THE ROLE OF LEADERSHIP IN CHANGE MANAGEMENT IN SOUTH AFRICAN STATE-OWNED ENTERPRISES

by

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This thesis is submitted for the degree as mentioned above at the University of South Africa. I declare that this study is my unassisted work and, all sources that are used in the text or diagrams have been acknowledged and referenced accurately. I further declare; this research has not been submitted before for any degree or examination to any other educational institution.

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DEDICATION

I have joyful memories of my late sister; Mrs Portia Kholeka Seloane, who could not see me going through this process. She once made me read a book about people who were "born on the 6th of August - are said to be natural scholars". My late father, Mr Ernest Bomvana Mjamba, said when he first saw me after I was born, he decided to call me "Nonzwakazi" meaning 'beautiful woman'. The two of you gave me insight into my life that I will never forget.

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ABSTRACT

Since the economic breakdown in 2008, the world's business environment has been turbulent. This disintegration occurred in the sectors of agriculture, manufacturing, mining and state-owned enterprises (SOEs). This resulted in a radical change in most private and public organisations. SOEs were significantly affected by these environmental business upheavals due to being state-owned. However, rigidity and bureaucracy in the SOE business environment, make the change process to be difficult to operate.

The study intended to determine the role of leadership in change management in South African SOEs. Furthermore, leaders are the catalyst for change in organisations, and employees depend on them. Consequently, without the presence of a leader, effective organisational change management is impossible. Additionally, the leadership literature revealed that a leader's effectiveness is evident in organisations when they relate well to employees; however, capabilities, competencies, and leadership principles must be considered.

The study followed a mixed method approach using quantitative (questionnaire) and qualitative (interview) methods to determine the role of leadership in change management in the four SOEs: Transnet, Armscor, DBSA, and Safcol. The quantitative phase had 120 participants at the operational level, and participants were not leading change but were participating at a functional level of change. The qualitative phase comprised of eight interviewed participants representing these four SOEs because they worked as management leaders of change. Data analysis was subsequently done using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) for the quantitative phase, namely: frequency distribution, exploration factor analysis, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and Kaiser Meyer Olkin rotated component matrix, reliability of constructs, analysis of variance (ANOVA), validity, correlation, regression, multiple regression, and structural modelling equation for the study. Content analysis was used for the qualitative phase, and which contained questions on communication for change, engagement to change, key messages simplified and visualised, making change stay uppermost, skills transfer, structures to collaborate first when change starts, leadership role during change, skills processed by the leader, expectations from the specific organisation, timeframe, and planning cycle. The study results showed that the characteristics of the leaders are significant for managing change in South African state-owned enterprises. Furthermore, the results showed that change implementation and success

were positively related to the change process. Therefore, the leadership and organisational change management model for SOEs as proposed in the study will ensure that change management is successfully implemented. Using this model, SOEs would become feasible, experienced, and successful in organisational change management.

KAKARETŠO

Go tloga mola go bago le phuhlamo ya ikonomi ka 2008, tikologo ya kgwebo ya lefase e be e na le mathata. Phuhlamo ye e diregile ka makaleng a temo, tšweletšo, meepo le dikgwebo tša mmušo (diSOE). Se se feleleditše ka phetogo ye kgolo go bontši bja mekgatlo ya poraebete le ya mmušo. DiSOE di amilwe kudu ke mathata a a kgwebo ya tikologo ka lebaka la go ba makala a mmušo. Le ge go le bjalo, go se fetoge le pušo le tšona di tshwentše tikologo ya SOE, gomme phetogo e bile boima go šogana le yona.

Ka lebaka la ditšhitišo tše, maikemišetšo a nyakišišo ye e be e le go laetša mošomo wa baetapele taolong ya phetogo ka kgwebong ya mmušo ya Afrika Borwa. Go feta fao, baetapele ke bahlohleletši ba phetogo ka mekgatlong, gomme bašomi ba ithekgile ka bona. Ka fao, ntle le go ba gona ga moetapele, taolo ya phetogo ye e šomago gabotse ga e kgonege. Go tlaleletša, dingwalo tša boetapele di utolotše gore go šoma gabotse ga moetapele go bonagala ka mekgatlong ge e amana gabotse le bašomi; le ge go le bjalo, mabokgoni le melawana ya boetapele di swanetše go elwa hloko.

Nyakišišo e latetše tsela ya mokgwa wo o hlakantšwego ka go šomiša mekgwa ya khwanthithethifi (lenaneopotšišo) le khwalithethifi (poledišano) go laetša mošomo wa boetapele taolong ya phetogo ka gare ga diSOE tše nne: Transnet, Amsco, DBSA le Safcol. Kgato ya khwanthithethifi e bile le bakgathatema ba 120 maemong a tshepedišo (go e ra gore bakgathatema ba be ba sa ete pele phetogo eupša ba be ba kgathatema maemong a mošomo a phetogo) bao ba arabilego lenaneopotšišo. Kgato ya khwalithethifi e bes e na le bakgathatema ba seswai ba go emela diSOE tše tše nne ka gobane ba šomile bjalo ka baetapele (baetapele ba taolo) ba phetogo. Ka morago tlhahlobo ya datha e dirilwe ka go šomiša SPSS bakeng sa kgato ya khwanthithethifi (kabo ya boati, tshekatsheko ya mabaka a nyakišišo, teko ya Bartlett ya Sphericity le Kaiser Meyer Olkin (KMO), motheo wa karolo ye e fetotšwego, tshepagalo ya dipopego, dipalopalo tše di hlalošago, nepagalo, kgokagano, kelo ya kamano, go kelo ya kamano ya bontši le tekano ya go mmotlolo wa sebopego ya nyakišišo gomme ATLAS.ti e šomišeditšwe kgato ya khwakithethifi (kgokagano ya phetogo, go lemoga phetogo, melaetša ya bohlokwa ye e nolofaditšwego le go bonwa ka leihlokgopolo, go dira gore phetogo e dule e le ka godimo, phetišetšo ya bokgoni, dibopego tša go dirišana pele ge phetogo e thoma, mošomo wa boetapele nakong ya phetogo, mabokgoni ao a šongwago ke moetapele, ditebelelo go tšwa mokgatlong, nako le saekele ya peakanyo).

Dipoelo tša nyakišišo di bontšhitše gore dimelo tša baetapele di bohlokwa go laola phetogo ka dikgwebong tša mmušo tša Afrika Borwa. Go feta fao, dipoelo di bontšhitše gore phethagatšo ya phetogo le katlego di be di amana gabotse le tshepedišo ya phetogo. Ka fao, mohlala wa boetapele le taolo ya phetogo ya mokgatlo wa diSOE bjalo ka ge o hlomilwe mo nyakišišong o tla netefatša gore taolo ya phetogo e phethagatšwa ka katlego. Ka go šomiša mohlala wo, dikgwebo tšeo di laolwago ke mmušo di be di tla kgona go šoma le go ba le maitemogelo a katlego phetogong ya mokgatlo, go swana le gore ga di sa wela ka fase ga 70% ya mekgatlo yeo e palelwago ke taolo ya phetogo.

MANWELEDZO

U bva ha u wa ha ikonomi nga 2008, vhupo ha vhubindudzi ha ḽifhasi ho vha hu khakhathini. U wa uhu ho bvelela kha sekithara dza vhulimi, vhubveledzi, migodi na zwiimiswa zwine zwa langulwa nga muvhuso (SOEs). Hezwi zwo bveledza tshanduko khulwane kha sekithara nnzhi dza phuraivethe na zwiimiswa zwa muvhuso. Dzi SOE dzo kwamea nga maanḓa nga u thithisea uhu vhuponi ha mabindu nga u langulwa nga muvhuso. Naho zwo ralo, u thengathenga na ndaulo kha vhupo ha vhubindudzi ha SOE, zwo ita uri kuitele kwa tshanduko kuvhe ku konḓaho u ku shumisa.

Ngudo yo itelwa u ta, mushumo wa vhurangaphanḓa kha ndangulo ya tshanduko kha dzi SOE dza Afrika Tshipembe. U isa phanḓa ngaurali, vharangaphanḓa ndi vhaṱuṱuwedzi vha tshanduko kha zwiimiswa, vhashumi vha ḓitika ngavho. Nga zwenezwo, u sa vha na murangaphanḓa, ndangulo ya tshanduko yo teaho kha tshiimiswa a i konadzei. U ḓadzisa kha zwenezwo, maṅwalwa a vhurangaphanḓa a dzumbulula uri vhukoni ha murangaphanḓa ndi vhuṱanzi kha zwiimiswa musi vha na vhushaka havhuḓi na vhashumi, naho zwo ralo, maanḓa, vhukoni, na milayo ya vhurangaphanḓa zwi fanela u dzhielwa nṱha.

Ngudo yo tevhedza kuitele kwa ngona yo ṱanganelaho hu tshi khou shumiswa ngona ya khwanthethivi (mbudzisambekanywa) na khwaḽithethivi (inthaviwu) u ta mushumo wa vhurangaphanḓa kha ndangulo ya tshanduko kha dzi SOE nṋa: Transnet, Armscor, DBSA na Safcol. Luṱa lwa khwanthithethivi lwo vha na vhadzheneli vha 120 kha ḽeveḽe ya mushumo, vhadzheneli vho vha vha si khou ranga phanḓa tshanduko fhedzi vho vha vha tshi khou shela mulenzhe kha ḽeveḽe ya mushumo ya tshanduko. Luṱa lwa khwanthethivi lwo bveledzwaho nga vhadzheneli vha malo vhe vha ithavuwiwa vho imelaho vhadzheneli vha zwiimiswa izwi nṋa zwa dzi SOE ngauri vha shuma sa vharangaphanḓa vha ndangulo ya tshanduko. Musaukanyo wa data nga zwenezwo wo itwa hu tshi shumiswa SPSS kha luṱa lwa khwanthethivi dzine dza vha: tshivhalo tsha nḓisedzo, musaukanyo wa u ṱola tshiitei, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity na tshipiḓa tsha matirikisi tshena tsha mona tsha Meyer Olkin, vhufulufheli ha miṱalukanyo, ANOVA, vhushaka, u ḓitika nga vhushaka, u ḓitika nga vhushaka vhunzhi na ikhwesheni ya tshivhumbeo tsha tshiedza. Ho shumiswa musaukanyo wa maṅwalwa kha luṱa lwa khwaḽithethivi une wa vha na mbudziso nga ha vhudavhidzani ha tshanduko, u ḓidzhenisa kha tshanduko, milaedza ya ndeme yo leludzwa na u sumbedziswa, u ita uri tshanduko i dzule i nṱhesa, u pfukisela zwikili, zwiimiswa zwa tshumisano u thoma musi tshanduko i tshi thoma, mushumo wa vhurangaphanḓa nga

tshifhinga tsha tshanduko, zwikili zwo bveledziwaho nga murangaphaṋḓa, ndavhelelo u bva kha tshiimiswa tsho tiwaho, tshifhinga tsho vhewaho na mutevheṱhandu wa nzudzanyo. Mvelelo dza ngudo dzo sumbedzisa uri zwiṱaluli zwa vharangaphaṋḓa ndi zwa ndeme kha u langula tshanduko kha mabindu ane a langulwa nga zwa muvhuso a Afrika Tshipembe. U isa phaṋḓa nga u ralo, mvelelo dzo sumbedzisa uri u shumisa tshanduko na u bvelela zwi na vhushaka havhuḓi kha kuitele kwa tshanduko. Nga zwenezwo, vhurangaphaṋḓa na tshiedziswa tsha ndangulo ya tshanduko tsha tshiimiswa kha dzi SOE sa zwo bveledzwaho kha ngudo tshi ḓo khwaṱhisedza uri ndangulo ya tshanduko i tevhedzwe lwo fhelelaho. Tshiedziswa tshi vhidzwa tshiedziswa tsha dzi SOE tsha ndangulo ya tshanduko ya vhurangaphaṋḓa na tshiimiswa. Hu tshi khou shumiswa tshiedziswa itshi, dzi SOE dzi ḓo kona u shuma, u tshenzhela na u bvelela kha ndangulo ya tshanduko ya tshiimiswa.

Maipfi a ndeme: vhurangaphaṋḓa, ndangulo ya tshanduko, mabindu ane a langulwa nga muvhuso, maanḓa a vhurangaphaṋḓa, vhukoni ha vhurangaphaṋḓa, milayo ya vhurangaphaṋḓa, mushumo wa vhurangaphaṋḓa, u shumisa tshanduko na u bvelela kha tshanduko.

ISICATSHULWA

Ukususela ekuwohlokeni kwezoqoqosho ngowama-2008, imeko yezoshishino yehlabathi ibisoloko imaxongo. Oku kuwohloka kwenzeke kumacandelo ezolimo, ezemveliso, lezemigodi kunye namashishini karhulumente (SOEs). Oku kubangele utshintsho olukhulu kuninzi lwemibutho yabucala nekarhulumente. Ii-SOE zachatshazelwa kakhulu ziziphithiphithi kwishishini lokusingqongileyo ngenxa yokuba zizezikarhulumente. Nangona kunjalo, ukuba ngqongqo kunye nolawulo kwimeko-bume yoshishino ye-SOE, kwenza inkqubo yotshintsho ibenzima ukuyiqhuba. Uphononongo lwalujonge ukumisela, indima yobunkokeli' kulawulo lotshintsho kwii-SOE eMzantsi Afrika. Ngaphaya koko, iinkokeli zingunobangela wotshintsho kwimibutho, kwaye abasebenzi baxhomekeke kuzo. Ngenxa yoko, ngaphandle kobukho benkokeli, utshintsho kulawulo lombutho alunakwenzeka. Ukongeza, uncwadi lobunkokeli luveze ukuba ukusebenza kwenkokeli kubonakala kwimibutho xa benxibelelana kakuhle nabasebenzi; nangona kunjalo, izakhono, ubuchule kunye nemigaqo yobunkokeli kufuneka ithathelwe ingqalelo. Uphononongo lulandele iindlela ezixubeneyo lusebenzisa iindlela zobungakanani (uluhlu lwemibuzo/ikhweshine) kunye neendlela zomgangatho (udliwano-ndlebe) ukumisela indima yobunkokeli kulawulo lotshintsho kwii-SOE ezine: iTransnet, iArmscor, iDBSA neSafcol. Isigaba sobungakanani besinabathathi-nxaxheba aba-120 kwinqanaba lokusebenza, abathathi-nxaxheba bebengakhokeli utshintsho kodwa bathatha inxaxheba kwinqanaba lokusebenza kotshintsho. Inqanaba lomgangatho belinabathathi-nxaxheba abasibhozo ekwabanjwa nabo udliwanondlebe bemele ezi SOE zine kuba basebenze njengeenkokeli zolawulo zotshintsho. Uhlalutyo lwedatha lwenziwa emva koko kusetyenziswa ii-SPSS zesigaba sobungakanani ezizezi: usasazo rhoqo, uhlalutyo lwento yokuphonononga, uVavanyo lukaBartlett lwe-Sphericity kunye nenxalenye yematrix ejikelezisiweyo kaKaiser Meyer Olkin, ukuthembeka kwezixhobo zokusebenza, i-ANOVA, ukunyaniseka, ulungelelwaniso, ukuhlehla, ukuhlehla kaninzi kunye nolungelelwaniso lwesakhelo semodeli oluxhasa ukulingana kwamabinzana amabini, adibeneyo kuphando.Uhlalutyo lomxholo lwasetyenziselwa isigaba somgangatho nesiquIethe imibuzo malunga nonxibelelwano kutshintsho, ukuthethathethana kutshintsho, imiyalezo ephambili eyenziwe lula nebonakalisiweyo, ukwenza utshintsho luhlale luphezulu, ukudluliselwa kwezakhono, izakhiwo zokusebenzisana kuqala xa utshintsho luqala, indima yobunkokeli ngexesha lokutshintsha, izakhono ezicutshungulwe. yinkokeli, okulindelwe kumbutho othile, ixesha elibekiweyo kunye nomjikelo wocwangciso.Iziphumo zophando zibonise

ukuba iimpawu zeenkokeli zibalulekile ekulawuleni utshintsho kumashishini karhulumente woMzantsi Afrika. Ngaphezu koko, iziphumo zibonise ukuba ukuphunyezwa kotshintsho kunye nempumelelo bezinxulumene ngokufanelekileyo kwinkqubo yotshintsho. Ngoko ke, ubunkokeli kunye nemodeli yolawulo lotshintsho lombutho leSOE njengoko zisekwe kuphando ziya kuqinisekisa ukuba ulawulo lotshintsho luphunyezwa ngempumelelo. Le modeli ibizwa ngokuba yimodeli yobuNkokeli kunye notshintsho lolawulo lwee-SOE. Ngokusebenzisa le modeli, ii-SOE ziya kuba nokwenzeka, zibe namava kwaye zibe nempumelelo kulawulo lweenguqu zombutho.

Amagama angundoqo: Ubunkokeli, utshintsho lolawulo, amashishini karhulumente, Izakhono zobunkokeli, ubuchule bobunkokeli, imigaqo yobunkokeli, indima yobunkokeli, ukuphumeza utshintsho kunye, notshintsho lwempumelelo.

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List of Abbreviations

ACSA	Airports Company of South Africa
ADKAR	Awareness Desire Knowledge Awareness Reinforcement
AI	Appreciative inquiry
ANOVA	Analysis of variance
API	Application programming interface
AQIP	Academic Qualification Improvement Programme
ARMSCOR	Armaments Corporation of South Africa
ASHE-ERIC	Association for the Study of Higher Education - Education Resources Information Centre
BPR	Business process re-engineering
BRICS	Brazil Russia India China South Africa
CAP	Change acceleration process
CATS	Changing as three steps
CCEP	Centre for Climate Economics and Policy
CEF	Central Energy Fund
CEMS	College of Economic and Management Sciences
CEO	Chief executive officer
CFI	Comparative fit index
CI	Change implementation
CM	Change management
CMO	Chief marketing officer
COP	Chief of people services
CR	Critical ratio
CS	Change success
DBL	Doctor of Business Leadership
DBSA	Development Bank of Southern Africa
DENEL	Detonics Numerous Electronics
DMAIC	Define, Measure, Analyse, Improve and Control
DNA	Deoxyribose Nucleic Acid
DPE	Department of Public Enterprises
EC	Employee contributions
EFA	Exploratory factor analysis
EI	Emotional intelligence
ERA	Evaluating, re-evaluating and action
Eskom	Electricity Supply Commission
FAQs	Frequently asked questions
FDI	Foreign direct investment
GDP	Gross domestic product
GFI	Goodness of fit index

GI	Global Integrity
HBR	Harvard Business Review
HR	Human resources
HRD	Human resources department
HRM	Human resources management
HSRC	Human Sciences Research Council
IBIMA	International Business Information Management Association
ICT	Information communication technology
IDC	Industrial Development Corporation
IEEE	Institute of Electrical and Electronic Engineers
IIGA	Ibrahim Index African Governance
ILR	Industrial and Labour Relations
IoDSA	Institute of Directors South Africa
IOL	Independent Online
IP	Implementation process
IPOC	Implementation process and organisational change
ISCOR	South African Iron and Steel Industrial Corporation
ISO	International Organisation for Standardisation
IT	Information technology
KM	Knowledge management
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
LCa	Leadership capabilities
LCo	Leadership competencies
LGBT	Lesbian gay bisexual and transgender
LMX	Leader member exchange
LP	Leadership principles
LR	Leadership role
MIS	Management information system
MMR	Mixed method research
MOOCs	Massive open online courses
NHS	National Health Service
NPM	New Public Management
NPOs	Non-profit organisations
NRF	National Research Foundation
OCM	Organisational change management
OD	Organisational development
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
PACIS	Pacific Asia Conference on Information Systems
PAR	Participatory action research
PCA	Principal component analysis
PDCA	Plan, Do, Check and Act

PDSA	Plan Do Study Act
PFMA	Public Finance Management Act No. 29 of 1999
PLS	Partial least square
PLS-SEM	Partial least structural equation model
POC	Predictors of organisational change
PRASA	Passenger Rail Agency of South Africa
PRC	Presidential Review Committee
PRISM	Process re-engineering integrated spiral model
PT	Parity time
PwC	PricewaterhouseCoopers
RARE	Responsible, Accountable, Relevant and Ethical
RMSEA	Root mean square error of approximation
R&D	Research and development
R&I	Research and innovation
SA	South Africa
SAA	South African Airways
SABC	South African Broadcasting Corporation
SABS	South African Bureau of Standards
SADC	Southern African Development Community
Safcol	South African Forestry Company Limited
SAPO	South African Post Office
S.E.	Standard error
SEM	Structural Equation Model
SETA	Sector for Education and Training Authority
SMPN	Sekolah Menengah Pertama Negeri
SMPTE	The Society of Motion Picture and Television Engineers
SMS	Short message service
SOC	State-Owned Company
SOEs	State-Owned Enterprises
SONA	State of the Nation Address
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
STEM	Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics
TCTA	Trans-Caledon Tunnel Authority
TESOL	Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages
TFR	Transnet Freight Rail
TIIM	Technology innovation industrial management
TQM	Total quality management
TRANSNET	Transportation Network
UAE	United Arab Emirates
UK	United Kingdom
UK-RAS	United Kingdom – Robotics and Autonomous Systems Conference

Unisa	University of South Africa
US	United States
USA	United States of America
VIF	Variance inflation factor
VUCA	Volatility, uncertainty, complexity and ambiguity
WGI	World Governance Indicators
ZAR	Zuid Afrikaans Rand

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1   INTRODUCTION

This study is about the role of leadership in change management in South African (SA) State-Owned Enterprises (SOEs). SOEs are also called major enterprises or Schedule 2 enterprises Leaders are critical decision makers in public and private companies to facilitate change management, and their role should not be ignored. Change management has persistently occurred in organisations due to macro-economic challenges in 2008, to the extent that change has become second nature in most organisations. Nevertheless, leaders are great catalysts for organisations to participate in change and motivate the need for change (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2013:114). However, in the initial stages of change, leaders must clarify the reasons for change and determine where the business needs to be in the future (Jensen, 2017:66).

Furthermore, even if the reason for the change is known, leaders need to have a clear vision of the future state of the organisation (Ngambi, 2011b:29; Matthew & Gupta, 2015:78). Change management initiated by leaders requires moving the organisation from its current state to a desirable future state (Hayes, 2018:431). With all leaders' responsibilities in the change process, they still need to ensure that they relate well with their employees and facilitate change effectively. Leadership qualities appear to require good interpersonal relationships and emotional intelligence, as the literature on leadership has indicated (Dabke, 2016:27). The researcher believes that a leader's qualities include capabilities, competencies, and leadership principles other than interpersonal skills. The change management consist of drivers of change, change plans, change implementation, and change success.

This introductory chapter presents the following items: the background of the study, research focus, problem statement, the research questions, objectives, and hypotheses of the study, the significance of the study, contribution to knowledge, and a literature review. Next, an overview of the research methodology includes the research design, the quantitative, qualitative, and mixed research approaches, population and sampling, data collection techniques, pilot study, data analysis, reliability, and validity. It is followed by the study's

ethical considerations, limitations, delimitations, and assumptions. Finally, the chapter concludes with the chapter outline for the study.

1.2   BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

There is minimal research on leadership's role in change management in SOEs (Van der Voet, 2014:373). Leading authors on leadership, for example, Kotter (2013:2) and Saleem (2015:564), reviewed the differences between the leader and management but only described their responsibilities and did not include anything about their specific roles in change management. Various studies about SOEs, for instance, on Denel, South African Airways (SAA), and South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC), show that they are experiencing financial problems (Maluleke, 2021). This shows the economic situation of the country is affected.

Change management is a process that should propel an organisation to a brighter future (Daniel, 2019:26). Mastering the art of changing rapidly is an essential competitive advantage (Ewenstein, Smith & Sologar, 2015:1). However, having to use external consultants for change make leadership not to appear useful for change. Leaders are often having their busy schedule and may fail in managing organisational change effectively (Appelbaum, Profka, Depta & Petrynski, 2018:41). Smith, Erez, Jarvenpaa, Lewis and Tracey (2017:303) found very complex and changing sets of pressures operating in organisations which forced them to change in order to survive (Jalagat, 2016:1233). The survival tactics included responses to international competition, fixing their economic environment, deregulation of markets, government legislation and governance policies, changing attitudes to authority and demographic changes (Dopson & Stewart, 2001:10; Kiitam, McLay & Pilli, 2016:114). Studies on change management conducted by Dopson and Stewart (2001:8) and Gatenby, Rees, Truss, Alfes and Soane (2015:1139) confirmed that most companies claimed that the pressure was high in public organisations and concluded that political ideologies exacerbated this. Therefore, it is the leadership's responsibility to manage change so that the gap between the current situation and the future vision does not challenge the organisation to the extent that change efforts are fruitless (Mehta, Maheshwari & Sharma, 2014:3).

Leadership studies regularly emphasise the importance of transformational and transactional leadership during change, but they have had little impact on change. Also, the literature

largely focuses on the relationship between transformational or transactional leadership and how these impact employees' responses to change (Burke 2011:163; Van der Voet, Kuipers & Groeneveld, 2016:842). However, a leader's capabilities, competencies, and principles in managing change are ignored, which perhaps cause change to fail.

Studies have confirmed that 70% of all change initiatives within organisations do not succeed (Ewenstein et al., 2015:1; Skogland & Hansen, 2017:95). Again, Ashraf and Uddin (2013) state that management consulting in SOEs of emerging economies persist but are still under- researched. In early 1980 to bring about reforms in public sector governance known as the New Public Management (NPM), the crux of these improvements was to make public sector organisations more business-like (Ashraf & Uddin, 2013). Moreover, scholars have observed that leading change is more challenging in public companies than in private companies (Cullinan, Abratt & Mingione, 2021:294). These challenges in public companies are due to regular internal corporate changes and continuous turnaround requirements by politicians (Kuzman, Talavera & Bellos, 2018:160).

However, Chinese SOEs have been successful for many years in spite of being incompetent with their work processes (Li., Liu, Han & Zhang 2016:31). SOEs have been established to accomplish economic growth and provide services to the people of South Africa. SOEs are regarded as service providing institutions and step up in terms of the constitution (Cullinan et al., 2021:294). Politicians have a degree of independence which cause a constraint to SOE leadership effectiveness. Thus, the SOE leadership could be willing change agents, but the SOE environment requires them to navigate complex politicised settings characterised by stringent resources and demanding targets (Gatenby et al., 2015:1130). For the past 26 years, commercial SOEs have been mandated to achieve good performance (Mfeka, 2020). However, SOEs have declined in their performance, and retrenchments in some SOEs became inevitable because high staff levels are unsustainable (Kumalo & Scheepers, 2021:140). There are 21 major SOEs in South Africa .and have about 165 559 employees. For the purposes of the study, the following four SOEs are used: Transportation Network (Transnet) had 55 946 employees, Development Bank of Southern Africa (DBSA) 8 000, South African Forestry Company Limited (Safcol) 5 920, and Armament Corporation of South Africa (Armscor) 1 447 employees. According to the Labour Relations Act (1989), SOEs are not supposed to retrench staff unlike private companies, unless the government needs staff to be reskilled and redeveloped (Mfeka, 2020). However, in 2003, the South

African Iron and Steel Industrial Corporation (ISCOR) planned to retrench about 3 600 employees (Mail & Guardian, 2003) and in 2019, Telkom planned to retrench more than 3 000 people (Business Tech, 2020). Other studies revealed that there is both socio-political and commercial interest in SOEs as 10% of gross domestic product (GDP) is from them, yet their role is poorly understood (Sam, 2013:767; Bernier, Florio & Bance, 2020:3).

The post-1994 South Africa has set out to change the way of doing business in both public and private organisations to reflect the democracy achieved and ensure inclusiveness in the economy, which formerly excluded black South Africans (Thomas, 2012:449). Additionally, literature on the organisational change process is mostly aimed at the private sector and is mostly designed to suit that whilst most organisational changes occur mainly in public organisations (Van der Voet, 2014:374). The literature also shows that public organisations are less efficient and less profitable than privately-owned companies (Lazzarini & Musacchio, 2018:255). There are still challenges for SOEs to demonstrate a credible economic performance (Musacchio, Lazzarini & Aguilera, 2015:116), although the government has selected the SOEs as instruments for public advancement (Thomas, 2012:449).

Public organisations also have specific characteristics different from the private sector (By & Macleod, 2009:19). This is because they need to follow official protocols of a political nature when it comes to change decisions and obligations for transparency and equality (Fernández & Rainey, 2006:170; Sanders & Canel, 2013:21; Matei & Chesaru, 2014:860). Musacchio et al. (2015:127) argue that the rigid bureaucratic structures which characterise public organisations make change difficult to implement (Matei & Chesaru, 2014:860).

Moreover, critical public opinion and diminishing budgets threaten public organisations' survival, which requires them to change rapidly and intensely (Kuipers, Higgs, Kickert, Tummers, Grandia & Van der Voet, 2014:5). The change situations cause uncertainty, anxiety and stress for organisations and employees (Shah, 2011:225). It should be noted that change affects both employees' work and the organisation's leadership (Schwarzmüller, Brosi, Duman & Welpe, 2018.:114). In order to handle these changing conditions, organisations require their employees to be ready for change (Tummers, Kruyen, Vijverberg & Voesenek, 2015:635).

As public organisations in South Africa, SOEs operate under the Department of Public Enterprises (DPE). More than 700 SOEs fall under the DPE and are governed by the Companies Act No. 71 of 2008 and are listed in the Public Finance Management Act (PFMA) No. 29 of 1999 Schedule 2 or major enterprises (South African Department of National Treasury, 2017:35), as shown in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: Schedule 2 Public Enterprises

Number	Public Entity
1	Air Traffic and Navigation Services Company
2	Airports Company of South Africa (ACSA) Limited
3	Alexkor Limited
4	Armaments Corporation of South Africa (Armscor)
5	Broadband Infrastructure Company (Pty) Limited
6	Central Energy Fund (Pty) Limited
7	Denel
8	Development Bank of Southern Africa (DBSA)
9	Eskom
10	Independent Development Trust
11	Industrial Development Corporation (IDC) of South Africa Limited
12	Land and Agricultural Development Bank of South Africa
13	South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC) Limited
14	South African Forestry Company (Safcol) Limited
15	South African Nuclear Energy Corporation
16	South African Post Office (SAPO) Limited
17	South African Airways (SAA) Limited
18	South African Express (Pty) Limited
19	Telkom SA Limited
20	Trans-Caledon Tunnel Authority (TCTA)
21	Transnet Limited

Source: National Treasury (2017) and PFMA No. 29 of 1999

These SOEs listed in schedule 2 are classified as profit making companies. Schedule 2 enterprises are government business entities, which are intended to contribute to the economy, such as development finance institutions. SOEs need to provide audited financial statements as stipulated in the Companies Act, 2008 and the PFMA No. 29 of 1999. The study is limited to four of the schedule 2 major enterprises, namely, Transnet, Armscor, DBSA, and Safcol. The problem is that scholars have published only limited research on SOEs in management journals (Bruton, Peng, Ahlstrom, Staw & Xu, 2015:106).

1.3 RESEARCH FOCUS OF THE STUDY

SOEs are looked at with a critical eye on their performance since they are expected to improve the economy. The pecuniary history of SOEs shows that the economy is insufficient to address the country's social and financial challenges. The following section presents the problem statement that inspired the investigation of the study.

1.3.1 Problem Statement

SOEs do not use their leaders for change processes; they just outsource change consultants which makes the process not to be sustainable, and the objective is to make their political bosses happy (Gray, 2021:2). The performance of SOEs in the nearby country Namibia has poor leadership and high debt (Limbo, 2019:7). Market failures generate gaps and make research and innovation (R&I) to be much less used (Dai & Cheng, 2015:182). The change processes in Pakistan are called reforms (Ashraf & Uddin, 2013) and therefore there is no uniformity in this aspect. Also, the SOE literature is fragmented, and global analyses are rare with SOEs (Bernier, Kamyabi & Choi., 2020:6). Therefore, there is a dearth of information about SOEs (Bernier et al., 2020:6); which means that one may not easily be able to evaluate the performance of these enterprises. Often SOEs are critised for poor management, inefficiencies, corruption, political interference during organisational change and poor leadership ruled by politicians. (Madumi, 2018:62). However, the role and influence of leadership in public organisations on their commitment to change are rarely questioned, yet there is little evidence of their success (Fernández & Pitts, 2007:325; Bakari, Hunjra, Jaros & Khoso, 2019:388). It is crucial to note that SOEs usually have politically defined goals and are mainly financed through taxation (Doherty, Horne & Wootton, 2014:5) despite being profit-making organisations. Allocating funds dedicated to SOE change management and effectiveness in organisations must be justified (Doherty et al., 2014:5). There are therefore various challenges that SOE leadership face. The leadership literature states that leadership styles used by most organisations are either transformational or transactional (Nanjundeswaraswamy & Swamy, 2014:57). Therefore, the leadership style in an organisation ultimately contributes to its success or failure. Given the change failure rate, ineffectiveness of leadership in the business environment is still apparent.

It was concluded by Cai, Loon and Wong (2018:1054) that leadership in SOEs differs from that in private organisations in implementing change management and faces severe

challenges occasioned by inflexible structures. SOEs are often run by state bureaucrats who depend on state funding for their income (Huat, 2016:499). Additionally, President Ramaphosa (the current president of South Africa), in his 2018 State of the Nation Address (SONA), highlighted a crisis in the SOEs and stated that they need to be assisted to return to efficiency (News 24, 2018). In the 2019 SONA address, President Ramaphosa raised a similar concern and stated that South Africa needs to stabilise and restore SOEs' credibility since they had underperformed in the previous two decades (Mail & Guardian, 2019). The SOEs are meant to contribute to the economic success of the country and provide employment. According to the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (2017), SOEs provide 21% by value and 42% of employment. SOEs are not engaged in marketplace activities, thus have lower numbers of employment (Bernier et al., 2020:11). In SONA 2022, President Ramaphosa indicated that there had been little progress on the performance of SOEs and further stated that the lack of jobs in South Africa could be laid at the door of private companies (Al Jazeera, 2022). Based on the problems mentioned above, the study investigated the leadership role in change management in South African SOEs.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS, OBJECTIVES AND HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

This section details the research questions, the related primary and secondary objectives and the hypotheses.

Primary Research Question
- What is the role of leadership in change management in South African State-Owned Enterprises?

Secondary Research Questions
- What are the leadership experiences in the initiation of change management processes?
- What challenges exist regarding change management implementation in South African SOEs?
- What effect does the leadership role have on successful change management processes in SOEs?

- What is the relationship between leadership qualities (leadership capabilities, competencies and principles) and of change management (drivers of change, change plan, change implementation and change success) in South African SOEs?

1.4.1 Primary and Secondary Objectives of the Study

Research objectives set out what the researcher intends to achieve at the end of the study. They are divided into two categories i.e., primary and secondary objectives.

The research objectives state what the researcher hopes to accomplish by the end of the study.

This section addresses the primary and secondary research objectives as follows:

Primary Objective

The primary objective of this research was to investigate the role of leadership in change management in South African state-owned enterprises.

Secondary Objectives

The secondary objectives of the study were to:

1) describe leadership experiences in the initiation of change management processes.
2) establish what challenges exist regarding change management implementation in South African SOEs.
3) determine the effect of the leadership role on successful change management processes in SOEs; and
4) evaluate the relationship between leadership qualities (leadership capabilities, competencies and principles) and of change management (drivers of change, change plan, change implementation and change success) in South African SOEs.

1.4.2 Hypotheses

A hypothesis is defined as a tentative solution to research questions, expressed in the form of a prediction about the relationship between the dependent and independent variables (Bowling, 2014:451). A hypothesis is a statement based on the presumptions of the existence of a relationship between two or more variables that can be tested empirically (Dubey, Kothari & Awari, 2017:445). In addition, Dubey et al. (2017:446) state that a hypothesis is

used to test the significance of a population parameter based on a sample. Therefore, to meet research objectives 3 and 4, the following null and alternative hypotheses in Table 1.2 were tested.

Table 1.2: Null and alternative hypothesis of the study

| No | Hypothesis | | Objective |
	Alternative	Null	
1	Ha1 There is a relationship between leadership role qualities and drivers of change management.	Ho1 There is no relationship between leadership role qualities and drivers of change management.	Objective 3: determine the effect of the leadership role on successful change management processes in SOEs
2	Ha2 There is a relationship between capabilities and qualities of leadership role	Ho2 There is no relationship between capabilities and qualities of leadership role	Objective 4: evaluate the relationship between leadership qualities (leadership capabilities, competencies and principles) and change management (drivers of change, change plan, change implementation and change success) in South African SOEs
3	Ha3 There is a relationship between competency and qualities of leadership role	Ho3 There is no relationship between competency and qualities of leadership role	Objective 4: evaluate the relationship between leadership qualities (leadership capabilities, competencies and principles) and change management (drivers of change, change plan, implementation and success) in South African SOEs
4	Ha4 There is a relationship between principles and qualities of leadership role	Ho4 There is no relationship between principles and qualities of leadership role	Objective 4: evaluate the relationship between leadership qualities (leadership capabilities, competencies and principles) and change management (drivers of change, change plan, implementation and success) in South African SOEs
5	Ha5 There is a relationship between drivers of change management and organisational change	Ho5 There is no relationship between drivers of change management and organisational change	Objective 4: evaluate the relationship between leadership qualities (leadership capabilities, competencies and principles) and change management (drivers of change, change plan, implementation and success) in South African SOEs

Table 1.2: Null and alternative hypothesis of the study (continued)

| No | Hypothesis | | Objective |
	Alternative	Null	
6	Ha6 There is a relationship between change plan and drivers of change management	Ho6 There is no relationship between change plan and drivers of change management	Objective 4: evaluate the relationship between leadership qualities (leadership capabilities, competencies and principles) and change management (drivers of change, change plan, implementation and success) in South African SOEs
7	Ha7 There is a relationship between change implementation and drivers of change management	Ho7 There is no relationship between change implementation and drivers of change management	Objective 4: evaluate the relationship between leadership qualities (leadership capabilities, competencies and principles) and change management (drivers of change, change plan, implementation and success) in South African SOEs
8	Ha8 There is a relationship between change success and drivers of change management	Ho8 There is no relationship between change success and drivers of change management	Objective 4: evaluate the relationship between leadership qualities (leadership capabilities, competency and principles) and change management (drivers of change, change plan, implementation and success) in South African SOEs

The conceptual framework follows hypothesis H_01, which determines the relationship between leadership role qualities and change management (drivers of change, change plan, change implementation, and change success).

1.5   SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

A study by Liu et al. (2020:31) found that Chinese SOEs have been successful for four decades, due to good cooperate governance, reforms, financing, and the social responsibility of SOEs. SOEs have the potential to have a successful change management process. A study conducted in Namibia found that SOEs are highly indebted, and leadership performed poorly. India made a series of internal restructuring reforms which were influenced at government level and unsatisfactory implemented by their SOEs (Li, Cui & Lu, 2018:175). However, leaders have the potential to lead a successful change process. The study

contributes to leadership through capabilities, competencies, and principles in creating efficiencies of change management in SOEs.

The study is significant in that it critically evaluated literature that contributed towards the managing of change from the fields of human resources, strategic management, psychology, and organisation development. It provided a leadership and organisational change management model for SOEs that is useful for improving the management of change by leaders (Figure 7.1). The study also demonstrated the relationship between leadership and change management. Finally, the study recommended improvement of successfully leading change. and demonstrated how employee adoption enabled the change process.

1.6   CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE OF STUDY

This study contributed to both theoretical and practical knowledge in leading change in SOEs. When organisations decide on a change process, the leader is considered the most crucial person in the process. Leaders should display three characteristics, namely capabilities, competencies, and leadership principles to enhance change management. Once capabilities, competencies, and leadership principles are established, additional factors need to be clarified in the change management, such as the drivers of change, change plans, change implementation, and change success, to ensure employee readiness, leadership awareness of the external environment, planning for change and the sustenance of change through change success.

Although some approaches and methods have been recommended to manage change, the success rate remained low (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015:234). Of note is the research conducted by Alvesson and Sveningsson (2015:40) which has identified a model to guide change management. However, their model did not sufficiently render change sustainable because the leaders did not pay attention to the skills of capability, competency, and principles of leadership. Therefore, this study recommends a model that involves leadership and change management in South African SOEs. The model links a leader with capabilities, competencies, and principles instead of narrowly focusing on transformational and transactional leadership theories. Leading change management with these skills sets is more likely to enhance the effectiveness of all involved, ensures that there is effective communication and reducing the impact of change management on employees.

1.7 PRELIMINARY LITERATURE REVIEW

This section presents a brief literature review of leadership, change management and South African SOEs.

1.7.1 Leadership

Leadership is one of the most researched social science fields (Antonakis & Day, 2018:3).

Current leadership theories focus on leaders' capabilities, competencies and principles which are what determines a leader's qualities. With the arrival of millennials (i.e., people born between 1981 and 1996) are now in positions of power and influence, the focus in leadership has been on teamwork, work-life balance, continuous feedback, and learning (Vecchiotti, 2018:40). Thus, capabilities, competencies and principles are differentiated by the influence a leader has over their subordinates, having a work-life balance, understanding the impact of both the internal and external environment, and learning a particular skill over time. With all these processes, leaders are considered catalysts that keep organisations and nations focused on their objectives and deliver on promises to their clients and stakeholders need (Ngambi, 2011a:7).

1.7.1.1 RARE Leadership

Both traditional and modern leadership theories lack the focus on a shared African value system at all levels of society embedded in the total leadership theory known as RARE (Responsible, Accountable, Relevant and Ethical) (Ngambi, 2011a:6). Ngambi (2011a:9) explained that RARE leadership principles bring sustainability and success to activities that the leader is involved with in the organisation - leaders who use their head (cognitive leadership), their heart (intuitive leadership) and their hands (practical leadership) demonstrate it. Ngambi (2011a:9) acknowledged that RARE leadership displays all four leadership characteristics in one. On the other hand, transactional and transformational leadership theories do not include any characteristics of RARE leadership. The four characteristics that can be seen in transformational leadership are charisma, motivation, intellectual stimulation, and consideration of employees (Holten & Brenner, 2015:3) while in transactional leadership, contingent rewards and management by exception are highlighted (Holten & Brenner, 2015:4).

Also, the leadership in organisations has a crucial role in demonstrating that they are accountable and responsible for effective governance (Storer, 2018:257). Additionally, leaders are caretakers and strongly influence future leaders' development which shows their relevance to the organisation (Murphy & Johnson, 2011:459). On the other hand, Bedi, Alpaslan and Green (2016:517) acknowledged that ethical leadership is closely associated with the organisation's transformational and transactional leadership that makes employees apply effort to their jobs and create employee satisfaction. The capabilities create commitment and loyalty through teamwork and communication (Steinke, Dastmalchian, Blyton & Hasselback, 2013:127). Competence is achieved when a leader demonstrates that collaborative communication with a team and interpersonal skills are enhanced (Murdock, Delgado, Gammon & Raole, 2019:131).

The people who work in the organisations are vital to implementing change (El-Dirani, Hussein & Hejase, 2019:2). Academics and professionals support the idea that leadership plays a pivotal role in the change process (Whitworth & Chiu, 2015:121). Every situation has a particular leadership style, but leaders must also have leadership skills to ensure the smooth transition of the change process by reducing resistance and increasing production or services (Jalagat, 2016:1233).

However, most research examines leadership theories in isolation from these leadership characteristics (Ngambi, 2011a:7) and are under-researched. This has resulted in a considerable gap in the research examining RARE leadership principles compared to better-researched models and leadership theories (Pityana, 2018:73). Thus, leadership principles were included in the study to determine the extent to which leadership acts responsibly and accountably and are relevant and ethical in the change process.

1.7.2   Change Management

Leaders are expected to implement change within an organisation. Leaders are considered catalysts that keep organisations and nations focused on their objectives and on delivering on promises to their clients and stakeholder's needs (Ngambi, 2011a:7).

Change management refers to the process of change, namely, planning, coordinating, organising and directing the processes through which change is implemented (Gill, 2002:307; Spicker, 2012:36). Another definition of change management by Jalagat, Jr (2016:1233) is that it is the process of continually renewing an organisation's direction,

structure and capabilities to serve the ever-changing needs of external and internal customers. This means the leader has to take care of internal and external imperatives. Internal imperatives include leadership, employees, culture, communication, talent development, staff commitment and shared governance. External factors that affect an organisation may be political, economic, social or technological. Revenio and Jalagat (2016:1235) further observed that change is an ever-present feature of organisational life, both at the operational and strategic levels if an organisation is to remain relevant in the marketplace. Top-level leadership is critical in enacting change at the strategic level, while lower-level management is responsible for the operational level of change (Rezvani, 2017:6).

As change occurs in organisations, employees need to make sense of change (Buick, Blackman, O'Donnell, O'Flynn & West, 2015:280). Leadership is required for effective and successful change management, which can only be achieved if leaders explain the change process (Jóhannsdóttir, Ólafsson & Davidsdottir, 2015:74). Leadership can use different narratives to make sense to employees and prevent organisational change failure (Hay, Parker & Luksyte, 2021:202). Thus, leadership is critical for effective organisational change (Kuipers et al., 2014:11).

A successful change strategy consists of taking account of the drivers for change, planning for change, implementing change, and evaluating change success.

1.7.3   State-Owned Enterprises

A state-owned enterprise (SOE), also known as a "state-owned company" (SOC), is a company owned by the government. SOEs are listed in the PFMA (No. 29 of 1999) as per Schedule 1, 2, or 3 of the PFMA (Act No. 29 of 1999). They may also be owned by a municipality, as contemplated in the Local Government Municipal Systems Act No. 32 of 2000. Their asset value is enormous. Hassen (2015:4) stated that Eskom and Transnet have a combined asset value of ZAR745 billion. It is important to note that the trading economy of the country grew by 2.3% in 2016, in 2017 by 3.1%, it further grew by1.8% in 2018, followed by a growth of 1.5% in 2019 and it shrank by -6.96% in 2020 (Trading Economics, 2021:1). Pure, viable purposes like banking, real estate development, shipping and retailing, and air transportation generating public funds that, if used appropriately, can boost South Africa's economy.

In South Africa, they provide a diverse range of products ranging from timber to electricity and services ranging from running ports to providing credit to entrepreneurs (Hassen, 2015:1). Hassen (2015:2) further attested that SOEs, especially in the energy and transport sectors, play an essential role in all large companies' value chains in South Africa. According to Madumi (2018:62), SOEs have two main purposes:

• supplying essential services to citizens, dealing with telecommunication, broadcasting, infrastructure such as roads, railways, harbours and airports, electricity, sanitation, postal services, and water; and

• engaging in commercial enterprises like banking, real estate development, shipping and retailing, and air transportation to generate public funds that, if used appropriately, can boost South Africa's economy.

The Department of Public Enterprises is the government department that is responsible for oversight of SOEs. It evaluates the objectives, projects, and achievements of important SOEs, such as Eskom, Transnet, SAA, Safcol and Denel, and determines how they contribute to South Africa's economic growth and development. In carrying out its mandate, it is responsible for ensuring that good corporate governance principles are maintained and is, thus, responsible for overseeing the appointment of the leaders in SOEs.

The key SOE leaders other than the board of directors are executive members and managers. As they plan for change in the public enterprises, they need to find the best means by which SOEs can bring and add value to society (Sturesson, McIntyre & Jones, 2015:5).

1.8 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

The research methodology used in this thesis is briefly discussed in this section, and includes the research design, the quantitative, qualitative, and mixed research approaches, population and sampling, data collection techniques, pilot study, data analysis, and reliability and validity.

1.8.1 Research Design

The researcher used a mixed methodology, meaning a combination of quantitative and qualitative research approaches. Creswell and Creswell (2017:207) state that mixing methods means either that the quantitative and qualitative approaches are combined at one

end of the continuum, are kept separate on the other end of the continuum or are joined in some way between these two extremes. The researcher should be familiar with both quantitative and qualitative forms of research as there is a need for extensive data collection and analysis of both text and numerical data. The use of a mixed methodology, as stated by Creswell and Creswell (2017:205), is time consuming.

The research followed an explanatory sequential design. It started with the quantitative research methodology where questionnaires were used to conduct a survey. First, a generic electronic questionnaire was distributed to the sample group of middle management, lower-level management and general staff who usually carry out the process of change at an operational level, which required 280 participants from the four sampled SOEs combined. The SOEs released the details of the participants once a memorandum of understanding was signed between the researcher and the Human Resources (HR) department of each SOE.

The qualitative data was then gathered to establish the experiences and reviews of SOEs, and eight interviews were conducted. Coding and themes were formulated using ATLAS.ti software Version 09.

Secondary sources of information were also used to explore the role of leadership in the change management processes of the selected SOEs. This investigation required determining the relationship between leadership influence and the practical outcome of managing organisational change.

1.8.2 Quantitative Approach

Quantitative research methodologies deal with data that are primarily numerical. These methodologies seek to establish relationships and explain causes of changes by using statistical techniques. Data was collected in order to answer research questions and to allow for generalisation. Data analysis of the survey was conducted using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 27. Using the SPSS, reliability tests and correlation tests were done to determine the relationship between the independent variable (leadership), capabilities, competencies, and principles, and the dependent variables in change management, namely, change management measures, drivers of change, change plans, change implementation, and change success. Furthermore, a multiple regression analysis was done to check the influence of leadership style on change management.

1.8.3   Qualitative Approach

With the qualitative approach, research takes place in natural settings and involves assessing the meaning people attribute to their experience of a phenomenon. These meanings were identified in interviews with leaders regarding the initiation of change management processes and establishing what challenges exist regarding change management implementation. Ideally between 12 and 15 people should be interviewed (Borrero, Nikolajski, Steinberg, Freedman, Akers, Ibrahim & Schwarz, 2015:152). However, the researcher conducted only eight interviews because leaders in SOEs did not respond to the interview invitation. The SOEs' leaders were interviewed to achieve Secondary Objectives 1 and 2 and saturation was achieved by the fourth interview. This means that no further valuable information was forthcoming after the fourth interview.

1.8.4   Mixed Research Approach

This study followed a mixed research approach. The mixed research approach combines the quantitative and qualitative research methods in the same research inquiry (Venkatesh, Brown & Bala, 2013:21). The main types of mixed-methods designs are explanatory sequential design, exploratory sequential design, triangulation and embedded methods. These are briefly described in Table 1.3.

Table 1.3: Types of mixed methods designs

Type	Description	Source
Explanatory sequential design	This is a research design where the researcher starts by conducting the quantitative phase and, after getting the results, follows with the qualitative phase to explain the initial phase in-depth.	Creswell and Plano Clark (2017:204)
Exploratory sequential design	This is a mixed-method approach, where the researcher starts by qualitatively exploring a topic before building to a second quantitative phase.	Creswell and Plano Clark (2017:203)
Triangulation	This is a method done to obtain different but complementary data on the same topic to understand best the research problem.	Bowling (2014:419)
Embedded	It is used when one data set plays a supportive, secondary role in research-based primarily on the other data type.	Bowling (2014:419)

1.8.5 Population and Sampling

The data obtainable in 2021 showed that there are over 700 SOEs in South Africa. The Schedule 2 SOEs are formally called the major SOEs. These major SOEs are the 21 Schedule 2 SOEs which are bigger by asset value than Schedule 1 and Schedule 3A SOEs. The following sections present the population and sampling of the study.

1.8.5.1 Population

A population is a collection of objects, events, or individuals with some common characteristic that the researcher is interested in studying (Ary, Jacobs, Irvine & Walker, 2018:46). The population, in this case, was all the directors, senior managers, middle, lower/supervisor level management and general employees of Schedule 2 SOEs in South Africa.

1.8.5.2 Sampling

The researcher confined the study to only four SOEs, i.e., Transnet, Armscor, DBSA and Safcol who approved the research. At the time of the study, these institutions had more than 200 employees at the levels stipulated above (Fourie, 2014:33). A sample is described as a portion of elements representing a population (Etikan, Musa & Alkassim, 2016:1). Sampling is simply defined as selecting a portion of the population to represent the whole population in the research area. There are two significant types of sampling designs: probability sampling and non-probability or judgemental sampling. According to Creswell (2014:67), probability sampling implies that every individual in the population has a chance or probability of being selected during the process of sampling. This was used in the quantitative phase of the research. Non-probability sampling (also known as non-random sampling) means that not all population members have a chance of participating in the study. This is generally used in the qualitative phase of research. The reason for using non-probability sampling is that for some studies, it is not feasible to draw a random probability-based sample of the population due to time and cost considerations.

1.8.5.3 Purposive sampling

Since this study used purposive sampling for its data collection, it was relevant to look at the advantages and disadvantages of purposive sampling (Table 1.4).

Table 1.4: Advantages and disadvantages of purposive sampling

Advantages	Disadvantages
It may be the only appropriate method available if there are only a limited number of primary data sources which can contribute to the study.	Vulnerability to errors of judgement by the researcher.
It can be effective in exploring anthropological situations where the discovery of meaning can benefit from an intuitive approach.	Low level of reliability and high levels of bias.
It is one of the most cost-effective and time-effective sampling methods available.	Inability to generalise research findings.

Source: Choy (2014:101) and Burns, Bush and Sinha (2014:104)

1.8.6   Data Collection

Data collection is the process whereby the most appropriate method is used to systematically collect information through a specific technique to address the research problem (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017:56). Data were collected using questionnaires with closed-ended questions to produce data that could be analysed quantitatively for patterns and graphs. The questionnaires were issued electronically via an online survey platform to the middle, lower-level managers and general staff who were not involved in leading change. According to McCusker and Gunaydin (2015:537), qualitative methods aim to answer questions about the 'what', 'how' or 'why' of an issue rather than 'how many' or 'how much', which were answered by quantitative methods. The sampled participants were at the operational level of organisational change.

The study tested the research questions in the questionnaire given to participants of the SOEs in the quantitative phase. In the qualitative phase, semi-structured interviews were conducted to establish experiences and challenges to the leadership of the SOEs during change.

1.8.7   Pilot Study

A pilot study involves testing the data collection instruments with a small number of participants who will not participate in the final study. This helps the researcher to determine the instruments' reliability, validity, and trustworthiness before they are used in the fieldwork (Dubey et al., 2017:448). In this study, the researcher used 30 participants from SOEs for the quantitative pilot study. In the qualitative phase (interviews), the researcher

used leadership and change management participants at the University of South Africa (Unisa) and SOEs. In total, the researcher ran the pilot study for the qualitative phase with 10 participants to validate the study. Responses from the pilot studies were excluded from the data analysis.

1.8.8   Data Analysis

The data collected were tabulated in two distinct categories: data collected from the questionnaires was used to determine the link between leadership and change management, and data collected from the interviews in SOEs was used to describe the experiences and challenges of leadership in the process of change. A statistician assisted the researcher with the data analyses for both phases of the study (quantitative and qualitative phases). The following sections discuss the descriptive and inferential statistical techniques.

1.8.8.1   Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics were applied in the quantitative phase. Descriptive statistics describe the data that has been collected, and results are presented in the form of tables, although they can also be presented in graphs or bar charts. In the quantitative phase, descriptive statistics form the basis of data analysis. Once the questionnaires had been collected and the data had been analysed, it was presented in tables for the quantitative phase to ensure that understanding was made easy for the reader.

1.8.8.2   Inferential statistical techniques

Statistical data were analysed using the SPSS, focusing on correlation, analysis of variation, and multiple regression for the quantitative phase. Inferential statistics allowed the researcher to make predictions or inferences. The researcher took the data from the sample and could generalise this to the population. Inferential statistical data were used to determine the significance of variables such as position in the organisation, experience in terms of several years, and activities involved in the change management process in SOEs. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and factor analysis were used for such purposes in the quantitative phase (Cooper & Schindler, 2008:552; Leedy & Ormrod, 2014:153).

1.8.9   Reliability

The reliability of the data denotes the level to which the data can provide consistent findings even if repeated at another time in the future (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2016:26). According to Sarma (2015:185), the changing nature of the phenomenon studied under a qualitative study makes reliability problematic. Reliability is the accuracy of the results collected using the quantitative method. The less the difference between the two sets of results, the higher the reliability (Kumar, Bradley, Gray & Swinkels, 2011:732). Reliability affects validity; unreliable scales inevitably have low validity (Bowling, 2014:170). To determine the reliability and validity of the study, the statements in the questionnaire were designed to collect information about the leadership role in the change management process. De Oliveira and Rabechini Jr (2019:132) explained that reliability is an essential quality that must be established before the hypotheses are tested. In this study, reliability was achieved by ensuring that the research records were kept so that another researcher could repeat the study.

Thus, the statements in the questionnaire served to collect information needed to test the hypotheses. Once this was done, special attention was given to the reliability of the responses of the findings in the survey. Reliability of the statements was tested using Cronbach's alpha (see results in Chapter 6, Section 6.6) and exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to test the validity, using the Bartlett Test of Sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test (see Chapter 6, Section 6.5).

1.8.10   Validity

Since inaccuracies can be introduced into any stage in the study, e.g., study design, sampling strategy, measurement procedures applied, and conclusions drawn, the research findings need to be valid. Validity relates to the appropriateness and accuracy of analysis applied to a research process. Kumar et al. (2011:178) posed the question about validity as follows: "Are we measuring what we think we are measuring?" Validity aims at answering questions such as "is the research investigation providing answers to the research questions?" "If so, are the methods and procedures appropriate?" (Kumar et al., 2011:177). Kumar et al. (2011:178) defined validity as the degree to which the researcher has measured what he has set out to measure. The questions as presented above highlight the importance of validity in every study that is conducted. The validity of the data, or the extent to which the data

collection method measures what it is supposed to measure, wants to be guaranteed (Saunders et al., 2016:202, 726). According to Bengtsson (2016:8), external and internal resources must be identified. In addition, the researcher should consider their experience of the phenomenon to be studied to minimise any bias of their influence. Validity is pertinent to a particular instrument (Kumar et al., 2011:733) and, although data in itself cannot be invalid, conclusions drawn can be regarded as valid or invalid (Maree, 2011:3). Validity consists of construct, external, and internal (measurement) validity (Bengtsson, 2016:8; Saunders et al., 2016:20). The questions in the questionnaire were valid.

1.8.11 Trustworthiness in qualitative research

Instead of the term validity, trustworthiness is often used in qualitative research to establish the truthfulness of the study. Trustworthiness is based on the integrity of the study (Connelly, 2016:435). The components of trustworthiness are credibility, dependability, confirmability, transferability, and authenticity (Connelly, 2016:435), but all these components may not necessarily be used in a single study. Dependability and confirmability were used for the qualitative phase, by ensuring time and conditions were the same for all participants and there were consistent findings in the data collected from the interviews which could be repeated if necessary. Dependability in the qualitative phase was ensured by recording the interviews using a mobile phone and transcribing the notes taken. Confirmability was ensured by member-checking.

1.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study included official documents and human participants whose identity needed to be kept in privacy. The ethical clearance approval (Unisa, 2016:1-33) (Appendix A) was applied for from the College of Economic and Management Sciences (CEMS). The DPE was approached for approval to conduct the research. Gatekeepers from Transnet, Armscor, DBSA and Safcol were contacted well in advance and were reassured about keeping the research documents confidential. The participants were also requested to sign the informed consent forms to keep their details confidential. No information identifying the participants was used on the questionnaire or interview transcripts. The researcher kept all research documents in confidence and reassured the participants that the information about the SOEs would not be used except for purposes of the research. Confidentiality agreements were signed by the statistician, co-coder, transcriber, editor, and formatter.

1.10   LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study was limited to Schedule 2 SOEs only in South Africa (Table 1.1). There are only 21 Schedule 2 SOEs in South Africa. Only four gave approval for the study. The Covid-19 pandemic also contributed to the lack of agreement from the SOEs, and the researcher found it difficult to interview the participants on Microsoft Teams even when other online options were available. The researcher had some difficulties with the Department of Public Enterprises (DPE) which indicated that some SOEs did not fall under them anymore, e.g., the DBSA and Armscor because they belong under the Ministry of Finance and the Ministry of Defence, although they are still listed in Schedule 2 of the PFMA No. 29 of 1999. Denel also initially approved their participation in the study, but later declared organisational problems and could not participate in the study.

Another limitation was that the interviewees claimed that their Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) were very busy, and that the board of directors was not involved in the organisation's operations.

1.11   DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The delimitations of a study are the features that arise from limitations in the study (defining the boundaries) by exclusionary and inclusionary decisions made during the development of the research plan (Simon & Goes, 2013:4). Delimitations flow from the specific choices made by the researcher; for example, the choice of objectives and questions, variables of interest, theoretical perspectives that were adopted, the paradigm (qualitative, quantitative, or mixed), and selection of participants.

Change management has traditionally been based on private sector research that addressed contextual factors in private companies during change management (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Kuipers et al., 2014:1, Pettigrew, Ferlie & McKee, 1992; Pettigrew, Woodman & Cameron, 2001). However, little research has been done on change management in terms of the specific contextual characteristics or factors in public organisations (Kuipers et al., 2014:1).

The study focused on contextual factors in public organisations, such as experiences and leadership challenges, experiences in setting up communication during change,

collaboration between systems in the organisation during change, and skills transfer to employees during the change process.

Leadership is highlighted as one of the main drivers of implementing organisational change (Higgs & Rowland, 2005:121; Herold, Fedor, Caldwell & Liu, 2008:348; Higgs & Rowland, 2010:37; Liu & Batt, 2010:269; Blanco-Portela, Benayas, Pertierra & Lozano, 2017:577). There are many dynamics that leaders need to manage in an organisational change context, as recognised by Blom (2015:74), such as resistance, communication, involvement, profit, emotions, organisational survival and quality and productivity. Taking charge of all these dynamics simultaneously is challenging; nonetheless, Blom (2015:75) also found leadership to be a non-negotiable and pivotal factor in successful organisational change.

There is extensive private-sector literature on organisational change management, yet extensive organisational change processes have taken place in public enterprises (Van der Voet, 2014:374). Furthermore, various studies have researched leadership styles, e.g., the transformational and transactional leadership model has received considerable research support (Bass & Avolio, 1993:116; Ma & Jiang, 2018:303). These studies suggest that transformational leadership has more impact on employees' attitudes towards their jobs than transactional leadership (Saleem, 2015:564). According to Van der Voet (2014:380), transformational leadership behaviour contributes little to the planned process of change. Both transactional and transformational leadership focus on the interpersonal relationship between a subordinate and the leader. The RARE leadership principles posited by Ngambi (2011a:7) have proven to be more comprehensive because they include all four Schedule 2 characteristics of a leader, namely, responsibility, accountability, relevance, and ethics.

A delimitation of the study was that leadership styles were confined to the RARE leadership model. It may be a concern to scholars or readers that all leadership styles were not included.

A further delimitation of the study was that it was a mixed method study.

The participants of the study were delimited to the directors, senior managers, middle managers and lower-level managers and general staff of the South African SOEs.

Delimitations assisted the researcher in focusing on the study area given the complexity and the number of variables at play in the context of organisational change and leadership in SOEs.

1.12   ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY

Assumptions are a prerequisite in the study because they enable the researcher to research with a certain level of belief which cannot be proven (Simon & Goes, 2013:1) but, nonetheless, need to be recognised. For instance, there may be a common belief about leadership wrongdoing in South African SOEs during the change process within the set population, yet it may not be able to be proven. If the evidence is in the literature, the researcher will have to cite it rather than assume it. A justification for any assumption, therefore, needs to be given. The following assumptions were found in studies related to state enterprises (Van der Voet, 2014:375):

- State enterprises do not have effective leadership, and their competency is questionable.
- State enterprises do not follow a formal set of change management principles as in the private sector.
- Political interference is a crucial factor in the operations of state enterprises during organisational change.

1.13   CHAPTER OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

Chapter 1 included the introduction and background of the study, the research focus, with the problem statement, research questions, objectives and hypotheses, contribution to knowledge, the significance of the study, a brief literature review, research methodology, ethical considerations, and limitations, delimitations, and assumptions of the study.

Chapter 2 presents a literature review on the historical perspective of leadership, the role of leadership, benefits of the leadership roles, leadership theories and styles, the leadership literature aligned, indicators of effective leadership, capabilities and leadership role qualities, competency and leadership role qualities, and the practice of leadership.

Chapter 3 reviews the literature on the nature of change management, types of organisational change, the role of leadership in the change process, organisational change themes, change methods, comparative analysis of change models, drivers of change, messaging in the change process, change planning, resources for organisational change, change implementation, and organisational aspects that need attention.

Chapter 4 presents an overview of SOEs, SOEs in the South African Development Community (SADC) region, redefining the role and responsibilities of SOEs, publicly known challenges from media sources, and the challenges for change in SOEs.

Chapter 5 presents the research methodology of the study and includes the research approach and design, research philosophy and paradigm, mixed-method research, population and sampling, the quantitative and qualitative research conducted, and ethical considerations.

Chapter 6 provides the data analysis for the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study.

Chapter 7 presents the main findings of the results and interpretation of the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study.

Chapter 8 summarises the research, implications, significance of the study and contributions of the study, limitations, recommendations, and future research areas.

1.14   CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 1 introduced the study, which included the background of the study. Next, the research focus, problem statement, research questions, objectives and hypotheses were presented. This was followed by the contribution to knowledge and significance of the study. The literature review discussed leadership, change management and SOEs. Furthermore, the research methodology section included the research design and approaches, the population and sampling were discussed, and the data analysis, reliability, and validity. Ethical considerations of the study were presented, including the limitations, delimitations, and assumptions of the study. The chapter concluded with an outline of the chapters.

The next chapter (Chapter 2) presents the first chapter of the literature review, namely, conceptualising and contextualising of leadership in a change context.

CHAPTER 2

CONCEPTUALISING AND CONTEXTUALISING OF LEADERSHIP IN A CHANGE CONTEXT

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 explores the concepts and context to be discussed in the changing of the field of leadership. This chapter aims to analyse leadership's role in managing organisational change and coping with the ever-changing work environment. The concepts and context to be discussed are the historical perspective of leadership, the role of leadership, the benefits of the leadership role, leadership theories and styles, leadership literature aligned, indicators of effective leadership, capabilities and leadership role qualities, competency and leadership role qualities, and the practice of leadership.

The leadership literature has found deficits and ambiguity in leadership, giving rise to confusion about leadership as a practice. This situation shows that not all is well in the leadership debates, and a focused discussion is required. It is best to limit the discussion on issues highlighted in the research to analyse leadership configurations. The literature review covered in this chapter gave rise to the questions for the survey and the interview guide.

The following section reviews the historical context of leadership in the current business environment.

2.2 THE HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE OF LEADERSHIP

This section provides a review of the historical context of leadership as a discipline. The theories and leadership styles contribute to leadership as a study field. People have created leadership roles, which has led to people being recognised as leaders as they assume these positions (Pestana & Codina, 2018:2). Psychological theories support the concept of creating leadership roles and recognise that the origin of leadership flows from promoting shared identity with their followers (Slater, Coffee, Barker, Haslam & Steffens, 2019:271).

Leaders who battle to relate to and share identity with employees are seen with dismal performance (Rathmell, Brown & Kilburg, 2019:151). Therefore, shared-identity leadership is paramount to developing an excellent social climate during change. Shared-identity leadership theories were derived from social approaches (Taljfel & Turner, 1979:37) and

self-regulation theories (Turner, Hogg, Oaks, Reicher & Wetherell, 1987**:**366; Hadwin, Järvelä & Miller, 2018:84). The core of these theories suggests that a person can derive a sense of whom leaders are by perceiving themselves as individuals focusing on what makes them different from other individuals (personal identity). Leaders also perceive themselves as part of a group (Jetten, Haslam, Cruwys, Greenaway, Haslam & Steffens, 2017:797).

However, the interpersonal relationships of leaders have acquired greater relevance in leadership studies. These are referred to as the transformational and transactional (self-categorisation concepts) leadership styles (Pestana & Codina, 2018:3). From these two practical approaches, Higgs (2003:275), Haslam, Reicher and Platow (2011:205) and Turner and Haslam (2014:5) have posited that there is a set relationship between a leader and the followers. This relationship is well-defined in the quality of work of leaders and employees, and the organisation rewards them for completing their duties (Martin, 2015:332). When a leader enhances the relationship with employees, their motivation improves, and any project in the organisation is likely to become profitable (Afsar, Badir, Saeed &Hafeez, 2017:322). As a result, leadership became known as a process in which it is fundamental to belong to a group and create that sense of belonging for both the followers and the leader (Chiniara & Bentein, 2016:130).

In the contemporary business environment, the classification of various leadership dimensions has also generated a basis for research leadership styles and behaviours (Khan, Nawaz & Khan, 2016:1). Eventually, a consensus between scholars and practitioners in leadership was reached on this matter. The agreement considered leadership to be a flexible developmental process in which a facet is built each time new research is done, seldom disregarding what was derived before (Khan et al., 2016:1). However, leaders need to believe that their performance capability leads to their appointment in a leadership role (McClean, Barnes, Courtrig & Johnson, 2019:500).

2.3   THE ROLE OF LEADERSHIP

According to McIntosh (2013:1336), a role is defined as a purpose that someone or something has in a situation, organisation, society, or relationship. The performance of a role should include other people also involved in achieving the same goal. Leaders provide a sound vision to encourage employees to work towards the same goal (Fountaine, McCarthy & Saleh, 2019:66). These employees are referred to as a "role set" (Leroy, Anseel, Gardner

& Sels, 2015:1679). The role set should continually interact with the leader (role holder) and usually establishes the expectations of having a stake in the leader's role (Yuesti & Sumantra, 2017:99).

Creating a role is an ongoing unspecified process that is not finite and becomes more significant when a process needs to be implemented (Katz, 2015:138). Role specification depends on appropriate organisational support enabling the leaders to establish a new state and capitalise on the outcomes of the expected role (Hourahane, West, Barnes, Rees, Bowyer, Dundon & Allen, 2012:3147; Manley & Titchen, 2017:257). The role of a leader is accomplished when the following matters are taken into consideration before the work process starts (Kadian-Baumeyer, 2016):

- They set a clear vision helping employees understand and accept the organisation's future state. A good leader will influence performance by explaining the vision and the importance of every person's role.
- They motivate the employees by identifying the needs and wants of employees, giving them what they need, and praising a job well done. A good leader knows the importance of this and will communicate with their team to learn more about their needs and wants.
- When guiding employees, leaders define the roles in the work process and provide the staff with the tools needed to perform and participate in their efforts along the way. A good leader will explain the tasks, provide the tools, direct the work, and assist the team if they run into problems.
- They are building morale by pulling everyone together to work towards a common goal A good leader will let the team know how much their work is appreciated. A simple gesture like throwing an impromptu party to recognise the teams' small victories can ignite team spirit.

The leader's performance plays a crucial role in the organisation, and their behaviour has a significant influence on the work behaviour, performance, and wellbeing of their employees (Atmojo, 2015:115). It was found that the literature on leadership is scarce when it comes to research on the roles of employees, their health, and their wellbeing; instead, it is focused on leadership performance (Barling & Frone, 2017:213). Employee performance is only considered when it benefits leadership performance. Employees' wellbeing is treated as a secondary issue (Guest, 2017:24) or a mediator that helps explain the leadership

performance relationship (Montano, Reeske, Franke & Huffmeier, 2017:327). Figure 2.1 presents the levels, characteristics, and roles of leadership.

Leadership level	Leadership characteristics	Leadership role
Level 5- executive	Personal humility and fierce resolve to make good.	Usually board members, delegate but not being members of decision making, mentors, and serve as a role model.
Level 4- frontline	Vigorous pursuit of a compelling vision.	Designs products or services, at this level the leader is part of the team.
Level 3- networked leader	Organises people and resources for effective outcome of the goal.	The leader holds a meeting and get the input from the team, listens to the team and take that information and decides.
Level 2- contributing team member	Contribute towards achievement of the goals.	Work with people, guide people, and help to get resources. Here the leader holds team meeting and solicits ideas.
Level 1- highly capable individual	Focus on talent, knowledge, skills and work habits.	Geared for talent development, teach about change. Some leaders seem to have no time and everything is treated as an emergency.

Figure 2.1: Levels, characteristics, and roles of leadership
Source: Collins (2013:70) and Weddle (2013:2)

Leaders are found at various levels in the organisation (executive, senior, middle, and lower management levels) which mainly have to do with influencing organisational outcomes, significantly shaping employees' attitudes towards change, and modifying the antecedents and moderators of the predisposition to change (Appelbaum, Degbe, MacDonald & NguyenQuang, 2015:75). Once leadership and change work conjointly and become inseparable, the one cannot function without the other (Burnes, Hughes & By, 2018:141).

As shown in Figure 2.1, the levels of leadership differ, with Level 5 leaders at the top of the hierarchy of capabilities. Level 5 is responsible for transforming an organisation from good to excellent (Collins, 2013:70). Levels 1 to 4 lie beneath Level 5. Although they all have a function, none has the power of Level 5. Individual leaders do not need to proceed sequentially through each level of the hierarchy to reach the top; however, Level 5 leaders require the capabilities of lower levels, in addition to the unique characteristics of Level 5 (Collins, 2013:70).

2.4   BENEFITS OF LEADERSHIP ROLE

Irrespective of the scenario mentioned above, leaders' competitiveness is vital in leadership studies (Lobel, 1990:40; Jabbar, 2015:1125). Competitive leaders can be influential by showing that they are part of the group they represent. They defend the group, remind the group members who they are and where they are headed, and create a future scenario that responds to the group's identity (Molenberghs, Prochilo, Steffens, Zacher & Haslam, 2017:2168). Furthermore, Molenberghs et al. (2017:2170) maintained that a competent leader portrays a collective-oriented vision for the future by forming a superordinate collective identity between the leader and the followers. To be a good leader, one should demonstrate experience, knowledge, commitment, patience, and skills to negotiate and work with others to achieve the organisation's goals (Amanchukwu, Stanley & Ololube,2015:6). Starting with a short description of leadership role, experience, knowledge, commitment, planning and skill, it is essential to view a broader range of benefits of a leadership role in context, as shown in Figure 2.1.

To understand the benefits of leadership, one should look at it according to its capacity to influence subordinates. Leadership benefits are earned by unleashing people's power and potential in the work environment for the organisation's greater good (Burnes et al., 2018:142). A leader is not alone on this journey but is a crucial figure whose activities can determine other people's wellbeing and the broader good of work procedures (Burnes et al., 2018:141). This leadership process is essentially a shared experience. It is a journey through time with benefits to be gained and perils to be overcome by all parties involved, specifically the leader and the follower (Solinger, Jansen & Cornelissen, 2019:6). Leadership addresses organisational challenges, promotes a collaborative culture, and breaks down barriers (Chen, 2015:53).

Despite the challenges and barriers, leadership and culture are significant determinants of any organisational change process (Al-Ali, Singh, Al-Nahyan & Sohal, 2017:727). Organisational culture is difficult to change and underpins the values, norms, and beliefs within the organisation. These define appropriate behaviour, support the leader's relationship with subordinates, and make decisions easy (Ragsdell, Corfield & Paton, 2016:90). Thus, leadership uses the organisational culture to adapt to the necessary change processes and consider every action as they collaborate, control, and change the organisation (Al-Ali et al., 2017:723). When a leader has illuminated and shared the organisational vision,

they can focus on serving and being responsive to the people's needs and understand that the role of leadership is to remove barriers and assist people in achieving the vision (Blanchard, 2018:29). Leadership ensures that a strong culture is formed, in which everyone's energy is aligned (Blanchard, 2018:3). Leaders should also function at a high level to mobilise others by uniting them behind the vision and activating a sense of belonging amongst employees (Criswell, Rushton, Nachtigall, Staggs, Alemdar & Cappelli, 2018:1266).

