0,001
	n		2753

5.4 Qualitative Statistics Summary

Before testing the research hypotheses, and even before the validity of the constructs and scales were examined within the South African context; the researcher had to examine the data for errors and inconsistencies; and correct the errors in the data file. The researcher discovered that only 3 out of the n=5308 cases had missing values, and therefore, n = 5305 was the sample size for all other statistical purposes, with 3 missing cases out of 5308 amounting to an insignificant number of 0,05%.

During data analysis, the researcher discovered that 31,5% of the respondents showed a standard deviation of less than 0,05% and that 7,7% (409 participants) showed zero variations in their answers. Yet the initial standard deviation histogram, as illustrated in Figure 33, indicated an acceptable spread of deviations. The OL scale (Organisational Leadership) showed a unique characteristic that some respondents could agree with each statement, depending on the quality of leadership in their

organisation. Nonetheless, after consideration, the researcher decided that it would be biased to exclude respondents who had agreed with every statement.

Pallant (2016) postulates that descriptive statistics are beneficial to describe the characteristics of the sample. The descriptive statistics of the complete data set (n=5305) indicated negative skewness values for each of the 32 items ranging from the lowest of -0,313 to the highest of -1,097, indicated in table 25, however, such skewness did not substantively influence the analyses of the dataset due to the large sample size. Descriptive statistics for the OL scale indicated a kurtosis ratio higher than +2 for 25 of the 32 items of the scale (78% of the items), this indicated a leptokurtic curve. The descriptive statistics of the complete data set (n=5305) indicated negative skewness and positive kurtosis as indicated in Table 25.

Convergent validity of the initial data set indicated construct reliability above 0,7 as illustrated in Table 27, but discriminant validity tests suggested a poor model fit as shown in Figure 43. Based on the acceptable norms as indicated in table 27, the following should be noted about the model fit: (i) CMIN/df is regarded as a terrible fit, (ii) GFI was an acceptable fit, (iii) AGFI was an acceptable fit, (iv) NFI was an excellent fit, (v) TLI was an excellent fit, (vi) CFI was an excellent fit, (vii) RMSEA was an excellent fit, (viii) PCLOSE was an excellent fit, SRMR was an excellent fit.
Discriminant validity tests the differentiation between the constructs. The initial data set indicated in Figure 43 that it is difficult to identify the different constructs. The OL scale, therefore, raised discriminant validity concerns. The HTMT analysis showed that all eight factors rated higher than the required 0,850, and few were in the liberal discriminant validity band of 0,850-0,900. These results are displayed in Table 31. The statistical outcome of the baseline model test and the HTMT analysis suggested that the OL scale is a one-construct model. However, the qualitative phase identified eight different organisational leadership constructs.

Harman's single-factor test suggests that if a single factor accounts for less than half (<50%) of the common variance among the items, then common method variance will not likely be present. Based on Harman's single-factor test, the study discovered that squared loadings accounted for more than half the common variance among the items

at 59.380%, which suggested that one factor accounted for explaining most of the variance for the research, as indicated in Table 32.

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) approach was followed to explore the possible emergence of new hypothetical constructs that still aligned with the research theory. Accordingly, the exploratory factor analysis was conducted to condense the data obtained from the original form (32 factors) into a more composite dimension without the loss of critical information. A split-sample approach was followed based on Tabachnick and Fidell's (2013) suggestions. To ensure high statistical rigour, the researcher employed the strategy of sample validation. Hair, et al. (2016) suggest a general rule of a 10:1 ratio to generate an estimation sample. There were 32 items on the OL scale, and the researcher selected 320 cases randomly.

Factor extraction was conducted using Kaiser's criterion, a scree test, and a parallel analysis test. During factor analysis, a hypothesis was tested to see whether the matrix was an identity matrix. The results indicated meaningful correlations between the factors, as indicated in Table 33. Kaiser's criterion rule stipulates that only factors with an eigenvalue of 1,0 or higher should be retained, and Table 34 suggested a possible 2-factor model, but with a significant percentage (60%) loaded into one factor. Catell's scree test was performed, and as illustrated in Figure 44, it also indicated a possible 2-factor model at best. Horn's parallel analyses test was performed. For this test, the extraction method for the parallel analysis test was principal axis factoring, and the factor rotation converged in 8 iterations. The pattern matrix indicated which items were loaded on factor 1. The results in Table 35 suggested a one-factor model. Lastly, a Monte Carlo parallel analysis test was conducted by simulating eigenvalues. The results revealed a one-factor model as shown in Table 36.

It would be illogical to keep 32 items in a one-factor model, and a cut-off point of 0,75 was established on the pattern matrix. All items above 0,75 were retained, resulting in a 21 items model. The 21 items correlated back to the following IQA constructs, and none of the items categorised under delivering strategy was retained.

Confirmatory factor analyses were performed from the one-factor model. A holdout or validation sample was retained (5305 - 320 = 4 985) and had to be tested to

understand how well the estimated model fitted the sample. Based upon the threshold limits recommended by Hair et al. (2016), the estimates met the acceptable norms. The latent factor loadings were all above the thresholds as displayed in Table 40 and Figure 45. The standardised regression weights of the CFA displayed in Table 42 were found to be within norms.

Common method bias (CMB) tests were conducted through use of the Harman Single Factor, Common Latent Factor, and Common Marker Variable tests. The findings of the Harman Single factor test indicated a one-factor model, and the common latent variable test suggested no significant common method bias since the calculated variance (4,2%) was below 50% (Eichhorn, 2014). The Social Desirability (SD) scale was used as a common marker variable, and result of this test indicated that the correlation between the latent variables (OL scale) and the marker variable (SD) was low, with a correlation of 0,138 (r = -0,138).

Invariance analysis tests were performed by evaluating if the data fitted into the specified model. Statistical comparisons, such as regression coefficients and means, can only be done if measures can be compared across different groups. In this research, comparing public and private organisations provided a deeper insight into organisational leadership practices and allowed the researcher to test the theory. Chi-square difference (Δx^2) tests were used to measure the statistical significance level. Three tests were performed, including configural invariance, metric invariance, and scalar invariance. Configural invariance was supported by the test, as displayed by acceptable model statistics in Table 43. However, metric invariance was not supported, as evidenced by a significant chi-square model difference test (p<0,011) between the unconstrained and fully constrained models, where the regression weights were constrained. The results of metric invariance are displayed in Table 44. As metric invariance was not supported, the researcher had to conduct a critical ratio test. This test identified OL.16 and OL.23 as problematic, and these two items were removed from the model, leaving 19 items on the OL scale.

With configural and metric invariance tests performed and in order, the last analysis involved a scalar invariance test. Scalar invariance was not supported based on the Chi-square difference test, as evidenced by the significant chi-square model

comparison test (p<0,001) between the unconstrained and fully constrained models where the regression intercepts were constrained. The intercept constraints were removed to achieve partial metric invariance, and scalar invariance was supported based on guidelines by Chen (2007) in Putnick and Bornstein (2016), as evidenced by delta-values meeting recommended minimums in Table 46. The statistics up to this step conceptualised a scale by combining individual variables in a one-factor scale.

Several descriptive statistics were performed on the one-factor model with 19 items, as illustrated in Table 48. The descriptive statistics of the validated data set (n=5305) indicated negative skewness values for each of the 19 items, a mean of 3,57 and a positive kurtosis value of 0,111. The histogram, as illustrated in Figure 47, yielded insightful data that will be discussed later in this chapter.

The following Table 63 provides a summary of the key statistical phases and results of mixed methods studies investigating leadership behaviour in South African organisational settings.

Table 63: Summary of key statistical phases

#	Stage	Description	Result
1	Initial Data Screening	Removed entries with missing values.	N=5305 (0.05% missing data)
2	Data Analysis	Calculated standard deviation and variation.	31.5% of respondents showed <0.05% standard deviation.
3	Descriptive Statistics	Analysed skewness and kurtosis.	Negative skewness from -0.313 to -1.097; kurtosis > +2 for 25 of 32 items.
4	Construct Reliability	Checked validity of the dataset.	Above 0.7
5	Model Fit	Assessed model fit through various criteria.	Mostly excellent fit; CMIN/df indicated poor fit.
6	Discriminant Validity	Checked differentiation between constructs.	Poor due to high HTMT ratings.
7	Common Variance	Used Harman's single-factor test to analyze common variance.	One factor accounted for 59.380% of variance.

8	Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)	Conducted to condense the data into a composite dimension.	One-factor model suggested.
9	Factor Extraction	Used Kaiser's criterion, a Scree test, and a Parallel Analysis test.	Meaningful correlations between factors; possible 2-factor model. 1-factor model in the end.
10	Model Refinement	Set a cut-off point for item retention in the model.	21 items model retained.
11	Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)	Checked how well the model fitted the sample.	Acceptable norms met.
12	Common Method Bias (CMB) Tests	Conducted Harman Single Factor, Common Latent Factor, and Common Marker Variable tests.	No significant common method bias found.
13	Invariance Analysis Tests	Checked data fit into the specified model.	Configural invariance supported; metric invariance not supported.
14	Invariance Test Adjustment	Removed problematic items to achieve invariance.	19 items model retained.
15	Scalar Invariance Test	Conducted the final analysis.	Supported after removing intercept constraints.
16	Descriptive Statistics (Revised Model)	Performed on the one-factor model with 19 items.	Negative skewness; mean of 3.57; positive kurtosis of 0.111.

Several quantitative hypotheses were tested, and the results will be discussed in the next chapter. Lastly, the OL scale was correlated to several other leadership scales to determine the variation with the different scales.

5.4 Conclusion

In chapter 5, the statistical results of the mixed-method study have been presented. The descriptive and inferential statistics were presented and explained in detail. This chapter expanded on this study's qualitative and quantitative elements and outcomes. This chapter first shared the findings of the qualitative data collection technique (Interactive Qualitative Analysis) concurrent with a detailed analysis of the quantitative data findings. The purpose of the qualitative phase was to conceptualise and explore

the true nature of leadership behaviours within a South African organisational context. Thirty-two items were developed, all presented as a positive statement, to measure the eight leadership factors. The 32 items were conceptualised in a valid scale (OL) and were distributed to a sample of (n=5305) of the organisational leadership population in South Africa.

