

**A MODEL OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND ORGANISATIONAL  
PERFORMANCE IN STATE-OWNED ENTERPRISES IN ZIMBABWE.**

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Submitted in fulfilment to the requirements of the degree

Doctor of Philosophy (Business Administration)

At the UFS Business School

Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences

UNIVERSITY OF THE FREE STATE

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## **DEDICATION**

This work is dedicated to the future of my kids, Kimberly, Idreen and Edson Jr.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Firstly, I want to give praise to the Almighty God for allowing me to walk this path, for health and life.

This journey would not have been possible without the unwavering support and guidance from Professor Tina Kotze, my promoter. It goes without saying that Professor Petrus Nel's commitment to guiding and shaping me was remarkable, especially with statistical data analysis. Thank you both.

My appreciation also goes to Professor Robert Schall, whose assistance with statistics was immense. To Professor Helena van Zyl, you believed in me, and your tremendous support as the leader to the Graduate School was invaluable. I am equally grateful to the University's financial assistance; without this support, it would have been a difficult journey indeed.

To Professor Witness Mudzi, your support was great. Edna Cox played a significant role in ensuring seamless administrative arrangements from the onset to this day, I thank you.

My wife, Idah, played a critical role, emotionally, spiritually and socially; this support is something that I will always cherish. I am extremely appreciative of the role that my mother Mai Eddy played, *kubva pakuberekwa kusvika nhasi* (from birth to this day) and I could not have been where I am without her. My children, Kimberly, Idreen and Edson Jr kept me going, and I thank them immensely.

Much appreciation also goes to my dear brothers, Karis and Muzvidz for the great support they rendered from the start to the end of this work.

Fr Emmanuel Pamire Jongwe was always there for spiritual guidance, and this kept me near God and enhanced focus on the work ahead.

As I started this journey, my dear friend Paul Mashambe encouraged and assisted a lot in shaping what I really wanted the study to focus on, thank you.

Finally, I am greatly indebted to many friends and family members who I cannot mention individually for the varied support rendered.

## **ABSTRACT**

A lack of leadership skills was cited as one of the reasons for poor performance in Zimbabwe's state-owned enterprises (SOEs). In response to the highlighted leadership skills gap and poor performance in the state-owned enterprises, the present study sought to address this by developing a transformational leadership and organisational performance model. In pursuit of this aim, specific objectives set at the onset are: to develop a conceptual leadership and an organisational performance model for state-owned enterprises in Zimbabwe, to theoretically explain the relationships between variables in the proposed transformational leadership and organisational performance model using previous literature, and to determine the predictive validity of the proposed transformational leadership and organisational performance model in State-Owned Enterprises in Zimbabwe.

A quantitative research approach was selected, with predictive research design being adopted. The study made use of four standard questionnaires, namely the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire-5X (MLQ-5X) to assess transformational leadership, the Influence Behaviour Questionnaire (IBQ-G) to assess proactive influence tactics; the Leader-Member-Exchange Questionnaire (LMX-7) to assess the quality of leader follower relationships; and finally the Competing Values Questionnaire (CVQ) to assess organisational performance. The data was collected from managerial and non-managerial staff members representing 12 State Owned Enterprises (SOEs), as well as government officials from line Ministries in Zimbabwe using these questionnaires. A total of 302 respondents participated in the study, representing a 78% response rate. All four instruments used in the study demonstrated good reliability and validity.

In the analysis of the data, descriptive statistics and inferential statistics are provided from SPSS and SmartPLS. The analysis was in the form of correlations, stepwise multiple regression and structural equation modelling. An observation from the findings is that only two of the independent variables are direct significant predictors of organisational performance; these are transformational leadership and soft proactive influence tactics. Transformational leadership explained 40% of the variance in organisational performance, while soft proactive influence tactics contributed 3.5% of organisational performance.

Meanwhile, the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational performance proved to be a complex one, beyond the direct relationship. In this regard, transformational leadership demonstrated that it could influence organisational performance through soft proactive influence tactics and the quality of leader follower relationships. Overall, the combined independent variables in the theoretical model explained 47% of the variance in organisational performance, a variance above that of individual independent variables on organisational performance. As anticipated, the findings of the study mostly concurred with previous studies, except for the path *transformational leadership* → *quality of leader follower relationships* that was statistically non-significant. Since the relationship between transformational leaders and the quality of leader follower relationships was not significant, it might be argued that soft proactive influence tactics probably mediated this relationship. In other words, a transformational leader could not directly influence the quality of leader follower relationships, but only through soft proactive influence tactics. Factoring good reliability and validity of instruments into the study, the statistically significant paths between independent variables and organisational performance, and the resultant contribution of 47% in organisational performance demonstrated the predictive validity of the theoretical model.

These findings imply that theories of transformational leadership, proactive influence tactics, and the quality of leader follower relationships can be integrated to positively and significantly influence organisational performance in SOEs in Zimbabwe. This could be explained by the theoretical links between the variables in the model. In explaining the direct relationships, transformational leadership encourages followers and motivates and inspires followers to pursue higher goals, and this helps followers to improve organisational performance. Soft influence tactics, for example, rational persuasion, use reason to encourage follower commitment and persuade followers to carry out tasks. Likewise, inspirational appeals increase follower confidence in carrying out a task, thereby increasing organisational performance. This is attributable to the fact that the inspirational appeals ignite enthusiasm in followers by appealing to values and ideals. In summary, the theoretical explanations supported the direct relationship between transformational leadership and organisational performance, as well as the relationship between proactive influence tactics and organisational performance.

Regarding the more complex and indirect relationships; transformational leadership was also linked to soft proactive influence tactics (sPITS), for instance, inspirational appeals that include the leader's requests based on follower values and ideals. These requests ignite an emotional response from the followers and create follower enthusiasm to carry out tasks or requests. Meanwhile, transformational leader's inspirational motivation is where the leader motivates and inspires followers to reach towards a common vision and uses emotional persuasion to gain followers' acceptance and commitment to the organisational goals. Thus, inspirational appeals resemble transformational leadership's inspirational motivation, which explains the predictive relationship between transformational leadership and soft proactive influence tactics.

The link between soft influence tactics and the quality of leader follower relationships is explained by considering that with consultation influence tactics, followers participate in tasks and provide ideas while the leader listens. Such a process helps in building mutual trust, improving follower commitment, and developing good quality relationships between the leader and followers. This forms part of the explanation for the predictive relationship between soft proactive influence tactics and the quality of leader follower relationships. Furthermore, in high-quality leader follower relationships, the leaders support followers, provide necessary resources and improve communication with followers. Consequently, followers experience job satisfaction, feel empowered, and reciprocate by working hard to achieve set goals and improve organisational performance. The linkages illustrated above demonstrate how transformational leadership can influence organisational performance through proactive influence tactics and the quality of leader follower relationships.

Theoretically, the study added value by providing a new comprehensive framework beyond dual relationships that exist between variables. Moreover, the present study has empirical value as it provides critical evidence from the public sector in a developing South Saharan country. Meanwhile, the practical value includes potential utilisation of the present model to influence organisational performance in state-owned enterprises in Zimbabwe positively.

Some of the noted limitations relate to the study being a cross-sectional one. In the future, longitudinal studies would also help to assess if transformational leaders

consistently use sPITS on followers over time. To add on to the limitations, the present study focused on the public sector only. Future studies could also look at other organisational settings.

The recommendations focus on the expansion of the present model to include other variables such as innovation and how this influences organisational performance. In addition, future research could include studies in other organisations beyond the public sector such as the private sector and not for profit organisations; the adoption of the theoretical model for use in state-owned enterprises; designing training programmes for employees to develop transformational leadership behaviour, identifying programmes on how to use soft influence tactics and how to build high quality leader follower relationships; and the application of the Competing Values Framework (CVF) as a uniform performance measure in state-owned enterprises.

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## LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AfDB:	African Development Bank
BSF	Balanced Scorecard Framework
CEO:	Chief Executive Officer
CVF	Competing Values Framework
GDP:	Gross Domestic Product
GTL	Global Transformational Leadership Scale
GM:	General Manager
LFR	Leader-Follower Relationship
LMX:	Leader Member Exchange
MD:	Managing Director
OCB:	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (extra role performance)
OP:	Organisational performance
sPIT:	Soft proactive influence tactic(s)
qLFR:	Quality of leader-follower relationship
SOEs:	State-owned Enterprises (and Parastatals)
TLr:	Transformational leader
TL:	Transformational leadership

# CHAPTER 1: ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

## 1.1 BACKGROUND

According to the Government of Zimbabwe (2017), Zimbabwe has fifty-six (56) state-owned enterprises (SOEs), five (5) of which are currently not operational. This leaves a total of fifty-one (51) operational State-Owned Enterprises (SOEs), representing various sectors. Mutanda (2014) highlighted the importance of state-owned enterprises in developing a country, citing that one top Zimbabwean Government official had stated that these SOEs had the potential to contribute up to 60% of the country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The African Development (AfDB) Bank (2011) also stated that Zimbabwe's SOEs have an essential role to play in the provision of services in the country and cater for almost all sectors of the economy. For instance, the National Social Security Authority (NSSA) made a profit of US\$105.9 million in 2016, up from a profit of US\$32.1 million in 2015 (National Social Security Authority, 2016), while the Zimbabwe Investment Authority (ZIA) improved its surplus from US\$80, 070 in 2017 to US\$ 656, 218 in 2018 (Zimbabwe Investment Authority, 2018). However, this is not the case for all SOEs in Zimbabwe. Desderio's (2016) assertions support that of Mutanda (2014) who indicated that SOEs have problems of corruption, poor leadership and persistent loss making, despite these SOEs being strategic to the Zimbabwean economy.

Failure of organisations, including the failure of SOEs, can be due to various factors. One area of concern is that leaders of SOEs assess the performance of their organisations, mainly based on financial indicators. This brings to question the issue of the appropriateness of performance measurement methods in SOEs. Various studies have measured organisational performance (OP) in SOEs in different ways, some using the Competing Values Framework (CVF) (Muterera, Hemsworth, Baregheh & Garcia-rivera, 2012), others adopting financial performance only (Bonney, 2015), whilst others use a combination of financial, market and shareholder return performance measures (Datche, 2015). Given the various stakeholders for SOEs, it is notable that some of these measures are not comprehensive and appropriate. This makes performance measurement difficult to apply in SOEs since public organisations

usually pursue multiple goals simultaneously, of which most outcomes are non-economic (Cristina & Ticlau, 2012; Van Slyke & Alexander, 2006). Other researchers have proposed the use of the CVF that caters for multiple stakeholders with competing values (Muterera et al., 2012).

Furthermore, Baxter, Hayward and Amos (2008) highlighted that poor performance in SOEs raises questions regarding the type of leadership that could spur OP. Despite the huge concern over the effective leadership deficit in South Africa and Africa at large (Zoogah, 2009), some scholars suggested that transformational leadership (TL) is a possible ingredient to spearheading performance (Desderio 2016; Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002). This is also in view of the indications that TL had a positive relationship with OP in some SOEs in Zimbabwe (Desderio, 2016).

From the above, and based on previous research relating to leadership and organisational performance, one cannot overemphasise first, the importance of the appropriate measurement of OP in state-owned organisations, and second, the significance of leadership or lack of it in the management of SOEs; especially TL.

## 1.2 INTRODUCTION

By its nature, OP is a subjective construct that varies depending on who is evaluating it; especially considering that various stakeholders belong to different units with different values (Aubry & Hobbs, 2011). In previous studies, Cameron (1981) viewed OP as peculiar to stakeholders, whose expectations differ. This approach to OP was supported by Aubry and Hobbs (2011), who noted that the definition by Cameron (1981) offers significant potential for adaptation to different organisational situations. Aubry and Hobbs (2011) also acknowledge that different performance evaluation models can exist simultaneously and finally recognise the existence of several competing logics.

Moreso, various studies have measured OP in SOEs differently. Some researchers such as Muterera et al. (2012) used the CVF, Bonney (2015) adopted the financial performance only approach, and Datche (2015) applied a combination of financial, market and shareholder return performance measures. Given the background of various stakeholders for SOEs, some of the measures are not comprehensive. In fact, the view by Cristina and Ticlau (2012) was that performance measurement in SOEs is difficult to apply, mainly because public organisations usually pursue multiple goals simultaneously, and some of the outcomes are noneconomic (Van Slyke & Alexander, 2006). Considering the varied stakeholders in SOEs and the need to satisfy such diverse stakeholders, this study adopted the CVF.