Additionally, leading at a high level helps to create organisational contentment (Blanchard, 2018:24). This process ensures that leadership members accomplish beneficial results while acting with respect, care, and fairness for all team members (Blanchard, 2018:24). Leadership at lower echelons captures the interaction between the leader, follower, and the context in which they exist (Meuser, Gardener, Dinh, Hu, Liden & Lord, 2016:1376). However, higher echelons of leadership are more responsible for setting organisational strategy, engaging in more boundary spanning, and creating organisational structures and policies (Meuser et al., 2016:1387). This situation shows that leadership is the fundamental thread that runs through the gamut of organisational activities, including change management initiatives (Holloway, 2015:8). The following section discusses various leadership theories as leadership is seen through the organisation.

2.5   LEADERSHIP THEORIES

Leaders are often considered to be chief role players in dealing effectively with challenges and consequences in the global business environment (Vasilescu, 2019:47). Several leadership theories were developed to clarify how and why specific individuals are prone to becoming great leaders (Vasilescu, 2019:47). The main leadership theories that emerged during the 20th century include the Great Man theories, Trait theories, Contingency or Situational theories, Styles theories, Behavioural theories, Skills theories, Participative theories, Management theories, and Relationship theories (Vasilescu, 2019:47). These leadership theories are based on the qualities or characteristics of leaders and aim to establish whether the leader is good or bad (Latham, 2014:11). Essentially, these theories address pertinent abilities of a leader and not the subordinates. These leadership theories are based on the exercise of authority over employees and comprise transformational, transactional, servant and charismatic leadership (Pityana, 2018:79). The leadership theories are used to understand and find solutions to leadership problems and keep pace with current working

conditions (Anderson, Baur, Griffith & Buckley, 2017:245). Table 2.1 gives a short description of these leadership theories.

Table 2.1: Leadership theories

Leadership theories	Description
Great Man theory	In 1841, Carlyle stated that Great Man theory leaders are those that were born with heroic potential; the individual appears brave, and people generally consider him or her a champion.
Trait theory	Early theories that supported the notion that leaders are born with certain distinguishable traits signified that the individual has characteristics and a personality that naturally lead to a leadership position (Colbert, Judge, Choi & Wang, 2012:670). In essence, a leader should possess qualities that are authentic and evident to people around them (Landis, Hill & Harvey, 2014:98).
Contingency or situational theories	This theory was first introduced in 1964. It developed a conceptual framework that there was no single way to lead, and for leaders to be effective, they must be able to adapt to the situation and transform their leadership between task-oriented and relationship-oriented (Fiedler, 1964:150). No leadership theory is sufficient as a separate concept: leadership is reliant on factors like quality of followers, the work situation of the followers or other variables inside or outside the organisation, shape the leadership milieu to be situational, and choose their actions (Amanchukwu, et al., 2015:8).
Style theories	Laissez-faire and democratic leadership fall under style theories in which employees display a high degree of satisfaction. Style theories also include autocratic leadership in which employees are excluded from decision-making (Portolese, Upperman & Trumpy, 2018:43).
Behavioural theories	This theory is based on a conviction that leaders are not born but made. It also introspects the behaviour of a leader and takes particular interest in actions rather than mental qualities, concluding that people can learn to be leaders. This theory has stimulated comparisons between autocratic and democratic leadership styles (Amanchukwu et al., 2015:8). The autocratically led employee's express hostility in the absence of the leader compared to democratically led employees who show optimism and continue to work in the absence of the leader.
Skills theories	This theory focuses on information converted to knowledge by a leader, as well as acquired skills and abilities. It is considered significant in the practice of effective leadership (Vasilescu, 2019:49).
Participative theories	This theory focuses on the inputs of others and encourages involvement and contributions from all team members. However, only the leader has the right to permit the team's input (Maloş, 2012:417).
Management theories	Also known as 'transactional' theories. These theories were conceptualised in the 1970s and were activated to diverge from the specific perspectives of exchange between a leader and a follower. Bass and Avolio (1994:13) considered this a contingent reward relationship evidenced by active and positive exchanges between a leader and followers.
Relationship theories	These theories suggest a transformational relationship between a leader and followers. The leaders are said to have significant ethical and moral values and constantly inspire their followers to achieve a common goal (Burns, 1978:12).

Source: Adapted from Amanchukwu et al. (2015:8) and Vasilescu (219:47)

All the theories in Table 2.1 arose from leadership studies, and every time a survey on leadership is conducted, a definitive perspective is described (Portolese et al., 2018:41). The narratives from the popular press like *The Sunday Times* and *The Citizen* have frequently addressed the increased lack of a good work ethic in leadership, especially in public organisations. Knowing that leadership is an essential part of any organisation (Martin, 2015:332), the overview of leadership in the literature led the researcher to consider other factors that should be included to improve leadership.

From an African context, the researcher was motivated to consider Ngambi's (2011) leadership principles in addition to what has been propagated in global leadership theories. The RARE leadership model proposed by Ngambi (2011a:7) has not been researched as extensively as other models and theories of leadership (Pityana, 2018:73). The RARE leadership model does not fall under a particular theory or leadership style; instead, it comprises four qualities that leaders need to include in their routines. These qualities are being responsible (R) for their actions as leaders, being accountable (A) for all activities that take place within the organisation, being relevant (R) with the current situation, and showing ethical (E) conduct as leaders (Ngambi, 2011a:29). None of the traditional leadership theories highlights clearly how a leader becomes responsible, accountable, relevant, and ethical. Instead, they are more focused on the characteristics of an individual leader.

2.6   LEADERSHIP STYLES

Leadership cannot operate in isolation. However, the theories listed in Table 2.1 help us to understand the perspective from which the leader is operating, without mentioning exactly how the leader manages subordinates. No single theoretical approach to leadership assures victory (Hoye, Smith, Nicholson & Stewart, 2018:142). Instead, a combination of two or more leadership theories should be used based on their strengths and benefits (Uzohue, Yaya & Akintayo, 2016:23). Every time organisational change occurs, leadership roles need to be adapted to address the types of changes and developments the institution faces as it aims to achieve its goals (FarajAllah, Talla, Abu-Naser & Al Shobaki, 2018:21). The researcher therefore posits that leadership theories need to be integrated to handle the challenges of the 21st century (O'Connell, 2014:183; Anderson et al*.,* 2017:245).

The term 'leadership style' is used to identify the leader's interaction with followers through information sharing and managing employees (Mittal & Dhar, 2015:906). Initially,

leadership styles had only two main categories, namely, the directive category and the empowering category. The directive category uses a military command structure. In contrast, in the empowering category, the leader offers employees the opportunity to make decisions, while they concentrate on team communication and coordination (Ford, Menchine, Burner, Arora, Inaba, Demetriades & Yersinia, 2016:550). The directive style has been increasingly criticised because it was used for simple, routine, and easy-to-do tasks but more complex work circumstances led to the need for the application of new leadership styles (Ford et al., 2016:551).

Oganisations are under immense pressure because of continuous challenges in the macroeconomic environment, and they require effective organisational change management (Hecklau, Galeitzke, Flachs & Kohl, 2016:1-2). These dynamic business environments need rapid responses that only an effective leader can deliver (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015:239). The leadership style that an organisation adopts will contribute either to the success (Voon, Lo, Ngui & Ayob, 2011:24) or failure of a business, as it can influence the actions of the employees either positively or negatively (Asrar-ul-Ha & Kuchinke, 2016:62). Leadership styles are also associated with ensuring effective change management to help the organisation achieve its goals (Alqatawenh, 2018:18). Therefore, it is crucial to understand various leadership styles that can lead the organisation through an uncertain business period (Gandolfi, Stone & Deno, 2017:350).

Despite their differences, all the leadership theories mentioned in Table 2.1 indicate that an appropriate leadership style should consist of three key elements: influencing the relationship between the leader and followers, the ability to implement organisational change management, and having a shared purpose (Rost, 1995:133; Borgmann, Rowold & Bormann, 2016:1340). These three elements allow leaders to decide what work to do or how work should be done and provide a sense of overall control (Dodge, Dwyer, Witzeman, Neylon & Taylor, 2017:23). The adoption of a specific leadership style thus determines how a leader will inspire or influence others to the extent that their capacity to imagine, think, and act in specific ways is stimulated (Sinclair & Lips-Wiersma, 2008:211; Cleavenger & Munyon, 2013:351; Heslin & Keating, 2017:373; Palazzeschi, Bucci & Di Fabio, 2018:2). Leaders should consistently consider the three key elements and relate them to their competencies against a backdrop of the organisational policies and procedures that are intended to facilitate environmental screening for change (Sanghi, 2016:6).

Furthermore, leaders are vital decision-makers who determine the acquisition, development, and disposition of organisational resources, converting them into valuable products or services and delivering value to organisational stakeholders (Vasilescu, 2019:50). Hence, leaders play a significant role in managing change and sustaining competitive advantage (Madanchian, Hussein, Noordin & Taherdoost, 2016:19). Managing change is facilitated when leaders effectively carry out their roles in ensuring the best possible organisational performance (Jing & Avery, 2016:107) because success leads to trust from their employees (Edú-Valsania, Moriano & Molero, 2016:502). Essentially, leadership engagement with followers and the organisation at large contributes to a positive outlook on change processes (Holten & Brenner, 2015:2) and ensures that everyone is responsible for their actions during change (Cameron & Green, 2019:335). Therefore, the leader's leadership style will determine the organisation's direction towards the achievement of goals (Khan, Khan, Qureshi, Ismail, Rauf, Latif & Tahir, 2015:87).

If leaders display the desired quality in their work, followers will be inspired (Joubert & Feldman, 2017:9-10). If the display of the leadership style has a strong positive effect on subordinates, it motivates employees to perform (Elqadri, Priyono, Suci & Chandra, 2015:183). It also enhances employee's self-worth and collective efficacy (Shamir, Arthur & House, 2018:34). Choosing a leadership style that involves employees can result in the success and sustainability of projects (Roufechaei, Ramli, Bakar, Ismail & Pakir, 2016:339). Therefore, leaders who have established social interaction with employees are considered transformational leaders who create supportive organisational settings (Phaneuf, Boudrias, Rousseau & Brunelle, 2016:30).

Effective leaders are listeners and proactively support employees (Phaneuf et al., 2016:31). In addition to providing organisational support to employees, leaders are also expected to be self-reliant and to assist organisations in achieving their desired goals (Office of the National Economic and Social Development Board, Prime Minister's Office, 2015:30). Therefore, when leaders provide a self-report about their conduct with employees, it will portray their leadership expertise. The recognition of leadership expertise is vital for the organisational change management progress (Rathmell*.,* 2019:151).

Various leadership styles that can address the gaps in the dominant charismatic, transformational, and transactional leadership styles have been proposed in management literature since 2000 (Anderson & Sun, 2017:76). Emerging leadership studies have

suggested that ideological, pragmatic, authentic, ethical, spiritual, distributed, integrated and servant leadership styles should be considered in analysing leadership. Leadership researchers have, however, concluded that many of these new leadership styles overlapped with the transformational leadership style and are nuances of the existing theories, rather than something completely original (Anderson & Sun, 2017:76). Thus, leadership scholars jointly decided to develop a new 'full-range' leadership style, which embraces both the similarities and differences in these various styles (Anderson & Sun, 2017:76). However, it is challenging to consider all these styles in one situation. Hence, only laissez-faire, transactional, transformational, and change-oriented leadership styles are discussed in this study. These four styles are regarded as the most common leadership styles by Appelbaum et al. (2015:75) and Govender (2018:4).

Table 2.2: Four common leadership styles

Leadership style	Description
Laissez-faire leadership	This type of leadership is referred to as non-leadership because leaders of this nature, are absent when needed, fail to follow up on requests for assistance, and resist expressing views on important issues. In short, this style is passive and dismissive (Wong & Giessner, 2018:757).
Transactional leadership	Transactional leadership focuses on day-to-day transactions and accomplishing goals, both with and through others. This leadership style focuses on employee compliance and relies on organisational rewards and punishments to influence performance (Wong, Ho & Chan, 2018:112). Transactional leaders engage in 'transactions' with their followers: They exchange praises, rewards, and resources for followers' willingness to make an effort to achieve the leaders' goals. It also includes compliance with leaders (Kailasapathy & Jayakody, 2018:3035).
Transformational leadership	Transformational leadership is a stronger predictor of both job satisfaction and overall satisfaction. It includes the characteristics of individual influence, spiritual encouragement and intellectual stimulation (Nanjundeswaraswamy & Swamy, 2014:57). According to Antonakis and Day (2018:53), transformational leadership may universally be effective, but this effectiveness can vary across different contexts and contingencies. Transformational leaders are persuasive due to their charisma and the compelling vision of a better future that they convincingly communicate to followers (Chan & Mak, 2014:675).
Change-oriented leadership	Change-oriented leadership is described in relation to the process of change, rather than stemming from individual traits. It is understood as the manner in which leaders treat and involve employees during change. Effective change-oriented leadership further comprises key elements and characteristics of transformational leadership, albeit at a lower level of abstraction, and at a greater level of situational specificity (Herold et al., 2008:348).

Source: Wong et al. (2018:160)

A leadership style is described as the manner and technique of providing direction to the organisation, implementing plans, and inspiring people. Therefore, leaders should select and

adapt to the style according to the organisational situation (Amanchukwu et al., 2015:9). In large organisations like SOEs, a similar sentiment was raised by Appelbaum et al. (2015:75). If these common styles work together with organisational commitment, employees' job satisfaction is guaranteed (Nanjundeswaraswamy & Swamy, 2014:58). Both leadership styles and the leader's capabilities can contribute to project success within the organisation if implemented appropriately (Jiang, 2014:51). A summary of these common leadership styles is presented in Table 2.2.

Leadership scholars claim that organisations' various leadership styles cannot guarantee leadership effectiveness during a change process (Kang, Solomon & Choi, 2015:531). Studies of leadership efficiency have resulted in the emergence of trends in describing various leadership types and their impact on the leadership process (Bolman & Deal, 2017:13). Respectively, each leadership style has its time and place with none being moral or immoral (Cooper, 2015:50). Nonetheless, leaders' role has changed, and the success of any organisation is determined by the leadership style and practices (Saleem, 2015:563). Consequently, the situational analysis highlighted in the leadership and strategic management literature proclaims that the leadership style needs to fit nicely into organisational procedures to effectively implement a change management process (Shao, Feng & Hu, 2016:131). Therefore, to understand this fit between a leadership style and the implementation phase, similarities must be well-articulated to help achieve successful organisational performance (Van der Voet et al., 2016: 844). The four common leadership styles can further be described as follows:

2.6.1   Laissez-faire Leadership

Laissez-faire leaders exhibit frequent absence and a lack of involvement during critical stages of a process, which employees sometimes appreciate but is largely ineffective (Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1999:443; Portolese et al., 2018:41). This state of leadership is also referred to as ghost leadership (Stagl, 2020). These leaders typically do not reply to emails or return phone calls and regularly reschedule meetings (Stagl, 2020). Employees work remotely and cannot go to the leader's office to interact with him or her (Stagl, 2020). Consequently, the laissez-faire leader lets employees make decisions and plays no real leadership role despite assuming the position (Khan et al., 2016:1).

2.6.2 Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership is based on setting clear objectives and goals for followers and using punishment or rewards to encourage compliance with these goals (Burns, 1978:182; Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016:190). The inclusion of transactional leadership is essential since it is resource based (due to exchange orientation between a leader and subordinates) and is likely to produce expected business context outcomes (Kailasapathy & Jayakody, 2018:3035). This leadership style is augmented by transformational leadership (Judge & Piccolo, 2004:756; Tafvelin, Nielsen, Von Thiele Schwarz & Stenling, 2019:156). The term augment means to extend or amplify the leader's on-job fit or group fit on work engagement (Cai, Cai, Sun & Ma, 2018:1).

2.6.3 Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership is a style in which the leaders determine the required change, position themselves to guide the change through inspiration, and implement the change with the commitment of members of the group (Bass, 1999:11; Anderson, 2017:9). In essence, transformational leaders pay attention to the individual needs of employees and have a positive impact on their affective commitment to change as they express the vision and goals of the change and the way it will benefit the organisation (Wang, Oh, Courtright & Colbert, 2011:223; Svendsen & Joensson, 2016:359). Transformational leadership is strongly linked to charismatic leadership as their similarities are greater than their differences (Fiol, Harris & House, 1999:451; Walter & Bruch, 2009:1428, Anderson & Sun, 2017:76). In support of the affective nature of the transformational leadership style, expressions of enthusiasm and optimism for change are consistent and are likely to alleviate employees' potential for fear and anger during the change process (Kiefer, 2005:892; Chen, Eberly, Chiang, Farh & Cheng, 2014:799). This leadership style is more prevalent in public organisations than in private organisations (Antonakis & House, 2013:15).

2.6.4 Full-rage Leadership (connection between transactional and transformational)

The intersection between transactional and transformational leadership is referred to as full range leadership (Adserias, Charleston & Jackson, 2017:319). Full-range leadership comprises the characteristics of the transformational leadership style (individualised consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation) and idealised influence

(contingent rewards, passive management by exception, and active management by exception), as stated by Willis, Clarke and O'Connor (2017:281). According to Phaneuf et al. (2016:30), these characteristics are demonstrated through four leadership behaviours, namely: individualised consideration (where the leaders respect and care about their subordinate), intellectual stimulation (where the leaders tend to challenge the status quo and there is overall openness to change), inspirational motivation (where the leaders motivate employee's performance and use an attractive future vision to inspire them), and idealised influence (where the leader's personality corresponds to charismatic attitudes), providing motivation that makes leaders appear as role models and positively influences the followers (Njiraini, K'Aol & Linge, 2018:23).

2.6.5   Change-oriented Leadership

With change-oriented leadership, the leader typically promotes change and monitors and interprets the environment hoping to find new opportunities for the organisation (Øygarden, Olsen & Mikkelsen, 2020:692). This style(s) is also referred to as "change-oriented leadership behaviour" and became applicable in the mid-1980s as organisational change was not seen as a pertinent process (Ekvall & Arvonen, 1994:139). The change-oriented leadership style in organisations is seen as a combination of three behaviours demonstrated towards employees during times of change. These behaviours facilitate the production process, service delivery, and employee relations (Ekvall & Arvonen 1994:139; Dodge et al., 2017:24). These three fundamental elements (behaviours) determine leadership competence (Rost, 1995:133; Borgmann et al., 2016:1340). Despite the responsibility that comes with the three key elements, the leader should still include the use of theories and styles for a positive organisational outcome, irrespective of the normal work process (Carasco-Saul, Kim & Kim, 2015:41). The leadership style determines the culture of the work environment, job satisfaction, and job performance (Chandra, 2016:131). Therefore, one cannot exclude the alignment of theories and styles when dealing with the leadership literature (Holten & Brenner, 2015:12).

The literature on leadership reveals that leadership theories and styles have been refined and modified over time, and that none of the leadership theories and styles is entirely irrelevant (Khan et al., 2016:1). The different dimensions of the leadership theories and leadership styles show some alignment which creates a need for organisational and social research of leadership styles and behaviours (Khan et al., 2016:1).

2.7   LEADERSHIP LITERATURE ALIGNED

Alignment is described as finding a connection between two concepts (leadership theory and leadership style) when the third predicting factor (leadership literature review) is involved, resulting in organisational success (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015:244). It is necessary to peruse a large amount of leadership literature in different sectors and disciplines to understand it fully

(Vasilescu, 2019:47), and it is essential to find a link between the theories and styles of leadership to determine their potential for effective change management (Khan et al., 2016:1). The alignment of leadership theories and leadership styles intensifies the roles that leaders need to play as the organisation goes through change. When the leader shows a high level of performance (showing theoretical orientation) and the ability to delegate staff, it means a specific leadership style has been selected (Van Wart, 2013:553).

Leadership theories and styles are linked systematically to organise and summarise the leadership literature (Harms, Crede, Tynan, Leon & Jeung, 2017:178). For instance, if a review is done on 'authoritarian supervision', it may result in stress and burnout to the leader and resistant employees (Harms et al., 2017:178). For example, the perception will be that the leader has heroic qualities similar to those identified in the 'Great Man leadership theory', and the resultant leadership style will be labelled as autocratic. From whichever perspective the leader is looked at, either in leadership personality traits or how the leader works with their subordinates, it is essential to acknowledge that the leader is always guided either by a theoretical perspective or a leadership style.

Items that align have a more significant impact on the organisation's outcomes (Reich & Benbasat, 2000:81; Maharaj & Brown, 2015:1). Consequently, leadership styles have proven to be central in representing the views that employees have regarding the leadership personality possessed by a single leader (Lutz Allen, Smith & Da Silva, 2013:26). Therefore, leadership styles are applied in activities that require a high degree of precision, confidence level, sensitivity, care, and expertise, which may differ from general management-oriented portfolios, "as one size does not fit all" (Rathmell et al., 2019:149). Figure 2.2 illustrates the link (or alignment) between the theories and styles in the leadership literature.
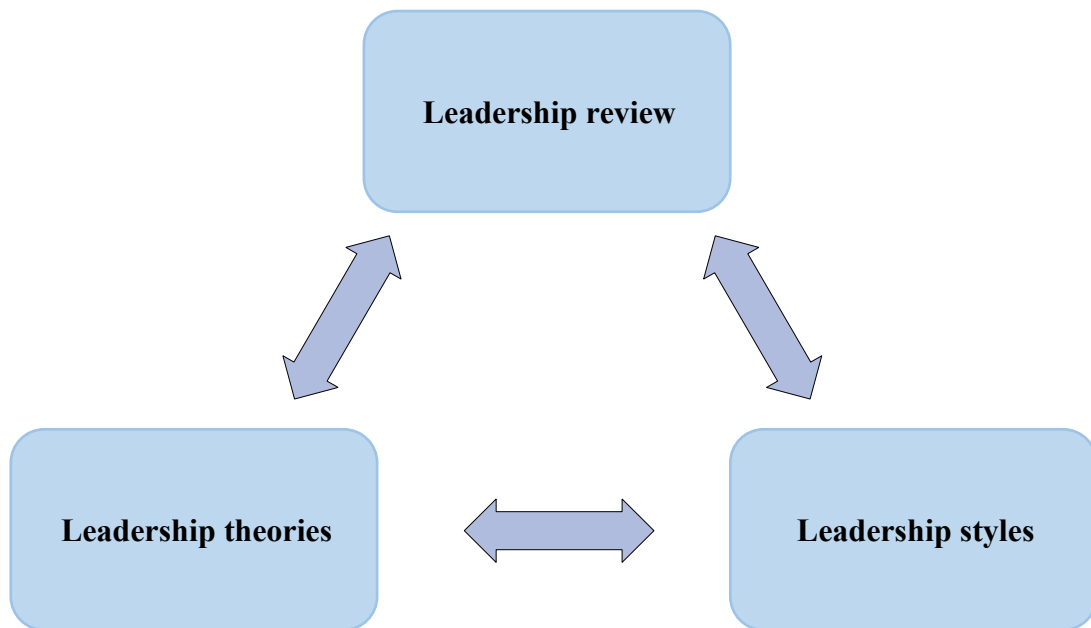
Figure 2.2: The alignment between leadership theories and leadership styles
Source: Author's own compilation

Leadership theories can modify leadership styles: the alteration of these leadership styles is based on beliefs, values, decision-making, situational analysis, and organisational culture (Kibbe, 2019:27). The leadership styles constitute leadership traits and behaviour that fall under leadership theories (Kibbe, 2019:28). These trait theories are commonly connected with clusters of transformational and charismatics leadership styles (Meuser et al., 2016:1392). With all leadership activities in the organisation and before leadership performance is perceived, it is vital to review the literature to find a link between which leadership theories were applied and what leadership styles are practiced (Harms et al., 2017:178). This practice results in a particular effect on subordinates, whether positive or negative (LePine, Zhang, Crawford & Rich, 2016:1036). This also verifies that leadership is elusive and complex, with multiple dimensions, concepts, and implications (Arena & Uhl-Bien, 2016:24). Therefore, it is imperative to recognise that various leadership styles exist, while no particular leadership style is universal (Amanchukwu et al., 2015:6).

The literature revealed that leadership competency studies have resulted in the emergence of trends in describing various leadership styles and their impact on the work process (Bolman & Deal, 2017:13). Depending on how they are described, these leadership styles depend on the behaviour and traits that are best defined in leadership theories (Pityana, 2018:79). Other leadership style concepts consider issues like emotional intelligence, characteristics, and the aptitude of a leader (Jiang, 2014:51). Lastly, leadership styles will

not be the same in all situations. Ideally, leaders need to be flexible to apply the appropriate style and structure of leadership theory in every situation in the organisation (Ford et al., 2016:554).

2.8   INDICATORS OF EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP

A leader's effectiveness needs to be continuously assessed and updated (Sullivan, 2016: S51). Effective leadership is crucial for initiating change, planning, and organisational control (Govender, Proches & Kader, 2018:159). Influential leaders can adjust their behaviour to the team members' readiness to the extent that the followers will demonstrate ability and willingness to accomplish a specific task (Bosse, Duell, Memon, Treur & Van der Wal, 2017:606). Signs indicating the inclusion of employees, and which create a cheerful readiness to change, are grouped as follows, according to Oakley and Taylor (2017:3):

2.8.1   Satisfaction of the Needs of Individuals within a Group

Employee satisfaction is supported by authenticity in leadership by ensuring that employees are recognised and empowered (Laschinger & Fida, 2015:278). Employees need to trust that the leader will give them constant support during change processes (Yasir, Imran, Irshad, Mohamad & Khan, 2016:4). The positive affective tone established by the leader in the organisation results in team authenticity (Raes, Boon, Kyndt & Dochy, 2015:476) as follows:

- **Authenticity** – when workplace culture creates genuineness.
- **Authentic leadership** – when the leader includes all employees without any single discrimination.
- **Trust** - a climate of trust is created by the leader, who mediates the employees' perceptions.

Once there is a feeling of authenticity in an individual team member, authentic leadership and trust are established, and employees feel that their contribution has been acknowledged and have a sense of belonging (White, 2014:18).

2.8.2   Belongingness and Uniqueness

Belongingness in a term is not often used but is evident in the presence of authentic supervision, which is true to self and is in alignment with one's beliefs (Turner & Palmer, 2018:21). The essence of the term is (Turner & Palmer, 2018:21) as follows:

- **Belonging** - employee's feelings of their authentic selves are accepted, wanted, and valued.
- **Equality and inclusion norms** - when the workforce culture is a valuable predictor of future feelings of inclusion.

The followers' ability is determined by the extent to which they possess the skills, experience, and knowledge needed to perform the task without the leader's intervention (Thompson & Glasø, 2018:575). Thus, the behavioural indicators of followers are revealed by their readiness to work as depicted in Figure 2.3.

Able and Willing - Indicators	**Unable but Willing - Indicators**
Keeps the leader informed of the progress of the task	Anxious or excited
Can operate autonomously	Interested and responsive
Shares good and bad news	Demonstrate moderate ability
Makes effective decisions regarding task	Receptive to input
Perform at a high standard	Attentive
Is aware of expertise	Enthusiastic
	New task, no experience

Behavioural indicators of follower readiness

Able but Unwilling - Indicators	**Unable and Unwilling - Indicators**
Has demonstrated knowledge and ability	Not performing task to acceptable level
Appears hesitant to finish or take next step	Being intimidated by task
Seems scared, overwhelmed, confused	Being unclear about directions
Seems reluctant to perform alone	Procrastination
Solicits frequent feedback	Not finishing tasks
	Asking questions about tasks
	Avoiding the task or passing the buck
	Being defensive or uncomfortable

Figure 2.3: Behavioural indicators of follower readiness
Source: Papworth, Milne and Boak (2009:594)

As shown in Figure 2.3, indicators arise from what is valuable (Zhou, Guan, Xin, Mak & Deng, 2016:124). Our understanding of what is of value to us reflects our choices (Wilson, 2016:2), and judgement of value becomes inevitable. Therefore, behaviour as an element of value indicates readiness for work performance once it is adopted into our actions (Hayes, 2016:869).

2.9   CAPABILITIES AND LEADERSHIP ROLE QUALITIES

Businesses in the marketplace are faced with rapid changes. Organisations need to survive and grow economically. Thus, leadership needs to be capable of handling the ever-changing business environment. Leadership capabilities are skills used by the leader to anticipate activities, imagine possibilities, maintain flexibility, and empower others to bring about successful organisational change (Dada, Rowland, Adewale, Ufua & Hezekiah, 2021:162). Leadership roles are closely linked with the capabilities needed in an organisation (Schoemaker, Heaton & Teece, 2018:37). The following sections discuss leadership capabilities needed to assess an organisational culture for the sustainability of the organisation and various organisational facets:

2.9.1   Leadership Ensures that Organisational Culture is Adapted

Capabilities and culture are popular concepts that are linked in academic literature (Dajani, Zaki, Mohamed & Saad, 2016:42). Culture is vital for effective change (Dajani et al., 2016:46). However, the relationship between culture and change impacts the development of capabilities in the organisation (Carvalho, Sampaio, Rebentisch, Carvalho & Saraiva, 2019:1496). Leadership builds the capabilities of the organisation during the change process (Schoemaker et al., 2018:29).

However, effective cultural change starts with formulating a clear vision by the leader to create a commitment to change and modify systems, policies, and procedures that support the proposed organisational culture change (Cummings & Worley, 2014:526). Once articulated, the vision provides the purpose and a way forward for cultural change to begin (Cummings & Worley, 2014:526).

Capabilities in a leader are typically demonstrated within a specific context and can differ from level to level in the organisation; for example, when dealing with lower-levels employees, the leader may be more assertive, and at a higher level, the leader may be more collaborative (Forstner, Kamprath & Röglinger, 2014:145). Capabilities have similar characteristics and refer to a particular universal view that can be grouped into capability areas and, if applicable, into factors, which describe specific and independent elements reflecting the central characteristics of a given domain (Rosemann & Vom Brocke, 2015:107). Factors identified by Rosemann and Vom Brocke (2015:108) comprise strategic

alignment, governance, people, and related capability areas to determine the organisation's success.

It is important to scan the environment to detect opportunities and threats, and to maintain good interpersonal relationships with employees, as presented in the following sections:

2.9.1.1   Scanning the environment to detect opportunities and threats

The first component of leadership capabilities is sensing, meaning that the organisation is alert and scans the environment to detect opportunities in the new marketplace (Lopez-Cabrales, Bornay-Barrachina & Diaz-Fernández, 2017:257). Scanning involves monitoring the environment for developments resulting from innovation, experimentation, and understanding risks and social trends, which may prepare the organisation for actual or prospective change. This scanned information is analysed, interpreted, and acted upon (Daft & Weick, 1984:285; Thomas, Clark & Gioia,1993:240; Maitlis, 2005:22; Weick, 2012:4; Lopez-Cabrales et al., 2017:258). Scanning plays a vital role in alerting an organisation to potential issues, such as key changes within the internal and external environment, which may ultimately impact the functioning of the organisation (Sengupta & Ray, 2017:688). In the process of scanning, the interpretation and conceptual translations of the organisational events are developed and shared among members (Thomas et al.,1993:240; Djaballah, Hautbois & Desbordes, 2015:50).

According to Forstner et al. (2014:128), an organisation needs leadership capabilities that facilitate and help to govern change. Leadership capabilities are not restricted to predetermined lists of skills (Bachkirova & Smith, 2015:129). However, leadership skills include passion, consistency, vision, and enabling trust in employees (Hao & Yazdanifard, 2015:3). A leader with strong change management skills motivates and influences employees (Hao & Yazdanifard, 2015:3). On the other hand, as the leader communicates clearly with employees, employees are motivated to do their work (Hao & Yazdanifard, 2015:2). To interact with and communicate good change in the organisation to subordinates, leaders need to consider the following capabilities (Ancona, 2012:4; Salicru, 2018:33):

2.9.1.2   Good interpersonal relationships with employees

Good interpersonal relationships are characterised by:

- **Relating** – having an interpersonal relationship with their subordinates. Interpersonal relationships need to be in a healthy state to ensure that the team can communicate among themselves and achieve a clear understanding of the roles, goals and work together in a collaborative manner (Cameron & Green, 2019:76).

- **Sensemaking** – here, the leaders understand the context and demonstrate their comfort in their working environment.

- **Visioning** – the capability of creating a compelling image to demonstrate the leader's cognitive presence to share with employees the benefits the organisation will be gaining in the future.

- **Inventing** – changing the way people work together (Salicru, 2018:33).

Leadership is related and essential to follower outcomes, such as high job satisfaction, commitment, willingness, and improved performance (Brown, Treviño & Harrison, 2005:119; Manley, Titchen & Hardy, 2009:89; Walumbwa, Mayer, Wang, Wang, Workman & Christensen, 2011:205; Wright, Hassan & Park, 2016:647). Leadership includes the ability to connect and build a good interpersonal relationship with employees (Ancona, 2012:4; Goswami, Nair, Beeh & Grossenbacher, 2015:1083). Therefore, a trust-based relationship with employees supports and stimulates positive work engagement (Chughtai & Buckley, 2011:688), and reduces emotional exhaustion (Lambert, Hogan, Barton-Bellessa & Jiang, 2012:940). The positive and beneficial actions that leaders direct towards subordinates result in high-quality relationships that generate employees' obligations to reciprocate in equally positive ways (Maslyn, Schyns & Farmer, 2017:450). Relating to employees enhances a positive social climate in the workplace (Davis, 2018:2).

The social identity of leadership stems from the premise that a leader is a specific constituency leader (Echterhoff, Higgins & Levine, 2018:510). Leadership does not operate in space but centres on a sense of shared group membership amongst people within a given social context (Slater et al., 2018:380; Van Dick, Kerschreiter, Steffens, Akfirat, Avanzi, Dumont, Epitropaki, Fransen, Giessner, Gonzàlez & Kark, 2018:699). A study on social-identity leadership was conducted by Thomas, Amiot, Louis and Goddard (2017:662). This study concluded that this is a pathway to collective self-determination and found that the more leaders engage in social-identity leadership, the more followers perceive that they

belong with other group members. Figure 2.4 shows the four dimensions of social-identity leadership.
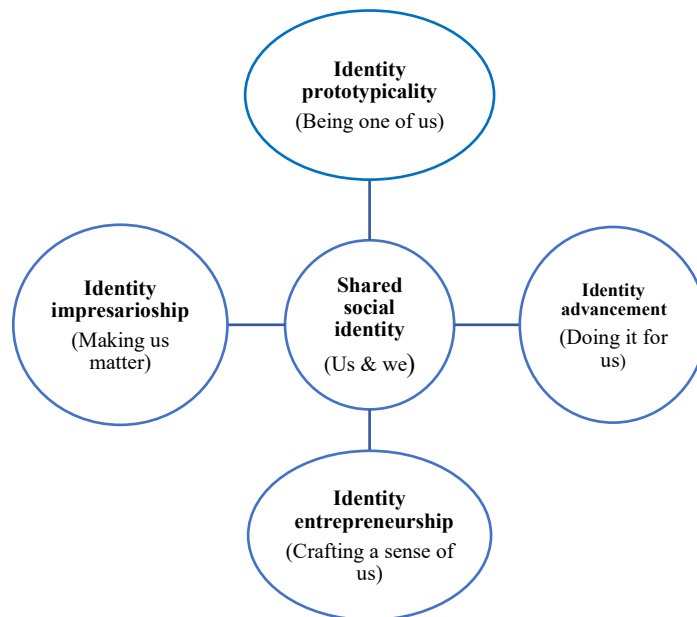
Figure 2.4: Four dimensions of social-identity leadership
Source: Steffens, Haslam and Reicher (2014:298)

Within the social relationship between a leader and employees, the leadership role is successfully fulfilled if it creates a sense that the leaders also belong to a group (Randel, Galvin, Shore, Ehrhart, Chung, Dean & Kedharnath, 2018:190). This inclusive leadership practice enables the effective functioning of diverse groups in ways not sufficiently described in the leadership literature (Randel et al., 2018:191). However, the four social-identity leadership dimensions as presented in Figure 2.4, illustrate how the leader can identify and refer to himself or herself in a group. This diversity includes identity prototypicality, identity advancement, identity entrepreneurship and identity impresarioship (Steffens, Haslam, Reicher, Platow, Fransen, Yang, Ryan, Jetten, Peters & Boen, 2014:1001). In the identity prototypicality, the following inventory items are identified for a leader: the leader embodies what the group stands for, the leader is a representative of the group members, the leader is the model member of the group, and the leader exemplifies what it means to be a member of the group (Barret & Hogg, 2017:50). In the identity advancement (i.e., shared social identity) Steffens et al. (2014:1003) explain leadership as the possession of characteristics that portray the individual as someone who promotes the interests of the group, acts as a champion for the group, stands up for the group, and has the group's best interests at heart. In the identity entrepreneurship, Meek and Wood (2016:1094) refer to this shared social identity as a situation where a leader makes people feel as part of

the same group, creates a sense of cohesion within the group, develops an understanding of what it means to be a member of the group, and continuously shapes the work behaviour of team members. Furthermore, Haslam et al. (2011:205) refer to the identity impresarioship as a leader who devises the activities that bring the group together, arranges events, helps the group to function virtually, and creates structures of work activities that are useful for group members.

2.9.1.3 Interpretation to make sure the complex situation of change makes sense

During environmental scanning, organisations should search for information about the proposed change. Interpretation should be provided as the organisation receives the information from scanning, and the action should be taken based upon this interpretation (Thomas et al., 1993:240). This process can occur both subconsciously and consciously (Poland, Buse, Antze, Haluza-DeLay, Ling, Newman, Parent, Teelucksingh, Cohen, Hasdell & Hayes, 2019:180). Subconsciously, sensemaking helps individuals to deal with complex situations of change so that it makes sense (Poland et al., 2019:180). Because of the amount of information available to individuals and organisations, information from the external environment should be consciously filtered and is perceived to drive change (Endsley, 2017:35). These filters may be applied using personal experience and organisational strategy (Endsley, 2017:36).

Sensemaking to understand ambiguous situations

There is no single definition of sensemaking (Brown, Colville & Pye, 2015:265). However, during organisational change, sensemaking is a process of understanding issues that people consider as ambiguous, novel, and stressful (Maitlis & Christianson, 2014:1), such as bankruptcies and mergers. The change management process is indeed a complex and challenging situation for leaders and followers, so the process needs to be analysed and defined according to the context in which it occurs (Pelch & McConnell, 2016:16). The context necessitates the making of meaning which a leader and followers should pay attention to as they do their daily work (Bushe & Marshak, 2016:45).

In many organisational contexts, leaders need to make decisions, project strength in their work activities, control events, rely on force rather than collaboration, trade resources for cooperation rather than building trust, and make compromises to minimise potential damage (Maitlis, Vogus & Lawrence, 2013:222). Thus, leaders facing the need to overcome a challenging task (but not a life-threatening situation) have a similar need for sensemaking

(Dixon, Weeks, Boland Jr & Perelli, 2017:295). Sensemaking has been identified as a critical instrument in understanding any business environment (Geier, 2016:235). In organisations, sensemaking may be facilitated by storytelling; for example, communicating complex ideas or even inspiring others to change (Salicru, 2018:33). Social media enhances employee organisational relationships when used for communication (Men, 2015:461). A leader can communicate in a friendly, reliable, and informal manner with employees by means of paper trails, newsletters, e-mails, Facebook, Twitter, and LinkedIn (Men, 2015:466).

Both internal and external organisational factors must be considered when determining contexts related to sensemaking. Hill, Datta and Acar (2015:33) regard sensemaking as vital when individuals are facing uncertainty or crises. The sensemaking process is composed of three elements: scanning, interpretation, and action (Djaballah et al., 2015:50). These three elements of sensemaking are imperative because they directly correlate with organisational performance (Daft & Weick, 1984:284; Thomas et al., 1993:239; Djaballah et al., 2015:51).

Action for shared understanding
Sensemaking does not take place in isolation but in organisational and societal contexts which must be given consideration (Sandberg & Tsoukas, 2015:17). Social-theory practices suggest that sensemaking factors refer to human connectivity, actions, and shared understandings. The sense that is made from a phenomenon should then be preserved in narratives as it is shared between individuals in the organisations (Isabella, 1990:8; Maitlis, 2005:23). When leadership has made sense of the situation, they should describe how they reached their conclusion, and make sure that they track and trace the progress as sense is made of a topic or object (Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2015:25). Visioning becomes a subsequent step in clarifying terms and processes to employees and matching them with the objectives of the change process (Mtondoo, 2018:5).

2.9.1.4   Articulating the vision that the organisation wants to achieve

Articulating the visions, embodying values, and creating the environment within which these visions can be achieved, lead to organisational success (Senge, 1990:8; Omotayo & Adebayo, 2015:10). Sensemaking and visioning are different activities but are closely linked. Those in leadership positions must formulate a clear vision based on a realistic assessment of the situation and key stakeholders' needs and priorities (Hayes, 2018:166). Leadership is seen as an ethical change agent in creating a future (Alvesson & Sveningsson,

2015:4) and envisions a desired state for the organisation. Therefore, mobilising and aligning the organisation's actions and goals in the form of a vision should be a core objective (Vargas & Negro, 2019:1). Leadership provides a clear vision and communicates with and supports employees in achieving organisational goals (Osborne & Hammoud, 2017:59). According to Kotter (1996:4) and Appelbaum, Habashy, Malo and Shafiq (2012:769), a vision should have the following characteristics:

- Imaginable, conveying a picture of what the future will be.
- Desirable, appealing to the long-term interests of employees, customers, shareholders, and stakeholders.
- Feasible, comprising realistic and attainable goals.
- Focused and clear enough to guide decision-making, flexible enough to allow individual initiatives, and alternative responses in changing conditions.
- Communicable, in a way that the leader can communicate easily and successfully explain something concisely. Leaders need to communicate inspirational messages via multiple channels to improve employee performance (Haque, TitiAmayah & Liu, 2016:994).

2.9.1.5   Invention

Invention is about creating the processes and structures needed to make the vision a reality (Ancona, 2012:4). Invention often converts thoughts into reality and is closely related to sensemaking (Trott, 2012:21). Occasionally, employees do not understand a concept, but exposure to inventiveness gives the employees an idea of what is happening in the organisation.

When the invention is right, the leader will maintain a dynamic equilibrium (Smith, Lewis & Tushman, 2016:62). While the literature confirms that inventing is very much an action-oriented activity, it is essential to realise that it also creates a mind-set that focuses on creative problem-solving and continuous improvement in the organisation (Porter & Kramer, 2019:328). Through intellectual competency, employees tend to adopt creative problem-solving techniques, generate new ideas, and reformulate work solutions (Cheung & Wong, 2011:659). According to Ancona (2012:4), mastering the four main capabilities of relating, sensemaking, visioning, and inventing, are central to leadership competence.

2.9.1.6 Leadership uses open communication

Leadership depends on self-awareness and knowledge, having a well-communicated vision, building trust among colleagues, and taking effective action to realise one's own leadership potential (Bennis & Nanus, 1985:5; Kumar, 2013:39). Open communication inspires employees' attitudinal and behavioural responses towards change (Men, Yue & Liu, 2020:1). Tactics leadership use for communication with employees should align with change goals (Men et al., 2020:10). When employees are clear about what the leader has communicated to them, they become motivated to work collaboratively with their peers and their superiors (Men, 2015:461). The quality of communication to the team encourages the employees to feel that they own the change as they move out of their traditional roles and regroup (Zhivkov, Schneider & Skla, 2019:83). The leader should ensure that communication includes the development of the vision, strategy, and culture for change to motivate employees towards engagement to the change process (Men et al., 2020:1).

2.9.1.7 Leadership's ability to manage change motivates employees to perform

Creating a vision of the future situation that involves all members of an organisation, is the aim of leadership (Weiss, 2017:62) and requires the use of open communication to share goals with employees (Ruben & Gigliotti, 2016:470). Change requires a high level of communication to allow employees to support each other and to define roles and responsibilities (Cameron & Green, 2019:72). Therefore, leadership should demonstrate moral relationships with employees based on trust, obligation, commitment, and a shared vision (Seto & Sarros, 2016:4). A shared vision is crucial to create cohesion between processes, leadership, and employees in the organisation (Jankurová, Ljudvigová & Gubová, 2017:136). Leadership's ability to manage change motivates the employees to perform (Fiaz, Su, Ikram & Saqi, 2017:143).

2.9.1.8 Leadership support to employees during the change process

Humans possess adaptive follower psychology that enables them to rapidly align their actions with other individuals when they can see the benefit of participating (Price & Van Vugt, 2014:1). Continuous engagement and support will ascertain employees' participation and bolster a leader's effectiveness (Zhong, Zhang, Li & Zhang, 2019:19). This support provides followers with a sense of collective identity, indicating job satisfaction and inspiring organisational citizenship behaviour and achieve generalised compliance (Organ, 2018: 296). Followers adopt the leader's goals temporarily, structurally, and voluntarily to

show acceptance of the leader's influence (Bastardoz & Van Vugt, 2019:81). Leadership effectiveness is the result, and followers are propelled to obtain the desired results for the leader (Farmer, 2019:27).

Matching appropriate leadership behaviour with a follower's readiness level should indicate that the leader is competent and knowledgeable about their role (Wu, Tsui & Kinicki, 2010:90; Leroy et al., 2015:1678). Consequently, the organisation benefits as employees are less likely to leave the organisation, have increased organisational obligation and overall job satisfaction, and are more likely to engage in socially responsible behaviour (Ballinger, Lehman & Schoorman, 2010:30).

2.9.1.9 Employee support during change

Social identity is an essential factor when considering leadership capabilities. It needs to be acknowledged that a group is more than just a collection of individuals who comprise it (Ginnett, 2019:73). Therefore, employee support is a vital element during change (Appelbaum et al., 2015:77). Without a leader's ability to create a social identity with followers, identity conflict and negative emotions will occur in the organisation at large (Petriglieri, 2011:6). The secret of successful leadership lies in the leader's capacity to be seen as the epitome of a positive social identity that employees have in common with them, and one that distinguishes them from others (Sidani & Rowe, 2018:623).

2.9.1.10 Leadership is instrumental in driving the change process

A clear and persuasive vision is essential for those leading change management processes (Fernández & Rainey, 2017:169). Leading change takes time and effort and leaving employees and managers unsure of adapting to a new situation of change should be avoided (Heifetz & Linsky, 2017:2). For this reason, sharing one's vision as a leader is a central part of successful change management (Sotarauta, 2016:64), and leadership is seen as the driving force behind change effectiveness (Coetzee, Ukpere & Visagie, 2012:12077).

The null and alternative hypotheses arising from this discussion are:

> **H$_0$2:** There is no relationship between capabilities and qualities of leadership role.
> **Ha2:** There is a relationship between capabilities and qualities of leadership role.

2.10 COMPETENCY AND LEADERSHIP ROLE QUALITIES

Competency refers to the ability to know and be able to perform successfully. Components of competency include leadership ability to solve problems, handle change challenges, be knowledgeable, have good interpersonal skills, display commendable behaviour, identify the aptitudes and personal characteristics, adapt to different cultures, and have a learning mind-set. The following sections present the differences between the competencies and capabilities of leadership, and the characteristics of leadership competency.

2.10.1 Differences Between Competencies and Capabilities of Leadership

Competence can be useful to the perfection or development of one's abilities and skills to benefit a group or institution (Hu, Horng & Teng, 2016:194). Competence normally results in a specific ability or skill that will help a change process (Clarke & Crane, 2018:303). In a sense, competence comprises abilities and capabilities proven over time (Savignon, 2018:6). The competencies of the organisation, for instance, are what it can do when it allocates its resources to achieving a specific goal. In contrast, organisational capabilities involve intricate patterns of coordination between people, and other resources that could lead to a long-term competitive advantage (Murray & Donegan, 2003:52; Huang & Li, 2015:320). Competence includes a combination of knowledge the leader has gained from their experiences, basic capabilities, abilities, and attitude (Maduka, Edwards, Greenwood, Osborne & Babatunde, 2018:697).

Competencies result in a reductionist philosophy that causes skill acquisition to be focused on the task, rather than on the development of critical thinking (Foss, Eriksson & Nåden, 2018:148). As a result, competencies will likely be related to successful behaviours in the past, rather than addressing the mind-set for the future (Bachkirova & Smith, 2015:128). There is a fine line between competencies and capabilities, requiring differentiation between these two features within leadership (Teece, 2007:1320). However, when people need to be trained for a specific role, leadership capabilities are considered paramount in motivating employee performance (Makori & Kinyua, 2019:359). Therefore, it is essential to distinguish between competencies and capabilities of a leader in creating organisational effectiveness. Figure 2.5 shows the competence framework and how capabilities are reached.
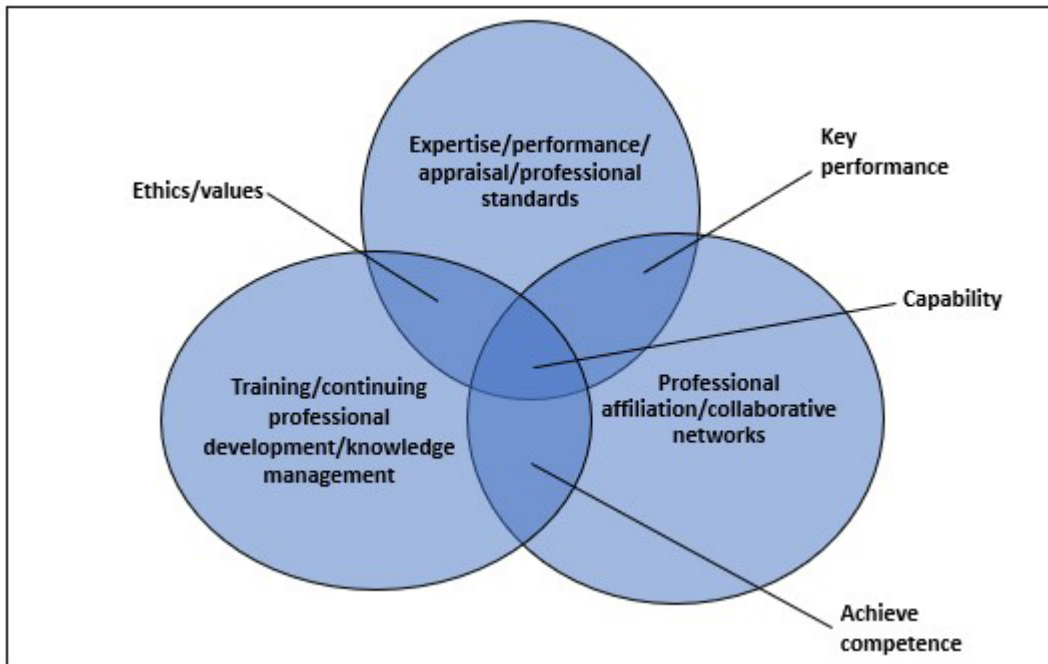
Figure 2.5: Difference between capabilities and competencies
Source: Adapted from Difference Between.net (2017)

Figure 2.5 shows the difference between competencies and capabilities. Competencies are developed during training and are displayed when an individual starting to apply that in the workplace, whereas capabilities are developed through professional collaborative networks and affiliations. Whether the professional standards have been met is determined during performance appraisals where an evaluation is made of whether key performance areas have been achieved. Various combinations of competencies and different leadership styles can be used to meet the requirements for different types of projects in the organisation (Jiang, 2014:51). Industry-specific capabilities increase a firm's capacity to exploit modernity, and the core competencies increase the organisation's competitive advantage (Dunphy, Turner & Crawford, 1996:24; Hill, Jones & Schilling, 2014:20).

2.10.2   Characteristics of Leadership Competency

The following subsections discuss the characteristics of leadership competency.

2.10.2.1 Dependable behaviour

Appropriate leadership competence is associated with activities that enable the followers to ensure organisational development and enhance individual career opportunities (Andriukaitienė, Voronkova, Kyvliuk, Maksimenyuk & Sakun, 2017:220). These needs

should demonstrate leadership competence related to roles played by good leadership in organisations.

(Andriukaitienė et al., 2017:220). Leaders' capacity to lead depends on their trustworthiness which is evident in dependable behaviour during change (Dhiman, 2017:172). This behaviour shows that the leader is emotionally connected to employees (Osborne & Hammoud, 2017:59).

There are three categories of competencies associated with leadership: emotional, managerial, and intellectual competence (Dulewicz, Higgs & Slaski, 2003:406; Mahon, Taylor & Boyatzis, 2015:3). As the leader achieves their goals in the organisation, they are also demonstrating a competency drive when involving and engaging with employees during that period (Yee, Chen, Tan & Ang, 2019:28). The categories of leadership competencies are shown in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3: Categories of leadership competencies

Emotional competencies	Managerial competencies	Intellectual competencies
Motivation	Managing resources	Strategic perspective
Conscientiousness	Communicating with employees	Vision and margination
Sensitivity	Developing	Critical analysis and judgement
Influence	Empowering	
Self-awareness	Achieving	
Emotional resilience		
Intuitiveness		

Source: Dulewicz and Higgs (2003:193)

Leadership as a social entity will inevitably demonstrate some of the characteristics listed in Table 2.3 by leaders who continuously signify their role in the organisation (Shamir & EilamShamir, 2018:44). Emotional competence accounts for organisational success and the failure of leadership (Doe, Ndinguri & Phipps, 2015:105). Emotional competence is based on managing pro-social performance instead being self-serving, to ensure that employees feel motivated to do things differently in the change process (Eva, Cox, Herman & Lowe, 2019:10).

2.10.2.2 Skills development

Managerial competence has to do with the leadership ability to show technical skills, responsibility to provide guidance and share knowledge with the employees, and lead them to better performance standards (Iqbal, Anwar & Haider, 2015:146). Team skills'

development will increase opportunities for employee empowerment (Osborne & Hammoud, 2017:56). Developed individual skills mean that employees will work better. Managing resources, engaging with employees, and empowering employees, is the intrinsic characteristic of managerial competence. A leader uses management techniques based on these competencies to execute project success in the organisation (Galvin, Gibbs, Sullivan & Williams, 2014:37).

2.10.2.3 Positive feedback

Leadership is a purpose-driven agenda and constitutes elements of influencing, directing, achieving goals, and exchanging emotions between leaders and individuals to justify their existence (Antonakis, Cianciolo & Sternberg, 2004:5; Manik, 2016:599). Within cognitive leadership presence, managerial roles are performed to indicate organisational awareness, influence, inspirational leadership, and conflict management as forms of support for teamwork in the organisation (Boyatzis, Batista-Foguet, Fernández & Turning, 2015:2). Leaders should be able to organise jobs so that subordinates are sure of their roles and have an opportunity to improve their skills, design work appropriately for the job, and receive feedback (Murray & Donegan, 2003:54; Jaquez, 2017:11). Competencies are knowledge and skills development to help a leader implement decisions and exercise cognitive competency (Megheirkouni, 2016:638). Therefore, adopting general competency models for specific tasks tends to be expected in many organisations because they help to strategically prepare the workplace for future organisational challenges (Megheirkouni, 2016:638).

2.10.2.4 A learning mind-set

To overcome challenges, the leader must provide information before the change process starts, explain to the employees the factors that have led to the need for the change, and the plan of how the change will be implemented to ensure success (Jayatilleke & Lai, 2018:167). Therefore, leadership requires intellectual competence that has to do with cognitive abilities geared to assisting employees to solve problems, to be innovative, to be involved in lifelong learning, and to complete work with the change initiative in mind (Andriukaitienė et al., 2017:223). Leaders interact with employees in discussions and involve them in problem-solving during change (Sikdar & Payyazhi, 2014:977). Thus, a leader's intellectual competence encourages employees to have a learning mind-set to enable them to develop their potential and to achieve organisational goals (Tabassi et al., 2016:340).

It is evident that organisations need strong leadership with capabilities and competencies at all management levels to ensure the success of the organisation (Fulmer & Bleak, 2008:12). Leadership competencies can differ among leaders based on their roles, and therefore, decision-making will not be homogenous among all leaders (Megheirkouni, 2016:641). Consequently, providing leaders with organisational learning sessions combined with the development of competency and emotional intelligence enhances leadership's managerial and intellectual competencies (Zerfass, Verčič & Wiesenberg, 2016:38).

2.10.2.5 Knowledge of the envisaged change

The organisation must have sufficient knowledge of the envisaged change. The leadership should establish policies regarding the envisaged change. All employees and external stakeholders should be informed of the foreseen change (Henderson, Robinson, Evans-Lacko & Thornicroft, 2017:316). Spread directions for future changes to segregate leaders' capabilities or competencies (Ceptureanu, 2015:105). Employees might resist change, which should be detected before change starts (Ceptureanu, 2015:105). The relationship of the capabilities and competencies is the mixture of such resistance. The ICE triangle (Figure 2.6) explains the unique features that ensure sustainable leadership through attributes and competencies. The ICE triangle is described by Ngambi (2011b:27) as follows:

- **Ice has shape** – a leader takes a position on issues, makes decisions, and provides a shared vision.
- **Ice can be moulded as desired** – the leader can design a preferred leadership style or approach, depending on the situation.
- **Ice is solid water** – leaders have their own identity and refrain from being an extension of others.
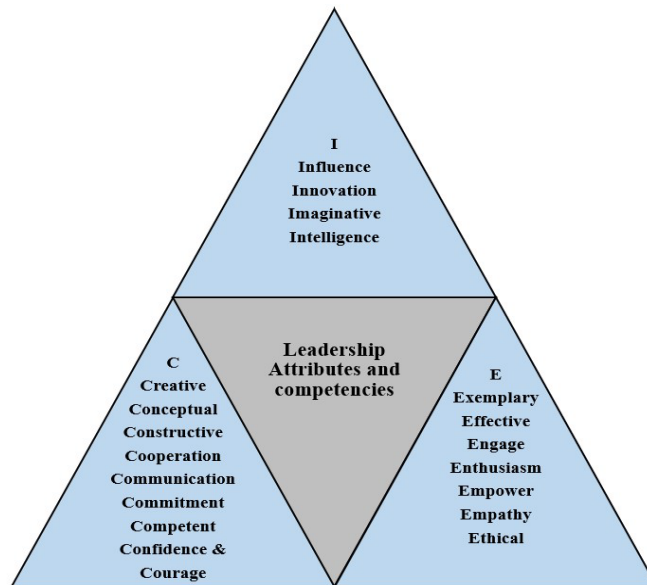
Figure 2.6: The ICE triangle
Source: Ngambi (2011b:28)

2.11   PRACTICE OF LEADERSHIP

The leadership position requires a leader to be massive in the eyes of subordinates. The leader's capacity is the ability to do something (McIntosh, 2013:216; Huggins, Klar, Hammonds & Buskey, 2017:3). Therefore, it is essential to foster leadership capacity as part of organisational capacity-building (Klar, Huggins, Hammonds & Buskey, 2016:117). Capacity-building is not considered only to transmit a set of skills and body of knowledge, but instead as a learning process in which individuals make sense of information and construct new knowledge through social interaction (Marsh & Farrell, 2015:274). These capacity-building strategies depend on the context in which they are employed (Klar et al., 2016:116). The experience of a leader is formed in this process. The sequence of events that can be used to build the leadership experience within an organisation is illustrated in Figure 2.7.

This position requires a leader to be massive in the eyes of subordinates. Capacity of the leader is the ability to do something (McIntosh, 2013:216; Huggins et al., 2017:3). It is essential to foster leadership capacity as part of organisational capacity-building (Klar et al., 2016:117). Capacity-building is not considered only as the transmission of a set of skills and body of knowledge, but instead as a learning process in which individuals make sense of information and construct new knowledge through social interaction (Marsh & Farrell, 2015:274). These capacity-building strategies depend on the context in which they are employed (Klar et al., 2016:116). Experience of a leader is formed in this process. The

sequence of events that can be used to build the leadership experience within an organisation is illustrated in Figure 2.7.

Figure 2.7: Leadership capacity-building within the organisation
Source: Klar et al. (2016:117)

The CEO of the organisation is its capacity builder, as shown in Figure 2.7. Because of the CEO's experience, leadership capacity automatically increases, allowing the organisation as a whole, to learn and develop knowledge. In the multifaceted and sometimes chaotic reality of organisations, organisational learning and organisational knowledge creation are mutually dependent processes (Naylor, Wooldridge & Lyles, 2014:68).

When leaders take responsibility for creating organisational knowledge, easy to understand and accessible knowledge is required. This knowledge is applied in a social context and selectively connected to the organisation's existing knowledge to support the change process (CegarraNavarro, Soto-Acosta & Wensley, 2016:1544). These processes form the organisational learning process, where the organisation enhances its capacity to act (Lau & Lo, 2015:103). Therefore, dependable behaviour on the leadership's part is necessary to keep pace with the changing times and to improve organisational capacity (Feng, Huang & Zhang, 2016:857). The following sections present the principles and leadership role qualities.

2.11.1   Principles and Leadership Role Qualities

Both old and modern leadership theories lack the promotion and implementation of a shared African value system at all levels of the society embedded in leadership principles. This system is called RARE, a total leadership theory (Ngambi, 2011a:6). In transactional and transformational leadership styles, one can identify the 'accountable' characteristic of the RARE leadership. This leadership principle takes the whole person, society, and the environment into consideration (Ngambi, 2011a:8). Furthermore, promotion of sustainability and success in activities that the organisation is involved in, and leaders who use their head (cognitive leadership), their heart (intuitive leadership), and their hands (practical leadership), demonstrate this principle (Ngambi, 2011a:9).

2.11.1.1 Trustworthiness of leadership

Leaders take responsibility for their role in achieving effective governance in the organisation and are often held accountable for what does and does not work during change (Storer, 2018:257). Their strong influence on future leaders' development shows their relevance as caretakers in the organisation (Wu & Parker, 2017:1030). It has been observed that if followers consider leaders trustworthy, they are more likely to display commitment and a positive attitude towards change (Alavi & Gill, 2017:168). In short, ethical leaders are considered more dependable by followers (Sharif & Scandura, 2014:187).

2.11.1.2 Ethical leadership

Toor and Ofori (2009:309) acknowledged that ethical leadership is closely related to a transformational culture in organisations and a contingent reward dimension of transactional leadership, which inspires more effort on behalf of employees and creates employee satisfaction. Transformational and transactional leadership cannot be linked to strategic leadership since the latter does not engage followers' ideals, inspire them, intellectually stimulate them, or pay attention to their individual needs (Antonakis & House, 2014:750). The pro-activeness of formulating strategic goals and knowing the organisational capabilities increases the likelihood that organisational objectives will be met, and clearly defines strategic leadership (Antonakis & House, 2014:750).

Transformational leadership can only affect follower creativity when the leader calls for creative participation and identifies with them (Qu, Janssen & Shi, 2015:296). Transactional leadership operates within an existing culture rather than changing it to meet new expectations (Zehir, Ertosun, Zehir & Müceldili, 2011:1462). Neither transformational leadership nor transactional leadership meet all the requirements of leadership principles, as ethical tendencies (which is essential in the change management process) are not included (Masa'deh, Obeidat & Tarhini, 2016:681). Principle-based leadership is essential for driving sustainable change. It ensures that the results are supported by strong moral and ethical fundamentals that withstand any breakdown or resistance to change (Doppelt, 2017:17). Therefore, the RARE leadership principles require a synergistic approach to total leadership, as attested by Ngambi (2011b:7).

2.11.1.3 Social and esteem needs

Leaders are essential to the satisfaction of the social and esteem needs of the individual team members and create a positive relational climate within the organisation (Ceri-Booms, Curşeu & Oerlemans, 2017:178). Differentiating between effective and ineffective leaders is a significant management concern (Amanchukwu et al., 2015:11). This is accomplished by assessing the quality of decision-making and whether or not the leadership style affects the organisational project's success criteria (Schoderbek, Cosier & Aplin, 1988:22; Tabassi et al., 2016:340).

2.11.1.4 Realistic time frames to make changes possible

Time appears to be a scarce reserve for public organisations, although leaders are expected to cope with multiple external demands (Seidle, Fernandez & Perry, 2016:604). To maintain realistic timeframes, it is important to allocate sufficient time to address all issues they are facing (Day, Riggio, Tan & Conger, 2021:5) Furthermore, leaders should use timely problem-solving techniques and take responsibility for all actions taken in the change process (Amanchukwu et al., 2015:9). Leadership ability and employee perceptions often play a big role in implementing activities and results and using sound and time-efficient decision-making (Weddle, 2013:94).

Leadership is identified as an internal driver of change and having good interpersonal relationships with employees helps to establish their trust in the leader and commitment to the organisation (Terglav, Ruzzier & Kaše, 2016:1). According to Cameron and Green (2019:133), leaders will spend time on three issues during an organisation's complex change process. These are:

- Recognising that the organisation is undergoing change and stretching people's thinking on how to get there.
- Ensuring high levels of connectivity between departments in the organisation, encouraging feedback on work activities, optimising the flow of information, and enabling the spirit of learning.
- Focusing people's attention on seeing differences between the current condition and a newly acquired state.

2.11.1.5 Leadership role modelling

Leaders are in positions of power and followers are inclined to compete with them (Tu, Bono, Shum & LaMontagne, 2018:691). Leadership role modelling mobilises commitment and uses motivation, encouragement, inspiration, and charisma to influence and advance followers and their organisations (Allen, Moore, Moser, Neill, Sambamoorthi & Bell, 2016:3). Good role modelling to all those around them is crucial for leadership (Amanchukwu et al., 2015:9). Leadership role modelling instils pride and optimism in followers and emphasises commitment aligned around shared purpose and high ethical moral standards admired by followers (Allen et al., 2016:3). Leaders play professional development of others through role modelling (Ennis, Happell & Reid-Searl, 2015:616). Therefore, this aligns with the leadership principles of Ngambi (2011) and can bring out the best characteristics in the daily work lives of employees.

2.11.1.6 Accessible leadership

Making meaningful sustainable change can be problematic, more so when the leader is not available. At the same time, change is a source of considerable stress for both the leader and employees. Ngambi (2011a:14) supports this statement because all the time the leader is accessible. It is important for employees to factor time into their preparations for change and should therefore be gradual to allow them to get used to, and process the change (Stouten, Rosseau & De Cremer, 2018:762). The accessibility of leadership after a change has been announced to employees is important because employees need to find stability and reach a new equilibrium. Therefore, they need a sounding board to express their uncertainties and fears. Leadership should, thus, be transparent and available during the change process (Stouten et al., 2018:760).

2.11.1.7 Empowering employees

Leadership is responsible for coordination of work activities, common goals, and knowledge sharing which impact the performance of employees (Han, Lee, Beyerlein & Kolb, 2018:1). Employees are given an opportunity to have an appreciative inquiry (AI) to look first at the organisation and to review what was successful in the past before change starts (Stouten et al., 2018:754). Through that knowledge sharing, the leadership is able to empower employees to work together towards a common goal (Lee, Lu, Yang & Chang, 2019:1). Knowledge sharing creates a learning culture among employees (Lee et al., 2019:2).

Empowering employees is supported by Ngambi's (2011) leadership principles because leadership is not self-serving.

2.11.1.8 Solving challenges in a timeous manner

There are various challenges leadership has to contend within the change process. The first phase has to do with planning for change and setting organisational goals. Each stage needs relevant resources to fulfil the purpose (Naicker & Mkhabele, 2020:127). Several factors have been identified which cause challenges to change, such as a lack of communication, absence of planning, lack of engagement of employees, lack of resources, lack of culture shift, and poor change management (Magano & Thomas, 2017:1). Therefore, leaders need to solve these challenges in a timeous manner (Slabbert, 2016:267). However, leadership effectiveness is still a problem on the African continent, as Ngambi (2011a:7) attests. On the other hand, organisations find themselves dependent on change to be done timeously and effectively (Nyandongo & Khanyile, 2019:1488). Timeous solving of business changes ensure that customers are satisfied (Nyandongo & Khanyile, 2019:1488). However, if business challenges are not met, the delivery of changes become impossible (Nyandongo & Khanyile, 2019:1488). Operational processes like change management need to be planned and flexible with time (Lechler &Yang, 2017:4). Time management is vital during organisational change and is therefore a principle of leadership.

The null and alternative hypotheses arising from this discussion are.

> **H$_0$4:** There is no relationship between principles and qualities of leadership role.
> **Ha4:** There is a relationship between principles and qualities of leadership role.

2.12   CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed leadership in a change context. First, a historical perspective of leadership was provided, and the role of leadership was discussed. Furthermore, the benefits of the leadership role were presented. A general understanding of leadership's role can be extensive, considering the various functions assigned to leaders. For example, leaders' work requires technical expertise, sensitivity to employees, taking care of confidential matters, influencing organisational climate, ensuring that the organisation is profitable, and applying a high degree of accuracy in all activities. Therefore, some boundaries needed to be established around this literature review. The sections that followed focused on the

leadership theories and styles. The described leadership styles included laissez-faire leadership, transactional leadership, transformational leadership, full-range leadership (the connection between transactional and transformational), and change-oriented leadership.

The researcher presented an alignment of the leadership literature. This was followed by the indicators of effective leadership and highlighted the satisfaction of the needs of individuals within a group, and belongingness and uniqueness. Capabilities and leadership role qualities were described and focused on the leadership to ensure that the organisational culture is adapted. Competency and leadership role qualities emphasised the differences between the competencies and capabilities of leadership and the characteristics of leadership competency. The chapter concluded with a section on leadership practice and principals, and leadership role qualities.

The next chapter, the second literature chapter, gives an overview of organisational change management.

CHAPTER 3

OVERVIEW OF ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE MANAGEMENT

3.1   INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter reviewed leadership in the context of change. This chapter evaluates the literature concerning the organisational change process from human resources management (HRM), psychology, strategic management, and organisational development (OD) literature to explore the necessary stages in effective change management. Evaluating the existing literature is valuable for contextualising the intended research, seeing gaps in the literature, and clarifying how the change management phenomenon has already been studied. Change occurs in all organisations, whether in private or public entities. However, the organisational change management literature is mainly concerned with what happens in private organisations. Therefore, this literature review does not select the use of private organisations' studies. Instead, this chapter focuses on change management in general and attempts to highlight issues relevant to the context of SOEs.

The first part of Chapter three discusses the nature of change management, the types of organisational change, and the role of leadership in the change process. This is followed by presenting organisational change themes and change methods. Next, various change management models are discussed, and a comparative analysis of change management models is presented. The following sections highlight the drivers of change, messaging in the change process, and change planning. Resources for organisational change are discussed, followed by the implementation of change. Finally, the chapter concludes with change success elements, and the organisational aspects that need attention.

3.2   THE NATURE OF CHANGE MANAGEMENT

Organisational change involves changes in an organisation's mission, vision, and processes, impacting both the individual and the organisation (Bejinariu, Jitarel, Sarca & Mocan, 2017:321). Organisational change is also considered as an alteration in systems, structure, and employees' social identity (Celik & Ozsoy, 2016:134). Change is a natural phenomenon and is fundamental to the renewal and lasting relevance of the organisation (O'Donovan, 2017:58). Furthermore, some researchers perceive organisational change as a natural conceptual factor in OD (Odor, 2018:58). OD is often discussed when attempting to

understand the organisation's activities, and when change management is included as a critical factor in discussions about an organisation's future (Peck, 2017:9).

Two paradigms characterise change management in organisations (Adserias et al., 2017:317), and define the order of change which evolves within organisational systems (Reynante, Bratton & Hein, 2017:1). These paradigms are first-order change and second-order change. First-order change consists of minor improvements and adjustments that do not change the core of the organisational structures but are relatively superficial and aim to modify existing practices (Russell & Bohan, 2016:341). This order is driven by increased anticipation and professional support at the intervention's onset (Clapp, Kemp, Cox & Tuerk, 2016:812). Second-order change involves a fundamental alteration of organisational values or mission, cultural dynamics, and organisational structures (Kezar, 2001:17; Iljins, Skvarciany & GaileSarkane, 2015:946). It is considered the foundation of change because it works to alter the structures and challenges the organisation's status quo (Russell & Bohan, 2016:341). Thus, any improvement in the organisation is considered as a second-order change (Clapp et al., 2016:812) where leaders use a scenario planning approach to direct the organisation into a different future (Ruparathna, Hewage & Sadiq, 2018:1338).

3.3   TYPES OF ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

The types of change indicate the kind and form of change the organisation needs to make considering what the change is, and the extent of the needed change (Al-Haddad, 2014:37). When the need for change is identified, the leader can choose the most appropriate change type (Al- Haddad & Kotnour, 2015:242). It is essential to realise that each type of change can have strengths and weaknesses and, therefore, proper environmental screening is required before the process of change starts (Bennett, James & Klinkers, 2017:30). The following sections present the types of organisational change.

3.3.1   Scale and Duration Type of Change

Environmental screening can help organisations to develop an effective workforce that can cope with continuous change (Choi, 2007:480). There are two types of change: the first one identifies the magnitude of the change, i.e., either small- or large-scale; and second, the duration change type, i.e., short- or long-term (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015:242). Timing is vital in organisational change management, and activities need to occur at an appropriate time (Cameron & Green, 2019:130). In long-term change cases, human behaviour needs to

be considered (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015:243) as it can affect employees' cognitive functioning and quality of life. Short-term change is spontaneous and provides organisations with a competitive edge (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015:243). However, successful change efforts should focus more on the work itself than on ideas that cannot be implemented (Heifetz & Linsky, 2017:5).

3.3.2   Morphostatic and Morphogenic Change

The literature on change management and strategic management reports morphostatic and morphogenic change (Tranfield & Smith, 1991:28). Morphostatic change is concerned with adapting and deciding on adjusting current organisational parameters, while morphogenic change is concerned with finding a new organisational form. Morgan (2016:284) reported that morphostatic change is concerned with adapting the organisation's existing state of affairs. This is done to bring things to a steady-state or equilibrium (Porpora, 2015:12). Morphogenic change is focused on finding new and more appropriate organisational structures and systems (Morgan, 2016:284). Morgan (2016:284) stated that the concept of morphostatic and morphogenic change was limiting as it appeared to allow organisations to change only on a small scale, and without complicating the flow of information and activities.

3.3.3   Incremental and Discontinuous Change

The idea of incremental and discontinuous change was introduced by Nadler and Tushman (1999). Incremental change improves the enterprise's functions at a small incremental pace through a process of slow adaptation and modification (Dunphy & Stace, 1993:917; Feng et al., 2016:858). Incremental changes are also referred to as first-order change (Adserians et al., 2017:317).

Discontinuous change involves a fundamental transformation of organisational systems (Berry, 2016:25). This type of change is also referred to as a revolutionary or second-order change (Meyer, Brooks & Goes, 1990:94; Ding, Wang & Zheng, 2015:5899). Research has shown that failure is more common when the nature of an external change is discontinuous rather than incremental, which requires the organisation to recognise existing ways of working and rethink how to succeed (Birkinshaw, Zimmermann & Raisch, 2016:36).

3.3.4 Developmental, Transactional and Transformational Change

Developmental, transactional, and transformational change were highlighted by Ackerman in 1997. Developmental change is described as a process of refining an existing situation and is the simplest of the three types of change, rather than the radical solution of reflective change (Rothwell, Stavros & Sullivan, 2015:63). Developmental change is a continuous form of change that often happens in response to changes in the organisation's environment (Al-Darmaki, 2015:75). Transactional change occurs when the organisation moves from its current state to a desired future state (King, Imms, Stewart, Freeman & Nguyen, 2018:1843). This type of change is episodic and occurs by replacing the current strategy with a new one. The transactional type of change is usually supported by the organisation's top management (Hargrave & Van de Ven, 2017:330). Ackerman (1997) described transformational change as radical, which accelerates the state of development, but the results may be unknown (Anderson, 2015:76) and which means it is risky. Usually, organisations emerge as very different from the period before implementing this type of change (Al-Darmaki, 2014:57).