The quantitative data analysis plan was carefully implemented to develop a valid measure. After data screening, a sample size of 5305 was obtained, with 31.5% of respondents showing a standard deviation of less than 0.05%. Data analysis was continued, despite the leptokurtic curve and slightly negative skewness, which did not significantly affect the analysis of the large dataset. The discriminant validity of the Organisational Leadership (OL) scale suggested a single-component model. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses and various tests confirmed a one-factor model and a final validated OL scale consisting of 19 items. The validated 19-item scale indicated an interesting distribution, with a mean of 3.57. Further correlations with other leadership measures provided valuable insight into the differentiation and similarities of leadership measures. The rigorous and in-depth data analysis has provided a better understanding of organisational leadership in South Africa.

Chapter 6 will deal with the analysis and discussion of the results.

6. INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

6.1 Introduction

Chapter 6 of this thesis presents the completed analyses and the conclusions deduced from the descriptive and inferential statistics of the qualitative and quantitative phases of the study. A discussion and interpretation on the findings are presented, and the relationship between the research objectives highlighted in chapter one and the findings of chapter five will be discussed. Additionally, the clarity of the relationship between the leadership literature review and the findings is explored and discussed. The chapter will be concluded with a summary.

Leadership creates direction and strategic alignment (Sanda, 2017), which in turn provides a path for subordinates to implement the strategy and achieve success (Anning-Dorson, Odoom, & Acheampong, 2017). Nevertheless, there is a dearth of empirical research that describes the nature of organisational leadership in an African context (Vilakati & Schurink, 2021). This study therefore explored the practical theory of organisational leadership in South Africa in both the public and private sectors. This was achieved by using a mixed-method pragmatism research approach. Pragmatism understands that there are many different techniques for interpreting reality (in this case, organisational leadership) and that no single viewpoint can ever give the entire picture. There may indeed be multiple realities concerning organisational leadership. A pragmatic approach identifies the research question as the most important determinant of ontology, epistemology, and axiology. Therefore, the research question in this study became the most crucial determinant of the research philosophy.

A research question should be well-defined and indicate the study's objective. The question that motivated this study was: What constitutes organisational leadership behaviour in a South African context, and how do emic leadership behaviours (South African) differ from etic leadership behaviours? The primary objective of this study was to understand the current elements of organisational leadership, and the study employed a mixed-methods approach to achieve this.

The structured literature review of 59 years of leadership research in Africa revealed a scarcity of emic leadership instruments. This finding validated the reason for this study: to identify current emic organisational leadership behaviours in the South African context and to develop a valid and reliable leadership scale. This research informs industry and academia of the current effective emic leadership practices in South African organisations to increase performance levels in public and private organisations. This emic organisational leadership scale (OL) is intended to shift paradigms and reframe current thinking about organisational leadership. South Africa needs organisational leadership instruments more suited to the needs and challenges of South African organisations in the twenty-first century.

This study combined a deductive and inductive approach and chose an exploratory sequential design as the appropriate procedure for the research. This design allowed the researcher first to conduct qualitative data analysis, develop a leadership instrument, then collect quantitative data and then analyse the quantitative data to interpret the findings of the exploratory sequential study.

The first step to achieving the outcome was to investigate current leadership practices in organisations through a qualitative consideration. The researcher chose the IQA methodology (Interactive Qualitative Analysis) by collecting organisational leadership data from participants in a virtual focus group. The qualitative data collection enabled the researcher to develop an appropriate leadership Systems Influence Diagram (SID). Eight leadership affinities were identified during this study phase, which allowed the researcher to develop an emic leadership scale. and to define emic organisational leadership based on these affinities. The focus group described leadership as individuals who demonstrate high levels of awareness (self and others) whilst having ethical standards and creating a winning mindset in subordinates. These individuals nurture trusting relationships whilst displaying courage, humility, innovation, and integrity, all guided by clearly defined values. They communicate engagingly and transparently to create a safe space where subordinates are encouraged to take on appropriate risks and then deliver extraordinary organisational results through a diverse group of people with proper reward and recognition practices.

Based on these findings, the researcher developed the OL (Organisational Leadership) scale, and 32 items were formulated using the eight affinities discovered

in the qualitative phase of the research. A sample of n=5305 out of the public and private organisational population in South Africa were requested to participate in the study. Several statistical procedures were employed using IBM SPSS that computed a set of descriptive statistics for the chosen variables. In this case, SPSS validated the one-factor OL scale to 19 items based on the sample.

The sixth chapter provides a comprehensive interpretation and discussion of the results of the study. This study addresses a deficiency in the understanding of African emic leadership practises by employing a mixed-method pragmatism methodology. The validation of the OL scale, which comprised 19 items was grounded on eight leadership affinities obtained during the qualitative phase. Using the OL scale has provided novel perspectives on leadership effectiveness within a South African context.

6.2 Highlights of the relevant statistics

This study contributes to the leadership phenomena within the organisational context. The highlighted statistics of this mixed-method study will be divided into three sections, namely (i) structured literature review statistics, (ii) qualitative statistics and (iii) quantitative statistics.

6.2.1 Structured literature review statistics

The theme of African organisational leadership is a developing area of research that has received limited scholarly attention. Theories pertaining to leadership and management frequently have their origins in Europe and North America. However, adopting a universal approach in this regard can result in notable inaccuracies in the measurement process. This part of the research study contributed a structured literature review of African leadership and summarised the identified research gaps. The structured literature review answered several leadership questions:

- Is there evidence that leadership in Africa is different or similar to leadership in other parts of the world?
- What are the contextual factors that influence leadership and management in Africa?

- Have organisational leadership behaviours been identified that are unique to Africa?

- Are there similarities or differences in the perceptions of people in Africa and the rest of the world about organisational leadership?

This study has identified 515 digitised articles about African leadership, as discussed in Chapter 3. The articles were sourced from five prominent academic journals: EBSCO Host, Emerald, Sage, Science Direct, and Sabinet. The articles were published within the time frame of 1960 to 2019. After undergoing a meticulous selection procedure, 131 articles were deemed suitable for inclusion in the study due to their exclusive focus on examining African leadership practises.

Significant findings are that: (i) the structured literature review discovered a scarcity of African organisational leadership studies. The researcher would have assumed more work would have been done in 59 years with regard to understanding and measuring leadership in an African context, (ii) the 131 articles revealed that developing new leadership theory in Africa remains a challenge; (iii) leadership studies in the private sector, especially in small and medium business remains under-researched; (iv) only 7% of the studies used a mixed-method approach, and the review revealed that little new theory was formed; (v) there is a scarcity of emic based leadership instruments and the consequence to this is that when leadership are measured, it is done on the assumptions of what works in other cultures; (vi) organisational leadership in an African context includes many responsibilities that managers have to do, including managing operations, solving problems, handling conflicts, managing expenses and general administration; (vii) few African quantitative studies investigated common method bias; (viii) most leadership instruments are conceptualised in Western or European markets and are adapted to the African market; (viii) few studies were able to identify emic organisational leadership behaviours; (iv) no reviewed study employed Interactive Qualitative Analysis as a tool to explore the views of focus groups.

Therefore, based on the structed literature review this study recommends that: (i) ample research opportunities exist to explore African organisational leadership in more depth across the continent; (ii) there is a need to develop more current African

leadership theory; (iv) there is a need to develop more emic organisational leadership scales; (v) more guidance is needed for industry to understand the role of an organisational leader and the role of a manager, as many of the studies revealed that organisational leaders deal with the entire range of managerial behaviours and activities; (vii) more instruments need to be developed that measure common method bias as many current results from leadership studies might be contaminated; (viii) researchers should be careful to build findings and assumptions based on etic instruments which were developed in first world countries (Western or European markets) as these instruments do not measure as effectively in an African context; (viii) opportunities exist to identify emic organisational leadership behaviours in an African and South African context; (iv) more social science studies should employ the Interactive Qualitative Analysis methodology to identify leadership behaviours.

The structured literature review failed to completely answer the questions set out at the beginning of the systematic review as to why leadership in Africa is different or similar to that of leadership in other parts of the world. The researcher also failed to identify the contextual factors which influenced African leadership. The review did reveal a few similarities and differences regarding the perceptions of people in Africa and the rest of the world about leadership.

These results from the structured literature review have dual significance, it consolidated the existing research done on leadership in Africa from 1960 to 2019 and it identified opportunities to study emic-based leadership behaviours by using Interactive Qualitative Analysis and by developing more local and relevant leadership instruments.

6.2.2 Qualitative statistics

Interactive Qualitative Analysis (IQA) was this study's chosen qualitative research method as it delivered a clear systemic, rigorous and accountable framework. The IQA focus group results revealed a modern understanding of emic South African organisational leadership behaviours. The focus group results enabled the design of an Interrelationship Diagram (IRD) of organisational leadership through processes of (i) clarification of organisational leadership meaning, (ii) affinity analysis of leadership behaviours (inductive and axial coding), (iii) theoretical coding of the identified

leadership affinities through establishing cause-and-effect relationships, (iv) and completing Affinity Relationship Tables (ART) for each leadership construct.

The frequency tables revealed eight IQA affinities as indicated below:

- Leadership Culture

- Engaging Communication

- Support

- Delivering Strategy

- Emotional Intelligence

- Team Dynamics

- Vision

- Leadership Style and Characteristics

Statistical principles were applied to establish the system's acceptable level for affinity relationships, and the result enabled the researcher to design a System Influence Diagram (SID) with drivers, pivots, and outcome variables. The results revealed that emic leadership behaviours manifest with clear drivers and outcomes.

The findings from the SID indicated that the primary driver of emic organisational leadership in a South African context is the emotional awareness of the leader. This result showed the complexity of leading in a multi-cultural environment such as South Africa, where the leader must be able to manage and understand the feelings of others positively towards achieving organisational goals. This unique finding places a premium on the development of the emotional intelligence of South African organisational leaders. Therefore, leaders must learn to manage emotions effectively. Empirical research conducted in South Africa has demonstrated a clear correlation between leadership effectiveness and the emotional intelligence levels of the leader (du Toit, Viviers, Mayer, & Visser, 2017). It also gives an insight into the complexities (emotional and logical) of managing people in the South African organisational context.