TLrs are leaders “who provide a vision and develop an emotional relationship with their followers, increasing the latter’s consciousness and belief in higher goals, above own interest.” (Cavazotte, Moreno & Bernardo, 2013, p.492). In fact, Cavazotte, Moreno and Bernardo (2013, p.493) highlighted the four dimensions of TL as charisma or “idealised influence; inspirational motivation; intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration”. These four dimensions are referred to by Avolio, Bass and Jung (1999) as a higher-order construct of TL. On the other hand, transactional leadership focuses on exchanges between the leader and follower (Northouse, 2007) where the leader assists followers to fulfil their interests (Bass, 1999). With transactional leadership, followers are motivated through contractual agreements (Bass, 1985; Jung, Wu & Cho, 2008). Therefore, this leadership style concentrates on intrinsic rewards, for instance, monetary incentives and promotion (Levy, Cober & Miller, 2002).

Dvir et al. (2002) showed that followers achieved better results under TL than any other type of leadership. Dvir et al. (2002) reached this conclusion after measuring the effect of TL on OP. Zhu, Chew, and Spangler (2005) also concurred that TL has a positive influence on OP, and this undoubtedly means that leaders can play a key role in ensuring the success of an organisation (Aziz, Mahmood, & Abdullah, 2013). A variety of research on TL's influence on OP pointed to a positive relationship (Peterson, Walumbwa, Byron & Myrowitz, 2009). This relationship has also been confirmed across different cultures (Avolio, Walumbwa & Weber, 2009). In fact, TL has proved to be effective in enhancing OP even during uncertain environments (Nehanic & Keller, 2007). Another study (İşcan, Ersarı & Naktiyok, 2014) showed that there is a positive and meaningful relationship between TL and OP. İşcan et al. (2014) added that TL affects OP beyond that of transactional leadership. This supports the assertion by Bass (1999), who observed that TL has an influence on OP, over and above that of transactional leadership. Moreso, TL's emphasis on the importance of the organisation's mission and outcomes makes this leadership model particularly relevant to the public sector (Wright, Moynihan & Pandey, 2012) and Zimbabwe's SOEs.

Although there are various studies on TL in organisations, most of these were conducted in the private sector, without much attention to SOEs (Cristina & Ticlau, 2012). Furthermore, Cristina and Ticlau (2012) observed that the current data on TL's effectiveness in the public sector is at times contradictory, and incomplete. Some researchers such as Falbe and Yukl (1992), Yukl & Tracey (1992), and Sparrowe, Soetjijpto & Kraimer (2006) highlighted that the use of influence tactics by TL was understudied. As well, the role of the qLFR in the transformational leadership and organisational performance nexus is also not widely researched (Lapierre & Hackett, 2007). For instance, the findings of a study by Mehta and Krishnan (2004) showed that the more followers perceived their leaders to be transformational, the more they indicated the use of soft influence tactics by their leaders.

Generally, studies have shown an association of soft influence tactics (such as inspirational appeals, consultation, and personal appeals) with follower commitment. Still, on the other hand, hard tactics (pressure, legitimating, coalition, and to some extent exchange) are associated with follower compliance or resistance (Falbe & Yukl,

1992). Past research indicated that soft influence tactics enable TLrs to show higher consideration and appeals to the ideals of employees (followers) as they perceive the leader as inspirational and appealing (Mehta & Krishnan, 2004). However, Mehta and Krishnan (2004) recommended that there was a need to investigate the use of proactive influence tactics by TLrs in various cultural and organisational setups since influence tactics are influenced by national culture (Fu & Yukl, 2000; Schmidt & Yeh, 1992) and organisations themselves, like SOEs.

The qLFR has been positively linked to worker performance and OP, with Lapierre and Hackett, (2007) and Mayfield and Mayfield, (2009) noting that the qLFR is strongly correlated with employee performance, turnover and job satisfaction, amongst other positive employee outcomes. Miner (2005) observed that the association of the qLFR with follower outcomes was of a causal nature and not only correlational. However, such studies that examined the relationship of proactive influence tactics and the qLFR were done separately and independently (Lo, Ramayah & De-Run, 2009), without other important interactive constructs such as OP and specifically TL.

### **1.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM**

Cristina and Ticlau (2012) observed notable dissimilarities between public enterprises and private organisations in terms of interested stakeholders, purpose, rigidity, flexibility, culture and even impact of decisions. Therefore, performance measurement in public enterprises is more complicated than in the private sector, as the SOEs pursue multiple goals simultaneously (Cristina & Ticlau, 2012); with some of the outcomes being non-economical (Van Slyke & Alexander, 2006). In addition, even though there are various studies on TL in organisations, most of these have been in the private sector, without much attention to SOEs (Cristina & Ticlau, 2012).

Atmojo (2015) highlighted that there is a need to develop a comprehensive model of TL and OP to provide solutions to the leadership problem in SOEs and improve performance. Zoogah (2009) also concluded that despite the relevance of TL in enhancing performance in SOEs, there is still a deficit of TLrs in Africa. With regard to Zimbabwe, Desderio (2016) expressed the view that no other studies have specifically examined the influence of TLrs on the performance of Zimbabwe's SOEs. An assessment of previous studies also suggests that the relationships between the variables, TL, influence tactics, the qLFR and OP were separately investigated.

Examples include García-Morales, Jiménez-Barrionuevo, and Gutiérrez-Gutiérrez, (2012), and Hurduzeu (2015) who examined the relationship between TL and OP; while Lee and Salleh (2008) investigated the relationship between TL and proactive influence tactics. A separate area of analysis was the relationship between TL and the qLFR (Fok-Yew, 2015; Kovjanic, Schuh, Jonas, Van Quaquebeke, & Van Dick, 2012; Zou, Zheng, & Liu, 2015). Furthermore, Yukl and Michel (2006) and Lo et al. (2009) examined how proactive influence tactics are related to the qLFR. Meanwhile, another dual relationship between the qLFR and OP was demonstrated by Krishnan (2004), and Tariq, Mumtaz, Ahmad and Waheed (2014). Since these relationships were investigated in isolation of the others, this study proposed a comprehensive predictive model that goes beyond these separate dual relationships to look at the broader perspective of TL's influence on OP. This research also sought to bridge the noted gaps by developing a predictive model of TL's influence on SOEs performance and applying the CVF for performance measurement. This framework takes into account various competing values from different stakeholders.

#### **1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The research questions pertaining to this study are as follows:

- I. Can a conceptual transformational leadership and organisational performance model be developed for state-owned enterprises in Zimbabwe?
- II. Can the relationship between variables in the proposed conceptual transformational leadership and organisational performance model be theoretically explained, using previous literature?
- III. Can the conceptual transformational leadership and performance model demonstrate predictive validity in SOEs in Zimbabwe?

#### **1.5 RESEARCH AIM**

Resulting from the problem statement and research questions, the general aim is as follows:

To develop a theoretically defensible and predictive transformational leadership and organisational performance model for SOEs in Zimbabwe.

## 1.6 BRIEF CHAPTER OVERVIEWS

**Chapter 1:** The chapter provides the study orientation; background, introduction to the concepts, research problem, research questions, and research aim.

**Chapter 2:** This chapter offers models of OP, an assessment of performance measurement in the public sector and the associated challenges, and a proposal of an appropriate performance measurement instrument for SOEs.

**Chapter 3:** This chapter provides models of TL, the relationship of TL with OP through the variables of sPITS and qLFRs. Models and classifications of influence tactics are also assessed. In addition, the theoretical model for the qLFRs are explored, together with the classification and development of the qLFRs. Furthermore, the chapter provides the proposed conceptual model, together with the objectives and hypotheses to the research.

**Chapter 4:** Explored in this chapter are the more complex relationship of TL with OP through the variables of sPITS and qLFR. Models and classifications of influence tactics are also assessed. In addition, the theoretical model for qLFR are explored, together with the classification and development of the qLFR.

**Chapter 5:** This chapter presented the research methodology: research approach, research design, sampling design, target population and sample size, and data collection instruments of the research. The chapter also provides data analysis including, descriptive statistics, inferential statistics, structural equation modelling (SEM), and hypotheses testing, and ethical considerations made.

**Chapter 6:** This chapter offers details of the data analysis and the presentation of results. The analysis and presentation are in the form of descriptive statistics and inferential statistics, including the reliability and validity of the research instruments. The analysis made use of Pearson's correlation, and stepwise multiple regression (using SPSS), as well as the Variance based Partial Least Squares (PLS) using SMART PLS.

**Chapter 7:** The chapter offers a discussion of the findings and contributions made by the present study. Mainly, explanations are provided for the direct relationships; and the indirect relationships where TL works through other variables in influencing op. Furthermore, the chapter attempts to demonstrate the predictive validity of the present

theoretical model, and the conclusions reached. The chapter also provides the limitations of the study. In addition, the theoretical implications and recommendations for future research, as well as practical implications and recommendations for SOEs are also provided.

## **1.7 SUMMARY**

The general aim of this research was to develop a theoretically defensible and predictive transformational leadership and organisational performance model, including variables of sPITS and qLFRs for a group of state-owned public enterprises in Zimbabwe. This comes at the background of poor performance in SOEs, which some studies attributed to lack of skilled, knowledgeable and competent leadership. The positive side was that there are some SOEs in Zimbabwe that made some profits, and it was anticipated that with TL, OP could be positively influenced.

Following various studies in which dual variables are assessed, the present study sought to integrate various variables in a comprehensive model. This would provide a better understanding of the relationship between TL and OP, beyond the simple direct relationship.

## **CHAPTER 2: ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE**

### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter presents models of OP such as Benchmarking, Financial Measurements, Balanced Score Card Framework (BSCF), and the CVF. In addition, performance measurements in the public sector and the associated challenges are discussed. Cognisant of these challenges, the appropriateness of the CVF as a measurement tool for SOEs is explored.

OP has been defined as the outcomes of work which link the organisational strategic goals to customer satisfaction and economic contributions (Salem, 2013). Likewise, Asencio (2016) supported Kim's (2005) definition on OP; that it denotes whether an organisation does well in its administration and operational functions, actions and producing outputs towards fulfilling the mission. The indications are that where there is no objective data, employee perception can be used to measure OP based on internal and external performance criteria of efficiency, effectiveness and fairness (Brewer & Selden, 2000). To capture a composite definition that fully describes the OP, the present study proposes the following: OP are the internal and external outcomes of work in pursuit of the organisation's vision and how well the outcomes fulfil the various stakeholders' expectations.

### **2.2 ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE MODELS**

There are several performance models or frameworks used to measure OP. These include the use of qualitative and quantitative data, some objective and some subjective. The most common measures include benchmarking (Camp & Camp, 1995; Hill, 1995; Krajewski, Ritzman & Malhotra, 2010); financial performance measures (including profitability ratios, asset management ratios, sales ratios, cash management ratios and investors' ratios) (Gasking, 1993); the CVF (Quinn & Cameron, 1983; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983) and the Balanced Score Card (BSC) (Kaplan & Norton, 1992). Besides these common measures, organisations use internal measurements against planned targets, prior periods, industry standards, and performance against contract agreements. Most qualitative and internally customised

performance measures are subjective, while others are objective (e.g. financial measures).

Regarding the various OP measurements, Mihaiu (2014) expounded on the general components of a measurement system that includes inputs, processes, outputs, and outcomes towards fulfilling organisational goals. The performance measurement systems can be categorised as one-dimensional systems, and multi-dimensional systems, with one-dimensional models including mainly financial indicators (Mihaiu, 2014). However, these financial measures are mainly suitable for the private sector, as the public sector's focus includes social objectives. On the other hand, multi-dimensional measures include both financial and non-financial indicators. This may be more effective than one-dimensional measures in some instances, such as in the case of the public sector, as multi-dimensional models take various dimensions of performance into account (Mihaiu, 2014).

### **2.2.1 Benchmarking**

Hill (1995) expounded that an organisation's failure to assess and monitor its competitors is corporate complacency and strategic naivety. Benchmarking is an approach identified in the mid-1980s and adopted as a competitive enhancement tool in the 1990s, where the measurement tool focuses on the assessment of external performance by best-practice organisations and compares with how an organisation is currently doing. Krajewski et al. (2010) supported benchmarking as a systematic procedure that measures a business' processes, services, and products against those of industry leaders. Organisations that use benchmarking have a better understanding of how best companies do their business which assists in the improvement of their own performance.