3.3.5 Operational and Strategic Change

De Wit and Meyer (1998) defined operational and strategic change types. Operational change is the most common type of change and focuses on enhancing an organisation's performance and limiting the current system to align it with the environment (Hussain, Lei, Akram, Haider, Hussain & Ali, 2016:125). The strategic type of change aims to align the organisation with an environmental shift in the structures, systems, processes and the reorientation of the vision and the mission (Helfat & Martin, 2015:424). In summary, while operational changes are crucial for maintaining the stability of the business and organisational systems, strategic changes are directed at renewing them (De Wit & Meyer, 1998:163; North & Kumta, 2018:14).

3.4 THE ROLE OF LEADERSHIP IN THE CHANGE PROCESS

Leaders are known as "champions of change" because they keep the organisation's operational efficiency intact while implementing change (Ajmal, Farooq, Sajid & Awan, 2012:112). The environment within which organisations act is becoming progressively competitive and requires an organisational climate that supports the change and inspires creativity, which is a crucial activity for leaders (Lutz Allen et al., 2013:23). Change

management ultimately rests on the interaction between change initiation and execution (Heyden, Fourné, Koene, Werkman & Ansari, 2017:962).

To enhance the leadership role, leaders need to control key issues of power relations and obtain favourable responses from employees to diminish uncertainty in the organisation (Pick, Teo, Tummers, Newton, Bish & Johnston, 2015:541). If a leader can empower employees to thrive during a change process, this can lead to job satisfaction (Liu, Liu, Han & Zhang, 2016:738). Some researchers refer to change in the form of metaphors to encapsulate leaders' role (Smircich, 2017:339), as shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Metaphors summarising leadership roles in the change process

Metaphor	Role
Machine metaphor	Suggests that the leader sits on top of the organisation, setting goals and delivering the ways to implement change, till the process ends.
Political system metaphor	A leader needs to be heading a powerful coalition system and provide a vision statement that convinces people that the organisation is going somewhere with the implementation of this change process.
Organisation metaphor	A leader plays a relational role in the change process and therefore must be a coach, a counsellor, or a consultant.
Flux and transformation metaphor	A leader is an architect of the developing change and therefore his/her role must be visible.

Source: Cameron and Green (2019:153)

A metaphor's essence is noted as "understanding and experiencing one kind of a thing in terms of another" (Gardiner, 2006:67; Smircich, 2017:339). Metaphors provide leaders with a high-level overview of their role (Gardiner, 2006:62). These metaphors operate as a basis for analysing the theory and practice of leadership and are composed of the environment of trust, information sharing, meaningful participation, collective decision-making, defending divergent views, and redefining roles (Gardiner, 2006:62; Dikshit & Dikshit, 2015:199). Metaphorically speaking, leadership practice is perceived as "a social elephant" to make them relevant within the organisation (Rodríguez & Rodríguez, 2015:854).

3.5   ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE THEMES

To get a better understanding of organisational change themes, it is necessary to draw on the traditional behavioural and structuralist literature but also to explore the alternative schools of thought of the leadership role, such as post-modernism and psychoanalysis. The

researcher can then craft an overarching integrative model for change to reveal common themes within organisational change efforts (i.e., content, context, and process) (Baines, Bigdeli, Bustinza, Shi, Baldwin & Ridgway, 2017:258).

These themes are associated with servitisation, a holistic framework for service-offering entities (Baines et al., 2017:257). Servitisation applies to manufacturing and production companies who offer services to their customers (OECD, 2014:10). The organisation should cope and adjust as the nature of the service changes in the marketplace (Bani Hani, Deniz & Carlsson, 2017:1). These themes can serve as motivators or demotivators for individuals to embrace the change process (O'Donovan, 2017:92). The business model and the value proposition should strongly relate to customers via the service that the organisation offers them (Schaltegger, Hansen & Lüdeke-Freund, 2016:6). In these organisations, financing may not be the foremost consideration, and it may be assumed that knowledge is limited by the organisation's previous success (Chesbrough & Rosenbloom, 2002:532; Campbell & Coenen, 2017:15). Summaries of the organisational change themes are provided in the following sections.

3.5.1   Content Theme

The content theme focuses on strategic orientation factors, organisational structures, and the impact of change on employees. This requires an understanding of 'what' is being evaluated (Baines et al., 2017:258). This theme is relevant in organisations that offer services, for example, SOEs in this study. There are three levels of concern within this theme: functional, business, and network levels (Baines et al., 2017:258).

The functional level is about developing and nurturing competencies to provide the business units or the entire organisation with a competitive advantage. The business-level emphasises the enhancement of the competitive position of the organisational service it provides to the society or its customers. This level distinguishes between the organisation's transformational and transactional dynamics and explains how individual behaviour and psychological variables are influenced by the change effort (Baines et al., 2017:261). The network-level explains the situation where two or more people move beyond a mere transactional relationship and work jointly towards a shared goal (Kohtamäki, Partanen, Parida & Wincent, 2013:1378).

3.5.2 Context Theme

The context theme focuses on the contextual dynamics of organisational change and deals with responses and reactions to internal and external challenges that require transformation (Bigdeli, Baines, Bustinza Sánchez & Shi, 2015:3). An example of this theme includes the factors that influence organisational effectiveness (Baines et al., 2017:258). This example can be identified in analysing the legislative, political, and technological impact on change in SOEs. The proposition in this analysis responds to unexpected environmental change and a shift of an organisational structure in terms of the activities that will increase the organisation's short-term financial performance and long-term sustainability (Bigdeli et al., 2015:8). Another example of a context theme is when service industries use network analysis as a tool to facilitate change (Valente, Palinkas, Czaja, Chu & Brown, 2015:8). The context theme applies to the organisation's internal and external circumstances that have been shown to have an impact on change (Jacobs, Van Witteloostuijn & Christe-Zeyse, 2013:772). Two features should be considered in the context theme, namely: The inner context which entails factors within the organisation over which ideas for change have to proceed, e.g. organisational structures, culture, power, political leadership character, strategic direction, level of trust, and board development stage; and the outer context refers to factors from outside the organisation; for example, political, economic, social, regulatory, technological, and environmental factors (Valente et al., 2015:8).

3.5.3 Process Theme

The process theme addresses the phases of the progression of change. This theme has its roots in the primary model of change by Lewin (1947); i.e., it comprises unfreezing – change – freezing. Other researchers suggested that Lewin's (1947) change model can be used as a framework for introducing organisational change (Baines et al., 2017:260). This theme is also influenced by the formulation and implementation of change from the start to the endpoint since it is required for knowledge and strategic management (Dayan, Heisig & Matos, 2017:308). Examples are as follows:

- Formulation strategy – an intentional process that includes identifiable decisions and events (Pettigrew, 1977:78; Evans, 2015:36).
- Implementation strategy – the way to convert strategic alternatives into an operational plan (Aaker, 2008:66; Rothaermel, 2016:46).

The following section presents an example of process theme and chose technology, as it is used during organisational change.

3.5.3.1 Technology as a process theme

When technology is part of a process theme, it means there is knowledge flow and interdependence in the change process. With technology, this process shapes the organisational structure and performance while redefining the surrounding environment (Yeo & Marquardt, 2015:511). Therefore, organisational change requires adaptation to new technology. The following section discuses change methods that are used in the business environment.

3.6 CHANGE METHODS

Various methods to implement change have been proposed; however, one or two change methods cannot cater for all change circumstances in organisations (Burnes & Jackson, 2011:134). The economic environment has a significant impact on all organisations, and change has become a practice that all organisations need to manage (Doppelt, 2017:21).

Therefore, change methods need to continuously evolve to align with various environmental factors (Al-Haddad, 2014:25; Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015:235). Change methods are the actions that leadership uses to deal with organisational change and are divided into two categories, namely, systematic change methods and change management methods (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015:244). Systematic change methods involve a set of processes that help leaders make a series of stop-go, intermittent, and continued decisions (Zook, 2007:70; Jayatilleke & Lai, 2018:172). Change management methods are more comprehensive than systematic change methods and include strategic interventions (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015:248). The systematic change methods are discussed in the following section.

3.6.1 Systematic Change Methods

According to Kezar (2011:133), firstly, systematic change helps organisations to determine "readiness beliefs" that skilled employees can handle the proposed change. Secondly, the proposed change is appropriate to the organisation; thirdly, leaders are devoted to the projected change; and lastly, the proposed change is valuable to the organisation. Different processes have been identified in various businesses to show systematic change methods and processes involved. Table 3.2 shows examples of these change methods.

Table 3.2: Examples of systematic change methods

Planning	What and how	PAR	Integrative	Six-step	Wheel	Lean thinking	ERA method	TQM	Six Sigma	Business process re-engineering
Scout		Identify problem-solving	Explore search and create awareness	Identify the problem	Establish need for change	Specify value desired by customers	Evaluate total performance	Plan	Define	Redesign process identification
Enter	Recognise impact to success factors	Successive action plan		Develop commitment	Spread vision for change	Identify the value stream to each			Measure	Identification of enablers design process
Diagnose		Gather knowledge and understanding as process progresses	Plan design and make decisions	Awareness of behaviour	Diagnose and analyse current situation	product that adds value				Define business strategy
Plan	Identify needs adjustment				Generate recommendations	Make product flow continuously	Re-evaluate system design management	Do	Analyse	Understand process flow and structure
Act		Give feedback to management		Action plan to all departments	Detail recommendations					Design new process
Stabilise	Necessary changes in each factor	Diagnose inevitable problems	Act, implement and evaluate	Institutionalise revitilisation through policies and evaluate	Pilot recommendations / Prepare recommendations for roll out	Introduce pull between all stream of activities		Check /study	Improve	Prototype the new process / Implement process of associated system
Evaluate	Formalise each decision				Roll out recommendations	Begin process again until perfection is reached	Act: develop change strategy and conduct training	Act	Control	Communicate engagement of process
Terminate	Execute changes to adhere to goals	Perform a joint action planning	Integrate: stabilise and renew	Maintain and adjust to change strategies	Measure, reinforce and refine change					Build commitment towards change on each step

Source: Al-Haddad and Kotnour (2015:246)

Table 3.2 shows some variations of systematic change methods to deal with change. These change methods are described as follows:

3.6.1.1 The planning method

The planning method was introduced by Lippitt, Watson, Westley and Spalding in 1958. The method includes a cyclical process that requires ongoing improvements in the change process by scanning the organisational situation after instituting a change (Rundio, Wilson & Meloy, 2016:140). This method consists of seven steps to ensure that all necessary change activities are included, while unnecessary steps are eliminated (Rundio et al., 2016:140).

3.6.1.2 The "what" and "how" method

The "what" and "how" method was designed by Conner and Armitage in 1998. This change method is a compound system that consists of multiple processes on how change occurs (Rubenstein, Callan & Ridgley, 2018:937). The organisation's processes should emphasise strong leadership to direct change processes by providing a clear, inspiring vision; a sound strategy; positive participation of all members; support; and self-sufficiency (Bolden, Adelaine, Warren, Conley & Jarvis, 2020:53). This vision should also be new, improve the organisation, and ensure that allocation of tasks for employees is understandable (Bolden et al., 2020:75).

3.6.1.3 Participatory action research (PAR) method

Participatory action research (PAR) gained popularity in the 1960s. It involves democratic participation in real-world problem-solving by staff affected by actions of change (Lawson, Caringi, Pyles, Jurkowski, Jurkowski, Bozlak & Bozlak, 2015:14). PAR can be a very successful approach to change. It gathers input from people involved in change by making them feel important as participants and provides avenues for their contributions to policy and practice (Lawson et al., 2015:11). When employees feel that change belongs to them, change is likely to succeed (Stouten et al., 2018:755).

3.6.1.4 The integrative method

The integrative method assimilates various literature approaches to make one comprehensive method to systematically deal with change (Stephan et al., 2016:1251). This method includes exploring the organisation, creating awareness, planning for change, and

implementing and evaluating all actions towards change and stability (Stephan et al., 2016:1251).

3.6.1.5   The six-step method

Beer, Eisenstat and Spector introduced the six-step method in the 1990s. This method's paramount focus is the alignment of tasks that recognise the role of employees and their responsibilities and relationships to solve business problems (Donaghy & Reinecke, 2018:36). This method is based on the self-efficacy theory, which is linked to behavioural science approaches and assumes that one organisation or one person can take the action necessary to lead to a required outcome. The method includes six steps to create commitment for change and developing shared goals for the organisation to implement sound change (Omori, Ekuni, Ohbayashi, Miyake & Morita, 2019:4253).

3.6.1.6   The wheel method

The wheel method was proposed by Galpin (1996) and consists of nine steps. This method's core is to ensure employee readiness, and that people are involved in preventing change failure (Meyer, 2019:45). The organisation should establish the need to change, plan and implement the change, and deal with behavioural change activities (Meyer, 2019:91). The organisational environment should also advocate new ideas, proactive behaviour, and risk-taking and reward systems that nurture the readiness and open-mindedness for change (Karyotakis & Moustakis, 2016:56).

3.6.1.7   Lean thinking method

Lean thinking became famous in 1990. After that, Toyota adopted it in 2007 (Stone, 2012:112). Lean production focuses only on what is needed and only when it is needed using a minimal amount of material, labour, equipment, and space (Stone, 2012:112). This method was originated to eliminate wasteful expenditure in organisations (Kasivisvanathan & Chekairi, 2014:245).

3.6.1.8   Evaluating, re-evaluating and action (ERA) method

The Evaluating, Re-evaluating and Action (ERA) model was proposed by Chen, Yu and Chang in 2006. This method is focused on detailing the micro-processes of change in organisations (Balduzzi, Tuyls, Perolat & Graepel, 2018:5). Organisational evaluation analyses actions and outcomes to help execute an organisational plan more effectively and

improve performance (Griffin, Phillips, Gully & Carrim, 2019:32). Re-evaluation in organisations happens because of globalisation and technology (Wong & Jhaveri, 2015:140), which necessitates action from all the organisational functions. This re-evaluation of the ERA model is also referred to as "a sea change" implying that significant changes are needed (Rajnai & Kocsis, 2018:225).

3.6.1.9 Total quality management (TQM) method

Total quality management (TQM) is a systemic change method that gained popularity in the 1990s and later became known as the Plan, Do, Check and Act (PDCA) model, which focuses on factors concerning customers, employees, and top management performance dimensions (Psomas & Jaca, 2016:380). TQM requires organisations to have employees that are well trained, to have sufficient incentive and evaluation processes, and to conduct useful discussions and communication with everyone involved (Suwandej, 2015:2215). This method was designed to demonstrate a highly effective problem-solving technique and carry out improvements in change management in the workplace (Suwandej, 2015:2220).

3.6.1.10 Six Sigma method

The Six Sigma is data-driven and uses a series of structured cyclical steps to improve organisational processes to increase output (Lee, McFadden & Gowen, 2018:184). Organisations use Six Sigma methods to make the organisational team more adaptive to change and flexible with the change process (Galli, Kaviani, Bottani & Murino, 2017:2). This method uses the Define, Measure, Analyse, Improve and Control (DMAIC) approach and is designed to facilitate efficient business processes and the appropriate selection of a change team (Gowen, Stock & McFadden, 2008:6781).

3.6.1.11 Business process re-engineering method

The last systematic change method is business process re-engineering (BPR), which was designed to improve organisations' efficiency and effectiveness (Hussein, Hammoud, Bazzi & Haj-Ali, 2014:134). This model is a high-level development model used by organisations to help understand how processes connect and help the organisations to achieve agility (Hussein et al., 2014:134). It is used as a re-designed mechanism with objectives related to organisational needs and achieve radical improvements and innovations (Hussein et al., 2014:136). If organisations are required to assemble, expose, organise, or access information during the BPR cycle to create an integrated and agile environment, a Process Re-

engineering Integrated Spiral Model (PRISM) approach can be used (Hussein et al., 2014:136). This change method is relatively new but has been proven to succeed in multiple systems (Hussein et al., 2014:135).

3.7 CHANGE MANAGEMENT MODELS

In the recent change literature, many change theories or models have been mooted by different researchers (O'Donovan, 2017:72). A proliferation of change management theories has emerged over the decades. The material can be of great interest to anyone concerned with the field; however, it may be challenging to navigate all the literature (Massa, Tucci & Afuah, 2017:97). Various factors within organisations and their external environment differ. Not all changes are similar; therefore, change management requires different change models to develop an in-depth understanding of the nature of the change to be implemented (SchechStorz, 2013:10). The literature on change management contains many theories intended to drive and lead change (Subaciute & Rao, 2019:6); however, it is not possible to go beyond this study's scope and to review all these theories.

Change management theories help align change initiatives with organisational strategy (Baines et al., 2017:257). In support of the systemic approach to organisational change in the 1990s, researchers like Conner (1992), Jick (1991), LaMarsh (1995) and Kotter (1996) emphasised the importance of the people side of change and the initiatives that had to be taken by leadership to enhance the achievement of organisational goals (Creasey, Jamieson, Rothwell & Severini, 2016:332). The following section discusses the types of organisational change models by Glick (2020).

3.7.1 Kurt Lewin's (1947) model

The most common and the preferred model of change management is Lewin's (1947) change theory (Burnes & Cooke, 2013:408). This model contains some positive elements for implementing change because it suggests that organisations need to reflect on themselves and their involvement in the change process before a change process is instituted (Galli, 2018:124). Some researchers regard this change model as 'changing as three steps' (CATS), and it is regarded as a classic approach to managing change (Robbins & Judge, 2009:625; Sonenshein, 2010:478; Cummings, Bridgman & Brown, 2016:34).

The CATS (changing as three steps) model has dominated western theories of change for over 50 years (Michaels, 2001:27). Academics claim that all theories of change are reducible to this one idea of Kurt Lewin (Hendry, 1996:624). In contrast, change practitioners boast that the most powerful tool they have is 'Kurt Lewin's model' (Levasseur, 2001:71) which simplifies the execution of change (Hassan, 2018:37). The unfreezing of old behaviour, then moving to a new level of behaviour and the refreezing at a new level is Lewin's (1947) three-stage change management theory. It still influences and dominates many change strategies (Cummings et al., 2016:34; Hassan, 2018:2). This process involves the three stages of change, namely, behavioural defrost (unfreezing), the change (transition), and the manifestation of new behaviours (motivation to change or refreezing) (Talmaciu, 2014:78). According to Burnes and Bargal (2017:94), to achieve this new stage (new behaviours), the management should 'break the shell' of complacency and self-righteousness to change individuals' attitudes while emotional experience processes stimulate behaviours. Allport (1948), as cited in Burnes et al. (2017:94) referred to this as a "catharsis" which was defined as the conditions that are required before preconceptions can be removed. Lewin used these principles in 1945 because he believed that unfreezing is essential to unsettle the complacency of an organisation. Kurt Lewin's (1947) change management model is illustrated in Figure 3.1.
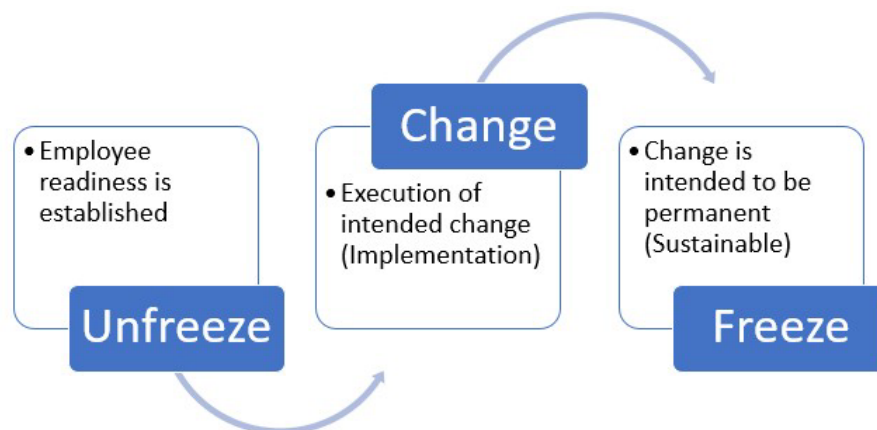
Figure 3.1: Kurt Lewin's (1947) change management model
Source: Galli (2018:126)

Lewin's (1947) change model shows that change is a three-stage process; however, additional information is required for extensive situational analysis which would establish drivers of change in and outside the organisation. Once a diagnosis of the internal and external environment is complete, the unfreezing stage can commence. An analysis of a problem area should be conducted to give insight into the way forward (Hayes, 2018:23).

The way forward will start with the unfreezing phase, which involves disrupting the balance of driving and preventing opposing forces in the organisation (Hayes, 2018:21).

The organisational change can be a success if the change is planned and starts with unfreezing of the systems or structures in the organisation (Hussain et al., 2016:124). The unfreezing stage allows the organisation to move from the current state towards a new aspired direction, requiring high-level functioning by the leader and increased compliance by the employees (Hussain et al., 2016:124).

Employee involvement increases change compliance because the decisions made during change are not a surprise to employees and a high-performance rate usually ensues (Hussain et al., 2016:124). Employees should be the main participants in the change process (Hassen, 2015:5); therefore, employees' readiness should be established before change starts in order to minimise resistance during the change process (Georgalis, Samaratunge, Kimberley & Lu, 2015:107). Fundamental assumptions underlying any change in a human system are originally derived from this theory (Schein, 2010:299; Yukl, 2013:2; Lewin, 2016:7). This model can be used by applying four elements in empowering employees to make decisions, supply relevant information, knowledge, and skills (Hussain et al., 2016:124). Change requires constant support to employees from leadership, regular communication, emotional support, and incentives (Hussain et al., 2016:124). Including these elements to empower employees will assist in overcoming resistance to change.

3.7.2   Bullock and Batten (1985) Four Stage Model

The four-stage model of change was initiated by Bullock and Batten (1985). Cameron and Green (2019:21) declared that a planned change is typically derived from the project management discipline, which follows a step-by-step process (Bannerman, 2015:112). There are practical viewpoints in this process, focusing on four change stages: exploration, planning, action, and integration (Rosenbaum, More & Steane, 2018:290). When exploring a change process, the organisation prepares the staff for changing with the required relevant resources (Rosenbaum et al., 2018:292).

Action refers to the implementation and evaluation process to ensure that changes are detailed and appropriate for organisational contribution. Readjustments may be necessary as each step is monitored (Rosenbaum et al., 2018:292). Integration is the final phase in this process and requires the leader's continuous development and training to ensure that they

inspire the team (Rosenbaum et al., 2018:292). Figure 3.2 presents a summary of the four-phase model of change management.
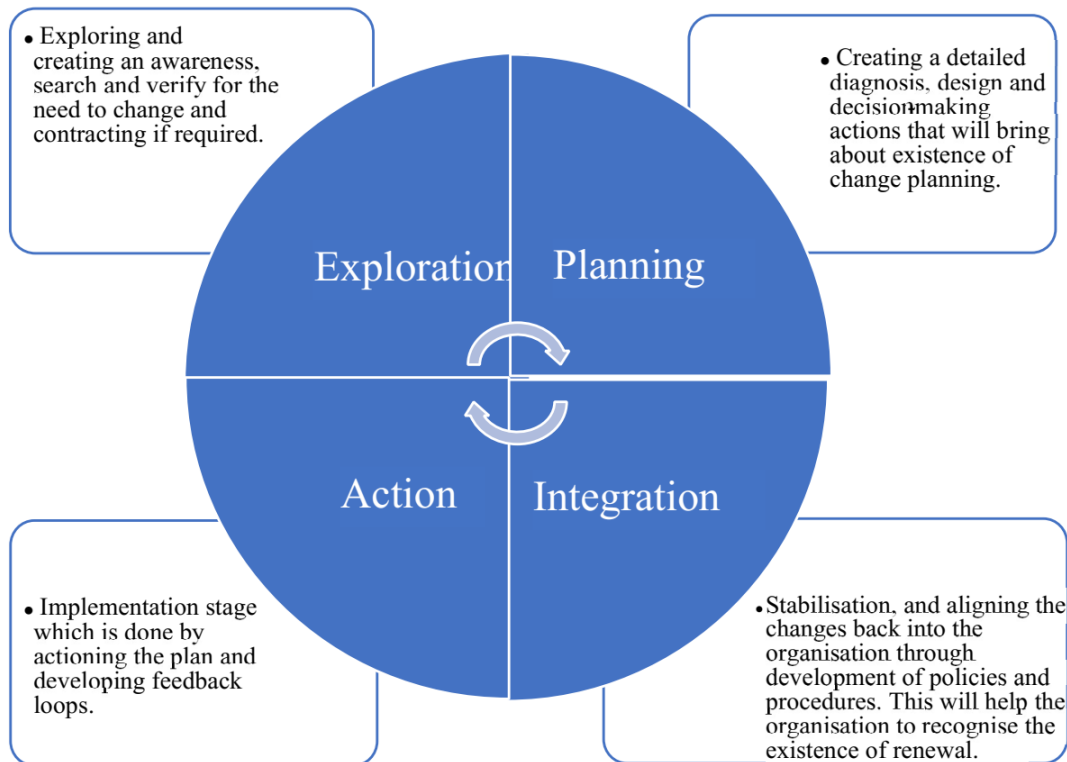
Figure 3.2: Four-phase model of change management
Source: Rosenbaum et al. (2018:292)

Exploration and planning are subsections of Kurt Lewin's (1947) first stage of change, namely, 'unfreezing'. A new model was formulated to explain how the organisation will reach the desired change (Hussain et al., 2016:124). In the exploration and planning phase, the organisation explores the options available in the internal and external environment to change possibilities. Therefore, in this unfreezing stage, knowledge sharing is critical in the organisation (Hussain et al., 2016:126).

3.7.3   General Electric 7-step change model

In 1990, the pressure for integrated change was felt by organisations; therefore, leadership had to establish a more orderly work environment to ensure some progress (Maitlis & Christianson, 2014:67). The environment had started to create an urgency to change, with leadership crafting and communicating the vision, while leading change and measuring outcomes and progress across various dimensions. General Electric developed its change management model to transform how employees receive, function, and engage with new

business strategies (Galli, 2018:127). This model is also known as the Change Acceleration Process (CAP) model. Furthermore, Galli (2018:127) attested that this model allows the organisation to manage and implement change on a unified basis. Leaders need to draft a road map on how to implement change. This model's focus is on the change leader as the one who owns the entire process with full accountability. The leader also has the responsibility to commit the necessary resources to the change process and become a role model for employees. Figure 3.3 shows the different steps of the CAP model.
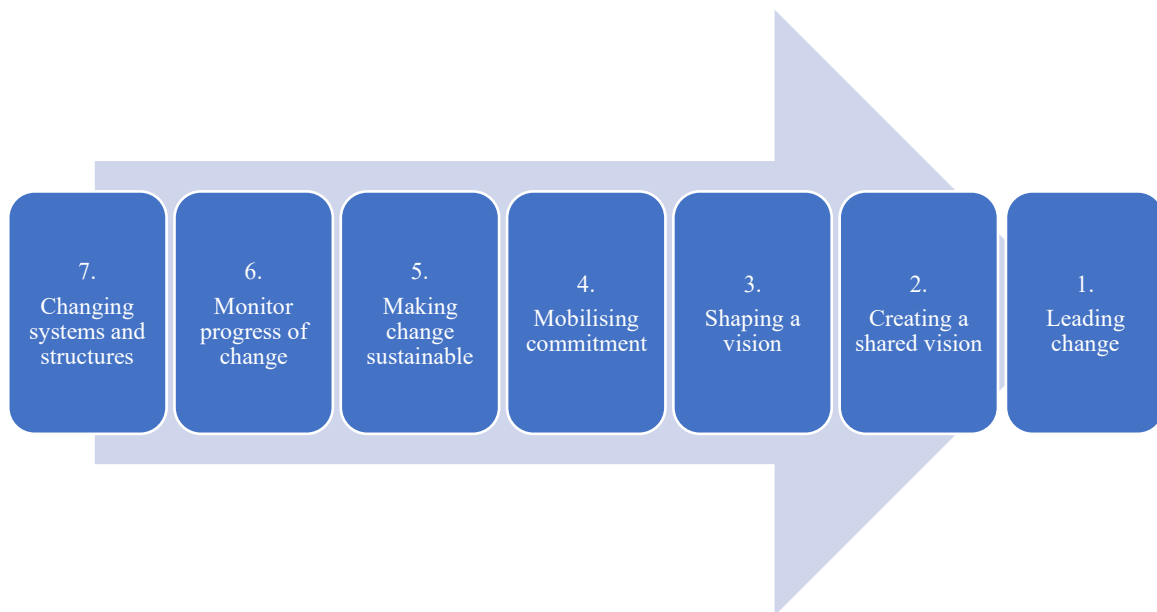
Figure 3.3: Steps in the Change Acceleration Processes (CAP) Model
Source: Neri and Mason (2008:184) and Holloway (2015:7)

Figure 3.3 shows all seven steps in the CAP model related to the organisational imperatives identified as the internal drivers of change. These steps show how, in the change process, the organisation assumes that people should accept, use, and implement new business strategies.

The steps in the CAP model are:

> In Step 1, the leader is a champion who behaves, owns, role models, and commits resources; by so doing, they lead the change process. In Step 2, the team recognises the reasons for change and makes sure the reasons are widely accepted and understood while overcoming change resistance. In this step, information sharing, and support are ensured for everyone who participates, and they appreciate why they need to undergo some change. In Step 3, the team defines the anticipated outcome of change and conveys it to all key stakeholders. In Step 4, the key

stakeholders are identified, resistance analysis is performed, and actions are developed to gain support and commitment. Commitment should be mobilised, and support should be built, while all stakeholders' interests should be considered. In Step 5, the team institutes appropriate systems and structures to make the change sustainable. In Step 6, realistic benchmarks are measured, while monitoring the progress of the change. Step 7 requires communication with staff; new roles being given to staff; and initiation of new reporting relationships and rewards by changing systems and structures. These steps allow for change to be integrated into the organisational culture (Neri & Mason, 2008:184).

3.7.4 Jick's (1991) 10 Step Change Model

This model was introduced in 1991 and was considered a strategic model to deal with significant organisational change projects and analyse change to create a shared vision and common direction (Nyaga, Odero & Kiplang, 2017:232). It serves as a blueprint for organisations that embark on change and need to evaluate change projects already in existence (Mento, Jones & Dirndorfer, 2002:46; Gerster, Dremel & Kelker, 2019:4957). Some researchers initiated similar concepts for the change, called 'ten commandments of change', which did not create a new scope for organisational change (Al-Darmaki, 2015:83).

The first step presents the Jick's (1991) 10 step change model and involves determining whether the change is essential. Once the need for change is established, a change plan can be drafted (Al-Darmaki, 2015:84). The second step links with Kotter's (1995) 8-step model (third step), which emphasises creating a shared vision for the organisation (Al-Darmaki, 2015:84). This model highlights the importance of separating current change initiatives with those that have taken place in the past (Al-Darmaki, 2015:84). The fourth step is about creating a sense of urgency, ensuring that Step two and Step three are separated from what is achieved. Step five is about giving strong support to leaders of change. In this step, the leadership needs to have a positive team about the change and execute the change vision. Step six ensures that political sponsors are working collaboratively with the change team. They are getting buy-ins from influences of change and senior leadership. In Step seven, skills are expected to be available to plan the implementation of change. In step eight, develop empowering structures appropriate for the change process. Remove all impediments that can disturb change to take place. In step nine, here, the leader involves every employee who will partake in the change process and creates an ethical environment through honest

communication. There is honesty that is formed between change agents and change recipients. Step ten is the last; it requires reinforcing and institutionalising change. In other words, change initiation has taken place, and change recipients know a lot about this change and is not a surprise much longer. Change effort is well-maintained to ensure that the endpoint is successfully attained. Table 3.3 presents Jick's (1991) 10 steps in the sequence of events that organisations could follow when Schedule 2 SOEs change processes are needed.

Table 3.3: Jick's (1991) 10 step change model

Step	Description of what should be done in each step
1	Analyse if it is necessary for the organisation to undergo change
2	Create a shared vision and a common direction that all should undergo
3	Separate the past from the present state of change
4	Create a sense of urgency for change
5	Support a strong leader's role in the change process
6	Line up political sponsorship
7	Craft an implementation plan
8	Develop enabling structures suitable for the change process
9	Communicate, involve people, and have the honesty of an ethical leader
10	Reinforce and institutionalise change

Source: Al-Darmaki (2015:84) and Banerjee, Tuffnell and Alkhadragy (2019:5)

Table 3.3 shows all ten steps involved in Jick's (1991) change model. This model addresses the need to analyse pertinent issues in the organisation's internal and external imperatives to see if the change is required, as shown in Section 3.9.2, Figure 3.8.

The section that follows describes these key elements to guide the process of change more explicitly. The organisational vision when communicated by the leader makes change implementation acceptable to employees (Van der Voet, 2016:660). In the following sections, Chebbi, Yahiaoui, Sellami, Papasolomou and Melanthiou (2020:210) present the Jick's (1991) 10 step change model as:

Step 1: Analyse the need for change in the organisation
The preliminary analysis will inform the change plan that has to happen, enabling the organisation to achieve its objectives. In this period, the organisation assesses the feasibility of facilitating change, conducting an impact analysis and change readiness for employees

and all stakeholders involved in the change process. These assessment stages will assist the organisation to execute an effective change plan.

Step 2: Create a shared vision and a common direction

The vision created should reflect the organisational ethos and help employees to understand the direction the organisation is going through. Another benefit of an adequate vision is that it guides behaviour and helps the organisation to achieve its required goals.

Step 3: Separate the past from the present state of change

Disengaging from the past is a crucial step in the right direction because it helps the organisation to embrace the new way of doing things. For a new vision to be a reality, the ways of working that no longer work need to be isolated, while retaining the aspects that add value to the organisational vision.

Step 4: Generate a sense of urgency for change

When reasons for change are apparent, such as a financial loss, the organisation needs to be convinced that it must undergo some change. However, when the need for change is not understood, it is crucial to create a sense of urgency based on facts to build momentum for the change to happen.

Step 5: Support a strong leader's role

Large-scale change processes require strong leadership to advocate, inspire, guide, and drive the change process. This control role will shape the vision of the organisation while also creating a supportive environment.

Step 6: Line up political sponsorship

A change effect should receive support throughout the organisation for the change to succeed. It will include the end-users of the change process, such as those seeking the support of internal leaders. Therefore, one needs to identify whose sponsorship is critical to the change project.

Step 7: Craft an implementation plan

In crafting the implementation plan, the organisation must address what is needed, when is it needed, and when the organisation expects to achieve its change goals. The plan should also be kept flexible and be used as a 'living' document that is open for revision.

Step 8: Develop enabling structures

The change should be aligned to create the required structures in the supportive environment for the change to occur.

Step 9: Communicate, involve people, and have honesty

Whenever possible, change leaders should adopt an open and honest approach to interact with the change team. Communicating regularly with employees and maintaining trust will help the organisation to overcome resistance.

Step 10: Reinforce and institutionalise change

Changing rewards and recognising good behaviour that support the change reinforce the new ways of doing things, affirm the importance of the change, and hasten its acceptance.

3.7.5   Kotter's (1995) 8 Step Change Model

Kotter (1995) described typical organisational change failures and capitalised on them to formulate eight steps to address change (Bakari, 2016:17). Kotter (1995) formulated the 8-step change model after examining hundreds of companies in his consulting practice going through a change process (Galli, 2018:126). The examination created much interest in Kotter because this was based on real-life companies. Furthermore, it expanded on Lewin's (1947) original change theory (Cooper, Stanulis, Brondyk, Hamilton, Macaluso & Meier, 2016:90). Kotter (1995) believed that "leadership must create and sustain the kind of change needed to make the organisation successful". The model stresses the importance of getting people to participate in any change (Cooper et al., 2016:95). Figure 3.4 shows the eight steps in Kotter's (1995) change model.
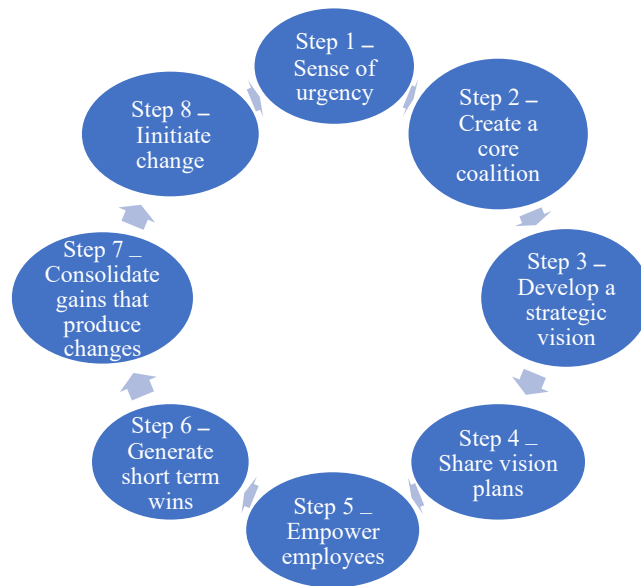
Figure 3.4: Kotter's (1995) 8 step change model
Source: Galli (2018:126)

Figure 3.4 shows how Kotter's (1995) 8-step model functions and the links between the stages as change progresses. These steps are related to the items listed in Figure 3.8, which are examples of organisational imperatives when the drivers of change are analysed. Yet drivers of change ensure that leadership creates meaning to change and to compete as an organisation navigates through change. Kotter (1995) recommended these 8-steps and described them as follows:

In Step 1, the project team should realise that there is a need for change and create a sense of urgency (Daniel, 2019:25). Kotter (2012:3) stated that "creating a sense of urgency" is critical to increasing the organisation's awareness that a strategic adjustment is required and always need new opportunities.

In Step 2 of creating a core coalition, Kotter (1996:4) noted that, for effective change to happen, a coalition directed by influential managers who can work in collaboration, should be assembled (Cameron & Green, 2019:115).

Step 3 involves developing a strategic vision that requires the formulation of clear and sensible transformation ideas (Eachempati, 2017:78). The transformation vision is required to align objectives to the progress as a group, and strategies that touch "the head and the heart" to guide the change effort (Calegari, Sibley & Turner, 2015:35). The change will be a failure if there is no well-developed strategic vision because the project team or organisation does not have an overall roadmap for the change process (Eachempati,

2017:78). It is beneficial for the organisation if employees understand why change is necessary (Galli, 2018:127).

Step 4 is about communicating the strategic vision to all employees which is the step to encourage their understanding. The change management should share the vision to get employees and team members' support and see the need for change. This step is vital because if not handled appropriately, there may be some resistance as employees and team members may feel left out (Galli, 2018:127).

In Step 5, employee empowerment means allowing employees to contribute ideas to the change process and get rid of impediments to change, such as obstructive structures and systems (Cameron & Green, 2019:115). According to Auguste (2013:3), communication alone is insufficient: achieving buy-in from all employees to make the change method acceptable and useful is also essential.

In Step 6, when the organisation sees that change is in progress, new processes and procedures are introduced to bring about the significant outcomes and share the needed change; therefore, promoting the short-term achievements of change is vital (Cameron & Green, 2019:115). The short-term win will motivate staff and result in long-term performance to show that the change has effectively taken place (Crum, Salovey & Achor, 2013:718). These wins will help the change management team to test the impact of the change in the light of the vision and make the necessary adjustments (Cameron & Green, 2019:115).

Step 7 is when the organisation requires the project team to consolidate the gains and produce more change efforts (Cameron & Green, 2019:115), not allowing for complacency. However, continuous progress should be the principal goal (Calegari et al., 2015:35). Discrepancies between attitudes and behaviour are likely to dominate in this instance because the newly changed attitudes may be too weak to guide behaviour (Itzchakov, Uziel & Wood, 2018:2). Change efforts fail because participants revert to their prior habits, attitudes, and behaviour, and then fail to implement the change (Galli, 2018:126).

Finally, in Step 8, the change initiation starts to 'make it stick'; in other words, the new behaviour becomes the norm (Calegari et al., 2015:36). In this stage, the organisational goal is implemented, and change is anchored into the organisational culture, and real change can be seen (Calegari et al., 2015:36).

3.7.6   McKinsey (1980) 7 S Model

The McKinsey (1980) 7 S model was developed by Peters, Pascale and Waterman, while the McKinsey and management consulting company employees were also participating in other organisational activities (Galli, 2018:127). The 7 S model consists of the seven steps (all starting with the letter S). These are the structure, systems, style of leadership, staff, skills, shared values and beliefs, and the strategy to fulfil the change project (Awino, Njeru & Adwet, 2017:6). Figure 3.5 shows how the seven steps in McKinsey's (1980) 7 S model interlink and operate during the change process:
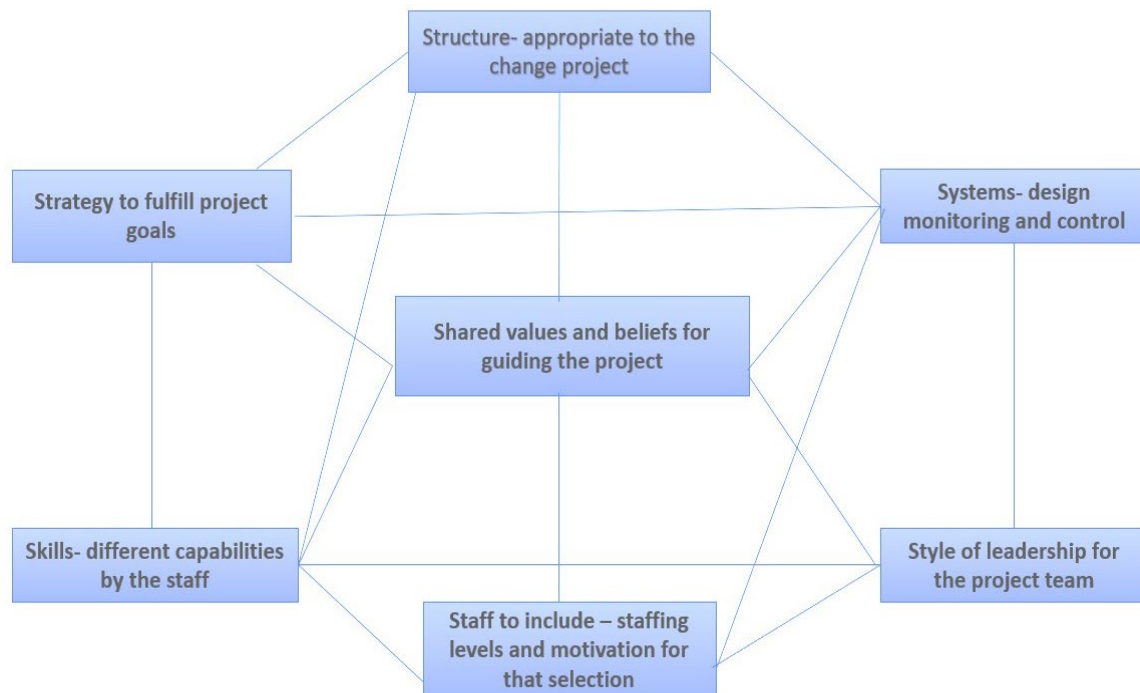
Figure 3.5: McKinsey (1980) 7 S model
Source: Awino et al. (2017:6) and Galli (2018:127)

The McKinsey (1980) 7 S model is a structured approach to the initiation of organisational change (Cameron & Green, 2019:122) because an organisation consists of seven critical features related to the internal drivers of change. The first S is the structure which entails integrating and coordinating mechanisms in the organisation. The second S is the systems available for measurement and control of activities that assist in the strategy implementation. The third S, style, refers to the leadership style that allows participation and implementation of the strategy. The fourth S is staff which refers to the skills, education, and experience that the staff need to partake in the change project. The fifth S refers to the skills available in the form of capabilities and competencies within the organisation's staff. The sixth S refers to

the employees' shared values and beliefs of the change process's vision. The last S signifies the strategy formulated by all parties involved. It is easy to understand, and the implementation stages can occur according to the set timelines.

The advantage of the model lies in showing the organisation's seven core dimensions (Galli, 2018:129). These features provide leaders and subordinates with an opportunity to identify where their need lies. The disadvantage of this model is that it can be extensive and tedious to go through all the levels, and the model is a challenge because it is too large to comprehend. Instead of focusing on the people side of change, it focuses on skills, resources, and strategy.

3.7.7   The ADKAR (2006) Change Model

The acronym for the term ADKAR stands for the five objectives the organisation seeks to accomplish with this model: awareness, desire, knowledge, ability, and reinforcement. The ADKAR change model was created by Hiatt (2006) and was based on research done on various organisations like Schedule 2 SOE's change (Mouser & Pierson, 2017:46). Success is rooted in how change is enabled (Galli, 2018:127). This shows that businesses, government agencies and communities can increase the likelihood that the emergent changes are implemented, and therefore, it becomes an assurance for the process of transformation (Al-Darmaki, 2015:89). Hiatt (2006) claimed that the secret to the success of this model is that it creates a viable checklist for the change process, which lies beyond the visible and busy activities that surround change (Al-Darmaki, 2015:89). The model has five objectives that are shown in Figure 3.6.

The sequence of events for the model is shown in Figure 3.6, and is described as follows:

- **Awareness:** represents the realisation that change is needed in attitudes and behaviour for the significance of change capability (Galli, 2018:130). The capability is turning knowledge into action to increase organisational performance (Schrettle, Hinz, Scherrer-Rathje & Friedli, 2014:79). It can be achieved when a group has demonstrated the competencies to implement change at a required enhanced interpersonal skills level, collaborative communication, and a leader's performance level (Murdock et al., 2019:131). Awareness includes information about internal and external drivers that created the need for changes as well as "what is in it for me?" (Galli, 2018:129).
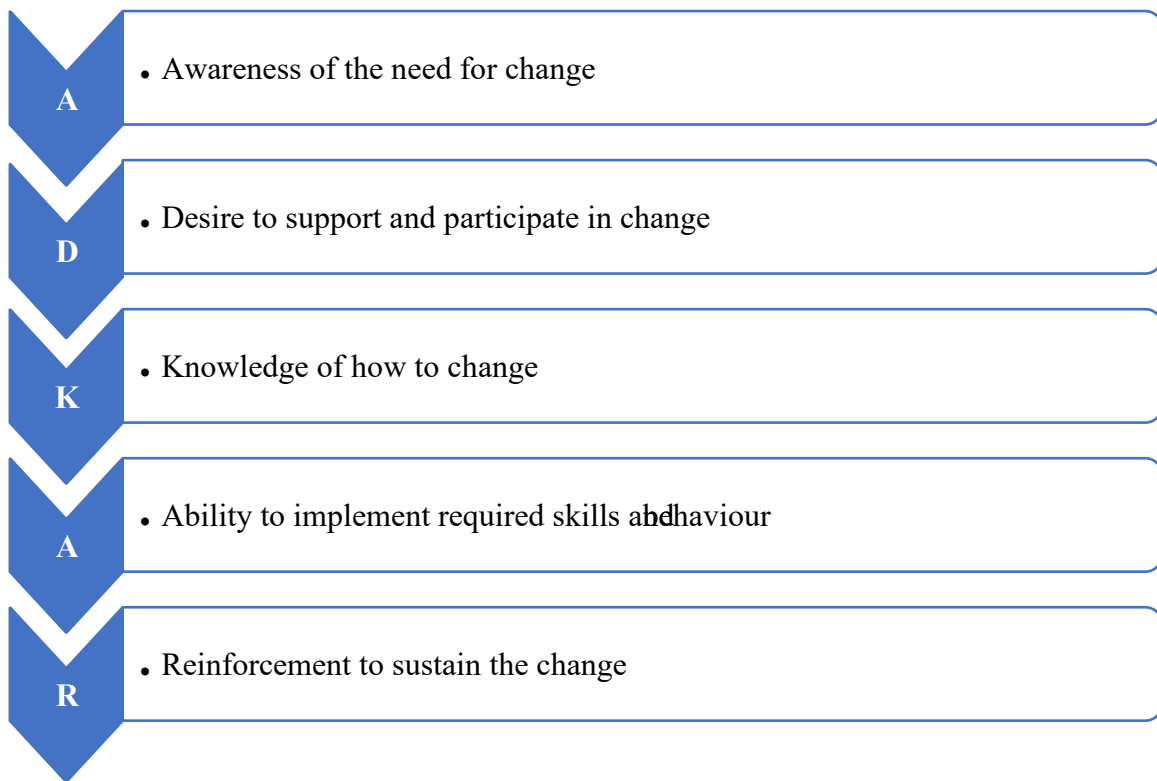
Figure 3.6: Objectives of the ADKAR model
Source: Hiatt (2006:2) and Al-Damaki (2015:89)

- **Desire:** represents the willingness to partake and support the change process (Boca, Erdogdu & Mukaj, 2015:1871). Desire is ultimately about personal choice and is influenced by the nature of the change. It depends on an individual's personal and intrinsic motivators that are unique to each person (Galli, 2018:130).

- **Knowledge**: represents information, training, and education necessary to know how to change (Boca, 2014:428). Knowledge brings clarity to a vital aspect, including information, job roles, techniques and skills that enrich an individual's competency (De Mauro, Greco, Grimaldi & Ritala, 2018:807).

- **Ability:** refers to a person's application of the required skills, an understanding of the nature of change, why the change is being made, and the risk of not changing (Voehl & Harrington, 2017:4).

- **Reinforcement**: represents the internal and external factors that can sustain the change (Dana, Mukaj & Vishkurti, 2016:872).

All these objectives fall into the natural order of how personal experiences change, e.g., desire cannot come before awareness. It is the awareness of the need for change that stimulates the desire or triggers the resistance to that change once it is conceptualised in

mind. The lifecycle of the ADKAR model begins after the need for a change has been identified, and the organisation has a solid foundation for implementation. The model provides change management activities that instil readiness, assess sponsorship, communicate, coach, train, recognise employees' resistance, and provide corrective measures for change (Voehl & Harrington, 2017:4).

Lewin (1947)	4-Stage model	CAP 7-step model	Jick's (1991) 10-step model	Kotter's (1995) 8-step model	7-S model	ADKAR model
Unfreeze	Exploration	Lead change	Analyse need for change	Sense of urgency	Structure	Awareness
	Planning	Shared need		Create core coalition	Style of leadership	Desire
		Shape vision	Create vision	Share vision plans	System for design	
			Separate from past	Develop strategic level	Strategy to suit goals	
		Mobilise commitment	Create urgency		Shared values guiding project	
Change			Support leader role	Empower employees	Staff involvement	Knowledge
		Sustainable change	Political sponsor	Develop short-term wins	Skills with distinct capabilities	
			Craft implementation language			
	Integration	Monitor progress	Develop enabling structures	Coordinate gains		Ability to implement
		Communicate	Communication and honesty			
Refreeze	Action		Reinforce change	Initiate change		Reinforce

Figure 3.7: Comparison of change management models
Source: Researcher's own compilation

Figure 3.7 illustrates how change management models are compared, and their features differ. It is impossible to align them precisely because of the starting and intervening steps;

for example, Kotter's (1995) model starts with 'sense of urgency', but this is only the 4th step in Jick's (1991) model. Some models do not have an endpoint that reinforce or initiate change, such as the CAP model and the 7 S model. One assumes, though, that every model intends to bring about the desired change.

3.8 COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF CHANGE MANAGEMENT MODELS

The literature has shown that some change management models share standard features. In contrast, some models are similar to Jick's (1991) 10-step change model and Ten Commandments for Managing Change, as stated by Al-Darmaki (2015:84-85). The following sections compare the most common models of change management.

3.8.1 Lewin's (1947) Model

In the history of change management models, Lewin's (1947) change model is the only one that has fewer steps to action, i.e., unfreezing, changing, and refreezing, and it is regarded as the fundamental approach to change (Cummings et al., 2016:33). Lewin's (1947) model is conventional and attractive for large organisations and change management teams. Lewin, the developer of this model, is regarded as the "father of change management" (Cummings et al., 2016:34). The three steps in this model, i.e. (unfreeze, change, and freeze) are easy to analyse and are transparent enough for change management novices to understand how to facilitate the change process from start to finish (Galli, 2018:115). However, this model's disadvantage is that it uses a metaphoric name associated with risk. People's resistance to change could influence teams to think about risk when associated with Lewin's (1947) change model. "To defrost something that has been frozen can also be associated with something that may not be repairable and as a waste of time".

3.8.2 Bullock and Batten (1985) 4 Stage Model

The four-stage model devised by Bullock and Batten (1985) is referred to as a planning process of change denoted by various actions: exploration, planning, integration, and action (Rosenbaum et al., 2018:290). This model is based on a project management platform that sees a change from a technical viewpoint (Rosenbaum et al., 2018:290). This model provides crucial tools that awaken organisational agility. The most likely disadvantage with this approach is that it focuses more on integrating systems and structures than on people collaborating for change (Nodikida, 2017:16).

3.8.3　Change Acceleration Processes (CAP)

When management operates within the CAP (2009) change acceleration model, they should understand that it can evolve non-linearly as various change activities are crucial to the change management team and their constituents (Galli, 2018:127). However, a disadvantage of this model is that leading change does not have to be the first step in the change management process since there may be various factors to consider. Instead, the leader should get everyone on board, commit to avoiding failure (Galli, 2018:128), and conduct the change process without employee resistance (Serban & Iorga, 2016:356).

3.8.4　Jick's (1991) 10 Step Model

Jick's (1991) 10 step model serves as an ideal design for organisational change; some companies say so (Mento et al., 2002:45). The model covers all the strategic steps for the potential of planning and evaluating the change progress (Hayes, 2018:44). From the analysis of the need to change, an organisation desires to establish a sense of self-discovery, which is good because the organisation can then verify stakeholders' participation in the change. Three steps in this model, i.e., 2, 3 and 4, speak to employees' human resource issues because employees benefit the most when their vision is shared with them. First, the past is separated from current and behavioural change. Interaction with new things is needed when leadership creates a sense of urgency and which affects the management and all change participants, requiring an immediate focus.

3.8.5　Kotter's (1995) 8 Step Model

Kotter's (1995) 8 step model and organisational development (OD) have been the source of action research (Robbins & Judge, 2009:627). Kotter (1995) categorised change management into the following three processes:

Business process re-engineering (BPR): This is a change implementation process in the organisation. The old methods of doing things are stopped, and new ways of doing things take over. Once the new processes start, they bring about new meaningful change performance. This process assists organisations to restructure and focus on new business features of leadership ideas and control:

- Technological change: The organisation in this stage embraces invention, innovation, and the diffusion of operational efficiency processes to integrate technology into organisational procedures.

- Incremental change: In this process, the current structure starts with new events, but minor changes are experienced, focusing on reaching the organisational new state. This is done to ensure overall change efficiency.

3.8.6 McKinsey (1980) 7 S Model

The McKinsey (1980) 7 S model has advantages in showing the strengths and the weaknesses in the organisation's dimensions for the change project team. Therefore, characteristics illustrated in Figure 3.5 provide managers with an opportunity to identify where the need for change lies clearly. However, this model's disadvantage is that it can be time-consuming and tedious to go through all the levels of the change process. In addition, if the steps of change are complex to investigate, it would be challenging to implement, especially in large organisations. Another disadvantage is that instead of focusing the model on changing the people, it focuses only on changing the organisational skills (Blanco-Portela et al., 2017:565).

3.8.7 ADKAR (2014) Model

The ADKAR (2014) model has an advantage because it focuses on employees and project team members' acceptance of the change. The process starts and ends with employees because they are first made aware of the change process, making them want to participate. The profit of using this model is that since it focuses primarily on the people side of the change, it is better suited for project teams and environments (Blanco-Portela et al., 2017:565).

3.8.8 Summary of the Comparison

Model comparison is for the six models, and the selection was made mainly because these approaches are commonly used in organisations. The literature on change management (Mento et al., 2002:45; Hayes 2018:86) confirmed that out of these six models, the top three are:

- Kotter's (1995) 8 step model

- the CAP (2009) model
- Jick's (1991) 10 step model

The models that are considered planned change management approaches, according to Nodikida (2017:16), are:

- Lewin's (1947) model
- Bullock and Batten (1985) 4 phase model
- Kotter's (1995) 8 step model

The planned change management approaches provide crucial tools to awaken organisational agility to change. Each of these models encapsulates the basic concept of change management by recognising the organisation's current state and realising that a need for change is required (Galli, 2018:115). In addition, three of the six models (Kotter, McKinsey 7-S Model, and the Change Acceleration Process, provide details on the beginning, managing, and sustaining of change (Galli, 2018:115). This detailed level provides clarity and structure to the change process; however, things can quickly go wrong (Galli, 2018:115).

Some models focus more on executing change rather than on the people dimension. For example, Lewin's (1947) change model and Kotter's (1995) 8-step model are the most limited on the people activities, while the ADKAR (2014) model has the most significant focus on employees and team members. However, this is only effective when dealing with large-scale implementation (Cummings et al., 2016:35).

Failure to understand and implement change management models contributes to why change management initiatives are branded as useless or trivial undertakings (Holloway, 2015:6). Therefore, the selected change management model must reinforce change that ensures successful and sustainable implementation (Holloway, 2015:7). The arranged plan for change can disrupt the status quo of the organisation. However, if everyone accepts change as unavoidable, the change models can be used to move towards a more sustainability-oriented state (MSOS) (Blanco-Portela et al., 2017:565). Also, the organisational systems that need changing must be identified and strategies should be formulated to address change barriers (Blanco-Portela et al., 2017:565). In conclusion, leadership needs to be aware that change models can be used proficiently by the organisation provided there is a willingness from the employees to implement change (Galli, 2018:115).

3.9 DRIVERS OF CHANGE

Many of the challenges with change result from leaders not attending to the cultural, behavioural and mindset components of people involved in the change process, or not attending to them in ways that make a real impact (Kirsch, Chelliah & Parry, 2011:13). To survive and grow in today's economic climate, organisations need to react rapidly to changes occurring on a national or global level (Appelbaum et al., 2018:41). Organisations are forced to make changes by updating and remodelling their strategies or, in some instances, even changing their business models (Appelbaum et al., 2018:41). All drivers of change are connected and cause a chain reaction that influences the entire organisation (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015:235).

Therefore, it is vital to view that drivers of change have a significant element that pushes organisations to change. Drivers of change can be internal or external. The drivers of change in organisations are summarised in Figure 3.8.

3.9.1 Drivers of Change in Organisations

Figure 3.8 illustrates these drivers as a nested system where internal drivers are nested within external drivers connected by stakeholder imperatives. A discussion of the drivers of change also follows in the next sections.

Leadership and employee change in behaviour and attitudes contribute towards driving change (Appelbaum et al., 2015:73). In the process, the collaboration between the organisational and daily work challenges, including production/customer service, should still be attended to. It is vital to make stakeholders conscious of their role and impact in changing to instigate motivation and commitment.

When addressing organisational change, organisations have greater control over internal drivers of change than the external drivers of change. Internal drivers of change are aligned with the factors that are impacted by the change. These are communication about the change process to enhance understanding of stakeholders, leader and employee behaviour, mind-set, commitment, culture, talent development, and governance to ensure that the organisation's internal environment is conducive to change (Blanco-Portela et al., 2017:564), as shown in Figure 3.8.
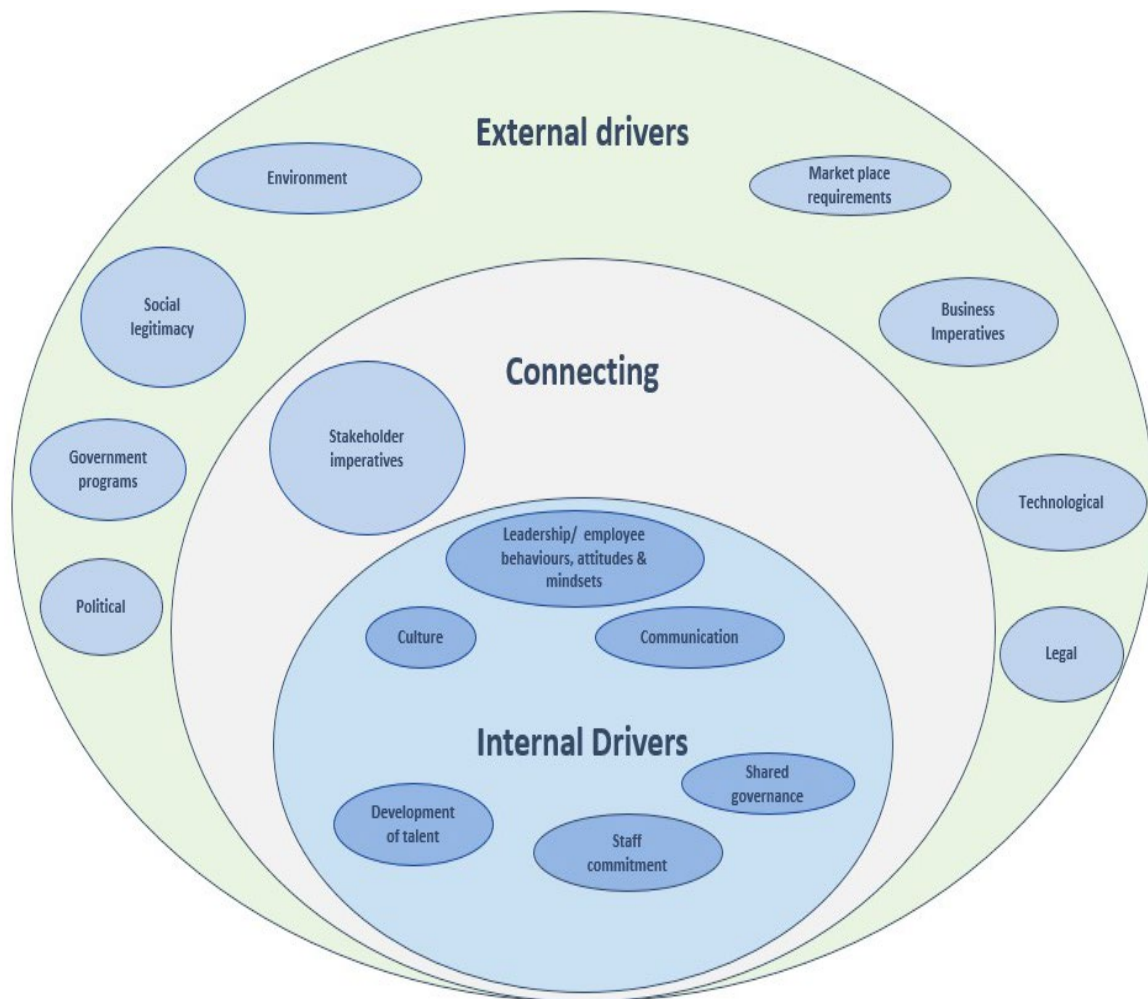
Figure 3.8: Drivers of change
Source: Blanco-Portela et al. (2017:572)

The layer where the external drivers of change are found includes all elements that the leadership should be familiar with before implementing any change. Changes in the external environment create new requirements in the organisation to prosper in the marketplace. They lead to demands for new products and services and the formulation of new business strategies that may require changes in the organisational structures, systems, and processes.

3.9.2   Internal and External Imperatives of Change

The internal imperatives are what drives change from the inside of the organisation, and external imperatives refer to what drives change from outside the organisation, as seen in Figure 3.8. The following sections present the drivers of change:

3.9.2.1 Drivers of change

The internal drivers entail organisational imperatives, such as leadership and employee behaviour and attitudes, communication to explain processes to solicit commitment for change from employees, development of talent, and organisational policies that will help employees move from the current to the future. Changes reflected in organisational policies ensure that employees are not constrained by the old systems and develop employees who can implement the new vision (Cameron & Green, 2019:337). The internal drivers of change include the development of the vision, mission, and values of the change management plan (Cameron & Green, 2019:183). The external drivers involve environmental imperatives, such as regulatory compliance, technology updates, competition, and changes in the business environment (Nwokeji, Aqlan, Barn, Clark & Kulkarni, 2018:4631).

3.9.2.2 Leadership and employee change in behaviour and attitudes

Organisations focus on the behaviour and attitudes of individuals to detect the source of conflict (Young, Davis, McNeill, Malhotra, Russell, Unsworth & Clegg, 2015:689). The reason for organisations to focus on this change-related behaviour is to assess environmental performance (Young et al., 2015:690). In addition, commitment or resistance comes from employees and leaders in an organisation that they perceive as supportive or not supportive (Appelbaum et al., 2015:73). Therefore, leadership and employees' change in behaviour and attitudes contribute towards commitment towards driving change (Holten & Brenner, 2015:5).

3.9.2.3 Employee talent development

Employees are valuable assets in the organisations as not much change can be done (Dalal & Akdere, 2018:342). However, employees need recognition for their talent, and leadership must evaluate talent (Aziz, Afthanorhan, Awang & Nisar, 2016:2). Furthermore, talent development is essential in organisations due to shortages of skills and the need to develop new skills related to the change (Johnson, Huang & Doyle, 2019:822). Therefore, talent development is required to fill the critical elements that drive organisational change (Johnson et al., 2019:831). In addition, organisations need the talent to ensure that they achieve their business plans (Morin, Meyer, Bélanger, Boudrias, Gagné & Parker, 2016:867).

3.9.2.4 Change communication

Organisational change creates an increased need for communication, clear goals, and defined roles and responsibilities that support change (Cameron & Green, 2019:72). Leadership should manage these issues related to organisational change as they play a crucial role in executing the change (Abbas & Asghar, 2010:1). Leadership communicates the organisational vision to inform employees, thereby assisting employees to become committed to implementing the change (Muzanenhamo, 2016:18). Communication directed to employees is essential in the process of change. Organisational change communication is also critical for change success (Dos Santos Costa, Morais & Tomé, 2017:423). Hence, organisations emphasise the leadership's active role in the change process (Dumas & Beinecke, 2018:874). If leaders need to prevent resistance to organisational change, they should give more weight to communication (Akan, Ülker & Ünsar, 2016:53).

3.9.2.5 Political influences

Politics highlight the stormy nature of governance (Ansell & Trondal, 2018:43). Politics affect mainly public entities with change (Schmidt, Groeneveld & Van de Walle, 2017:1543). That is perhaps why there are many changes in public organisations. The factors that result in change management can be external or internal drives (Schmidt et al., 2017:1551). Change management in the organisation is often triggered by a new political dispensation (Buchanan & Badham, 2020:2). Politics influence tactics and perceptions, controlling conversations, and exercising power (Buchanan & Badham, 2020:4).

3.9.2.6 Changes in the legal environment

Change management often happens in organisations due to a combination of factors, namely: legal, economic, political, social, and new technology. Legal factors have increased in organisations due to intense competition and changing environments. The legislative or legal environment leads to organisational change to comply with the law (Da Fonseca, 2015:42). Key drivers of change in public organisations are new, with legislative and regulatory changes added to the list (Cameron & Green, 2019:194).

3.9.2.7 Economic trends

Economic trends are currently the most common drivers of change in an organisation (Pawera, Khomsan, Zuhud, Hunter, Ickowitz & Polesny, 2020:1252). Although all challenges in the economic environment still exist, employees remain essential in predicting

organisational performance (Matthysen & Harris, 2018:2). If organisational change starts because of an emergent situation like economic, social, and political trends, then organisations need to respond to those changes rapidly (Shash, Zaaza & Alsalti, 2020:143). A crisis in economic trends entails the loss of profit, and the resulting change might cause restructuring in the organisations (Shash et al., 2020:144). Therefore, the change plan is initiated by social and economic measures of the business environment (Beer & Micheli, 2018:757).

The null and alternative hypotheses arising from this discussion are:

> **H$_0$5:** There is no relationship between drivers of change management and organisational change.
>
> **Ha5:** There is a relationship between drivers of change management and organisational change.

3.10 MESSAGING IN THE CHANGE PROCESS

Messaging is the advertising of the coming change in organisations. Employees need to be informed well in advance about the upcoming change, and the leader must ensure that knowledge has been received. The following sections discuss organisational agility and knowledge acquisition as follows:

3.10.1 Organisational Agility

We live in times of accelerating change, where significant political events change our perceptions of the world (Wals & Corcoran, 2012:77). Organisational agility is the organisation's ability to develop and exploit its knowledge structures to compete successfully in uncertain and unpredictable environments (Gunsberg et al., 2018:953). Fundamental change is within one's reach, and individuals need to continue to work and create meaning in social structures (Norgaard, Reed & Bacon, 2018:107). For example, new technology means that the impossible becomes commonplace (Gareth, 2017:56). Change is all around us, and managing change well is the crucial attribute of a successful leader in organisations today (Gunsberg et al., 2018:953). Organisational agility has a positive relationship with organisational performance because such agility may foster an organisation's ability to respond to environmental changes and develop and offer high-quality products and services (Cegarra-Navarro et al., 2016:1545). Researchers have

proposed that organisational agility has a positive effect on performance. They have suggested that organisations lacking in agility will be less able to adapt existing processes and routines to deal with changes in the environment that new knowledge signals. Given that, such adaptability directly influences organisational performance (Gareth, 2017:56).

3.10.2 Knowledge Acquisition

Knowledge acquisition takes external knowledge and makes it available to others in the organisation (Nevis, DiBella & Gould, 1995:16). Many terms exist to define this process in whole or parts, such as absorptive capacity (Cepeda & Vera, 2007:426), or knowledge transfer (Ipe, 2003:337). Knowledge acquisition comprises the combination of components that allow organisations to create new knowledge about events, trends, and relationships in the external environment of the organisation by sharing information with their stakeholders (MarteloLandroguez & Cegarra-Navarro, 2014:342; Leal-Rodríguez, Eldridge, Roldán, Leal-Millán & Ortega-Gutiérrez, 2015:803). Although the literature indicates that applying knowledge affects organisational outcomes, applying this knowledge can also be a significant driver for re-learning. Therefore, a significant vehicle for creating new knowledge through reviews using after-the-event accounts of change processes lead to identifying the causes of departure from expectations (Leal-Rodríguez et al., 2015:805). For example, knowledge application supports transparency, responsiveness, common language, and shared understanding. Furthermore, as indicated by companies, using existing knowledge may lead to more significant opportunities to leverage their internal business processes, helping them respond appropriately to marketplace vitality and dynamics (Leal-Rodríguez et al., 2015:805).

3.11   CHANGE PLANNING

The view is that planned change can be achieved directly from the organisations (Cummings et al., 2016:39). However, some guidelines can be considered for change planning. The following sections discuss the change plan in full context:

3.11.1   Change and Employees

Planning for change requires a leader to consider its impact on the participants. Knowing about the change outcomes from the beginning is the best policy (Van der Voet, 2016:672). Communicating the value of the change and facilitating participation in the implementation

of change indicates employee commitment (Van der Voet, 2016:672). Osei-Bonsu (2014:140) showed that employees found that change management impacted their job security if the planning is not well-communicated. It is therefore essential to have trust in the leader during the change process (Osei-Bonsu, 2014:142).

3.11.2 Readiness for Change

In the change initiative, employee engagement is vital to sustaining their commitment (Rosenbaum et al., 2018:287). This involvement of employees occurs due to employee readiness (Wang, Olivier & Chen, 2020:2). In addition, the readiness for change is an essential catalyst for organisations to move forward from the planned phase (Wang et al., 2020:1).

3.11.3 Planning Involves In-depth Understanding

Planning should involve an in-depth understanding of existing systems and processes and clarify why change needs to happen, the resource issues that should be addressed, and targets that should be reached (Rosenbaum et al., 2018:292). This type of planning leads to employee commitment and change in management structures (Hussain et al., 2016:125), and is likely to prevent resistance.

3.11.4 Allocation of Resources According to Plan

Within the leadership activities, leaders are expected to provide resources and disseminate the concept of the need for change in an organisation to address operational and problem-solving processes (Dumas & Beinecke, 2018:869). However, resources needed for the change process are allocated according to plan (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015:241). Overall, a change management plan is a systematic approach to managing the change that deals with people and resources, while considering factors such as the organisation's culture (Al-Ali et al., 2017:723). For example, if resources are given to people, some resources are training, skills development, instructions, and a leader's support for inquiries during change (Galli, 2018:129).

In a new state of change, an organisation may find itself having to use new resources that never existed before (Dumas & Beinecke, 2018:871). Thus, human resources practices need to be aligned with the change to support its implementation (Dumas & Beinecke, 2018:869).

It is essential to remember that organisations during change operate locally and globally (Parella, 2019:12). Therefore, when change happens in the socio-politico-economic arenas of the western world, in the eastern part of the world, its impact is likely to be experienced in terms of a business's organisational health (Singh, 2008:3). Leaders indeed set the examples for others in organisations (Grisaffe, VanMeter & Chonko, 2016:156). Hence, leadership assumes a direct impact on how organisations should approach and deal with the change management processes and practices (Burke, 2017:4).

Additionally, if change management does not permeate to all levels in the organisation and does not start at the top, it is unlikely that change management programmes will be effective (Kumar, Loonam, Allen & Sawyer, 2016:97). Change management occurs in private companies generally to improve profitability (Lazzarini & Musacchio, 2018:259) and in the public organisations, its primary responsibility is to provide services to society and not principally to obtain financial rewards (Kowalski, Büge, Sztajerowska & Egeland, 2013:5). Change is a fundamental and permanent concern for leadership (Suddaby & Foster, 2017:19). Therefore, organisations need a cohesive approach, where all resources to drive systemic, constructive change, minimise the destructive barriers to change and ensure that as the organisation makes changes, suitable options of the types and theories of change management are implemented (Al-Haddad, 2014:25).

3.11.5 The Change Plan Coordinates Activities

In the planning phase, the foundation sits in for change, and the design will require input from other stakeholders, such as investors. The change plan consists of well-coordinated activities aligned with organisational goals to make change successful (Hussain et al., 2016:125). Preparation will reduce resistance and assist with other concerns that may be raised by the wider stakeholder group (Rosenbaum et al., 2018:292).

3.11.6 Sense of Urgency

Change initiatives are the catalysts for change through activities, such as identifying, articulating, and outlining change opportunities by defining the initial business case. It also emphasises the urgency and ensures that critical budgetary resources are made available for managing the change process (Heyden et al., 2017:962). Leaders who know how to facilitate change ensure that the results-oriented environment is planned and creates a sense of urgency for change (Kirtman & Fullan, 2016:3).

3.11.7 Planning Separates the Past from the Present

Two paradigms characterise change management in organisations (Adserias, Charleston & Jackson, 2017:317). Paradigms define the order of change that has evolved to sustain change outcomes (Reynante et al., 2017:1). These paradigms entail first-order change and second-order change. The first order change consists of minor improvements and adjustments that do not change the core of the organisational structures but is relatively superficial and aim to modify existing practices (Russell & Bohan, 2016:341). This order is driven by increased anticipation and professional support at the intervention's onset (Clapp et al., 2016:812). Second-order change involves a fundamental alteration of organisational values or mission, cultural dynamics and organisational structures (Kezar, 2001:17; Iljins et al., 2015:946;). It is considered the foundation of change because it alters the structures and challenges the organisation's status quo (Russell & Bohan, 2016:341). Subsequently, any improvement in the organisation is considered a second-order change (Clapp et al., 2016:812). Employees use a scenario planning approach to move the present state of an organisation to a future state (Ruparathna et al., 2018:1338)

3.11.8 Support of the Change Plan

The execution of change requires drafting change plans through activities like adjustments, rolling out initiatives, aligning activities with set goals, translating objectives into milestones, and providing a sense of direction to change recipients. However, the change literature is divided about who executes what roles (Heyden et al., 2017:962). Therefore, leaders need to design effective control systems that align work behaviour. The work behaviour should address the who, what, where, why, and how (Dumas & Beinecke, 2018:868). Processing employees' views in this manner will support effective performance measures and encourage people to buy into the change plan (Beer & Micheli, 2018:757).