Additionally, the IQA revealed four secondary drivers (leadership style, culture, communication and vision) and these are often seen as essential leadership affinities

in other emic and etic leadership research. The two secondary outcomes identified were support and team dynamics, indicating an organisational leader's impact on team members' willingness to assist each other and build a thriving culture.

The primary outcome of the IQA indicated that results are still regarded as the most critical indicator of organisational success in South African organisations. Delivering the strategy through a diverse group of people must be achieved to ensure success. This is done by reaching consistent and sustainable results and using appropriate reward and recognition systems.

The findings of this study expand our understanding of organisational leadership behaviour in a South Africa context. It is noteworthy to acknowledge that emotional awareness plays a significant role in driving leadership effectiveness. If managers want to thrive in their leadership roles, it is essential that they understand and positively manage their own emotions as well as those of their team members. This statement implies that the outcome of leadership is largely contingent upon the emotional proficiency of the leader.

The significance of emotional awareness is particularly pronounced in the multicultural environment of South Africa. Leadership involves the ability to effectively manage and navigate diverse cultural backgrounds, comprehend varied emotional situations, and cultivate a sense of cohesion among team members. The recognition of emotions extends beyond the personal realm. Leaders must comprehend the intricacies of emotions within a team and their impact on its dynamics. This statement aligns with scholarly research linking leadership effectiveness and emotional intelligence. Therefore, it may be necessary for leadership development initiatives in South Africa to prioritise the cultivation of emotional intelligence.

The additional drivers of leadership style, culture, communication and vision supplement the significance of emotional management. The aforementioned elements constitute the fundamental components of a capable leadership approach. The convergence of these factors is a determining aspect in leadership effectiveness. While emotional intelligence is crucial, successful leadership strategies should

encompass these supplementary factors and introduce a multifaceted, unified leadership framework.

Secondary outcomes of leadership were identified as support and team dynamics. This implies that skilful leaders have the potential to enhance cooperation and reciprocal assistance among team members, consequently reinforcing the collective team culture. This correlation indicates that leaders can facilitate a more efficient, integrated and cooperative work environment by cultivating a positive work atmosphere with healthy team interrelations.

Collectively, these results reveal intricate and interrelated facets of leadership within the South African organisational environment. These results should serve as a framework for the advancement of leadership training and measurement instruments, as well as provide crucial perspectives that may result in enhanced leadership methodologies and heightened organisational effectiveness within South Africa.

6.2.3 Quantitative findings

The implications of the research study's findings are significant in understanding organisational leadership within the South African context. The data analysis findings revealed that the responses were inclined towards matching items on the OL scale, as evidenced by statistics. However, considering the considerable sample size, these inconsistencies did not significantly impact the outcomes, highlighting the robustness of the study's methodology.

The results pertaining to convergent validity are noteworthy as they demonstrate that the scale items exhibit consistency when measuring the same (or similar) constructs. The discriminant validity test results indicated difficulties in distinguishing between the constructs, which implies that the items may not be effectively measuring distinct items within the OL scale. Specifically, when considering differential leadership dynamics in multicultural circumstances like South Africa, it becomes difficult to distinguish between various organisational leadership constructs.

The outcomes of the Harman single factor test further complicated the issue. The fact that a single factor accounted for more than half of the variance suggests that, despite

the complexity of leadership in a multicultural setting, a single factor may substantially influence leadership behaviour in South African organisations.

The results of the exploratory factor analysis initially indicated the potential for a two-factor model. However, ultimately a one-factor model was established. This observation validates the notion that a single concept may predominantly define organisational leadership within the South African context. While refining the model, the study demonstrated adherence to stringent statistical criteria. Eliminating problematic elements to create a 19-element model emphasises the efforts to develop a tool that accurately depicts the reality of organisational leadership in this specific context.

The results of the common method bias tests indicated that the bias did not have a significant impact on the responses. Consequently, it can be concluded that the anticipated outcome of the OL scale would exhibit minimal bias. Establishing the validity of the data collected in the study was paramount. The results of the invariance analysis presented a heightened degree of complexity. The study found evidence of configural invariance, indicating that the general model framework remains consistent across groups. However, the study did not initially find support for metric invariance.

The absence of metric invariance implied that there may be variations in the associations between the constructs and the items of the scale among different groups, thereby highlighting the intricacy of leadership constructs in multicultural organisations in South Africa. Scalar invariance was only partially achieved after adjustments, indicating that the latent variables or unobserved constructs that the OL scale seeks to measure do not operate identically across groups.

In conclusion, these results indicate a rich tapestry of organisational leadership in a South African context, suggesting at a singular leadership construct while highlighting the complexity of nuances across groups. This statement highlights the necessity of leadership theories and tools that can accommodate the diverse and intricate characteristics of organisations in South Africa.

6.3 Discussion of findings

Leadership is a timeless and moving goalpost. It is one of the most critical factors in implementing change and transformation in organisations. For African organisations, these leadership challenges require thoughtful and critical introspection to harness diversity and draw on its strengths. Increasing complexity, changes, ambiguity, and uncertainty forces organisations to rethink leadership philosophies and strategies. Africa is a unique continent, according to Nkomo (2011), and effective leadership is required in African organisations (Ncube, 2010). Good organisational leadership will ensure that Africa grows as a contributing and respectable global player (Pillay, Subban, & Govender, 2013).

Leaders impact subordinates, be it positively or negatively. Moreover, empirical findings suggest many different leadership approaches to achieve this impact, such as the Great Man theory, Trait theory, Behavioural theories, Participative theories, Situational theories, Contingency theories, Transactional Theories, Transformational Theories, Servant Leadership theories, and Ubuntu theories. The accelerated pace of change and transformation further creates a need to develop modern-day leaders who can adapt to the changing business environment. These leaders must be able to create a clear picture or vision of the future and then inspire subordinates to follow this vision. More recently, a strong emphasis has been placed on developing a taxonomy of leadership behaviours.

Organisational leadership research has produced vast amounts of theories, views, and opinions over the last century. This thesis has endeavoured to summarise the most critical organisational leadership theories that influence organisations. This was a significant step to recognise any correlations between existing leadership theories and the findings of this study.

This study attempted to conceptualise and develop a measure of organisational leadership in a South African context. The study suggests many philosophies and approaches to make organisational leaders more effective in the workplace, yet no specific theory or set of behaviours can be viewed as the zenith of organisational leadership. Additionally, many of these theories were developed and researched long

before concepts such as the 4th industrial revolution and the internet of things, which influence most organisations today.

To comprehend the complexity of organisational leadership, this study also turned its focus on the seminal and far-reaching work of Yukl et al. (2002) and Yukl (2012), who identified 15 organisational leadership qualities categorised as (i) task-orientated, (ii) relationship-orientated, (iii) change orientated and (iv) external factors. Table 2 of this thesis lists the hierarchical taxonomy of leadership behaviours of Yukl (2012) as follows: Clarifying, Planning. Monitoring operations, Problem-solving, Supporting, Developing, Recognising, Empowering, Advocating change, Envisioning change, Encouraging change, Facilitating collective learning, Networking, External monitoring and Representing. Correlations were drawn between the findings of this study and the work of Yukl (2012), but only at a conceptual level. This study's findings nonetheless have revealed various practical insights regarding the conceptualisation of organisational leadership behaviours in a South African context and will be discussed below.

6.3.1 One-factor leadership model

Few researchers and academics suggest a one-factor leadership model based on historical work, yet this study discovered a one-factor leadership instrument (OL) for South Africa. This contrasts with etic leadership instruments, which often consist of many factors. At its bare minimum, one would expect to see a two-factor model that separates the classical task factor from the people factor. This thesis expected an 8-factor model after the study's qualitative phase, yet the chapter's statistical analysis clearly indicated a one-factor model through principal component analysis.

The results of the analysis strongly indicate that a one-factor model can represent the Organisational Leadership (OL) scale. This implies that a single fundamental factor will likely account for most of the data's variance. The Kaiser criterion (also known as the eigenvalue rule) specifies the variance accounted for by each factor. A value greater than 1 indicates that the factor typically explains a substantial amount of variance. In this instance, the first factor accounted for over 60% of the model variance. This is extremely significant and indicates that this factor substantially affects the data.

The Catell scree test, an additional method for identifying the number of factors, suggested the possibility of a two-factor model. Despite a proposed two-factor model, a one-factor dominated indicated that a substantial quantity of information could still be attributed to the dominant factor. The pattern matrix, which provides the factor loadings after rotations (which makes the output more understandable), strongly suggested a one-factor model. This indicated that a singular factor was the primary source of model variance. In addition, Monte Carlo PCA (principal component analysis) testing, a more robust method of simulating and comparing eigenvalues to observed eigenvalues, confirmed the one-factor model. A factor correlation matrix, which measures the degree of association between factors, also demonstrated a high correlation and consequently suggested a one-factor model.

The high degree of correlations between these various statistical methodologies provided compelling evidence that the OL scale was a one-factor model. This demonstrated that even though organisational leadership is a complex multi-tiered structure, a significant portion of this complexity can be represented by a single dominant factor in this data set. This provides a streamlined and effective paradigm for future research and application in South Africa.

Depending on the study context, the effects of the one-factor model may be positive or negative. On the plus side, the one-factor model enables data interpretation and comprehension. This indicates that a singular underlying structure or characteristic accounts for most response variance. This is advantageous for developing strategies and interventions because it enables the researcher to concentrate on a single primary configuration. This suggests that the various aspects of leadership within an organisation are so intertwined that, under certain conditions, they form a singular underpinning and underlying structure. This interdependence suggests that alterations or interventions in one facet of leadership are likely to affect all others.

A disadvantage of the one-factor model is its lack of discriminant validity or the capacity to differentiate between distinct leadership components. This may indicate that the OL measure is ineffective at differentiating between various constructs or leadership facets within an organisation. This can be problematic if the objective is to understand and develop unique leadership qualities. The one-construct paradigm can also oversimplify this complex phenomenon. Organisational leadership is frequently

presented as a multidimensional concept with numerous independent constructs; therefore, a single-factor model may not adequately convey the richness and complexity of this structure. Consequently, it facilitates the interpretation and design of leadership interventions but can also limit comprehension's depth and nuances.