Benchmarking has developed to not only include the content of products and services offered but also to include strategies, core competencies or organisational capabilities that enhance superior performance outcomes (Andersen, 1999). Zairi (1998) asserted that benchmarking includes both content and process, with mainly three stages (as proposed by Camp and Camp, 1995): (a) a searching stage where an organisation identifies standards of excellence and the best-performing industry competitors, (b) a gap assessment stage at which an organisation identifies capability differences

between itself and the best firm in that industry, and (c) a gap reduction stage where an organisation makes strategic plans for improvement to close the gaps identified.

Benchmarking was also identified as appropriate for public sector performance measurements (Mihaiu, 2014) where it compares an organisation's performance against a standard or best practice. Benchmarking is important in that it helps a public organisation to identify gaps or weaknesses in the performance (Mihaiu, 2014), and thus can be used to assist the organisation on finding ways to bridge the identified performance gaps. Moreso, its multi-dimensional nature suits the public sector that has different and varied objectives, besides the financial objectives.

### **2.2.2 Financial performance measurements**

Financial measurement models are common in most organisations because of their objective nature as compared to other measures. These financial measurements include gross margin, return on average assets, Earnings Before Interest and Tax (EBIT), sales ratios, cash flow ratios, asset management ratios like accounts receivable ratios, inventory levels and accounts payable ratios (Shein, 2011). Application of various and different performance dimensions or frameworks helps to cater for weaknesses within other measurements. For instance, financial measurement models do not measure standards like quality, employee morale, customer satisfaction and branding. Thus, it would be beneficial to include the other measures into take account the performance dimensions that cannot be monetarily quantifiable to have a wholesome picture of the organisation's performance.

### **2.2.3 Balanced Score Card Framework (BSCF)**

Some work on OP by Kaplan and Norton (1992, p.72) came up with the BSCF framework that entails "a financial perspective, an internal business perspective, a customer perspective, and an innovation and learning perspective" These performance dimensions of the BSC seek to fulfil the organisation's vision and strategy (Mafin & Pooe, 2013). This framework has been observed to offer good options to management due to easy institutionalisation as well as clear links between various business dimensions. Other researchers (Davis & Albright, 2004; Hoque & James, 2000) suggested that organisations can perform better if they apply formalised, balanced and integrated performance measures. These suggestions support the use of the Balanced Scorecard, developed by Kaplan and Norton (1999) as it uses

balanced and interlinked performance dimensions from a financial, customer, internal business process, and learning and innovation (or growth) perspective. Accordingly, the BSC is based on the normative organisational model (Minvielle et al., 2008) in which OP is anchored in integration, cohesion as well as shared views.

As a performance measurement tool, the BSC takes account of financial measures such as profitability, sales and return on assets, among others. Mafin and Pooe (2013) exposed that instead of ignoring financial performance criteria, the BSC integrates financial performance with non-financial performance to provide a balanced perspective on OP. As noted by Rajesh, Pugazhendhi, Ganesh, Ducq, and Koh (2012), the BSC has been widely used; both in business and government (Janssen, 2000; Kloot & Martin, 2000), which points to its relevance in the private sector and public sector as a measurement tool for performance. Having empirically tested the BSC in the service sector in South Africa, Mafini and Pooe (2013), observed that the BSC is a valuable OP measurement tool in the public sector.

By using the BSC, various critical management questions are answered. These addressed questions include:

- I. “How do we look to our shareholders (financial perspective)?
- II. What must we excel at (internal business perspective)?
- III. How do our customers see us (the customer perspective)?
- IV. How can we continue to improve and create value (innovation and learning perspective)?” (Mafini & Pooe, 2013, p.25)

In support for the BSC, Gao (2015) noted that such a performance measurement tool had been used in the public service (in healthcare) (Radnor & Lovell, 2003), and in local government (Askim, 2004). The use of the BSC in the public sector can be justified by its ability to cater for the multi-dimensional performance measurement of strategic goals (integrating financial and non-financial measures), customers, internal processes, and learning and growth (Herath, Bremser, & Birnberg, 2010). Gao’s (2015) view further exposed that the BSC enables various stakeholders to make decisions around varied information levels and types. In supporting Rohm (2002), Mihaiu (2014) also intimated that the BSC is useful in the public sector, using the four dimensions of customer and stakeholder perspective; financial perspective, internal

business processes perspective; and employees and organisational capacity perspective.

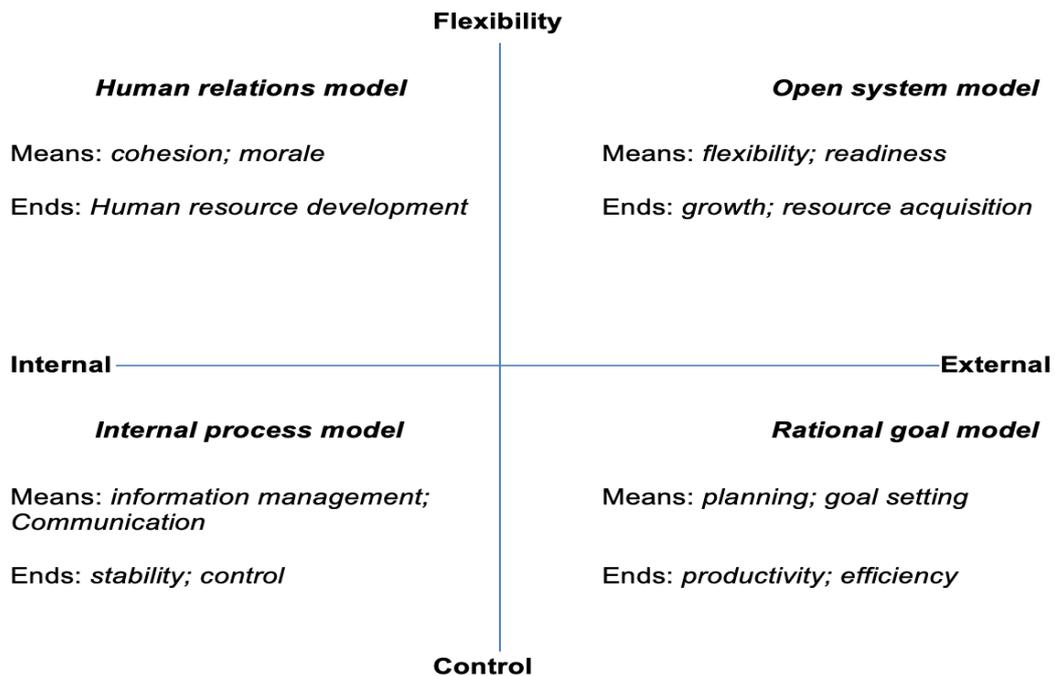
However, the use of the BSC is not exempt from criticism. An area of concern is that the BSC is basically a list of loosely interlinked metrics; without a standardised score or clear recommendation (Mafini & Pooe, 2013). Practically, the BSC has had challenges with both private and public sector having difficulties using it (Chan, 2006). Moreso, Chang (2006) posited that the BSC is used mainly as an information system rather than an OP tool; while the modified BSC failed in managing performance for a City Council in Australia (Chang, 2006).

Another disadvantage of the BSC as a performance measure criterion is that it is centred on Return on Investments (ROI), where the value creation in an organisation corresponds with the financial value at the top (Aubry & Hobbs, 201; Kaplan & Norton, 1996). Previous studies, for example Wicks and St Clair (2007), and Meyer (2005) expounded that the BSC was in fact not originally designed as a performance management tool, but as a tool to communicate strategy; thus it gives little guidance on how to deal with outcomes that fall below planned targets or goals. It was also observed that while the BSC helps identify key performance measures in line with organisational strategy, it is not appropriate as a primary performance measurement tool (Wicks & St Clair, 2007), especially due to the fact that it was meant for communicating strategy, and not as a performance measurement tool. Yet, despite its failings, the BSC remains one of the best performance measures according to various studies (e.g. Richard, Devinney, Yip, & Johnson, 2009; Serrat, 2010), and for many a measure of choice.

#### **2.2.4 Competing Values Framework**

The development of the CVF followed studies by Cameron (1981), among others and was further developed by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983), and Quinn and Cameron (1983). The CVF was founded on organisation theory, and this theory suggested that different models of OP can be deduced from different ways in which organisations are viewed (Cameron & Whetten, 1983; March & Sutton, 1997; Minvielle et al., 2008). In essence, the theory takes account of the existing different competing interests and values by different stakeholders of an organisation (figure 1). This is different from the BSCF which is based on the normative organisational model (Minvielle et al., 2008)

where the OP is anchored in integration, cohesion as well as shared views. The main difference between the BSCF and the CVF (arising from the two different theories) is that while all the dimensions of the BSC are integrated, interlinked and are in support of each other, the dimensions of the CVF are in competition with each other (Minvielle et al., 2008).



**Figure 1: Competing Values Framework.**

Adapted from Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983, p. 369).

As shown on figure 1 above, the human relations model (HRM) emphasises flexibility and is antagonistic to the internal process model (IPM) that focuses on control. Likewise, the open system model (OSM) competes with the rational goal model (RGM), as the former emphasises flexibility while the latter focuses on control. Meanwhile, the IPM focuses on the internal (micro) perspective and could compete with the RGM that emphasises an external (macro) perspective. This way, the CVF provides a way to balance both the integration and differentiation of the competing values or axis, while the BSC does not take account of the competing values from various stakeholders.

By its nature, OP is subjective since it varies depending on who is evaluating it; especially considering that there are various stakeholders who belong to different units with different values (Aubry & Hobbs, 2011). This supports previous views, for example by Tregunno(1984), and Tregunno, Ross Baker, Barnsley, and Murray (2004) who demonstrated that OP is subjective and depends on an individual's values and preferences. These diverse values and views on OP support the relevance of using the CVF to measure OP, where performance is measured by multidimensional criteria based on different stakeholder values.

Cameron (1981) viewed OP as subjective due to varied values and preferences of stakeholders. Cameron's approach to OP was supported by Aubry and Hobbs (2011), who noted that the view offers significant potential for adaptation to different organisational situations. In this way, Cameron (1981) acknowledged that different performance evaluation criteria could exist simultaneously while recognising the existence of competing stakeholders' interests. Thus, for public organisations which have so many stakeholders, the CVF offers an appropriate performance measure, catering for interests of varied stakeholders.

In fact, as indicated by Aubry and Hobbs (2011), the CVF originated from a worldwide study over a period to assess performance in the public sector; thus it has a good anchoring to the present study of Zimbabwe's state-owned enterprises. According to Aubry and Hobbs (2010), and Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983), the CVF was developed from the initial work by Campbell (1977), up to 1983 when Quinn and Rohrbaugh coined the term CVF. The CVF's underpinning assumption includes that there is tension in all organisations in terms of needs, tasks, values, as well as perception; thus to succeed, an organisation has to achieve good overall results, which are not necessarily a reflection of a balance between the competing values (Aubry & Hobbs, 2011). This is in tandem with Cameron's (1986) assertion that organisational performance is dependent on the values of the stakeholders or individuals who are evaluating the performance at that time. The different value dimensions (axes) are discussed below.

#### 2.2.4.1 *The value dimensions (axes) of the CVF*

Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) proposed that the CVF is anchored on mainly three axes or value dimensions (see figure 1). The first axis is the **organisational focus**, made up of an *internal and external thrust*. The internal thrust is the *micro* emphasis related to the well-being and development of employees. On the other hand, the *external* thrust is the *macro* emphasis related to the well-being and development of the organisation. The second axis is the **organisational structure**, which emphasises *stability (control)* and *flexibility* (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). Finally, the third value dimension relates to **means and ends**. Under this value dimension, *means* focus on vital *processes* (such as planning and setting organisational goals), while *ends* emphasise the *outcomes* (such as productivity and efficiency).

In *figure 1* above, the three value sets or axes are integrated. However, each set of values presents a set of dilemmas (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). Some of the models in the CVF are in competition to each other, for instance; human relations and the open system relate to flexibility and openness; which competes with control and stability that forms the basis for the rational goal and internal process models (Minvielle et al., 2008). This supports Quinn and Rohrbaugh's (1983) view that there is a competition between flexibility and stability; competition between control and innovation; and competition between internal processes versus external processes. This all shows the dilemma in organisations, where the effective organisations have to balance both integration and differentiation of these competing values or axes.

Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) further articulated that the HRM, with its emphasis on flexibility and an internal focus, is in competition with the RGM, with emphasis on control and an external focus. Furthermore, the OSM that emphasises flexibility and external focus is in competition with the IPM that emphasise control and an internal focus (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). It is important to note that while there are competing values, as depicted above (*Figure 1*), there are also parallels observed; where the human relations and the OSMs both emphasise flexibility. Meanwhile, both the open system and the RGMs emphasise the external focus (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). Additionally, Quinn and Rohrbaugh, (1983) demonstrated that the rational goal and internal process models share the focus on control; while the internal processes and HRMs both emphasise an internal focus. This is vital in understanding that while some

of the values may compete in an organisation, other values complement one another, hence the integration of these values in the CVF, where the effective organisation manages these values through understanding their differences and parallels.

In light of the competing values in organisations, the CVF integrated these differing values into a single framework, to help organisations deal with such a dilemma. Minvielle et al. (2008) elaborated that even if these models compete, they can be combined in the CVF, depicting an organisation as a political arena, with the different competing models interacting with each other. The dimensions represented by the four quadrants (rational goal, human relations, open systems, and IPMs) of the CVF (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983) shows what people value about an organisation's performance. Atkinson, Waterhouse, and Well (1997) also proposed that a performance measurement system must be able to meet the stakeholders' requirements if it has to be effective, thereby supporting the use of the CVF.

On the basis of the axis demonstrated on *Figure 1* above, the means and ends for each of the CVF models (RGM, HRM, OSM, and IPM) are described in detail. In fact, the *means* and *ends* come as an advantage over other performance measurement frameworks such as the BSC. According to Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983), and Eydi (2013), the term *means* refers to processes that are necessary in an organisation (for example planning, goal setting or resource acquisition), whereas *ends* are final outputs of an organisation (for instance, profits, return on assets, or efficiency). Each of the four models explained in previous sections is made up of sub-dimensions of means and *ends*.

For the RGM, the means are planning and goal setting, while the ends are productivity and efficiency (Eydi, 2013; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). On the human relations goal model, the means are maintaining cohesion and morale, while the ends are the value of human resources, development of human resources, as well as a skilled workforce. Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983), further noted that flexibility and readiness are the means for the open systems model, while "growth, resource acquisition and external support" are the ends. Finally, information and coordination are the means for internal processes, with ends being stability or equilibrium. Having explained the axis in the CVF, the following section details each of the four models, namely the RGM, IPM, OSM and HRM.

#### **2.2.4.2 The four models underlying the Competing Values Framework**

In developing the CVF, Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) identified seventeen (17) performance criteria. These criteria were further being sub-divided into the four models for performance (as depicted in Figure 1). The four models, namely the RGM, the HRM, the OSM, as well as the IPM (Aubry & Hobbs, 2011), are discussed below.

##### *2.2.4.2.1 Rational Goal Model (RGM)*

The RGM holds that OP is related to goal achievement (Minvielle & Sicotte, 2016). This model emphasises control and external focus (Gimžauskienė & Klovienė, 2007; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). With the RGM, organisational effectiveness criteria are “planning and goal setting (as means), and productivity and efficiency (as ends)”. A similar study by Muterera et al. (2012) supported the above view, by noting that the RGM assumes that organisations are there to pursue a purpose, and to achieve a clear set of measurable goals as determined by the stakeholders. Minvielle and Sicotte (2016) concluded that the RGM is based on the instrumental and rational reasoning that an organisation “is effective if it achieves specific objectives”. In their study, Morais and Graça (2013) added that the RGM includes productivity and profit in the organisation, thus supporting the fact that the goal model seeks to measure performance based on meeting the organisational goals, including profitability.

##### *2.2.4.2.2 Human Relations Model*

Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) suggested that the HRM emphasises staff cohesion and morale (means), as well as flexibility and internal focus. The other components of the HRM are human resource development (ends), and human commitment and training (Gimžauskienė & Klovienė, 2007; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). To cement the above point, Minvielle and Sicotte (2016) added that the HRM supposes that an organisation performs well if its members are relieved from the burden of external control. The focus should rather be on the fulfilment of their potential and them being committed to the organisation’s operations. Adding a voice to how the HRM can be utilised for OP, Muterera et al. (2012) posited that organisations perform well in this area if participation, team cohesion, and openness result in the overall development of employees. Besides the participation of staff members, Morais and Graça (2013) raised the element of conflict resolution and consensus building as critical in the HRM,

thus supporting the other studies above, like Muterera et al. (2012), on participation and team cohesion, as necessary for OP.

#### *2.2.4.2.3 Open System Model*

The OSM assumes that the organisation has to have resources in the form of goods and services from the environment, and the resources are then used productively in pursuit of organisational goals (Muterera et al., 2012). This model, according to Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983, p. 371) emphasises “flexibility and readiness (as means) and growth, resource acquisition, and external support (as ends)”. Furthermore, Gimžauskienė and Klovienė (2007) expressed that this model has some thrust towards the organisation’s adaptation to the external environment. A related observation by Tregunno et al. (2004) was that the organisation’s adaptation to the economic, social and political environment is key to OP.

In this regard, “an organisation is closely dependent on its environment. The environment provides the organization with employees, customers and suppliers” (Minvielle & Sicotte, 2016). If an organisation is flexible and adaptable to get the required resources, then it will perform well. Thus, in this model, an organisation’s performance relates to its ability to utilise the environment to get scarce and valuable resources for productive purposes (Muterera et al., 2012). This also brings to attention Morais and Graça’s (2013) view that the OSM is anchored in adaptation and innovation, which would be critical for organisations to perform better and to succeed.

#### *2.2.4.2.4 Internal Processes Model*

Tregunno et al. (2004) suggested that the IPM is focused on the internal (micro) environment and stability. This concurs with Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983), who indicated that the IPM is based on control and an internal focus. Under this model, the effectiveness criteria for the organisation focus on “information management and communication (as means), and stability and control (as ends)”. Performance is therefore based on the way (processes) towards the production and provision of goods and services. This was supported by Muterera et al. (2012) as they alluded that the IPM has its focus on “information management, and communication processes, lead[ing] to stability, control, and continuity”. In their study, Morais and Graça (2013) agreed that the IPM involves documentation, defining responsibility and

measurement. This is important to ensure that there is clarity on roles and responsibilities, besides showing how various processes are to be measured.

Overall, these models provide a basis for measuring OP in the public sector. The models cover the various stakeholder interests, more so the means and ends. As such, the CVF can be an effective way to assess OP in state-owned enterprises.

### **2.3 PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT AND ITS CHALLENGES IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR**

Lobonț and Bociu (2017) noted that measuring performance and efficiency in the public sector is challenging and complex; yet a necessity for policymakers, academia and civil society. According to Lobonț and Bociu (2017), the OP includes production, efficiency, as well as efficacy (Woodbury & Dollery, 2004). In essence, efficacy is the extent to which objectives are attained. In their view, Lobonț and Bociu (2017) further suggested that performance measurement has to be backed with the availability of appropriate data to enable performance evaluation in the public sector. However, performance criteria based only on production, efficiency and efficacy fail to consider external factors that can influence the OP. Moreover, the above criteria do not take client satisfaction and quality of output into account.

In a related study by Parabrahmaiah (2016), it was concluded that OP should include rules and regulations that must be followed when performing the activities. According to Parabrahmaiah (2016), OP is measured by way of Key Result Areas (KRAs). These Key Result Areas include profitability, market position, productivity, product technology, human resources development, employee attitudes, public responsibility, as well as meeting short term and long-term organisational goals. To expand on that, financial performance indicators include budgeting, profitability, financial control, and internal audit. On the other hand, non-financial performance indicators involve market position, product quality, employee morale and job satisfaction (Parabrahmaiah, 2016). These views point to the thrust for applying multi-dimensional performance measures such as the CVF, rather than focusing on narrow financial measures in the form of profitability ratios, cash flow ratios and productivity ratios.

A related study by Overman and Van Thiel(2016), demonstrated that performance in the public sector involves “aspects such as effectiveness, efficiency, quality, compliance, implementation”, adhering or meeting good governance standards, and

sustainability among others. Boyne (2002) proposed input, outputs, and outcomes as the measure of performance (IOO model of OP) in public sector organisations. This was supported by Jonker (2012) who expounded that the IOO model is a good guide to empirical performance-related researches in the public sector. Additionally, Overman and Van Thiel (2016) expressed that the dimensions of outcomes in the IOO model take into account the elements in more complex models such as the BSC. Moreso, Overman and Van Thiel (2016) also highlighted that the IOO is a simpler model to measure OP than other models which are complex, such as the BSC. Outputs in this model include quantity (e.g. number of hours worked), and quality of public service delivery (e.g. speed and reliability of service). In addition, the outcomes are the results of the public service delivery, such as the percentage of increase in fuel availability in the country. The IOO model also posits that inputs (such as resources) are positively related to OP (Overman & Van Thiel, 2016).

From a study by Gao (2015), it was similarly highlighted that private and public organisations could have common measures of inputs, outputs, throughput and outcomes, which come through targets (Hood, 2007), especially for public organisations undergoing reforms. Gao (2015) indicated that performance measurement includes both objective and subjective criteria. Regarding objective measures, it is not easy to prescribe specific measures that produce superior results; thus, oversimplified performance measurement tools may fail to properly account for performance in the public sector as it is multidimensional.

Actually, Aubert and Bourdean (2012) expounded that performance is easier to assess in the private sector than in the public sector since profit as performance criteria is mostly used in the private sector, which measure may also apply to the public sector (Ingraham, Selden & Moynihan, 2000). However, profit is not the major purpose of existence in the public sector; thus, performance measurement cannot simply focus on such criteria of profitability, but the performance comprises of various indicators in public sector organisations (Aubert & Bourdean, 2012). Another study by Martínez-González and Martí (2006) also demonstrated that objectives in the public sector are multi-faceted, making it difficult to assess effectively whether the organisation has achieved its objectives or not. The multi-dimensional thrust of the above views support the use of performance measures such as the CVF as it caters for dimensions that are

quantitative and qualitative, linking organisational goals, targets, stability, human relations and internal processes, among others.

Škerlavaj, Štemberger, Škrinjar, and Dimovskis' (2007) view is that OP cannot be complete without taking organisational goals into account. Performance measures require a multi-goal orientation in which the needs of all stakeholders are considered without focusing only on the organisation's profitability. The stakeholders include "shareholders, employees, customers, suppliers, lenders, Government and society" (Berman, Wicks, Kotha, & Jones, 1999; Hillman & Keim, 2001). The multiplicity of stakeholders for the public sector organisations may mean that various stakeholders have their expectations and perceptions on OP; which shows the importance of CVF that caters for various stakeholder values, goals and expectations.

Similar concerns on public sector performance measurement have been raised by other academics and practitioners who expressed that performance measurement systems are elusive and problematic to implement in the public sector (Kloot & Martin, 2000; Modell, 2004). In fact, Nath and Sharma (2014) highlighted some concerns by suggesting that there is still a need to explore the multi-dimensional measures further since it is an emerging concept. Some of the problems raised on OP in the public sector are political interference and ambiguous objectives (Carnegie & West, 2005; Lee, 2008).

In a study on OP in the public sector, Muterera et al. (2012), also highlighted the difficulties in getting objective measures of performance due to multiple programs embarked on by the public sector towards various stakeholders. Muterera et al.'s (2012) assertion confirms other researchers' views (including Moynihan and Pandey, [2004]) that it is difficult to compute OP on a unitary objective measure, given the multiple programs by public sector organisations. In fact, lack of standardisations in performance measures for the public sector even makes comparing performance between organisations difficult.

Cuganesan, Guthrie, and Vranic (2014) also exposed misalignment of performance measurement systems with the strategies and goals of the public sector organisations. Similarly, other researchers have also raised a red flag on public sector performance (Boyne, Meier, Meier, O'Toole, & Walker 2006; Mihaiu, 2014;) due to unclear objectives, and the complex and multidimensional nature of performance, as well as

a lack of correlation between the mission, objectives and strategies when compared to performance indicators. Another problem also arises from the concentration on easily measurable performance areas, ignoring those unmeasured dimensions such as inter-divisional synergies and collaboration (De Bruijn, 2002; Smith, 1995). As the organisation's focus is diverted to narrow aspects of performance, it creeps towards what Cuganesan et al. (2014, p.281) termed performance "measurement myopia".