The null and alternative hypotheses arising from this discussion are stated as follows:

> **H$_0$6:** There is no relationship between the change plan and drivers of change management.
> **Ha6:** There is a relationship between the change plan and drivers of change management.

3.12   CHANGE IMPLEMENTATION

The team is essential for implementing change, and the leader has to be part of it. Various factors need to be considered when formulating a team. The following discussion is about collaborative teams or the workforce for change implementation.

3.12.1   A Collaborative Workforce/team

Most work these days is organised into teams, and employees work collaboratively for the organisation to succeed (Cameron & Green, 2019:3). Leadership needs to focus on the team to see their role in the change process. Employees start to change as individuals and become members of a team when they are viewed as part of the organisation (Cameron & Green, 2019:6). When teams are operational, the leadership should be involved in the team, and their resources should be sufficient to make the organisation succeed (Alves & Alves, 2015:5327).

3.12.2   Actioning the Change Plan

Actioning or implementation refers to the actual change execution. The ADKAR model is mainly used in organisations during change. Activities in this model signify integrating the steps from a technical perspective associated with the organisational change processes. It is also equivalent to the 'refreezing' stage, which is the last stage in Lewin's (1947) change management model (Rosenbaum et al., 2018:292) (Figure 3.1). Refreezing is the implementation process and is seen as actioning the change plan through instruction from the change leader (Hussain et al., 2016:124).

3.12.3   Organisational Vision

The change management process is meant to put reality in place to see where the organisation is going, crafting a new strategy for change, need for an implementation plan and political sponsorship. Communication is essential to employees during change. Thus, the organisational vision, when communicated by the leader, makes change implementation acceptable to employees (Van der Voet, 2016:660).

3.12.4 Employee and Leadership Skills

Employees' reliability in organisations is dependent on leadership behaviour (Issah, 2018:4). Organisations not having appropriate resources for change prefer to maintain their desired resources: people skills (Zafar & Naveed, 2014:239). Employees' skills create an assertion of effective implementation of change (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015:244). During the change management process, employees mainly need to have skills for self-motivation and recognition in problem-solving by leadership. Therefore, leadership support is crucial during organisational change so that employees can display required change skills (Al-Ali et al., 2017:725).

The skills of leaders are great predictors of successful change implementation (Dumas & Beinecke, 2018:869). Organisations use various mechanisms to come to terms with changes, one of which is leadership practices gained as skills are required (Fernández & Rainey, 2017:168). Leaders' skills are the ability to motivate employees, effective communication, and team building (Dumas & Beinecke, 2018:869). These competencies create value and are embedded in the organisation's people and structures (Daniel, 2019:24). Organisations are responsible for nurturing their employees' skills through targeted management programmes that focus on middle management in terms of idea selection, framing and upward communication, and top management execution abilities (Heyden et al., 2017:977). Therefore, people's contribution to change should be analysed according to generational diversity (Heyden et al., 2017:979).

3.12.5 Technology Adoption

There is a lack of knowledge of the use of technology during change management in organisations. The adoption of technology ensures that performance impact during change and information quality to prevent the complexity of the change process is attained (Hornstein, 2015:293). Nevertheless, the fast development of change processes in organisations requires advanced technology parameters to process change successfully (Chanda, Daly, Foley, LaPack, Mukherjee, Reid III, Thompson & Ward, 2015:66). Change implementation considers technology to improve operational efficiency (Wanza & Nkuraru, 2016:194).

3.12.6   Activities in Implementing Change

During the change process, the organisation needs to explain why change happens so that people know their tasks and have their emotions established (Wanza & Nkuraru, 2016:190). Activities in implementing change are aligned with the organisational processes to enhance problem-solving. Change implementation should be taken seriously with immediate effect because there is no turning back once the action has been taken (Jayatilleke & Lai, 2018:169).

3.12.7   Implementation Process

Once participation in the change process is established, change implementation is predictable, and at this point, more coalitions are identified, and social interaction and alliances are formed (Hussain et al., 2016:125). Refreezing starts once the organisation has moved from its current state to the desired state. Specific activities will be completed that involve integrated change tasks and positions that align explicitly with tasks that the organisation needs to change to achieve its goals (Hussain et al., 2016:125). The implementation of change makes the organisation different from before because the organisation has achieved the desired state and transformed from the past (Hussain et al., 2016:125).

The null and alternative hypotheses arising from this discussion are:

H_07: There is no relationship between change implementation and drivers of change management.

$Ha7$: There is a relationship between change implementation and drivers of change management.

3.13   CHANGE SUCCESS

All organisations desire change success. All involved in the process should agree on the change before it starts (Cummings et al., 2016:51). The following section discusses elements that can be included in the change process:

3.13.1 Resources that Needed to be Identified for Change Success

Resources needed for change are identified before the process starts to ensure success (Donnelly & Kirk, 2015:280). Leaders' ability to offer a supportive role should consistently supply accurate information, engage employees in the change process, demonstrate a commitment to change and provide resources needed to make change successful (Doray, 2017:13). Individual resources include employee and psychological resilience with attitudes and behaviours to elicit positive change outcomes (Shin, Taylor & Seo, 2012:728). In the absence of sufficient resources, anxiety and fatigue are likely to undermine an individual's ability to control stress, leading to resistance to change (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015:243). Successful change management is essential in organisations to survive in the dynamic and unpredictable business environment (Georgalis et al., 2015:90). Organisational inducements enable the organisation to acquire many valuable resources and include flexible time, information about its strategy and role, social support, and the ability to save these resources for later use. Resources are therefore vital for successful organisational change (Yeung, Paltsev, Daigle, Duink & Creed, 2019:347). Change processes are costly and, without the necessary resources, cannot deliver the required outcome, and result to failure (Yeung et al., 2019:346).

3.13.2 Valuable Suggestions for Change

Organisational support of employees' ideas who make the organisation effective and growing is highly favoured (Alfayad & Arif, 2017:150). It is essential to realise that employees are inactive recipients of the change process (Heyden et al., 2017:964). Employee support towards change is expected to come when they have accurate information to alleviate anxiety and feel empowered (Heyden et al., 2017:965). All employees offer valuable suggestions for change to be realised in the team structure (Kremer, Villamor & Aguinis, 2019:68).

3.13.3 Communicate the Vision for Change

Quality organisational change communication refers to how an organisation provides practical, timely and sufficient information to implement change (Wanberg & Banas, 2000:132; Smith, 2011:128) and thereby keeping employees committed to the change process (Petrou, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2018:1767). Effective communication about the vision for change is shared with all members before the change process starts (Stouten et al.,

2018:755). Organisational change communication is the most effective strategy to improve employee adjustment to change (Petrou et al., 2018:1766). Therefore, communication is considered the way to mobilise employees and persuade them to embrace change (Petrou et al., 2018:1767). Every participant during change has a role; hence, the leadership role is to ensure that communication is upheld to clearly describe employees' roles to ascertain successful adaptation to change (Petrou et al., 2018:1767). However, communication alone will not enhance the change initiation as other factors need to be included (Galli, 2018:127).

3.13.4   Organisational Knowledge

The organisation's knowledge reserves originate from inside and outside the organisation (Martelo-Landroguez & Cegarra-Navarro, 2014:343). Although much organisational knowledge comes from internal experiences, expertise, and processes to interpret it, it is converted into an explicit form that can be reused (Gutiérrez, Navarro, Carrión & Rodríguez, 2015:815), and external knowledge should be encouraged as well. Hence, enhancing an organisation's agility develops through a combination of knowledge structures (MarteloLandroguez & Cegarra-Navarro, 2014:343).

3.13.5   Commitment to Organisational Change

During a change management process, the leadership needs to be cognisance of employees' promise to change and address potential resistance (Daniel, 2019:23). The main reason for organisational inertia (i.e., the organisation remains in the same state) is a lack of promise from the employees, which should be avoided (Gareth, 2017:56). This promise is a commitment to organisational change and is encouraged amongst all employees to support the leader (Georgalis et al., 2015:106). Commitment to change is a power that successfully binds individuals to a course of action necessary to successfully implement change (Gareth, 2017:60). This commitment entails three characteristics, namely (Gareth, 2017:60):

- a wish to support change based on its inherent belief (affective commitment),
- a sense of obligation to support the change process (normative commitment), and
- a need to support a change to avoid the cost wasting mechanisms (continuance commitment).

Therefore, complex, and continuous organisational change processes must build and maintain a commitment to change. Leaders should also empower their employees to implement the change in ways that can counteract any challenges experienced (Dwyer & Azevedo, 2016:283).

3.13.6   Activities Needed to Bring Change Success

Change management involves many activities; hence, the leadership needs to provide sufficient support and knowledge to employees (Galli, 2018:129). Clear and direct activities undertaken by the leader to bring about change success are entrepreneurship, creativity, and innovation (AlHaddad & Kotnour, 2015:239). Although change success comes in various ways in organisations, the characteristics of successful interventions are blurred (Johnson & May 2015:1). Organisational change should entail money, people, organisational inducement, and sponsorship (Yeung et al., 2019:346); therefore, organising sponsorships should be an activity given a priority.

3.13.7   Feedback and Evaluation

Feedback and evaluation benefit organisations to improve leadership effectiveness (Cheng & Wu, 2020:65). Change processes are systematic and comprise changes in technical and social settings; therefore, regular feedback and evaluation are necessary (Lien & Saksvik, 2016:259). Change success depends on regular evaluation and feedback from all involved. Evaluation and feedback are manageable if the organisation has clearly outlined their goals (Albrecht, Bakker, Gruman, Macey & Saks, 2015: 26). Thus, a change process should have objectives that should be shared with all stakeholders.

3.13.8   Uniform Goals for Change Success

The people side of things requires looking at change management on two levels. Firstly, changes involve various moving and changing parts and systems at a macro level. Secondly, at a foundational and fundamental level, change management focuses on the organisation's dependence on employees to change their way of working to achieve organisational objectives (Creasey et al., 2016:333). These two steps result in the leadership depending on employees' support to realise planned organisational change goals (Huy, Corley & Kraatz, 2014:1675). Therefore, all employees need to work as a team towards the same goal for change to succeed (Cameron & Green, 2019:4). However, the leader's capacity to lead and

influence change is largely based on the leader's role in the organisation (Knight & Grimes, 2016:148).

The null and alternative hypotheses arising from this discussion are:

H$_0$8: There is no relationship between change success and drivers of change management.

Ha8: There is a relationship between change success and drivers of change management.

3.14   ORGANISATIONAL ASPECTS THAT NEED ATTENTION

Organisational aspects can affect internal imperatives if not taken seriously. The researcher has identified two of these aspects that can create conflict or resistance to change: generational diversity and the culture of the organisations. The following sections discuss these organisational aspects:

3.14.1   Generational Diversity

Members of all generational cohorts have different perspectives about change, and leaders cannot assume one job is suitable for all (Hoole & Bonnema, 2015:1). People perceive and understand their work environment based on educational, societal, and historical circumstances and events during their formative years (Hoole & Bonnema, 2015:3). Members of different generational cohorts respond differently to job characteristics, and this requires leadership to react in different ways to generations of employees (Hernaus & Vokic, 2014:615).

Therefore, leaders can benefit from understanding generational behaviours and customising their change strategies to improve organisational success (Smith & Nichols, 2015:43). Leaders need to be conscious of the generational perceptions to understand better that generational cohorts create their preconceptions because of fear of change (Smith & Nichols, 2015:42).

Effective communication is instrumental in successful change implementation and needs to address each generation's uneasiness (Al-Asfour & Lettau, 2014:61). Leaders should communicate with diverse employees from each generation to understand the change process (Armmer, 2017:1). Understanding how change affects employees and planning well

is vital for leaders and their awareness of differences in generational perceptions in response to organisational change (Armmer, 2017:3). Excluding any employees from change processes create confusion about the change initiatives and vision (Armmer, 2017:7). If employees are not involved in the change initiative, they may become apathetic instead of resistant (Huddleston & Gray, 2016:463).

3.14.2 Organisational Culture

Organisational culture is essential for organisational performance because it influences employee behaviour and decision-making (Carvalho et al., 2019:1495). Furthermore, a collective culture has a greater probability of success with teamwork consisting of informal and formal leadership, reinforcing values (Martin, Harbison, Beach & Cole, 2018:1208). Developing a culture in organisations requires more discussions and talk about culture and emphasises its importance and requires leaders who see it as a critical mission and understand that aligning strategies and decision-making with cultural ideals is suitable for the organisation (Warrick, 2017:395).

Therefore, leaders should embrace new approaches that change the culture by creating supporting structures that provide a foundation for new ways of operating (Paro & Gerolamo, 2017:584). The change should be made a living symbol until it is embedded into an organisation's culture (Magano & Thomas, 2017:2). This process can take many years since new approaches are fragile and subject to regression (Groysberg, Lee, Price & Cheng, 2018:4). It is essential to recognise that cultural change is developed by identifying and exposing the culture's hidden assumptions and identifying conflicts and device mechanisms for change (Dhir, 2019:49). The leadership is expected to display behaviour that is culture-sensitive during change (Collins, 2014:562). Culture should be such that it builds around shared ideas and goals and should include listening, learning and rapid response to issues in the organisation (Groysberg et al., 2018:21).

3.14.3 Basic Philosophies to Affect Successful Organisational Change

A good philosophy gives reasons and explains how and why relationships result in a particular event (Nilsen, 2015:54). To sustain long-term change or to project the success of an organisation, requires employees (Daniel, 2019:22). Two philosophies were designed in the organisation and are called theories. These two theories affect organisational success, namely, Theory O and E and are explained as follows:

Theory O

Theory O is cited as a softer approach (Beer & Nohria, 2000:133). It develops a new organisational culture, employees' long-term capabilities and builds trust, loyalty, and commitment through teamwork and communication (Steinke et al., 2013:127). A change in beliefs and actions may enhance culture and obviate difficulties in implementing change (Steinke et al., 2013:128).

Theory E

Theory E is considered a challenging approach since it focuses on economic value. Shareholders measure theory E and improves returns via economic incentives and could require drastic layoffs and restructuring (Steinke et al., 2013:127). Therefore, the merged theories (Theory O and Theory E) affect successful change that combines performance and people (Steinke et al., 2013:12). Table 3.4 shows how to integrate Theory O and Theory E.

Table 3.4: The outcomes of Theory O and Theory E when combined

Dimensions of change	Theory O	Theory E	Combined outcome
Goals	Develop organisational capabilities	Maximise shareholder value	Embrace the paradox between economic value and the capability of the organisation
Leadership	Encourage participation bottom up	Embrace a top-down approach to change	Set direction from the top but engage with people at the lower level
Focus	Build an organisational change culture	Emphasise structures and systems	Focus concurrently on hard and soft issues
Process	Experiment and evolve	Plan and establish programmes	Plan for spontaneity
Reward system	Motivate through commitment	Use financial incentives	Use incentives to reinforce change but do not drive change
Use consultants	Consultants to support leadership in shaping their own solutions	Consultants analyse and shape solutions	Consultants are resources who empower employees

Source: Steinke et al. (2013:128)

Combining Theory E and Theory O introduces a joint plan where the dimensions of these theories encourage internal coordination and inspire customers, suppliers, investors, and sponsors of the organisation (Beer & Nohria, 2000:138). In addition, this merger of these theories makes leaders take tough decisions that they have never experienced in the past, resulting in less impact on employee well-being (Steinke et al., 2013:131).

Some of the resources or capitals readily available to employees in the organisation are training, skills development, instructions, and the support of a leader for inquiries during change (Galli, 2018:129). Furthermore, these capitals are required to fund product and service development that support the organisational change processes (Kim & Mauborgne, 2003:127; Yeung et al., 2019:346).

In addition, the leaders' ability to offer a supportive role should consistently supply accurate information, engage employees in the change process, demonstrate a commitment to change, and provide the capital needed to make change successful (Doray, 2017:13). Respective capitals include employee psychological resilience with attitudes and behaviours to elicit positive change results (Shin et al., 2012:728). In the absence of sufficient capital, anxiety and fatigue are likely to undermine an individual's ability to control stress, leading to resistance to change (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015:243).

3.15   CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, a framework was provided for organisational change management. The nature of change management was highlighted, and the different types of organisational change were presented. This was followed by the role of leadership in the change process, emphasising the metaphor leadership roles in the change process. Organisational change themes included the content, context, and process themes. Systematic change methods were also discussed. This was followed by a discussion of various change management models. A comparative analysis of the change management models was also provided. The drivers of change in organisations were summarised and were followed by messaging in the change process. Information to ensure messaging in the change process was also discussed, namely organisational agility and knowledge acquisition. Change planning was discussed, and guidelines to be considered for change planning were presented. Leaders are expected to provide resources for organisational change. Teams are essential for change implementation, and various factors were presented to be considered when formulating a team or workforce for change implementation. As all organisations desire to change success, elements to ensure the success of the change process were described. Furthermore, organisational aspects that need attention with change, were highlighted. These aspects included generational diversity, organisational culture, and fundamental theories affecting successful organisational change.

The next chapter (chapter 4) is the final chapter of the literature review and discusses SOEs in South Africa.

CHAPTER 4

STATE-OWNED ENTERPRISES IN SOUTH AFRICA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter contextualises SOEs' rationale for state ownership and distinguishes between commercial and non-commercial purpose driven SOEs and their public service obligations. Evaluating the literature on the background and participation of SOEs in public service will not be limited to the academic literature. However, it will include introspection on media broadcasts that focus extensively on the governance issues of SOEs in South Africa.

The success rate of change management processes in companies is less than 30%. In addition, SOEs often have ill-defined drivers of change, and the objectives for change processes are unclear (Alrabiah & Drew, 2018:207). Therefore, it is essential to articulate the trajectories experienced by leadership and the organisations during change management processes. The first section of the chapter gives an overview of SOEs and discusses SOEs in the South African Development Community (SADC) region. Next, a classification of SOE categories in South Africa is provided and is followed by a section on the governing of SOEs in South Africa. Corporate governance indices, the King Reports, the PMFA No. 29 of 1999, and the Companies Act No. 71 of 2008 are also discussed.

Furthermore, a section is presented on redefining the roles and responsibilities of SOEs. Publicly known challenges from media sources are highlighted. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the challenges for change in SOEs.

4.2 AN OVERVIEW OF STATE-OWNED ENTERPRISES

SOEs are registered in terms of the Companies Act No. 71 of 2008. They fall within the meaning of a "state-owned enterprise" in terms of the PFMA No. 29 of 1999 (National Treasury, 2009:32). SOEs in South Africa mainly operate under the leadership of the DPE. They are essential for delivering goods and services to improve economic growth (Barac & Radasi, 2015:95). More than 700 SOEs in South Africa fall under the DPE and are listed in the PFMA No. 29 of 1999, Schedule 2 (South African Department of National Treasury, 2017:35). The DPE is the government's shareholder representative with oversight responsibility for SOEs in vital strategic sectors (State Department's Office of Investment

Affairs, 2017:1). SOEs have become tools for most countries to position themselves better for the future in the global economy, given the increased international competition for finance, talent, and resources (Sturesson et al., 2015:12).

SOEs need to find a way to remain financially viable and sustainable (and, where appropriate, commercially competitive) while creating social value for citizens (Sturesson et al., 2015:4).

The Auditor-General of South Africa (2017:42) confirmed that SOEs directly impact citizens' lives through the services and infrastructure they deliver. Therefore, poor governance, mismanagement and lack of financial sustainability should be avoided at all costs (Jurkonis & Petrusauskaitė, 2014:80; Jurkonis & Aničas, 2015:145). However, SOEs have demonstrated a decline in their financial fitness in the last decade (State Department's Office of Investment Affairs, 2017:1), partly due to decreased external funding opportunities (Radasi & Barac, 2015:96). Some factors that resulted in poor performance are listed as non-recurring internal audits resulting in management's inability to improve the organisations (Barac & Radasi, 2015:102). Good corporate governance and sound leadership principles play a fundamental role in SOEs' performance (Jurkonis, Merkliopas & Kyga, 2016:160).

In many countries, SOEs are essential and economically feasible (Sturesson et al., 2015:4). SOEs appear to be a long-term feature of the world's economic landscape and will remain a powerful global revenue source for some years to come (Sturesson et al., 2015:4). Understanding the economies of Brazil, Russia, India, China, and South Africa (BRICS) will give a better comprehension and reasons for their importance (Bruton et al., 2015:94). Most SOEs have participated as large corporations entering into investment markets and competing globally with private multinationals (Lazzarini & Musacchio, 2018:256). In Brazil, state ownership of enterprises started shortly after World War I, in 1967. These enterprises are state- controlled in sectors that are essential for the economy; for example, electricity, chemicals, water utility, airport, energy, mining, mail delivery and infrastructure (Lazzarini & Musacchio, 2018:261). The Brazilian government increased employment in SOEs and reduced work in private firms. Later, the Brazilian government faced losses and liabilities in foreign currency.

The government of Brazil was confronted by a large budget deficit and escalating total debt. This scenario caused the Brazilian government to privatise SOEs in large numbers. In

essence, once there is the absence of a healthy regulatory body governing SOEs, poor performance occurs (OECD, 2014:6).

There are 114 large SOEs in Russia. SOEs in Russia can either be directly or indirectly owned by the state, and there is a significant difference in performance efficacy (Abramov, Radygin & Chernova, 2017:1). Out of these SOEs, the directly owned ones, they demonstrate a high productivity rate compared to private enterprises. This may be due to access to long-term state funding and constant state support (OECD, 2014:6).

In India, privatisation of SOEs is still on the agenda since their poor performance is massive. The government cannot readily respond to this because of the crucial role that state enterprises play in reviving India's economy. The economic slowdown in 2008 might have threatened many countries, but it has been recognised that the public enterprises are still significant players in financing investment from their income. India's public enterprises are earmarked strategically for making the country self-reliant and prevent economic power in private enterprises (OECD, 2014:7).

China and Asia have SOEs that are economically superior (Sturesson et al., 2015:9). China is changing from an investment-driven economy to a technology-driven economy. Due to this transformation, Chinese SOEs are more critical in assisting the state reforms, although the new economy requires flexibility and responsiveness (OECD, 2014:8).

There is, however, an insufficient understanding of a blend of positive variables that can influence SOEs' performance (Mbo & Adjasi, 2017:961) due to limited research published on SOEs in leading journals of public management and administration (Bruton et al., 2015:106). This study focused on four SOEs as listed in Schedule 2 of the PFMA No. 29 of 1999 because they are the largest SOEs in South Africa by asset value (Fourie, 2014:38; Hassen, 2015:4). The following SOEs were included in the study: Transnet (transportation), Armscor (armaments), DBSA (economic development), and Safcol (forestry).

4.3 STATE-OWNED ENTERPRISES IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT COMMUNITY

The African countries that fall under the SADC region include Zimbabwe, Zambia, Tanzania, Democratic Republic of Congo, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, Swaziland, and South Africa (OECD, 2014:3). The OECD guides the

SOEs in these countries to supplement existing laws, statutes, and regulations for the governance of SOEs. This guide is compulsory for all commercial SOEs (meaning profit gaining SOEs). The focus is formulated around eight governance principles to address SOEs' transparency and accountability because all SOEs are state-owned in these countries. The eight principles (codes) are stakeholder relations, stakeholder communication, the internal audit function of SOEs, financial reporting and performance, shareholder governance, executive management governance, and SOE board governance (OECD, 2014:6).

What comes from these guidelines, the critical question is, "what are the state's role and the agencies tasked with the existing ownership?" According to the OECD (2014:13), the state acting as an owner is reflected in three main models, i.e., centralised ownership (one owner) or ministry in the government; dual ownership – one economic ministry and one-line ministry sharing the ownership role, and decentralised ownership where a single line ministry looks after their enterprises. These are financial and legal requirements for accounting, disclosure, and transparency (OECD, 2014:13). The SADC SOEs have some form of PFMA No. 29 of 1999 modelled around the South African Eponymous Act that holds SOEs responsible for using the public budget required by the Companies Act No. 71 of 2008 (OECD, 2014:15). The next sections present the classification of SOE categories in South Africa and discuss the governing of SOEs in South Africa.

4.3.1   Classification of State-Owned Enterprise Categories in South Africa

The schedule outlined in Table 4.1 is the classification of all SOEs in South Africa. These SOEs range from Schedule 1, 2, 3A, 3B, 3C and 3D. The schedules detect the services that each SOE offers to the public of South Africa. The Table also presents the classifications of SOEs to indicate under which level of business they operate.

Table 4.1: Classification of State-Owned Enterprises in South Africa

Schedule	Category of SOE	Number	Description
1	Constitutional entities (the so-called Chapter 9 institutions under the Constitution of South Africa)	9	Fully funded by the government, for example, the Public Protector.
2	Major public entities	21	Operate under commercial business principles, for example, Denel and Eskom.

Table 4.1: Classification of State-Owned Enterprises in South Africa (continued)

Schedule	Category of SOE	Number	Description
3A	National public entities and sector for education and training authority (SETA)	153	Fully funded through the National Research Foundation (NRF), a tax levy imposed through legislation, for example, the Competition Commission.
3B	National government and business enterprises	26	Operate under commercial business principles, for example, the Passenger Rail Agency of South Africa (PRASA) and Water Boards.
3C	Provincial public entities	72	Fully or substantially funded through the NRF and tax levies imposed through legislation.
3D	Provincial government	18	Operate under commercial business principles, for example, the Richards Bay Industrial Development Zone Company in KwaZulu-Natal.

Source: Setino and Ambi (2016:381)

The selected four SOEs in the study (Transnet, Armscor, DBSA and Safcol) fall under the category of Schedule 2 Public Entities which operate according to the business principles in South Africa. The PFMA No. 29 of 1999 makes specific provisions that relate to the functions assigned to the board since it provides support to the state business entities appropriate to the King III principles (PricewaterhouseCoopers (PwC), 2012:2).

4.3.2   Governing of State-Owned Enterprises in South Africa

In South Africa, SOEs' economic importance accounts for 91% of assets, 86% turnover, and 77% of SOE employment (Government of South Africa, 2011:17); however, they currently have an outstanding debt of R692 bn (Research & Markets.com, 2021). The OECD (2014:10) indicated that developing countries, like South Africa, are more likely to rely on SOEs to enhance their economy. However, SOE classifications are complex in that they may have accountability structures such as parent entities and subsidiaries (Kanyane & Sausi, 2015:28). The context in which SOEs function is under the control of multiple pieces of legislation, which are at times in conflict with the state's strategic drive (Kanyane & Sausi, 2015:29). The governance structure within SOEs necessitates appointing decision-makers at every level of the organisation, who are the implementers of processes and are accountable for outcomes (Ristovska, 2013:242). Essentially, good governance extends beyond being an organisation belonging to the government. It is directed by the rules that create a legitimate, effective, and efficient framework for the public benefit (Mubangizi, 2015:497). Regulatory

systems demand effective performance from SOEs. Therefore, governance issues, such as accountability, administrative capacity, and internal operations should be well-structured in the SOEs (Kanyane & Sausi, 2015:30).

4.3.3 Corporate Governance Indices

Most organisations reduce agency cost problems by having internal control facilitated by managerial participation in ownership, rewards for management, and access to board members for their support. Internal control determines organisational performance and outcomes (Kanyane & Sausi, 2015:30). The following indices are structured to ascertain quality corporate governance (Kanyane & Sausi, 2015:30):

4.3.3.1 World Governance Indicators (WGI)

Academics, national government, international agencies, and development society worldwide emphasise the need for good governance (Kraipornsak, 2018). A lack of governance contributes to the poverty and suffering of all citizens. Thus, the concept of assessing governance is an essential exercise for countries as it positions them in the WGI. The concepts included in the WGI are peace and security, human rights, the rule of law, human development, and sustainable economic opportunity (Forum for a New World Governance, 2010).

4.3.3.2 Ibrahim Index of African Governance (IIAG)

The IIAG is an instrument that measures and monitors performance in African countries. It pertains to all issues that confirm the rule of law, transparency, accountability, and opportunities for African countries' economic growth. This index ensures that the state and companies within the state are responsible for delivering to the citizens (Kanyane & Sausi, 2015:30).

4.3.3.3 African Integrity Indicators (Global Integrity)

Global Integrity (GI) supports open and accountable governance in countries worldwide. This indicator provides three insights: an awareness that open governance is characteristically political, participants in the governance context drive reforms, and there is no blueprint for universal governance. This integrity indicator is intended to prevent abuse of power and promote public integrity at the local, sector, and national levels. The GI helps

civil society and journalists to report corruption where governance principles are not applied (Kanyane & Sausi, 2015:30).

These indices are connected to good corporate governance or bad corporate performance. Studies focusing on organisations' performance have established that there is a strong link between good corporate governance and good corporate performance, but many SOEs seem to come up short (Stout, 2007:800; Nguyen, Locke & Reddy, 2015:148). However, there is no single framework which creates effective governance in all organisations (Bhagat, Bolton & Romano, 2008:1808; Gibassier, Rodrigue & Arjaliès, 2018:1372).

4.3.4   The King Reports

The King I is the first report or statement designed for organisations to follow. King I is a statement on corporate governance released in 1994 (Le Roux, 2010:1). The King II Report followed in 2002. Subsequently, the King III Report followed in 2009, which was developed to ensure that South Africa is a country where corporate governance and leadership operated at the highest ethical standards in the business (Institute of Directors South Africa (IoDSA), 2009:10). The King IV Report applies to all businesses, including SOEs (IoDSA, 2016:112). The King IV Report builds on its principles, which provides enhanced guidance on cohesive thinking, information technology (IT), governance, and assurance. It is affiliated with the Integrated Reporting Framework, which follows an outcome-based method (Surty, Yasseen & Padia, 2018:7). All these reports are intended to set the standard of operation for the board of directors, listed companies, banks, public or private non-profit organisations (NPOs), and commercial SOEs (Surty et al., 2018:7). The four King reports have integrated regulatory and financial aspects to provide corporate governance guidelines to all stakeholders, including SOEs (Kanyane & Sausi, 2015:31). Effective corporate governance requires the application of accountability mechanisms presumed to alleviate conflicts and provide assurance for certain behavioural norms between parties within the organisation (Waweru, 2014:461).

4.3.5   Public Finance Management Act (PFMA) No. 29 of 1999

The PFMA No. 29 of 1999 is the guiding legislation for all government entities to ensure the sound management of the finances within the public sector and SOEs (Kanyane & Sausi, 2015:31). The PFMA No. 29 of 1999 came after the South African Eponymous Act, which held specific provisions for holding public undertakings accountable for public funds as

required by the Companies Act No. 71 of 2008 (OECD, 2014:17). This Companies Act No. 71 of 2008 is relevant to government departments, public entities, including SOEs listed in the PFMA No. 29 of 1999, Schedules 1, 2, and 3, constitutional institutions, parliament, and provincial legislatures to regulate financial management and to ascertain that all profits, expenses, assets, and liabilities of these institutions are efficiently managed (Kanyane & Sausi, 2015:31-32). The PFMA No. 29 of 1999 specifies the duties of the governing bodies, heads of departments, accounting officers, managers, and employees. In addition, it provides for personal liability in instances where there is a potential breach of legislative duties.

The purpose of the PFMA No. 29 of 1999 is to secure the position of SOEs, be transparent, have sound management of revenue, and be accountable for the management of assets and liabilities of the institutions to which the Act applies (Kanyane & Sausi, 2015:31). According to the PFMA No. 29 of 1999, the accounting officers are liable for accurate record-keeping and ensure that financial statements are well prepared and well presented (Kanyane & Sausi, 2015:32). Not all provisions of the PFMA No. 29 of 1999 apply to all SOEs. According to the OECD (2014:42), the SOEs that fall under the PFMA No. 29 of 1999 are:

Schedule 1: Constitutional Institutions

Schedule 2: Government business enterprises, including state-owned companies in which the state is the sole shareholder, e.g., Eskom, Transnet, etc. Reference is sometimes made to state interest companies in which the state has a partial share, e.g., development finance institutions such as the DBSA. All these are listed under Schedule 2 of the PFMA No. 29 of 1999.

Schedule 3A: Public entities, including statutory corporations, which include service delivery entities, stewardship bodies, advisory bodies, and regulators, e.g., the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC), and the South African Bureau of Standards (SABS).

Public sphere institutions: They include institutions of higher learning or other tertiary institutions.

If South Africa wants its citizens to attain a good quality of life and become a prosperous society, the government must preside over viable, efficient, effective, and competitive SOEs (IoDSA, 2016:111). The SOEs listed in Table 4.2 fall under the PFMA No. 29 of 1999 and have a reporting responsibility although they fall under different categories.

Table 4.2: Schedule 2 public enterprises

Number	Public Entity
1	Air Traffic and Navigation Services Company
2	Airports Company of South Africa (ACSA) Limited
3	Alexkor Limited
4	Armaments Corporation of South Africa (Armscor)
5	Broadband Infrastructure Company (Pty) Limited
6	Central Energy Fund (Pty) Limited
7	Denel
8	Development Bank of Southern Africa (DBSA)
9	Eskom
10	Independent Development Trust
11	Industrial Development Corporation (IDC) of South Africa Limited
12	Land and Agricultural Development Bank of South Africa
13	South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC) Limited
14	South African Forestry Company (Safcol) Limited
15	South African Nuclear Energy Corporation
16	South African Post Office (SAPO) Limited
17	South African Airways (SAA) Limited
18	South African Express (Pty) Limited
19	Telkom SA Limited
20	Trans-Caledon Tunnel Authority (TCTA)
21	Transnet Limited

Source: National Treasury (2017) and Public Institutions listed in PFMA Schedule 1, 2, 3A, 3B, 3C and 3D

Considering the critical role that SOEs play in South Africa, Schedule 2 listed institutions are the major players in the country's economic success. According to Bezuidenhout, Bussin and Coetzee (2018:4), these SOEs should be financially and operationally independent, operate rendering to sound business principles, and are meant to be self-funded, as stated in the PFMA No. 29 of 1999, Section 226.

4.3.6   The Companies Act No. 71 of 2008

According to the Presidency (2009), the Companies Act No. 71 of 2008 of South Africa provides for the incorporation, registration, capitalisation, organisation and management of companies, and the registration of foreign companies carrying on business within the Republic of South Africa. This Act also defines the relationship between the companies and their respective shareholders or members and directors. It provides equitable and efficient integration, mergers, and takeovers of companies through the Companies and Intellectual Properties Commission and Takeover Regulation Panel. When there is a sufficient likelihood to salvage financially distressed companies, the Companies Act No. 71 of 2008

ensures appropriate redress for investors and third parties concerning companies in terms of its business rescue rules. It establishes a Companies Tribunal for alternative dispute resolution. SOEs (companies) are companies that belong to the government and are governed by the Companies Act. The SOE is an entity registered in this Act and falls inside the meaning of' a state-owned company/enterprise in terms of the PFMA No. 29 of 1999.

The Companies Act No. 71 of 2008 lays the ground rules for the Commission's decisions and establishes a Financial Reporting Standards Council. The Act further revised the Close Corporations Act No. 69 of 1984 and provides for a reliable and pleasant-sounding rule of business incorporation and regulation. Overall, the following provides a summary of the governance provisions in the Companies Act No. 71 of 2008, the PFMA No. 29 of 1999, and the King III Report (PwC, 2012:1):

- Ethical standards of directors
- Conduct and conflicts of interest
- Election of audit committees
- Membership of audit committee
- Responsibilities of the audit committee
- Audit committees and internal control
- External audit, and
- Board member's liability

4.4 REDEFINING THE ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF STATE-OWNED ENTERPRISES

The South African government is the shareholder with concerns for returns on investment and other imperatives in the economy's interest at large. These different roles often compete. In addition, the government is the policymaker and direct the implementation of policies and delivery of services (PwC, 2011:2). Therefore, SOEs are bound to respond to environmental challenges with globalisation, growing consumer expectations and increased physical demand for services (Fourie, 2014:34). That is why South Africa's government entrusted SOEs with large-scale tasks like telecommunication, transport, water supply, and electricity (Fourie, 2014:34). Aligning with SOEs' large projects, South Africa still expects SOEs to improve the economy by job creation and productivity growth (Fourie, 2014:34). Essentially, SOEs must have all their systems and structures operating well to ensure

sustainable output and competitive advantage. The following section discusses the roles and responsibilities of SOEs.

4.4.1 Roles and Responsibilities of State-Owned Enterprises

According to the Presidential Review Committee Report (2013:7), SOEs' primary role is to address economic, social, and service delivery challenges facing South Africa. SOEs should take responsibility for overcoming socio-economic and environmental challenges proactively to attain more sustainable development (Ngonini, 2014:406).

There is an expectancy by the government for SOEs to get involved in large infrastructure ventures, ensure infrastructure expansion, and promote broad-based economic growth (Muzapu, Havadi, Mandizvidza & Xiongyi, 2016:89). However, to achieve sustainable economic growth, job creation, decent working conditions reducing inequality, restructuring the economy, and improving the labour absorption growth rate, is a path that the state needs to take cognisance of (Ngonini, 2014:406).

Unlike private companies, SOEs receive most of their revenue from the National Treasury, which receives this income from taxpayers (Bezuidenhout et al., 2018:2). Therefore, SOEs should proactively take responsibility for their income to meet the socio-economic and environmental challenges to achieve sustainable development of the country (Ngonini, 2014:406). In 1994, SOEs in South Africa faced various challenges and opportunities (Presidential Review Committee Report, 2013:41). During that period, the economic conditions were fragile, which threatened the well-being of the country's growth and development plans. As a result, several sector policies were drafted to create a shared understanding of the SOEs' mandate by the enterprise and the executive authority. This was done to rectify competing objectives and to develop the SOEs' strategic plans (IoDSA, 2016:113).

With all the SOEs' responsibilities, improving their governance and accountability should be high on their agenda (Surty et al., 2018:1). The only way that SOEs can create value in the short-, medium- and long-term is integrated reporting (Surty et al., 2018:1). Integrated reporting is defined as a framework that demonstrates the link between an organisation's strategy, governance, financial performance, social environment, and economic background within which the business operates (Surty et al., 2018:1). SOEs will benefit from this type of reporting because it will enable these entities to address factors of concern to a more

significant number of stakeholders interested in the performance of the SOEs (Nkonki, 2015). Thus, SOEs play a significant role in the economy as a whole and cannot be ignored (Sturesson et al., 2015:9). The cognisance of the essential roles that SOEs play in any country's economic success justifies and warrants the investigation of the leadership's role during a change in this study. Table 4.3 summarises the strategic importance and value creation of SOEs in South Africa, as stipulated in the Presidential Review Committee Report of 2013.

Table 4.3: Strategic importance and value creation of South African State-Owned Enterprises

The services	Purpose
Social value creation	SOEs were earmarked for the alleviation of social challenges: • Eradication of poverty • Reduce unemployment • Skills development • Job creation
Infrastructure development	Contribute to inclusive development and growth of the economy.
Government as a shareholder	The SOE environment is used by the government to drive the country's national strategic agenda.
Service delivery – dedicated to the selected SOEs of the study	• Transnet Freight Rail's (TFR) locomotive (Cawe, 2015:8). • Denel is a Schedule 2 participant in South Africa's defence-related industries and a strategic supplier of unique products and full lifecycle support within the military environment (Fourie, 2014:35). • Armscor is responsible for armaments production in South Africa. • The DBSA's primary purpose is to promote inclusive and sustainable economic development, growth, and regional integration through infrastructure finance and development that improve the quality of life for people in Africa.

Source: Adapted from the Presidential Review Committee Report (2013:42)

Table 4.3 stipulates the terms of the Presidential Review Committee (PRC) and its strategic intent to ensure that SOEs respond to the country's developmental agenda. The South African government should then be guided by the PRC's review on SOEs and establish leadership roles to provide strategic direction to align the business with the changing environment, while also ensuring SOEs' effectiveness (PRC, 2013:7). In addition, it indicates the economic viability of SOEs' strategic importance and their value creation mandate. Thus, value creation is not limited to the economic value that is provided by SOEs (PRC, 2013:54).

4.5 PUBLICLY KNOWN CHALLENGES FROM MEDIA SOURCES

A challeng*e* is a term that denotes something that requires great mental or physical effort to be done successfully and thereby test a person's ability (McIntosh, 2013:239). Challenges in the SADC community are commonly related to establishing policies regarding ownership. For example, Mauritius, Mozambique, Malawi, South Africa, and Zimbabwe are still battling to formulate ownership policies and reinforce governance indicators applicable to SOEs (OECD, 2014:5). The ownership policy is related to why the state should own the SOEs, and for some countries, the problem is a lack of precise categorisation of the activities of the SOEs. Organisations worldwide face downsizing, re-engineering, and flattening structures to improve operating inefficiencies (OECD, 2014). Organisations are challenged by meeting their objectives (Sprimont, 2005). The most noted incidences in the South African media about SOEs are remuneration, bailouts, accounting irregularities, strikes, political interference, unqualified board members, and ethical scandals (Mail & Gurdian, 2020).

4.5.1 Remuneration

The high level of remuneration for executives is an incentive not related to the position, and it is not easy to compare with the private sector. Several studies have been done on the issue of SOEs' executive remuneration (Bussin & Nel, 2015:2). Inconsistency in the remuneration for SOE leaders when they resign and accept a voluntary package is a matter of concern (Maloa, 2015:43). The link between performance and pay has been scrutinised by the media, the public and academia. There is little alignment between excessive remuneration packages and organisational performance (Bezuidenhout et al., 2018:1). Two cases that astonished the nation were the R9 467 million total remunerations that Mr Brian Molefe – Former Eskom CEO, received during the 2015/2016 financial year (Peyper, 2016). In total, the Eskom executives were paid R75,33 million in the 2015/2016 financial year compared to what was previously paid, which amounted to R50,61 million (Peyper, 2016).

The second case was the former suspended CEO of SAA, Mr Monwabisi Kalawe, who received R2,7 million after resigning (Majangaza, 2015). The South African government has paid millions of Rands just for SOE CEOs; yet SOEs' performance remains poor (Bezuidenhout et al., 2018:2). Furthermore, most of the remuneration guidelines offered by

the DPE have been ignored by SOEs, which shows the need for remuneration packages to be benchmarked against the private sector (Crafford, 2012).

4.5.2 Bailout and Accounting Irregularities

SOEs remain highly publicised for their incompetence and poor performance (Mbo & Adjasi, 2017:960). Additionally, it is said that SOEs are susceptible to debt burdens, under-investment, depreciation of assets, poor governance, and composed of corruption which render them unprofitable (Mafukata & Musitha, 2018:151). Millions of Rands have been remunerated by the South African government to bail out SOEs and to ensure their survival (Bezuidenhout et al., 2018:2). In 2015, SAA, a Schedule 2 SOE, received an R23 billion bailout from the government (Fripp, 2015). Furthermore, it received state-guaranteed loans amounting to R2.3 billion and went into business rescue in 2019. However, the SAA showed significant losses in their 2015 and 2016 financial years (Gerber, 2016). The South African government further provided this SOE with an undisclosed amount from the National Revenue fund to repay the loan to Standard Chartered Bank in 2017 (Rothpletz, 2017). In total, SAA still owes the government more than R19 billion (Rothpletz, 2017).

4.5.3 Strikes

Issues that relate to striking action show some political intervention in the running of SOEs. The government does not ensure sound governance in SOEs, and as such, these institutions do not demonstrate best practices (Thomas, 2012:448). Problems in SOEs related to strikes are expected to be found in the ordinary business course in South Africa and are mainly due to wage negotiations. This is common in South African businesses that often arise from poor governance (Thomas, 2012:456). Strikes by SOE employees have left the entities even poorer (Kwankwa, 2019).

4.5.4 Political Interference

SOEs in South Africa have an added complication in dealing with political issues exacerbated by the country's transformation since the new dispensation (1994) (Teer-Tomaselli, 2004:7). Therefore, publicly owned entities have political agendas that often contribute to poor performance by these entities (Mbo & Adjasi, 2017:960). Political connections, directly and indirectly, affect change, specifically if the changes relate to remuneration (Conyon & He, 2016:689). SOEs are faced with tremendous pressure from the

government to pursue social, developmental, and political agendas (Lazzarini & Musacchio, 2018:258) and thus cannot work effectively towards their own goals.

4.5.5   Unqualified Board Members

The South African government, through the DPE, is responsible for the appointment of board members (Ngwenya & Khumalo, 2012:98). Board members should be familiar with the industry of the company they are appointed to (Griffin et al., 2019:70). Emerging concerns relate to existing board members at some SOEs, where the board of directors overlook this requirement (Griffin et al., 2019:69). Board members should be appointed to ensure that the business is properly managed and that the leadership pronouncements are in the best interest of the shareholders (Griffin et al., 2019:69).

4.5.6   Ethical Scandals

Ethical scandals in SOEs result in a complete breakdown of corporate governance (Griffin et al., 2019:69). For example, external auditors detect accounting irregularities and fraud procurement processes with contracts in some SOEs. However, it is a concern that the board of directors does not show any concerns about these corrupt activities, and it appears as if they "support the status quo" (Griffin et al., 2019:70). For this reason, the King IV Report is helpful to avoid scandals by ensuring that the following pointers are easily recognised (IoDSA, 2016:4): unethical leadership scandals, an anti-societal organisation, corruption, unsustainable development, stakeholder exclusion, lack of cohesive thinking, and lack of integrated reporting. In an organisational context, ethical values are expressed through good decision-making, good conduct, and moral relations with society to avoid ethical scandals (IoDSA, 2016:12).

4.6   CHALLENGES FOR CHANGE IN STATE-OWNED ENTERPRISES

Figure 4.1 shows the categories of challenges for change in SOEs, and as discussed in the media sources.
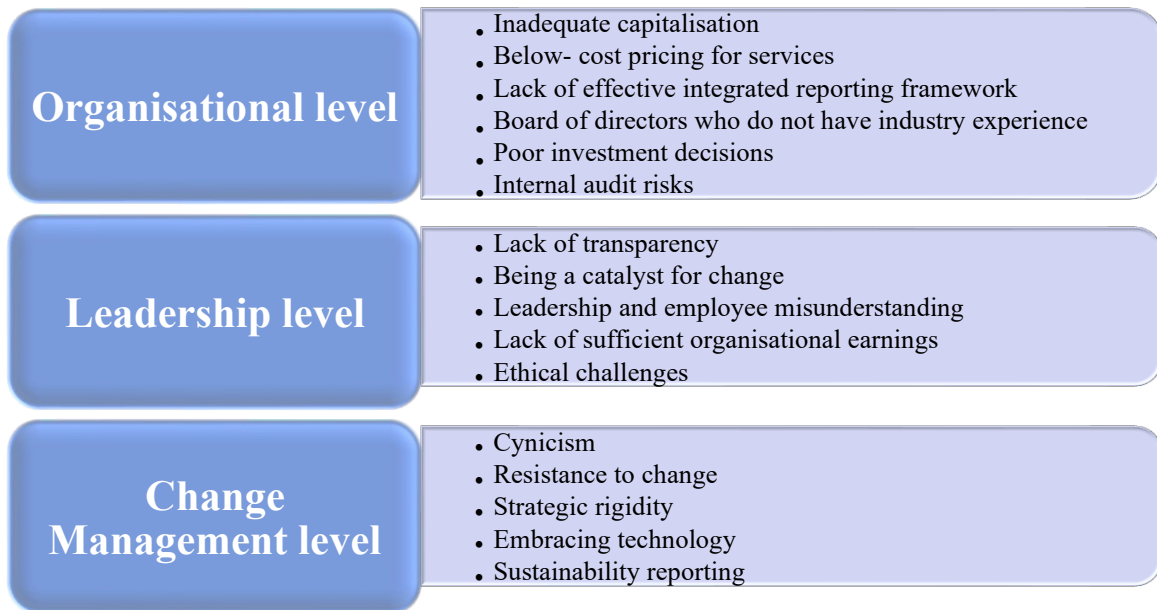
Figure 4.1: Three levels of challenges in State-Owned Enterprises

Source: Author's own compilation

The three levels of challenges in SOEs are discussed in the following sections.

4.6.1 Organisational Level Challenges

Challenges have become tremendously intense because of the environmental business market. As shown in Figure 4.1, organisations can experience different types of challenges but need to be solved before any change process. Therefore, a brief discussion of the organisational level challenges is presented in the following subsections:

4.6.1.1 Inadequate capitalisation

The organisation relies on debt and finance to fund basic operations, but this is insufficient to support capital intensive projects, especially for the sustainability and upgrading of infrastructure in the utilities and network industries (OEDC, 2014:7). However, government organisations are not known how much it makes, and therefore it is not easy to understand their contribution.

4.6.1.2 Below cost-pricing for services

Rate structures are below-cost but may need to be revisited to see if costs are kept too low and prevent full cost recovery, resulting in a lack of competitive advantage. Competitive advantage is required for successful change to ensure that productivity and the organisational services' value show an upward trend (OEDC, 2014:7).

4.6.1.3 Lack of effective integrated reporting framework

Integrated reporting is designed to ensure that organisations report what is necessary to keep it alive. If organisations do not produce an integrated report, it simply shows that monitoring, transparency, and accountability are not met, and corruption could be suspected (Bezuidenhout et al., 2018:2). Integrated reports are required in public organisations to assist them to reach financial and non-financial benchmarks to create sustainable value all the time (Carels, Maroun & Padia, 2013:947).

4.6.1.4 Board of directors who do not have industry experience

All SOEs have board members. However, the appointment of these boards of directors is sometimes unfairly done as some members do not possess the industry experience required for the organisation they serve (Griffin et al., 2019:70). It is unethical to appoint close associates as board members. Board members may require further professionalisation and shielding from political influences (OEDC, 2014:7). Instability on boards and executive levels results in the SOEs' poor outcomes (Auditor-General of South Africa, 2017:49).

4.6.1.5 Poor investment decisions

Abridged investment decisions explicitly taken in industrial and commercial SOEs make these organisations fail to adjust to, and face changing economic and market conditions (OEDC, 2014:7). The decisions taken by any state should consider financial and technological resources, the facilitation of trade and investment, and capacity-building initiatives (Barnes, 2019:4). Unfortunately, because of the complexity of government processes, investment or technological initiatives cannot occur without monitoring. Therefore, the government is expected to invest in follow-up and review mechanisms that comprise of high-level political forums for sustainable development (Barnes, 2019:4). Consequently, the state should allow SOEs to garner resources to invest and initiate research and development (R&D) initiatives (Zhou, Gao & Zhao, 2017:378).

4.6.1.6 Internal audit risks

Research on private companies has shown that management in the private and audit committees depends on internal audits to evaluate and improve risk management. Similar conditions are expected in the SOEs. An internal audit should be performed regularly to manage risks which threaten the performance of the SOEs. Therefore, risk disclosure is an essential part of accountability (Allini, Manes Rossi & Hussainey, 2016:113) and with

regular internal audit, evaluation can lead to overcoming challenges embedded in the SOE environment. These audits are necessary as a management tool that provides information and feedback that can assist the organisation. According to Radasi and Barac (2015:102), however, SOEs do not maintain a regular internal auditing function.

4.6.2   Leadership Level Challenges

Regardless of organisational change and leadership discourse over more than three decades, leadership is still in crisis (Burnes et al., 2018:141). Leadership is tested by ethical challenges they receive in their positions (Hollander, 1995:55). These challenges result in an increased expectation of ethical practices (Burnes et al., 2018:142). This situation is worsened by the misinterpretation of transformational leadership, which has given leaders the freedom to do things as they wish and reward themselves for that privilege (Jenkins, 2016). This results in an undesirable and inevitable lack of transparency regarding leaders' roles and the ineffective examination of their actions (Burnes et al., 2018:142). Incompetent and miscreant leadership have often been associated with SOEs in South Africa (Chilenga, 2016:6). The leadership level challenges are as follows:

4.6.2.1   Lack of transparency

SOEs' destructive political culture provides leadership with an opportunity to develop factions (Gumede, 2019:207). It can be seen when actions need to be taken that the leadership lacks skills, responds slowly to essential matters, and lacks general control over managerial performance (Gumede, 2019:206). Change leadership is primarily the responsibility of senior executives or a guiding coalition at the organisation's top management (Hao & Yazdanifard, 2015:3). However, Burke (2011:160) argued that senior or top managers often initiate organisational change, while implementing change relies on lower-level leadership. Stander, De Beer and Stander (2015:2) theorised that "a leadership style that includes positive leadership capacities and a mature organisational leadership culture" leads to change success.

4.6.2.2   Being a catalyst for change

Organisations and leadership focus on new strategies to increase change management implementation (Aslam, Muqadas, Imran & Ur-Rahman, 2018:567). Leadership is a shared responsibility; however, there are threats to be overcome by the parties involved (Burnes et al., 2018:141). Although the leader is not the sole 'explorer' in managing the organisation,

he or she is a principal component to ensure that actions to accomplish goals, and the staff's wellbeing is on him or her (Burnes et al., 2018:141). Most leaders acquire a sense of unity when change initiatives occur and support is given (Massengale, Knudson & O'Day, 2018:4). Therefore, leadership and organisational change must occur co-jointly (Burnes et al., 2018:142).

4.6.2.3   Leadership and employee misunderstanding

When leaders fail to help employees to understand the change process, there is more risk of failure (Fernández & Rainey, 2017:169). Employees are also likely to ignore a change initiative when they lack clarity about the vision, do not receive quality information, or believe that their opinions are valued (Lewis, James, Hancock & Hill-Jackson, 2008:128). Employees often resist organisational change efforts because of a lack of understanding about what the change involves (Hiatt, 2006:21). Leaders should practise consistent two-way communication with employees, as influential leaders know that listening to employees during a change initiative is an essential step towards earning respect, trust, and support (Groysberg et al., 2018:47). However, if there are continuous clashes, a lack of steady leadership may negatively impact employee performance and create insecurity about what the future holds (Qhobosheane, 2018:42). Political power is usually the mechanism to extract cash benefits from the state, and consequently, service delivery remains problematic (Madumi, 2018:66).

4.6.2.4   Lack of sufficient organisational earnings

Earnings are often low in public entities, and these losses are significant (Nhema, 2015:251). The government uses its revenues to contribute to SOE sustainability (Nhema, 2015:251). The business rescue mission of R2 billion to SAA is a typical example (Merten, 2019). The leadership faces a challenge when there are insufficient funds (Griffin et al., 2019:348). Overall, leadership instability, poor decision-making, and inadequate financial management control contribute to SOEs' poor financial state in South Africa (Khunou, 2018:49).

4.6.2.5   Ethical challenges

Ethical disclosures do not necessarily provide helpful insight to enable leadership to form a comprehensive picture of organisational performance and its ability to create and sustain value over time. According to the Integrated Reporting Commission (IRC) of South Africa (2011), the King III Report and the integrated reporting committee should be taken

exceptionally well by the leadership; thus, emphasising full, concise, and balanced reporting (Carels et al., 2013:949). Various ethical issues also relate to how leaders treat the employees in the organisation; for instance, conflict of interest, secrecy and confidentiality, and honesty is revealed (Griffin et al., 2019:67). Leadership should take all these challenges utterly well for reputable business performance.

4.6.3   Change Management Level Challenges

The challenge of the change process can vary in organisations. The following subsections discuss the change management level challenges:

4.6.3.1   Cynicism

Several studies have suggested that public organisations' specific environment and structural characteristics may affect implementing organisational change. The literature on the private sector and organisational change management is extensive, yet more organisational change processes occur in public enterprises (Van der Voet, 2014:374).

Organisational changes that threaten the status quo, e.g., moving away from unsustainable practices toward more sustainable ones, are bound to face resistance at the different organisational levels (Gil, 2003:307; Grama & Todericiu, 2016:48). A major constraint in such processes is people's ability to accommodate change (Garvin & Roberto, 2005:28; Bateh, Castaneda & Farah, 2013:113). Resistance is often overt with struggles over resources, expressions of doubt, and an unwillingness to commit to change (Grama & Todericiu, 2016:47) but maybe covert as well, such as a lack of participation and withdrawal from the process. In addition, a bureaucratic environment similar to public organisations makes organisational change difficult (Cooper, 2018:30).

4.6.3.2   Resistance to change

Bureaucratic organisational structures that characterise public organisations make organisational change unpleasant and are often associated with rigidity (Isett, Mergel, Le Roux, Mischen & Rethemeyer, 2011:159; Matei & Chesaru, 2014:860). These characteristics of public organisations are distinct from those of private companies (By & Macleod, 2009:19). For example, Fernández and Rainey (2006:170) and Burnes (2011:135) revealed that public companies' unique and political environment comes into play during

organisational change. Often, new change situations create uncertainty, anxiety, and stress for the organisation and employees (Shah, 2011:225).

Organisational change management for corporate sustainability is a reasonably new topic (Giessner, Van Quaquebeke, Van Gils, Van Knippenberg & Kollée, 2015:1126), with limited research and even less reported teaching on the subject (Andreeva & Ritala, 2016:239). Nevertheless, conditions of continuous environmental change, especially in crisis times, influence the organisation's ability to sustain and renew its competitive advantage.

4.6.3.3 Strategic rigidity

Overly rigid public organisations' approaches make performance and strategic management highly dysfunctional in a public context (Haynes, 2015:2). The leadership needs to take the lead and coordinate it in such a complex environment; however, it worsens the unpredictability of their work circumstances (Haynes, 2015:1). Another challenge faced by these organisations is managing change and market dynamics (Nwokeji et al., 2018:4631). Organisations depend on, interact with, and transact in an increasingly dynamic business environment. Their vulnerability brings spontaneous changes and uncertainties, threatening their survival and competitive abilities. The drivers of change in the organisations (leaders and employees) need to be recognised during organisational change. Appropriate strategies must be applied to overcome any barriers to change (Ceulemans, Lozano & Alonso-Almeida, 2015:8885). Employees in public organisations oppose the change process due to a lack of effective communication, low participation in decision-making, and barriers to the social, cultural, structural, and political nature of the environment (Aslam et al., 2018:149).

4.6.3.4 Embracing technology

The technology aims to maintain product effectiveness and utilisation in organisations (Morris, Halpern, Setchi & Prickett, 2016:25). Technology plays a role in reaching greater business efficiency (Morris et al., 2016:25). Knowledge and communication in technology are the new drivers of the information age (Morris et al., 2016:25). Information management and technology go together to innovate the organisation (Tidd, Bessant & Pavitt, 2005:5; Wittman, Powell & Corbera, 2015:2037). Knowledge sharing can reduce resistance and build trust in change leaders (Aslam et al., 2018:577). Information technology supports their business and client base, but many organisations experience challenges when using

technology. Technology barriers and challenges that can occur during the change process are removed to find ways to deal with the project at hand (Mazurkiewicz & Poteralska, 2017:463). These barriers are classified as technical, organisational-economics, and system blockades (Mazurkiewicz & Poteralska, 2017:463). Leadership in all types of the business's environment have put innovation among their top priorities. However, some feel it is a 'mystery that is unpredictable and unmanageable, resulting in noncompliance' (Tidd et al., 2005:5). The call for taking technology into account during organisational change has been made for many years (Schubert & Röhl, 2019:168); yet technology and organisations influence each other (Boos, Guenter, Grote & Kinder, 2013:450). The technology aims to maintain product effectiveness and utilisation in organisations (Morris et al., 2016:25). Technology plays a role in reaching greater business efficiency (Morris et al., 2016:25). Knowledge and communication in technology are the new drivers of the information age (Morris et al., 2016:25). However, information management and technology go together to innovate the organisation (Tidd et al., 2005:5; Wittman et al., 2015:2037). Knowledge sharing can reduce resistance and build trust in change leaders (Aslam et al., 2018:577). Information technology supports their business and client base, but many organisations experience challenges using technology. Technology barriers and challenges during the change process are removed to find ways to deal with the project at hand (Mazurkiewicz & Poteralska, 2017:463). These barriers are classified as technical, organisational-economics, and system blockades (Mazurkiewicz & Poteralska, 2017:463).

4.6.3.5 Sustainability reporting

There is inadequate research on the link between sustainability reporting in public organisations and change management for sustainability (Domingues, Lozano, Ceulemans & Ramos, 2017:292). One of the challenges public organisations have, is a lack of adequate reporting systems (Bryson, 2018:3). Reporting is a crucial driver of organisational change. The initial step in any form of organisational change should be to introduce sustainability reporting (Lozano, Nummert & Ceulemans, 2016:168). Sustainability reporting provides a platform for organisations to plan for change. Without this reporting, organisational change will be disastrous. Lozano et al. (2016:169) highlight that the organisation should:

- develop and publicise the sustainability report
- drive sustainability changes in the organisation

- lead to the transition period during which the development of the following report is formulated

- lead to change indicators

- follow strategy

- organise change

- acquire reputation and validation, and

- notify stakeholders.

Lozano et al. (2016:170) concluded that organisational change would not succeed without integrated reporting, and the two should be related so that change becomes an integral part of the organisation's operations.

4.7   CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter covered the regulatory bodies behind SOEs' existence in South Africa. An overview was provided of SOEs, including SOEs in the SADC region. A classification of SOEs in South Africa was also provided. The governing of SOEs in South Africa was discussed, including corporate governance indices, such as the WGI, the IIAG, the African Integrity Indicators, and the King reports. The PMFA No. 29 of 1999 and the Companies Act No. 71 of 2008 were highlighted, and the Schedule 2 public enterprises were presented. This was followed by a discussion on the roles and responsibilities of SOEs and the strategic importance and value creation of SOEs in South Africa. Publicly known challenges from media sources were presented and focused on remuneration, bailout and accounting irregularities, strikes, political interference, unqualified board members, and ethical scandals. The chapter concluded by discussing the challenges for change in SOEs, which were presented on the organisational, leadership, and change management levels.

The next chapter presents the research methodology followed in the study.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the research methodology applied in the study. There are two variables in the study: the dependent and the independent variable. Leadership is the independent variable, and change management is the dependent variable.

It was decided to use a mixed method study to expand the scope and improve the analytical rigour of the research. In addition, the information gathered about the independent variable ensured that all participants in the organisations who had been exposed to change at an operational level had a chance to participate in the survey through a questionnaire. Change management was the dependent variable and is a process that needs to be planned at a strategic level where senior leaders in the organisation, including the board members, are involved. Therefore, interviews were conducted about this variable in the four SOEs, i.e., Transnet, Armscor, DBSA and Safcol.

The research approach and research design are discussed, including the research philosophy and paradigm. A discussion on mixed method research follows this. A classification of mixed methods' designs is presented, and triangulation is discussed. The population and sampling followed in the study are presented. This is followed by discussing both the quantitative (questionnaire) and qualitative (interview guide) research phases of the study. Data analysis for both phases (quantitative and qualitative) is presented. Furthermore, validity, reliability and trustworthiness are addressed. The chapter concludes with sections on hypotheses testing, elimination of bias, and ethical considerations of the study.

5.2 AIM OF THE RESEARCH

The aim of this study was to develop a leadership and change management model for South African SOEs for the advancement of change.

5.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT, RESEARCH QUESTIONS, OBJECTIVES AND HYPOTHESES

The problem statement, research questions, objectives of the study, and the hypotheses were presented in chapter 1, and as follows:

5.3.1 Problem statement: section 1.3.1

5.3.2 Primary research question: section 1.4.1

5.3.3 Secondary research questions: section 1.4.2

5.3.4 Primary and secondary objectives: section 1.4.3

5.3.5 Hypotheses: section 1.4.4

5.4 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY AND RESEARCH PARADIGM

A philosophical stance in research informs the research methodology and provides the reasons to comprehend the philosophical positions of a particular study (Shah, Shah & Khaskhelly, 2019:90). A paradigm implies a pattern, structure and framework or system of academic and scientific ideas, values, and assumptions (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017:26). This, in simple terms, is an appropriate approach to think about and prepare for the research (Antwi & Hamza, 2015:218). Simultaneously, paradigms justify why a specific philosophy is selected (Shah et al., 2019:90).

Four philosophical trends inform the overall research strategy (Žukauskas, Vveinhardt & Andriukaitienė, 2018:123), as illustrated in Figure 5.1.
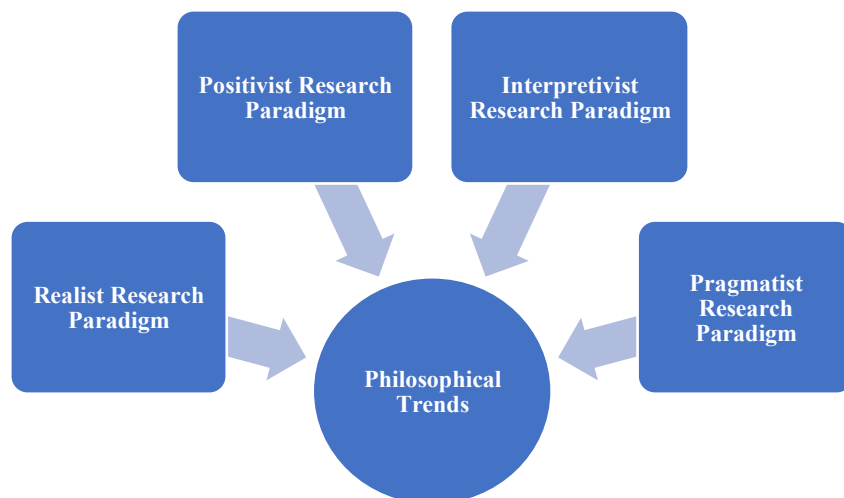
Figure 5.1: Philosophical research trends
Source: Žukauskas et al. (2018:123)

Figure 5.1 indicates the philosophical trends in research design. Because of the significant role of the philosophical underpinnings, it is crucial to differentiate between the paradigms to illustrate the worldview that scholars bring to the research enquiry (Shah et al., 2019:90). The following sections discuss research paradigms in leadership and change management, and the pragmatic world view, as stated by Žukauskas et al. (2018:123):

- Realist research philosophy: This intellectual trend is based on both the positivist and interpretive philosophies and is based on the assumption that subjective perception is human. In the quantitative phase, numerical values were obtained and analysed to assume the positivist viewpoint. A realist paradigm was not used in this study.

- Positivist research philosophy: Researchers are analysts and distance themselves from personal values, work independently, and believe that they can fully understand the social world.

- Interpretivist research philosophy: Here, scholars believe that a subject and understanding depend on people's experiences in the social world.

- Pragmatic research philosophy: The pragmatic paradigm means a "worldview", stressing "what works" rather than what might be measured absolutely and objectively "true" or "real" (Frey, 2018:1). It can combine both quantitative and qualitative methods. This study used the pragmatic research philosophy for the enquiry.

The following sections discuss research paradigms in leadership and change management, and the pragmatic world view.

5.4.1 Research Paradigms in Leadership and Change Management

Leadership and change management are studies in social science. The paradigms in these fields determine the research problem and the associated research questions or hypotheses and assist in selecting the sampling procedure and research tools so that the collected data can be analysed and discussed (Khaldi, 2017:15).

5.4.2　Pragmatic World View

Pragmatism is a view or paradigm that should underpin most mixed methods research (Frey, 2018:1). A problem-oriented philosophy believes that the best research methods effectively answer the research question. For example, the change management literature has stated a high failure rate of change processes in organisations. The researcher may then ask, what is leadership's role in change management in South African SOEs if the failure rate is so high? This question is asked to find the source for a low success frequency of change if the change process is led by leadership (Blom, 5015:75).

Pragmatism offers the following philosophical basis for research:

- Pragmatism is not connected to any single system of philosophy and reality. This implies that mixed-method research draws from quantitative and qualitative assumptions.
- The researcher has complete freedom of choice to select among techniques, procedures, and research methods that best suit the requirements of the purpose of the study. Mixed methods research is a pragmatic approach to collecting and analysing data.
- Pragmatism requires obtaining the truth about a particular aspect. Thus, researchers use both quantitative and qualitative data to understand the research properly.
- Therefore, when a study is done using mixed methods, a pragmatic worldview offers multiple opportunities, views and assumptions, and various forms of collecting and analysing data.
- Pragmatists need to establish a purpose and a rationale for using multiple methods. It explains why scholars should combine quantitative and qualitative methods.

In this research process, a mixed method approach was used.

5.5　RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design is a theoretical blueprint for collecting, analysing, and interpreting data (Akhtar, 2016:68). The research design allows to improve the data analysis of a study. Normally in a study, the researcher collects and evaluates data, addresses the problem and

research objectives, and creates a consistent and logical model in the presentation of the findings. Based on the literature review, the plan was to formulate the survey questionnaire and the interview questions to gather information about the research problem and address the research objectives, answer the research questions, and test the hypotheses to create an appropriate research design (Akhtar, 2016:69). A research design is an outline of research methods and methods chosen by a researcher to deport a study. A proper research design strikes a balance between redundancy and the tendency to over-design (Akhtar, 2016:73). The research design signifies whether the researcher needs to conduct research in the laboratory, office. or field (Turner, Cardinal & Burton, 2017:246). There are four kinds of research designs (Akhtar, 2016:73):

- The exploratory design is used when the researcher needs to get new insights into a phenomenon. The motivation for this exercise is to formulate a fundamental research problem to investigate and develop a hypothesis. This research design is done when minimal prior research is available on the subject in question. This was not the case in this study as there is a considerable volume of research on both leadership and change management.

- The explanatory design: This design aims to explore a new aspect of the universe. It is more concerned with explaining the causes of a phenomenon. Explanatory research is a "method developed to investigate a phenomenon that had not been studied before or had to borrow concepts from, e.g., natural or social science that have been well explained previously in a proper way" (Niehaves & Ortbach, 2016:305). Many researchers have explained the two variables of concern in this study, so this was not appropriate.

- The experimental research design is used to examine a causal relationship, e.g., an experiment is observed under controlled conditions. Controlled conditions mean that a variable in the research may not be changed while the experimentation is still in progress. Various types of evidence need to be controlled in the experiment to test the alternative hypotheses and discover the causal relationships. In this study, the experimental research design was not used.

- The descriptive research design: Quantitative descriptive research is "a quantitative research method that attempts to collect quantifiable information for statistical analysis of the population sample", including a five-step design

of defining, measuring, analysing, designing, and verifying (Jenkins, D'Aoust, Elias, Han, Sharps & Alvarez, 2021:1). A qualitative descriptive research design answers what, who, where, how, and when used to investigate the current situation (Akhtar, 2016:73). This research describes a phenomenon as it exists and is used to identify and obtain information about the characteristics of a specific group of people. This research type explains social events, social structures, and social situations, often used in case study research. Therefore, a descriptive research design was used in this study to examine the research phenomenon from both a quantitative and qualitative perspective (Tuffour, 2017:53).

5.6   RESEARCH APPROACH

The research approach is a plan and technique that needs to be adopted in a study that requires precise data collection methods (Teherani, Martimianakis, Stenfors-Hayes, Wadhwa & Varpio, 2015:669). Therefore, a mixed method approach was adopted in this study, meaning that both quantitative and qualitative data were collected.

The desired research approach is determined by the nature of the research problem detected in the study during the literature review. A positivist approach is used in a quantitative enquiry. The quantitative approach uses statistical techniques (Simoes & Esposito, 2014:338) to establish causal relationships, for example, between the leadership role and facilitators of the change process. A phenomenological approach is used in qualitative research that focuses on the participants' experiences and seeks to comprehend the inner perspectives of the participants (Tuffour, 2017:53). The interpretive nature of the phenomenological approach enables the researcher to derive insights from the participants (Tuffour, 2017:53). Therefore, a mixed methods approach was appropriate for this study.

5.7   RESEARCH ONION

The research onion provides the direction to develop research methodology. The research onion further observes and find the suitability of the future studies (Melnikovas, 2018:29). Examination of future studies is not a current phenomenon, though it is a moderately new approach in scientific studies (Melnikovas, 2018:29). The beginning of the association with future studies might be intricate for scholars and students. The field of study opens thought

provoking and comprehensive possibilities in a dissertation or thesis which requires one to ask: "What should I start with?" and can be used in both quantitative and qualitative phases.
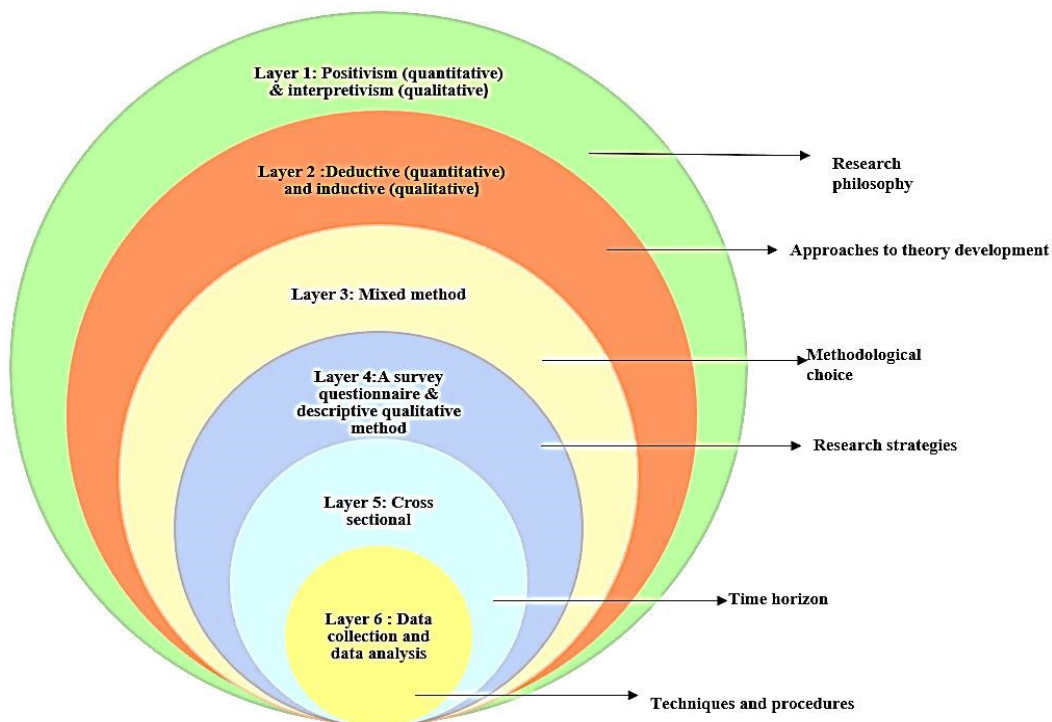
Figure 5.2: Mixed method research onion
Source: Adapted from Melnikovas (2018:33)

The concept of the "research onion" was first articulated by Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007:130). This onion metaphor illustrates the research design chosen in this thesis. The first layer shows the philosophy adopted and described for quantitative and qualitative strategies. In the quantitative phase, the researcher opted for a positivist philosophy that involved the collection of a large volume of quantitative data and testing a hypothesis and analysis that could not be influenced by the researcher's values (Sahay, 2016:3). At the same time, interpretivism was adopted for the qualitative phase to examine the phenomena in their natural state.

Layer two indicates the use of two approaches, i.e., deductive, and inductive approaches. The deductive approach means that the researcher must explore the existing theory, formulate questions, and collect data to confirm or reject a hypothesis. The inductive approach was also adopted, meaning that the researcher collected data using interviews to analyse the data and formulate a new theory.

Layer three refers to a methodological choice. This layer provides an option to choose between deductive research, which is typically used in quantitative strategy and relies on existing theory and inductive research, which build new theory (Jamshed, 2014:87).