Linguistic diversity may also be a contributor to the one-factor model. Although South Africa has 11 official languages the questionnaire was answered in English only. A language barrier could lead to inconsistent interpretation of the questions, as some respondents may not have fully understood them. Moreover, a significant number of respondents answered similarly for each statement. These observations raise the question of whether the researcher can attribute this small variance to the lack of engagement of the respondents or whether this lack of engagement is due to language barriers.

The assumption, based on basic employment criteria in the public and private sectors of South Africa, is that employees need to be able to converse in English, the official business language of South Africa. Based on that criterion, this study postulates that the respondents understood the questions in the OL32 scale.

The second plausible explanation relates to the respondents' perceptions of organisational leadership. The low deviation might indicate something noteworthy about how those respondents' viewed leadership in their organisations and the low standard deviations will then explain the homogenous scale. The battery of other instruments used in this study indicated acceptable variation, indicating that the same respondents did engage differently with the different instruments. The OL scale showed a unique characteristic in that the respondents could agree with each statement.

This study proposes that respondents struggled to separate the sub-factors (IQA) from each other due to the underlying philosophies about leadership. Bearing in mind that 63,8% of the respondents indicated their race as black, one must consider the impact of socio factors, specifically the Ubuntu leadership philosophy. The roots of Ubuntu come from disadvantaged and marginalised groups who had to rely on collective unity and solidarity to survive. Individuals learned to stick together, and unquestioning conformity is expected from each member (Mbigi, 2005).Yet the difficult task and call

to build new African leadership philosophies are resting heavily on the shoulders of current and future African generations (Pillay, et al., 2013).

This uniquely African, singular view of leadership of not separating the task from the person is deeply rooted in the Ubuntu spirit, as people are called to suffer and sacrifice together to ensure survival. Based on the seminal work of Mbigi and Maree (1995), failure to conform, especially on survival issues, will lead to strikes and boycotts. This Ubuntu spirit of patriotism, even to the point where a member will be prepared to die for the survival of the group, might start to explain a one-factor organisational leadership model in South Africa. Existing empirical research suggests a need for a deeper understanding and appreciation of Ubuntu values in the South African organisational context (Vilakati & Schurink, 2021). In particular, more research is needed to understand the cultural context of organisational leadership (Wilson-Prangley & Olivier, 2016).

Ubuntu is categorised by the well-established five fingers theory, consisting of (i) solidarity, (ii) survival, (iii) dignity, (iv) respect and (v) compassion. It can be argued that respondents were not comfortable rating the leaders in their respective organisations differently, based on this unified Ubuntu approach. One of the biggest challenges for South African organisations continues to be leadership development, therefore, organisations must assist in carving out a futuristic African corporate citizen who lives the Ubuntu principles but in a new and innovative way.

Grobler and Singh (2018) discovered a leadership meta-category known as the African factor, which replaced the category for decisions and problem-solving in their study and which represented the broad principles of Ubuntu with communalistic solid approaches. Their findings postulated that this Ubuntu meta-category replaced the typically behavioural components from the Task meta-category. They strongly suggest that more emphasis is placed on participatory and democratic consensus on topics and issues in the African context.

This finding correlates with the results of (Vilakati & Schurink, 2021) who discovered that incorporating shared African values such as solidarity and ethical behaviour into business strategies can promote economic growth and social advancement throughout South Africa. It also highlights the importance of focusing leadership

programs on human and economic development in South Africa, building teams and balancing corporate performance with sustainability. Developing leaders provides a structure and opportunity for developing mutually beneficial partnerships between business, government, and society (Vilakati & Schurink, 2021).

The discovery of the one-factor organisational leadership model strongly suggests that respondents in the study viewed task and relationship leadership behaviours as one category and that separating the person from the task would create uncomfortableness. This study suggests that African leadership does not differentiate between task and people-related topics, but they are viewed as one. This finding aligns with Ubuntu's collective solidarity philosophy, which strongly contrasts with European and Western leadership philosophies. This study further postulates that applying multi-dimensional questionnaires in all circumstances would be dangerous as they would not correctly measure what they intended.

The one-factor leadership model has significant implications for South African research and organisational practise, as observed in this study. This research indicates that the One-Factor leadership model (OL) does not differentiate between the various nuances of leadership among respondents. All aspects of leadership were viewed as an integrated whole. This contradicts conventional approaches to leadership research, which typically classify leadership into distinct constructs and behaviours. It also suggests that the multidimensional metrics typically employed in leadership research may not be suitable or effective for capturing perceptions of leadership in South African contexts. Therefore, it may be necessary to develop new measurement tools and frameworks that will consider this cultural context thoroughly.

Understanding the significance of a one-factor model is crucial for developing effective leadership development and training programmes for South African organisations. The results indicate that leadership in the South African context is complex. In accordance with the Ubuntu philosophy, this finding suggest that it is mostly about teams and communities. This understanding enables organisations to cultivate leaders whose values and expectations align with those of their teams and the broader stakeholder community. This study suggests the need to re-evaluate organisational leadership practices to ensure that it is culturally relevant and motivating. Lastly, these insights can be invaluable for advancing diversity and inclusion in South Africa.

Recognising and valuing unique leadership perspectives helps organisations create an environment where everyone feels respected and valued regardless of their cultural background. In addition, it can provide multinational corporations operating in South Africa with valuable insights for adapting their leadership strategies to local cultural characteristics.

6.3.2 Linking the IQA to OL19

There is an attention-grabbing link between the original Interactive Qualitative Analysis (IQA) findings and the OL19 scale. During the IQA, the participants discovered eight organisational leadership affinities through a process of theoretical coding. A frequency table was developed, and by applying the Pareto principle, relationships between the eight affinities were established. It was discovered that the primary leadership driver was the emotional awareness of the leader, followed by four secondary drivers, which included leadership styles, culture, communication, and vision. The IQA also established two secondary outcomes, support and team dynamics. The primary outcome was determined as delivering strategy.

A simplistic explanation of the IQA analysis is as follows: Organisational leaders must be aware of their own emotions and those of others before communicating the vision through the appropriate leadership style. If they do this well, the team will support the vision to ensure they deliver on the strategy. Only 19 of the 32 original IQA constructs were retained during the statistical analysis and these are listed in Table 64 below.

Table 64: OL19 Items correlated to IQA constructs

Retained Items		IQA Construct
Question	1	Leader Awareness
Question	2	Leader Awareness
Question	3	Leader Awareness
Question	4	Leader Awareness
Question	6	Leadership Culture
Question	12	Leader Vision
Question	13	Leadership Style and Characteristics
Question	14	Leadership Style and Characteristics
Question	15	Leadership Style and Characteristics

Question	17	Engaging Communication
Question	18	Engaging Communication
Question	19	Engaging Communication
Question	20	Engaging Communication
Question	21	Support
Question	22	Support
Question	25	Team Dynamics
Question	26	Team Dynamics
Question	27	Team Dynamics
Question	28	Team Dynamics

It is noteworthy that all five of the IQA items were retained as listed under leader awareness, the primary driver. This places a premium on the importance of this construct. From the secondary drivers, engaging communication (how the leader communicates) was most dominant with four items kept. This was followed by the leadership style where three secondary drivers were kept, and only one item for leader vision was kept. Team dynamics retained four items as secondary outcomes, with support only retaining two of the secondary outcomes.

The IQA eighth driver, delivering strategy, was not included in the final data set. African leaders have a noticeable communalistic stand compared to Europe with a robust planning and innovation approach to leadership. This can be compared to North America which has a heavy focus on an entrepreneurship and action-approach (Grobler & Singh, 2018). This finding confirms that respondents did not strongly perceive results (delivering on strategy) as an essential driver for organisational leadership. A correlation can be drawn between the one-factor (all-encompassing) leadership model and the focus being steered away from results to team dynamics and support (secondary drivers).

6.3.3 Histogram findings of OL scale descriptive statistical findings

The histogram, as displayed in Figure 47, produced a unidimensional measure. Most notably, there was a variation in the distribution along the total spectrum of 1 to 5, and most respondents rated their leaders very high (above 4). This can indicate that most respondents experienced leadership in organisations as moderately effective, or it can

suggest that many respondents were only comfortable providing a communalistic rating of the leadership (based on the philosophy of Ubuntu).

A clear tail is visible on the histogram, but the histogram is still within the norms of the standard error of kurtosis with a slight variance between the score of 1 and 2. A small group of individuals experienced leadership very positively with ratings of 5 across all 19 items, but more respondents rated their leaders on a score of 3 instead of 5. This indicates that various respondents were not as comfortable providing high scores of organisational leadership. A portion of respondents rated their leadership at 1, suggesting that a part of the population was not satisfied with their leaders.

The distribution along the total spectrum thus indicates various views about organisational leadership in the South African context.

6.3.4 Descriptive statistical findings

Various statistical tests were performed to determine whether organisational leadership differed across demographics. The t-tests performed for public and private organisations indicated that organisational leadership was rated higher in private compared to public organisations and indicated different leadership practises between them. The difference in effect size according to Cohen's d value between public and private was 0,328, and this can be considered moderate with a small to medium effect size. This finding creates an opportunity for future research to explore the differences in leadership between these sectors.

The descriptive statistics for rating the leader on the OL scale indicated a mean score of 3,57 (average) and a median (middle point) of 3,74. Considering the findings of the histogram, it is essential to note that the mean is lower than 4, indicating that not all the participants agreed with the quality of leadership practices in their organisations. The t-tests for gender provided a mean result for males of 3,57 and 3,56 for females. The result clearly indicated no difference in the leadership behaviours demonstrated by different genders in the workplace.

Regarding business role, results of the independent sample effect indicated a point estimate of 0,091 difference between leader being in the core function of a business

or the support function in companies, but no meaningful deduction could be made from this result. The t-tests for people employed as managers and non-management indicated that two-thirds of the responders were in non-management positions. The independent sample effect results showed that non-management responders provided a score of 3,54 and the management group had a mean score of 3,62. It is noteworthy to observe that the non-management group were modestly more critical of their leadership than the management group's results.