Furthermore, most performance measurement systems in the public sector are designed and imposed on the organisations by the political actors who may fully understand the organisation's operations (Mihaiu, 2014). Different researchers expressed other challenges in terms of subjective performance measures; for instance, views by Gao (2015) indicated that subjective measures such as quality satisfaction, poses a problem since there are no specific standard questions. Gao (2015) agreed with Heath and Radcliffe (2007) that measurement frameworks are never perfect; hence the need for constant review. Furthermore, there is some level of bias where managers are used to rating the OP, and this is termed common source bias (Gao, 2015).

Weighing in on the difficulties in OP measures, Short, Ketchen, Palmer, and Hult (2007) expressed that OP measures are still an unresolved issue, with some performance measures misunderstood, over-promoted and at times misused. The above assertion by Short et al. (2007) was supported by Fryer (2009), indicating that it is difficult to set performance measures in the public sector due to multiple dimensions or nature of the public sector. Furthermore, Van der Heijden and Mlandi (2005) argued that issues of the role of the public sector, and consequently what good OP is, posed a challenge in selecting the right performance measure to adopt (Mafini & Pooe, 2013). As indicated by Mafini and Pooe (2013), not a single OP measure is agreed as appropriate for all scenarios of organisational setups.

In a related study, various challenges in OP were raised by Tregunno et al. (2004), exposing that few researches had systematically used stakeholders interests when deciding on criteria for performance measurement. Another observed problem was the masking of real performance in public organisations through the use of financial indicators only, thereby misinforming stakeholders (Bruijn, 2007; Mihaiu, 2014). Thus, without using the appropriate dimensions in measuring OP, the quality of service

delivery may actually be compromised (Bruijn, 2007; Mihaiu, 2014). For illustration, an organisation in the power sector may show financial profitability but coupled with rampant electricity outages and load shedding (which is poor service delivery). Additionally, chasing outputs, regardless of how to achieve the objectives (Mihaiu, 2014; Bruijn, 2007) poses another challenge. In the end, there would be less attention to areas that need improvement, thereby hindering innovation. In this instance, ignoring areas of improvement through innovation would likely stifle long term OP. This was termed as “organisational paralysis” by Van Thiel and Leeuw (2000, p.269).

Van Thiel and Leeuw (2000), and Cuganesan et al. (2014) are of the view that performance measurement at times hinders flexibility and limits innovation in an organisation. This supports previous studies, for instance, Smith (1995) who termed such a scenario as ossification. Bruijn (2002) also added a voice on ossification by expounding that performance measurement systems may result in a cycle of producing the same existing services, without adapting to the changes in the market. Distortion and incorrect performance representations is another problem that emanates from the difficulty in quantitatively measuring OP in the public sector (Cuganesan et al., 2014). This view is in sync with previous studies that demonstrated the complexity and the nature of multi-dimensional criteria in public sector performance measures (e.g. Smith, 1995). Thus, the use of only quantitative methods in OP could be inadequate.

Despite all the difficulties in the public sector performance management, including problems in identifying and implementing performance measures, Modell (2004) and Lee (2008) suggested that it was still important for management to understand these performance measures (Hoque & James, 2000; Northcott & France, 2005; Northcott & Smith, 2011). Moreso, “the use of performance indicators is important because they are an essential part of the monitoring of programs and employee performance” (Nath & Sharma, 2014). Modell (2004) also expressed that the broad perception by managers that organisations’ performance can be enhanced by implementing quantifiable, accounting-led technologies and accounting numbers lacks tangible success. This, therefore, points to the need to look at performance models that are multi-dimensional (Lawrence & Sharma, 2002), such as the CVF—rather than only focusing on quantifiable, accounting numbers for OP.

## 2.4 APPROPRIATENESS OF COMPETING VALUES FRAMEWORK IN STATE-OWNED ENTERPRISES

Despite a myriad of challenges in public sector performance management, these can be minimised by such measures as the CVF. Due to its multi-dimensional approach to performance measurement, the CVF attends to various stakeholder interests, thereby addressing many challenges that are observed within public sector performance measurement. In response to the question of whose preference should be satisfied from all the stakeholders and how the OP must be assessed (Zammuto, 1984), undoubtedly, the CVF answers to this call. This is because the CVF's RGM, OSM, internal system model and HRM adequately assess the various organisational goals being pursued to meet the different stakeholders' interests (Muterera et al., 2012). Morais and Graça (2013) recommended the CVF as one of the most popular performance measures used to integrate the major dimensions of OP and it has been used to improve organisations' performance.

As already highlighted in previous sections, the CVF can be advantageous over other performance measurement frameworks such as the BSC due to its inclusion of the *means* pursued to achieve the *ends* in an organisation. The means, which are processes used by an organisation to get the outputs, are critical as they guide the carrying out of tasks towards the achievement of the goals. This is beyond just looking at the final results, without giving attention to the processes. The fact that each of the four models have both means to the ends ensures that all the OP areas are catered for. As an example, in the RGM, the processes (means) of planning, goal setting or resource acquisition assist in attaining the final outputs (ends) such as profits, return on assets and efficiency.

The CVF's four model criteria can be applied in state-owned enterprises that have multiple stakeholders' expectations, values and needs; hence its adoption for this study. In their study, Yu and Wu (2009) supported a view by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) that each of the four criteria is critical and that it cannot be ignored. Otherwise, this would only provide an inadequate, incomplete and partial picture of OP, which is not prudent for leadership. Thus, an effective organisation has to do well across the four criteria of performance (Yu & Wu, 2009), although there are bound to be trade-offs between the criteria.

A similar study on OP by Muterera et al. (2012) explained that OP in the public sector is complex because state-owned enterprises have various dimensions to be considered in determining performance, besides profit. Due to multiple stakeholders in the form of “citizens, political leaders, the appointed officials, interest groups, as well as employees” among others; each stakeholder has conflicting criteria for performance evaluation (Muterera et al., 2012). As such, this makes the CVF one of the most appropriate performance measures in the public sector.

Nath and Sharma (2014) also demonstrated that in the public sector, performance is multi-dimensional, and this supports the use of the CVF as a performance tool in the public sector. Such performance measure seeks to “improve performance management, efficiency and accountability in the public sector” (Nath & Sharma, 2014, p.2). The measure also includes both “financial and non-financial criteria and has found favour in many public sector organisations” (Nath & Sharma, 2014, p.2).

The CVF is also a valid instrument as indicated by various researchers (García-Morales et al., 2013; Yu & Wu, 2009). The Competing Values Questionnaire was seen to be a valid measure of OP in Australia (Lamond, 2003), and China (Yu & Wu, 2009). Muterera et al. (2012) supported the notion that the validity and reliability of the Competing Values Questionnaire for OP in public organisations and other various organisations was established. In fact, there is strong empirical evidence of the applicability of the Competing Values Questionnaire in various organisational set-ups; thereby confirming its validity and reliability. Wicks and St Clair (2007) added to the validity and reliability of the CVF, noting that as an evaluation tool, the CVF has been used in various organisations, including service organisations and hospitals. Suffice to say, more detail on the reliability and validity of the CVF as a performance tool is provided in the Research Methodology chapter.

## **2.5 SUMMARY**

Various models of performance measurement are assessed, and these included financial measures, benchmarking, the BSC, and the CVF. It is highlighted that the CVF is useful, especially in areas where there are competing interests and values, such as in the case of the public sector. There are three distinct value sets for the CVF: The organisational focus, the organisational structure, and the means and ends. These value sets are linked to the CVF's four performance measurement criteria, namely the HRM, the RGM, the IPM and the OSM, and these criteria cater for various stakeholders. What came out of this assessment is also that the CVF is important in performance measurement, as it seeks to provide a balance between the integration and differentiation of the competing values sets in an organisation. The CVF demonstrated that it is a valid and reliable performance measurement tool for both public sector and private sector organisations. As highlighted, measuring performance in the public sector is complex and challenging, and therefore requires multi-dimensional performance instruments that take account of various performance indicators. Other challenges in performance measurement included failure to use appropriate measurement instruments, and this affects the accuracy of the measurement of OP. Despite the challenges in measuring performance in the public sector, the use of appropriate multi-dimensional measures such as the CVF can be of assistance. Therefore, the CVF could be useful in public sector performance measurement.

## **CHAPTER 3: TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP**

### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter provides models for TL, TL behaviours or dimensions, and an assessment of how TL is measured. In addition, the chapter also explores the development of TL and the relationship between TL and OP. A hypothesis relating to the present study concerning the relationship between TL and OP is also drawn.

### **3.2 MODELS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP**

In this section, an overview is provided on what TL entails before the different models for TL are discussed. The TL models assessed are the Bass model; the Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter models; and the Carless, Wearing and Mann models.

#### **3.2.1 Overview of transformational leadership**

TLRs are leaders who encourage confidence, convey a positive vision and emphasise their followers' strengths (Bass, 1985; 1998). Cavazotte, Moreno and Bernardo (2013, p.493) expressed that TL is identified with four dimensions; charisma or "idealised influence; inspirational motivation; intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration". Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990, p.106) added that TL influences "basic values, beliefs and attitudes of followers" so that they are in sync with organisational collective interests. According to Podsakoff et al. (1990), this enables the achievement of goals as a team. Commenting on the role of TLRs in followers and organisational goal alignment, Bass and Riggio (2006) highlighted that leaders align objectives and goals of individual followers with the organisation as a whole, thereby ensuring that individuals transcend beyond individual interests but pursue interests of the organisation and the group. Various models of TL are discussed below.

### **3.2.2 Bass model of transformational leadership**

According to Cavazotte et al. (2013, p.492), TLrs are leaders “who provide a vision and develop an emotional relationship with their followers, increasing the latter’s consciousness and belief in higher goals, above own interest.” Moreover, As already highlighted by Cavazotte et al. (2013, p.493), Bass (1985, 1998) identified four dimensions of TL, namely “charisma” or “idealised influence”; “inspirational motivation; intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration”. Bass (1985, 1998) described idealised influence as the degree to which a leader’s followers desire to identify with the leader and imitate him/her. A leader’s capacity to inspire and galvanise followers by clearly stating an irresistible vision is referred to as inspirational motivation. The ability of a leader to expand the follower’s potential to achieve beyond expectations is what Bass (1998) termed intellectual stimulation. Individualised consideration is how a leader attends to his/her follower’s needs for achievement, growth and support (Bass, 1998). Commenting on the role of TLrs in followers’ and organisational goal alignment, Bass and Riggio (2006) highlighted that leaders align objectives and goals of individual followers with the organisation as a whole, thereby ensuring that individuals transcend beyond individual interests but pursue interests of the organisation and the group.

Inspired by Burn’s (1978) seminal work that introduced TL concepts; Bass (1985; 1998) further investigated the behaviours of TLrs. Below are details on each of the four dimensions of TL and how these are related to the followers.

#### **3.2.2.1 Idealised influence or charisma**

Bass (1997) states that leaders with idealised influence or charisma “display conviction, emphasises trust, take a stand on difficult issues, present their most important values, emphasise the importance of purpose, commitment, and ethical consequences of decisions. Such leaders are admired as role models generating pride, loyalty, confidence, and alignment around shared purpose” (Bass, 1997, p. 33). The above assertion was supported by Boyett (2006) who posited that TLrs who show the idealised influence and sacrifice for the good of the group are calm (even during a crisis), are competent and act as role model to followers. Due to these behaviours from leaders, such leaders are highly regarded by their followers. Muterera et al. (2012) further described Idealised influence (behaviour) as the charismatic actions

exhibited by a leader that give rise to followers recognising a mission and side-lining self-interest for the overall good of the organisation. “These dimensions can be summarized as follows: Idealized influence (attributed) refers to a follower's perceptions of a leader's characteristics. These characteristics evoke feelings of trust, loyalty, and respect for the leader” (Muterera et al., 2012).

According to Boyett (2006), followers of those leaders who demonstrate idealised influence describe their leaders as someone who is a role model, who displays ethical standards, talks about how mutual trust can assist followers in overcoming difficulties, highlights the value of having a common overarching aim, and behaves in ways that are consistent with his/her expressed values. Meanwhile, the followers expressed that they have faith and respect for such leaders and that they are proud of the leader (Boyett, 2006). It is clear that for TLs who demonstrate idealised influence, this attribute triggers certain behaviours as a response from followers that enhance trust, teamwork, respect, pride and role modelling, thereby creating a sustainable and effective mutual relationship between the leader and follower. Other studies show that leaders appeal to the followers’ ideals and values, thereby inculcating commitment of followers (Fok-Yew, 2015).