The third layer influenced the fourth layer of the research onion because of the researcher's methodological choice. Thus, this study opted for a quantitative survey questionnaire to provide statistical data and interviews for qualitative data collection to be interpreted and described by means of thematic analysis.

The fifth layer of the research onion was the time horizon which depicts how long the research process will take. This study used cross-sectional research to address the research problem in a specific, time-bound period.

Finally, the sixth layer is the core part of the research onion because it includes data collection and data analysis. The questionnaire and interview guide were formulated and guided by the literature review on leadership and change management in SOEs. Therefore, the use of the two methods in this study resulted in a mixed methodology.

5.8   MIXED METHOD RESEARCH (MMR)

MMR is a method in which two research methods are used. It collects and analyses data and provides different perspectives of the phenomenon in question (Cronholm & Hjalmarsson, 2011:88). This method integrates quantitative and qualitative data to investigate a research phenomenon (Almalki, 2016:288). Quantitative and qualitative approaches are used in combination to properly understand research problems, which provide more information than either approach can deliver on its own (Bowling, 2014:419). Creswell and Creswell (2017:207) specified that mixing methods means that quantitative and the qualitative data are combined in some way. A mixed methodology is required for extensive data collection. Still, the time-intensive nature of analysing both numeric data and transcription requires a researcher to be acquainted with both quantitative and qualitative forms of research. The main reason for MMR is to have diverse views from qualitative findings that need to be supported by quantitative outcomes, or vice versa (Jamshed, 2014:87). Therefore, these results are considered complementary to each other. The following section presents the classification of mixed methods designs, and triangulation is also discussed.

5.8.1 Classification of Mixed Methods Designs

There are four MMR designs (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018:88), namely:

- Convergent mixed-method design: This is also referred to as triangulation – to fully comprehend the research problem and obtain different but complementary data on the same topic. Quantitative and qualitative approaches happen simultaneously in this design, but they were used separately throughout the data collection, analysis, and interpretation.

- Embedded mixed-method design: A single data set plays a supportive, secondary role in the research and is based primarily on the other data type.

- Explanatory sequential design: This is a two-stage mixed method design where qualitative data helps to build on the initial quantitative results. The quantitative methodology came first to answer quantitatively oriented research questions in this design. After that, using a qualitative method supported the quantitative findings.

- Exploratory sequential design: The qualitative methodology is used to explore the phenomenon of interest in depth. The qualitative method is followed by the quantitative way, where a follow-up is done to test the qualitative findings' information.

Figure 5.3 illustrates how qualitative data provides support for the quantitative findings. In the contemporary design, MMR can be done on the same sample or with separate samples, depending on the researcher's rationale for using the steps simultaneously.
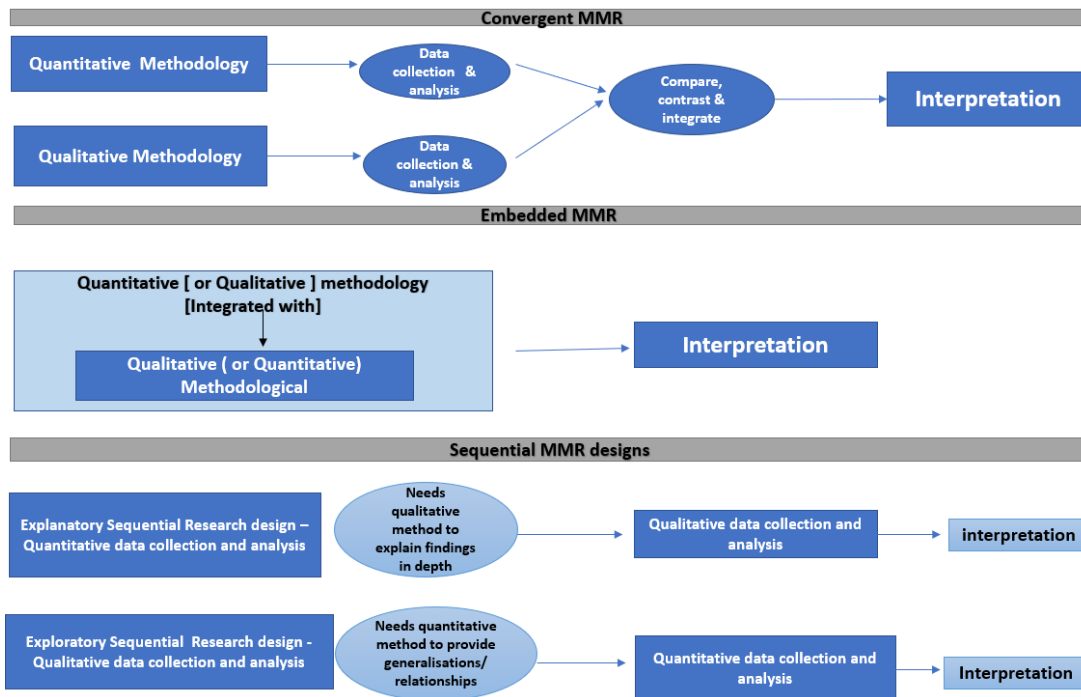
Figure 5.3: Mixed-methods research designs
Source: Wester and McKibben (2019:5)

5.9 POPULATION AND SAMPLING

The following sections discuss the population and sampling of the study, based on the quantitative and qualitative approaches.

The population selected with participants suitable for the study was Schedule 2 SOEs (Table 1.1). During the quantitative method (phase), generalisability was determined, which ensures that the findings represent the whole population. In contrast, in qualitative methods, the emphasis on selecting the population is determined by saturation (Palinkas, Horwitz, Green, Wisdom, Duan & Hoagwood, 2015:534). The target population in this study comprised employees of the 21 Schedule 2 SOEs in South Africa. The population of employees at all the SOEs is in the region of nearly 60 000 employees. However, only four SOEs granted permission for the research to be conducted. Table 5.1 provides a breakdown of the number of employees at each of the four SOEs.

Table 5.1: Employees at the targeted Schedule 2 State-Owned Enterprises

SOE	Number of employees	Source
Air Traffic and Navigation Services Company	697	Air Traffic and Navigation Services (2019)
Airports Company of South Africa (ACSA)	3 110	Statista. 2019
Alexkor Limited	30	Alexkor SOC (2021)
Armaments Corporation of South Africa (Armscor)	716	Armscor (2019)
Broadband Infrastructure Company (Pty) Limited	149	Broadband Infraco (2019)
Central Energy Fund (Pty) Limited	1 976	Central Energy Fund (CEF) (2021)
Denel	3 332	Martin (2021)
Development Bank of Southern Africa (DBSA)	594	Development Bank of Southern Africa (DBSA) (2020)
Eskom	48 700	Greyling (2022)
Independent Development Trust	299	Independent Development Trust (2019)
Industrial Development Corporation (IDC) of South Africa Limited	27 130	Industrial Development Corporation (IDC) (2022)
Land and Agricultural Bank of South Africa	501 (to 1 000)	Land Bank Overview (2022)
South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC) Limited	3 167	Khumalo (2019)
South African Forestry Company (Safcol) Limited	5 000	Safcol (2020:82)
South African Nuclear Energy Corporation	2 700	Nuclear Energy (2019)
South African Post Office (SAPO) Limited	18 119	Post Office (2019)
South African Airways (SAA) Limited	4 700	Smith (2022)
South African Express (Pty) Limited	800	SA Express (2019)
Telkom SA Limited	18 286	Macrotrends (2018)
Trans-Caledon Tunnel Authority (TCTA)	170	Trans-Caledon Tunnel Authority (TCTA) (2020)
Transnet Limited	55 946	Transnet (2019:15)

Source: Schedule 2 SOEs adopted from National Treasury (2017)

Thus, the targeted population totalled 196 122.

5.9.1 Sample

A sample is a set of people, objects or items selected from a larger population for measurement (Turner, 2020:8). In quantitative research, the sample should be typical of the population to ensure that the findings from the research sample can be generalised to the population as a whole. Quantitative samples are generally large and are statistically determined. In qualitative research, the sample is also selected from the whole population, but is much smaller and will not generally permit generalisation to the larger population (Schreier, 2018:84).

In drafting the questions for the interview guide (Appendix C), Colorafi and Evans (2016:17) recommend using straightforward language that clearly describes the phenomenon of interest.

5.9.2   Sampling

The technique to draw the sample as a representative of a population is described as sampling. It is done based on the whole population's characteristics (Dubey et al., 2017:450). Sampling strategies should be consistent with the research methods chosen for the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study (Moser & Korstjens, 2018:9).

There are two sampling strategies in this MMR: probability sampling for the quantitative research, and non-probability sampling for the qualitative research (Bhardwaj, 2019:157).

According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2017:67), probability sampling implies that all individuals in the population have a chance or probability of being selected during sampling. Probability sampling is commonly used in MMR (Palinkas et al., 2015:533). This research focused on selecting the four SOEs for the study to represent all 21 Schedule 2 SOEs in South Africa. Using only Schedule 2 SOEs in South Africa ensured accuracy in obtaining essential information from employees at the operational level of change in these SOEs. This quantitative phase of the study used participants from the four SOEs that approved the study. The participants were general staff, lower-level managers/supervisors, middle managers, and senior managers who participated in the operational change process.

5.9.2.1   Quantitative research sampling

Quantitative research is a process of gathering and analysing numerical statistics to make predictions, test causal relationship, generate results to the broader population, and referred to as a deductive approach towards a study (Rovai, Baker & Ponton, 2014:79). Researchers in this approach regard themselves as operating outside the research scenario and believe that the objective reality is independent of any observation (Rovai et al., 2014:88). The reality in this approach was subdivided into small, manageable pieces to understand the constructs (Almalki, 2016:288). Statistical techniques are used in data analysis. Examples of data collection methods in the quantitative approach survey are correlational research, experimental research, trend analysis, exploratory research, descriptive research,

correctional research, and experimental research that methodically scrutinise if there is a cause-and-effect flexible system (Dubey et al., 2017:3).

A survey was conducted to collect quantitative data using questionnaires for this study's purpose. All employees involved in the change process at an operational level were asked to answer the questionnaire. There are biases that can occur in quantitative evidence of a wider population, based on the sampling technique used. Examples of quantitative experimental, survey systematic observation, and secondary research are as follows:

- Experimental - manipulate independent mutable to qualities of its effect on a dependent variable.
- Survey - ask questions over the telephone or connected on the Internet.
- Systematic observation - recognise performance or screen its natural surroundings.
- Secondary research - gather data that has been congregated for other uses.

5.9.2.2 Calculation of the sample size in quantitative research

A critical stage in planning a study is determining how large the sample size can be. A sample size of 280 was calculated before starting the study. The quantitative calculation was based on the rule of thumb, as suggested by Fugard and Potts (2015:669). The online questionnaires contained 7 constructs x 8 statements, which totalled 56 statements. The 5-point Likert scale resulted in 5 x 56 statements, excluding the biographical and background information. Thus, 280 participants were a minimum requirement to generalise the findings to the population (Riley, Snell, Ensor, Burke, Harrell, Moons & Collins, 2019:126). More than six months passed, and only 120 participants responded.

5.9.2.3 Qualitative research sampling

Non-probability sampling (also known as non-random sampling) means that not all population members have a chance of participating in the study. The necessity for non-probability sampling can be explained because it is not feasible for some studies to draw a random probability-based population sample because of time and cost considerations. Therefore, participants for the qualitative phase of the research were chosen purposively among the leaders at a strategic level of change within the selected SOEs' divisions and subsidiaries.

There are three broad categories of qualitative sampling: convenience sampling, theoretical sampling, and judgemental sampling.

- A convenience sample involves drawing a sample from accessible participants. It is least costly in terms of effort, money, and time, but it tends to result in insufficient quality data and a lack of intellectual credibility. A convenience sample, which is part of a non-probability sample, can be used for quantitative or qualitative sampling, though it is preferred in qualitative sampling (Suen, Huang & Lee, 2014:111). Thus, a convenience sample was used in this study.

- Theoretical sampling is commonly used in study designs that necessitate theory building. This sample type builds interpretive theories from data collected, and new data is examined to formulate the theory. It is usually used for grounded theory research that requires interpretation (Gentles, Charles, Ploeg & McKibbon, 2016:1774).

- Judgemental sampling is also called purposive sampling. Here, the researcher actively chooses a sample with participants who meet specific criteria determined by the researcher (Suen et al., 2014:111). They would be regarded as knowledgeable about the phenomenon under investigation (Suen et al., 2014:111), e.g., leading change. The advantages are that it uses the participants who are vital informants to lay out the vision of the change process. In this study, purposive sampling was adopted in the qualitative phase as leaders in higher echelons of the targeted organisations are vital decision-makers and are knowledgeable about the change processes.

The 21 Schedule 2 SOEs list in South Africa is outlined in Chapter 1, Table 1.1. This list identifies Schedule 2 SOEs. According to the PFMA No. 29 of 1999, these SOEs are the Schedule 2 SOEs or major SOEs and were selected as the population in this study.

The sample of this population was purposively selected from Schedule 2 SOEs that fall directly under the DPE leadership, i.e., Safcol and Transnet. The other two fell under different departments, i.e., the DBSA falls under the Department of Finance, and Armscor falls under the South African National Defence Force. The sampled SOEs were selected using purposive sampling, which was used to select leaders who operated at the strategic

level of change. The reason for choosing these participants is that they were key decision-makers on change management processes in SOEs and were knowledge experts on change.

5.10   QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH PHASE

The survey questionnaire (Appendix B) addressed the research objectives 3 and 4. The sections that follow discuss the quantitative phase of the study, and include:

- the identification of the survey process
- design of the research instrument (questionnaire)
- conducting the survey
- contacting the SOEs to circulate the questionnaire

5.10.1   Identification of the Survey Process

The tool used to collect the quantitative data was a survey questionnaire. The survey was intended to be the second phase of the study; however, because of Covid-19 restrictions, this second phase happened con-currently with the qualitative phase and thus provided for triangulation.

A survey is a scheme for collecting data from a population sample in which the researcher is interested (Bowling, 2014:215). The most appropriate way to send the survey to participants is via an online questionnaire. However, it should be easy to access by the target group (Regmi, Waithaka, Paudyal, Simkhada & Van Teijlingen, 2016:642). A survey questionnaire provided evidence of the leaders' role in the change process. Participants indicated their opinions about statements on a five-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Strongly agree). A survey is a valuable data collection instrument in that a complete record of information associated with a sample is collected. The unit of analysis in a survey is the individual participant, where an organisation is considered the sampling unit (Bowling, 2014:215).

5.10.2   Surveys as the Instrument

A relevant statistical calculation can be done to estimate a specific population parameter of the data derived from the sample. The statistical instruments used in the study included ANOVA, correlation analysis, and multiple linear regression. Hypotheses about the population gender, age, and data sets can be accurately tested.

Surveys comprise the collection of data from individuals and organisations by use of structured questionnaires. Surveys often focus on a random sample of a large population. For a survey, the following should be considered (Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011:212):

- the researcher needs to know enough about the topic
- if the information exists already, but in another source
- if the participant can tell you what you want to know
- whether participants will provide honest answers.

This instrument was relevant to the study to ascertain if the leadership had capabilities, competencies, and principles to implement and facilitate change successfully. In Chapter 2 (Section 2.7 to 2.8), it was indicated that the existence of capabilities, competencies, principles of leadership, indicators of effective leadership, and theories and leadership styles could result in a well-defined role of leadership.

5.10.3   Design of the Research Instrument

A researcher needs to decide how data will be collected and measured before the questionnaire is designed. The online questionnaire's characteristics, once designed, should be simple, feasible, and appropriate to the target participants, be culturally and ethically sensitive, and be complete and neutral (Regmi et al., 2016:643).

Various processes can be used to choose an appropriate scaling method in a questionnaire and to analyse data. These are open question and closed question scaling methods. The open-ended question scaling method consists of questions where participants have no specific response to choose from, whereas the closed-ended question scaling method consists of questions where the participants can choose from a limited number of given responses. A perfect example of this is the Likert scale as in the questionnaire (Appendix B), and divided into the following three sections:

Section A: Biographical and Background Information
An online questionnaire which asked for the gender, age of the participants, post level, their academic qualifications, years of experience in the organisation, and the organisation (SOEs in which the participant is working for: Transnet, Armscor, DBSA and Safcol), was designed.

Section B: Three Leadership Roles

There were three constructs in this category, each consisting of eight statements. The constructs were:

- Capabilities were identified as the critical leadership skills required to initiate the change management process. This included formulation on the vision, open communication to share goals with employees, complex situations of change make sense to employees, good interpersonal relationships with employees, leadership's continuous support of employees during the change process, adapt to a new organisational culture, employee motivation to perform, and leadership is instrumental to drive the change process.

- The competencies required information on whether the leadership proactively provided relevant information regarding the envisaged change, their behaviour during the change process, skills development for employees during the change process, encouragement of employees to adopt a learning mind-set, stimulation of creative problem-solving methods, enabling the achievement of organisational goals, providing feedback to encourage employee performance, and leadership navigation of turbulent times and uncertainty during change.

- The principles of leadership were the last statements in this section. These principles included setting realistic timeframes to make change possible, the envisaged change, their behaviour during the change process, skills development for employees during the change process, encouragement of employees to adopt a learning mind-set, stimulation of creative problem-solving methods, enabling the achievement of organisational goals, providing feedback to encourage employee performance, knowledge sharing by leaders empowers employees to work towards a common goal, and leadership's ability to resolve challenges timeously.

Section C: Constructs of organisational change management

Drivers of change focused on leadership and employee behaviour and attitude towards change, provision of useful information to keep employees committed in driving change, talent development to fill the critical roles that drive organisational change, service requirements in the marketplace, new political agendas, organisational policies to ensure

employees are not constrained, change in the legal environment, and economic trends as drivers of change.

Next were the statements on supporting the change plan, which focused on well-coordinated activities aligned with the organisational goal, involving employees in the initiation of the change plan, employees encouraging each other to support the change plan, planning for change by separating the past and the present, understanding why change should happen, the urgency for change, considering the impact that change has on subordinates, and the allocation of resources needed for the change process.

Change implementation statements focused on actioning the change plan, making the organisation to be different to before change, ensuring activities are aligned with organisational processes, encouraging a collaborative workforce, ensuring that skills possessed by employees would lead to an effective change process, developing leadership skills as predictors for successful change implementation, taking technology into account to improve efficiency, and the organisational vision communicated by the leader.

The last construct, change success, included statements such as the identification of needed resources before the change process starts, encourage commitment to organisational change by all employees, effective communication about the vision for change with all employees, clear and direct activities to bring about change success, all employees working towards the same goal for the change to succeed, employees' suggestions for change to be realised, learning new .procedures as a platform for successful change, and regular evaluation and feedback from all involved.

5.10.4   Data Collection for the Quantitative Instrument

Data was collected through a survey questionnaire. A five-point Likert scale was used to cypher the replies of participants. The variables chosen for the study were leadership and change management in SOEs. Data cleaning meant that normality test assumptions would be critically assessed to remove outliers to prevent analysis that would result in poor quality information (Ong & Puteh, 2017:18) and as such, outliers were removed. Next, the frequency distribution of the biographical and background information was performed. Data cleaning was done, following Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure for factor analysis. Communalities to determine factors to be reserved for the study and reliability was done.

Statistical analysis relevant to the study, such as correlational and multiple regression analysis discussed in Chapter 6, Section 6.8.1 and 6.8.3, were performed to examine the bivariate relationship between targeted variables (Ong & Puteh, 2017:19), i.e., leadership and change management. Similarly, validity and reliability were evaluated as per the requirement for hypotheses testing to examine the causal effect relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Ong & Puteh, 2017:21), and outliers were removed. Choosing these accurate and robust statistical analysis techniques determined the study's accuracy (Ong & Puteh, 2017:22), and helped realise the achievement of the planned research objectives.

Statistics has to do with quantitative research that contains data that is raw and not processed. Raw values can individually convey little useful information to management if not properly analysed (Tehseen, Ramayah & Sajilan, 2017:163). The SPSS version 27 software was used for data analysis and was translated by statistical manipulation into information describing patterns, relationships, and trends useful to management decision-making (Ong & Puteh, 2017:18). Quantitative data consists of numerical values.

5.10.5 Conducting the Survey

The survey was done via the online Microsoft Word 365 forms. This tool was chosen because it is easy to use, cost-effective, and allowed the researcher to design the survey independently. It allowed the researcher to download data in various formats and save records as soon as participants started answering the questionnaire. A link was created to distribute the questionnaire to participants. The survey was carefully crafted to ensure that it was easy to follow. Each page had a number and a progress button to keep participants updated on how far they still had to go. The questionnaire was designed such that the participant could not progress unless the questions had been completed. Furthermore, statements on the questionnaire were related to the research objectives and divided into three sections. The research instrument had 52 questions on leadership and change management.

Data collection using a survey involves sending the questionnaires to a large group of participants covering a broad geographic location and may result in a low response rate (Tenuche, 2018:79). This study used a sample from four Schedule 2 SOEs. The sample size was calculated with descriptive statistics, which showed a 5% confidence level, according to Premji, Pana, Currie, Dosani, Reilly, Young, Hall, Williamson and Lodha (2018). This is

done for two reasons, according to Tenuche (2018:79): (a) to provide sufficient data to the researcher for analysis; and (b) to guarantee that the demographic profiles of the sample reflect the population. It is noted that the element of sufficiency is a characteristic of the quantitative research methodology because of the enormous volumes of data that are gathered within a set period (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015:540). Therefore, in planning the questionnaire, the questions must be asked regarding the general issues about leadership and change to reach relevant findings (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015:539).

5.10.6 Contacting the State-Owned Enterprises to Circulate the Questionnaire

Staff members in the human resource management departments of the four SOEs were contacted to circulate the online questionnaires. All members of staff who partook in a change management process at an operational level were given a link to complete the questionnaire.

The total number of questionnaires returned are shown in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2: Questionnaire responses per State-Owned Enterprise

SOE	Province	Target	Number of questionnaires returned
Transnet	Gauteng	100	62
Armscor	Gauteng	100	20
DBSA	Gauteng	100	7
Safcol	Gauteng	100	31
Total			**120**

Source: Author's own compilation

Therefore, the response rate for the quantitative phase was 67% (120/280).

5.10.7 Challenges experienced during Data Collection for the Quantitative Phase

- Several weeks passed without responses to the online questionnaires by the participants, despite weekly reminders by the researcher.
- Sending emails to the SOEs meant that the researcher had to physically visit the SOE to discuss minor issues with the HRM departments because of no replies to emails.
- Email responses did not associate with the action the email asked for, and the researcher needed to follow up with a call to the participants.

- Denel could not participate in the study due to a political crisis in the organisation and they cancelled their participation after the questionnaire had already been designed.

5.11 QUALITATIVE DATA COLLECTION

Two research instruments were designed, namely a questionnaire and an interview guide, because this study was a mixed method study; in other words, the study's objectives had quantitative and qualitative inquiry intent. The interview guide in Appendix C was used to address the qualitative objectives (1 and 2). Qualitative data analysis describes, classifies, and interconnects the phenomena with the conceptual framework (Graue, 2015:8). The data collected from the qualitative phase (interviews) was analysed using the ATLAS.ti version 9 software. Each statement made by the participants were analysed using content analysis to find meanings of, and relationships between certain words, themes, or concepts. The phenomenon in the study needs to be thoroughly described so that the researcher can interpret and explain the data and formulate a conceptual framework (Graue, 2015:8). The aims of qualitative data analysis, according to Flick (2014:4), are to describe the phenomenon in detail, compare the commonality or the differences between various interviews, and develop the theory of the phenomenon under study from the analysis of the empirical data.

The constructs for the role of leadership for the qualitative data analysis included the following items. A leader:

- sets a clear vision
- motivates employees
- guides the employees through the work process; and
- builds the morale of the employees.

All these constructs had a list of items, which were used to formulate the interview questions.

Tracy (2019:5) describes six data collection approaches within the qualitative research approach. These approaches include grounded theory, ethnography, phenomenology, naturalistic, case study, and the descriptive qualitative method, mostly used in health and social sciences (Herman, 2019:119). A descriptive qualitative method was found to be most suitable in this study because it could be used with a variety of approaches; for example, this

study used a mixed methods approach. In the qualitative phase, the sampling technique was purposive, and data collection strategies included qualitative tools. In addition, leadership and change management are descriptive; and therefore, descriptive qualitative approaches were appropriate as they enabled the researcher to get a comprehensive summary of the change process.

5.11.1 Design of the Interview Guide

The first page of the interview guide should inform the participant why the interview is conducted and to ask participants' permission to be interviewed. In most instances, interviews are conducted for the qualitative method. It involves an individual to give their perspectives about a topic and ensure in-depth responses. Furthermore, when a participant wants to ask a question, they can do so. Interview questions should therefore be appropriate, and the researcher should ensure that the interviews are recorded. This will ensure that all interview responses are correctly presented.

5.11.2 Interview Invitation

At the commencement of the study, the researcher contacted the DPE to get approval regarding the SOEs to participate in the study. This was done to ensure that the researcher could then contact each SOE, based on the approval from the DPE. Each of the four SOEs was contacted by the HRM department, who referred the researcher to the responsible person for arranging appointments. The researcher was provided by the HRM department with the list of email addresses of the executive directors and executive managers to ask them for a face-to face or online interview, depending on the preference of the interviewees. Two participants agreed on face-to-face interviews, while the other six participants preferred online interviews. The invitation was sent to the head secretary of each SOE to set up the date and time for the interview sessions with executive directors and executive managers.

5.11.3 Interview Sessions

An interview in research is the process of coordinating a discussion and asking questions about a phenomenon of interest, and it is powerful for gaining understanding (Carter, Bryant Lukosius, DiCenso, Blythe & Neville, 2014:545). In-depth information in this process triggers the experiences and feelings about the phenomenon of interest. An interview session involves two individuals – the interviewer and an interviewee. The dates and times of the

interview were confirmed by the HRM department to ensure convenience to both the interviewer and interviewee.

All interviewees were asked to sign a consent form and were asked for permission to record the session for later transcription. A brief introduction explaining the aim of the interview was provided to allay any potential discomfort. Breaks were provided if the participant had to attend to a call.

5.11.4 Qualitative Approach

The qualitative research approach emphasises exploring and understanding the perceptions of individuals or groups about social or human problems (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017:4). This approach is often described as inductive because the researched concepts (leadership and change) are social constructs that are challenging to measure. Moreover, they are complex and interlinked, such that the collected data will inevitably reflect the viewpoints of the participants (Rovai et al., 2014:21). Ideally, a qualitative approach is used when scholars explore a new field or intend to theorise or investigate emerging issues (Jamshed, 2014:87). A qualitative approach involves one-on-one interactions with participants. Generally, the approach enhances understanding participants' experiences and attitudes (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015:537).

This study aimed to gain a more detailed understanding of the role of leadership during the change management process. This was only possible if the experiences of leadership and the challenges for change were critically evaluated. Having leadership that can bring about success in the organisation's change process is essential but hard to find (Deshler, 2016:1). Therefore, a qualitative approach enabled the researcher to discuss their change experiences and challenges during the interview sessions.

Qualitative descriptive enquiry is the most frequently used research approach in practice disciplines (Kim, Sefcik & Bradway, 2017:23). The qualitative description enquiry plays a vital role in studies that need to question the who, what, and where of the events or experiences (Kim et al., 2017:23). This study focused on low inference description without providing any conclusions about the phenomenon of interest (Colorafi & Evans, 2016:17). Researchers who use a descriptive qualitative design may use the lens of interpretive theory or a conceptual framework to guide their studies (Colorafi & Evans, 2016:17). However,

they can also change their plans when necessary, and during the research (Sandelowski, 2010:79).

5.12 PILOT STUDY

Data collection for the quantitative (questionnaire) and qualitative (interview guide) phases of the study required gathering information (text or numerical) by the researcher to answer the research questions on the variables of interest. A pilot study is a procedure done to improve the quality of the research instrument.

5.12.1 Pilot Study for the Quantitative Phase

For the quantitative phase, views from the participants assisted in eliminating misconceptions and misinterpretations of questions. It also helped to assess the inclusion and exclusion criteria of the research instrument (questionnaire), which was tested by means of Cronbach's alpha.

Questions that had a Cronbach's alpha of less than 0.7 were eliminated.

For this phase, two pilot tests were conducted and found the reliability and validity of the research instrument not to be good. The first pilot study yielded a low Cronbach's alpha which necessitated the re-testing of the research instrument. The re-test subsequently yielded an acceptable score of above 0.7, which meant that the final instrument could be used to collect data.

The researcher used 30 participants from Transnet, 10 randomly selected academic leaders, and 10 academics (and as per convenience), from the Department of Business Management (Unisa) for the pilot study. These responses were excluded from the final sample of the study.

5.12.2 Pilot study for the Qualitative Phase

This experimental procedure was conducted to check if the research questions contained in the research instrument (interview guide) were relevant, and the language formulated could be understood by the participants. In this phase, the researcher used three academic staff member specialists in leadership studies and three change management specialists at Unisa, and one representative from each SOE. In total, the researcher ran the qualitative pilot with

10 participants to validate the study. These participants were also excluded from the final sample from each of the selected SOEs for the study. In total, the researcher ran the qualitative pilot with 10 participants to validate the study. These participants were also excluded from the final study sample.

Feedback received from the participants included to reduce the number of questions, and to reduce the length of the interview from 1 hour to 45 minutes.

5.13   DATA CLEANING

The description of all the variables in the SPSS was computed to evaluate the normality in this study. Data cleaning refers to detecting and repairing dirty data (Chu, Ilyas, Krishnan & Wang, 2016:2201). Data cleaning was done to improve the data so that the statistical analysis procedures were precise and that estimates had a sound basis. This is because specific statistical methods show that the distribution of the scores of the dependent variables need to have a bell-shaped curve. Most scores are in the centre of the curve. The statistician checked possible outliers when running the SPSS (version 27.0).

A univariate outlier is a data point consisting of a single variable's extreme value. A combination of uncommon scores with at least two variables is a multi-variate outlier. The outcomes of statistical tests can be reduced by both forms of outliers (Arevalillo & Navarro, 2021:954). The researcher checked the variables that might have skewness and kurtosis issues. Skewness and kurtosis are two typical elements used when the descriptive statistics are computed. There were no problems with skewness and kurtosis in this study.

5.14   INFERENTIAL STATISTICS AND QUANTITATIVE PLAN

Numerical data is collated first to assist the researcher (Albers, 2017:215; Belotto, 2018:2622). Then, with the help of inferential statistics, the collected data is used to make sense of the conclusions drawn from the study. The following section discusses the quantitative research.

Quantitative research is a process of applying statistical measures to make sense of the research findings, remove the errors, evaluate the data, and summarise it (Tehseen et al., 2017:146). A quantitative research method gathers data, which must be analysed effectively to conclude the study (Albers, 2017:215).

The quantitative research had to align with the research objectives as set in the study, and as recommended by Albers (2017:224). The objectives relevant to the quantitative data analysis were objectives 3 and 4. In this study, a detailed data analysis plan was discussed with a statistician to get advice on collecting the quantitative data and assessing if the research instrument designed by the researcher would provide the required results.

For example, Objective 3 determined the effect of the leadership roles on successful change management processes in SOEs. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, the KMO test and communalities demonstrated how the researcher could determine several factors to be reserved in the study. The total variance explained considered components to have an eigenvalue greater than 1, a scree plot was used to show the factors above an eigenvalue of 1, and a model summary of organisational Change Management and Leadership Role. Coefficients showed to what extent the decision variate contributed to the model.

Data validity was checked by means of exploratory factor analysis. A rotated component matrix was used to make sure that the analysis was in line with components that belonged in each specific group, as shown in Table 6. Variable naming, following the question numbers in R.I. for item total statistics, were considered for further analysis, and descriptive statistics for leadership and organisational change to determine the correlation between decision variables. Multiple hierarchal models, including the Structural Equation Model (SEM), were used to check the significance of the constructs in the study. Multiple regression is only used when more than one independent variable predicts a dependent variable (Dubey et al., 2017:447).

Objective 4 was to evaluate the relationship between leadership qualities (leadership capabilities, competencies, and principles), and change management (drivers of change, change plans, implementation, and change success) in South African SOEs (quantitative enquiry). These data relating to these two objectives (3 and 4) was analysed using ANOVA to check the significance of the model. A *p-value* of less than 0.01 shows a significant correlation between constructs or decision variables. In this case, it is the relationship between leadership qualities (leadership capabilities, competencies, and principles), and effective change management (drivers of change, change plans, implementation, and change success).

5.15   QUALITATIVE DESCRIPTIVE METHOD

Collected thematic data was used for objective 1 and objective 2. Objective 1 was: "What are the leadership experiences in the initiation of change management processes? and objective 2 was: "What challenges exist regarding change management implementation in South African SOEs?"

Qualitative data analysis describes, classifies, and interconnects the phenomena with the conceptual framework (Graue, 2015:8). The data collected from the qualitative phase (interviews) was analysed using the ATLAS.ti, version 9 software. Each statement made by the participants were analysed using content analysis to find meanings of, and relationships between certain words, themes, or concepts. The phenomenon in the study needs to be thoroughly described so that the researcher can interpret and explain the data and formulate a conceptual framework (Graue, 2015:8). The aims of qualitative data analysis, according to Flick (2014:4), are to:

- describe the phenomenon in detail
- compare the commonality or the differences between various interviews, and
- develop the theory of the phenomenon under study from the analysis of the empirical data.

All these constructs had a list of items, which were used to formulate the interview questions. Figure 5.4 shows the steps for qualitative data analysis.
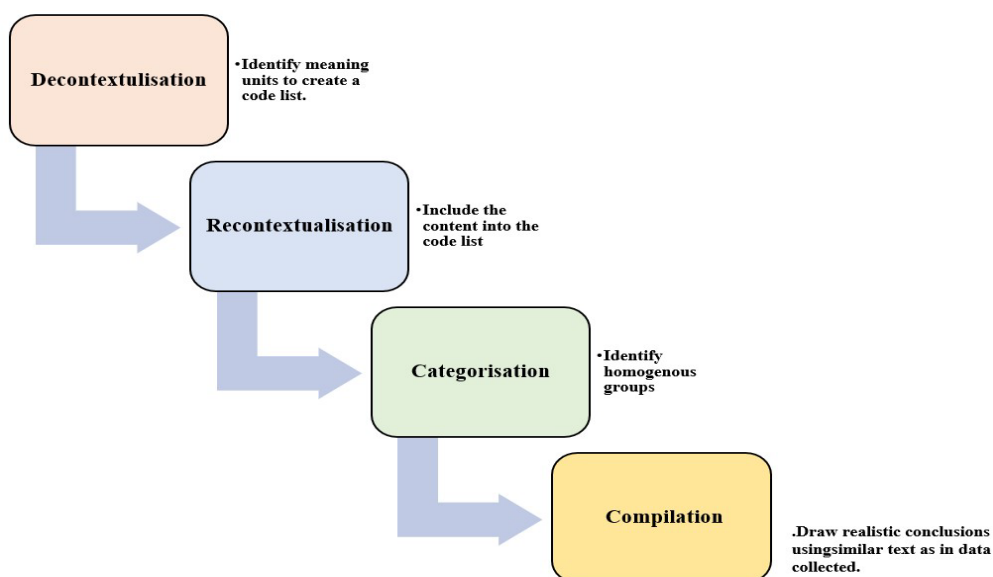
Figure 5.4: Steps for qualitative data analyses
Source: Bengtsson (2016:9)

Figure 5.4 shows the steps that were taken to analyse data from the interview recordings, to address research objectives 1 and 2. First, decontextualisation was done on the data to identify the meaning of words so that an appropriate code list could be formulated. Recontextualisation, on the other hand, was used to clarify what the code list meant in terms of content. Next, categorisation looked for ideas that were similar in the interview discussion. Finally, the compilation concluded the data collected using similar text.

5.15.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

Quantitative data analysis is a process of applying statistical qualities to make sense of the research findings, remove the errors, evaluate the data, and summarise it (Tehseen et al., 2017:146). A quantitative research method gathers numerical data, which must be analysed effectively to conclude the study (Albers, 2017:215).

The quantitative research instrument (questionnaire) had to align with the research objectives set in the study, as recommended by Albers (2017:224). The objectives relevant to the quantitative data analysis were objectives 3 and 4. In this study, a detailed data analysis plan was discussed with a statistician to get advice on collecting the quantitative data and assessing if the research instrument designed by the researcher would provide the required results.

For example, Objective 3 was determining the effect of the leadership role on successful change management processes in the SOE variable. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and the KMO Test, and communalities demonstrate how the researcher can determine several factors to be reserved in the study. The total variance explained is considered when components have an eigenvalue greater than 1, and a scree plot was used to show the factors above an eigenvalue of 1, and a model summary was used for the organisational Change management (CM) and Leadership role (LR).

Data validity was checked by means of exploratory factor analysis. A rotated component matrix was used to make sure that the analysis was in line with components that belonged in each specific group, as shown in chapter 6, Table 6.4. Variable naming following question numbers in the R.I. item and the total statistic considered descriptive statistics of leadership and organisational change. The correlation multiple hierarchal models, including the SEM, were used to check the significance of the constructs in the study. Multiple regression is only used when more than one independent variable predicts a dependent variable.

5.15.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

Working on data collection and data analysis is key to achieving business viability for qualitative analysis. The qualitative analysis presents the comprehensive method. The interview guide presents the final output to leadership. Qualitative research was originally used for households with different life stages. However, it can be easily modified and is now used for qualitative data analysis. This guideline gives way for the key topic in the interview guide to be followed while asking the questions to the leaders during the interviews. At the same time, the interview guide was analysed. It is easy to analyse interviews to explore significant topics. After the data analysis, the researcher looked at character attributes and tried to segment the perceptions from the interview analysis. A description of key findings was created, and sections were summarised to clarify the data analysed from the interviews. Furthermore, it was ensured that all participants were in a leadership position to suit the type of questions asked in the interview guide.

5.16 VALIDITY, RELIABILITY AND TRUSTWORTHINESS

All studies should have research designs and instruments for data collection which pass the test of validity and reliability (quantitative research) and trustworthiness (qualitative research) before they can be determined as worthy of consideration (Dikko, 2016:521). The following sections discuss the validity, reliability, and trustworthiness of the study:

5.16.1 Validity

Validity in MMR involves assessing issues that can arise in data analyses of the quantitative phase. Validity is the degree to which the concept is accurately measured in quantitative research (Heale & Twycross, 2015:66). Validity focuses on two levels, i.e., the quality of the research instrument's scores, and the quality of conclusions from analysed data. There are three types of validity often used in mixed research, and these are:

- Content validity: This category looks at whether the instrument adequately covers all the content it should measure regarding the variable or construct (Heale & Twycross, 2015:66). Face validity is a subset of content validity. In this study, both quantitative and qualitative research instruments were piloted using participants and experts on leadership and change management to see if the instruments covered the content as intended.

- Construct validity: It refers to whether the research draws inferences about the test scores related to the concept being studied (Heale & Twycross, 2015:66). It measures the hypotheses to ensure that they are supported. Thus, multiple regression and correlational analysis were performed in this study to test the hypotheses in the quantitative phase, where convergent validity as an element of construct validity was used to measure correlations of similar constructs.

- Criterion validity: It refers to the extent to which a research instrument is related to other instruments that measure the same variable (Heale & Twycross, 2015:66).

5.16.2   Reliability

Reliability denotes the consistency of a measure, which is observed as participants complete their research instrument such that the responses remain similar each time the test is completed (Heale & Twycros, 2015:66). There are three characteristics of reliability, according to Heale and Twycross (2015:66), namely:

- Stability is tested using test-retests and parallel or alternate form reliability testing. In this reliability attribute, the test scores are compared i.e., each time they are completed. The consistency of results is done by using an instrument with repeated testing.

- Equivalence is evaluated by inter-rater reliability. This includes a process of qualitatively determining the level of agreement between two or more observers.

- Consistency in the scores that are rated among responses of multiple users of the research instrument.

- Homogeneity (internal consistency) based on item-to-total correlation and split-half reliability. Good examples are the Kuder-Richardson coefficient, and Cronbach's alpha (a), which was used to determine the extent to which all the items on the scale measure one construct. The result of a, when calculated, is supposed to be between 0 and 1; the acceptable score of reliability is 0.7 and higher. The researcher used a in this study because it is the most commonly used test to determine a questionnaire's internal consistency (Heale & Twycross, 2015:66).

To show consistency in this study, the following activities were undertaken:

- A questionnaire was developed based on the literature review.
- The questionnaire was piloted and gauged and items with a values of below 0.7 were removed.
- The corrections were done on the questionnaire, and the literature was consulted again.
- Then the pilot study was conducted with participants from the selected SOEs. The a results are shown in Chapter 6, Table 6.12.

Table 5.3 shows the reliability statistics for the quantitative phase.

Table 5.3: Reliability statistics

Constructs	Number of statements	a results	Reliability
Leadership capabilities	8	0.862	high
Leadership competencies	8	0.787	high
Leadership principles	4 out of 8	0.4.84	low
Change plan	8	0.796	high
Change implementation	8	0.699	moderate
Drivers of change	8	0.725	high
Change success	8	0.711	high

5.16.3   Trustworthiness

The qualitative objectives (objectives 1 and 2) were incorporated in the interview guide to investigate the research setting (Creswell, 2014:41). Hence, a descriptive qualitative approach was used in the study. In this approach, to ensure that the data collection is conducted with precision as according to Forero, Nahidi, De Costa, Mohsin, Fitzgerald, Gibson, McCarthy and Aboagye-Sarfo (2018:1), the researcher needs to use a four-dimensional framework for trustworthiness, i.e., dependability, credibility, confirmability, and transferability, and specifically when assessing the experiences of participants in leading the change management processes. These dimensions are described as follows (Moon, Brewer, Januchowski-Hartley, Adams & Blackman, 2016:2):

- Dependability: refers to the consistency of the research findings and the degree to which research procedures are documented, allowing another researcher or reader to follow, audit, and critique the research process.

- Credibility: the purpose here was to establish confidence that the participants' results were believable, credible, and trustworthy.
- Confirmability: refers to the degree to which the results could be confirmed or corroborated by others. This had the objective of minimising bias and acknowledging the researcher's personal predispositions.
- Transferability: refers to the possibility of increasing the degree of confidence if transferred to another context.

All four these dimensions were considered in the study.

5.17 HYPOTHESIS TESTING

Quantitative research uses a deductive approach to examine a hypothesis and which results in the confirmation process. These hypotheses attempt to explain the relationship between two or more variables. Testable propositions about the relationship between leadership and change management are used to produce a hypothesis: this testing was to compare data with the theory started. If this is validated, the theory is assumed to have begun. Therefore, hypotheses were rejected or failed to be rejected (i.e., accepted) from the outcome of the results. When the results were confirmed, the hypotheses that had a positive or negative correlation between the leadership role and successful change implementation, were proven. The statistical analysis revealed whether the intended outcomes were achieved. Rejection of the hypothesis means the theory could be modified (Tong, 2003).

5.18 ELIMINATION OF BIAS

Elements of bias are often present in research. Triangulation was facilitated by using a mixed method approach, to ensure that bias was minimised and to increase the truthfulness of a proposition regarding the phenomenon of interest. Using the simultaneous triangulation approach assisted in ruling out bias from the data source. Two data sources were deliberately used to reduce the inherent bias associated with a single data source (Hadi & Closs, 2016:643). Thus, triangulation was used as a tool in this research to check the validity of data and ascertain those inferences derived from multiple data sources, were reliable (Hadi & Closs, 2016:643).

5.19 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical considerations are a set of principles that guide a researcher's research designs and practices. The researcher followed Unisa's ethical guidelines (Unisa, 2016). The Unisa Research Ethics Review Committee, CEMS, approved the study in September 2019 (Appendix A). A gatekeeper's letter was written to the DPE and four SOEs to get approval to conduct the study, explaining the study's purpose.

The DPE approved the study on behalf of the SOEs, i.e., Transnet, Armscor, DBSA and Safcol. The CEOs of the SOEs approved the study on behalf of their organisations when the researcher shared with them the approval from the DPE. Informed consent was required, and participants were informed about the study before their participation, which was explained to participants in both phases of the study. The participants willingly signed the informed consent form for both phases, and after receiving written and oral confirmation. Anonymity and confidentiality were ensured by coding and changing the names of the interviewees to pseudonyms. The interviewees were also guaranteed confidentiality during the interview process. Participants for the survey questionnaire were provided with a link for the online Microsoft 365 where the questionnaire was embedded, and an anonymous click for the submission of the questionnaire was provided. The statistician, editor, and formatter signed confidentiality agreements to keep the study confidential. For the qualitative phase (interviews), recordings were done by using the researcher's cellular phone.

5.20 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the research methods selected for this study. The research approach and the research design were discussed and were followed by discussions on the research philosophy and paradigm. The population and sampling used in the study were also discussed.

A mixed methods approach was used for this study, and triangulation was applied to compare the results of one method against the other. The questionnaire and interview guide were discussed as research instruments for this study. Data collected from the SOEs for the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study, were also highlighted.

Quantitative data analysis was done using SPSS, version 27, and exploratory factor analysis, correlations and multiple regression were created to show the results. Qualitative analysis was performed by means of ATLAS.ti, version 9. Pilot studies were conducted for both phases of the study, and the recommendations for changes from the pilot studies were made to the research instruments. Validity and reliability were ensured in the analysis of the results to provide the credibility of the study's findings. Hypothesis testing was discussed to signify the concepts that needed testing in the study. The chapter concluded with presenting the ethical considerations of the study.

The next chapter presents the quantitative and qualitative results and findings of the study.

CHAPTER 6

QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND FINDINGS

6.1   INTRODUCTION

The study was aimed at determining the role of leadership in change management in South African SOEs. This chapter presents the data analysis results for both the quantitative and qualitative methods. The first part of the chapter presents the data analysis of the results of the quantitative phase. The questionnaire (Appendix B) was distributed to participants (employees) functioning at the operational level in the SOEs. This questionnaire had three sections. Section A provided the biographical and background information. Section B was about the role of leadership, which included the capabilities of leadership, competencies of leadership, and principles of leadership. Section C of the questionnaire was based on organisational change management, which included drivers of change, change plan, change implementation, and change success.

The qualitative phase of the data analysis was based on the interview schedule (Appendix C). Interviews were conducted with eight participants of SOEs. The interview guide comprised sections A, B, and C. Section A was on the background information of participants and comprised of five questions. Section B was on leadership experiences in the change process and entailed communication and messaging for change, integration/collaboration of systems/structures, and skills transfer. Section C entailed information on the challenges of the change management process in SOEs. The next section presents the data analysis for the quantitative phase (questionnaires).

6.2   QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

Quantitative data analysis forms the basis of new knowledge and skills that can be used in the business environment. The kind of quantification used in quantitative data analysis must provide valuable information regarding validity of the components used in the study and as discussed in section 6.5. First, the biographical and background information of participants was established. Section A of the questionnaire (Appendix B) consisted of six questions. It covered the participants' gender, age, post level, academic qualifications, years of experience in the organisation and name of the organisation. In addition, the questions were

asked to obtain the profile of participants who work at the operational level of change in the four SOEs.

The data was compiled into a frequency distribution of the components of the study. The frequency shows how often elements in the biographical data occurred.

6.2.1 Gender of Participants

The aim of Question 1 was to establish the gender of participants. Of the 120 participants, 40.8% were female, and 59.2% were male. As shown in Figure 6.1, most participants in the study were males.

Gender Distribution
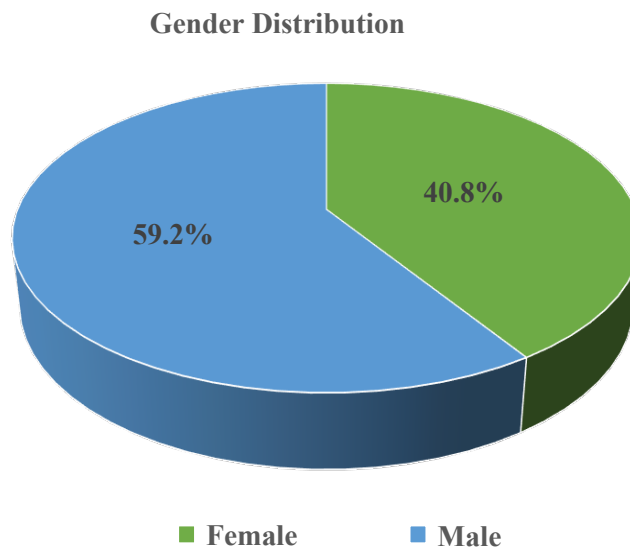
Figure 6.1. Gender of participants

6.2.2 Age of Participants

Question 2 was aimed at establishing the age of participants. Most participants were in the age group between 40 and 49 years with 35%. This group was followed by the age group of 50 years and older, with 27.5%, followed by the age group between 30 and 39 years with 21.7%, and the age group below 30 years with 15.8%. This information is shown in Figure 6.2.
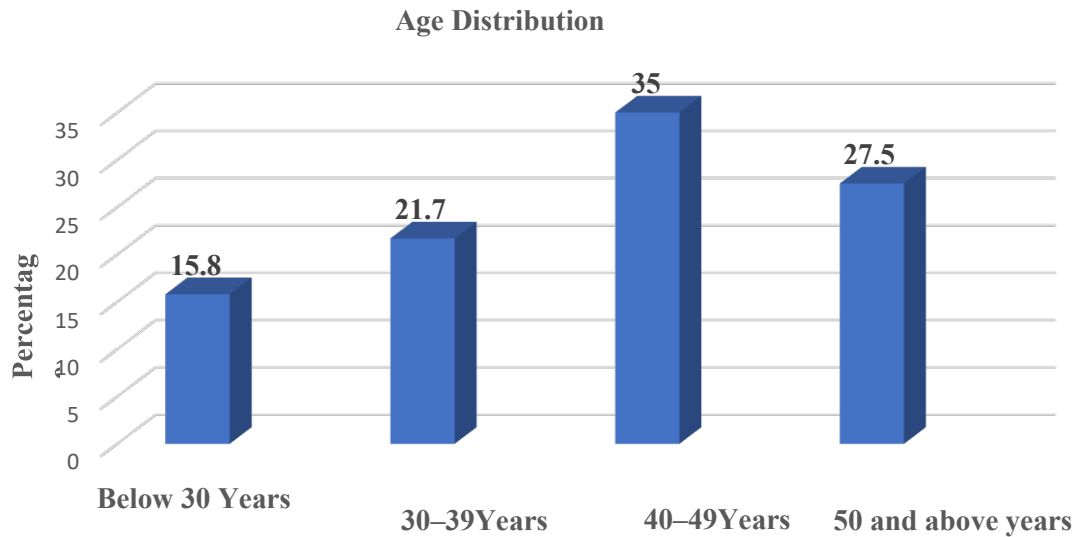
Age Distribution

Figure 6.2: Age distribution of participants

6.2.3   Post Level of Participants

Question 3 was asked to highlight the post level of participants who work at the operational level of change in SOEs. The most significant number in this group was the employees who represented 39.2%, followed by middle managers at 33.4%, senior managers at 18%, and supervisors at 9%, as illustrated in Figure 6.3.
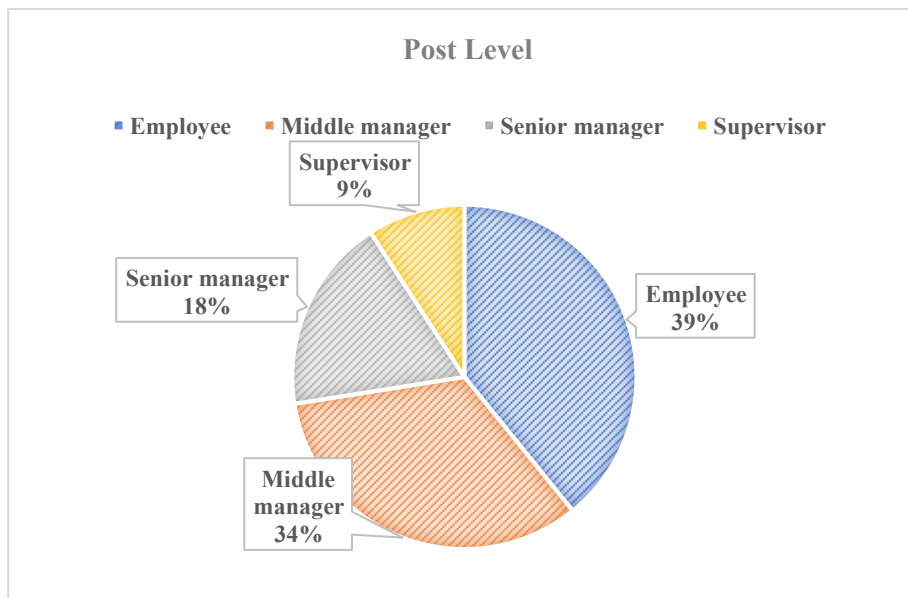
Figure 6.3: Post level of participants

6.2.4 Academic Qualifications of Participants

Question 4 was asked to determine the academic qualifications of participants. Seven options were given in this question. Figure 6.4 shows that the highest qualification was a degree which was held by 19.2% of the participants. This was followed by those participants who had an Honours degree with 18.3%. Matric, Diploma and Masters' degree were 17.5%, respectively, followed by Certificates with 10.0%. No participants selected the option of doctorate.
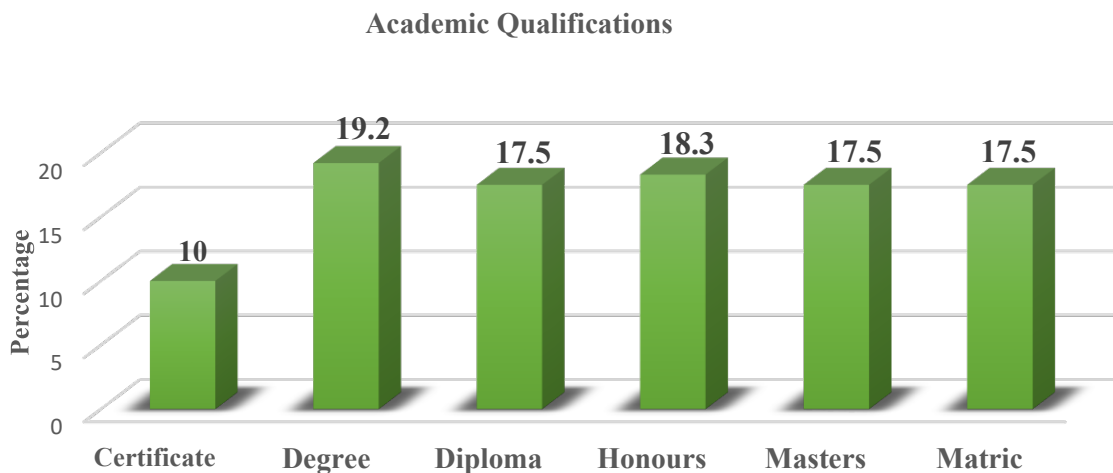
Figure 6.4: Academic qualifications of participants

6.2.5 Years of Experience in the Organisation

Question 5 was asked to establish participants' years of experience in the organisation. Most of the participants, namely 46.7%, worked in the organisations below 10 years, followed by between 10 and 19 years with 43.7%, between 20 and 29 years with 6.7%, above 40 years with 2.5%, and between 30 and 39 years with 0.8. This information is shown in Figure 6.5.
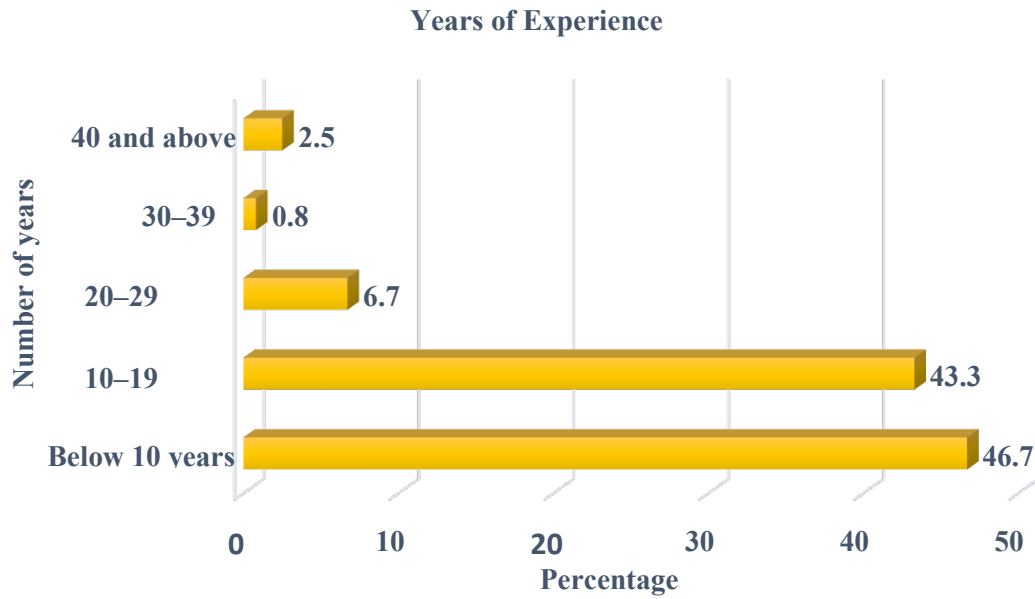
Figure 6.5: Years of experience in the organisation

6.2.6   Organisation

Question 6 determined which organisation the participants worked for. The organisations are shown in Figure 6.6 and indicates that 51% were represented by Transnet, 26% were represented by Safcol, followed by Armscor with 17%, and the DBSA with 6%.
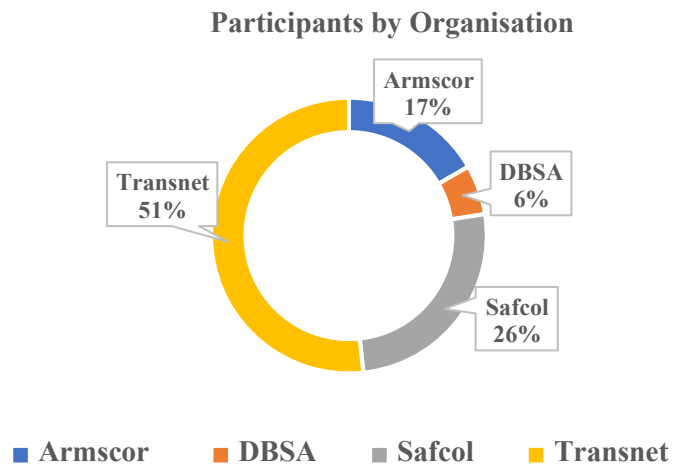
Figure 6.6: Participants by organisation

6.3 DATA VALIDITY: EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

The objective of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is to assess the validity of the constructs in a conceptual model. Validity assesses how accurate an instrument is (Souza, Alexandre & Guirardello, 2017:649). The EFA was used to evaluate the research constructs of this study. These tests indicate the stability of the data for structure finding. The following sections present the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Test, the communalities total variance explained, the principal component matrix, and total variance.

6.3.1 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Test and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity

The KMO tests how suitable the data in a study is to factor analysis. For construct validation, the KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were used as the elements of measure, as shown in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity

Test		Result
KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.848
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1 547.386
	Df.	351.000
	Sig.	0.000

In this study, the KMO value of 0.848 was achieved. This is acceptable according to the principle of factor analysis which explains that the underlying structure in a series of data allows analysing the interrelationship that exists between variables (Bucci, Luna, Viloria, Garcia, Parody, Varela & Lopez, 2018:149). The KMO value of 0.848 is the degree of common variance between the six components and is sufficiently important to evaluate the factor (Gan, Jiao, Liu & Zhang, 2018:569). At this level of 99% confidence for the factor analysis, the *p value* of the test (Sig = 0.000) is significant at less than 0.01 (Gan et al., 2018:569). This result indicates that the structure of the correlation is substantially significant to evaluate the constructs.

6.3.2   Communalities

The results of the communalities are shown in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2: Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
LCa 1	1.000	0.621
LCa 2	1.000	0.567
LCa 4	1.000	0.540
LCa 6	1.000	0.645
LCa 7	1.000	0.708
LCa 8	1.000	0.580
LCo 1	1.000	0.619
LCo 4	1.000	0.603
LCo 5	1.000	0.702
LCo 6	1.000	0.678
LCo 8	1.000	0.637
LP 2	1.000	0.628
LP 3	1.000	0.627
LP 4	1.000	0.703
LP 5	1.000	0.584
LP 8	1.000	0.613
CI 1	1.000	0.760
CI 2	1.000	0.693
CI 3	1.000	0.633
CI 4	1.000	0.608
CI 5	1.000	0.706
CI 6	1.000	0.720
CI 7	1.000	0.532
CI 8	1.000	0.531
CS 3	1.000	0.574
CS 5	1.000	0.765
CS 6	1.000	0.726

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Abbreviations: (LCa) Leadership capabilities, (LCo) Leadership competencies, (LP) Leadership principles, (CI) Change implementation, and (CS) Change success.

Communalities demonstrate how the researcher can determine several factors to be reserved in the study (Ledesma, Valero-Mora & Macbeth, 2015:7). A value close to 1 shows an item that is strongly correlated with the other components. Low item communalities near 0.3 were removed in the analysis of this study (Ledesma et al., 2015:8). In this study, factors that had values of communalities that were above 0.3 were considered valid. The questions in the research instrument (questionnaire) were reduced from 56 questions to 27 questions as some

questions did not meet the validity criterion. The communalities of all 27 items as shown in Table 6.2 were rationalised by the varimax method used in this study.

6.3.3 Total Variance Explained

Total variance explained is considered when components have eigenvalue greater than 1 and validity is measured using principal component analysis (PCA), as per Ledesma et al. (2015:3). EFA was carried out to analyse the research instrument focusing on the PCA technique by using the varimax rotation method to study distinctiveness among the constructs. The main aim of using PCA was to remove the unnecessary factors for the study to be left with an optimal set of composite variables suitable in this study. Table 6.3 indicates the total variance explained based on the Likert-scale variables of the study. Furthermore, EFA was used to find which components must be retained (Ledesma et al., 2015:1). Moreover, it was essential to evaluate whether all the decision variables were loading in their specific categories and their eigenvalue was reasonable enough to be used in the study (Ledesma et al., 2015:3).

Table 6.3: Total variance explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	8.638	31.993	31.993	8.638	31.993	31.993	5.319	19.700	19.700
2	2.590	9.592	41.585	2.590	9.592	41.585	4.225	15.647	35.347
3	2.305	8.536	50.120	2.305	8.536	50.120	2.099	7.773	43.120
4	1.384	5.128	55.248	1.384	5.128	55.248	2.023	7.491	50.611
5	1.300	4.814	60.062	1.300	4.814	60.062	1.982	7.342	57.954
6	1.088	4.029	64.090	1.088	4.029	64.090	1.657	6.137	64.090
7	0.944	3.495	67.585						
8	0.871	3.226	70.811						
9	0.812	3.006	73.818						
10	0.761	2.819	76.637						
11	0.659	2.441	79.078						
12	0.618	2.288	81.366						
13	0.528	1.957	83.323						
14	0.516	1.912	85.235						
15	0.489	1.811	87.047						
16	0.469	1.737	88.784						
17	0.422	1.563	90.347						

Table 6.3: Total variance explained (continued)

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
18	0.374	1.384	91.731						
19	0.355	1.316	93.047						
20	0.306	1.135	94.182						
21	0.290	1.075	95.257						
22	0.280	1.037	96.294						
23	0.253	0.937	97.231						
24	0.213	0.789	98.020						
25	0.201	0.746	98.766						
26	0.192	0.712	99.478						
27	0.141	0.522	100.000						

Table 6.3 shows that the columns with primary eigenvalues, or numbers of variance in the original variables, are accounted for by each component. The variance column indicates the ratio, articulated as a percentage of the variance, and is accounted for by each factor to the total variance in all variables. The rule declares that the component should be retained if it is associated with an eigenvalue greater than 1 (Ledesma et al., 2015:3). In this study, the eigenvalues greater than 1 with a cumulative percentage of 64.090, were valid.

6.3.4   Scree Plot

A further analysis was carried out using the scree plot, as shown in Figure 6.7.
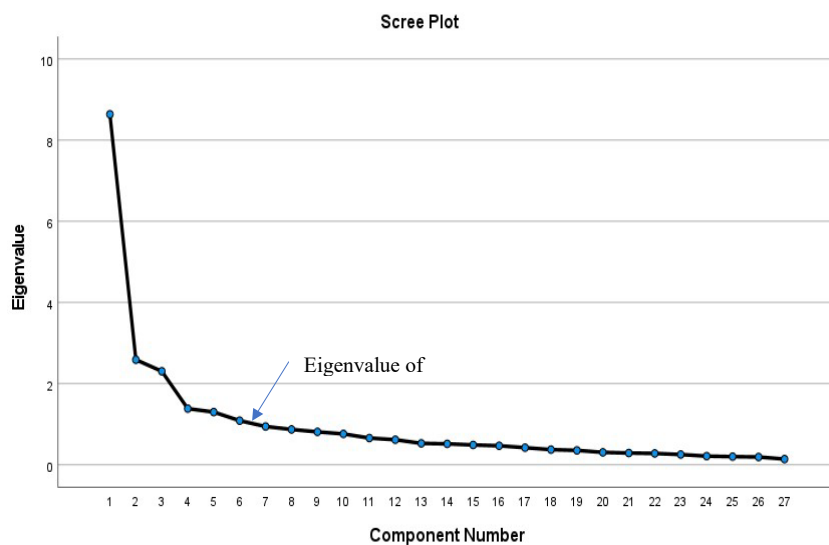
Figure 6.7: Scree plot

The scree plot shows six debris (factors) above the eigenvalue of 1. These factors were established by examining the graph with the aim of determining a natural bend or breakpoint and the flattening out of the curve. The values with eigenvalues above 1 were valid in this study (Ledesma et al., 2015:3). The valid variables are shown in Table 6.3 of the Extracted Sums of Squared Loadings and Rotated Sums of Squared Loadings 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6, because they had eigenvalues greater than 1. The scree plot of the eigenvalues and features visually include a six-factor structure with a rational estimate because the eigenvalues start descending below 1 after that point, as explained by Bender, Hassanpour, Hook, Klevansky, Sünderhauf and Wen (2017:1). Therefore, these factors qualify to be retained for further analysis since they have eigenvalues above 1.

6.3.5   Rotated Component Matrix

The rotation method is in line with the identification of components that load in each specific group. In most circumstances, a factor is regarded as loaded in an individual group if its loading value is greater than 0.3 (Ledesma et al., 2015:8). This study followed the guidelines of Ledesma et al. (2015), showing a loading value greater than 0.3 and at least two items per factor. Table 6.4 indicates that the first group extracted is Leadership capabilities (LCa) with the highest total variance explained, meaning it is more correlated with many of the observed components of 19.700%. The second-highest total variance explained was Leadership competencies (LCo) with 15.647%. The extraction shows the factors in the Change success (CS) categories contributing the lowest contributions' percentage on the research study model. Change success (CS) contributes 6,137% on the total variance explained.

Table 6.4: Rotated Component Matrix

| Components | Component | | | | | |
	1	2	3	4	5	6
LCa 1	0.640					
LCa 2	0.633					
LCa 4	0.589					
LCa 6	0.748					
LCa 7	0.712					
LCa 8	0.726					
LCo 1		0.693				
LCo 4		0.658				
LCo 5		0.812				
LCo 6		0.735				

Table 6.4: Rotated Component Matrix (continued)

Components	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
LCo 8		0.715				
LP 2			0.686			
LP 3			0.750			
LP 4			0.718			
LP 5			0.689			
LP 8			0.632			
CI 1				0.764		
CI 2				0.738		
CI 3				0.696		
CI 4					0.874	
CI 5					0.812	
CI 6					0.748	
CI 7					0.643	
CI 8					0.662	
CS 3						0.855
CS 5						0.803
CS 6						0.818

Extraction Method: PCA. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation a. Rotation converged in six iterations.

The analysis exemplified that some components had split loadings, signifying that these components loaded in more than one group. These factors are from Leadership capabilities (LCa) to Change implementation (CI) characteristics. Six iterations of extractions conformed to the six categories from 27 components that made a total contribution of 64,09% of the total variance explained.

Table 6.4 is for components that were selected using the rotated component matrix. The Drivers of change and Change plan did not qualify to be used in the study because they had a rotated component matrix loading below 0.3. This is because these two constructs were less correlated to the primary rotated component analysis of the research. The next section discusses the naming of variables according to their contribution to the rotated component matrix.

6.3.6   Variable Naming

The components that were renamed were Change implementation (CI) and Change success (CS). Change implementation (CI) was renamed as Implementation process and organisational change (IPOC), and Predictors of organisational change (POC). IPOC had CI 1, C1 2 and CI 3. POC had CI 4, CI 5, CI 6, CI 7, and CI 8. Change success (CS) was

renamed as Employee contribution (EC), and this component had CS 3, CS 5, and CS 6. The components were coded following the question numbers in the research instrument (Appendix B). Extracted factors used in this study and the components grouped in each factor are shown in Table 6.4. The following sections present the various factors (i.e., 1 to 6).

6.3.6.1 Factor 1: Leadership role - Leadership capabilities' factors

This factor comprised eight components as indicated in the research instrument (Appendix B) of this study. However, components LCa 3 and LCa 5 were not supported by the rotated component matrix because they loaded below 0.3. Therefore, Leadership capabilities (LCa) factors denote this factor, and its components exclude LCa 3 and LCa 5. Components items for each construct that were supported by the rotated component matrix are shown in Table 6.5.

Table 6.5: Components and item descriptions of Leadership capabilities

Components	Item descriptions
LCa 1	Leadership has a clear vision of the changes they wish to achieve.
LCa 2	Leadership uses open communication to share change goals with employees.
LCa 4	Leadership has a good interpersonal relationship with the employees.
LCa 6	Leadership ensures that organisational culture is adapted to the change initiative.
LCa 7	Leadership's ability to manage change motivates the employees to perform.
LCa 8	Leadership is instrumental in driving the change process.

6.3.6.2 Factor 2: Leadership competencies' factors

Factor 2 comprised eight components as indicated in the research instrument (Appendix B) of this study. However, a rotated component matrix did not support LCo 2, LCo 3, and LCo 7 because they loaded below 0.3. Therefore, Leadership competencies (LCo) denote this factor, and its components exclude LCo 2, LCo 3, and LCo 7. Individual components and item descriptions for the remaining components are shown in Table 6.6.

Table 6.6: Components and item descriptions of Leadership competencies

Components	Item descriptions
LCo 1	Leadership proactively provides relevant information regarding the envisaged change.
LCo 4	Leadership encourages employees to adopt a learning mindset during change.
LCo 5	Leadership stimulates creative problem-solving methods during change.
LCo 6	Leadership encourages employees to enable them to achieve organisational goals.
LCo 8	Leadership is able to navigate turbulent times and uncertainty during change.

6.3.6.3 Factor 3: Leadership principles' factors

Factor 3 comprised eight components as indicated in the research instrument (Appendix B) of this study. The rotated components are LP 1, LP 6, and LP 7 because they loaded below 0.3. Therefore, Leadership principles (LP) denote this factor, and its components exclude LP 1, LP 6, and LP 7. Individual components and item descriptions for the remaining components are shown in Table 6.7.

Table 6.7: Components and item descriptions of Leadership principles

Components	Item descriptions
LP 2	Leadership serves as a role model to those around them
LP 3	Leadership is easily accessible if required during the change process
LP 4	Leadership operates in an ethical climate during the change process
LP 5	Leaders take responsibility for their role in achieving effective governance in the organisation
LP 8	Leadership resolves challenges in a timeous manner

6.3.6.4 Factor 4: Implementation process and organisational change factors

Change implementation (CI) variables in the research instrument comprised eight components as indicated in the research instrument (Appendix B) of this study. These variables were split into two sections. The first section was element CI 1, CI 2, and CI 3. A rotating component matrix supported these elements as Factor 4 because they rotated above 0.3. The common themes of these elements were change plan, Implementation process and organisation. Thus, they were named the Implementation process in organisational change (IPOC). The individual component and an item description are illustrated in Table 6.8 as IPOC.

Table 6.8: Implementation process and organisational change

Components	Item descriptions
CI 1	Leadership proactively provides relevant information regarding the envisaged change
CI 2	Leadership displays a dependable behaviour during the change process
CI 3	Activities in the implementation of change are aligned with the organisational processes

6.3.6.5 Factor 5: Predictors of organisational change

Predictors of Organisational change (POC) were further split into two sections by the rotated component matrix. The first components were three, namely CI 1, CI 2, and CI 3, as

discussed in Section 6.3.6.3. The second components comprised of five, as indicated in the research instrument (Appendix B) of this study. These components were CI 4, CI 5, CI 6, CI 7, and CI 8, which were supported by a rotated component matrix as Factor 5. The common themes in these components were a collaborative of workforce, employees' skills, leadership skills, technology, and communication of the organisational vision. They all contributed positively towards implementation of change and were renamed as POC. Individual components of POC and an item description for these five components are shown in Table 6.9.

Table 6.9: Predictors of organisational change

Components	Item descriptions
CI 4	A collaborative workforce towards implementation of change leads to successful employees
CI 5	Skills that employees possess create an assertion of effective implementation of change
CI 6	Leadership skills are great predictors for successful change implementation
CI 7	Change implementation takes technology into account in order to improve operational efficiency
CI 8	The organisational vision when communicated by the leader makes change implementation acceptable

6.3.6.6   Factor 6: Employee contributions

Change success (CS) indicates that factors in the original research instrument comprised eight components as indicated in the research instrument (Appendix B) of this study. Components CS 3, CS 5, and CS 6 were supported by a rotated component matrix because they were loading above 0.3. That is why they are maintained. The common themes in these components were change and employees and contributed to change; thus, they were named ECs. Change success (CS) factors denote that the other factors, i.e., CS 1, CS 2, CS 4, CS 7, and CS 8, were excluded. Individual components and item descriptions for the three maintained components are presented in Table 6.10 and named Employee contribution (EC).

Table 6.10: Employee contributions

Components	Item descriptions
CS 3	Effective communication about the vision for change is shared with all members before the change process starts
CS 5	All employees work towards the same goal for change to succeed
CS 6	All employees offer valuable suggestions for change to be realised

6.4 RELIABILITY OF CONSTRUCTS

Construct reliability was measured using Cronbach's alpha (α). Cronbach's alpha (α) was used to check the internal consistency of the constructs adopted in the study (Taber, 2018:1273). All the constructs had an α value of above 0.7, meaning their corrected item-total correlation was significant (Pallant, 2020:95) except for Change plan, and Drivers of change. The findings show that the α values of all items ranged from 0.86 to 0.735 (see Tables 6.11 to 6.16), with an overall internal consistency reliability of 0.793 for the 27 items, and which is regarded as very good. Table 6.11 shows the range accepted for α.

Table 6.11: Acceptable Cronbach's alpha

Cronbach's alpha (α)	Overall decision
Below 0.50	Bad
0.51 to 0.70	Acceptable
0.71 to 0.80	Good
0.81 to 0.90	Very good
0.91 to 1.00	Excellent but need to test for auto correlation

Source: Taber (2018:1280) and Pallant (2020:98)

The following sections present the component and item description for leadership capabilities, leadership competencies, and leadership principles.

6.4.1 Leadership Capabilities

The Leadership capabilities (LCa) factor comprised of six items. The α for six items that were retained ranges between 0.828 and 0.862 (Table 6.12). The six items had an α value greater than 0.8 and were therefore considered suitable for further analysis. The overall α for Leadership capabilities as a construct was 0.830 and considered very good for further analysis. There is no item of an α value more significant than the overall α. This implies that no item needed to be deleted to increase the overall α value, as shown in Table 6.12.