One-way ANOVA tests were also conducted to test differences in the leadership behaviours perceived by employees, based on their years of service in the organisation. Results revealed that people with fewer years' service rated the leadership higher than those who have been employed in an organisation for five years or longer. This finding could indicate that the longer an employee remains in the organisation's service, the more critical they get of the leaders, or that less experienced employees are not as critical of their leaders.

The OL19 scale validation was done by correlating the internal consistency of the OL scale with several well-established and validated leadership scales. The results showed that all leadership scales are related and indicate a positive association with each other. Yet the degree of association still proved the uniqueness of each scale, including the OL scale. As mentioned in the previous chapter, there was a negative association between OL19 and the Transactional Leadership scale. This noteworthy observation indicated the perceived negative association that the OL19 scale has with task execution and delivering on strategy.

6.4 Clarity of relationship between research objectives and findings

The study's primary resolve was to produce a current, emic leadership paradigm to assist organisations in understanding current organisational leadership in the South African context and to present suggestions that are more suited to the needs and challenges of South African organisations in the twenty-first century. This study has suggested a new leadership perspective that involves managers and non-managers on all levels in South African organisations.

This research study conceptualised emic organisational leadership, and then develop a valid measure within the current South African context. It also addressed the need for a contemporary South African organisational leadership scale by identifying the appropriate leadership behaviours through the application of the Interactive Qualitative Analysis method. This study has presented a unique contribution through the IQA approach. The quantitative phase outcome produced a valid and reliable organisational leadership scale relevant to the behaviours in a South African context. The results of the mixed-method study provided evidence for the primary research question. This study discovered many measures and methods to improve organisational leadership, including seminal taxonomies that successfully categorised organisational leadership behaviours. Yet, this mixed-method study found eight essential elements of organisational leadership through the IQA process: leader awareness, vision, communication, leadership style, culture, team dynamics, support and delivering on strategy. Most importantly, from a qualitative perspective, was the discovery of how important the awareness of self and others is to be a successful leader in the South African organisational context.

The results from the quantitative data analysis provided valuable insight into the fact that South African corporate citizens struggle to differentiative meaningfully between what is generally assumed as clearly identifiable leadership factors (as presented in other leadership theories). This study revealed a unique emic understanding of leadership in a South African organisational context. It showed that the person and task are viewed as one and that successful organisational leaders use emotions effectively to work with people as part of the African Ubuntu philosophy. Part of the unique contribution of this study (and part of the secondary research objectives) was to discover that emic leaders should view leadership as singular (with subtle nuances) and practise a holistic approach when managing the person and the task. This finding suggests that South African organisations should carefully consider the implications of using etic leadership instruments to determine effective leadership because corporate South African citizen are cautious in rating specific aspects of their leaders.

In summary, the analysis indicated that levels of organisational leadership were rated lower in the public sector compared to the private, that gender did not meaningfully

influence the effectiveness of an emic organisational leader, that subordinates rated their leaders at lower scores than what managers did and that subordinates who were new to organisations rated leaders higher that those subordinates who had been in organisations for an extended period of time.

6.5 Relationship between literature review, structured review and findings

Today's manager cannot depend solely on legitimate power to move organisations forward. The research literature in chapter two highlighted many approaches to organisational leadership and that contrasting one approach to the next would not necessarily develop more clarity on the topic. The structured literature review further indicated that organisational leadership studies in Africa are scant; few studies have attempted to conceptualise emic organisational leadership; and few have developed a new valid measure of organisational leadership. Thus, the comprehensive understanding of emic organisational leadership is complex and evolving.

The structured literature review discovered many similarities vis-a-vis what constitutes effective leadership and management practices, and many commonly published management practices were listed as effective leadership techniques in the analysis of the leadership articles. This study suggests that organisational leadership covers many responsibilities that managers actually do, including managing operations, solving problems, handling conflicts, managing expenses and general administration. Yet, many authors still separate these two domains in an organisational context (Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2020).

This study established that emic organisational leadership behaviours do differ from etic executive leadership behaviours and that many factors contribute to the success of an organisational leader, nevertheless, it revealed eight possible emic leadership practices through the IQA process. Organisational leaders in South Africa should consider using the eight leadership affinities as a guide to improve their leadership. Grobler and Singh (2018) successfully discovered a new emic leadership meta-category known as the African factor, which signified the principles of Ubuntu with

communalistic approaches. This study confirms and builds on their theory that South Africa has a communalistic emic leadership philosophy.

Finally, it is noteworthy to mention that the one-factor OL19 scale has similar characteristics to various seminal leadership theories. Firstly, the one-factor model can be associated with Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid which consists of two behavioural dimensions: concern for people and concern for production. The OL19 scale postulates that the Team Manager position on the Managerial Grid (the leader focuses on both the task and people) is the optimum leadership position. Secondly, the OL19 scale correlated with sections of the Yukl (2012) Taxonomy of Leadership Behaviours with clarifying, supporting, developing, recognising, and empowering constructs. Thirdly, the OL19 scale resonates well with the Transformational leadership theory, especially in individualised consideration, inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation.

6.6 Conclusion

Aligned with the purpose of this research thesis, this study undertook a comprehensive examination of the relevant research to identify factors central to emic organisational leadership. It was motivated by a desire to delve deeper into the nuances of emic organisational leadership practises in South Africa while also attempting to conceptualise and develop a reliable leadership measurement.

The research results highlighted the significant impact that leaders have on organisational performance. Given that leadership practises are represented by a wide range of activities and behaviours, each intertwined with the others, and all aimed at engaging and guiding individuals within the organisation, the intricate web of leadership processes stands out for its complexity.

The discovery of a one-factor organisational leadership model unknowingly revealed an intriguing aspect of organisational leadership in South Africa. This discovery illuminated the intricate and multifaceted nature of leadership measurement, which is typically more complex than was previously thought. In addition, the importance of

every manager in an organisation embracing and demonstrating effective leadership behaviours was reaffirmed.

It is important to pay close attention to how the eight Interactive Qualitative Analysis (IQA) constructs interact with one another and how this affect performance. When considering the identified emic primary leadership driver, leader awareness, the emphasis on these constructs becomes even more important. This research study suggests that a positive correlation exists between a leader's self-awareness and the performance of their subordinates in the workplace.

South African leaders must therefore understand the complexities of their position and how their actions and behaviours can influence performance. This highlights the importance of fostering and developing such leader awareness for the improvement of organisational performance, paving the way for a deeper examination of emic organisational leadership in future research.

7. OVERALL CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

The conclusion of the research is presented in Chapter 7 of this thesis, along with recommendations for future research. This concluding chapter compares and contrasts the study's initial objectives and findings. The detailed presentation of the results is grounded in a logical synthesis of the gathered data and the insights gained from the mixed-method approach.

This study's multidimensional approach, combining qualitative and quantitative methodologies, contributes to a deeper and more nuanced comprehension of emic organisational leadership in South Africa. Using a mixed-method approach, a robust and exhaustive analysis of leadership behaviours was conducted, discovering an unusual one-factor model of organisational leadership.

The study's contribution to this field is considerable, and its significance is twofold. It broadens our understanding of South African leadership practises and their consequences in organisational contexts, and it reveals the complexity of leadership constructs. This study also contributes to the body of knowledge by providing new light on the underexplored topic of emic organisational leadership practises in South Africa. This doctoral research can potentially alter our understanding of leadership, specifically the role of leader's emotional management in enhancing workplace outcomes. The chapter concludes with a discussion of potential limitations inherent to this study, recognising that acknowledging these limitations increases the study's credibility and transparency. Informed by the insights and findings of this study, suggestions are made for future research in leadership studies. This doctoral dissertation aims to not only contribute to existing knowledge but also pave the way for future research in this field.

7.2 Research questions and objectives of the study

One of the most critical factors weakening African development is ineffective leadership (Acquaah, et al., 2013). The primary purpose of this thesis was to conceptualise and develop a valid emic organisational leadership framework and scale by conducting an exploratory mixed-method study to assist in understanding and developing organisational leadership. This study firstly identified current emic organisational leadership behaviours through qualitative data collection. This was achieved by using the Interactive Qualitative Analysis methodology. Additionally, a leadership scale has been carefully developed based on qualitative data on organisational leadership in South Africa.

The secondary purpose of this thesis was to determine whether organisational leadership behaviours in South Africa differed from leadership behaviours in other established and emerging markets. This study has contributed to the extant leadership literature and understanding of the leadership phenomena within a South African context. It has also informed current and future leaders about the complexity of identifying and developing effective organisational leadership behaviours and to use the IQA model as guidance for developing the quality of leaders.

7.3 Summary of findings

Results show that much has been done to understand organisational leadership but that more should be done to understand the phenomenon. This study firstly revealed a scarcity of African leadership studies over the last 59 years (1960-2019). It further discovered through the structured literature review that few studies have conceptualised and developed organisational leadership scales, and that etic European or Western instruments are often used to measure African leadership. The results therefore often do not accurately measure what the researchers wanted them to measure, but the review did not provide this study with clear indications of what constitutes effective African organisational leadership.

The qualitative phase of the study revealed eight leadership constructs that the IQA focus group identified as the most important and relevant factors for organisational leadership in current times. These identified leader awareness as the primary driver for organisational leadership. The implication for leaders is that they should be more self-aware about how they feel in each situation and then self-regulate their emotions better. This finding also suggests that organisational leaders should demonstrate more empathy in being aware of how others feel about a given situation.

This study thus postulates a strong correlation between effective organisational leadership and the leader's emotional intelligence levels. Empirical leadership studies support the importance of emotional intelligence in developing leadership effectiveness (du Toit, et al., 2017). Research also suggests that South African managers be sensitive to how they communicate with subordinates within a very diverse workforce (Shrivastava, et al., 2014). This study also revealed that one of the eight factors, delivering strategy, was defined as the primary outcome. This result indicated that the role of organisational leaders is to produce results that align with their organisational strategy.