### ***3.2.2.2 Inspirational motivation***

Inspirational motivation is an attribute through which the leader seeks to “inspire and motivate followers to achieve ambitious goals and increase followers’ self-confidence” (Boyett, 2006). Through the inspirational motivation, a leader develops a tantalising vision for the future, “uses symbols and emotional arguments to gain followers’ acceptance of and commitment to the vision, and engenders faith and optimism among followers that the vision can be achieved”. This attribute also enhances faith and optimism on the part of followers who view the set vision as achievable. According to Bass (1997) such leaders “articulate an appealing vision of the future, challenge followers with high standards, talk optimistically with enthusiasm and provide encouragement and meaning for what needs to be done” (p.133).

Boyett (2006) supports that the relationship between a TL and his/her followers is cultivated when the leader exudes inspirational motivation. As highlighted by Boyett (2006), followers to such leaders indicated that they feel more inspired, are more loyal, motivated and encouraged, while improving teamwork is evident. In addition, the

followers' problems are solved, and these followers commit to achieving set goals towards the compelling vision for the future (Boyett, 2006). This mutual relationship created is due to the inspirational motivation attribute of the TL, who triggers followers' positive attitudes towards him/her, thereby making the relationship effective.

In support of the TLr-follower relationship, Fitzgerald and Schuttle (2010) posited that TLrs exhibit a clear vision which stimulates and inspires followers, and the leader achieves this vision by creating a close rapport with the followers. Similar studies also indicated that TLrs invigorate and encourage followers to achieve extraordinary outcomes and help them to be leaders themselves (Bass & Riggio, 2006). This relationship is essential to achieve organisational goals.

### ***3.2.2.3 Individualised consideration***

Boyett (2006, p.4) considers a leader's effort "to provide emotional and social support to his/her followers and to develop and empower them through coaching and counselling. ...leaders who exhibit [such] individualized consideration, treat the followers as individuals; consider their individual needs, abilities, and aspirations; listen to them attentively; enhance their development; and advise and teach them". Boyett (2006) added that a leader with individualised consideration empowers and supports followers, delegates responsibility, caters for individual needs, encourages, listens and communicates well with followers.

Boyett (2006) further expressed that followers whose leader demonstrates individualised consideration are developed, acquire relevant knowledge, and are coached and capacitated. Additionally, Boyett (2006, p.4) observed that such followers are attached to leaders who make sacrifices for them, who give them attention and focused support, and who understand them "as individuals with unique needs, abilities, and aspirations". These leaders also advise their followers on individual development matters, and their concerns are attended to by their leader (Boyett, 2006).

Meanwhile, followers respond positively to a TL who demonstrates individualised consideration, thereby creating a lasting bond between the leader and the followers. This consequently creates an effective relationship between the leader and the followers. In achieving the organisational vision, Fitzgerald and Schuttle (2010) asserted that besides creating a close relationship with followers, the leader has to understand the needs of followers and help them achieve their potential. By personally

engaging with the personal values of followers, TLrs distinguish themselves from other types of leadership (Jung et al., 2008) as it develops and motivates followers through emotional support as opposed to providing rewards. This relationship is likely to engender a lasting commitment, unlike one built on rewards, since a reduction of rewards may diminish such reward-based relationships.

Supporting the notion that TL's relationship with followers is beneficial, Fok-Yew (2015) observed that TLrs could meet the higher needs of followers. Furthermore, TLrs raise followers to higher levels of motivation and morale. In response, followers commit to organisational goals and their leader. Nielsen, Yarker and Brenner (2008) supported the statement that TLrs who exhibit individualised consideration pay special attention to all followers' needs and concerns. This would help the followers' achievements and growth, and in turn, the followers would be inclined to build a mutual relationship with the leader.

#### **3.2.2.4 Intellectual stimulation**

The ability of a TLr "to challenge followers intellectually, to encourage them, to question their assumptions and the status quo, and to seek innovative and creative solutions to problems" is termed intellectual stimulation (Boyett, 2006, p.5). Boyett (2006) further highlighted that in response to this leadership attribute, followers become close to their leader, get knowledge of new perspective towards their goals, feel they are directed in new ways, are encouraged to see issues from different angles and are encouraged to express their ideas and opinions. Additionally, such followers acknowledge that they are encouraged to be factual and use reason rather than unsupported opinions, they are taught to interrogate existing assumptions and the status quo, they are taught to be innovative, creative, and to think in new ways (Boyett, 2006). With these behaviours from both the leader and followers, a bond is created and cemented for mutual interest towards achieving organisational goals.

Nielsen et al. (2008, p.2) supported the views by Boyett (2006) by stating that "transformational leaders encourage followers to make their own decisions and to be creative and innovative"; there they enhance followers' perception of variety and autonomy. The above studies support that of Bass (1985), who had observed that TLrs persuade followers to put in extra effort and think creatively about complex problems. This, in turn, changes followers' behaviours positively towards facilitating

high levels of task performance (Fok-Yew, 2015). As followers associate the success of the organisation with theirs, they become more inclined to make an even more positive contribution to their work context (Podsakoff et al., 1990) in support of the organisation and their leader. According to Fok-Yew (2015), followers whose leader exhibited TL attributes indicated that they worked in a more resourceful environment. Thus, their basic needs were fulfilled. Consequently, followers would focus their energy on their work, thereby ensuring achievement of set goals by their leader.

In fact, the four dimensions; individual consideration, intellectual stimulation, idealised influence and inspirational motivation can be categorised in two groups, namely individual focused and group focused TL behaviours. Individual consideration and aroused thoughts and imagination are viewed as individual-centred behaviours, while idealised influence and inspirational motivation are group focused behaviours. These categories are explained in the following sections.

#### **3.2.2.5 Individual focused transformational leadership behaviours**

Further to Bass' (1985, 1998) characterisation of TL, Kark and Shamir (2002) categorised these dimensions of TL as either group focused TL or individual-focused TL. In their work, Kark and Shamir (2002) argued that followers have a relational self, that corresponds to the interpersonal connection with individuals (for instance, the relationship between a subordinate and leader). In this regard, the followers view this relationship as a one on one relationship with the leader, for instance, seeing oneself as a good follower, as opposed to viewing themselves as good followers. Wang and Howell (2010) concurred describing individual-focused TL as the leader's behaviour focused on empowering individuals, improving individuals' abilities, skills, self-efficacy and self-esteem. In the process, the TLr would then treat followers as individuals and provide individual coaching and mentoring (Wang & Howell, 2010). This was buttressed by Tse and Chiu (2014) who highlighted that individual-focused TL behaviours have a direct effect on individuals and the leader modifies his/her behaviour based on individual follower's specific differences and distinctiveness.

In this vein, TL's "individual consideration and intellectual stimulation are individual-focused TL behaviour appealing to individual followers" (Tse & Chiu, 2014, p.2829). This is so because, with individual consideration, the leader seeks to treat each

follower as a unique individual with unique needs, aspirations and challenges (Bass, 1985, 1998). As the followers get individual attention, they feel supported, start to trust the leader, feel encouraged, believe the leader is building them as individuals and in turn, they develop a one on one relationship (Boyett, 2006). Likewise, intellectual stimulation involves “the leader encouraging followers to suggest new ways of solving problems, new ways of doing things and challenging the status quo” (Boyett, 2006, p.5) and this stimulation is targeted at individuals. In turn, followers have their own unique ideas as they think individually of solutions and new ways of dealing with tasks (Tse & Chiu, 2014). Furthermore, Tse and Chiu (2014) asserted that followers view the leader’s intellectual stimulation as directed to individuals to express themselves based on their uniqueness freely. As such, “individual consideration and intellectual stimulation are individual-focused TL behaviour appealing to individual followers” (Tse & Chiu, 2014, p.2829).

#### **3.2.2.6 Group focused transformational leadership behaviours**

On the other hand, group focused TL behaviours are those targeted at achieving group goals, developing shared values, beliefs and aspirations (Wang & Howell, 2010). This followed Kark and Shamir’s (2002) study where it was observed that collective social identities result from individuals’ participation in a larger collective group (e.g. work teams or organisations). As such, in these interfaces, individuals view themselves as members of a group and compare their group with other external groups, not as individuals. This, according to Kark and Shamir (2002) forms the basis of group focused TL behaviours.

Moreso, Wang and Howell (2010) added that with group focused TL behaviours, the leader targets the whole group and followers behave in a similar way than the whole group. In other words, followers accept group goals, work as a unit to achieve these goals, have a collective identity, and they are more interested in mutual interests rather than seeing themselves as individuals in a group (Tse & Chiu, 2014). Tse and Chiu (2014, p.2828) concluded that “idealised influence and inspirational motivation are group focused transformational leadership behaviours”. With idealised influence, the leader presents important values, emphasises the importance of purpose, provides a sense of vision, evokes a sense of loyalty, and the leader acts as a role model (Bass,

1997; Boyett, 2006; Muterera et al., 2012). In addition, the leader inspires followers to go beyond self-interest and to focus on the overall organisation (Bass, 1997; Boyett, 2006; Muterera et al., 2012). Supporting the above, in essence, idealised influence is a group focused TL behaviour.

Meanwhile, inspirational motivation inspires and motivates followers so that they achieve challenging goals (Boyett, 2006). Moreover, TLrs use an appealing vision of the future, use symbols and emotional persuasion, and challenges followers to achieve higher standards (Bass, 1997). Consequently, this inspires followers, improves teamwork, enhances follower commitment and ensures that followers focus on achieving organisational goals as a team (Boyett, 2006). The followers work as a team or unit so that they achieve ambitious goals (Carter et al., 2014). In this regard, both the idealised influence and inspirational motivation are group-based TL behaviours.

### **3.2.3 Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter's model of transformational leadership**

Podsakoff et al. (1990, p.112) identified six dimensions of TL which are: "identifying and articulating a vision, providing an appropriate role model [to followers], fostering acceptance of group goals, expecting a high performance, providing individualised support and intellectual stimulation". These dimensions are in line with those of Bass (1985, 1998) as highlighted in the previous sections. For instance, Podsakoff et al.'s (1990) dimensions of identifying and articulating a vision, and high-performance expectation are linked to Bass's (1985, 1998) inspirational motivation. Also, Podsakoff et al.'s dimensions of providing an appropriate model, and promoting the acceptance of group goals, can be compared to Bass's (1985, 1998) dimension of idealised influence, while the dimension of providing individualised support can be linked to Bass' individualised consideration. Furthermore, both Podsakoff et al. and Bass (1985, 1998) include intellectual stimulation as a dimension. Thus, many of the dimensions identified by both Podsakoff et al. (1990) and Bass (1985, 1998) are almost similar.

Wang et al. (2005) supported Podsakoff et al.'s (1990) view by noting that behaviour mostly attributed to TL includes clearly depicting an irresistible vision, promoting a model consistent with that vision, encouraging the acceptance of group goals and

encouraging high-performance expectations among followers. Using Podsakoff et al.'s (1990) model, Wang et al. (2005) demonstrated that TL positively affects OP.

### **3.2.4 Carless, Wearing and Mann's model of transformational leadership**

In a study by Bosch (2013), a TL model by Carless, Wearing and Mann (2000) was applied. This model posits that the characteristics of a TL are that the leader "communicates a vision, develops staff, provides support, empowers staff, is innovative, leads by example and is charismatic" (Carless et al., 2000, p.390). The model is not very different from Bass' (1985,1998) model of TL in that the communication of a vision is explained by the Bass' model, under inspirational motivation. In addition, providing support, empowering followers and developing followers can be traced to Bass' (1985,1998) dimension of individual consideration as well as intellectual stimulation. Both leading by example and being charismatic can be linked to Bass' dimension of idealised influence, while being innovative can be traced to the dimension of intellectual stimulation.

It would thus seem to the point that despite having different models of TL, in essence, these other models have some commonalities with Bass' (1985, 1998) model; either by expanding it, or dissecting the characteristics further. In this regard, the present study adopted Bass' (1985,1998) model of TL, as it seems to be central to the discussion of TL, as well as having comprehensive dimensions.

## **3.3 MEASURING TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP**

This section provides a brief discussion on the measurement of TL behaviour. The main thrust would be to incorporate these measures relating to the above TL models.