Table 6.12: Item-total statistics and scale statistics for Leadership capabilities

	Scale mean if item deleted	Scale variance if item deleted	Corrected item-total correlation	α if item deleted	Overall α value
LCa 1	24.13	32.653	0.524	0.850	
LCa 2	24.13	32.298	0.578	0.844	
LCa 4	24.29	30.921	0.682	0.832	0.830
LCa 6	24.27	31.215	0.604	0.841	
LCa 7	24.33	29.866	0.705	0.828	
LCa 8	24.25	32.563	0.438	0.862	

6.4.2　Leadership Competencies

The Leadership competencies (LCo) factor comprised of five items. The α value for the five items ranged between 0.845 and 0.860 (Table 6.13). Five items had an α value greater than 0.8 and were therefore considered suitable for further analysis. The overall α value for Leadership competencies as a construct was 0.861 and considered very good for further analysis. There is no item of α value more significant than the overall α value. This implies that no item needed to be deleted to increase the overall α value, as shown in Table 6.13.

Table 6.13: Item-total statistics and scale statistics for Leadership competencies

	Scale mean if item deleted	Scale variance if item deleted	Corrected item-total correlation	α if item deleted	Overall α value
LCo 1	23.83	30.599	0.599	0.860	
LCo 4	23.83	29.854	0.736	0.845	
LCo 5	23.83	30.224	0.638	0.856	0.861
LCo 6	23.70	31.539	0.625	0.857	
LCo 8	23.92	30.178	0.663	0.853	

6.4.3　Components and Item Description for Leadership Principles

The Leadership principles (LP) factor comprises of five items. The α value for five items ranges between 0.774 and 0.787 (Table 6.14). Five items had an α value greater than 0.8 and were therefore considered very good for further analysis. The overall α value for Leadership principles as a construct was 0.815 and considered highly reliable for further analysis. There is no item for α greater than the overall α. This implies that no item needed to be deleted to increase the overall α value, as shown in Table 6.14.

Table 6.14: Item-total statistics and scale statistics for Leadership principles

	Scale mean if item deleted	Scale variance if item deleted	Corrected item-total correlation	α if item deleted	Overall α value
LP 2	25.19	22.358	0.657	0.780	
LP 3	25.08	23.280	0.612	0.787	
LP 4	24.95	23.628	0.624	0.786	0.815
LP 5	25.16	22.790	0.632	0.784	
LP 8	25.35	22.162	0.695	0.774	

6.4.4 Implementation Process and Organisational Change

The Implementation process and organisational change (IPOC) factor comprised of three items as shown in Table 6.15. The α value for three items ranged between 0.731, and 0.734. Three items had an α value greater than 0.7 and were therefore suitable for further analysis. The overall α for Implementation process and organisational change as a construct was 0.735 and considered good for further analysis. There was no item of α value greater than the overall α. This implies that no items needed to be deleted to increase the overall α value as presented in Table 6.15.

Table 6.15: Item-total statistics and scale statistics for Implementation process and organisational change

	Scale mean if item deleted	Scale variance if item deleted	Corrected item-total correlation	α if item deleted	Overall α value
CI 1	27.00	14.305	0.442	0.732	
CI 2	27.12	13.935	0.456	0.731	0.735
CI 3	27.15	14.435	0.419	0.734	

6.4.5 Predictors of Organisational Change

The Predictors of organisational change (POC) factor comprised of five items. The α value for the five items ranges between 0.724 and 0.735 (Table 6.16). Five items had an α value greater than 0.7 and were therefore good for further analysis. The overall α for Predictors of organisational change, as a construct was 0.739 and was considered good for further analysis. There was no item of an α value greater than the overall α. This meant that no item needed to be deleted to increase the overall α value as presented in Table 6.16.

Table 6.16: Item-total statistics and scale statistics for Predictors of organisational change

	Scale mean if item deleted	Scale variance if item deleted	Corrected item-total correlation	α if item deleted	Overall α value
CI 4	26.48	14.779	0.487	0.728	
CI 5	27.03	14.279	0.486	0.727	
CI 6	26.87	14.524	0.415	0.735	0.739
CI 7	26.98	13.729	0.497	0.724	
CI 8	26.88	14.935	0.450	0.734	

6.4.6 Employee Contributions

The Employee contributions (EC) factor comprised three items. The α for three items ranged between 0.752 and 0.767 (Table 6.17). Three items had an α value greater than 0.7 and were therefore considered good for further analysis. The overall α for Employee contributions as a construct was 0.777 and considered good for further analysis. There were no items of α value greater than the overall α. This meant that not a short item needed to be deleted to increase the overall α value as shown in Table 6.17.

Table 6.17: Item-total statistics and scale statistics for Employee contributions

	Scale mean if item deleted	Scale variance if item deleted	Corrected item-total correlation	α if item deleted	Overall α value
CS 3	26.33	18.487	0.609	0.762	
CS 5	26.35	18.485	0.663	0.752	0.777
CS 6	26.34	18.855	0.582	0.767	

6.5 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE VALID AND RELIABLE FACTORS

This section presents the descriptive statistics of Leadership role (LR) and Organisational change management (OCM) variables. Leadership role variables consisted of leadership capabilities, leadership competences, and leadership principles. The Organisational change management variables comprised of Change implementation (CI) and Change success (CS).

According to Pallant (2020:97), a standard deviation above 0.500 as a threshold means the participants did not guess. Therefore, this study followed Pallant's (2020) recommendation. The questionnaire consisted of a Likert scale with numbers ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), as shown in Appendix B.

6.5.1 Leadership Capabilities

Table 6.18 shows the descriptive statistics for Leadership capabilities (LCa). Six components of the Leadership capabilities' factor were reliable and valid. The standard deviation for this factor's components ranged from 1.062 to 1.249. The standard deviation is referred to as a statistic that measures the spread of a dataset relative to its mean. The means for this factor's components ranged from 3.37 to 3.58. This meant that participants were either neutral or agreed on Leadership capabilities.

Table 6.18: Descriptive statistics for Leadership capabilities

Components	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
LCa 1	120	1	5	3.58	1.090
LCa 2	120	1	5	3.57	1.062
LCa 4	120	1	5	3.41	1.088
LCa 6	120	1	5	3.42	1.164
LCa 7	120	1	5	3.37	1.181
LCa 8	120	1	5	3.45	1.249

6.5.2   Leadership Competencies

Table 6.19 indicates the descriptive statistics for Leadership competencies (LCo), respectively. Five components of the Leadership competencies factor were reliable and valid. The standard deviation for this factor's components ranged from 0.987 to 1.140. The standard deviation range was above the threshold proposed by Pallant (2020:97). The means, this factor's components ranged from 3.30 to 3.52. This meant that participants agreed on Leadership competencies.

Table 6.19: Descriptive statistics for Leadership competencies

Components	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
LCo1	120	1	5	3.39	1.140
LCo4	120	1	5	3.38	1.055
LCo5	120	1	5	3.38	1.132
LCo6	120	1	5	3.52	0.987
LCo8	120	1	5	3.30	1.105

6.5.3   Leadership Principles

Table 6.20 shows the descriptive statistics for Leadership principles (LP), respectively. Five components of this factor were reliable and valid. The standard deviation for this factor's components ranged from 1.005 to 1.139. The standard deviation range was above the threshold proposed by Pallant (2020:97). This means, this factor's components ranged from 3.23 to 3.63. This indicates that participants agreed on Leadership principles.

Table 6.20: Descriptive statistics for Leadership principles

Components	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
LP2	120	1	5	3.38	1.139
LP3	120	1	5	3.50	1.069
LP4	120	1	5	3.63	1.005
LP5	120	1	5	3.42	1.112
LP8	120	1	5	3.23	1.119

6.5.4 Implementation Process and Organisational Change

Table 6.21 shows the descriptive statistics for the Implementation process and organisational change (IPOC), respectively. Three components of the Implementation process and Organisational change factor were reliable and valid. The standard deviation for this factor's components ranged from 0.904 to 0.958. The standard deviation range was above the threshold proposed by Pallant (2020:97). This means, this factor's components ranged from 3.68 to 3.83. This shows that participants agreed on the factors impacting Implementation process and organisational change.

Table 6.21: Descriptive statistics for Implementation process and organisational change

Components	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
CI1	120	1	5	3.83	0.904
CI2	120	1	5	3.70	0.958
CI3	120	1	5	3.68	0.909

6.5.5 Predictors of Organisational Change

Table 6.22 shows the descriptive statistics for Predictors of organisational change (POC), respectively. Five components of the Predictors of organisational change factor were reliable and valid. The standard deviation for this factor's components ranged from 0.744 to 0.947. The standard deviation range was above the threshold proposed by Pallant (2020:97). The means, this factor's components ranged from 3.78 to 4.13. This shows that participants agreed on the factors impacting Predictors of organisational change.

Table 6.22: Descriptive statistics for Predictors of organisational change

Components	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
C4	120	1	5	4.13	0.744
CI5	120	1	5	3.78	0.864
CI6	119	1	5	3.95	0.891
CI7	120	1	5	3.83	0.947
CI8	120	2	5	3.94	0.759

6.5.6   Employee Contributions

Table 6.23 shows the descriptive statistics for Employee contributions (EC). Three components of the Employee contributions factor were reliable and valid. The standard deviation for this factor's components ranged from 0.705 to 0.982. The standard deviation range was above the threshold proposed by Pallant (2020:97). The means, this factor's components ranged from 3.66 to 4.08. This shows that participants agreed on the factors that contribute to Employee contributions.

Table 6.23: Descriptive statistics for Employee contributions

Components	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
CS3	120	1	5	3.66	0.982
CS5	120	1	5	3.71	0.946
CS6	120	2	5	4.08	0.705

6.6   CORRELATIONS FOR DECISION VARIABLES

The Pearson product-moment correlation of continuous constructs (r) was considered as shown in Table 6.24.

Table 6.24: Correlation between decision variables

		LCa	LCo	LP	IPOC	POC	EC
Leadership role as Leadership capabilities (LCa)	Pearson Correlation	1	.752**	.825**	.326**	.328**	.431**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0, 000	0,000	0, 000	0, 000	0, 000
	N	120	120	120	120	120	120
Leadership role as Leadership competencies (LCo)	Pearson Correlation		1	.541**	.331**	.357**	.369**
	Sig. (2-tailed)			0,000	0, 000	0, 000	0, 000
	N		120	120	120	120	120
Leadership principles (LP)	Pearson Correlation			1	.411**	.326**	.384**
	Sig. (2-tailed)				0, 000	0, 000	0, 000
	N			120	120	120	120

Table 6.24: Correlation between decision variables (continued)

		LCa	LCo	LP	IPOC	POC	EC
Implementation process and organisational change (IPOC)	Pearson correlation				1	.303**	.235**
	Sig. (2-tailed)					0, 000	0, 010
	N				120	120	120
Predictors of organisational change (POC)	Pearson Correlation					1	.235**
	Sig. (2-tailed)						0.010
	N					120	120
Employee contributions (EC)	Pearson correlation						1
	Sig. (2-tailed)						
	N						120

The Pearson's *r*-values ranged from 0.235 to 0.752. This indicates a significant relationship between construct (Table 24). The *r*-value can range from -1 to 1. If the value of *r* is close to 1, there is a strong relationship or association between the constructs (Liu, Mu, Chen, Li & Guo, 2020:1775; Pallant, 2020:126). The *p-value* was less than 0.01, showing a significant correlation between constructs or decision variables. Most of the relationships were significant.

6.6.1 Correlation for Leadership Capabilities, and Leadership Competencies

The *p-value* for this correlation was less than 0.01. Therefore, there is a 99% level of confidence in the *p-value* correlation. The Pearson's *r* for Leadership capabilities (LCa), Leadership competencies (LCo), and Leadership principles (LP) factors are 0.752. Hence, there is a significant positive correlation between Leadership capabilities, Leadership competencies, and Leadership principles. Therefore, the Leadership capabilities, Leadership competencies, and Leadership principles can be used for multiple regression and the SEM, since there is a positive relationship between the constructs (Table 6.24).

6.6.2 Correlation for Leadership Capabilities, and Implementation process and organisational change

The *p-value* for this correlation was less than 0.01. Therefore, there is a 99% level of confidence in *a p-value* correlation. The Pearson's *r* for Leadership principles (LP) and Implementation process and organisational change (IPOC) factors is 0.411. Hence, there is a significant positive correlation between Leadership principles and Implementation process and organisational change. Consequently, the Leadership principles and Implementation

process and organisational change can be used for multiple regression and the SEM, since there is moderate association between the constructs (Table 6.24).

6.6.3 Correlation for Leadership Capabilities, and Predictors of Organisational Change

The *p-value* for this correlation was less than 0.01. Therefore, there was a 99% level of confidence in the *p-value* correlation. The Pearson's *r* for Leadership capabilities (LCa) and characteristics of Change implementation (CI) factors is 0.328. Therefore, there was a significant positive correlation between Leadership capabilities and characteristics of Change implementation. Consequently, the Leadership capabilities and characteristics of Change implementation could be used for multiple regression and the SEM, since there is a direct relationship between the constructs (Table 6.24).

6.6.4 Correlation for Leadership Capabilities, and Employee Contribution

The *p-value* for this correlation was less than 0.01. Therefore, there is a 99% level of confidence in the *p-value* correlation. The Pearson's *r* for Leadership capabilities (LCa) and Employee contribution (EC) factors was 0.431. Hence, there was a significant positive correlation between Leadership capabilities and Employee contribution. Consequently, the Leadership capabilities and Employee contribution could be used for multiple regression and SEM, since there is moderate relationship between the constructs (Table 6.24).

6.6.5 Correlation for Leadership Competencies, and Implementation Process and Organisational Change

The *p-value* for this correlation was less than 0.01. Therefore, there was a 99% level of confidence in the *p-value* correlation. The Pearson's *r* for Leadership competencies (LCo) and Implementation process and organisational change (IPOC) factors was 0.331, as shown in Table 6.24. Moreover, there was a significant positive correlation between Leadership competencies and Implementation process and organisational change. Therefore, the Leadership competencies and Implementation process and organisational change could be used for multiple regression and SEM, since there is an association between the constructs (Table 6.24).

6.6.6 Correlation for Leadership Principles, and Predictors of Organisational Change

The *p-value* for this correlation was less than 0.01. Therefore, there was a 99% level of confidence in the *p-value* correlation. The Pearson's *r* for Leadership principles (LP) and Predictors of organisational change (POC) factors was 0.326, as shown in Table 6.24. Hence, there was a significant positive correlation between Leadership principles and Predictors of organisational change. Consequently, the Leadership principles and Predictors of Organisational change could be used for multiple regression and the SEM, since there was a moderate association between the constructs (Table 6.24).

6.6.7 Correlation for Leadership Competencies, and Predictors of Organisational Change

The *p-value* for this correlation was less than 0.01. Therefore, there was a 99% level of confidence in the *p-value* correlation. The Pearson's *r* for Leadership competencies (LCo) and Predictors of organisational change (POC) factors was 0.357. Furthermore, there was a significant positive correlation between Leadership competencies and Predictors of Organisational change. Therefore, the Leadership competencies and Predictors of organisational change could be used for multiple regression and the SEM, since there was an association between the constructs (Table 6.24).

6.6.8 Correlation for Leadership Competencies, and Employee Contributions

The *p-value* for this correlation was less than 0.01. Therefore, there was a 99% level of confidence in the *p-value* correlation. The Pearson's *r* for Leadership competencies (LCo) and Employee contributions (EC) factors was 0.369. Hence, there was a significant positive correlation between Leadership competencies and Employee contribution. Consequently, the Leadership competencies and Employee contributions could be used for multiple regression and the SEM, since there was moderate association between the constructs (Table 6.24).

6.6.9 Correlation for Leadership Principles, and Implementation Process and Organisational Change

The *p-value* for this correlation was less than 0.01. Therefore, there was a 99% level of confidence in the *p-value* correlation. The Pearson's *r* for Leadership principles (LP) and Implementation process and organisational change (IPOC) factors was 0.411. Hence, there was a significant positive correlation between Leadership principles and Implementation process and organisational change. Consequently, the Leadership principles and Implementation process and organisational change could be used for multiple regression and the SEM, since there was a moderate association between the constructs (Table 6.24).

6.6.10 Correlation for Leadership Principles, and Employee Contributions

The *p-value* for this correlation was less than 0.01. Therefore, there was a 99% level of confidence in the *p-value* correlation. The Pearson's *r* for Leadership principles (LP) and Employee contributions (EC) factors was 0.431, as shown in Table 6.24. Hence, there was a significant positive correlation between Leadership principles and Employee contributions. Consequently, the Leadership principles and Employee contributions could be used for multiple regression and the SEM, since there is moderate association between the constructs (Table 6.24).

6.6.11 Correlation for Implementation Process and Organisational Change, and Predictors of Organisational Change

The *p-value* for this correlation was less than 0.01. Therefore, there was a 99% level of confidence in the *p-value* correlation. The Pearson's *r* for Implementation process and organisational change (IPOC), and Predictors of organisational change (POC) factors was 0.303. Hereafter, there was a significant positive correlation between Implementation process and organisational change, and Predictors of organisational change. Thus, Implementation process and organisational change, and Predictors of organisational change, could be used for multiple regression and the SEM, since there was a linear relationship between the constructs (Table 6.24).

6.6.12 Correlation for Implementation Process and Organisational Change, and Employee Contributions

The *p-value* for this correlation was less than 0.01. Therefore, there was a 99% level of confidence in the *p-value* correlation. The Pearson's *r* for Implementation process and organisational change (IPOC) and Employee contributions (EC) factors was 0.235. Therefore, there was a significant positive correlation between Implementation process and organisational change, and Employee contributions. Thus, the Implementation process and organisational change, and Employee contributions could be used for multiple regression and the SEM, since there was a linear relationship between the constructs (Table 6.24).

6.6.13 Correlation for Predictors of Organisational Change, and Employee Contributions

The *p-value* for this correlation was less than 0.01. Therefore, there was a 99% level of confidence in the *p-value* correlation. The Pearson's *r* for the Predictors of organisational change (POC), and Employee contributions (EC) factors was 0.235. Thus, there was a significant positive correlation between Predictors of organisational change, and Employee contributions. Thus, the Predictors of organisational change, and Employee contributions could be used for multiple regression and SEM, since there was an association between these constructs (Table 6.24).

6.7   REGRESSION ANALYSIS FOR THE CONSTRUCTS

Multiple hierarchical regression analysis was done to model the relationship between the dependent decision and independent decision variables. In this study, tolerance values in a range of 0 to 0.25 showed a high degree of multicollinearity, and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) levels equal to or greater than 4.0 showed multicollinearity, as recommended by Pallant (2020:153). Therefore, there were no multicollinearity issues in this study as proven by the VIF of less than 4.0 and tolerance outside the threshold range of 0 to 0.25 as a rate of 2.0 for the Durbin-Watson statistic (as illustrated in Table 6.25), showed that there was no successive correlation. This is a significant condition that shows the degree to which the independent decision variables are adequately isolated from each other so that the regression values actually measure the influence of each decision variable distinctly, without potential cross-variable alteration. The following sections show the multiple hierarchical regression for organisational change management using leadership role.

6.7.1 Multiple Hierarchical Regression Analysis to Determine Organisational Change Management Using Leadership Role

The output from the multiple regression analysis is indicated in Table 6.26 to Table 6.30. Table 6.25 shows the model summary.

Table 6.25: Model summary of organisational change management and leadership role

Model Summary[b]										
						Change Statistics				
Model	R	R-square	Adjusted R square	Std. error of the estimate	R square change	F change	df1	df2	Sig. F change	Durbin-Watson
1	.613[a]	0.379	0.370	0.54652	0.376	71.039	1	118	0.000	1618

a Dependent variable: Organisational change management
b Predictors (constant): Leadership role

The regression model was significant at a 95% level of confidence with a *p-value* of less than 0.05, and the R-Square value was 0.379. This indicated the following percentage: 37.9% of the variation Leadership role (LR). This was a statistically significant contribution as shown by the Sig. F change value of (0.000) and a *p-value* of less than 0.05, as shown in Table 6.29. The ANOVA table signifies that the model is significant (F (71.038) = 56.363, p <0.05), as shown in Table 6.27.

Table 6.26: ANOVA of Organisational change management, and Leadership role

ANOVA[a]					
Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	21.218	1	21.218	71.038	.000[b]
Residual	35.245	118	0.299		
Total	56.363	119			

a Dependent variable: Organisational change management
b Predictors (constant): Leadership role

The coefficients show to what extent decision variables contribute to the model, as shown in Table 6.30. Only one decision variable made a statistically significant contribution (a *p-value* less than 0.05), as shown in Table 6.27, Leadership role (LR) (beta is 0.613). The corresponding VIF score was 2.055 (Table 6.27). The Durbin-Watson score was 2 (Table 6.28), rounded to two decimal places, which is the ideal Durbin-Watson measure of independence.

Table 6.27: Coefficients for organisational change management

Model	Coefficients Unstandardised		Standardised			95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower bound	Upper bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	-0.316	0.453		-0.697	0.487	-1.213	0.581					
Leadership role	1.002	0.119	0.613	8.428	0.000	0.766	1.237	0.613	0.613	0.613	1.000	2.055

a Dependent variable: Organisational change management
b Leadership role

6.7.2 Multiple Hierarchical Regression Analysis to determine Leadership

Table 6.28 clearly indicates the model summary of Leadership role (LR) using Leadership principles (LP), Leadership competencies (LCo), and Leadership capabilities (LCa).

Table 6.28: Model summary to determine Leadership role using Leadership principles, Leadership competencies, and Leadership capabilities

Model	R	R-square	Adjusted R-square	Std. Error of the estimate	R Square change	Change Statistics F change	df1	df2	Sig	Durbin-Watson
1	.986[a]	0.972	0.971	0.11720	0.972	1331.664	3	116	0.000	2.055

a Predictors (constant): Leadership capabilities, Leadership competencies, and Leadership principles
b Dependent variable: Leadership role

The regression model was significant at a 95% level of confidence, with a *p-value* less than 0.05. The value was 0.972. This indicated the following percentages: 97.2% of the variation in Leadership principles (LP), Leadership competencies (LCo), and Leadership capabilities (LCa). This was a statistically significant contribution as shown by the Sig. F change value of (0.000), which had a *p-value* of less than 0.05. The Durbin-Watson average score was 2.055 rounded to 2, which is the "ideal" Durbin-Watson measure of independence.

There were three decision variables that made a statistically significant contribution (a *p-value* less than 0.05), as shown in Table 6.29. In order of importance were Leadership capabilities (LCa) (beta is 0.386), Leadership competencies (LCo) (beta is 0.370), and Leadership principles (LP) (beta is 0.368). The ANOVA shows that the model is significant (F (1331.664) = 56.364, p < 0.05), as shown in Table 6.29. The corresponding VIF scores ranged from 1.809 to 2.944, as shown in Table 6.29.

Table 6.29: ANOVA for Leadership role, Leadership capabilities, Leadership competencies, and Leadership principles

ANOVAª					
Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	54.870	3	18.290	1331.664	.000[b]
Residual	1.593	116	0.014		
Total	56.364	119			

a Dependent variable: Leadership role
b Predictors (constant): Leadership capabilities, Leadership competencies, and Leadership principles

The coefficients indicate to what extent constructs contribute to the model, as illustrated in Table 6.30.

Table 6.30: Coefficients for Leadership role, using Leadership capabilities, Leadership competencies, and Leadership principles

Coefficientsª												
	Coefficients					95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity statistics	
Model	Unstandard-ised		Standard-ised									
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower bound	Upper bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	0.294	0.052		5.712	0.000	0.192	0.396					
LCa	0.331	0.023	0.386	14.413	0.000	0.285	0.376	0.909	0.801	0.225	0.340	2.944
LCo	0.300	0.019	0.370	15.569	0.000	0.262	0.338	0.859	0.822	0.243	0.432	2.316
LP	0.295	0.017	0.368	17.554	0.000	0.262	0.328	0.825	0.852	0.274	0.553	1.809

a Dependent variable: Leadership role

6.7.3   Multiple Hierarchical Regression Analysis to Determine Organisational Change Management

Table 6.31 clearly shows the model summary. The regression model was significant at a 95% level of confidence, with a *p-value* less than 0.05. The R-Square value was 0.702. This showed the following percentages: 70.2% of the variation in Change success (CS), and Change implementation (CI), respectively, as shown in Table 6.31. This was a statistically significant contribution as shown by the Sig. F change value of (0.000), which had a *p-value* of less than 0.05.

Table 6.31: Model summary for Organisational Change Management, using Change success and Change implementation

Model	R	R-square	Adjusted R-square	Std. Error of the estimate	R Square change	F change	df1	df2	Sig	Durbin-Watson
					Change Statistics					
1	.701[a]	0.702	0.701	0.05822	0.702	1532.266	4	115	0.000	1.847

a Change success, Change implementation process, and characteristics of Change implementation
b Dependent variable: Organisational change management

ANOVA standardised error of the estimate was 0.05822 (Table 6.31). This clearly shows that there was less standardised error of the estimate and ANOVA was suitable to be used for calculating the standardised regression coefficient as shown in Table 6.32.

The ANOVA indicates that the model was significant (F (1532.266) = 21.155, $p < 0.05$, as shown in Table 6.32.

Table 6.32: ANOVA for Organisational change management, using Change success and Change implementation

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	20.765	4	5.191	1532.266	.000[b]
	Residual	0.390	115	0.003		
	Total	21.155	119			

a Dependent variable: Organisational change management
b Predictors (constant): Change success, Implementation process, and characteristics of Change implementation

6.7.4   Multiple Hierarchical Regression Analysis to Determine Leadership Role Using Organisational Change Management

The coefficients show to what extent decision variables contribute to the model, as shown in Table 6.33. Three of the decision variables made a statistically significant contribution (a *p value* less than 0.05), as shown in Table 6.34. Implementation process and organisation change (IPOC) beta was 0.370, Predictors of organisation change (POC) beta was 0.360, and Employee contributions (EC) beta was 0.313. The corresponding VIF scores were 1.573, 1.574, and 1455 (Table 6.33). The Durbin-Watson score was on average 2 (Table 6.32), which is the ideal Durbin-Watson measure of independence.

Table 6.33: Coefficients for Implementation process and organisational change, Predictors of change, and Employee contributions

Model	Coefficients Unstandardised		Standardised			95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower bound	Upper bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	0.158	0.050		3.130	0.002	0.058	0.257					
IPOC	0.223	0.014	0.370	22.877	0.000	0.262	0.312	0.740	0.902	0.293	0.632	1.573
POC	0.244	0.010	0.360	22.678	0.000	0.264	0.314	0.756	0.904	0.294	0.630	1.574
ECs	0.147	0.007	0.313	20.498	0.000	0.133	0.161	0.687	0.886	0.259	0.687	1.455

a Dependent variable: Organisational change management

6.7.5   Multiple Regression

Table 6.34 indicates the regression weights between the independent and dependent constructs.

Table 6.34: Regression weights for the model of this study

Causality effects			Estimate	S.E.	CR	P
OCM	<---	EC	.222	.035	3.754	***
OCM	<---	POC	.137	.057	2.396	.017
OCM	<---	IPOC	.232	.047	4.879	***
LR	<---	LCa	.333	.064	7.488	***
LR	<---	LCo	.356	.066	7.765	***
LR	<---	LP	.378	.068	7.992	***
OCM	<---	LR	.388	.058	3.849	***

All the exogenous decision variables were significant as shown by a *p-value* of less than 0.05. The influence of Employee contributions (EC) on Organisational change management (OCM) was significant with a *p-value* of less than 0.05, a standard error (S.E.) of 0.035, a critical ratio (CR) of 3.754 and an estimate (B) = 0.222. In addition, the influence of Implementation process and organisational change (IPOC) on Organisational change management (OCM) was significant with a *p-value* of less than 0.05, S.E. (standard error) of 0.047, CR (critical ratio) of 4.879, and estimate (B) = 0.232. The influence of Leadership capabilities (LCa) on Leadership role (LR) was significant with a *p-value* less than 0.05, S.E. of 0.064, CR of 7.488 and estimate (B) = 0.333. The influence of Predictors of organisational change (POC) on Organisational change management (OCM) was significant with *a p-value* less than 0.05, S.E. of 0.057, CR of 3.754, and estimate (B) = 0.137. Furthermore, the influence of Leadership principles (LP) on Leadership role (LR) was

significant with a *p-value* less than 0.01, S.E. of 0.068, CR of 7.992 and estimate (B) = 0.378. The influence of Leadership competencies (LCo) on Leadership role (LR) was significant with a *p-value* less than 0.01, S.E. of 0.066, CR of 7.765, and estimate (B) = 0.356. Finally, the influence of Leadership role (LR) on Organisational change management (OCM) was significant with a *p-value* less than 0.05, S.E. of 0.058, CR of 3.849, and estimate (B) = 0.388.

Table 6.35 shows the sample covariance between exogenous constructs.

Table 6.35: Covariances of constructs of this study

	Association		Estimate (β)	S.E.	CR	P
POC	<-->	IPOC	.150	.037	2.730	.006
EC	<-->	IPOC	.298	.056	2.735	.003
EC	<-->	POC	.317	.046	2.777	.006
LCa	<-->	LCo	.393	.059	6.403	***
LCa	<-->	LP	.239	.055	2.496.	***
LCo	<-->	LP	.143	.057	5.192	.013

All the exogenous decision variables were significant, as shown by a *p-value* of less than 0.05, ranging from 0.143 to 0.393. The covariance between Implementation process and organisational change (IPOC) and Predictors of organisational change (POC) was significant with a *p-value* of less than 0.05, S.E. (standard error) of 0.037 and CR (critical ratio) of 2.730. In addition, the covariance between Employee contributions (EC) and Implementation process and organisational change (IPOC) was significant with a *p-value* less than 0.05, S.E. of 0.056 and CR of 2.735. Furthermore, the covariance between Employee contributions (EC) and Predictors of organisational change (POC) was significant with a *p-value* less than 0.05, S.E. of 0.046, and CR of 2.777. The covariance between Leadership capabilities (LCa) and Leadership competencies (LCo) was significant with a *p-value* less than 0.05, S.E. of 0.059, and CR of 6.403. In addition, the covariance between Leadership capabilities (LCa) and Leadership principles (LP) was significant with a *p-value* less than 0.05, S.E. of 0.055, and CR of 2.496. Also, the covariance between Leadership principles (LP) and Leadership competencies (LCo) was significant with a *p-value* less than 0.05, S.E. of 0.057, and CR of 5.192.

6.8   STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELLING FOR THIS STUDY

Structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to find the main factors influencing Organisational change management (OCM), Implementation process and organisational change (IPOC), Predictors of organisational change (POC), Employee contributions (EC), Leadership role (LR), Leadership principals (LP), Leadership competencies (LCo), and Leadership capabilities (LCa). The SEM was done to approximate the model's coefficients to evaluate the significance and strength of the relationships within the model. The independent variable in one relationship becomes a dependent variable, and in the other relationships in the model, as shown in Figure 6.8.
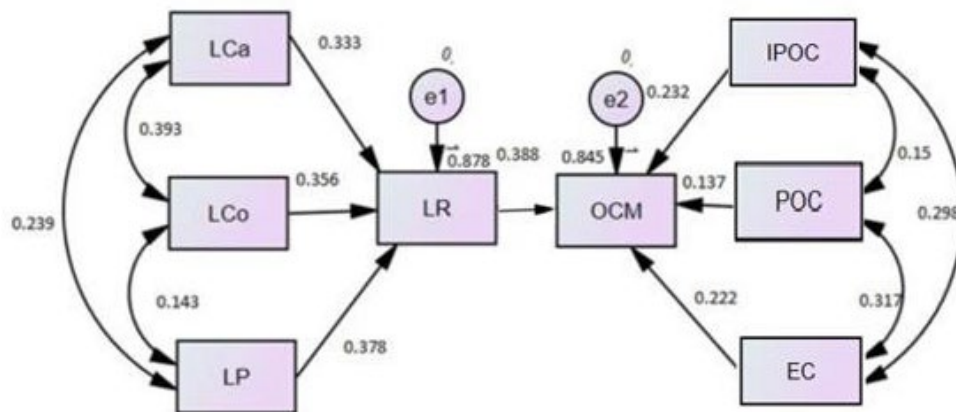
Figure 6.8: Leadership role influence on Organisational change management model

6.8.1   Model Fit of this Study

The model gave the Chi-square value of 39.61 with degrees of freedom df. = 18, giving a ratio of Chi-square / degree of freedom of 39.61 / 18 = 2.201 at a *p-value* < 0.000 significant at $p \leq 0.01$. Much as the ratio Chi-square / degree of freedom was within the acceptable range as shown in Table 6.36, several measurements must be compared with other fit indices before the model can be used. The output was Goodness of fit index (GFI) = 0.922; Comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.954, and the Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.044. The CFI and GFI were above the threshold and the RMSEA were below the threshold, as shown in Table 6.36. Since AMOS, version 27.0, does not have a Wald test function to distinguish whether removing a parameter would increase or decrease its fitness, care was taken when this was being accomplished.

Table 6.36: Structural equation model fitness criteria

Fit indices	Measurement model	Threshold	Recommendations for the measurement model	Values of the model
X^2	39.61	Ratio 2.1 $\leq$ (X^2/df.) $\leq$ 3.1	X^2/df. is within the range of threshold	39.61
Df.	18			18
X^2/df.	2.201			2.201
RMSEA	0.044	0.05$\leq$ (RMSEA) $\leq$ 0.090	Less than the threshold, shows the model is good	0.04
CFI	0.954	$\geq$ 0.950	More than the threshold suggests model is good	1
GFI	0.922	$\geq$ 0.90	More than the threshold shows the model is good	1

6.8.2   Regression weights

Table 6.37 indicates the regression weights between the independent and dependent constructs.

Table 6.37: Regression weights for the model of this study

Causality effects			Estimate	S.E.	CR	P
OCM	<---	EC	.222	.035	3.754	***
OCM	<---	POC	.137	.057	2.396	.017
OCM	<---	IPOC	.232	.047	4.879	***
LR	<---	LCa	.333	.064	7.488	***
LR	<---	LCo	.356	.066	7.765	***
LR	<---	LP	.378	.068	7.992	***
OCM	<---	LR	.388	.058	3.849	***

All the exogenous decision variables were significant, as shown by a *p-value* of less than 0.01. The influence of Change success (CS) on Organisational change management (OCM) was significant with *a p-value* less than 0.01, S.E. (standard error) of 0.035, CR (critical ratio) of 3.754 and estimate (B) = 0.222. In addition, the influence of characteristics of Change implementation (CI) on Organisational change management (OCM) was significant with a *p-value* less than 0.01, S.E. of 0.057, CR of 2.396, and estimate (B) = 0.137. Also, the influence of Implementation process (IP) on Organisational change management (OCM) was significant with *a p-value* less than 0.01, S.E. of 0.047, CR of 4.879, and estimate (B) = 0.232. The influence of Leadership capabilities (LCa) on Leadership role (LR) was significant with a *p-value* less than 0.01, S.E. of 0.064, CR of 7.488, and estimate (B) = 0.333. The influence of leadership competencies on Leadership role (LR) was significant with a *p-value* less than 0.01, S.E. of 0.066, CR of 7.765, and estimate (B) = 0.356.

Furthermore, the influence of Leadership principles (LP) on Leadership role (LR) was significant with a *p-value* less than 0.01, S.E. of 0.068, CR of 7.992, and estimate (B) = 0.378. Finally, the influence of Leadership role (LR) on Organisational change management (OCM) was significant with a *p-value* less than 0.01, S.E. of 0.058, CR of 3.849, and estimate (B) = 3.88.

Table 6.38 shows the sample covariance between exogenous constructs.

Table 6.38: Covariances of constructs of this study

	Association		Estimate (β)	S.E.	CR	P
POC	<>	IPOC	.150	.037	2.730	.006
EC	<>	IPOC	.298	.056	2.735	.003
EC	<>	POC	.317	.046	2.777	.006
LCa	<>	LCo	.393	.059	6.403	***
LCa	<>	LP	.239	.055	4.301	***
LCo	<>	LP	.143	.057	2.496	.013

All the exogenous decision variables were significant, as shown by a *p-value* of less than 0.05, with beta value ranging from 0.143 to 0.393. The covariance between Implementation process (IP) and Predictors of organisational change (POC) was significant with a *p-value* less than 0.05, S.E. (standard error) of 0.037, and CR (critical ratio) of 2.730. In addition, the covariance between Implementation process (IP) and Change success (CS) was significant with a *p-value* less than 0.05, S.E. of 0.056, and CR of 2.735. The covariance between Predictors of organisational change (POC) and Employee contributions (EC) was significant with a *p*-value less than 0.05, S.E. of 0.046, and CR of 2.777. The covariance between Leadership capabilities (LCa) and Leadership competencies (LCo) was significant with a *p-value* less than 0.01, S.E. of 0.059, and CR of 6.403. In addition, the covariance between Leadership capabilities (LCa) and Leadership principles (LP) was significant with a *p-value* less than 0.01, S.E. of 0.055, and CR of 4.301. Finally, the covariance between Leadership competencies (LCo) and Leadership capabilities (LCa) was significant with a *p-value* less than 0.01, S.E. of 0.057, and CR of 2.496.

6.8.3   Squared Multiple Correlations

Table 6.39 shows the squared multiple correlation coefficients in the two multiple regressions.

Table 6.39: Squared multiple correlations

Constructs	Estimate
Organisational change management (OCM)	0.845
Leadership role (LR)	0.878

The squared multiple correlation coefficient provides the proportion of the variability in the item variables due to the respective latent variable, respectively, with 0.845 for Organisational change management (OCM), and 0.878 for the Leadership role (LR). These high squared multiple correlations' coefficients meant that they were strongly related to the latent constructs identified by the other specified variables (Cheah, Sarstedt, Ringle, Ramayah & Ting, 2018:3202).

6.9   QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

An interview guide was used for the qualitative data analysis (Appendix C). The interview guide comprised of three sections: Section A focused on the highest qualification, the position in the enterprise (organisation), the duties as a manager, senior manager, senior executive, or executive director, how long the participant has worked in the position, and whether the participant has led any change process in the organisation before. Section B of the interview guide focused on communication and messaging for change, integration or collaboration of systems or structures, and skills transfer. Finally, Section C of the interview guide was on the challenges of the change management process in SOEs. Table 6.40 presents the participants' background information.

6.9.1   Background information of participants

The background information of the interview guide (Section A) encompassed information to establish participant's background information and is highlighted in the following sections.

Table:6.40: Background information of participants

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Highest qualification				
Degree	1	12.5	12.5	12.5
Masters	3	37.5	37.5	50.0
Honours	4	50.0	50.0	100.0
Total	8	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table:6.40: Background information of participants (continued)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Position				
Executive manager	4	50.0	50.0	50.0
Manager	2	25.0	25.0	75.0
Senior manager	2	25.0	25.0	100.0
Total	8	100.0	100.0	100.0
Duties				
Led change management	8	100.0	100.0	100.0
Years worked in this position				
2.0	2	25.0	25.0	25.0
3.0	1	12.5	12.5	37.5
3.5	1	12.5	12.5	50.0
8.0	1	12.5	12.5	62.5
9.0	2	25.0	25.0	87.5
10.0	1	12.5	12.5	100.0
Total	8	100.0	100.0	100.0
Led any change process in organisation before				
No	1	12.5	12.5	12.5
Yes	7	87.5	87.5	100.0
Total	8	100.0	100.0	100.0

6.9.2   Communication or Messaging for Change

Concepts to include in messaging for change are associated with value-based criteria, stakeholders, analysis, explain the benefits, good understanding, messaging on point, pre-empt the concerns and discussion for decision, as shown in Figure 6.7. Section B of the interview guide (Appendix C) comprised three categories, namely, communication or messaging for change, integration/collaboration of systems/structures, and skills transfer. These categories entailed questions about leadership experiences in the change process. Question 5 was phrased as follows: 'When the change process starts in your organisation, what concepts do you include in your messaging to highlight the importance of change?'
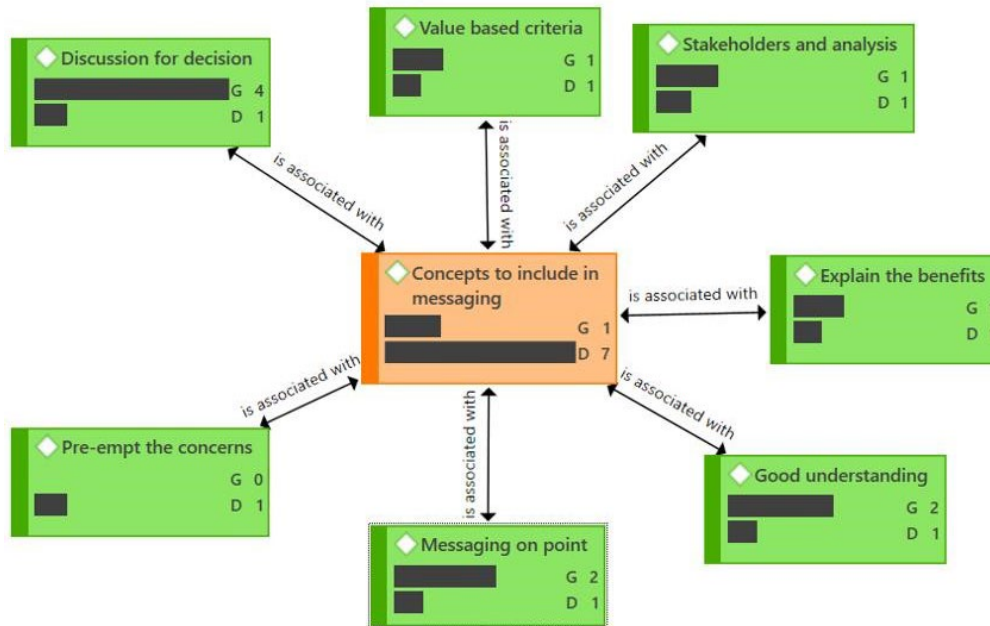
Figure 6.9: Concepts to include in messaging for change

Responses on the concepts to include in messaging for change to highlight the importance of change included: *"Communication using posters and follow-up meetings is just short text as a reminder of the change process"* (Interview 3). *"It is important to take everyone with you is the only way. This organisation is full of engineers, and they want to know why things are done and ask a lot of questions. Group support messaging is important to explain why change is happening, put goals why those changes are needed"* (Interview 4). *"Work with communication and marketing, make sure that they are aligned with organisational objectives, and aligned with our values"* (Interview 6). *"In our messaging, I make sure of giving that reason why change has to happen as an initial step"* (Interview 8).

A good understanding was expressed: *"Before making people understand, stakeholder needs' analysis should be done to open the platform for change"* (Interview 5). *"Employees understand how change is linked to the organisation"* (Interview 7).

Messaging on point was highlighted in: *"Secondly, rather have an information session than just coming up with decisions"* (Interview 1). *"Messaging is on point to make people understand"* (Interview 6).

> *Being polite to employees as a leader and telling the employees the truth about change enables them to adapt and commit to the change process* (Interview 2).

The concept pre-empt the concerns was supported by a participant by saying: *"It is always good to pre-empt the concerns of employees, so the first line is the concepts that message about why change has to happen"* (Interview 1).

Stakeholder analysis was also raised by saying: *"Before making people understand, stakeholder needs' analysis should be done to open the platform for change"* (Interview 5).

Value-based criteria were highlighted in interview 7 by saying: *"Value-based criteria for the organisation"* (Interview 7).

Explain the benefits was highlighted by one participant by saying: *"Explain the benefits of change rather than just expecting their compliance"* (Interview 1).

Thus, organisations need to clearly explain the vision and goals for change for employees to understand the benefits.

6.9.2.1   Engagement to change

Question 6 of the interview guide (Appendix C) asked: 'In your communication about change, what do you think drives employee's engagement to change to ensure that there is ongoing buy-ins to the change management processes?' Four sub-questions transpired, namely: 'How do you ensure that change makes sense to everyone involved? And, if you used communication, what mediums did you use? How do you ensure that there is consistent communication between the project team, employees, sponsors, and other stakeholders (e.g., the board) during a change process? How do you evaluate the effectiveness of change communication messages?'

Engagement to change is associated with sustainable messaging, employee engagement, compliance with new change, consistent communication, stakeholder's meeting, understanding why, clarity of issues and benefits, pre-empt the concerns, organisational goals and strategy, and integration meetings, as shown in Figure 6.10. Engagement means working together with employees to ascertain that change promotes sensemaking. A link between engagement and consistent communication ensures that the organisation works on change in an organised manner and evaluates the effectiveness of the change messaging.
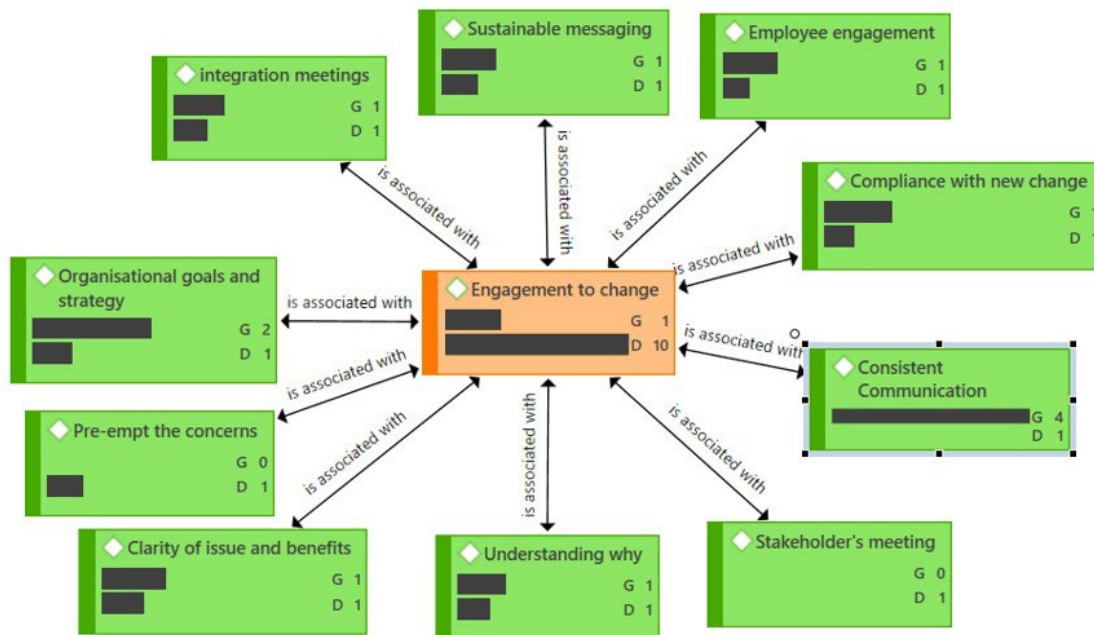
Figure 6.10: Engagement to change

This section discusses the vital themes under engagement, as shown in Figure 6.10.

6.9.2.2 Driving employee engagement

Four participants supported consistent communication to drive engagement to change by saying: *"Consistent communication with shared services. What is the business case and if staff understand why we do this? What is in it for me? If you give context and sustainable messaging"* (Interview 2). *"Consistent communication, stakeholder is meeting and try to analyse the change; we have forums like the Eskom change forum and write what is actually happening"* (Interview 3). *"We do regular gatherings and try to explain and argue it out to get everyone out of their comfort zone"* (Interview 4). *"Communication according to (who is this guy, gosh I have forgotten, I have two things in my mind): Posters can't be effective, and they'll be competing with other posters. Email receipt tracker. Communicate with the digital platform WhatsApp; at least you can see their activity"* (Interview 5).

The organisational goals and strategy were highlighted in: *"If they know the goals of the organisation with this change, it settles better with most people"* (Interview 1). *"Introducing change as something that is linked to the organisational strategy"* (Interview 7).

One participant highlighted sustainable messaging, employee engagement and integration of meetings by saying: *"If you give context, sustainable messaging can happen. Employee*

engagement process (thinking). Regular meetings with functional task team, business integration meetings" (Interview 2).

Stakeholder meetings were highlighted: *"Consistent communication, stakeholder meetings and try to analyse the change"* (Interview 3). *Understanding why was highlighted by saying: "Give compelling story for change by pointing out the benefits"* (Interview 5).

Compliance with new change was also highlighted in: *"Ongoing communication, make employees to feel as part of the organisation. There is more compliance with new change"* (Interview 6).

Pre-empt the concerns was highlighted: *"Make employees feel comfortable about change"* (Interview 7).

Clarity of issue and benefits was highlighted by saying: *"There must be a connection to their issues, any benefits to the employees"* (Interview 8).

6.9.2.3 Sensemaking and media

Sensemaking and media is associated with clarity of message, change training, intranet, frequently asked questions (FAQs), COP (chief of people services) teams, teams published, engagement with stakeholders, task sheets, information graphics, introduction to new culture, employees' impact, WhatsApp, flyers, posters, newsletters, Facebook and Instagram, paper trail, bulk SMS and email, agents of change and continuous communication, as shown in Figure 6.11. Continuous communication plays an essential role in sensemaking and media. Question 6a was: 'How do you ensure that change makes sense to everyone involved? And, if you used communication, what mediums did you use?'
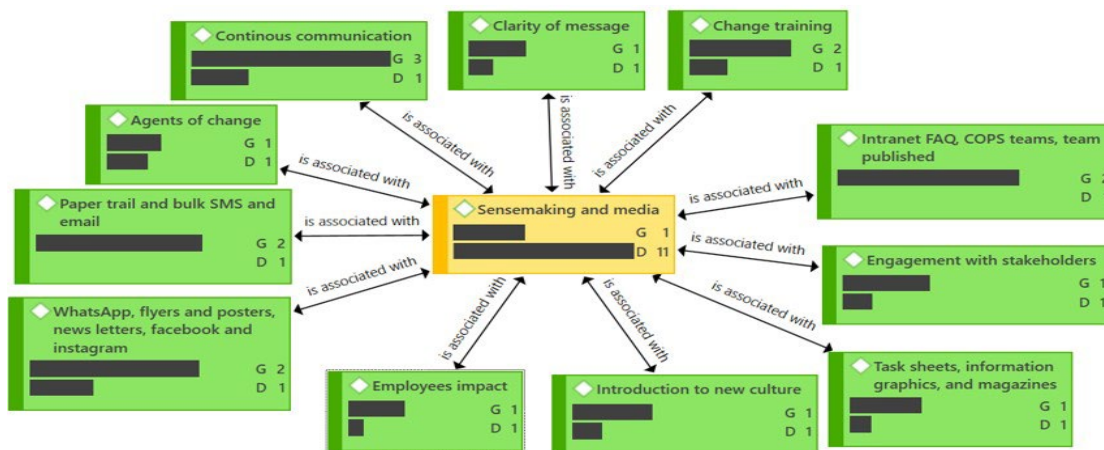
Figure 6.11: Sensemaking and media

Participants emphasised continuous communication by saying: *"Platform for digital mass SMS – that's what we use in case employees need to know about something"* (Interview 2). *"We talk about this process in a positive manner. We make task sheets, information graphics, magazine green area symposium"* (Interview 3). *"Communication about the change that is taking place, make employees to comprehend change"* (Interview 6).

Change training was highlighted by the same participants saying: *"We train people so that they* can be informed about the process*"* (Interview 2). *"Training sessions, series of change and make employees feel that change is part of life and their input matters"* (Interview 6).

Participants also highlighted intranet, FAQ, COPS teams, teams presented by saying: *"Messaging to be simple and straight to the point - for the person in the field or for the person in the office it must make sense"* (Interview 1). *"Post it to the Intranet to be part of FAQs for all employees. COPS teams, teams published testimonials"* (Interview 2).

Participants highlighted WhatsApp, flyers and posters, newsletters, Facebook, and Instagram by saying: *"We use WhatsApp, flyers and posters and (keep fear on people) not that it is good; we just want them to understand what is going on and how the organisation is going to survive if they do not participate"* (Interview 4). *"Use posters, like Covid, so that the employees can understand what is at stake here, newsletters, WhatsApp, Facebook and Instagram"* (Interview 7).

Participants also emphasised paper trail, bulk SMS, and email by saying: *"We try to use paper trail and bulk SMS for staff"* (Interview 1). *"Bulk SMS is mostly used but also emails, at least you can trace tracking"* (Interview 5).

One participant highlighted employees' impact by saying: *"Do impact analysis which make me understand what needs to be done, idea who is going to be impacted by this change"* (Interview 1).

In Interview 3, the participant highlighted task sheets, information graphics, and magazines by saying: *"We make task sheets, information graphics, magazine green area symposium"* (Interview 3).

One participant highlighted engagement with stakeholders by saying: *"Needs driven, feedback, engage with stakeholders, tell them about the urgency of change"* (Interview 2).

Another participant highlighted introduction to new culture by saying: *"Change must be easy to understand, slowly modify culture so that employees do not experience a culture shock"* (Interview 5).

Participant 7 again contributed to clarity of message by saying: *"Communicate at their level and ensure that you have meetings to discuss the issue"* (Interview 7).

The last issue that was highlighted was about agents of change in: *"Series of change and make employees feel that change is part of life and their input matters"* (Interview 6).

6.9.2.4 Consistent communication

Consistent communication is associated with intranet, FAQ, COP teams and teams published, change training, agent of change, employees' impact, engagement with stakeholders, WhatsApp, flyers, posters, newsletters, Facebook and Instagram, paper trail, bulk SMS and email, clarity of message, continuous communication, and introduction to new culture, as shown in Figure 6.12.

Communication or messaging need to be consistent for sensemaking to create long-term understanding among employees. Participants were required to answer Question 6(b): *"How do you ensure that there is consistent communication between the project team, employees, sponsors and other stakeholders (e.g., the board) during a change process?"*
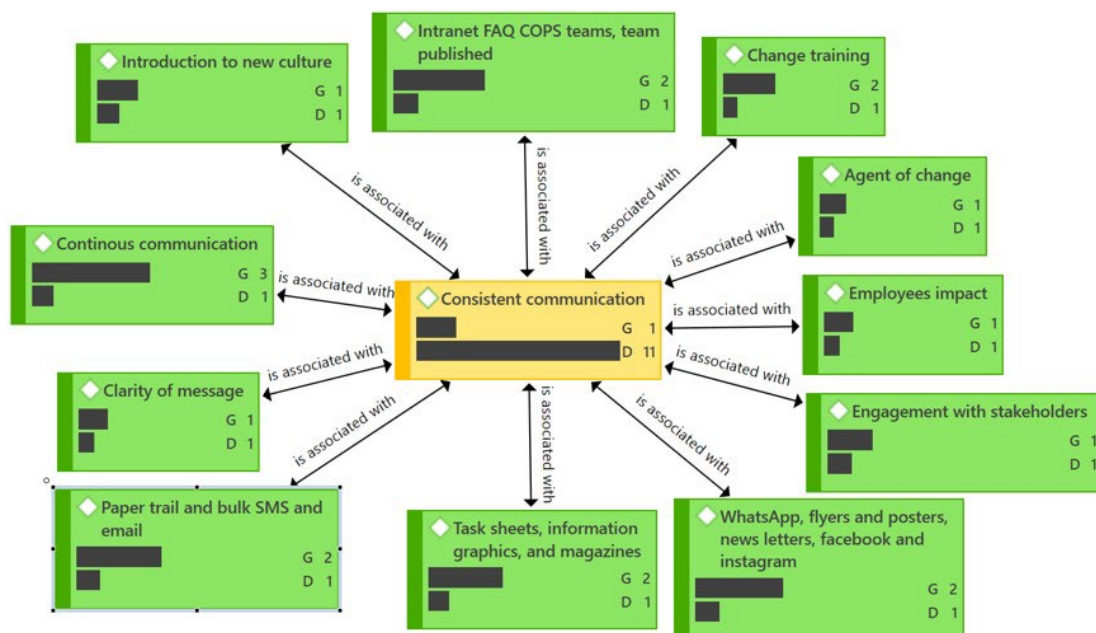
Figure 6.12: Consistent communication

Three participants supported continuous communication by saying: *"Messaging – no communication has to be signed off first before it is communicated to employees"* (Interview 1). *"Consistent communication in our monthly meetings; we have incentive schemes to encourage employees"* (Interview 3). *"Different sections regularly have to discuss issues on a continuous basis during change"* (Interview 4).

Change training was highlighted by two participants by saying: *"Adhere to change governance, so that we make it easy to meet regularly; weekly reports; we also use the robotic tracking since those umber colours - to show we are on track with time zones"* (Interview 5). *"Project task team ensure that different teams meet to discuss issuers which need to be handled"* (Interview 7).

Intranet, FAQ, COP team, the published team was expressed in: *"Regular update of change process and sessions of forthcoming of work in the organisation. Staff is allowed to take part and look at how all staff responds to change coalition"* (Interview 6).*" Connect and touch-base, check all projects if they are going according to plan"* (Interview 8).

Introduction to new culture was expressed in: *"I ensure there is a video clip with every monthly meeting to remind employees"* (Interview 1).

Clarity of message was highlighted in: *"Employee understanding of the impact-touch"* (Interview 2).

Paper trail and bulk SMS and email was highlighted in: *"We start with change; we recognise sponsor coalition because it keeps us on path with the communication plan"* (Interview 5).

Task sheets, information graphics and magazines were also highlighted in: *"Cross-sectional sides, continues announcements"* (Interview 6).

WhatsApp, flyers, posters, newsletters, Facebook, and Instagram was also expressed in: *"Plan have all involved and communicate frequently even with newsletters"* (Interview 8).

The concept of agents of change was highlighted in: *"Connect and touch base; check all projects if they are going according to plan; plan have all involved and communicate frequently"* (Interview 8).

Employee's impact was expressed in: *"Otherwise we lose track of what is happening"* (Interview 4).

Engagement with stakeholders was expressed in: *"Project task team ensure that different teams meet to discuss issuers which need to be handled"* (Interview 7).

6.9.2.5   Evaluation of effectiveness

Evaluation of effectiveness is associated with meeting regularly, continuous discussion, gradual change, incentive schemes, understanding business imperatives, stakeholder planning, feedback, sponsor coalition, evaluation and monitoring, employee coalition, and robotics tracking, as shown in Figure 6.13. Communicating or messaging plays a vital role in having regular discussions in the organisations, and leaders need to establish if the mediums of communication are effective.
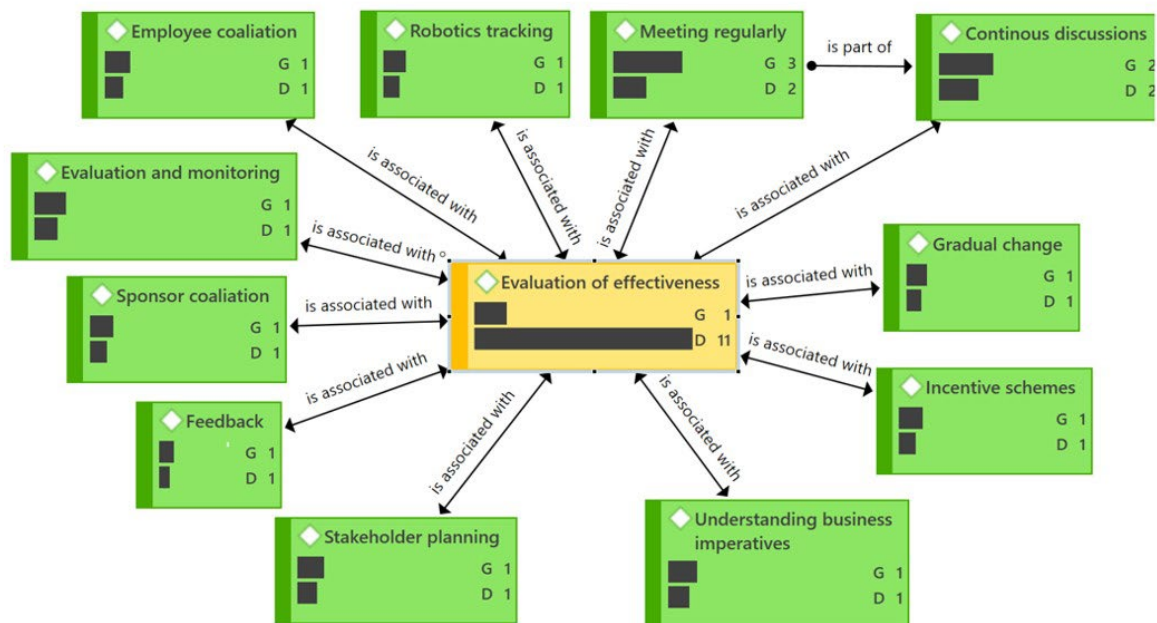
Figure 6.13: Evaluation of effectiveness

It is essential to evaluate the effectiveness of all the systems during an organisational change process. There should be a coalition that is going on between employees to ensure that continuous communication takes place. Question 6c was posed to participants: 'How do you evaluate the effectiveness of change communication messages?'

Two participants responded to highlight continuous discussions by saying: *"People grasping what change is all about can be tricky; what I do, I ensure there is a video clip*

with every monthly meeting to remind employees about the change process currently taking place and remind people of the end dates; that has helped significantly because each time I meet colleagues in the corridors they can freely tell. But then if we adhere to timelines then we can tell that there is progress" (Interview 1). *"Positive talks about the current change process are more behavioural aspects on the part of employees"* (Interview 5).

Three participants highlighted that meeting regularly is part of giving each other feedback. *"Different sections regularly have to discuss issues continuously during change"* (Interview 4). *"So, if digital communication can be persistent"* (Interview 5). *"Get feedback to employees and stakeholders"* (Interview 7).

Another participant highlighted evaluation and monitoring by saying: *"Continuous monitoring and evaluation of what is happening compared it to what was on the dashboard when change started"* (Interview 3).

Incentive schemes was also highlighted by one participant by saying: *"Quick wins allow them to have increased interest in the process; once that is achieved, it is easy to trace the effectiveness of the process"* (Interview 4).

Understanding business imperatives was expressed by saying: *"I suppose as long as they can understand the impact to the company. Sometimes we give them practical examples to see the impact"* (Interview 2).

Stakeholder planning changes gradual because it becomes scary when things change too fast, and employee coalition was also elaborated by participant 5 by saying: *"If change happens when employees do not know clearly about it, so as a leader you need to pre-empt what can worry your employees during change or a new thing. So, if digital communication can be persistent, it will alleviate the scary part, just be honest about everything. You can see employee buy-ins. Positive talks about the current change process, more behavioural aspects on the part of employees"* (Interview 5).

Feedback was also highlighted in: *"Engagement statistics, participation of different units, increase of engagement, and get more feedback on culture of change"* (Interview 6).

Sponsor coalition was highlighted in: *"Get feedback to employees and stakeholders. To be ready to tell is a sign of effectiveness"* (Interview 7).

Robotics tracking was highlighted in: *"Can't assume until the change is finished, but you can still hear from the employees how they feel about change process. When employees move from being change adopters to change ambassadors. They start making comments about the current change in a positive manner"* (Interview 8).

6.9.3 Key Message Simplified and Visualised

Key messages to be simplified and visualised is associated with continuous communication, evaluation of timelines, continuous monitoring and evaluation, practical examples, support online systems, organisational support, culture of change, positive attitude, transparent channels of communication, and reminder of change process, as shown in Figure 6.14. An item to create good communication or messaging is key messaging. Key messaging refers to advertisements made by the organisation about change to ensure that change stays in employees' or stakeholder's minds. Question 7 of the interview guide asked: 'Change communication is clearly important. How are the key messages of change simplified and visualised to form change aptitude?'
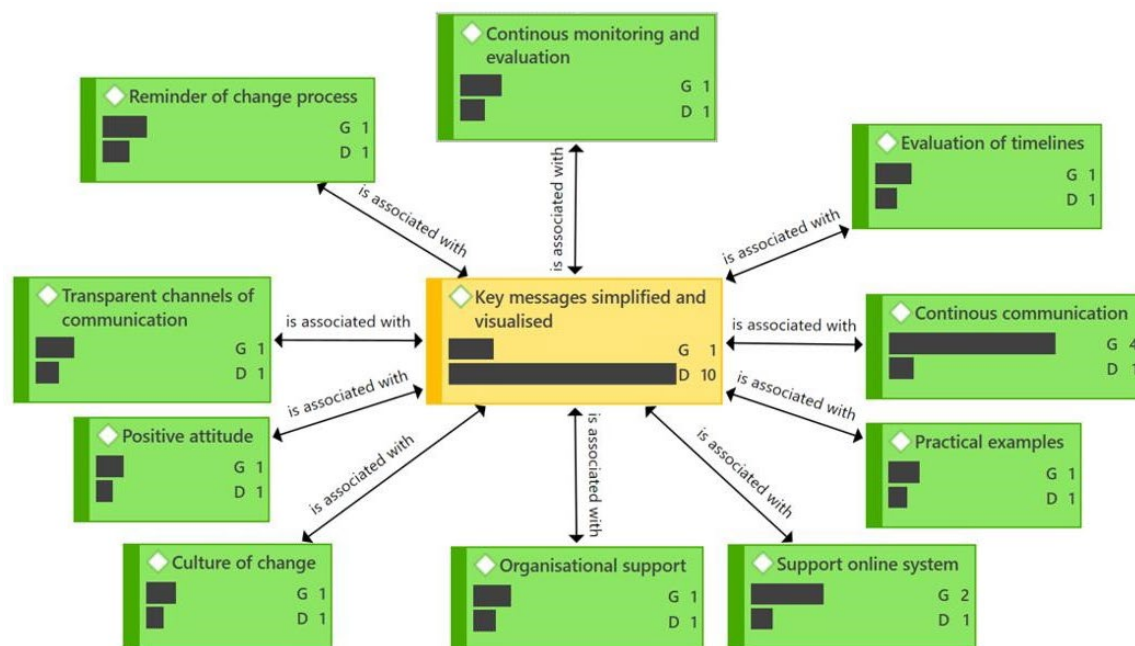
Figure 6.14: Key messages simplified and visualised

Four participants supported key messages with continuous communication by saying *"We use teasers, use statements that draw attention, simplify – avoid ambiguity; some people prefer pictures, banners or posters"* (Interview 1). *"Communication specialist is involved, simplify activities of change, listen to the audience"* (Interview 2). *"Then we provide 10*

minutes briefing before every change of shift" (Interview 5). *"Get together to open up the discussions. Employee contribution matters"* (Interview 6).

Support online system was highlighted by two participants (Interview 5) by saying: *"Show them videos, get together to open up the discussions"* (Interview 4). *"Rather use digital systems and social media like WhatsApp to highlight the issue of change"* (Interview 5).

Practical examples were highlighted in: *"Translate the information into 11 official languages"* (Interview 3). Continuous monitoring and evaluation were highlighted by saying: *"If you look at (Kubler Ross) stages of anger – it is part of analysis of the environment and get under the scope of a change project"* (Interview 5).

Reminder of change process and evaluation of timelines were highlighted in: *"Not that fear helps but talk about the impact and cost benefit of change project, proper change governance. I am sure that due dates are adhered to and how much time we still have"* (Interview 5).

Organisational support was expressed in: *"Training on change is done when necessary to ensure that understanding is achieved"* (Interview 7).

Culture of change, transparent channels of communication, and positive attitude was highlighted in: *"Make them to have all points together, speak their language, use templates they are familiar with, e.g., use people they know in the organisation and make it more positive to employees"* (Interview 14).

6.9.3.1 Compelling story for change

Compelling story for change is associated with employee understanding, translate into official languages, positive talk, continuous communication, and timelines, as shown in Figure 6.15. The literature on change management refers to the compelling story as significant in the change process (Burk, 2019:1). Question 7a of the interview guide asked: 'How do you create a compelling story for change?'
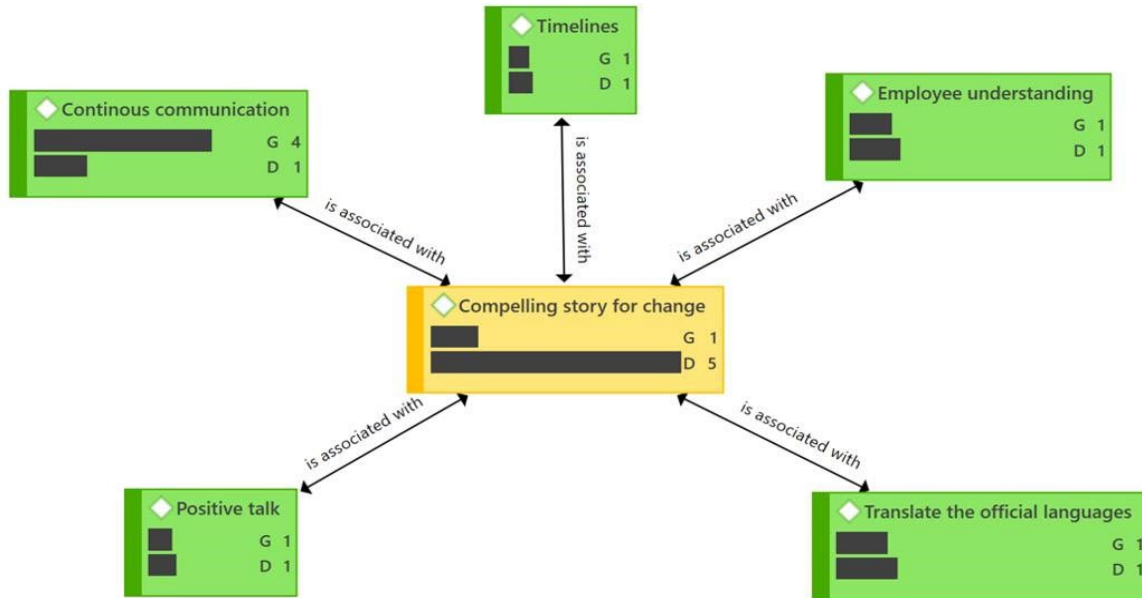
Figure 6.15: Compelling story for change

In the organisations, compelling stories are created to assist in the change process. and to stay more competitive (Burk, 2019:2). This question prompted the following responses from four participants to highlight the importance of continuous communication, by saying: *how benefits, talk about consequence, make visible, Human Resource will ask, what does it mean for us? Labour same question, and staff need to know what is in it for them"* (Interview 2). *"Information sessions and make sure that people are informed about the change that is going to start"* (Interview 3). *"Engagement of staff and communication to staff"* (Interview 6). *"Training on change is done when necessary to ensure that understanding is achieved and communication"* (Interview 7).

Employee understanding was highlighted in: *"Make examples, not that I like to scare people, tell them about the worst scenarios that would motivate them to want to change and make the process succeed"* (Interview 1).

Positive talk was emphasised in: *"Telling people the truth will give them courage"* (Interview 4).

Translation to official languages and timelines were highlighted by one participant by saying: *"Make them to have all points together, speak their language. Clarify current facts about change and be visible about - when change is starting and when it is ending"* (Interview 5).

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6.9.4 Making Change Stay Uppermost

To make change stay uppermost in the minds of subordinates is associated with show benefits, clarity of facts, practical examples, continuous communication, engagement of staff, and tell consequences and timelines, as shown in Figure 6.16. Change management is a state of renewal in the organisation. Change involves moving from the current state to a future state. In so doing, organisations are being transformed to move into a state of renewal. Question 8 of the interview guide was: 'How do you make change to stay uppermost in the minds of subordinates, as a strategy that the organisation is pursuing?'
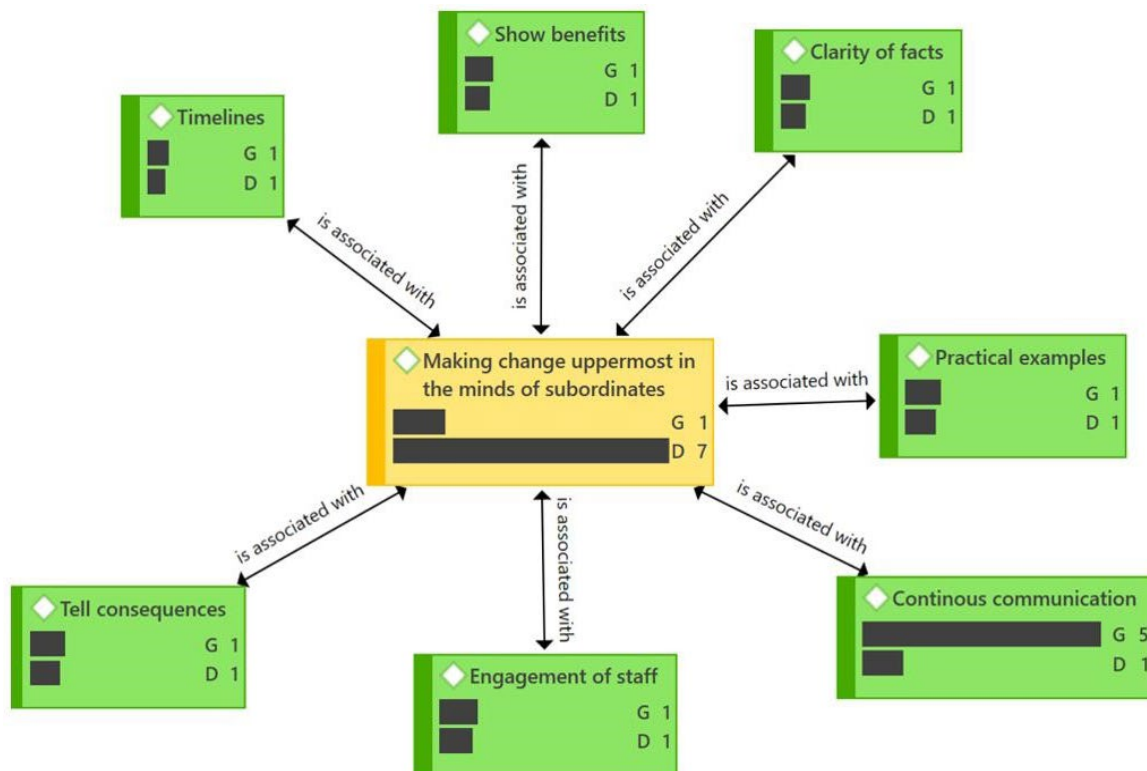
Figure 6.16: Making change stay uppermost in the minds of subordinates

Continuous communication was supported by five participants who responded by stating: *"Keep employees consistently engaged, stakeholder mapping has to be onboard, don't overlook people. It is best if it is well-conceptualised, clear mapping, messaging must talk to employees and exco - finance must talk to some of the figures, if you miss that link e.g., talk about the impact of change – what is in for me. Have employee dialogues – pitched such that employees can understand the support of the organisation – business for change must be for people, drive accountability, culture of the organisation, pride in their facilities, management effectiveness dialogues, engage and keep managers' engagement going, and*

customer satisfaction levels" (Interview 1). *"We start with communication to make people to understand why change has to happen, that should be done as soon as possible"* (Interview 4). *"Start explaining value for change"* (Interview 5). **"***Ongoing communication, voluntary participation and not forced into the process, integrated values and how we fit into the country's vision"* (Interview 6). *"Remind them about the why and communicate with them, encourage them to complete the task of change"* (Interview 8).

Tell consequences was presented in: *"If there is no plan, there is risk if analysis is done subsequent to that"* (Interview 1).

Timelines were highlighted in: *"Regular updates and linking to original theme. Remind employees about it in our monthly meetings"* (Interview 2).