The quantitative phase of the study discovered a one-factor leadership instrument (OL19) for South African organisations through rigorous statistical analysis. The research suggested that organisational leadership may have nuances (the eight IQA factors), but this study's large sample size struggled to differentiate between the factors. The study also suggested that respondents were more comfortable rating leaders holistically (as a leader) than on the eight IQA constructs. This discovery strongly aligns with previous emic Ubuntu perceptions about leadership. It suggests that etic instruments will often not produce the desired measurement results, as the items in the scale do not effectively measure what was intended. This study also revealed that task-related topics were not regarded (by the sample size) as essential factors for effective organisational leaders. The primary outcome of the IQA, delivering strategy, was not kept in the final OL19 scale because the items did not measure leadership effectively. This finding suggests that corporate South African citizens steer away from task-related topics. If the leader addresses task-related performance, the subordinate would likely see it as a personal attack. This discovery strongly suggests need for a leader who can work well with emotions.

The results from this study also revealed different findings about the descriptive statistics. Some of these include the difference in levels of leadership in public and private organisations and that leadership was rated across the range of the scale. Results further showed that there were differences in how men and women were rated as leaders and that employees with fewer years of service rate their leaders higher compared to employees with a longer service record.

7.4 Logical conclusions

As discussed in previous chapters of the thesis, literature cannot agree on what constitutes effective leadership. This study postulates that a reason for this could be factors relating to culture-specific opinions of leadership, and that the use of etic leadership instruments can lead to inaccurate findings and assumptions. Organisations can be viewed as living organisms that require continuous evaluation, modification, and improvement. To promote this growth effectively, it is necessary to address the emic aspects of leadership, such as internal perspectives and cultural understandings of leadership within an organisation. By prioritising a comprehensive understanding of these leadership elements, the manager can better support and develop their leadership skills and enhance their capacity to align the organisation clearly and effectively with its objectives.

Organisations should therefore focus on developing the following leadership skills in their managers: (i) emotional awareness of self and others; (ii) how to create more engaging communication with subordinates; (iii) how to create a clearly articulated vision; (iv) develop a leadership style that is relevant to the context of the work and the culture of the modern day South African subordinate; (v) having a culture where ethical leadership are demonstrated; (vi) creating the necessary support to assist subordinates with completing the tasks; (vii) using the collective energy to create effective team dynamics and; (viii) learn how to appropriately drive a stake into the ground and achieving consistent results sustainably. Finally, it has been shown through statistical analysis that a one-factor leadership model is appropriate to measure organisational leadership in the South African context.

7.5 Recommendations

Reviewing existing leadership research indicates that the validity and reliability of leadership scales frequently prove problematic due to various contextual factors. This thesis proved that one such factor, emic or culture-specific views, could influence perceptions of effective organisational leadership.

This thesis firstly recommends that more valid emic organisational leadership be developed to understand the nuances of leadership to develop more accurate scales. The structured literate review revealed a scarcity of newly developed leadership scales, and this study postulates that etic scales do not measure all leadership factors effectively.

Additionally, this study suggests using Interactive Qualitative Analysis (IQA) as a systemic, rigorous, and accountable framework for qualitative analysis of future organisational leadership research. IQA has proven to be very effective when the researcher wishes to investigate how a phenomenon is socially constructed. It is also helpful to develop a theory of the research phenomenon, and the participants are entrusted with the analysis and interpretation of their data, as they are experts on the topic.

This study further recommends using emic leadership instruments (such as OL19) for future research on organisational leadership, as it is reliable and relevant to the South African environment. This is because doubts exist about the effectiveness of many etic instruments as measurement tools in the South African context. The OL19 scale is attached to this thesis marked as Annexure F. The OL19 discovered a one-factor model with seven underlying nuances relevant to the South African context. It is recommended that future researchers consider emic measurement tools for measuring leadership, in particular developing leadership tools that are more relevant to the South African organisational environment.

A significant strategic focus for most organisations is training and development. South African organisations can use the results of this study to identify candidates who need to attend further leadership training courses. The results can also be used to identify

candidates suitable for promotion to more senior positions based on their leadership behaviours.

Lastly, South African organisations should develop more focused leadership development programmes. An essential aspect of leadership programs is creating a leadership pipeline, which will ensure better succession planning. Current organisational managers (public and private) should attend leadership development programs with a strong focus on self-awareness and the awareness of others. Such programs will create awareness of gaps since participants will become aware of their leadership behaviours, learn to apply the leadership qualities identified in the IQA and become more contented in accepting new leadership behaviours and beliefs. Leaders must consider their current approach toward delivering strategy and why this leadership outcome is uncomfortable for subordinates in the South African context. These changes are necessary for existing managers to lead more effectively and at higher levels of organisational achievement.

Based on this study's findings and recommendations, several avenues for future research are apparent. This study's focus on the complexities of organisational leadership highlights the need to delve deeper into the nuances of leadership, particularly from an emic and culture-specific perspective. Future research may extend the development and validation of the emic Organisational Leadership (OL19) Scale. Current research indicates that etic measures may not be able to measure all aspects of leadership in diverse cultural contexts. Future research should continue to investigate and validate new emic scales, considering the cultural nuances that impact leader behaviour. It might also be insightful to evaluate how well these emic scales perform compared to those used in various cultural settings. It is recommended that additional research be conducted on using interactive qualitative analysis (IQA) as a methodology in organisational leadership research. This study demonstrated the effectiveness of IQA as a framework for qualitative leadership analysis that is systematic and rigorous.

Future research may investigate the applicability of this technique in various organisational settings and cultures. The use of emic leadership tools developed in this study, such as OL19, is also an intriguing topic for future research. Given its

validity and applicability in South Africa, it may be a useful instrument for future research on organisational leadership. Nonetheless, additional studies in diverse South African industries and cultural contexts could strengthen the credibility of this assertion.

Comparing the OL19 scale to other emic leadership scales may also produce insightful results. The study suggests that South African organisations can use the findings of this research to enhance their leadership training and development programmes. Future research may validate the usefulness of this study, particularly those that emphasise the development of the emotional awareness of leaders. In addition, developing an appropriate leadership pipeline and succession planning represents a supplementary area for future research. The effectiveness of these strategies in various organisational contexts and how they can be adapted to meet the unique requirements of South African organisations may be the subject of future research.

The leadership behaviours identified in this study, particularly in the context of South Africa, indicate the need for more research. The subject of such research could be how leaders can positively impact organisational performance and employee engagement in emic environments. Such research could lead to a greater understanding of the unique leadership dynamics within South African organisations and contribute to developing more culturally sensitive and effective leadership strategies.

7.6 Conclusion

This research thesis has successfully conceptualised and validated an organisational leadership measure tailored to South Africa. This marks a significant contribution to the existing body of leadership knowledge. One of the main strengths of this study lies in its discovery of the eight emic leadership factors and identifying the leader's awareness as the primary driver of South African organisational leadership. Moreover, establishing the one-factor organisational leadership measure, OL19, deepened the understanding of the elements central to emic leadership practices in South Africa.

Despite its considerable thoroughness, the study did face limitations. A primary constraint was the use of a single focus group and future research could enrich the validity of the findings by incorporating more groups in the qualitative part of the study. Further development of emic scales is also needed, as they would enable a more nuanced understanding of leadership phenomena within South African organisations. Additionally, the impact of specific leadership development programmes on the identified eight emic leadership factors could be examined.

The outcomes from this research highlight the importance of further leadership development among managers for the successful delivery of organisational strategy. This, in turn, points towards the relevance and need for continuous investment in leadership development programmes in South Africa.

Finally, the value and significance of this research lie in its contribution to understanding the unique context and nuances of organisational leadership in South Africa and the development of a validated tool, the OL19 scale, which can be utilised for further research and practice. This study has illuminated possible avenues for future leadership exploration, indicating the necessity for broader participant engagement and diverse context exploration to enrich the emic understanding of leadership in the South African context.

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ANNEXURE C – IQA CONSENT FORM

Information sheet and consent to participate in research – IQA Focus Group Organisational Leadership Behaviours.

Introduction

Our names are Prof Anton Grobler (Professor in Leadership and Organisational Behaviour (UNISA Graduate School of Business Leadership, SBL) and Mr Eben Enslin (UNISA DBL Student), and we invite you to participate in a research study into Organisational Leadership Behaviours in the workplace.

Please read the following information with a view to deciding whether you are interested in participating in the research. You will only be included in the study if you are willing to take part voluntarily.

Research study purpose

The aim of the study is to conceptualise leadership behaviours within an organisational context. You are invited to take part in the first phase of the study which is a structured focus group discussion following Interactive Qualitative Analysis (IQA) methodology. The outcome of the focus group discussion is called a System Influence Diagram which will inform the development of the Organisational Leadership measure.

Importance of the research

This research will assist both the academic and business communities in better understanding leadership behaviours within organisational contexts and how best to leverage it in improving leadership. Accordingly, your participation in this research will be most appreciated.

Sample selection, anonymity, data access and storage

You have been purposively selected to take part in the focus group discussion due to your role as organisational leader and manager. As such you are closest to the phenomenon of leadership behaviours within the workplace i.e. you have something

to say about leadership and can do something about it. Being in this study is voluntary and you are under no obligation to consent to participation. If you do decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to keep for future reference.

Due to the nature of a focus group discussion, confidentiality is excluded. However, the generation of data is an accessible and transparent process as the participants analyse and interpret the data, with the researcher fulfilling the role of facilitator. The outcome of IQA is called a System Influence Diagram (SID) which is a group composite of the themes identified by the group and the relationships between them. The SID will inform the development of the Organisational Leadership Behaviour measure. The analysis of the data during IQA does not use personal identifiers.

Only Professor Anton Grobler and Mr Enslin will have access to the hard copy data, which will be destroyed once quality checks have been done. Any data that is captured on computer, will have no personal identifiers and will be stored on a password protected computer. The electronic data may be retained for a period of five years. In addition, any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by legislation (The Mental Health Care Act, Act 17 of 2002).