### **3.3.1 Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X)**

Bass and Avolio's (2004) Multifactor MLQ-5X(MLQ) is a measure for TL based on Bass' (1985,1998) model. This tool has indicators for "Transformational leadership's dimensions; idealised influence (attributed), idealised influence (behaviour), intellectual stimulation, individualised consideration and inspirational motivation" (Cavazotte et al., 2013, p.493); which dimensions have been explained in detail in previous sections. According to Bass and Avolio (2004), the MLQ-5X uses a 5-point

Likert scale of 0 to 4, with rating scales as *Not at all (0)*, *Once in a while (1)*, *Sometimes (2)*, *Fairly often (3)*, and *Frequently, if not always (4)*.

In a meta-analysis by Ng (2017), with over 600 samples, TL had been measured using varied criteria, and these were ranked. The most frequently used measure was the MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1993) which had a frequency of 68% and a reliability of 0.91; while Podsakoff et al.'s (1990) TL Behaviour Inventory had a 13% frequency, and reliability of 0.88. On the other hand, Carless et al.'s (2000) scale was applied to 5% of the samples under the meta-analysis, with a reliability of 0.94; while 14% of the sample applied other different scales to measure TL. This points to the wide use and popularity of the MLQ as a measure for TL; both in terms of frequency of use as well as the reliability levels, which were high. This observation partly informed the decision to also use the MLQ-5X in the present study. A more detailed description explanation of measuring TL using the Multifactor MLQ-5X is provided in the following chapter on Methodology.

In fact, Chamberlain (2003) developed a scale (the Chamberlain Scale), showing the effectiveness of factors in the MLQ mean data. This was based on the 5-point Likert scale of 0-4 ratings. This scale assists in categorising TL as low, moderate and high and various studies have applied this scale, for example, Fox (2007), and Leapey-Portschelle (2008). In the Chamberlain scale, the mean scales were grouped into ratings of 0 to 1.33 being low TL; ratings of 1.34 to 2.66 being moderate TL, and ratings of 2.67 to 4.0 denoted as high TL. Another suggestion for TL categorisation came from Ali (2005), in which a mean scale of .0 to 2.0 was denoted as low TL, while a mean scale of 2.1 to 4.0 indicated high TL. In view of the above categorisation, the current study adopted the Chamberlain scale.

### **3.3.2 Transformational Leadership Behaviour Inventory**

To measure TL, Podsakoff et al. (1990) developed the TL Behaviour Inventory. In this regard, the TL dimensions measured were; “articulating a vision; providing an appropriate role model; fostering acceptance of group goals; having high-performance expectations; providing individualised support; and providing intellectual stimulation” (Podsakoff et al., 1990, p.107). The TL Behaviour Inventory uses a 7-point Likert scale, from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) across the six dimensions (MacKenzie, Podsakoff & Rich, 2001; Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer, 1996). Some

researchers, such as Lian and Tui (2012) also adopted the Transformational Leadership Behaviour Inventory in their studies.

### **3.3.3 Global Transformational leadership scale (GTL)**

Carless et al. (2000) developed a short measurement of TL called the Global Transformational Leadership Scale (GTL), in line with their model on TL. The GTL measures seven (7) behaviours in describing the TLr; that is, the leader “communicates a vision, develops, provides support and empowers followers, is innovative, leads by example and is charismatic” (Carless et al., 2000, p.390).

Fernet, Trepanier, Austin, Gagne and Forest (2015) expressed that the measurement tool uses a 5-point Likert scale with responses about the leader, from 1 (*never*), to 5 (*almost always*). Carless, Wearing and Mann (2000) also highlighted that their measurement scale has strong convergent validity with the MLQ (based on Bass’ Model), is easy to use and score, as well as providing valid and broad TL evaluation.

## **3.4 ANTECEDENTS TO TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP**

Antecedents can be defined as a behaviour or experience that occurs before another behaviour, and the preceding behaviour may be used in predicting future behaviour (Bugenhagen, 2006). In essence, an antecedent is a factor that influences a certain behaviour. In this case, the antecedents of TL are factors that can influence TL. Describing the literature on antecedents of TL, Tafvelin (2013) stated that there are a few studies on TL antecedents, and this is in sync with other researchers such as Lim and Ployhart (2004), and Peterson et al. (2009). However, these researchers expressed the same concerns, namely how these antecedents assist or hinder the emergence of TL behaviours (Tafvelin, 2013) and if certain environments or context could be more receptive to the emergence of transformational behaviour.

In their study, Sun, Chen and Zhang (2017) suggested three main areas covering antecedents of TL. These areas are the leader’s qualities, the organisational structure and culture, and characteristics of colleagues including followers. This follows a similar categorisation by Tafvelin (2013), where the antecedents were grouped into three major areas; antecedents related to the leader, antecedents related to the situation, and those related to the followers. Generally, these groups are similar to the ones suggested by Sun et al. (2017).

Sun et al. (2017) explained that the leader's qualities encompassing self-efficacy, values, emotional intelligence, and cognitive capacities predicted the TL's behaviour. This seems to support some previous studies (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006), where emotional intelligence also positively influenced TL behaviour. In addition, collaborating culture and organisational fairness were factors that positively influenced TL behaviours (Sun et al., 2017). According to Sun et al. (2017), self-efficacy is believing in one's ability to carry out a task successfully. Meanwhile, the TL is a change agent and also sets ambitious goals that have to be completed successfully. To be able to carry out such tasks, with high performance, the leader has to have high self-efficacy, thus self-efficacy is an influential factor for TL behaviour (Sun et al., 2017).

Values relate to moral values, being cheerful, and competence (intellectual) values (Sun et al., 2017). Sun et al. (2017) observed that upholding these values requires that a TL be a role model to followers, exhibits intellectual values, avoids following individual interests but rather pursue the larger organisational goals, be committed to work as much as the workers/followers, and be committed to work without regard to material rewards. All these values relate well with the TL's elevation of follower motivation (inspirational motivation), the elevation of follower morality, intellectual stimulation, and the ability to resolve problems; thus the values are seen to be positively influencing TL (Sun et al., 2017).

Other factors were highlighted as influencing TL behaviour, including early childhood experiences (Barbuto, 2005; Popper, Mayseless, & Castelnovo, 2000); and leader's positive frame of mind (Chi, Chung & Tsai, 2011). Chi et al.'s (2011) view on the leader's positive mood supports previous views, for instance, Barbuto (2005) who asserted that the leader's intrinsic motivation was significantly and positively related to TL's behaviour, thus a leader who is motivated by fun at the work environment is likely to exhibit TL behaviour. Furthermore, Barbuto (2005) described the leader's education, job fit, work experience and work philosophy as some of the factors that influence the emergence of TL behaviours.

The other area of antecedents to TL was seen to be the organisation's structure. Tafvelin (2013) and Pawar and Eastman (1997) observed that the structure of an organisation could influence the emergence of TL. Wright and Pandey (2009) showed that hierarchical decision making and communication structures negatively impacted

on transformational behaviours. Centralised decision making in terms of centralised control, also negatively impacted TL behaviours (Walter & Bruch, 2010). On the other hand, an organisational structure that allows managerial latitude in decision making was positively related to TL behaviours (Tafvelin, 2013). In view of the above, the organisational structure has an influence on the emergence of TL behaviours.

Moreso, in organisations where written rules, procedures and instructions are formalised, this positively influences TL behaviour (Tafvelin, 2013). Formalised rules, procedures and instructions ensure that there are objectivity and fairness in treating employees. Studies by Sun et al. (2017) supported that organisational fairness was positively related to TL behaviours.

Regarding follower behaviour as an antecedent of TL behaviour, Sun et al. (2017) expressed that leaders can adjust their behaviour in response to followers' behaviour and preferences. This is to align the leader and followers' goals, actions, motives and values so that there is harmonisation. Sun et al. (2017) further indicated that leadership exists with followership and the TL seeks to heighten the motivation of followers, providing a vision and stimulating followers to achieve higher goals. Additionally, leaders and followers seek to influence each other, and leaders respond to followers, as indicated, for example, in the Leader-member-exchange theory (Sun et al., 2017). Based on the above, followers could positively influence the emergence of TL behaviours. However, as already highlighted, the area of antecedents of TL behaviour is still inadequately studied (Tafvelin, 2013) and would require further exploration.

### **3.5 OUTCOMES OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP**

Various outcomes can be attributed to TL. One of these outcomes is superior OP, which was observed by Krishnan (2004). According to Bass (1997) and Judge and Piccolo (2004), TL positively affects both individual and team level performance. In a related study on Chinese companies, Carter, Armenakis, Feild, and Mossholder (2013) demonstrated that TL was positively correlated with task (in-role performance), and also positively correlated with organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) (extra-role performance). Carter et al. (2013) espoused in their findings that TL was correlated with employee performance and OCB behaviour, mostly through the qLFR; thus, the relationship between TL and OP is not a straightforward one. In addition, a

study by Wang et al. (2005) also showed that TL is directly related to task performance, and OCB, which leads to enhanced OP.

As indicated by Jyoti and Bhau (2015), TL has varied outcomes, including cognitive and behavioural outcomes such as high qLFR. Jyoti and Bhau (2015) posited that TL significantly positively affect the qLFRs, and this consequently positively affects job performance. This position supports previous studies like Carter et al. (2013), who had demonstrated that TL positively influences the qLFRs. Carter et al. (2013) explained that this positive influence is due to the followers needing resources provided by their leaders, and the followers consequently have a positive attitude towards the leader, thereby fostering a good relationship. Using Podsakoff et al.'s (1990) model, Wang et al. (2005) also demonstrated that TL positively predicts qLFRs and task performance; where the qLFRs mediated the relationship between TL and task performance.

Other researchers, for instance, Cavazotte, Moreno, and Bernardo (2013) discovered that TL positively affects job performance through other variables such as self-efficacy, and even qLFR (Carter et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2005). This again points to the fact that TL can significantly positively influence OP; not only directly but also through other variables. In all, this alludes to the complexity of the TL relationship to OP, which is not only a direct relationship; but can involve other variables such as the qLFRs.

In some previous studies, it has been shown that TL enhanced affective commitment (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996), intrinsic motivation (Charbonneau, Barling & Kelloway 2001), as well as trust in the leader (Podsakoff et al., 1990). An organisational commitment was again seen to be significantly positively affected by TL (Bycio, Hackett & Allen 1995; Gerstner & Day, 1997). Similar research by Muterera et al. (2012) indicated that TL positively enhanced job satisfaction, among other outcomes. Two dimensions of TL, which are "individual consideration and intellectual stimulation" (Tse & Chiu, 2014, p.2829) and were also positively related to continuance commitment. Chiaburu, Smith, Wang, and Zimmerman (2014) observed another outcome of TL, namely; TL enhanced and developed an organisational learning culture. This points to the effect that TL has a wide range of different positive outcomes to the organisation and followers; besides the enhanced OP.

Zou et al. (2015) supported other studies, such as those of Kamdar and Dyne (2007) and Wang and Howell (2010), who asserted that TL positively influenced followers'

helping behaviour towards team members. Other identified outcomes of TL include developing followers into leaders (Krishnan, 2004). This view is in sync with Kent and Chelladurai's (2001) view that TL assists in the development of talented followers towards sharpening their own leadership abilities (Bass, 1985). This is termed the cascading effect of TL. Additionally, followers emulate their TL when dealing with their subordinates, thus, TL helps followers to develop their leadership characteristics.

### **3.6 DEVELOPMENT OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP**

An important highlight of TL is that managers and supervisors can be trained to acquire leadership attributes (Charbonneau, 2004). A similar study by Ng (2017) showed that leaders could develop training programs on leadership to gain TL characteristics, and learn to build a high-quality LFR. Furthermore, another study by Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) also proposed that TL behaviour could be integrated into training models that new leaders need to go through and complete. Additionally, TL behaviour could be incorporated in the staff appraisal process to identify where the leaders lacked TL behaviour (through needs assessment like 360-degree feedback).

Another study by Li and Hung (2009) also recommended that TL strategies must be part and parcel of recruitment and training programs in organisations to increase their performance continuously. The study by Lo et al. (2010) also highlighted the importance of training leaders, for instance, training supervisors and managers to get skills on relationship building and TL. Overall, the above suggestions showed that TL could be learned so that individuals could acquire TL behaviours and skills.

### **3.7 THE LINK OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP TO ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE.**

In this section, the relationship between TL and OP is discussed within the context of the private and public sectors.