Show benefits was highlighted in: *"We translate change into benefits to the employees, customers, bottom line or sometimes to give incentives to make this process valuable"* (Interview 3).

Clarity of facts was emphasised in: *"Start explaining value for change"* (Interview 5).

Practical examples were highlighted in: *"Visuals and pictures help them understand"* (Interview 7).

Engagement of staff was presented in: *"Remind them about the why and communicate with them; encourage them to complete the task of change"* (Interview 8).

These themes added depth to making change uppermost in the minds of subordinates.

6.10   STRUCTURES OR PROCESSES TO COLLABORATE FIRST

Integration or collaboration of systems or structures were covered in Section B of the interview guide. The structures or processes to be collaborate first during change is associated with: training of employees, team spirit, leadership coalition, sponsor coalition, time management, cooperate branding and feedback, policy formulation, and organisational resources, as shown in Figure 6.17. Integration or collaboration of structures or processes in the organisation are crucial during the change management process. Questions 9 of the interview guide was: 'What structures or processes do you collaborate first to ensure that a change project receives the priority and support it needs within the organisation?'

The answers to this question highlighted time management as an important factor to collaborate first during change and was supported by all eight participants, by saying: *"Change impact analyses as a policy, check how it impacts on structures and processes flatten it, so that business processes are done on time"* (Interview 1). *"Need to show consequence if change does not happen"* (Interview 2). *"We give time first to detect what causes change"* (Interview 3). *"Depends on the kind of change to make structures to collaborate first but make a new timesheet that can accommodate change"* (Interview 4). *"Note of time for resistance"* (Interview 5). *"Make a new timesheet"* (Interview 6). *"Executive change champions and CEO are supporting members, so they ensure that the organisational structures are on time before change starts"* (Interview 7). *"Make timelines be known to all involved"* (Interview 8).
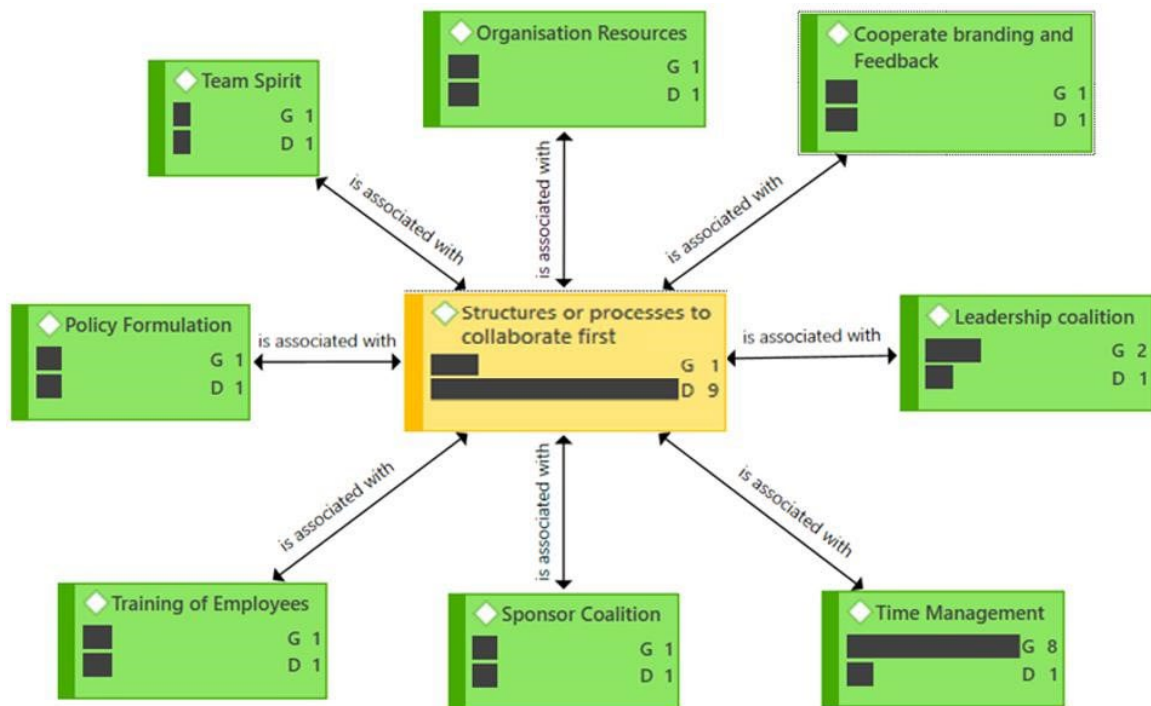
Figure 6.17: Structures or processes to collaborate first

Leadership coalition was highlighted by two participants by saying: *"We need leadership alliance to work together so that there is support of the change process. We try to keep leaders onboard, their roles and responsibilities, keep leadership buy-in to get tools necessary for them"* (Interview 5). *"Executive change champions and CEO are supporting members"* (Interview 7).

Policy formulation was presented in: *"Change impact analyses as a policy check how it impacts on structures and processes"* (Interview 1).

Training of employees was highlighted in: *"Those who are early adopters will be used to share the information to those who have not yet understood"* (Interview 3). Cooperate branding and feedback was highlighted by saying: *"Depends on the kind of change to make structures to collaborate first but make a new timesheet that can accommodate change"* (Interview 4).

Sponsor coalition and organisational resources were presented in: *"Sponsor partnership. Keep leadership buy-in to get tools necessary for them and employee tools that they need"* (Interview 5).

Team spirit was highlighted in: *"Ensure that everybody knows about change, so that processes don't become disrupted"* (Interview 8).

6.10.1   Management of Structures and Processes

Management of structures and processes is associated with good management communication, adoption of new policies and phasing out old policies, clear policies, comparison method of policies, and time management, as shown in Figure 6.18. Integration management is a process in which various fundamentals are required so that the project is properly harmonised. It includes the assembly of trade-offs among competing structures or processes and changes to meet or exceed stakeholder requirements and expectations. Question 9a was phrased as follows: 'How do you manage to integrate these structures and processes?'

Several responses by participants to question 9a about the management of structures and processes focused on time management, which was supported by all eight participants by saying:*" Must be open time to every employee to be involved in the discussion"* (Interview 1). *"Time management"* (Interview 2). *"If it means changing times, we do so that we do not mess up the structures and systems"* (Interview 3). *"To allow discussions about change to be clarified including timelines"* (Interview 4). *"When or what time so that we can trace the time"* (Interview 5). *"To allow time for discussions about change to bring understanding of employees"* (Interview 6). *"Give time before the change process"* (Interview 7). *"Timelines is the best policy in the integration of structures"* (Interview 8).
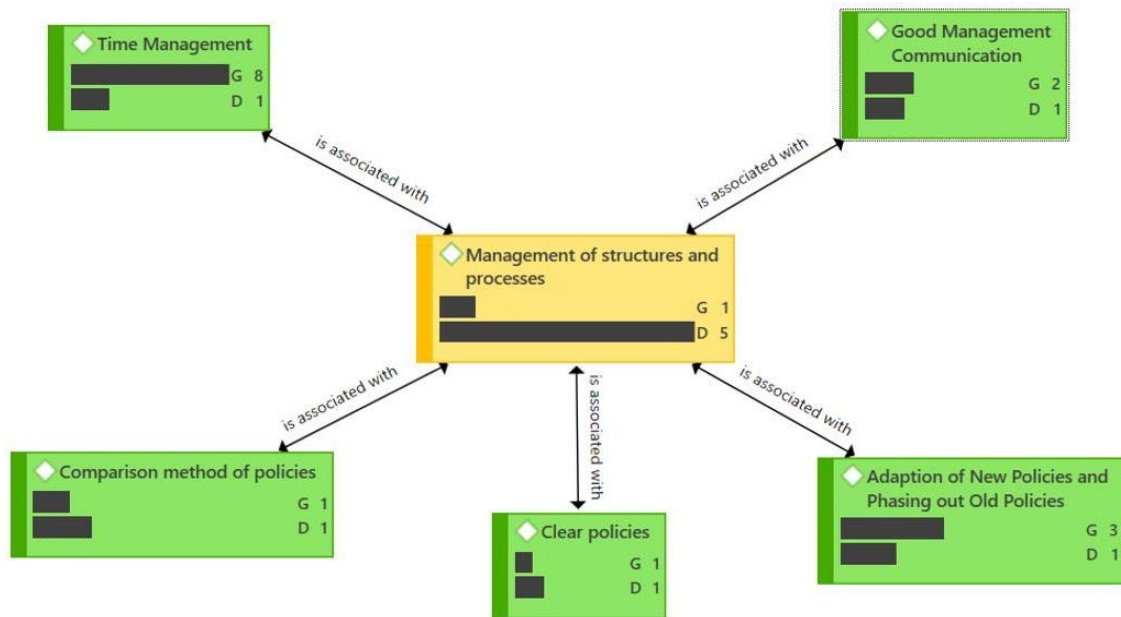
Figure 6.18: Management of structures and processes

Good management communication was also found to be directly linked to time management of structures/processes, and participants expressed this by saying: *"We collaborate all change processes and tag them so that it can easily show that this is change-related or what"* (Interview 3). *"Good management communication to allow discussions about change"* (Interview 4).

Adoption of new policies and phasing out old policies was highlighted by three participants by saying: *"Create anticipation of new, while old is still done. Parallel old and new behaviour"* (Interview 2). *"Here we contract with affected parties to rule out disruption first. Then we look at the transitional plan"* (Interview 5). *"The best policy is in the integration of structures"* (Interview 8).

Clear policies and the comparison method of policies added depth into the management of structures and processes.

6.10.2 Integrate the New Change Procedures into Existing Work

The integration of new change procedures into existing work is associated with digitise all things, risk of the system, time management, financial issues, talent management, stakeholder coalition, gradual change of policies, continuous communication, and monitoring and evaluation, as shown in Figure 6.19. It is at the beginning of every change process that organisations need to make internal systems work without disruptions. A new

process of change for any organisation is vital and must be planned appropriately to succeed. Question 10 of the interview guide presented the statement: 'Change has its own activities that need to be followed'. The statement came with a question, asking the participant to reflect on: 'How do you integrate the new change procedures into existing work?'
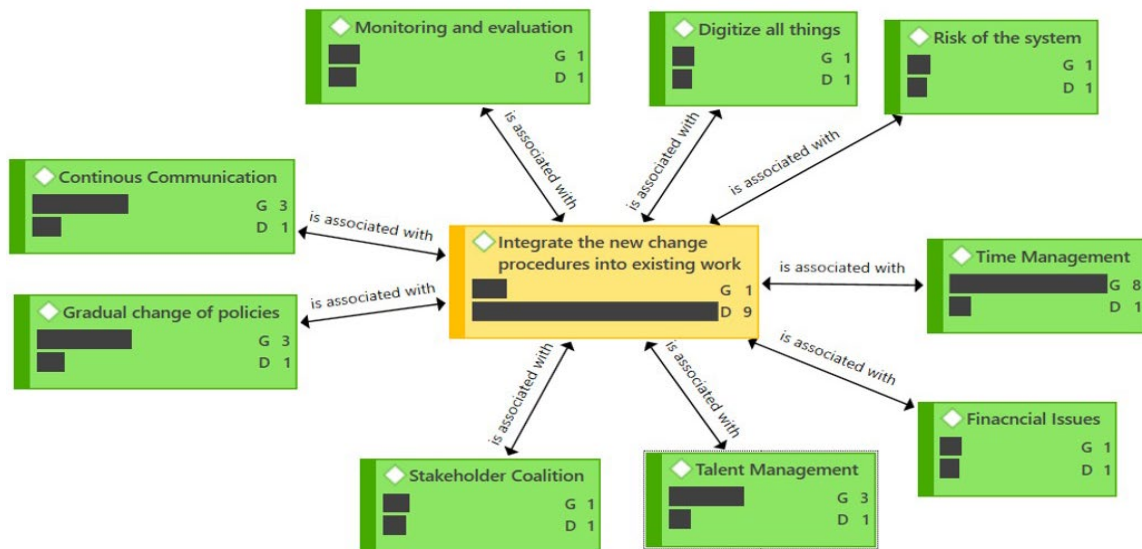
Figure 6.19: Integrate the new change procedures into existing work

Time management came out strongly by the participants and was supported by saying: *"The benefits regular uptake people want to achieve so that work still carries on, in spite of current changes"* (Interview 1). *"Risk, system, time, passion"* (Interview 2). *"Change at the same time as normal work continues"* (Interview 3). *"It is important that we do not kill the current work"* (Interview 4). *"What is important with change is part of the project environment resourcing – time, people, support communities, and what is going to come at what period"* (Interview 5). *"Timeliness accommodate gradual change"* (Interview 6). *"Otherwise change time, have monthly meetings"* (Interview 7). *"Continue communication in-between time of the change process"* (Interview 8).

Continuous communication was supported by three participants who said: *"Case for change- employees want the impact analysis, milestones talking to each other – say something to leadership and something to employee's personal development and have consistency messaging and vitalised – aptitude – use teasers, use statements that draw attention, simplify, avoid ambiguity, some people prefer pictures, banners, posters, quick wins – things that talk to change, dramatize, celebrate them when they talk positively"* (Interview 1). *"Meetings to keep track of what is happening on the ground"* (Interview 7).

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"Bring back the issue of the why change and continue communication in-between time of the change process" (Interview 8).

Gradual change of policies was also supported by three participants who answered by saying: *"That is why change must be slow"* (Interview 4). *"Transition phase, what is going to come at what period or it's just going to be a boom bang"* (Interview 5). *"That is why change must be gradual"* (Interview 6).

Talent management was supported by three participants by saying: *"Say something to leadership and something to employee's personal development"* (Interview 1). *"Include all staff in the process decision"* (Interview 2). *"Environment resourcing – time, people support communities"* (Interview 5).

Risk of the system was presented in: *"Case for change - employees want the impact analysis, milestones, talking to each other"* (Interview 1).

Financial issues and stakeholder coalition was also highlighted in: *"Financial issue must be included in our discussion and joint stakeholder decision-making"* (Interview 2).

Digitising was presented in: *"Digitise all things that drive change"* (Interview 3).

Monitoring and evaluation was highlighted by saying: *"Managers are always tracking if normal work is done"* (Interview 7).

6.11   SKILLS TRANSFER

Leading a change process means that the leader does not look only at change, but they are also expected to share skills with employees. There are three aspects that the interview guide focused on: adequate skills transfer and empowerment of employees, parallel activities, and desired behaviour.

Ensuring adequate skills transfer of employees was associated with leadership skills, good understanding, safety mindset, resilient behaviour, knowledge transfer, uplifting employees, and good practical examples, as shown in Figure 6.20. Question 11 of the interview guide required participants to answer the question: 'Do you as a leader ensure that there are adequate skills transfer and empowerment of employees during organisational change?

Please elaborate how that is achieved.' This question highlighted good understanding of the change process.
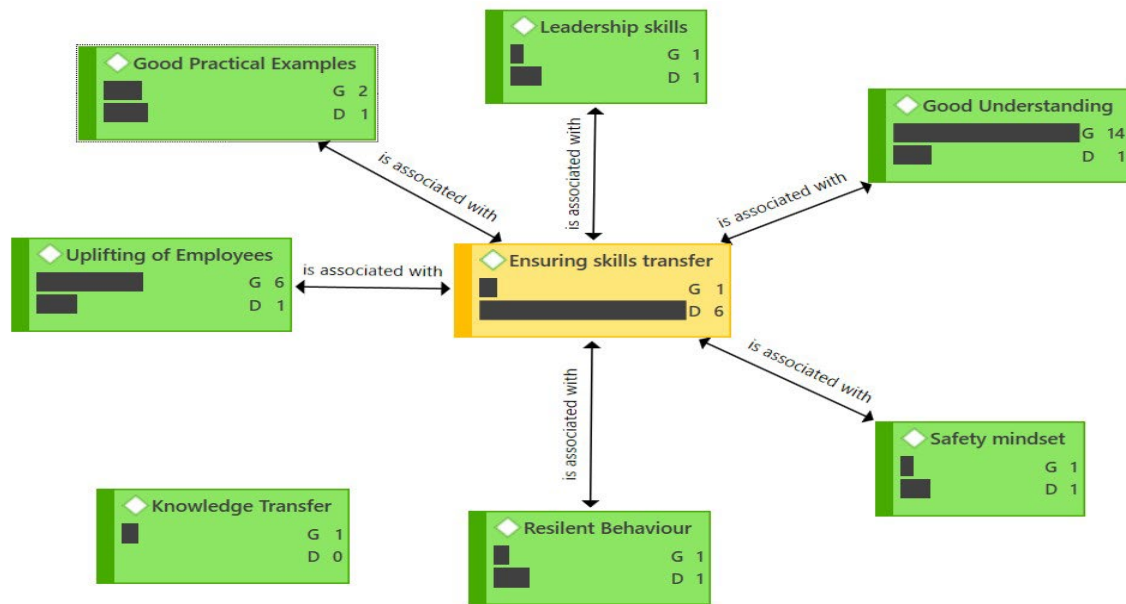
Figure 6.20: Ensuring skills transfer

Good understanding was supported by all participants by saying: *"Lack to understand, give people knowledge, train them, give them practical examples"* (Interview 1). *"Training of employees and give them information so that they can use it for future to understand future changes"* (Interview 2). *"Training is offered to focus groups and formulate change agents' network"* (Interview 3). *"Give training, give employees opportunities to make decisions, create a realistic programme and empower people, and let them adapt to new ways of doing"* (Interview 4). *"Employee readiness, transferability of responsibilities so that people can be empowered; you take super users that are early adapters, coach others enough that you are confident as a leader to go out of office, you always have someone to answer questions and queries, and we train people to understand the change process"* (Interview 5). *"Give training to enhance understanding and empower people. Let them adapt to new change opportunities and must attend the courses on change"* (Interview 6). *"We train employees"* (Interview 7). *"Getting a person with skills has to happen in the beginning, maybe outsource, and teach the skills to the employees"* (Interview 8).

Uplifting of employees was highlighted, and six participants responded: *"Own compelling story let employees so that they experience the change in creating impact, in the results of change"* (Interview 1). *"Show them how organisational development operates differently,*

prepare and give them information" (Interview 2). *"Staff is empowered by formal change methodology, and this creates resilience"* (Interview 3). *"Give employees opportunities to make decisions, create a realistic programme and empower people"* (Interview 4). *"Employee readiness and transferability of responsibilities so that people can be empowered"* (Interview 5). *"Training, to enhance understanding and empower people"* (Interview 6).

Good practical examples were highlighted by two participants by saying: *"Give them practical examples"* (Interview 1). *"Communicate problems openly and involve them in problem- solving"* (Interview 7).

Knowledge transfer was expressed in: *"Create a realistic programme and empower people"* (Interview 4).

Leadership skills were also highlighted: *"Let them adapt to new change opportunities and must attend the here we are flexible, if there is something people must feel free to attend"* (Interview 6).

Safety mindset was expressed in: *"Safety mindset, e.g., safety clip with every meeting"* (Interview 1).

Resilient behaviour was mentioned in: *"Staff is empowered by formal change methodology, and this creates resilience"* (Interview 3).

6.11.1   Parallel Activities

Ensuring parallel activities within the organisation is associated with design change, training of employees, good understanding, no interference with work, and decision-making, as shown in Figure 6.21. Parallel activities are systems in the organisation that are running at the same time with the current change process. Question 12 of the interview guide was: 'When the change management process is your major project, how do you ensure that parallel activities within the organisation do not affect this process?'
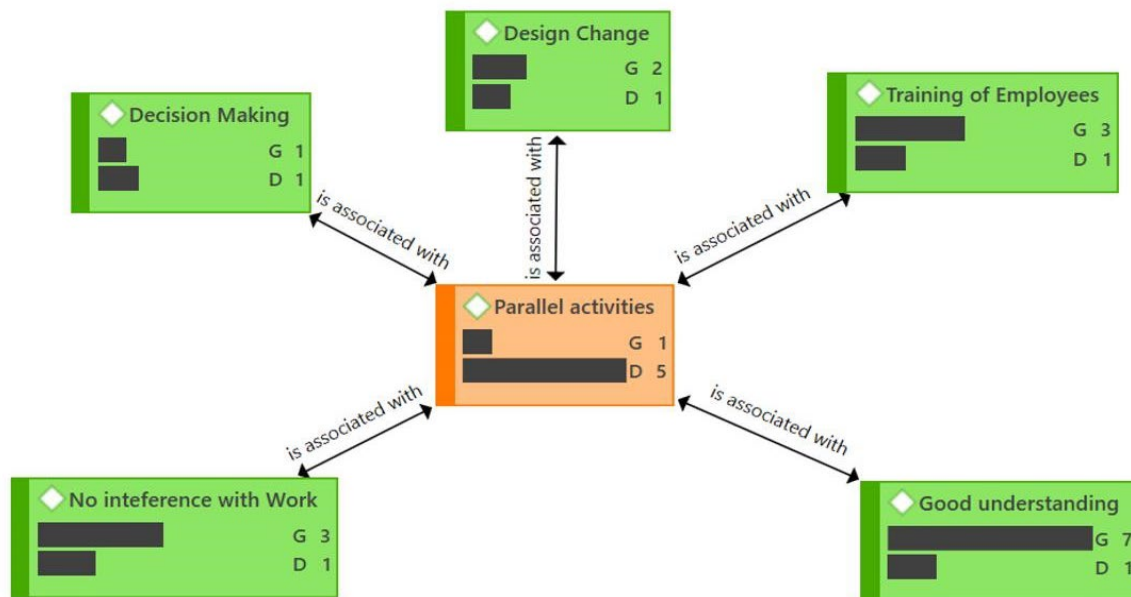
Figure 6.21: Parallel activities

The conceptualisation of parallel activities revealed that parallel activities are part of good understanding. As the change process is introduced to leaders and employees, getting clarity of the processes running concurrently with change gives leaders and employees a good understanding of the change process. As shown in Figure 6.21, all participants emphasised good understanding by saying: *"Anything that happens, don't see change as a separate thing, complement that, minimise disruption makes people understand the cost of doing it and the benefit must out-way the cost"* (Interview 1). *"Train leaders and employees and give them information so that they can use it for future to understand future changes"* (Interview 2). *"We look at change from the operational dashboard, and this helps because it tells us what change is, and who is affected"* (Interview 3). *"Once change is clarified, it is best to allocate people, assign resources immediately"* (Interview 4). *"We also try to incorporate change issues in our regular meetings so that it still highlights the organisational goals"* (Interview 5). *"Once change is introduced, it is best to allocate people and allocate resources there and then"* (Interview 6). *"Have regular discussions"* (Interview 7). *"Communicate, address concerns, answer questions about change regularly"* (Interview 8).

The training of employees was highlighted as part of enhancing parallel activities within the organisation. Participants said the following about the training of employees: *"As role players, as part of decision-making, I partake in training"* (Interview 1). *"We do a continuous assessment of the impacted stakeholders and train people"* (Interview 5). *"We*

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do a continuous assessment of all employees by looking for those who are excelling in the process of change, and delegate them to mentor those that are lagging" (Interview 7).

No interference with work was illustrated by saying: *"Minimise disruption"* (Interview 1). *"Assign resources immediately so that it does not interfere with work"* (Interview 4). *"Once that is achieved, employees go back to work with less disruption, a state of normality appears"* (Interview 5).

Design change was presented by saying: *"Design change and also as role players of decision-making."* (Interview 2). *"As mentioned earlier, we look at change from the operational dashboard as it tells what change is"* (Interview 3).

Decision-making was also highlighted in Interview 2 by saying: *"As role players, and as part of decision-making"* (Interview 2).

6.11.2   Desired Behaviour

The desired behaviour of employees as change progresses is associated with positive behaviour, importance of change of the process, employee participation, and ownership of work, as shown in Figure 6.22. When a change process occurs in the organisation, leaders anticipate seeing behaviour that is desired from the employees. Question 13 of the interview guide asked: 'What is the desired behaviour you want to see in employees, as change progresses?'
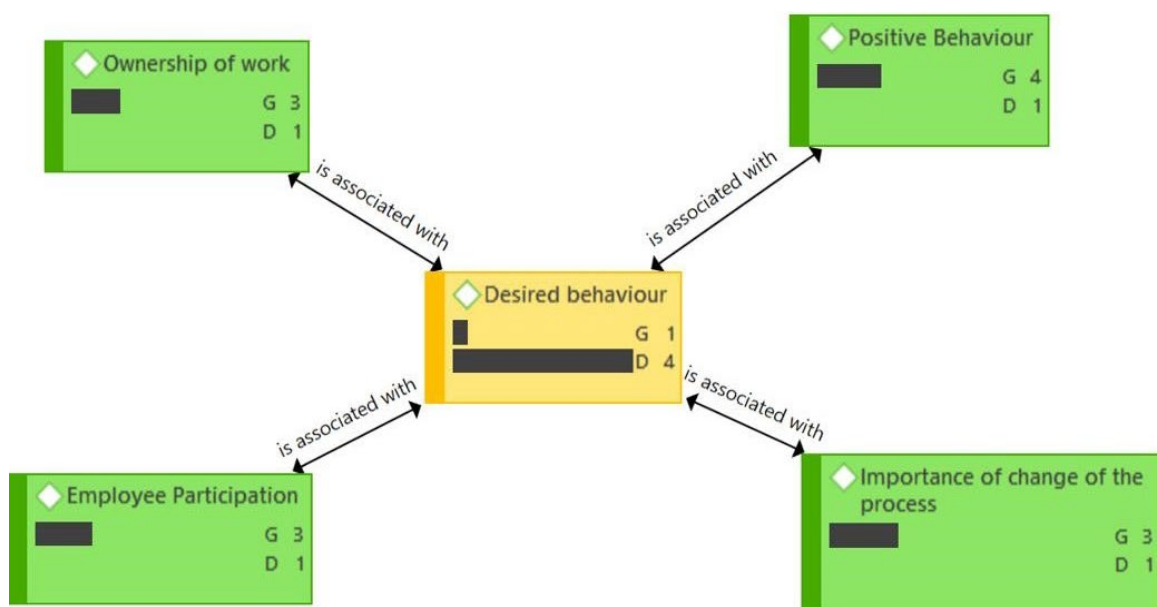
Figure 6.22: Desired behaviour

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Desired behaviour is important for the leader during change because it gives feedback to the leader subconsciously about whether employees are happy or resistant to change.

Positive behaviour was emphasised by four participants by saying: *"Talk together with employees about change; see that they believe the importance of the programme"* (Interview 4). *"Look forward to change"* (Interview 5). *"Talk about change to employees, see that they believe that the process is important"* (Interview 6). *"Only positive talk about change and their commitment"* (Interview 8).

Employee participation was highlighted by three participants saying: *"People should participate sufficiently"* (Interview 4). *"Resilience in people is ensured and look forward to change"* (Interview 5). *"No gossiping, only positive talk and their commitment"* (Interview 8).

Participants supported ownership of work as change progresses and highlighted: *"Want to see employees own it"* (Interview 2). *"Speak positively"* (Interview 5). **"Belief the importance of the process"** (Interview 6).

On reflecting on the importance of change of the process, three participants replied by saying: *"I want people to participate and see people excited"* (Interview 1). *"Early adopters buy-in because it makes the change process to be shorter"* (Interview 3). *"Talk together with employees about change; see that they believe the importance of the programme"* (Interview 4).

The desired behaviour in change cannot be ignored in the change process. The results show that the importance of the change process, employee participation, ownership of work, and positive behaviour, are closely linked to bringing change to the organisation.

6.11.3   Leadership Role during Change

The leadership role during change is associated with safeguard against interruptions, communication of change, design the plan, escalate to decision-making, peace maker, organise for change, readiness assessment, and training people, as shown in Figure 6.23. The leadership role needs to be adjusted to fit the size of the changes in the organisation (O'Connell, 2014:183). To activate the leadership role, leaders need to control critical issues of power relations and obtain favourable responses from employees to diminish uncertainty

in the organisation. No change can happen without a leader, and employees need to ask questions to find an advisor and an internal change agent. Connectivity in the organisation encourages feedback on the work, optimising information flow, and encourages the spirit of learning. Question 14 of the interview guide was: 'What is your role when there is a change process in your organisation?'
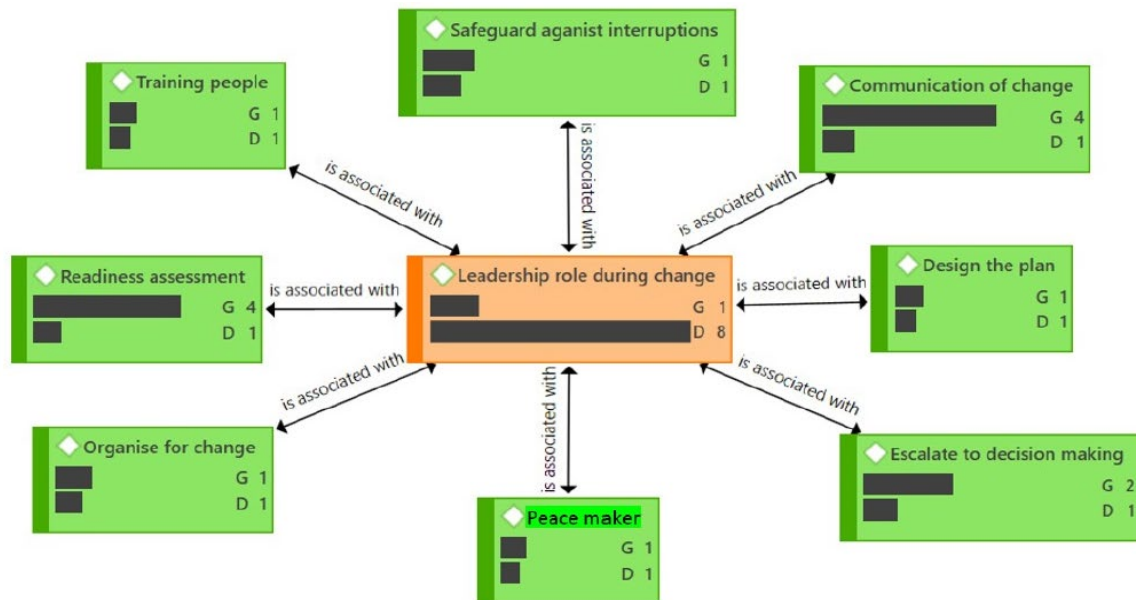
Figure 6.23: Leadership role during change

Four participants highlighted communication of change by saying: *"So, before change happens, I do presentations just to them about the benefits of change and the impact"* (Interview 2). *"Communicate, escalate to decision-makers, and express value of change"* (Interview 5). *"Communication with staff on regular bases"* (Interview 7). *"I am a peace maker, regular communicator, leading change"* (Interview 8).

Four participants emphasised readiness assessment by articulating the following: *"Do presentations to inform the employees about the steps that will take place in this change process"* (Interview 1). *"To bring everybody on board and ensure readiness assessment"* (Interview 3). *"The first thing is training, then readiness check"* (Interview 5). *"I ensure that training needs are met"* (Interview 7).

Escalate to decision-making was highlighted by two participants by saying: *"Make sure that change works"* (Interview 4). *"Escalate to decision-makers"* (Interview 5).

Safeguard against interruptions was expressed in: *"The role of leadership is well-demarcated, but if there is change, a mix-up can happen"* (Interview 2).

Design the plan was also presented by participant 7, by saying*: "I explain procedures; I ensure that training needs are met"* (Interview 7)*.*

Peace maker was highlighted in: *"Peace maker, regular communicator, leading change"* (Interview 8).

Training people was articulated in: *"The first thing is training"* (Interview 5).

Organise for change was presented as: *"Make sure that change works, and continuously in the role of innovation"* (Interview 6).

6.11.4   Role Conflict

Role conflict during change is associated with employee training, avoid processes to be affected, continuous communication, employee readiness, continuous research, and policy formulation, as shown in Figure 6.24. Role conflict occurs when a leader starts operating in a different role than one that they are familiar with. Usually, once leaders are pulled into the new change management process, in addition to the leadership role that they do often, role conflict occurs. Participants were required to answer the following question (Question 14a): How do you continue your role as the leader of the organisation and ensure that your additional role as a change agent is not affected?''
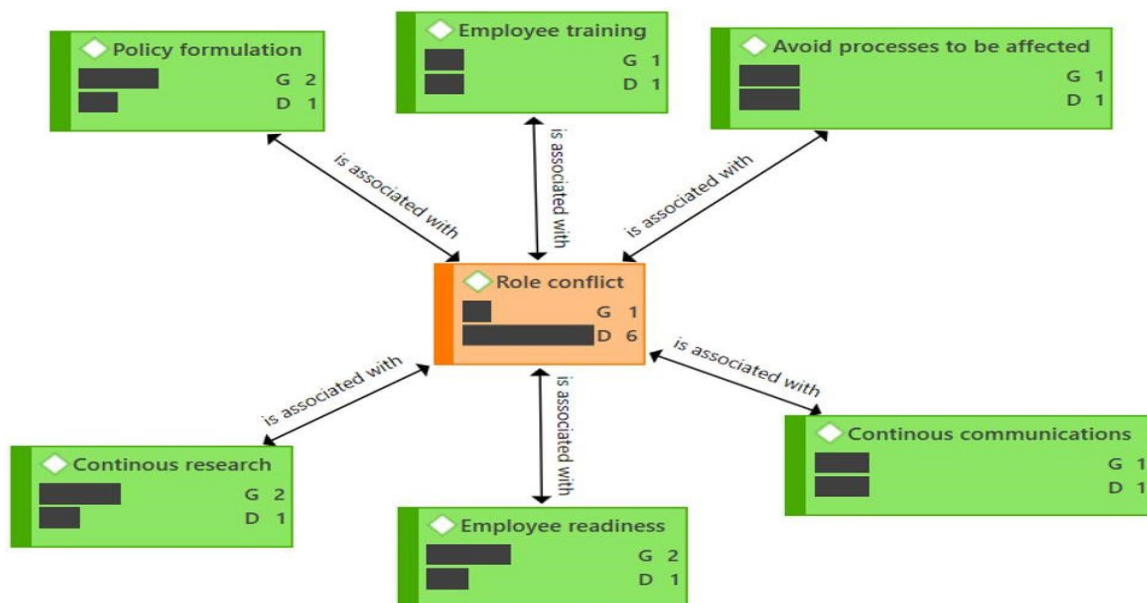
Figure 6.24: Role conflict

Regarding Question 14a of the interview guide, participants highlighted continuous research by saying: *"The basics should be done so that interruptions of these changes are minimal"* (Interview 2). *"I regularly do research once change is in progress"* (Interview 3). Two participants supported employee readiness by saying: *"Engagement to change, and delegate directly when something comes up; fill the gap"* (Interview 4). *"By ensuring that employee readiness for change is continuous and employees must be made to understand what is going on; and as a leader, you must have an ability to listen"* (Interview 5).

Two participants supported policy formulation and expressed by saying: *"All necessary policies get out so that the design can also prosper"* (Interview 2). *"Engagement to change, liaise with the executives, and discuss about change"* (Interview 6).

Employee training was presented in: *"I do not worry myself about change constantly when I have done my job correctly, so employees come in and out of my office if they are not clear about something"* (Interview 1).

Avoid processes to be affected was presented in: *"The basics should be done so that interruptions of these changes are minimal"* (Interview 2).

Continuous communications were highlighted in: *"Therefore, continuous communication must be done regularly. Employees must be made to understand what is going on and as a leader, I must have an ability to listen"* (Interview 5).

6.12 SKILLS POSSESSED BY THE LEADER

Skills possessed by the leader at the beginning of change is associated with risk management, change management skills, interpersonal skills, communication skills, soft skills, and coaching skills, as shown in Figure 6.25. Leaders and employees require skills for the change process to be successful. In the initial stages of change, a leader or employee gets to a position with a gained capability. With a prolonged process of change or if a capability is used continuously, change leaders and employees gain competence. Question 15 of the interview guide read as follows: 'When you were given the task of leading change in your organisation, what skills and abilities did you possess?'
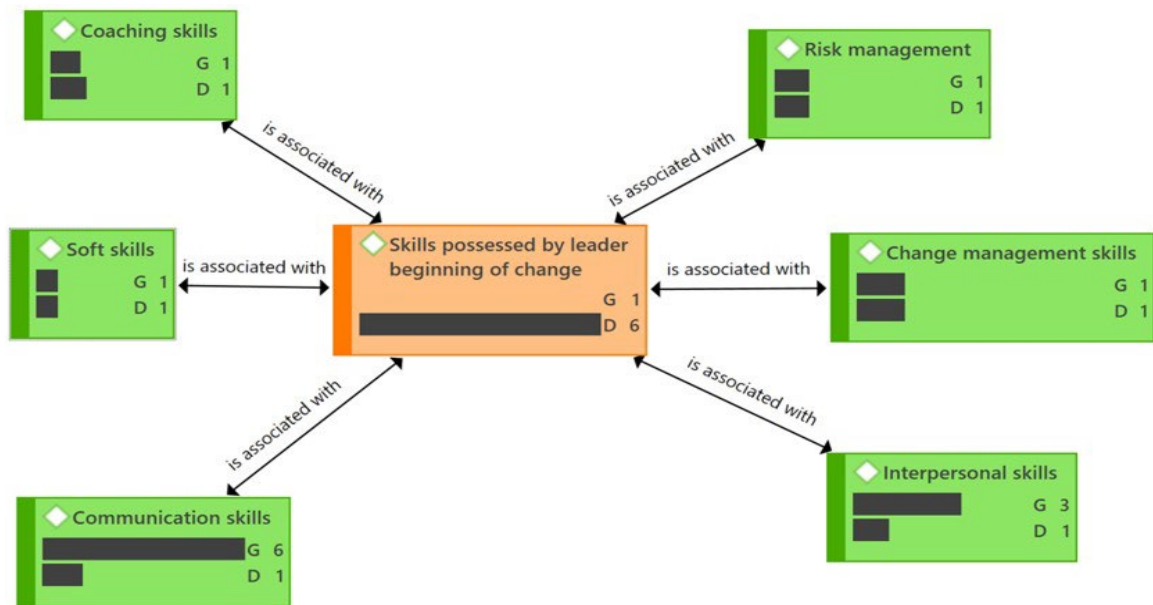
Figure 6.25: Skills possessed by the leader at the beginning of change

In response to Question 15, the participants articulated that communication skills in overcoming challenges in the change process are vital.

Six participants supported communication skills by saying: *"Communication skills and could read corporate dynamics"* (Interview 1). *"Convincing skills, psychology - make-believe skills"* (Interview 4). *"Strong communication consumable"* (Interview 5). *"Coaching skills, listening ability, systemic thinking, and understanding the process of change"* (Interview 6). *"Communication was a skill one was comfortable with"* (Interview 7). *"Soft skills, interpersonal skills, and good communicator"* (Interview 8).

Three participants supported interpersonal skills as follows: *"Can present and connect with people"* (Interview 1). *"Ability to take people with you. Make changes. Share anxieties and honesty is the way"* (Interview 2). *"Thoughtfulness in how people will respond to change and manage those responses"* (Interview 6).

Change management skills was mentioned by a participant, saying: *"Change management skills"* (Interview 1).

Risk management was highlighted by a participant, saying: *"I understand how people will react to change and manage those reactions"* (Interview 4).

Coaching skills was expressed in: *"Coaching skills, listening ability, systemic thinking, and understanding the process of change"* (Interview 6).

Soft skills were expressed in: *"During change, I think soft skills is what I already have"* (Interview 8).

6.12.1 Expectations from the Organisation

Expectations from the organisation are associated with clear communication, readiness of change, proper work to change, quick response to change, time management, and leadership support, as shown in Figure 6.26. When a leader is selected to lead the organisational change process, all expectations are on him or her to create success of the change process. The leader is expected to fulfil leadership tasks and change management objectives. During change, the leader cannot implement the process in isolation; higher and lower echelons can contribute to change success. Participants were asked (Question 16): 'What expectations from the organisation were associated with the role of leading change, and were those expectations achievable?'
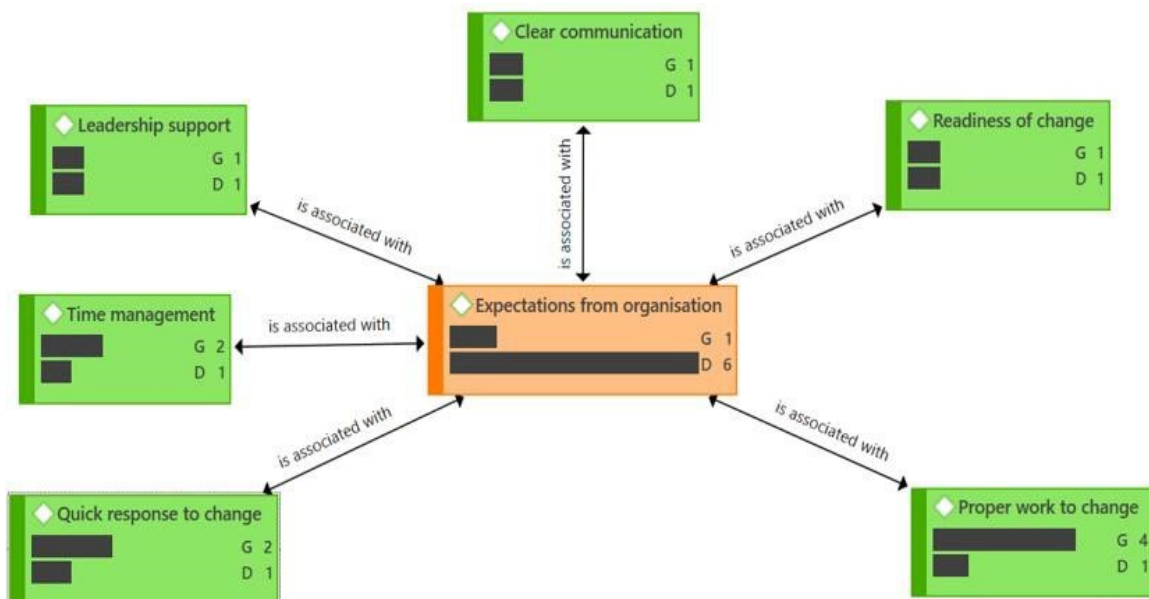
Figure 6.26: Expectations from the organisation

Four participants highlighted proper work to change by saying: *"Change is achievable"* (Interview 2). *"I will bring the results to change visible"* (Interview 4). *"How to handle issues that occur during the change"* (Interview 5). *"Set achievable outcomes of the change process"* (Interview 6). *"To meet the deadlines"* (Interview 8).

Time management was supported in: *"Timing of change, so that it does not get delayed"* (Interview 6). *"So, time is always the main factor in change"* (Interview 8).

Quick response to change was highlighted by saying: *"Expect just to see things change"* (Interview 3). *"People expect how quickly it will happen. Expectation of timing of it, so that it does not get delayed"* (Interview 5).

Leadership support was articulated in: *"Need support of leadership and most of the time it is not there"* (Interview 2).

Clear communication was highlighted by a participant, saying: *"Communication that is clear"* (Interview 5).

Readiness for change was expressed in: *"The organisation expects the change team to acclimatise themselves first before notifying all employees"* (Interview 7).

6.12.2 Implementation Timeframe and Planning Cycles

Implementation, timeframe, and planning cycles is associated with the ADKAR model, safeguard against interruptions, labour coalition, delegation of employees, time management, training programmes, continuous communication, and impact management, as shown in Figure 6.27. Implementation mechanism refers to the strategies used for organisational change. Organisational change strategies include planning, communication, training, time management, and lifting the ethical standards of both the leader and employees. Question 17 in the interview guide asked: 'What mechanisms did you use to coordinate implementation, varying timeframes and planning cycles for the change process?'

Five participants supported continuous communication when answering Question 17 by saying: *"Regular meetings"* (Interview 2). *"Engage with people, implement various training programmes, and are usually guided by the change process plan; it then informs them about their roles and responsibilities"* (Interview 3). *"We all need to know when the survey takes place"* (Interview 6). *"Notify everyone so that they can know"* (Interview 7). *"Regular meetings to remind each other of what is due"* (Interview 8).
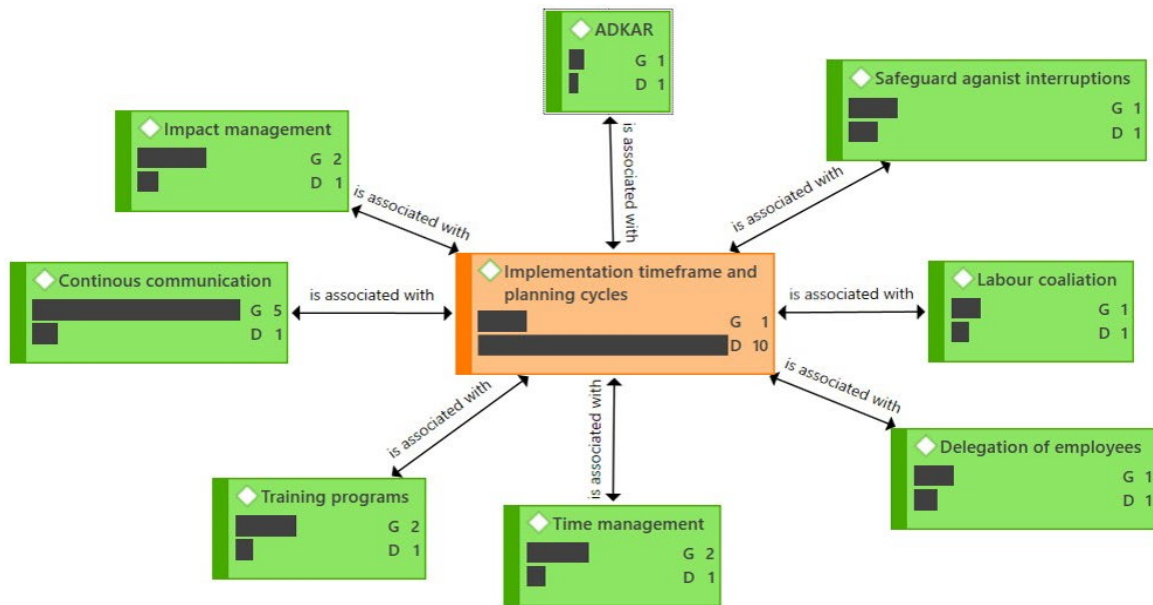
Figure 6.27: Implementation, timeframe, and planning cycles

Impact management was another theme identified and two participants expressed their support by saying: *"Tell them about the impact of not complying with change"* (Interview 4). *"Moreover, financial waste can be detrimental"* (Interview 5).

Participants also supported training programmes by saying: *"Change management methodology"* (Interview 1). *"Various training programmes; I then inform them about their roles and responsibilities. We also have "train-the-trainer" of each organisational development and is different"* (Interview 3).

Participants supported time management by saying: *"Strategic mechanisms; we all know that projects work with timelines"* (Interview 6). *"Project team in the organisation arrange the implementation schedule and timeframes and notify everyone so that they can know"* (Interview 7).

The ADKAR model was mentioned in: *"Change management methodology and process ADKAR model, management change plan, and engagement with labour"* (Interview 1).

Delegation of employees was expressed in: *"Strong office resources, cross functional teams, and regular meetings"* (Interview 2).

Labour coalition was highlighted in: *"HR – bring resources required from HR and if it is finance – I contact budget holders. Sponsors are supposed to be consulted and find clarity on the project"* (Interview 4).

Safeguard it against interruptions was highlighted in: *"Financial waste can be detrimental"* (Interview 6).

6.12.3 Support from the Organisation

Support from the organisation is associated with lack of support from the organisation, organisational support, leadership support, and challenges of the change management in SOEs, as shown in Figure 6.28. Employees of any organisation seek support during change. Leaders are usually the ones to support their subordinates. However, during change, leaders who lead change require support from all organisational members. With organisational support, leaders and employees will feel valued, and their skills will be developed. Participants were asked Question 18 of the interview guide: 'What type of support from the organisation did you receive when you first introduced change?'
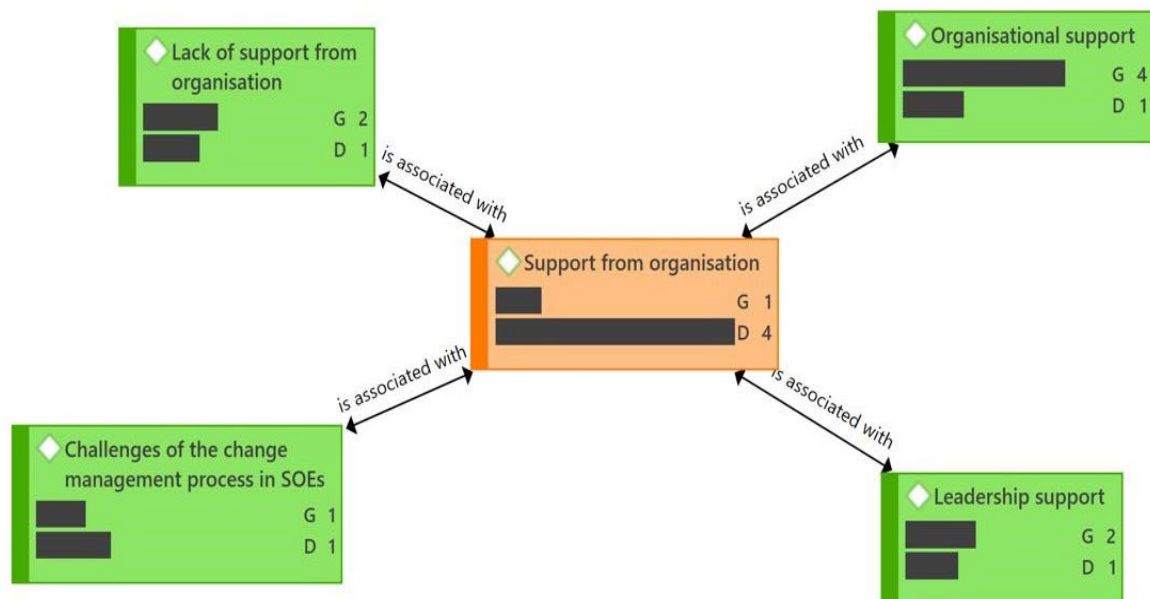
Figure 6.28: Support from the organisation

Four participants reinforced organisational support by highlighting the following responses: *"It depends on the type of change, if it is HR – bring resources required from; if it is finance – I contact budget holders. Sponsors are supposed to be consulted and find clarity on the project"* (Interview 4). *"The Chief Executive Officer (CEO) is a visionary and very*

supportive of change, resources required for change, lots of receptivity from staff, and lots of our staff once they understand what change is about, providing the support required becomes easy" (Interview 6). *"Support starts from the executive change agent and the CEO; fortunately, here at Safcol, we have support"* (Interview 7). *"The board members need to find out how the process is going, the CEO also. I welcome the early adopters of change attitude because they give support"* (Interview 8).

Leadership support was articulated by two participants saying: *"Executive sponsorship is key in this process"* (Interview 2). *"Human Resource General Manager (uma), leadership support becomes important"* (Interview 3).

Two participants expressed two issues that cause dissatisfaction about lack of support from the organisation and responded as follows: *"No budget; in most cases, it is challenging when not working face-to-face with leaders because they don't prioritise project management and change management* and *there's struggles with resources"* (Interview 1). *Engage with people, implement various training programmes, and usually guided by the plan of the change process. I then inform them about their roles and responsibilities. We also have "train-the-trainer" of each OD and is different* (Interview 3).

Challenges of the change management processes in SOEs were highlighted in: *"Sponsorship not fully understood, I am poorly understood, support is not always there"* (Interview 5).

6.13   HANDLING OF CHALLENGES

The handling of challenges is associated with rigorous engagement, teamwork, create understanding, continuous communication, resolve conflict, impact analysis, training employees, and allocation of resources, as shown in Figure 6.29. The organisational change process is vital for a business to prosper. Therefore, all change processes should be well handled to move into the future. If challenges are experienced, the organisation needs to address them as soon as possible. Question 19 of the interview guide asked: 'How did you handle challenges in the organisation during the change management process?'

Two participants supported continuous communication, by stating: *"Engage and humble yourself, make people understand, engage with supervisors to tell them what will happen when they do not assist; in other words, tell them the consequences"* (Interview 1). *"Have dialogues, address it and escalate them"* (Interview 2).
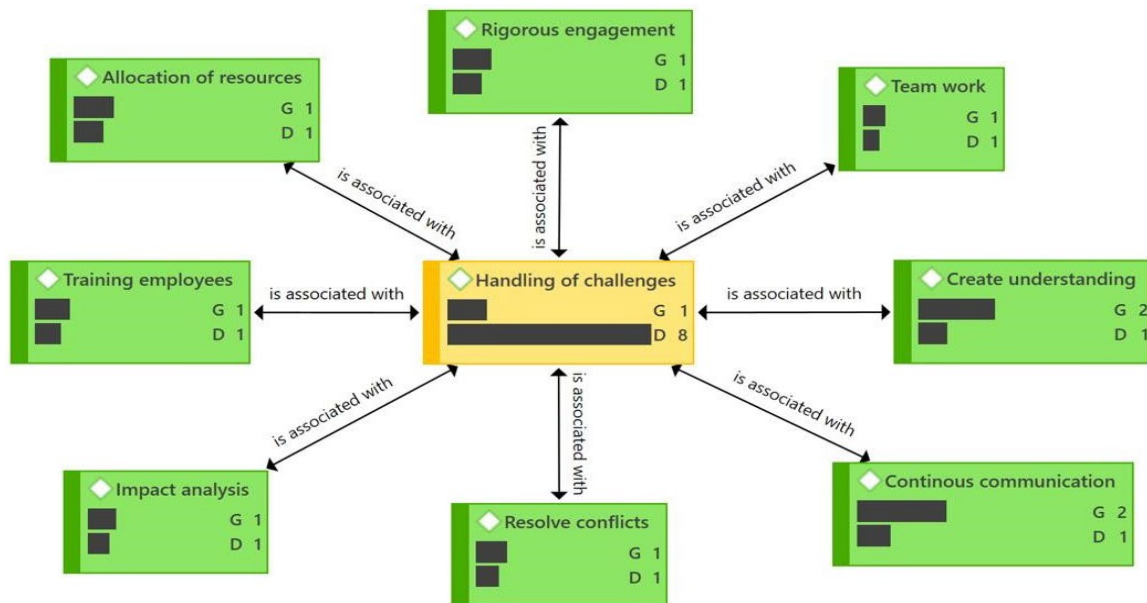
Figure 6.29: Handling of challenges

Two participants also supported create understanding in saying: *"Clarify what is misunderstood and allow people to ask questions"* (Interview 4). *"Spend more time explaining all issues that cause challenges"* (Interview 6).

Rigorous engagement was highlighted in: *"Rigorous engagement of consultants in the issues of change we escalate everything to Group Chief Executive"* (Interview 3).

Allocation of resources, training employees and impact analyses was highlighted by one participant who said: *"With behaviour, we discuss the problem and take the employee for disciplinary if it needs be. When it is competency, that's where training will be offered. If its resources, the budget holder will be confronted about the resources; the response to challenges will be according to the problem"* (Interview 5).

Teamwork was highlighted in: *"Communication and meetings"* (Interview 7).

Resolve conflicts was reflected in: *"Communicate and find out why is the person so resistant about change; try to find a solution"* (Interview 8).

6.14   BOARD MEMBERS' CONTRIBUTION

Board members' contribution is associated with knowledge of operation of the organisation, involved setting objectives and strategies of the organisation, and no involvement in planning and implementation of the board members, as shown in Figure 6.30. In business,

board members, also referred to as the board of directors, play a vital role in approving leadership decision-making on behalf of the organisation. Participants were asked Question 20 (Appendix C): 'Can you explain how the board members contribute towards the change plan and implementation in your organisation?'
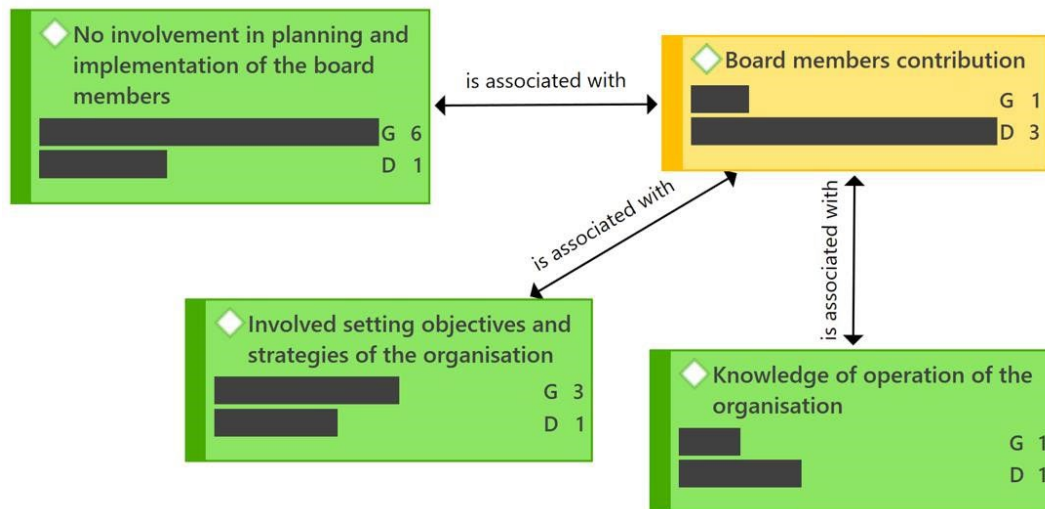
Figure 6.30: Board members' contribution

Six participants expressed no involvement in planning and implementation of the board members and expressed that by saying: *"They are not part of the organisation. I do not expect them to partake in planning or implementation"* (Interview 1). *"No, the board does not work for Transnet; you cannot expect them to be involved"* (Interview 2). *"Not in the plan. Change is very complex, especially the current one, because no reliable senior structures are involved"* (Interview 3). *"Not in planning and not in implementation"* (Interview 4). *"No-no-no, these people are not operational, the governance role of the board; they can give advice on monitoring projects but not in planning the project"* (Interview 5)*. "The board is not operational but are supportive of the projects the organisation embarks on"* (Interview 6).

Although the board of directors is not operational in the organisation's activities, they are involved in setting the objectives and strategies of the organisation. Three participants supported this view by saying*: "They get involved but not into details; sometimes we can work collaboratively on setting objectives for the organisation"* (Interview 4). *"But are supportive on the projects the organisation embarks on"* (Interview 6)*. "But they try to review our strategies and give advice if necessary"* (Interview 8).

Knowledge of the operation of the organisation was highlighted in: "*Board members are not operational, and they advise from a distance, not necessarily executive role*" (Interview 5).

6.15 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter commenced with the data analysis for the quantitative phase of the study. In the quantitative phase, biographical and background information was presented relating to gender, age, post level, academic qualification, years of experience in the organisation, and the selected SOE. In the statistical section, data cleaning was presented, followed by the data validity and EFA. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and the KMO measure were discussed. The communalities' total variance explained, and principal component matrix were also presented. It was followed by a scree plot to show the further analysis. The rotated component matrix was discussed, including the naming of the variables. The reliability of constructs was highlighted, followed by discussing the descriptive statistics for the valid and reliable factors. The Pearson product-moment correlation of continuous constructs *(r)* was also considered and discussed. Multiple hierarchical regression analysis was done to model the relationship between the dependent decision and independent decision variables. This was described in discussing the regression analysis for the various constructs. Furthermore, the SEM for the study was presented.

For the qualitative data analysis, the background information of participants was presented and focused on the highest qualification, position in the enterprise, duties, work experience in the (current) position, and if participants led any change process in the organisation. The chapter also focused on leadership experiences in the change process and discussed the various questions and concepts of communication or messaging for change, integration/collaboration of systems/structures, and skills transfer. Network diagrams of themes from each question in the interview guide were presented and discussed.

The next chapter presents the discussion of the results and interpretation from the research findings of the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study.

CHAPTER 7

DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION OF THE RESULTS

7.1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the main findings of the results and the interpretation of both the quantitative and the qualitative phases of the study, and as explained in Chapter 6. Furthermore, the chapter presents the integrated model derived from the results. The chapter also presents the acceptance or rejection of the hypotheses, and the outcome of these.

7.2   FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATIONS OF RESULTS (QUANTITATIVE)

The role of leadership manifests in multiple forms, such as capabilities, competencies, and principles. In addition, various factors influence the leadership role during the change process in South African SOEs. The integrated model for the role of leadership in change management in South African SOEs is shown in Figure 7.1. The model is based on the variables supported by the hypotheses, as presented in Table 7.1.
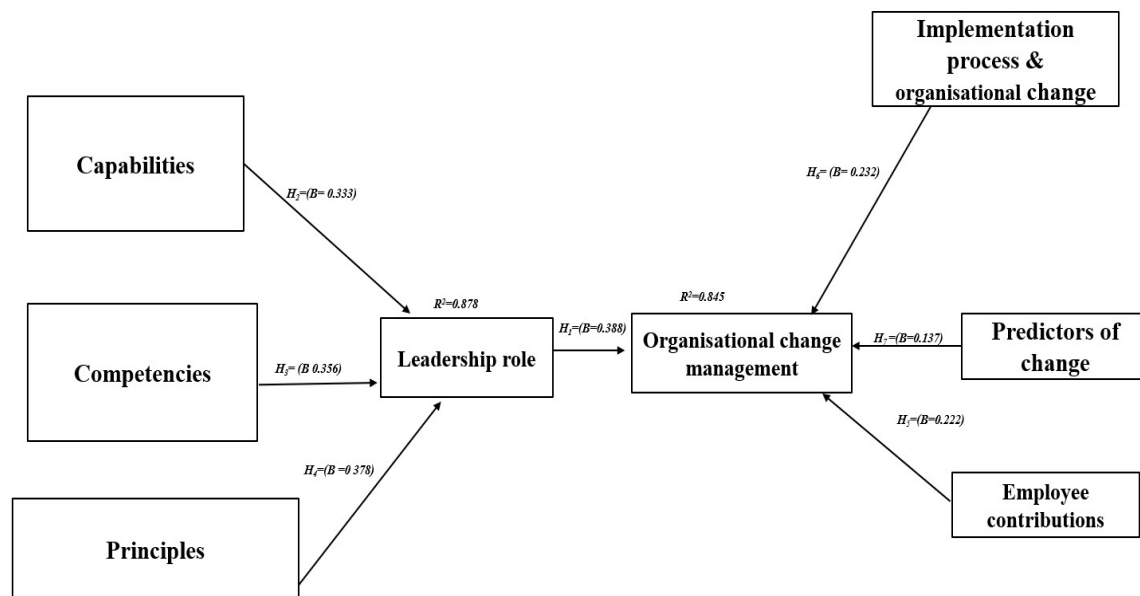
Figure 7.1: Leadership and organisational change management model for SOEs

The data collected in the current study disclosed the following about the variables.

7.2.1 Organisational Change Management and Leadership Role

The results confirmed that Organisational change management (OCM) is positively related and statistically significant to the Leadership role (LR) (B = 0.388, *p-value* < 0.05), as shown in Table 6.36. This is supported by Jing and Avery (2016:107), who confirmed that change is the role attributed to leadership. Once leadership and change work conjointly and become inseparable, the one cannot function without the other (Burnes et al., 2018:141). Essentially, every time changes occur in the organisation, leadership roles need to be adapted to, and be suitable for the size of changes the establishments face to meet their goals (O'Connell, 2014:183; Anderson et al., 2017:245.

- **Ha1** posited that there is a relationship between qualities of leadership role and drivers of change management. Therefore, the hypothesis fails to be rejected as it is positively significant. *(As per research hypotheses set for this study – Table 7.1).*

7.2.2 Capabilities and Leadership Role

The results show that Leadership capabilities (LCa) is positively related and is a statistically significant determinant in adopting a Leadership role (LR) (B = 0. 333, *p-value* < 0.05), as shown in Table 6.35. The literature indicated that leaders need to believe that their capability to produce results in Leadership roles (LR) can make the organisation successful (McClean et al., 2019:500).

Leadership roles (LR) are closely linked to many capabilities in organisations (Schoemaker et al., 2018:37). Leadership capabilities (LCa) are skills used by the leader to anticipate activities, imagine possibilities, maintain flexibility, and empower others to create successful organisational changes (Dada et al., 2021:162). Leadership capabilities (LCa) need to be assessed against the organisational culture for the sustainability of the organisation. Capabilities and culture are popular concepts linked in the academic literature (Dajani et al., 2016:42). Culture is vital for effective change (Dajani et al., 2016:46). The relationship between culture and change promotes the scope of excellence initiatives and the development of capabilities in the organisation (Carvalho et al., 2019:1496). Leadership builds the capabilities of the organisation during the change process (Schoemaker et al., 2018:29). This implies that leaders in SOEs should be able to drive the change process, and the following should be considered: a clear vision of the changes envisaged, the establishment of a good interpersonal relationship, open communication to share change

goals with employees, and adaptation of the organisational culture to accommodate the change initiative while motivating employees to perform.

- **Ha2** posited that there is a relationship between capabilities and qualities of leadership role. Therefore, the hypothesis fails to be rejected as it is positively significant. (Table 7.1).

7.2.3 Competencies and Leadership Role

The study has confirmed that Leadership competencies (LCo) are positively related and statistically significant to the Leadership role (LR) (B = 0.356, *p-value* < 0.05), as shown in Table 6.36.

Based on the results, there is a significant relationship between Leadership competencies (LCo) and Leadership roles (LR). This is supported by Seemiller (2013:21), confirming that competencies are associated with the Leadership role (LR) and include ethics, decision-making, team development, and coaching. Competence refers to what individuals know or can do, using the knowledge, skills, and attitudes they have accumulated over a long period (Jokiniemi, Meretoja & Pietilä, 2018:1428). These Leadership competencies (LCo) are perceived as arising out of past performance which leads to future performance, with the purpose to seek universality (Bachkirova & Smith, 2015:132). The achievement and development of these competencies lie at the centre of lifelong learning (Steffens, 2015:43). Leadership competencies (LCo) are intended to equip employees with the information, skills, abilities, and characteristics required to achieve organisational goals effectively (Fowler, 2018:182). This implies that leaders should proactively provide relevant information regarding the envisaged change, encourage employees to have a learning mind-set, stimulate creative problem-solving during change, lead through turbulent times, and encourage employees to achieve organisational goals.

- **Ha3** posited that there is a relationship between competencies and qualities of leadership role. Therefore, the hypothesis fails to be rejected as it is positively significant. (Table 7.1).

7.2.4 Principles and Leadership Role

The study confirmed that Leadership principles (LP) is positively related and statistically significant to Leadership role (LR) (B = 0.378, *p-value* < 0.05), as shown in Table 6.35. In the study, there is a significant relationship between Leadership principles (LP) and Leadership role (LR). This is supported by Storer (2018:257), who found that leaders take responsibility for their role in achieving effective governance in the organisation and are often held accountable for what does and does not work during the change process. Their strong influence on future leaders' development shows their relevance as caretakers in the organisation (Wu & Parker, 2017:1030). It has been observed that if followers consider leaders trustworthy, they are more likely to display commitment and a positive attitude towards change (Alavi & Gill, 2017:168). Ethical leaders are considered more dependable by followers (Sharif & Scandura, 2014:187). This implies that leadership should serve as a role model, be easily accessible, consider effective governance, and operate in an ethical climate.

- **Ha4** posited that there is a relationship between principles and qualities of leadership role. Therefore, the hypothesis fails to be rejected as it is positively significant. (Table 7.1).

7.2.5 Implementation Process and Organisational Change, and Organisational Change Management

The study has confirmed that Implementation process and organisational change (IPOC) and Organisational change management (OCM) are positively related and statistically significant to Leadership role (LR) (B = 0.232, *p-value* < 0.05), as shown in Table 6.35. This is supported by Stouten et al. (2018:779), who stated that organisational change is more likely to be implemented with buy-in from various stakeholders.

To implement change successfully, the implementation process should be aligned with organisational change processes. The research instrument (questionnaire, Appendix B) indicates that implementation is seen as actioning a change plan. The implementation makes the process different from the past, and activities should be aligned with organisational processes. This statement is supported by Georgalis et al. (2015:94), saying the fair treatment of employees will enhance a positive attitude and behaviour conducive to the successful implementation of change (Georgalis et al., 2015:94). This implies that the Implementation

process and organisational change (IPOC) is seen as actioning the change plan, and activities in the implementation phase should be aligned with organisational processes. Actioning or implementation refers to the actual change execution. Activities in this signify integrating the steps to be taken for the organisational change processes. It is also equivalent to the 'refreezing' stage, the last stage in Lewin's (1947), change management model (Rosenbaum et al., 2018:292) (Figure 3.1). Refreezing in the implementation process is seen as actioning the change plan through instruction from the change that comes from the leader (Hussain et al., 2016:124). Leaders should gain the support and commitment of employees (Georgalis et al., 2015:106). A change plan consists of well-coordinated activities aligned to make organisational change successful (Hussain et al., 2016:125). Everyone involved in the change process needs a proper understanding of the change plan. Al-Darmaki (2015:84) highlighted the importance of separating current change initiatives from those taken in the past. Al-Darmaki (2015:84) further suggested that enabling structures of change should be aligned to create the required structures in the supportive environment for the change to occur.

- **Ha7** posited that there is a relationship between implementation process and organisational change and change management. Therefore, the hypothesis fails to be rejected as it is positively significant. (Table 7.1).

7.2.6   Factor 5 – Predictors of organisational change

The study has confirmed that Predictors of organisational change (POC) and Organisational change management (OCM) are positively related and statistically significant to Leadership role (LR) (B = 0.232, *p-value* < 0.05), as shown in Table 6.35. This is supported by Stouten et al. (2018:779) who stated that organisational change is more likely to be implemented with buying from various stakeholders.

Predictors of organisational change (POC) tell us about all actions that are forecasters to the successful organisational change process. These actions include, as shown in the research instrument (Appendix B), a collaborative workforce towards the implementation of change, employees' skills, leadership skills, considering technology, and a communicated vision by the leader. All these factors increase operational efficiencies and make the change process to be acceptable in the organisation. This information drawn from the research construct is supported by Cameron and Green (2019:3), who said that teams and employees need to work

collaboratively during change. Leadership and employee skills are necessary for the process of change to ensure operational efficiency. When teams are operational, leadership should be involved in the team, and their resources and skills should be sufficient to make the organisation to succeed (Alves & Alves, 2015:5327). Once the leader fits into a team, the leader communicates the organisational vision and makes change implementation acceptable to employees (Van der Voet, 2016:660). Employees' skills create an assertion of the effective implementation of change (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015:244). Leaders' skills are involved in implementing change processes, motivating employees, effective communication, and team building become present (Dumas & Beinecke, 2018:869). Furthermore, change implementation takes technology into account to improve operational efficiency (Wanza & Nkuraru, 2016:194).

- **Ha8** posited that there is a relationship between predictors of organisational change and change management. Therefore, the hypothesis fails to be rejected as it is positively significant. (Table 7.1).

7.2.7 Employee Contributions, and Organisational Change Management

The results revealed that Employee contributions (EC) is positively related and statistically significant to Organisational change management (OCM) (B = 0.222, *p-value* < 0.05), as shown in Table 6.35. This is supported by Hussain et al. (2016:125), who found that the path to organisational change should include activities or events to enhance Employee contributions (EC).

Employee contributions were the components that remained from change success, and these were: effective communication about the vision for the organisation is shared before change starts, all members work towards the same goal for change to succeed, and all employees offer valuable suggestions to be realised for change. Employee contributions come in various forms in organisations, but successful interventions are blurred (Johnson & May, 2015:1). However, successful change management is essential in organisations to survive the dynamic and unpredictable business environment (Georgalis et al., 2015:90). "All employees offer valuable suggestions for change to succeed". This statement is supported by Kremer et al. (2019:68), saying: "All employees offer valuable suggestions for change to be realised in the team structure. Employee contributions (EC) play an essential role in organisational success. This means that the leader should maintain effective communication

of the vision before the change process starts. This was supported by Jankurová et al. (2017:136), saying: "A shared vision is crucial to create cohesion between processes, leadership, and employees in the organisation". Articulating a vision ensures a leader creates the environment that leads to organisational success (Omotayo & Adebayo, 2015:10).

7.2.8   Drivers of Change and Organisational Change Management

Drivers of change are caused by internal and external imperatives. All drivers of change are interconnected and cause a chain reaction that influences the entire organisation (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015:235). Lozano (2015:32) showed that an important internal driver of change in the organisation is the leaders who exercise their influence over and communicate with employees. The current study posits that drivers of change are statistically non-significant determinants of the SOEs, and all components are excluded in this factor. The results of the study are inconsistent with the current literature. The literature indicated that during organisational change, the drivers of change in the organisations need to be recognised, and appropriate strategies should be applied to overcome any barriers to change (Ceulemans et al., 2015:8885). Drivers of change that are internal to the organisation pertain to leadership, employees, ethics, cost-saving, profits, growth, and resources (Blanco-Portela et al., 2017:572). The external drivers of change are competition, regulation, economy, customer satisfaction, and licensing, as shown in Chapter 3, Section 3.8.

- **Ha5** posited that there is a relationship between drivers of change and change management. Therefore, the null hypothesis **Ho5** is rejected, and there is no relationship between drivers of change and change management. (Table 7.1).

7.2.9   Change Plan and Organisational Change Management

A change plan consists of well-coordinated activities aligned with the goal of making change successful (Hussain et al., 2016:125). Everyone involved in the change process needs a proper understanding of the change plan. Change initiatives need the full engagement of employees, and the leader needs to ensure that communication of the change vision is done to sustain the commitment of all employees. Preparing for a change process in the organisation will reduce resistance and assist with other concerns raised by the wider stakeholder group (Rosenbaum et al., 2018:297). Thus, planning for change requires a leader to consider its impact on subordinates (Van der Voet, 2016:672).

The current study results suggest that a change plan is a statistically non-significant determinant in the organisational change process in the SOEs and was not supported by a rotated component matrix (Chapter 6, Section 6.5.5). The results are therefore not consistent with the existing literature. Since a change plan is done at a strategic level, employees at the operational level feel left out in the process. The literature indicated that if top management did not envisage and articulate a change plan comprehensively, this would provide insufficient detail and was less likely to translate into a concrete, actionable project (Heyden et al., 2017:966). However, change agents can be found at any organisational level and leadership should embrace their role (i.e., create a guiding coalition (Kotter (1995) model's second step, Chapter 3, section 3.4), to produce a successful change plan (Heyden et al., 2017:977). The effectiveness of a change plan comes with the participation of all members at all levels of the organisation to assess and diagnose needful change to achieve goals and objectives (Ceulemans et al., 2015:8884).

- **Ha6** posited that there is a relationship between the change plan and change management. The results demonstrated that this is false; therefore, **Ho6** is not supported, and there is no relationship between the change plan and change management. (Table 7.1).

7.3   SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS ON THE HYPOTHESES

The hypotheses were tested in the study using Pearson's correlation coefficient to attain Objectives 3 and 4 (Chapter 6, Section 6.9). These objectives were aimed at finding factors that influence Leadership role (LR) and Organisational change management (OCM). The variables were tested with correlation coefficients, regression analysis, and the EFA (with an Eigenvalue above 1). The results supported the null hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 4, 7 and 8, but did not support the null hypotheses 5 and 6. Table 7.1 presents the results of all the hypotheses as discussed.