Procedures

Your role in this phase of the study involves actively taking part in a 3 hour structured virtual focus group discussion. As this is a facilitated group process, your verbal input during the process will not be confidential to other participants. However, you will not be required to record your input together with your personal details. You are free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason. There is no penalty or loss of benefit for non-participation. However for IQA to be conducted effectively, your full participation throughout the process will be appreciated.

Approval to conduct this research

This study has received written approval from the Research Ethics Review Committee of the Graduate School of Business Leadership, Unisa; Approval no 2020_SBL_AC_014_FA.

Publication

The data collected i.e. SID, will be used to develop an Organisational Behaviour Leadership measure and will inform the second phase of this study. Ultimately the data will contribute to a research report, which includes but may not be limited to journal articles, conference presentations, and thesis. You may request a copy / abstract of these publications from Prof Grobler. Your privacy, and that of the organisation you represent, will however be protected as no identifiable information will be included in such reports.

Possible risks and discomforts

There are no foreseeable physical or psychological risks involved in participation. You will be inconvenienced by the time it takes to participate in the focus group discussion (3 hours, which will include breaks). If you would like to discuss the IQA, you are welcome to do so after the session.

Remuneration for and benefits of participation

You will receive no payment or reward, financial or otherwise. The results of the research will, however, be of scientific and practical value in understanding how leadership within an organisational context manifests itself, and you may request a copy of the abstract.

Your rights as a research participant

By participating in this research you are not giving up any of your legal rights.

Consent to participate

Kindly note that you will not be required to sign this declaration, but that you will be indicating your consent by participating in the focus group (on-line, or where possible, face-to-face if the restrictions permit it).

Further information and feedback

Should you require any further information or want to contact the researcher about any aspect of this study, please contact Eben Enslin at ebenenslin@gmail.com or Prof Anton Grobler at grobla@unisa.ac.za

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet and for considering participation in this study.

ANNEXURE D – IQA ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

University of South Africa, PO Box 392, Unisa, 0003, South Africa
Cnr Janadel 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)

23 November 2020

Ref #: 2020_SBL_AC_014_FA
Name of applicant: Prof A Grobler
Staff#: 90166124

Dear Prof A Grobler

Decision: Ethics Approval

Main Researcher: Prof A Grobler, grobla@unisa.ac.za, 011 652 0277

Co-Research: Mr E Enslin, ebenenslin@gmail.com, 061 400 0470

Project Title: The development of a South African organisational leadership behaviour scale

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:
Ethics approval is granted for the duration of November 2020 – October 2023

The application was reviewed in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics by the SBL Research Ethics Review Committee on the 20/11/2020.

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.

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GRADUATE SCHOOL OF
BUSINESS LEADERSHIP
UNISA

Graduate School of Business Leadership, University of South Africa, PO Box 392, Unisa, 0003, South Africa
Cnr Janadel 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

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

Prof P Msweli
Executive Dean (Acting): Graduate School of Business Leadership
011- 652 0256/mbathcn@unisa.ac.za

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BUSINESS LEADERSHIP
UNISA

ANNEXURE E – SECONDARY DATA ETHICAL CLEARANCE

Graduate School of Business Leadership, University of South Africa, PO Box 392, Unisa, 0003, South Africa
Cnr Janadel 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)

20 May 2022

Ref #: 2022_SBL_DBL_007_SD

Name of applicant: Mr E Enslin

Student #: 64073130

Dear Mr Enslin

Decision: Ethics Approval

Student: Mr E Enslin (64073130@mylife.unisa.ac.za , 061 400 0472)

Supervisor: Prof A Grobler, (grobla@unisa.ac.za , 011 652 0277)

Project Title: *The conceptualisation and development of a South African organisational leadership behaviour scale.*

Qualification: Doctor of Business Leadership (DBL)

Expiry Date: April 2024

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 19/05/2022.

The proposed research may now commence with the proviso that:

1) The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to the relevant guidelines set out in the Unisa Covid-19 position statement on research ethics attached

2) The researcher/s will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.

3) 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.

4) 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.

5) 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.

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BUSINESS LEADERSHIP
UNISA

Kind regards,

NBWMLitwa

Prof N Mlitwa

Chairperson: SBL Research Ethics Committee

011 - 652 0000/ wiltonb@unisa.ac.za

Prof
Pumela
Msweli

Digitally signed by
Prof Pumela Msweli
Date: 2022.05.23
14:55:14 +02'00'

Prof P Msweli

Executive Dean: Graduate School of Business Leadership

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ANNEXURE F – LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE (OL19)

Organisational Leadership Questionnaire

Copyright: Enslin, E. & Grobler, A. (2022)

INSTRUCTIONS: This questionnaire provides a description of leadership behaviours demonstrated by your manager. Thirty-two descriptive statements are listed below. Judge how frequently each statement fits your manager or leader.

KEY

1 - Strongly Disagree

2 - Disagree

3 - Neither agree nor disagree

4 - Agree

5 - Strongly agree

In my organisation, leaders:

1. manage their own emotions effectively..1 2 3 4 5

2. share their feelings appropriately……………....................................1 2 3 4 5

3. value and care for people……………………………….……………1 2 3 4 5

4. consider different viewpoints with compassion and understanding……1 2 3 4 5

5. demonstrate high ethical standards…………….………....….……1 2 3 4 5

6. develop workable plans to achieve organisational objectives............. 1 2 3 4 5

7. take responsibility, even when under pressure…................................1 2 3 4 5

8. are inspirational because of their actions...1 2 3 4 5

9. are humble and act with integrity...1 2 3 4 5

10. communicate openly and transparently…….…................................1 2 3 4 5

11. regularly provide clear expectations of what I need to do……..........1 2 3 4 5

12. coach and mentor me to achieve success……….…...........................1 2 3 4 5

13. challenge me through engaging conversations……….…...................1 2 3 4 5

14. create a safe emotional space to work in……….…...........................1 2 3 4 5

15. understand my individual development needs………………...............1 2 3 4 5

16. embrace diversity………………………………………...................1 2 3 4 5

17. use collective energy of team members to achieve goals……..........1 2 3 4 5

18. create a sense of belonging and unity amongst team members.........1 2 3 4 5

19. inspire us by developing healthy relationships…………………...........1 2 3 4 5

SCORING

The questionnaire measures your manager's leadership behaviours on eight factors related to organisational leadership. The score for each factor is determined by summing four specified items on the questionnaire. For example, to determine your score for factor 1, Leadership Awareness, sum your responses for items 1, 2, 3 and 2. Complete this procedure for all eight factors.

TOTAL

Leader Awareness (items 1, 2, 3, 4)   _____ Factor 1

Leadership Culture (item 5)   _____ Factor 2

Leader Vision (item 6)   _____ Factor 3

Leadership Style and Characteristics (items 7, 8, 9)   _____ Factor 4

Engaging Communication (items 10, 11, 12, 13)   _____ Factor 5

Support (items 14, 15)   _____ Factor 6

Team Dynamics (items 16, 17, 18, 19)   _____ Factor 7

TOTAL SCORE   _____

Total score range: HIGH = 76-95, MODERATE = 57-76, LOW = 0- 57

ANNEXURE G – PROOFREADING CERTIFICATE

N R Barnes

Editorial Consultant
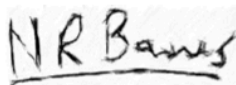
143 Road 8, Walkerville, Gauteng.

barnesn608@gmail.com

0660676718/0114352609

To whom it may concern:

This is to certify that I have language edited the Doctoral Thesis by **EBENHAEZER ENSLIN: THE CONCEPTUALISATION, DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION OF A SOUTH AFRICAN ORGANISATIONAL LEADERSHIP SCALE**. This Thesis is submitted in accordance with the requirements for the **DOCTOR IN BUSINESS LEADERSHIP** in the subject **ORGANISATIONAL LEADERSHIP** at the **UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA**. The language of the Thesis is suitable for submission, provided the changes are maintained which I have made in the document.

Dr N R Barnes

Member Professional Editors Guild, South Africa

PhD Psychology (Unisa, 1990)

ANNEXURE H – TURNITIN CERTIFICATE

turnitin

Digital Receipt

This receipt acknowledges that Turnitin received your paper. Below you will find the receipt information regarding your submission.

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File size:	19.42M
Page count:	280
Word count:	74,632
Character count:	422,112
Submission date:	07-Jan-2023 09:56PM (UTC+0200)
Submission ID:	1989567885

THE CONCEPTUALISATION, DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION OF A SOUTH AFRICAN ORGANISATIONAL LEADERSHIP SCALE

by

EBENHAEZER ENSLIN

submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR IN BUSINESS LEADERSHIP

in the subject

Organisational Leadership

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

SUPERVISOR: PROFESSOR ANTON GROBLER

2023

ANNEXURE I – STRUCTURED LITERATURE REVIEW ARTICLES

1	A confirmatory factor analytical study of a servant leadership measure in South Africa	Bright Mahembe Amos S. Engelbrecht
2	A logo leadership intervention Implications for leadership development	Frances Scholtz Freddie Crous Adèle Thomas
3	A postcolonial and anti-colonial reading of African leadership and management in organization studies tensions contradictions and possibilities	Stella M. Nkomo
4	A social exchange perspective on why and when ethical leadership foster customer-oriented citizenship behavior	Omale A. Garbaa Mayowa T. Babalolab Liang Guoc
5	A study on the leadership behaviour, safety leadership and safety performance in the construction industry in South Africa	Natalie C. Skeepersa Charles Mbohwab
6	A transformational leadership model for managing change and transformation linked to diversification investments	B. Okanga A. Drotskie
7	Gender culture and leadership. Toward a Culturally Distinct Model of African American Women Executives Leadership Strategies	Patricia S. Parker dt ogilvie
8	Action research on leadership for community development in west Africa and north America a joining of liberation theology and community psychology	John Trout Paul R. Dokecki J. R. Newbrough Robert T. O'Gorman
9	Advancing Africa through management knowledge and practice the way forward	Moses Acquaah David B. Zoogah Eileen N. Kwesiga
10	African Leadership Surfacing New Understandings through Leadership Development	Richard Bolden Philip Kirk
11	An exploration into the problematic of public policies and the leadership challenge for socioeconomic transformation in South Africa	Ken Kalala Ndalamba
12	An investigation into the effect of leadership style on stress-related presenteeism in South African knowledge workers	Reuben George Manoj Chiba Caren B. Scheepers
13	Analysing leadership traits in establishing effective leadership at Eskom	J Lekganyane T Oosthuizen
14	Analysis of gender and leadership role competencies perceptions and stereotypes in an organisational context	O.M. Samuel I. Mokoaleli
15	Analysis of the paralysis of government leadership in sub-Saharan Africa	Robert Dibie Josephine Dibie
16	Authoritarian leadership and employee creativity The moderating role of psychological capital and the mediating role of fear and defensive silence	Liang Guoa Stijn Decosterb Mayowa T. Babalolac Leander De Schutterd Omale A. Garbae Katrin Riislaf