Table 7.1: Acceptance or rejection of the hypotheses

Null hypothesis (H_0)	Alternative hypothesis (Ha)	Outcome
$H_0 1$ There is no relationship between qualities of leadership role and drivers of change management.	Ha1 There is a relationship between qualities of leadership role and drivers of change management.	Ha1 fails to be rejected.
$H_0 2$ There is no relationship between capability and qualities of leadership role.	Ha2 There is a relationship between capabilities and qualities of leadership role.	Ha2 fails to be rejected.
$H_0 3$ There is no relationship between competencies and qualities of leadership role.	Ha3 There is a relationship between competencies and qualities of leadership role.	Ha3 fails to be rejected.
$H_0 4$ There is no relationship between principles and qualities of leadership role.	Ha4 There is a relationship between principles and qualities of leadership role.	Ho4 fails to be rejected.
$H_0 5$ There is no relationship between drivers of change and change management.	Ha5 There is a relationship between drivers of change and change management.	Ha5 is rejected and H_{A5} is accepted.
$H_0 6$ There is no relationship between the change plan and change management.	Ha6 There is a relationship between the change plan and change management.	$H_0 6$ is rejected and Ha6 is accepted.
$H_0 7$ There is no relationship between implementation process and organisational change and change management.	Ha7 There is a relationship between implementation process and organisational change and change management.	Ha7 fails to be rejected.
$H_0 8$ There is no relationship between predictors of organisational change and change management.	Ha8 There is a relationship between predictors of organisational change and change management.	$H_0 8$ fails to be rejected.
Ho9 There is no relationship between employee contributions and change management.	Ha9 There is a relationship between employee contributions and change management.	Ha9 fails to be rejected.

7.4 FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATIONS OF RESULTS (QUALITATIVE)

The main findings of the results for the qualitative phase are presented in the following sections.

7.4.1 Communication and Messaging for Change

The discussion of communication and messaging includes for change all the elements that are important to answer objectives 1 and 2 of the study. These are: communication and messaging, integration of structures, skills transfer, and challenges to leadership as they lead change. Communication and messaging are about providing employees with information necessary to know about the current change in the organisation. The leader needs to relay all the information vital for initiating change to ensure that employees know what they are supposed to do and remove the confusion and anxiety about the new situation. During the change process, the leader communicates with employees, including certain concepts that need to be used as a guideline for change. The first section of communication and messaging for change discusses the concepts that are included in messaging.

7.4.1.1 Concepts to include in messaging

Leaders' open communication inspires employees' attitudinal and behavioural responses towards change (Men et al., 2020:1). Question 5 (Annexure C, interview guide), was asked to participants: 'When the change process starts in your organisation, what concepts do you include in your messaging to highlight the importance of change?' During the interviews, most participants chose to say "discussion for decision" as a theme, as shown in Figure 6.3. The literature recommended regular discussions in the change process to ensure that the opinions and decisions of employees are taken seriously (Akan et al., 2016:53). Employee involvement increases change compliance because the decisions made during change are not a surprise to employees, and a high-performance rate usually follows (Hussain et al., 2016:124). The belief raises opportunities for employees as they have a voice in decision-making (Akan et al., 2016:58). Regular communication is essential during the change process; it alerts the employees about procedures for the change, allays the anxiety, and makes them more committed to change.

7.4.2 Engagement to Change

Question 6 was asked to participants: 'In your communication about change, what do you think drives employee's engagement to change to ensure that there is ongoing buy-ins to the change management processes?' Most participants answered by highlighting "Consistent communication", as shown in Figure 6.4. Driving employee's engagement to change means as a leader, one tries to encourage employees to have a positive attitude towards change.

Some of the activities include strategy formulation, communicating regularly with employees, and look at the skills that are present. Engagement means working together with employees to ascertain that they can make sense of the change. A link between engagement and coordinated communication ensures that the organisation works on change in an organised manner and evaluates the effectiveness of the change messaging. Leadership engagement with followers and the organisation at large contribute to a positive outlook of change processes (Holten & Brenner, 2015:2), and ensure that everyone is responsible for their actions during change (Cameron & Green, 2019:335). The change process will then become a success. The following sections discuss communication/messaging, and media.

7.4.2.1 Sensemaking and media

Sensemaking does not happen in isolation but in a context, such as objects, societal context, and organisation, which should be given consideration (Sandberg & Tsoukas, 2015:17). Sensemaking is usually considered when an individual is facing uncertainty or a crisis (Hill et al., 2015:33). In organisations, sensemaking may be facilitated by storytelling, such as communicating complex ideas or inspiring employees to change (Salicru, 2018:33). Question 6a was asked to participants: 'How do you ensure that change makes sense to everyone involved?' During the interviews, most participants, when asked about how they make sure that change make sense to employees, selected "continuous communication", as shown in Figure 6.5. Leaders should practice consistent two-way communication with employees, as influential leaders know that listening to employees during a change initiative is an essential step towards earning respect, trust, and support (Groysberg et al., 2018:47). However, if there are continuous clashes, a lack of steady leadership may negatively impact employee performance and insecurity of the future of change to sustain all employees' commitment (Qhobosheane, 2018:42). Change management needs the total engagement of employees. Moreover, the leader should ensure that communication of change should be regular to sustain the commitment of all employees.

7.4.2.2 Consistent communication

Consistent message means the leader repeatedly communicate the same message across all organisational areas, including departments. This is meant to bring an understanding to the employees or relevant stakeholders. Communication aims to ensure that all employees hear about the change. Consistent communication, therefore, ensures that communication becomes accessible in the organisation. Under this theme, participants generally opted for

"continuous communication" during the change process, as shown in Figure 6.6. The change management literature supports coordinated communication as it is instrumental in successful change implementation and should address the uneasiness of staff at all levels in the organisation (Al-Asfour & Lettau, 2014:61). Coordination means that the leader does the communication at a planned time, and that all the employees are involved in the communication session. Leaders should ensure that they communicate with diverse employees from each generational cohort within the organisation (i.e., Baby Boomers, born between 1946 and 1965; Gen X, born between 1966 and 1980; Gen Y, born between 1981 and 1994; and Gen Z, born in 1995 and after) to understand the change process (Armmer, 2017:1).

7.4.2.3   Evaluation of effectiveness

Evaluation of the effectiveness of change can overcome challenges embedded in the SOE environment. Organisational evaluation analyses' actions and outcomes help to execute an organisational plan more effectively and improve performance (Griffin et al., 2019:32). Under this question about the evaluation and effectiveness, "meeting regularly" was the point chosen by most participants as shown in Figure 6.7. In the evaluation process, discussions and communications should be shared with everyone involved (Suwandej, 2015:2215).

7.4.3   Key Messages Simplified and Visualised

Key messaging means that the organisation advertises the change process to stay in employees' or stakeholder's minds. When participants were asked in Question 7 about how the key messages of change are simplified and visualised to form change aptitude, "continuous communication" was highlighted by most participants, as shown in Figure 6.8. The literature on change management stated that the quality of continuous communication to the team encourages the employees to feel that they own the change as they move outside their traditional roles, and re-group (Zhivkov et al., 2019:83). The leader should ensure that this communication entails developing the vision, strategy, and culture for change to motivate employees to engage in the change process (Men et al., 2020:1). Key messaging of the vision should be continuous as it illustrates the future organisational state, how the strategy was formulated, and the new culture that should be adopted during the change process. The following section discusses how communication and messaging should be when it arrives to the employees.

7.4.3.1 Compelling story for change

In question 7a, participants were asked: 'How do you create a compelling story for change?' Leaders use a compelling story for key messages as a necessary part of leading successful change (Burk, 2019:1). Most participants chose "continuous communication", as shown in Figure 6.9. A compelling story sustains the changes over time and gives reasons why change happens. Continuous communication of these stories can provide direction to the organisation to explain what the organisation is trying to achieve (Burk, 2019:1). In other words, continuous communication of essential aspects of the change process should be done through storytelling so that employees do not forget.

7.4.4   Renewal of the Organisation

Change is a natural phenomenon and is fundamental to the renewal and lasting relevance of the organisation (O'Donovan, 2017:58). It implies that the organisation needs to move from the current state to the future state. However, this action should be kept in the minds of all stakeholders through continuous communication. The following section presents ways to keep communication and messaging consistent in the organisation.

7.4.4.1 Making change uppermost in the minds of subordinates

Participants were asked in Question 8: 'How do you make change to stay uppermost in the minds of subordinates, as a strategy that the organisation is pursuing?' "Continuous communication" was chosen by most participants, as shown in Figure 6.10. The literature supported that mindfulness "enhances the change leaders to interact with others in the organisation" and focuses on building capacity through resilience (Chesley & Wylson, 2016:317). Renewal requires the mindfulness of employees because everything taught about the new change needs to be remembered. Thus, the mind is an essential element in the change process. From exploring participants' experiences on communication or messaging, the researcher asked about their experience with integration or collaboration, during the change process.

7.4.5   Integration or Collaboration

As new structures or processes in the organisation are introduced because of change, the leadership should integrate them with the existing structures in the organisation to bring about an understanding to all involved. For example, a regular meeting in the organisation

may occur every second month because of the new processes of change that have to be included in the organisational programme. An ordinary line structure in the organisation may have some activities attached to it but should not be rigid. This section discusses the structures or processes that need to be integrated or to collaborate during the change process.

7.4.5.1 Structures or processes to collaborate first

The main reason for integrating structures or processes in the organisation is to ensure that there is no interruption in the organisational processes and that employees can regularly start reporting to the leaders during the change process. The participants were asked in Question 9: 'What structures or processes do you collaborate first to ensure that a change project receives the priority and support it needs within the organisation?' "Time management" was chosen by most participants, as shown in Figure 6.11. Classic models of organisational change demarcated time as essential for exploring radical changes (Smith et al., 2017:303). It means that whatever type of change it is, time management should be maintained to integrate structures or processes to ensure change success.

7.4.5.2 Management of structures and processes

Integration management is a process required to ensure that the different elements of the project in the change process are properly coordinated to meet the organisational goals on time.

Participants were asked in Question 9a: 'How do you manage to integrate these structures and processes?' The replies were provided by participants, as shown in Figure 6.12. "Time management" was emphasised in terms of achieving goals (FarajAllah et al., 2018:21). Therefore, time management should be taken into cognisance as various elements of the change project are coordinated in the organisation.

7.4.5.3 Parallel activities

The leadership aligns activities with changes that are happening in the organisation. Integration or collaboration of activities entails the delegation of responsibilities to teams in the change process, setting goals and a vision for change, regular meetings to discuss change issues, evaluating change effectiveness, and giving regular feedback on change progress. In these processes, there are directives that the leader must follow to ensure the success of

change management; these are referred to as the integration or collaboration of change procedures.

7.4.5.4 Integrate the new change procedures into existing work

A leader is not alone in its task of dealing with change activities as it is crucial to ensure that people's wellbeing is considered and that work procedures are maintained even during the change, since the organisation does not simply stop in its tracks and do nothing while the change is taking place (Burnes et al., 2018:141). Participants were asked in Question 10: 'How do you integrate the new change procedures into existing work?' "Time management" was again mentioned by most participants, as shown in Figure 6.13. The literature supported that leading change takes time and effort and leaving employees and managers unsure of adapting to a new situation of change should be avoided (Heifetz & Linsky, 2017:2). As the leader starts with the process of change, a set schedule should be drawn up to ensure that time is well managed during the change management process so that no activities are overlooked.

7.4.6 Skills Transfer

Skills transfer is a determinant for developing skills for employees so that the organisation can prosper. This means that the followers' ability is determined by the extent to which they possess the skills, experience, and knowledge needed to perform the task without the leader's intervention (Thompson & Glasø, 2018:575). It also means that the leader can share skills with employees during the change process. The role of a leader is to ensure that skills transfer, parallel activities, and desired behaviour are done in the organisational change management process. This section discusses skills transfer as the third type of experience the leader must have during the change management process.

7.4.6.1 Ensuring skills transfer

During the change process, the leadership should transfer skills and empowerment to employees because this act shows that the leader has the organisation's interest at heart. Therefore, leadership support is crucial during organisational change so that employees can display the required skills needed for the change (Al-Ali et al., 2017:725). Participants were asked in Question 11: 'Do you as a leader ensure that there are adequate skills transfer and empowerment of employees during organisational change? Please elaborate how that is achieved'. Most participants mentioned "good understanding" as a solution to this situation,

as shown in Figure 6.14. As the leader shares skills with subordinates, a good understanding of the concepts in change is essential. Interpersonal relationships need to be in a healthy state to ensure that the team can communicate among themselves and achieve a clear understanding of the roles and goals, and work together collaboratively (Cameron & Green, 2019:76). It implies that getting a good understanding of the concepts of change is paramount, but employees need to relate and communicate about new change activities without fear. The organisation is dependent on the leader to facilitate the collaboration between employees.

7.4.6.2 Parallel activities

Parallel activities are activities in the change process that co-exist with existing regular organisational duties. Participants were asked in Question 12: 'When the change management process is your main project, how do you ensure that parallel activities within the organisation do not affect this process?' Most participants mentioned "good understanding", as shown in Figure 6.15. The literature supported this by confirming that sensemaking is a process of understanding issues that people consider ambiguous, novel, and stressful (Maitlis & Christianson, 2014:1). Indeed, in the change management process, maintaining the existing tasks can be confusing but if the leader has helped employees to understand the need to both maintain the existing processes and move towards the new ones, they will receive information necessary to the change process.

7.4.6.3 Behaviour

Behaviour is a substance of value that indicates the readiness for work performance as it is modified by our actions (Hayes, 2016:869). It provides followers with a sense of collective identity, indicating job satisfaction, organisational citizenship, and a good culture (Lee & Li, 2015:12). Leaders have specific behaviour they want to see from employees and to adjust to change as it progresses. Participants were asked in Question 13: 'What is the desired behaviour you want to see in employees, as change progresses?' Most participants highlighted "positive behaviour", as shown in Figure 6.16. The literature supported this by stating that changes should be reflected in organisational policies to ensure that employees are not constrained by old systems, and to develop employees who can implement the new vision (Cameron & Green, 2019:337). Policies should be adapted to the new change process to ensure that employees take it seriously to move to the future, and not remain stagnant.

7.4.7   Challenges of the Change Management Process

There are numerous dynamics that leaders attempt to manage in an organisational change context, as recognised by Blom (2015:74), such as resistance, communication, involvement, profit, emotions, organisational survival, quality, and productivity. All these activities, when combined, cause challenges for a leader to handle. All challenges cannot be listed, but in this study, participants were asked to respond to the questions on leadership role, role conflict, skills expectations, implementation mechanism, support from the organisation, handling of challenges during change, and board members' contribution. The following section addresses challenges of the leaders as they lead organisational change.

7.4.7.1   Leadership role during change

Leaders are considered as the chief role players in dealing effectively with challenges in the organisation (Vasilescu, 2019:47). Participants were asked in Question 14: 'What is your role when there is a change process in your organisation?' Most participants mentioned "Communication of change" and "readiness assessment", as shown in Figure 6.17. This is supported by the literature, confirming that organisational change communication is critical for employee contributions (Dos Santos Costa et al., 2017:423). Leaders should prioritise communication about change issues during the change process. Employees' readiness should also be established before change starts to minimise resistance during the change process (Georgalis et al., 2015:107). Communication about change and readiness assessment ensure that employees understand why change must happen, and to determine whether they are ready for the change process. If they are not ready, then mechanisms need to be put in place to prepare them for the change.

7.4.7.2   Role conflict

Role conflict occurs when a leader has additional responsibilities. Participants were asked in Question14a: 'How do you continue your role as the leader of the organisation and ensure that your additional role as a change agent is not affected?' The literature supported that change in the organisation affects all processes; to avoid this, a change process should be well-planned and flexible (Al-Haddad & Kotnour, 2015:251). Clear demarcation of change, organisational processes, and dates should be outlined to avoid conflicting tasks.

7.4.7.3 Skills possessed by the leader at the beginning of change

Participants were asked in Question15: 'When you were given the task of leading change in your organisation, what skills and abilities did you possess?' Most participants responded by stating "communication skills", as shown in Figure 6.19. The literature states that the use of social media enhances employee organisational relationships when used for communication (Men, 2015:461). Leaders should use social media to communicate with employees to ensure that communication does not become an obstacle to updating employees on change issues. Most employees have cellular phones and use social media. The leader can select WhatsApp or SMS to ensure that change communication is kept alive.

7.4.7.4 Expectations from the organisation

Under normal circumstances, change leaders' competencies can be shown by communicating effectively, coordinate processes or structures in the organisation, and commit to change that will easily influence followers. Participants were asked in Question 16: 'What expectations from the organisation were associated with the role of leading change, and were those expectations achievable?' Most participants mentioned "proper work to change", as shown in Figure 6.20. The leader's proper work in leadership is seen in being able to anticipate activities, imagine possibilities, maintain flexibility, and create a culture that empowers others to embrace organisational change (Dada et al., 2021:162). The leadership should anticipate resistance when initiating change. Therefore, to deal with this, the leader should remove all barriers and have a good interpersonal relationship with followers to ensure an organisational "comfort zone" for employees during the stressful times of change.

7.4.7.5 Implementation timeframe and planning cycles

An implementation mechanism refers to the strategies used for organisational change. Participants were asked in question 17: 'What mechanisms did you use to coordinate implementation, varying timeframes, and planning cycles for the change process?' Most participants responded by mentioning "continuous communication", as shown in Figure 6.21. Communication is considered the way to mobilise employees and to persuade them to embrace change (Petrou et al., 2018:1767). To ensure employee contributions, the leadership should have an open-door policy to ensure continuous communication. The leader should not restrict employees to come to their office to discuss their problems when an appointment

is made. Those interpersonal relationships that the leader develops should be enhanced by open communication.

7.4.7.6 Support from the organisation

Participants were asked in Question 18: What type of support did you receive when you first introduced change? Most participants responded by stating "organisational support", as shown in Figure 6.19. Top leadership, employees, and the board members should be committed to supporting the leader during organisational change (Georgalis et al., 2015:106). The literature supported this by stating commitment to support the leader in implementing organisational change is encouraged amongst all employees. The board members should also give support to the leaders of change and should question them if undesirable outcomes are observed. Freedom should be exercised in the organisation to ensure that the board members are not afraid to ask questions.

7.4.7.7 Handling of challenges

Participants were asked in Question 19: 'How did you handle challenges in the organisation during the change management process?' Most participants responded by mentioning "create understanding" and "continuous communication", as shown in Figure 6.23. The literature supported this by stating that knowledge dissemination supports transparency, responsiveness, common language, and shared understanding (Leal-Rodríguez et al., 2015:805). Open communication is essential during a change process to ensure that employees understand all steps involved and should be fee to consult with a leader if something is amiss. The leadership should calmly handle all challenges during change.

7.4.7.8 Board members' contributions

Participants were asked in Question 20: 'Can you explain how the board members contribute towards the change plan and implementation in your organisation?' Most participants highlighted that the board members are not involved in planning and implementation during change, as shown in Figure 6.24. Board members may require further professionalisation and shielding from political influences, as they may not provide support to the leaders or exercise control effectively (OECD, 2014:7). Even when the board is not involved, they should create an environment of accountability so that the leadership does not take decisions on behalf of them.

7.5   CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presented the study's main findings for both the quantitative and qualitative phases. The quantitative phase presented the integrated model for the study. The findings of the quantitative phase also presented the main results on organisational change management and leadership role, capabilities and leadership role, competencies and leadership role, principles and leadership role, implementation process and organisational change and organisational change management, predictors of organisational change, employee contributions and organisational change management, drivers of change and organisational change management, and change plan and organisational change management. This was followed by a summary of the findings on the hypotheses.

The main findings of the qualitative phased discussed communication and messaging for change, key messages simplified and visualised, renewal of the organisation, integration or collaboration, skills transfer, leadership role during change, skills posed by the leader at the beginning of change, expectations from the organisation, implementation timeframe and planning cycles, support from the organisation, the handling of challenges, and board members' contributions.

The next chapter presents the summary, conclusion, and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER 8

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents a summary of the research, and the study's objectives are revisited. Next, implications of the research and the significance of the study are presented, followed by the study's contribution. Finally, the study's limitations are discussed, and recommendations flowing from the study's findings and the areas for future research are also presented.

8.2   SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH

Chapter 1 introduced the study by explaining the researcher's motivation, background, problem statement, research questions, objectives, and hypotheses. Next, the study was placed in the current literature context, and identified knowledge gaps were discussed. A brief literature review was presented, focusing on the role of leadership, change management, and South African's SOEs' functions. Further, a discussion of the research methodology adopted in the study and ethical considerations, limitations, delimitations, and assumptions were discussed.

The chapter concluded with an outline of the thesis.

Chapter 2 presented the literature review on leadership in a change context and highlighted the role of leadership and the benefits of the leadership role. The leadership theories and styles based on the qualities that the leader portrays in the organisation were discussed. The alignment of leadership theories and styles highlighted the research that has been conducted regarding leaders' beliefs, decision-making, situational analysis, and organisational culture. The literature revealed differences between capabilities and competencies that contribute to the leader's effectiveness. The leadership literature focused on building relationships with employees and creating commitment in the workplace. Employee support by the leader contributes to their followers' participation effectiveness. Open communication by the leader ensures that goals are shared with employees. Leadership and employees' commitment were highlighted as the main driver of change in an organisation. Leadership creates the organisational culture adopted in the change process.

Chapter 3 presented the theoretical framework of the organisational change management process. The nature of change management and the types of organisational change were discussed. The role of leadership in the change process was also highlighted. A study on themes of the change process was done by Bigdeli et al. (2015:3) and highlighted the role of leadership in the change process. This was followed by discussing various change methods and change management models. A comparative analysis of the change management models was also presented. Drivers of change looking at internal and external imperatives were also highlighted. Communication in the change process was found to be essential organisational agility, and knowledge acquisition. Change planning was discussed, and a study on change plans was done by Wang et al. (2020:1), illustrating that successful change requires employee readiness at the beginning of the change process. Resources that are required for organisational change were also presented. A study conducted by Donnelly and Kirk (2015) has shown that resources need to be identified before change starts to ensure change success. Change implementation was discussed, including change success as all organisations desire it. Organisational aspects that need attention during change entail generational diversity, organisational culture, and basic theories to affect organisational change.

Chapter 4 introduced the South African SOEs and gave an overview of SOEs; and SOEs in the SADC region were also discussed. The governing of SOEs in South Africa was presented, including a classification of SOE categories in South Africa. The PFMA No. 29 of 1999 and the Company's Act No. 71 of 2008 were discussed and described how the organisation under these Acts functions. The roles and responsibilities of SOEs were presented. Publicly known challenges from media sources were also highlighted. Additionally, challenges for change in SOEs, including changes on organisational, leadership, and change management levels, were discussed.

Chapter 5 discussed the research methodology and illustrated the use of the quantitative and qualitative methods. Next, the research approach and design were discussed, including the research philosophy and paradigm, quantitative and qualitative pilots, and data cleaning of the variables. Furthermore, the mixed method orientation of the study was discussed. This was followed by the population and sampling methods adopted in this study. The research instruments (questionnaire and interview guide), and an outline of these instruments were presented. Data collection for the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study was

highlighted, followed by the data analysis for both phases. The study's validity, reliability, and trustworthiness were presented, including how these were achieved in the study. Hypotheses testing, questionnaire and interview guide outlines, elimination of bias, and the ethical consideration, were also presented.

Chapter 6 presented the quantitative and qualitative results and findings of the study. The quantitative data analyses were presented, namely, the biographical and background information of participants. Data validity for the exploratory factor analysis was discussed. The reliability of constructs was presented, for the valid and reliable factors. Pearson's correlation was tested to examine all the constructs considered for the study. Regression analysis for the constructs was done to model the relationship between the dependent decision and independent decision variables. Furthermore, the SEM was used for the final model of the study. For the qualitative data analysis, the background information of participants was presented. Themes and content analysis were drawn from the interview sessions and the results from: communication and messaging for change, the integration or collaboration of systems or structures, and skills transfer, were presented. This was followed by the challenges of the change management process in SOEs.

Chapter 7 presented the interpretation of the findings from Chapter 6 on the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study. Various factors influenced the leadership role during the change management process in South African SOEs, and the integrated model for the study was presented in Figure 7.1. Both significant and insignificant factors in the study and a summary of the findings on the hypotheses, were presented. The main findings of the results and the interpretation of the qualitative phase were also presented.

This chapter is the concluding chapter, and presents a summary of the research, and the objectives are revisited and links the literature study and research results, as discussed in chapter 6. Implications of the research and the significance of the study are also presented. The contribution of the study includes practical, theoretical, and methodological contributions. The limitations of the study are discussed, recommendations are made, and future research areas are presented.

8.3   REVISITING THE OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Table 8.1 revisits the primary and secondary objectives of the study, provides a short outline of the literature, and presents the main findings of the study.

Table 8.1: Revisiting the objectives of the study

Primary objective	Literature outline	Main findings
To investigate the role of leadership in change management in South African State-Owned Enterprises.	A structural equation model (SEM) was developed in the study to guide the change management process (Figure 7.1). Models are mostly directed to senior leaders to guide them on the implementation of change (Stouten et al., 2018:753). Models specify the sequence of events that need to be taken in various organisational change processes (Stouten et al., 2018:754) (section 3.7). The common model for change used in SOEs is the ADKAR model (section 3.7.7). The ADKAR model creates awareness, the desire to participate, employees need knowledge, ability, and reinforcement. However, the researcher considers that the leader is skilled with the qualities of leadership. Therefore, leadership capabilities, competencies and principles have an influence on change.	A structural equation model (SEM) was developed in the study to guide the change management process (Figure 7.1). Models are mostly directed to senior leaders to guide them on the implementation of change (Stouten et al., 2018:753). Models specify the sequence of events that need to be taken in various organisational change processes (Stouten et al., 2018:754) (section 3.7).
Secondary objectives	**Literature outline**	**Main findings**
Describe leadership experiences in the initiation of change management processes. (qualitative)	Leadership experiences wanted to ascertain that the leader can prepare messaging for change, integrate systems and skills transfer to employees during the change process (section 2.11). The author found similar circumstances (chapter 3 section 3.5), as mentioned by Bigdeli et al. (2015 3).	The SOE leadership have various strategies to enter a change process, but it varies from organisation to organisation. The experiences for leadership entailed concepts to include in messaging (Figure 6.3). This composed seven themes, but discussion for decision, good understanding, and messaging on point, were great to the participants. Skill transfer (see Figure 6.14) composed seven themes, but good understanding, uplifting employees, and good practical examples, were highly favoured. Parallel activities (part of integrate systems) had five themes; however, good understanding, training of employees, no interference with work and design of change, and lack of products should be limited (see Figure 6. 15).

Table 8.1: Revisiting the objectives of the study (continued)

Secondary objective	Literature outline	Main findings
Establish what challenges exist regarding change management implementation in South African SOEs. (qualitative)	Employees in public organisations are often found to be opposing the change process due to a lack of effective communication, low participation in decision-making, and barriers to social, cultural, structural, and political nature of the environment (Aslam et al., 2018:149) (sections 4.5.2.2 and 4.6.33).	The following are the challenges experienced by SOEs in change management implementation (see Figure 6.20, Figure 6.21, Figure 6.22, and Figure 6.24): • The board members are not extensively involved in change processes. • Expectations from the organisation • Proper work for change • Time management, and quick response to change were significant for the change process. • Implementation of time- frames and the planning cycle. • Continuous communication, impact management, and training programmes were key issues. • Support from the organisation. • Lack of organisational support and leadership support were claimed to be important in the change process.
Determine the effect of the leadership role on successful change management processes in SOEs. (quantitative)	Once participation in the change process is established, change implementation is predictable; and at this point, more coalitions are identified, and social interaction and alliance are formed (Hussain et al., 2016:125).	The leadership role has a positive influence on organisational change management (see Figure 7.1).
Evaluate the relationship between leadership qualities (leadership capabilities, competencies and principles) and of change management (drivers of change, change plan, change implementation and change success) in South African SOEs. (quantitative)	The leadership literature focuses more on the relationship with employees i.e., transformation and transactional leadership (section 2 11.1). Capabilities, competencies, and leadership principles are not used to determine leadership effectiveness (chapter 2, section 2.7 to 2.9). Most change processes mainly look at employee resistance.	Leadership capabilities, competencies, and principles have a positive influence on the leadership role. The implementation process and organisational change (IPOC), predictors of organisational change (POC), and employee contributions (EC) have a positive influence on organisational change management.

Source: Author's own compilation

8.4   IMPLICATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

This research included the development of a change model with new leadership skills instead of the relational skills that the leader has with the employees. The implications for SOEs are such that if SOEs could focus on leadership skills like capabilities, competencies, and principles of leadership, this would facilitate an evaluation of leaders' effectiveness from the board level to the organisation. As change is often not successful in organisations, Implementation process and organisational change (IPOC), Prediction of change (POC), and Employee Contributions (EC) in the organisational change model would set professional standards that can be followed to improve organisational change outcomes in the SOEs. If transformational and transactional leadership styles could be used minimally and the RARE model was applied, the effectiveness of a leader would then be enhanced.

Effective leaders, who understand the IPOC, POC, ECs and internal and external imperatives, should apply ethical standards in what they do. This thesis will be provided in an electronic format to the Department of Public Enterprises (DPEs) and to participants on request, while presentations will also be offered when requested. Some SOEs that participated in the study requested a presentation once the study is completed.

8.5   SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study acknowledged that the leadership literature deals with leadership styles extensively; however, the existing styles of leadership still focus on their shared identity with employees. The significance of the research contributes to knowledge in both practical and theoretical ways. The trustworthiness of the leader was constantly open to doubt. Research scholars should include the RARE principles of Ngambi (2011a), to broaden the scope of leadership studies and include capabilities and competencies in leadership studies. Popular leadership styles, such as the transformational and transactional styles, show only the influence that the leader has on the subordinates. Leadership scholars and practitioners may find the RARE principles relevant in addressing current problems of ethical issues with the leaders.

This research contributes to existing leadership principles that are ignored in the literature. Theoretically, the significance is that between 1977 and 2021, over 1.4 million articles were published on leadership styles (as indicated on the Google Scholar database – other databases may reveal even more). Of these, only 1 430 articles have included Ngambi's

(2011) RARE principles and 1 000 of these have focused on leadership in public enterprises, while ten articles focused specifically on change management in SOEs. This study therefore adds to the literature on leadership and change management.

SOEs are important in South Africa's economy and have been established to deal with the pressing issues of unemployment, poverty alleviation, and social justice. Therefore, the leadership in SOEs needs to be highly effective. Furthermore, as the young political democracy develops, change is inevitable. The contention of this thesis is that leaders of SOEs need to manage these changes to achieve their mandates. The model formulated in this study (Figure 7.1) shows that capabilities, competencies, and principles of leadership are paramount in implementing the change process; and change success needs to be evident if the SOEs are to meet their organisational goals.

8.6 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

This study provides essential findings for leadership practitioners and academics on the elements influencing leadership roles in change management in South African SOEs. The following are the contributions of the thesis to the practice, theory, and methodology:

8.6.1 Practical Contributions

This thesis provides academics and leadership practitioners with guidance on leadership role adaptation through a model formulated using capabilities, competencies, and principles to implement change successfully. The model may assist leadership practitioners to manage the change process, considering the variables as discussed in Chapter 7, section 7.2.

8.6.2 Theoretical Contributions

The study established the role of leaders of SOEs in South Africa and how they facilitated organisational change processes. The researcher studied how South African SOEs facilitate change. The functions of selected State-Owned Enterprises (chapter 1, section 1.7.3.1) were investigated.

The researcher conducted three chapters on the literature review, namely, on leadership, organisational change, and challenges of SOEs at the organisational, leadership, and change management levels (chapter 4, section 4.6.1, 4.6.2, and 4.6.3). The challenges of the SOE business environment, the SADC, OECD, and their functions were discussed. Some SOEs

outsource functions (i.e., change management processes) to external stakeholders or consultants. When the task is complete, consultants could provide training to the SOE leadership or senior employees. The literature review (chapter 3) has shown that the culture of an organisation is vital; however, SOEs in South Africa are involved in some 'scandals.' It appears as if the leadership of these SOEs are not upskilled, and ethical conduct is ignored.

Furthermore, leadership still focused on relations with employees even if there is a call for capabilities, competencies, and principles of leadership to be used, instead of common types of leadership, such as the transformational and transactional types of leadership. According to the Department of Public Enterprises, some SOEs do not fall under them, e.g., Armscor and the DBSA (chapter 1, section 1.10). SOEs are government institutions; however, they do not fall under a single body and are separated. The study is first of its kind conducted in South Africa, as other studies mainly focus on the challenges of SOEs. Therefore, this study focuses on leadership effectiveness rather than on the interpersonal skills with employees. SOEs selected for this study were benchmarked against world standards and included an African perspective of the RARE leadership principles.

8.6.3   Methodological Contributions

The methodological contributions of the study are as follows:

8.6.3.1   Philosophical approaches

The study used mixed method research to investigate the role of leadership in change management in South African SOEs. In the quantitative phase of the research, the study employed a positivist and deductive philosophy. In the positivist design, eight hypotheses were formulated. Six hypotheses failed to be rejected, and two hypotheses were rejected in the study. The factors that were accepted in the hypotheses were included in the SEM, which showed their beta and *p-values* were significant and that there was a positive relationship between the role of leadership and organisational change.

In the qualitative phase of the research, a constructivist and inductive approach was used. Leaders who were participants in the interviews were the unit of analysis. These leaders and executive managers were familiar with the change processes and had insight into the central workings of leading change in the SOE environment. The study aimed to investigate the leadership role in the change management process, not the organisation. Leadership

participation is usually at a strategic level and not at the operational level of change. The organisation's point of view was included in the survey questionnaire to triangulate the information obtained from the leaders of change.

8.6.3.2   Data collection methods

Data collection methods in research are unlikely to provide 100% coverage, and to involve all participants in the population to take part is impossible. The questionnaires were confined to 120 participants and eight participants from four SOEs participated in the interviews. Questionnaires allowed participants from various levels to respond; however, it was a challenge to obtain the email addresses of participants to remind them to complete the questionnaires and to improve the data collection for the study.

8.6.3.3   Data analysis

Data analyses for the quantitative phase started with the biographical and background information of participants, as presented in chapter 6, Table 6.1. Data cleaning was done to test for skewness or kurtosis of the variables. Hypotheses testing and Pearson's correlation were used to enable the testing of the dependent variable. Leadership role was the independent variable, and organisational change was the dependent variable. This was the critical input to the SEM in Chapter 6, Figure 6.1.

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to ensure the validity of the research instruments, and reliability was used with ANOVA and multiple regression. The Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to test the variables in the SEM. All tests performed in data analysis were significant to the formulation of the model, since their beta and *p-values* were within the requirements of the tests that were conducted.

8.7   LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study's limitations are beyond the control of the researcher and can arise anywhere in the research. The leadership literature relating to the roles of employees, their health, and wellbeing is scarce; instead, it focuses on leadership performance (Barling & Frone, 2017:213). The definitions of leadership are open to criticism as followers have been found to be an important aspect of leadership, and this appear to be a gap in the literature.

The scope of the study was limited to leadership in Schedule 2 SOEs in South Africa. Leadership is a global phenomenon in the field of social science. However, this study could be conducted in any sector to see if the outcome will be similar. The global context of leadership is ever-changing and could provide a broader scope for research if all styles and principles of leadership were considered.

The population of this study was limited to Schedule 2 public enterprises in South Africa. The population of public enterprises is nearly 700 SOEs and it was impossible to contact all of them. The sample comprised of four of the 700 SOEs in South Africa. Initially, the researcher obtained approval from other Schedule 2 (major) SOEs; however, this was later cancelled due to limited commitment from some SOEs to participate in the study.

A major limitation in this study was the time horizon. The researcher's study leave was granted for 24 months, and thus, a cross-sectional study on leadership was done. A longitudinal study could be conducted by other scholars and/or researchers and over an extended period. However, this limitation did not influence the results of the study and the objectives of the study were met.

Studies on leadership focus on the types of leadership of which we are familiar with. The most common leadership styles are the transformational and transactional leadership styles. In most research, leadership theories look at leadership in isolation. The application of the RARE leadership principles by Ngambi (2011:7) are under-researched. This has resulted in a considerable gap in the literature examining the RARE leadership principles, compared to better-researched models and leadership theories (Pityana, 2018:73). Change management is well researched in private organisations but has not been extensively researched in SOEs in South Africa.

Furthermore, several weeks passed by without responses to the online questionnaires (quantitative phase) by participants, despite weekly reminders. The researcher had to visit the HRM departments of the SOEs to discuss issues because no replies to emails were received by the researcher.

8.8   RECOMMENDATIONS

Results of the quantitative and qualitative designs in this study as they relate to the research questions and objectives gave rise to certain recommendations, which are as follows:

- Currently, there is disproportionately more male than female employees in SOEs. A recruitment drive and talent search should focus on younger adults. There is a dearth of doctoral candidates; therefore, it should be prioritised to fill senior leadership positions. Most employees have less than 20 years tenure in their organisations, which necessitates the implementation of retention strategies, such as in-post training, improvement of salaries, and fringe benefits.

- On capabilities, the results have shown that leadership needs to empower and support employees and establish interpersonal relationship, in order to create a successful organisational change process.

- With regard to competencies, leadership has to be dependable behaviourally by employees, such that the skills of employees are addressed, provide feedback on all change activities, and encourage employee performance to achieve organisational goals.

- Concepts of leadership, such as the capabilities, competencies, and principles of leadership, should be considered in organisational change. It is important to note that capabilities and competencies are dissimilar. An individual in a new leadership role might have capabilities, whereas an experienced leader may become competent over time.

- Leadership principles bring together skills, such as responsibility, accessibility to a leader, relevance, and ethical leadership, and ensure that ethical standards are met in organisational change. In addition, high levels of commitment by all stakeholders and allowing employee contributions to discussions, supporting employees and be willing to serve customers, will make the organisational change process more sustainable.

- Realistic timeframes to complete the change project do not have to be a hindrance to a leader to perform other routine activities in the organisation. They should be seen as trustworthy to followers, so that employees are committed to change and have a positive attitude. These acts will make the change process successful.

- Regarding change, SOEs in South Africa need to refocus and use their leaders on change management, instead of outsourcing activities to external change agents, since the process becomes unsustainable.

- Furthermore, it is recommended that SOEs use the model as presented in Chapter 7, Figure 7.1, to guide the change process. The model offers both the dependent and independent variables that can assist organisations to focus on leadership and

successful change management. In addition, it is recommended that leadership and employee goals should be similar to avoid resistance to change.

- When implementing change, the organisation should align its activities to ensure a successful change process.

- As a predictor of change, it is recommended that the leadership should communicate a clear vision for change, upskill employees, and ensure that the acquired skills are ready to be used to overcome skills shortage challenges that may hinder the implementation of change.

- It is also advised that leaders should organise all resources before the change process begins to ensure that change activities flow smoothly.

- Leaders and employees' learning is important as change activities are challenging. It will ensure that knowledge will enhance the commitment for change.

- With regard to the messaging for change to various stakeholders (including employees), it is recommended that posters, face-to-face meetings, and electronic communication should be used as media to explain the reasons for the change, and the impact on the organisation. It is also recommended that communicating change should be consistent to invoke stakeholder buy-in, sensemaking should exist, and be able to evaluate its effectiveness.

- It is recommended that leaders should ensure that routine processes do not clash with change processes by allocating time and other resources for each (change) activity.

- Furthermore, employees should be adequately trained to acquire new skills and knowledge to make them ready for a change process.

- As challenges may emanate from various sources, it is recommended that a sufficient budget be allocated to run the change process efficiently, early adopters of change be utilised to support other peer employees, and timely institute conflict resolution mechanisms and targeted training where skills shortages exist and to resolve the various challenges.

- SOEs should also improve their corporate governance to increase economic growth in South Africa. Such a growth trajectory may result in increased investment and employment opportunities. The change process also involves procurement processes. Thus, corruption and political interference has made governance from procurement to be impossible to implemented. South Africa has world-class

policies and standards; however, procurement practises are still not in compliance with the law (Gray, 2021:1).

- Finally, the impact of state capture in SOE procurement operations has had the effect of wasted resources, such as fruitless expenditures (Gray, 2021:3), which hamper change processes. SOEs are placed in the civic space to consider exploitation by third parties. Gray (2021:7) further notes that the National Treasury has exercised poor oversight on SOE procurement, despite the Public Procurement Act specifying how procurement should be conducted. SOEs may be placed in critical procurement positions to claim emergency status, in order to avoid deeper levels of scrutiny or bypass approval.

8.9   AREAS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The following future research directions are presented:

- The study was conducted on SOEs in South Africa and could be extended to other countries and regions.
- The population could be increased to include SOEs as listed in chapter 4, Table 4.1, as only Schedule 2 SOEs were included in this study. Future research could therefore use a larger number of participants.
- A comparative study could be conducted with private institutions to see how participants respond to the RARE principles of leadership. These principles need to be used extensively in organisations in South Africa to improve ethical standards of leadership.
- In addition, a longitudinal study could be conducted on the leadership role. The study could be repeated on South African SOEs after five to 10 years, to establish if the leadership role in change management has improved with the use of the RARE principles.

8.10   SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

The previous chapter discussed the findings of the study. The objective of this chapter was to revisit the research process as followed in the study and explain the role of leadership during change management in South African SOEs. The research was evaluated against the research questions, objectives, and the hypotheses. The literature review provided context to the field of leadership, change management, and SOEs. Furthermore, the model as

proposed in the study should be used by change leaders and who are internal to the organisation (SOE). The leadership role in this model is therefore critical for change management in SOEs. The study also emphasised the sound change management processes. The success rate of SOEs will improve if their leadership becomes part of their internal change management processes. Change can therefore not be operated by external consultants or stakeholders. Ultimately, the leadership and all employees should be part of these processes to ensure the success and sustainability of these organisations.

8.11 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the role of leadership in change management in SOEs. The literature review focused on leadership in a change context, organisational change management, and SOEs in South Africa. The study was limited to four of the 21 Schedule 2 SOEs, namely Transnet, Armscor, the DBSA, and Safcol. Permission was granted by the DPE to conduct the study. A mixed research method was followed, using a questionnaire for the quantitative phase of the study, while an interview guide was used for the qualitative phase. A total of 120 participants completed the questionnaire and eight interviews were conducted with participants from the four SOEs.

The model developed from the study encapsulated leadership and change management in terms of capabilities, competencies, and principles of leadership, the implementation process and change, predictors of organisational change, and employee contributions. The model emphasised the use of leadership skills throughout the change process. These skills indicated that leadership abilities at capability and competency levels work together with the RARE principles of leadership, instead of using other well-known leadership theories and styles, such as the transformational and transactional styles. The model, as proposed in the study, will therefore ensure that change management is successfully implemented. It is expected that, by using this model, SOEs would become viable and experience success in organisational change. The change process has a failure rate of more than 70%, which is not desirable for any SOE. The study highlighted the importance of employee trust in leadership to create the commitment to the change management process. The leadership of SOEs should lead change management processes with cognisance of the RARE principles of being responsible, accountable, relevant, and ethical.

The role of leadership in change management in South African SOEs is therefore critical. If SOEs are to succeed in organisational change management, the focus of the leadership should be on the significant aspects of their leadership capabilities, leadership competencies, and leadership principles.

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Appendix A: Ethics clearance certificate

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UNISA DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS MANAGEMENT RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

20 August 2019

Dear Veronica Mkhabela

> **Decision: Ethics Approval**
> **From 20 August 2019 to**
> **19 August 2024**

ERC Reference #: 2019_CEMS_BM_084

Name: Veronica Mkhabela

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> **The role of leadership on change management in State Owned Enterprises.**

Qualification: PHD degree

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the UNISA Department of Business Management Ethics Review Committee for the above-mentioned research. Ethics approval is granted for 5 years, from 20 August 2019 to 19 August 2024.

> The **low risk application** was **reviewed** by the Department of Business Management Ethics Review Committee on 24 July 2019 in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment. The decision will be tabled at the next Committee meeting on 29 August 2019.

The proposed research may now commence with the provisions 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 should be communicated in writing to the Department of Business Management Ethics Review Committee.

3. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.

4. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing, accompanied by a progress report.

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. Adherence to the following South African legislation is important, if applicable: Protection of Personal Information Act, no 4 of 2013; Children's act no 38 of 2005 and the National Health Act, no 61 of 2003.

6. Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in future on condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data requires additional ethics clearance.

7. No field work activities may continue after the expiry date (19 August 2024). Submission of a completed research ethics progress report will constitute an application for renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.

Note:

*The reference number **2019_CEMS_BM_084** should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants, as well as with the Committee.*

Yours sincerely,

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Appendix B: Questionnaire

Dear Participant

You are invited to participate in the study entitled: "The role of leadership in change management in South African State-Owned Enterprises (SOE)". One of the criteria in selecting your organisation is that it should be a fully state-owned enterprise. The approval to conduct the research has been obtained from the Department of Public Enterprises. All responses are completely anonymous and will not be traced back to a particular individual. The results of the study will be used for research purposes only.

This questionnaire is for managers and employees who have participated in any change process in this organisation (excluding those who participated in the pilot study and interviews). The aim of this study is to evaluate the role of leadership in the change management process in South African Sate-Owned Enterprises. The results of the study will be used to improve on leaderships' roles as they lead the SOEs during change management processes.

It should take you about 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire. There are no wrong or right answers. Your participation in the study is greatly appreciated but be reminded that participation is voluntary. The information collected will be treated with confidentiality, and your anonymity is guaranteed.

INSTRUCTIONS
1. Kindly respond to all the questions.
2. The questionnaire consists of 56 questions. Please answer all questions.
3. Indicate your appropriate answer by clicking in the applicable option.
4. Choose only one option.

We thank you for participating in the survey.

Please complete the following details for the purpose of the research, by marking the box that applies to you, using the letter (X).

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL AND BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1.   Gender

Male	1	Female	1

2.   What is your age? (Give your answer in years). ………………………….

3.   Post level

Supervisor	1	Middle manager		2	Senior manager	3	Employee	4

4.   Academic qualifications

Matric	1	Certificate	2	Diploma	3	Degree	4	Honours	5	Masters	6	Doctorate	7

5.   What are your years of experience in the organisation? …………………..

6.   Organisation

Denel	1	Transnet	2	Armscor	3	DBSA	4	Safcol	5

SECTION B: THE LEADERSHIP ROLE

This section of the survey questionnaire relates to the leadership of the organisation. Please tick the answer in the questionnaire by choosing ONE statement which is appropriate to you.

LEADERSHIP CAPABILITIES		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
		1	2	3	4	5
LCa 1	Leadership has a clear vision of the changes they wish to achieve.					
LCa 2	Leadership uses open communication to share change goals with employees.					
LCa 3	Leadership ensures that the complex situations of change make sense to employees.					
LCa 4	Leadership has a good interpersonal relationship with the employees.					
LCa 5	Leadership continuously supports the employees during the change process.					
LCa 6	Leadership ensures that organisational culture is adapted to the change initiative.					
LCa 7	Leadership's ability to manage change motivates the employees to perform.					
LCa 8	Leadership is instrumental in driving the change process following statements.					

On a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 =

Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree, indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the

LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
		1	2	3	4	5
LCo 1	Leadership proactively provides relevant information regarding the envisaged change.					
LCo 2	Leadership displays a dependable behaviour during the change process.					
LCo 3	Leadership addresses skills development for all employees during the change process.					
LCo 4	Leadership encourages employees to adopt a learning mind-set during change.					
LCo 5	Leadership stimulates creative problem-solving methods during change.					
LCo 6	Leadership encourages employees to enable them to achieve organisational goals.					
LCo 7	Leadership provides positive feedback to encourage employee performance.					
LCo 8	Leadership is able to navigate turbulent times and uncertainty during change.					

LEADERSHIP PRINCIPLES		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
		1	2	3	4	5
LP 1	Leadership sets realistic timeframes to make changes possible.					
LP 2	Leadership serves as a role model to those around them.					
LP 3	Leadership is easily accessible if required during the change process.					
LP 4	Leadership operates in an ethical climate during the change process.					
LP 5	Leaders take responsibility for their role in achieving effective governance in the organisation.					
LP 6	Followers who consider leaders trustworthy are more likely to display a commitment towards change.					
LP 7	Knowledge-sharing by leaders empowers employees to work together towards a common goal.					
LP 8	Leadership resolves challenges in a timeous manner.					

SECTION C: ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE MANAGEMENT

This section of the survey questionnaire relates to the organisational change management. Please answer the questionnaire by choosing ONE statement which is appropriate to you. Use an (**X**) to indicate the answer you have chosen.

On a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree, indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements.

DRIVERS OF CHANGE		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
		1	2	3	4	5
DC 1	Leadership and employee change in behaviour and attitudes contribute towards driving change.					
DC 2	Change communication provides useful information, thereby keeping employees committed to drive change.					
DC 3	Development of talent is required to fill the critical roles that drive organisational change.					
DC 4	The organisation adjusts as service requirements change in the marketplace.					
DC 5	Changes in the organisation are triggered by a new political agenda.					
DC 6	Changes reflected in organisational policies ensure that employees are not constrained by the old systems.					
DC 7	Changes in the legal environment led to organisational change for the purpose of compliance with the law.					
DC 8	Economic trends are currently the most common drivers of change in the organisation.					

CHANGE PLAN		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
		1	2	3	4	5
CP 1	The change plan consists of well-coordinated activities aligned with goals.					
CP 2	The change plan initiative requires involvement of employees.					
CP 3	Employees encourage each other to support the change plan.					
CP 4	Planning separates the past from the present state of change.					
CP 5	Planning involves in-depth understanding of processes and clarifies why change should happen.					
CP 6	Planning creates a sense of urgency for change.					
CP 7	Planning for change requires a leader to consider the impact it has on subordinates.					
CP 8	Resources needed for the change process are allocated according to plan.					

CHANGE IMPLEMENTATION		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
		1	2	3	4	5
CI 1	Implementation process is seen as actioning the change plan.					
CI 2	Implementation process makes the organisation to be different compared to before change.					
CI 3	Activities in the implementation of change are aligned with the organisational processes.					
CI 4	A collaborative workforce towards implementation of change leads to successful employees.					
CI 5	Skills that employees possess create an assertion of effective implementation of change.					
CI 6	Leadership skills are great predictors for successful change implementation.					
CI 7	Change implementation takes technology into account in order to improve operational efficiency.					
CI 8	The organisational vision when communicated by the leader makes change implementation acceptable.					

CHANGE SUCCESS		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
		1	2	3	4	5
CS 1	Resources needed for change are identified before the process starts to ensure success.					
CS 2	Commitment to organisational change is encouraged amongst all employees.					
CS 3	Effective communication about the vision for change is shared with all members before the change process starts.					
CS 4	Clear and direct activities are undertaken to bring about change success.					
CS 5	All employees work towards the same goal for change to succeed.					
CS 6	All employees offer valuable suggestions for change to be realised.					
CS 7	Learning new procedures is a platform for successful change.					
CS 8	Change success depends on regular evaluation and feedback from all involved.					

I THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING IN THE SURVEY.

Appendix C: Interview guide

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this interview. My name is Veronica Mkhabela. I am a doctoral student at the University of South Africa (Unisa). I am interviewing leaders in State-Owned Enterprises (SOEs) who are key decision-makers in change processes. My study examines the leadership role in change management at SOEs, and I would like to understand your experiences and challenges in leading this process.

I want to assure you that all the information gathered in this interview will be kept confidential and protect your identity at all times. You are not required to provide your identity at any time. Feel free to tell me if you are not comfortable with any question, but I would appreciate it if you could answer as many questions as possible. Remember that your participation is voluntary, and confidentiality is assured.

I will now ask you several questions. If a question is not straightforward, you are welcome to ask me to repeat it. The interview should take approximately 30 to 45 minutes to complete.

1   SECTION A: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1.   What are your highest qualifications?
2.   What is your position in the enterprise?
3.   Can you elaborate on your duties as a manager, senior manager, senior executive, or executive director?
4.   How long have you worked in this position?
4a).   Have you led any change process in the organisation before?

2   SECTION B: LEADERSHIP EXPERIENCES IN THE CHANGE PROCESS

Communication or messaging for change

5.   When the change process starts in your organisation, what concepts do you include in your messaging to highlight the importance of change?
6.   In your communication about change, what do you think drives employee's engagement to change to ensure that there is ongoing buy-ins to the change management processes?

a).   How do you ensure that change makes sense to everyone involved, and if you used communication, what mediums did you use?

b).   How do you ensure that there is consistent communication between the project team, employees, sponsors, and other stakeholders (e.g., the board) during a change process?

c).   How do you evaluate the effectiveness of change communication messages?

7.   Change communication is clearly important. How are the key messages of change simplified and visualised to form change aptitude?

a).   How do you create a compelling story for change?

8.   Change is a process of renewal and a movement away from the past. How do you make change to stay uppermost in the mind of subordinates, as a strategy that the organisation is pursuing?

Integration/collaboration of systems/structures

9.   What structures or processes do you collaborate first to ensure that a change project receives the priority and support it needs within the organisation?

a).   How do you manage to integrate these structures and processes?

10.   Change has its own activities that need to be followed. How do you integrate the new change procedures into existing work?

Skills transfer

11.   Do you as a leader ensure that there are adequate skills transfer and empowerment of employees during organisational change, please elaborate how that is achieved.

12.   When the change management process is your major project, how do you ensure that parallel activities within the organisation do not affect this process?

13.   What is the desired behaviour you want to see in employees, as change progresses?

Challenges of the change management process in SOEs

14.   What is your role when there is a change process in your organisation?

a).   How do you continue your role as the leader of the organisation and ensure that your additional role as a change agent is not affected?

15.   When you were given the task of leading change in your organisation, what skills and abilities did you possess?

16. What expectations from the organisation were associated with the role of leading change, and were those expectation achievable?

17. What mechanisms did you use to coordinate implementation, varying timeframes, and planning cycles for the change process?

18. What type of support from the organisation did you receive when you first introduced change?

19. How did you handle challenges in the organisation during the change management process?

20. Can you explain how does the board members contribute towards the change plan and implementation in your organisation?

Conclusion

We have come to the end of our interview. Do you have any final comments or questions for me to consider?

Thank you for your time and participation in this interview session. Please be assured that the information you provided will remain confidential, and your responses will be made anonymised.

Appendix D: Language editing certificates

Blue Diamonds Professional Editing Services (Pty) Ltd

Polishing your brilliance

Email: jacquibaumgardt@gmail.com

Website: www.jaybe9.wixsite.com/bluediamondsediting

17 November 2021

Declaration of professional editing

THE ROLE OF LEADERSHIP IN CHANGE MANAGEMENT IN SOUTH AFRICAN STATE-OWNED ENTERPRISES

By

VERONICA MKHABELA

I declare that I have edited and proofread this thesis. My involvement was restricted to language usage and spelling, completeness and consistency and referencing style. I did no structural re-writing of the content.

I am qualified to have done such editing, being in possession of a Bachelor's degree with a major in English, having taught English to matriculation, and having a Certificate in Copy Editing from the University of Cape Town. I have edited more than 300 Masters and Doctoral theses, as well as articles, books and reports.

As the copy editor, I am not responsible for detecting, or removing, passages in the document that closely resemble other texts and could thus be viewed as plagiarism. I am not accountable for any changes made to this document by the author or any other party subsequent to the date of this declaration.

Sincerely,

Baumgardt

Dr J Baumgardt
UNISA: D. Ed. Education Management
University of Cape Town: Certificate in Copy Editing
University of Cape Town: Certificate in Corporate Coaching

Professional EDITORS Guild

Jacqui Baumgardt
Full Member

Membership number: BAU001
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Sole Director: J Baumgardt

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Declaration of   Professional Editing

THE ROLE OF LEADERSHIP IN CHANGE MANAGEMENT IN SOUTH AFRICAN STATE-OWNED ENTERPRISES
By
VERONICA MKHABELA

EDITORIAL CERTIFICATE

To whom it may concern

This letter serves to confirm that   the thesis I have read and proofread the   article. My work focussed on syntax, cohesion and cohesiveness, discourse connection, and referencing styles.

I am an editor of more than   4 books   and numerous other publications. Furthermore, I possess a Bachelor of English   and Communication whereby linguistics and communication are major subjects. I also have edited a couple of theses, journal articles, book chapters, reports   and books. I have served as an editor and reviewer for   IGI and Emerald publishers.

As a copy editor I am not accountable   to any changes made to the   document by the author or any party subsequent to this declaration.

Your sincerely

Collence, T. Chisita (Ph.D. LIS [University of Pretoria], MSc. LIS [NUST] BA Eng. /Communication Studies

chisitacollence@gmail.com/ chisitacollence@yahoo.com

Appendix E: Acknowledgement letter from the Department of Public Enterprises (DPE)

MINISTRY
PUBLIC ENTERPRISES REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

Private Bag X15. Hatfield, 0028 Sulte 301 InfoTech Building 1090 Acad•a Street Hatfield
Tel:012 431 111¶1150 Fax: 012 431 1039 Private Bag cape Town. cOO Fax: 021 465 2381

Email:
ministry.registry@dpe.gov.za

3 **Mrs Veronica Mkhabela**

UNISA: Lecturer of Management of Organisational Change and Renewal

Department of Business Management

College of Economic and Management Sciences
AJH van der Walt Building

4 **Floor 4, Room 18**

Mkhabv@unisa.ac.za

Dear Mrs Mkhabela

REQUEST TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH ON 4 STATE OWNED ENTERPRISES

On behalf of Mr Pravin Gordhan, Minister of Public Enterprises, I hereby acknowledge receipt of your correspondence. Kindly be advised that the contents thereof have been noted.

5 **Regards**

MR SELATSWA MASENYA

OFFICE OF THE MINISTER
DATE: 29 OCTOBER 2018

Appendix F: Gatekeeper permission letters

TRANSNET

26 March 2019
Ms Veronica Mkhabela
University of South Africa
PO Box 392
UNISA
0003

Mkhabv@unisa.ac.za

Dear Ms Veronica Mkhabela

Re: Request for permission to conduct research at Transnet SOC Ltd

Your email of request for permission to conduct research at Transnet on "Influence of the RARE leadership model on change Management in State Owned Enterprises (SOEs)" is acknowledged.

We duly note the conditions of the study for strict academic purposes, the results of the study will be submitted to Transnet, and the research will be confidential and that anonymity for both respondents and the organisations is guaranteed. Should you or the University of South Africa want to publish the study in any other manner than the final assignment, Transnet will be approached for permission to do so.

Based on the above conditions, your request to conduct the research study in Transnet is granted. We are looking forward to the outcomes and recommendations of your study and the positive contributions towards the marketing strategy of Transnet.

Yours sincerely,

Ms Sanet Vorster
Acting Chief Human Resources Officer
Date: 2019- 04 · 15 ·

ANNEXURE A: PRESCRIBED FORM A
ACCESS TO INFORMATION FOR ACADEMIC RESEARCH

The DBSA supports academic research requests in accordance with the relevant legislation, regulations and policies, which sets out the process that applies when conducting research at the DBSA, the Requester HEREBY agrees to:

    a. Provide the DBSA with access to and use of the information contained in the research project; and

    b. Lodge a copy of the completed research project with the DBSA knowledge management centre.

    c. Refer to a state-owned entity rather than the DBSA name.

    d. No third-party information being requested or shared.

A. Particulars of person requesting access to the information

---

(A) THE PARTICULARS OF THE PERSON WHO REQUESTS ACCESS TO THE INFORMATION MUST BE GIVEN BELOW.

(B) PROOF OF THE CAPACITY IN WHICH THE REQUEST IS MADE, IF APPLICABLE, MUST BE ATTACHED.

(C) OFFICIAL LETTER OF REQUEST FROM THE INSTITUTION.

Full names and surnames: Veronica Mkhabela

....

Identity number: 7008060446081

Postal address: P. O. Box Wierda park South

Centurion

0147

Telephone number: 012 429 6327 or 084 7261360 E-mail address: mkhabv@unisa.ac.za

Capacity in which request is made, when made on behalf of another person:

Request to conduct a research (PhD University of South Africa), July 2020.

Institution: Unisa

Particulars of person on whose behalf request is made   N/A

> *THIS SECTION MUST BE COMPLETED ONLY IF A REQUEST FOR INFORMATION IS MADE ON BEHALF OF ANOTHER PERSON.*

Full names and surname: N/A

Identity number: N/A

....

Particulars of Information

> (a) *PROVIDE FULL PARTICULARS OF THE INFORMATION TO WHICH ACCESS IS REQUESTED, TO ENABLE THE RECORDS TO BE LOCATED.*
> (b) *INFORMATION OWNER AGREEMENT*
> (c) *INFORMATION OFFICER APPROVAL*

Description of information being requested:

Request to conduct a research , which will entail quantitative and qualitative data collection.

Reason for the request to this information:

The purpose of this study is well stipulated in the attachment document. See

Development Bank of
South Africa - 17 Sept

D. Notice of decision regarding request for access

YOU WILL BE NOTIFIED IN WRITING WHETHER YOUR REQUEST HAS BEEN APPROVED /
DECLINED. IF YOU WISH TO BE INFORMED IN ANOTHER MANNER, PLEASE SPECIFY THE
MANNER AND PROVIDE THE NECESSARY PARTICULARS TO ENABLE COMPLIANCE WITH YOUR
REQUEST.

How would you prefer to be informed on the decision regarding your request for access
to the record?

It will be fine to be informed by email.

Signed at Centurion this 17 day of September 2020

_____

SIGNATURE OF REQUESTER/ PERSON ON WHO'S BEHALF REQUEST IS MADE

Zwelakhe Tshandu   09 November, 2020

SIGNATURE OF INFORMATION OWNER

(signature)   9 November 2020

SIGNATURE OF DEPUTY INFORMATION OFFICER

SIGNATURE OF COMPLIANCE OFFICER

South African Forestry Company SOC Ltd
1992/005427/30

HEAD OFFICE
PO Box 1771
Silverton
0127

Tel: +27 12 436 6300

CONFIDENTIALITY AND NON-DISCLOSURE AGREEMENT

between

SOUTH AFRICAN FORESTRY COMPANY (SOC) LTD

And

Veronica Mkhabela (UNISA)

PREAMBLE

WHEREAS THE PARTIES:

A. Seek to explore entering into a mutually beneficial business relationship in terms of which the Discloser may appoint the Recipient as a service provider to provide skills audit report for management and administration employees for SAFCOL Group SOC

Registered address: Podium at Menlyn, 43 Ingersol Road, Lynnwood Glen, Pretoria, 0081, South Africa

Directors:
PM Makwana (Chairperson)
J Yawitch, PPJ Derby, B Hanise, ZP Zatu, L Mnisi, Adv L Mokgatle, F Baleni, Y Pillay, NI Balton, J Maruma (Acting CFO), OT Monaheng (CEO)

Company Secretary: H Murovhi

Limited for a period of 12 months as more fully set out in the SAFCOL Request fo Quotations.

B. Recognize that in the course of their engagements to further the business relationship it will be necessary for each party to disclose to the other certain confidentia information (as defined below).

NOW THEREFORE THE PARTIES AGREE AS FOLLOWS:

1. **PARTIES**

    1.1 The parties to this Agreement are:

        1.1.1 South African Forestry Company (SOC) Ltd; and

        1.1.2 Veronica Mkhabela (UNISA)

    1.2 Each herein after referred to as "Party" or jointly as "Parties" as the context requires.

2. **INTRODUCTION**

    2.1.   The Parties intend providing each other with certain Confidential Information as described in 5 below.

    2.2.   The Parties wish to record the terms and conditions on which they are prepared to disclose such Confidential Information to each other.

3. **RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE PARTIES**

    3.1.   Neither this Agreement nor the exchange of information contemplated hereby shall commit either Party to continue discussions or to negotiate, or to be legally bound to any potential business relationship.

    3.2.   The Parties shall only be bound to a business relationship by way of further definitive written agreements between themselves, if any.

    3.3.   Nothing contained in this Agreement shall be construed as

prohibiting either Party from entering into a business relationship with any Third Party;

3.4 creating a joint venture, partnership or employment relationship between the Parties and neither Party shall have the right, power or implied authority to create any obligation or duty (express, implied or otherwise) on behalf of the other Party.

3.5 For the avoidance of doubt, nothing in this Agreement shall oblige either of the Parties to enter into any agreements or transactions whatsoever.

INTERPRETATION

4.1 The Party disclosing Confidential Information shall be known as **"the Disclosing Party"** and the Party receiving Confidential Information shall be known as **"the Receiving Party"**.

4.2 The headings of the clauses of this Agreement are used for convenience only and shall not affect the meaning or construction of the contents of this Agreement.

5 THE CONFIDENTIAL INFORMATION

"Confidential Information" shall include, without limitation, any –

5.1 technical, commercial or financial information;

5.2 know-how and trade secrets;

5.3 processes, plans, structures, frameworks, equipment, technical specifications and data relating to the Services;

in whatever form and which relates to the Disclosing Party's business practices or promotion of the Disclosing Party's business plans, policies or practices, and which information is either communicated to or otherwise acquired by the Receiving Party from the Disclosing Party during the course of the Parties' discussions and

negotiations with one another, whether or not such information is formally designated as confidential.

6 DISCLOSURE OF CONFIDENTIAL INFORMATION

6.1 The Disclosing Party shall be obliged only to disclose Confidential Information to the Receiving Party to the extent deemed necessary by the Disclosing Party in its discretion for the purposes of the Services to be delivered.

6.2 The Parties acknowledge that Confidential Information disclosed pursuant to this Agreement is a valuable and unique asset proprietary to the Disclosing Party.

6.3 Subject to 6.4, the Receiving Party agrees that it will not, during the existence of this Agreement disclose the Confidential Information to any Third Party for any reason or purpose whatsoever, without the prior written consent of the Disclosing Party and only to the extent of such consent, save in accordance with the provisions of this Agreement. In this Agreement "Third Party" means any party who is not a signatory to this agreement.

6.4 Notwithstanding anything to the contrary contained in this Agreement, the Parties agree that the Confidential Information may be disclosed by the Receiving Party to its respective employees, agents, officers, directors, subsidiaries, associated companies, shareholders and advisers (including but not limited to professional financial advisers, legal advisers and auditors) ("Representatives") on a need-to-know basis and for the purposes of the Services, provided that the Receiving Party takes whatever steps are necessary to procure that such Representatives agree to abide by the terms of this Agreement to prevent the unauthorized disclosure of the Confidential Information to Third Parties.

6.5 For purposes of this clause, the Receiving Party's Representatives shall be deemed to be acting, in the event of a breach, as the Receiving Party's duly authorized agents.

6.6   Except as otherwise contemplated in this Agreement, the Parties agree in favour of one another not to utilize, exploit or in any other manner whatsoever use the Confidential Information disclosed pursuant to the provisions of this Agreement for any purpose whatsoever other than the Services without the prior written consent of the Disclosing Party.

6.7   Accordingly, the Receiving Party hereby indemnifies the Disclosing Party, and shall defend and hold the Disclosing Party harmless from and against any and all suits, liabilities, causes of action, claims, losses, damages, costs (including, but not limited to, cost of cover, reasonable attorneys' fees and expenses), or expenses of any kind (collectively, "Losses") incurred or suffered by the Disclosing Party arising from or in connection with the Receiving Party's or its Representative's use or disclosure of the Disclosing Party's Confidential Information in violation of this Agreement.

6.8   Upon the termination of this Agreement, the Recipient must immediately cease to use the Confidential Information.

7 TITLE

7.1   All Confidential Information disclosed by the Disclosing Party to the Receiving Party is acknowledged by the Receiving Party to be proprietary to and the exclusive property of the Disclosing Party.

7.2   This Agreement shall not confer any rights of ownership or license on the Receiving Party of whatever nature in the Confidential Information.

8 RESTRICTION ON DISCLOSURE AND USE OF CONFIDENTIAL INFORMATION

The Receiving Party undertakes not to use the Confidential Information for any purpose other than:

8.1   for rendering the Services; and

8.2   in accordance with the provisions of this Agreement.

9 STANDARD OF CARE

The Receiving Party agrees that it shall protect the Confidential Information disclosed pursuant to the provisions of this Agreement using the same standard of care that it applies to safeguard its own proprietary, secret or Confidential Information but no less than a reasonable standard of care, and that the Confidential Information shall be stored and handled in such a way as to prevent any unauthorized disclosure thereof.

10 RETURN OF MATERIAL CONTAINING OR PERTAINING TO THE CONFIDENTIAL INFORMATION

10.1 The Disclosing Party may, at any time, and in its sole discretion request the Receiving Party to return any material and/or data in whatever form containing, pertaining to or relating to Confidential Information disclosed pursuant to the terms of this Agreement and may, in addition request the Receiving Party to furnish a written statement to the effect that, upon such return, the Receiving Party has not retained in its possession, or under its control, either directly or indirectly, any such material and/or data.

10.2 To the extent that it is not practically able to comply with 10.1, the Receiving Party shall destroy or ensure the destruction of all material and/or data in whatever form relating to the Confidential Information disclosed pursuant to the terms of this Agreement and delete, remove or erase or use best efforts to ensure the deletion, erasure or removal from any computer or database or document retrieval system under its or the Representatives' possession or control, all Confidential Information and all documents or files containing or reflecting any Confidential Information, in a manner that makes the deleted, removed or erased data permanently irrecoverable.

10.3 The Receiving Party shall furnish the Disclosing Party with a written statement signed by one of its directors or duly authorized senior officers to the effect that all such material has been destroyed.

10.4 That portion of the Confidential Information that may be found in analyses, compilations, studies, or other documents prepared by the Receiving Party, its agents, employees, oral Confidential Information and any written Confidential Information not so requested and returned will be held by the Receiving Party and kept subject to the terms of this Agreement or destroyed.

10.5 The Receiving Party shall comply with any request by the Disclosing Party in terms of this clause, within 7 (seven) business days of receipt of any such request.

11 EXCLUDED CONFIDENTIAL INFORMATION

The obligations of the Receiving Party pursuant to the provisions of this Agreement shall not apply to any Confidential Information that:

11.1 is known to, or in the possession of the Receiving Party prior to disclosure thereof by the Disclosing Party;

11.2 is or becomes publicly known, otherwise than as a result of a breach of this Agreement by the Receiving Party;

11.3 is developed independently of the Disclosing Party by the Receiving Party in circumstances that do not amount to a breach of the provisions of this Agreement;

11.4 is disclosed by the Receiving Party to satisfy an order of a court of competent jurisdiction or to comply with the provisions of any law or regulation in force from time to time; provided that in these circumstances, the Receiving Party shall advise the Disclosing Party to take whatever steps it deems necessary to protect its interests in this regard and provided further that the Receiving Party will disclose only that portion of the Confidential Information which it is legally required to disclose and the Receiving Party will use its reasonable endeavors to protect the confidentiality of such Confidential Information to the greatest extent possible in the circumstances;

11.5 is disclosed to a Third Party pursuant to the prior written authorization and limited to the extent of such approval of the Disclosing Party;

11.6 is received from a Third Party in circumstances that do not result in a breach of the provisions of this Agreement.

12 TERM

12.1.1 Notwithstanding the date of signature hereof, this Agreement shall commence on 15 March 2021 and shall endure for a period of the contract.

13 ADDITIONAL ACTION

Each Party to this Agreement shall execute and deliver such other documents and do such other acts and things as may be reasonably necessary or desirable to give effect to the provisions of this Agreement.

14 BREACH

In the event that the Receiving Party should breach any of the provisions of this Agreement and fail to remedy such breach within 7 (seven) business days from date of a written notice to do so, then the Disclosing Party shall be entitled to invoke all remedies available to it in law including, but not limited to, the institution of urgent proceedings as well as any other appropriate relief under the circumstances, in any court of competent jurisdiction, in the event of breach or threatened breach of the Agreement and/or an action for damages.

15 AMENDMENTS

No amendment, interpretation or waiver of any of the provisions of this Agreement shall be effective unless reduced in writing and signed by both Parties.

16 ENFORCEMENT

The failure or delay by the Disclosing Party to enforce or to require the performance at any time of any of the provisions of this Agreement shall not be construed to be a

waiver of such provision, and shall not affect either the validity of this Agreement or any part hereof or the right of the Disclosing Party to enforce the provisions of this Agreement.

17 REPRESENTATIONS & WARRANTIES

17.1 Each Party represents that it has authority to enter into this Agreement and to do all things necessary to procure the fulfillment of its obligations in terms of this Agreement.

17.2 The Disclosing Party warrants that disclosure of the Confidential Information to the Receiving Party:

17.2.1 will not result in a breach of any other agreement to which it is a party; and

17.2.2 will not, to the best of its knowledge and belief, infringe the rights of any Third Party, and the Disclosing Party hereby indemnifies and holds the Receiving Party harmless against any liability for Third Party claims on such a basis.

18 ENTIRE AGREEMENT

This Agreement contains the entire agreement between the Parties with respect to the subject matter of this Agreement and supersedes all prior agreements between the Parties, whether written or oral, with respect to the subject matter of this Agreement.

19 GOVERNING LAW

The Agreement will be governed by and construed in accordance with the laws of the Republic of South Africa.

20 DOMICILIA AND NOTICES

20.1 The Parties hereby choose *domicilium citandi et executandi* ("domicilium") for all purposes under the Agreement as follows –

For SAFCOL SOC Limited

- Physical Address – Podium at Menlyn, 43 Ingersol Road, Lynnwood Glen, Pretoria, 0081

- Postal Address – P.O Box 1771, Silverton, 0127, South Africa

- Telephone No - +27 12 436 6300

- Contact Person – Kedibone Shai

- Email Address – kedibone.shai@safcol.co.za

For Veronica Mkhabela (UNISA)

- Physical Address – Nkoana Simon Radipere Building, Floor 4, Room 18, Mucklenuek Campus

- Contact No – 012 429 6327, 084726 1360

- Contact Person – Veronica Mkhabela

- E-mail –mkhabv@unisa.ac.za

20.2   Any notice given by one party to the other is deemed to have been received by the addressee:

20.2.1   on the date on which the same was delivered to the addressee's address if delivered by hand; or

20.2.2   on the 7th (seventh) calendar day after the date of posting if sent by pre-paid registered post to the addressee's address; or

20.2.3   on dispatch, if sent to the addressee's then email address.

20.3   A party may change that party's addresses for this purpose, by notice in writing to the other party, such a change of address being effective 7 (seven) days after the deemed receipt by the addressee of such written notice. A similar notice will also be required in respect of new or changed telephone and telefax numbers.

21 SEVERABILITY

In the event of any one or more of the provisions of this Agreement being held for any reason to be invalid, illegal or unenforceable in any respect, such invalidity, illegality or unenforceability shall not affect any other provision of this Agreement, and this Agreement shall be construed as if such invalid, illegal or unenforceable provisions were not a part of this Agreement, and this Agreement shall be carried out as nearly as possible in accordance with its original terms and intent.

22 PUBLICITY

Neither Party will make or issue any formal or informal announcement or statement to the press or any Third Party in connection with this Agreement without the prior written consent of the other Party.

SIGNED by the Parties and witnessed on the following dates and at the following places respectively:

SOUTH A FRICAN FORESTRY COMPANY SOC LIMITED

SIGNED at _____ PTA _____ on 15/03/21 _____

Kedibone Shai
_____
[Specify full name of signatory]

For: SAFCOL (SOC) LTD
Duly authorized

AS WITNESS:

Portia Mavhungu
_____

_____
[*Name of witness in print*]

_____
[*Specify full name of signatory*]

SIGNED at ___Pretoria_____ on _15/03/2021_____

D Visser

Prof T Visser *- Supervisor*
_____
[*Specify full name of signatory*]

AS WITNESS:

UNISA
_____
For:
Duly authorized

_____
[*Name of witness in print*]

_____
[*Specify full name of signatory*]