17	Beneficiary contact moderates relationship between authentic leadership and engagement	Caren B. Scheepers Sarah L. Elstob
18	Business Leadership Continuing Professional Development of Education Management Teams in a South African School Group	Dieter Thom
19	Civil Society Leadership and Industrial Risks: Environmental Justice in Durban, South Africa	Llewellyn Leonard
20	Claim Your Space: Leadership Development as a Research Capacity Building Goal in Global Health	Collins O. Airhihenbuwa Gbenga Ogedegbe Juliet Iwelunmor Girardin Jean-Louis
21	Community Leadership and the Construction of Political Legitimacy Unpacking Bourdieu's 'Political Capital' in Post-Apartheid Johannesburg	CLAIRE BÉNIT-GBAFFOU OBVIOUS KATSAURA
22	Complexity and leadership crisis in Africa	Anthony Olalere
23	Consensus building dialogue and spirituality principles of the learning organization paradigm implications for kenya's public service reform agenda	Fredrick Muyia Nafukho
24	Constructing Self as Leader: Case Studies of Women Who Are Change Agents in South Africa	Dolana mogadimepj (Kobus) Mentz Denise E. Armstrong Beryl Holtam
25	Context Tension Cultural Influences on Leadership and Management Practice	Nadine Mendelek Theimann Kurt April Eddie Blass
26	Contextual leadership development a South African perspective	Colleen Magner
27	Corporate Leadership for Economic Social and Political Change Principles and Practices Learned from South African Business Leaders	Susan A. Lynham Larry M . Dooley Vassi Naidoo Roberd G. Taylor
28	Culture and leadership in Africa a conceptual model and research agenda	John Kuada
29	Education for Transformative Leadership in Southern Africa	Julia Preece
30	Effect of ethical leadership and climate on effectiveness	Amos S. Engelbrecht Janneke Wolmarans Bright Mahembe
31	Effective leadership and sustainable development in Africa is there really a link	Kwasi Dartey-Baah
32	Emotional intelligence and leadership in a South African financial services institution	Alison du Toit1 Rian Viviers Claude-Helene Mayer Delene Visser
33	Employee performance leadership style and emotional intelligence an exploratory study in a South African parastatal	BA Hayward TL Amos J Baxter
34	Ethical Leadership in Post-colonial Zimbabwe Insights Challenges and Remedies	F Mangena
35	Ethnicity and leadership succession in Africa	John Londregan Henry Bienen Nicolas van de Walle

36	Evolving leadership required in South African schools	R. J. (Nico) Botha
37	Excavating the South African teacher leadership archive Surfacing the absences and re-imagining the future	Carolyn (Callie) Grant
38	Exploring a conceptual model based on the combined effects of entrepreneurial leadership market orientation and relationship marketing orientation on South Africa small tourism business performance	H.J.C. van Zyl B. Mathur-Helm
39	Exploring excellence in leadership perceptions amongst South African managers	Samir Shrivastava Christopher Selvarajah Denny Meyer Nirmala Dorasamy
40	Exploring Soft Attributes of Leadership within the Market and Social Research Industries in Gauteng Province using Statistical Analysis	Kingstone Mutsonziwa
41	Exploring the limits of Western leadership theory in East Asia and Africa	Peter Blunt Merrick L. Jones
42	Exploring the strategic leadership of small and medium size entrepreneurs in Malawi	M KANYANGALE
43	Fast tracking authentic leadership development by means of a programme	Tineke Wulffers Mark Bussin Magda Hewitt
44	Gender and race differences in leader behaviour preferences in South Africa	Romie F. Littrell Stella M. Nkomo
45	Guest editorial: leadership and organizational development in Africa	Mohammed-Aminu Sanda
46	Ibn Khaldun of North Africa an AD 1377 theory of leadership	Yusuf M. Sidani
47	Indigenous Management Practices in Africa	Henry O. Onukwuba
48	Innovation and organizational development the role of organizational leadership	Thomas Anning-Dorson Raphael Kofi Odoom George Acheampong
49	Integrative Public Leadership in the private sector in South Africa	Anthony Wilson-Prangley Johan Olivier
50	International Conference on Leadership, Technology and Innovation Management	Awie Vlok
51	Investigating employee perceptions of leadership communication a South African study	DAJ Bornman
52	Investigating positive leadership psychological empowerment work engagement and satisfaction with life in a chemical industry	Tersia Nel Marius W. Stander Juraida Latif
53	Investigating the expectations of business management students as future leaders regarding the influence of leadership on organisational strategy A survey at a South African tertiary institution	Dawid A.J. Bornman
54	Joint working for health and social outcomes: the partnership leadership mantra	Walid Ansari
55	Key Dimensions of Effective Leadership for Change A Focus on Township and Rural Schools in South Africa	Thandi Ngcobo Leon Paul Tikly
56	LEAD Leadership effectiveness motivation and culture in Africa Lessons from Egypt Ghana Kenya Nigeria and Uganda	Thomas Anyanje Senaji Elham Metwally Samuel Sejjaaka Bill Buenar Puplampu

			James Michaud Hassan Adedoyin-Rasaq
57		Leadership and management research in Africa: A synthesis and suggestions for future research	Fred O. Walumbwa Bruce J. Avolio Samuel Aryee
58		Leadership and motivation in Africa and the African Diaspora LEAD Summary and Epilogue	David L. Ford Jr. Carliss D. Miller
59		Leadership challenges for organisations in the New South Africa	Mario Denton Daniel Vloeberghs
60		Leadership empowering behaviour psychological empowerment organisational citizenship behaviours and turnover intention in a manufacturing division	Janie Bester Marius W. Stander Llewellyn E. Van Zyl
61		Leadership for Africa's Development: Revisiting Indigenous African Leadership and Setting the Agenda for Political Leadership	Vusi Gumede
62		Leadership for the 80's	Grant Schutte
63		Leadership in Africa rethinking development	Vanessa Iwowo
64		Leadership in context A review and research agenda for sub-Saharan Africa	Michael K. Muchiri
65		Leadership in Southern Africa A Regional Afrocentric Hierarchical Taxonomy	A. Grobler Mala Singh
66		Leadership in Uganda Barbados Canada and the USA exploratory perspectives	Terri R. Lituchy David Ford Betty Jane Punnett
67		Leadership lessons from the African tree	Linda van der Colff
68		Leadership style and leadership effectiveness Does cultural intelligence moderate the relationship	Anthony Solomon Renier Steyn
69		Leadership styles and relational energy Do all leaderships styles generate and transmit equal relational energy	Okechukwu E. Amah
70		Leadership styles The role of cultural intelligence	Anthony Solomon Renier Steyn
71		Leading organizational change in the new South Africa	Stella M. Nkomo Drikus Kriek
72		Leading through communication, conversation and dialogue	Kurt A. April
73		Leveraging informal leadership in higher education institutions: A case of diffusion of emerging technologies in a southern context	Dick Ng'ambi Vivienne Bozalek
74		Management and leadership buccaneering or science	Hester Nienaber Gerrie Roodt
75		Managerial Leadership and Culture in Sub Saharan Africa	Isaac Wanasika Jon P. Howell Romie Littrell Peter Dorfman
76		Metaphysical challenges of ethical leadership in Africa	Osam Edim Temple
77		Mirror, mirror: preferred leadership characteristics of South African managers	Gregory John Lee
78		Moderating Role of Follower Characteristics With Transformational Leadership and Follower Work Engagement	Weichun Zhu Bruce J. Avolio Fred O. Walumbwa
79		Motivation sources and leadership styles among middle managers at a South African university	Crispen Chipunza Lerato L. Matsumunyane

80	Nature of the relationship between strategic leadership operational strategy and organisational performance	Kobus Serfontein Johan Hough
81	Nelson Mandela and Unitive Leadership	Shawn O'Fallon
82	Organic Leadership Associated with Good Academic Performance An Ethnographic Study of Two South African Township Secondary Schools	Thandi M. Ngcobo
83	Patterns of leadership and perceived distribution of influence	E.A.Coster
84	Perceptions about Authentic Leadership Development: South African Occupational Therapy Students' Camp Experience	Fatima Hendricks Susan Toth-Cohen
85	Perceptions of organizational culture, leadership effectiveness and personal effectiveness across six countries	Catherine T. Kwantes Cheryl A. Boglarsky
86	Perceptions regarding the impact of Ubuntu and servant leadership on employee engagement in the workplace	RJ Muller EE Smith R Lillah
87	Preparing School Leaders in Post-Apartheid South Africa A Survey of Leadership Preferences of Principals in Western Cape	Lynden Dale Krause Richard Powell
88	Professional Development of School Leaders: Cross-cultural Comparisons from Canada and East Africa	Shelleyann Scott Jane F.A. Rarieya
89	Recognition and development of hope for South African organizational leaders	Fred Luthans René Van Wyk Fred O. Walumbwa
90	Relating Leadership Processes Societal Culture and Knowledge Management A Theoretical Model	Michael Muchiri Kellen Kiambati
91	Relationship between leadership styles and project success in the South Africa construction industry	Muredeni Liphadzi Clinton Aigbavboa Wellington Thwala
92	Review essay leadership in African development	Philip C. Aka
93	Revising the Leadership Paradigm in Sub-Saharan Africa A Study of Community Based Leadership	Peter Fuseini Haruna
94	Risk rule and reason leadership in Africa	Arthur A. Goldsmith
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