#### **3.7.1 Link of transformational leadership to organisational performance in developed countries**

Several studies in the private sector in developed countries showed a positive relationship between TL and OP (İşcan et al., 2014; Peterson et al., 2009; Waldman, Ramirez, House, & Puranam, 2001). These studies highlighted that TLrs encourage followers to take risks in uncertain environments (İşcan et al., 2014; Waldman et al.,

2001), and such risk-taking consequently leads to enhanced OP. Moreso, TLs inspire and motivate their followers to be creative, to think about pursuing higher goals, to think of alternative ways to solve problems and all these actions assist in improving OP. Concerning the public sector, previous researches (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983; Rohrbaugh, 1980) also showed a positive relationship between leadership and OP. Muterera et al. (2012) utilised the CVF in assessing OP and confirmed that TL had a direct positive effect on OP.

Top, Albinus, van Holten, and van der Zwan (n.d) also linked the HRM of the CVF to TL's individual consideration dimension. In Top et al.'s view, the criteria of the HRM were associated with leadership skills such as understanding oneself and others, effective communication, development of employees (mentor skills), team building, participatory decision making, and conflict management. Morais and Graça (2013) also confirmed that conflict resolution and consensual building create cooperative teamwork, which is important for the human relations criteria.

Meanwhile, the TL dimension of individual consideration involves a leader who mentors, counsels, and assists followers to pursue their aspirations (Bass, 1998). In addition, the leader listens to followers, communicates well and encourages them individually. As such, the HRM of CVF resonates with the TL dimension of individual consideration. Therefore; it would be plausible that there is a positive relationship between TL and OP.

The CVF's internal processes model has been linked to TL's intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation. The IPM requires leadership skills that include critical thinking, managing core processes (controller); designing tasks, as well as cross-functional management (Top et al., n.d). As such, this performance criteria could be linked to TL's intellectual stimulation, where followers are encouraged to have critical thinking, to think of alternative solutions to existing problems, and to be creative and innovative. Meanwhile, managing core processes, designing tasks and cross-functional management of the CVF can be linked to TL's inspirational motivation where the leader sets high standards, motivates and inspires followers to carry out tasks. It would be expected that there is a positive relationship between TL and OP's IPM.

A TL's skills such as developing a vision, goals and objectives are related to the rational goal criteria (Morais & Graça, 2013; Top et al., n.d). The rational goal criteria could be linked to TL's idealised influence, where a leader develops a vision, demonstrates the importance of vision, is a role model for the vision, shows the goals to be pursued, and instills a sense of purpose in followers (Boyett, 2006). In view of this, it would be reasonable to expect a positive relationship between TL and OP.

Finally, the open system criteria is associated with leadership skills such as negotiating commitment and compliance, presenting ideas, building and maintaining a power base, innovation, creative thinking, and managing change (Morais & Graça, 2013; Top et al., n.d). The open system criteria could be said to resonate with the TL's intellectual stimulation, where the leader inspires new ideas in followers, motivates followers to think of alternative ways of solving problems, and inspires followers to be creative and innovative. Thus, it could be reasonable to expect a positive relationship between TL and OP. These recent studies confirm that of Quinn (1988), who asserted that in each set of CVF criteria, there are leadership skills relevant for achieving improved OP.

From the above, various TL dimensions have been linked to the Competing Values criteria, and this could point to a positive relationship between TL and OP. Although there are very few known studies that link TL to specific performance criteria based on the CVF, Quinn (1988), Morais and Graça (2013), Top et al. (n.d), and Muterera et al. (2012) provide an important footing for such a link.

### **3.7.2 Link of transformational leadership to organisational performance in developing countries**

In developing countries, it has also been found that there is a positive relationship between TL and OP in companies in the private sector. A study in Saudi Arabia (Mutahar, Rasli & Al-Ghazali, 2015) showed that TL has a strong positive correlation with OP. Furthermore, Mutahar et al. (2015) expressed that TLrs exhibit charisma, inspire followers, instil pride in followers, heighten intellectual stimulation, instil respect and trust in followers, and motivate the followers to go beyond self-interest in their tasks, thereby enhancing OP.

A similar study in manufacturing firms in Iran by Noruzy, Dalfard, Azhdari, Nazari-Shirkouhi and Rezazadeh (2013) revealed that TL was a positive and significant predictor of OP ( $\beta=.43$ ,  $p<.01$ ). It was discovered that TL fosters innovation in

organisations, and this helped the organisations to improve their performance (Noruzy et al., 2013). This explanation would be expected, especially given that the intellectual stimulation encourages followers to be innovative, creative and think of alternative ways to solve problems. As followers innovate, they can have better and efficient means of doing their tasks and processes which improves OP. Noruzy et al. (2013) added that TL instils group expectations of high performance within followers and the followers consequently work hard to achieve such performance. As such, the argument is that followers are driven towards high performance through their group's performance expectations. In other words, this could be linked to TL's inspirational motivation where the followers are inspired and energised towards achieving higher goals and also put in extra effort to achieve such goals. This corroborates the results of other studies such as Boyett (2006), who asserted that TL's inspirational motivation inspires and motivates followers to achieve challenging goals.

In the public sector, an important study on SOEs/parastatals was carried out in South Africa (Dhanphat, Mokgahla, & Jansen, 2015), in which TL positively influenced employee performance and consequently OP. Dhanphat et al. (2015) added that the TL motivates followers to perform highly, and to trust the leader, thereby building behaviour which assists in achieving organisational goals. Since TLs developed plans and goals for these organisations and for empowered followers to achieve these organisational goals, it had a positive effect on performance. The findings of a study by Dhanphat et al. (2015) showed that TL contributed 14% to the employee performance. These observations are similar to other studies that showed TL positively influencing OP in SOEs, for example Desderio's (2016) study in Zimbabwean SOEs.

In their view, Desderio (2016) posited that TL is significantly related to employee performance in Zimbabwe's SOEs, stressing the importance of TL in enhancing performance in SOEs. The explanation provided by Desderio (2016) on the above relationship was that TLs influence followers to go beyond the normal work effort, and beyond self-interest to pursue higher organisational goals. Furthermore, TLs motivate followers and instil respect in their followers. In turn, the followers admire the TL, develops trust, loyalty and respect in the leader, and this consequently leads to followers making an extra effort to achieve better OP (Desderio, 2016). In addition, the

TL's focus on followers' growth (individual consideration) motivate followers as well as improving followers' skills. This, again, motivates followers who in turn work hard to achieve better performance. Another factor highlighted by Desderio (2016) was that TLrs influence followers at the individual level, group level and eventually at the institutional level, thus the spread of the TL's influence is wide.

A study in Malaysia by Wahab, Rahmat, Yusof, and Mohamed (2016), in which public universities were involved, demonstrated that TL had a positive relationship with OP, thereby supporting the above studies. It was observed that TL was able to positively influence OP due to easily shared knowledge among followers (Wahab et al. 2016). Another factor for the positive influence of TL on OP was observed to be the leaders' motivation of their followers, inspiration and encouragement of followers to go beyond their self-interest and focus on higher organisational goals (Avolio, 2007; Obiwuru; Okwu, Akpa, & Nwankwere, 2011).

### **3.8 SUMMARY**

In summary, three models of TL are presented in this chapter: The Bass model, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter's model, and the Carless, Wearing and Mann model. Among the various models of TL, there is generally agreement on the attributes of TL. The main criteria for measuring TL are anchored in the three models above. These measurement criteria are the Multifactor MLQ-5X(MLQ-5X) for the Bass model, the Transformation Leadership Behaviour Inventory (TLI) for Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter's model and the GTL for Carless, Wearing and Mann's model. According to Ng (2017), the Multifactor MLQ-5X is the most frequently used (with a frequency of 68%), followed by the TL Behaviour Inventory (with a frequency of 13%) and lastly the GTL (with a frequency of 5%). Chamberlain's scale is also presented as an assessment scale for the effectiveness of the MLQ-5X's mean ratings of TL. The Chamberlain scale categorised the mean ratings into high, moderate and low TL. Meanwhile, the Bass model of TL is adopted, together with the MLQ-5X instrument.

In addition, antecedents of TL are mainly categorised into three groups: the leader's characteristics/qualities, the organisational context or environment, and the follower characteristics. There are also various outcomes of TL visible that include improved OP, high quality LFRs, good learning culture, and follower commitment. Furthermore,

researchers pointed out that TL can be developed. This could be done through developing training programmes for employees and including TL behaviour assessment as part of the annual appraisal system. The relationship between TL and OP is also explored, both in developing and developed countries and among the public and private sectors. Generally, it is demonstrated that TL positively and significantly predicted OP across various sectors and the globe.

## **CHAPTER 4**

# **THE INFLUENCE OF PROACTIVE INFLUENCE TACTICS AND THE QUALITY OF LEADER-FOLLOWER RELATIONSHIPS ON THE TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP - ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE RELATIONSHIP**

### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

Besides the direct relationship of TL to OP, this chapter explores the more complex relationship of TL to OP through the variables of sPITS and qLFRs. In this regard, models and classifications of influence tactics are highlighted, as well as the relationship between TL and soft influence tactics, and the relationship between soft influence tactics and OP. In addition, the theoretical model for qLFRs is explored, together with the classification and development of the qLFRs. The relationships between TL and qLFRs, the relationship between sPITS and qLFRs, as well as the relationship between qLFRs and OP, are explained. Based on theoretical explanations, and previous empirical research relating to these relationships, a conceptual model, including several hypotheses are proposed for the purposes of the present study. This is done to guide the following chapter on methodology.

### **4.2 INFLUENCE TACTICS**

Influence tactics can be classified by their main purpose and time frame. Based on this, three types of influence tactics can be identified: (a) proactive tactics (Yukl, 2002; Yukl, Chavez & Seifert, 2005; Yukl & Seifert, 2002), (b) impression management tactics (Kumar & Beyerlein, 1991), and (c) political tactics (Kacmar & Baron, 1999; Pfeffer, 1992;). The main focus of the present research is on proactive influence tactics (including hard and soft tactics) used by the leader to influence followers. However, the other two types of tactics (i.e. impression management and political tactics) are briefly explained to provide a broader picture of influence tactics.

#### **4.2.1 Proactive influence tactics**

According to Kipnis, Schmidt and Wilkinson (1980), and Yukl and Tracey (1992), influence is when an influence “agent” (leader) can alter the “target” (follower)’s perception through convincing the “target” to see the benefits of an intended behaviour shift. The influence methods (tactics) applied by the “agent” (leader) largely determines the success of an attempt by an individual (“agent”) to influence another person (“target”); as propounded by Farrell and Schroder (1996), and Yukl, Falbe and Young (1993). To this end, Yukl and Michel (2006) indicated that “proactive tactics can be used in an attempt to influence someone to carry out an immediate task”.

Yukl and Falbe (1990) acknowledged the major work on proactive influence tactics that was done by Kipnis et al. (1980, p.447) who identified eight types of influence tactics: “ingratiation, rationality, assertiveness, sanctions, exchange, upward appeal, blocking and coalition”. In their work, Yukl and Falbe (1990) added inspirational appeal and consultation, while removing sanctions and blocking. Eventually, a total of 11 proactive influence tactics were identified, namely “rational persuasion, inspirational appeals, consultation, collaboration, apprising, personal appeals, ingratiation, exchange, legitimating tactic, pressure tactic and coalition tactics” (Yukl et al., 2008, p.610). Each of the proactive influence tactics is explained below.

According to Barbuto and Warneke (2014), rational persuasion is where a leader uses logic and facts in a request to a follower. The leader tries to convince the follower that the request is in line with organisational goals and values and that the request would result in positive outcomes. Yukl and Tracey (1992) added that the leader seeks to show that the request can produce good results towards attaining organisational goals. Regarding consultation, the leader invites the follower to contribute to planning, decision making, and assessing complex situations (Barbuto & Warneke, 2014). The follower gets involved from the planning stage. The leader also offers to modify the request, to include suggestions by the follower (Yukl & Tracey, 1992).

Inspirational appeals are where a leader ignites enthusiasm in the follower through appeals to ideals, values and goals (Barbuto & Warneke, 2014). Such appeals can enhance follower confidence to carry out a task successfully. Yukl and Tracey (1992) agree that this request involves a leader raising enthusiasm in the follower by also appealing to the follower’s aspirations, and this improves follower confidence to carry

out the task. With collaboration, a leader offers to help or support the follower in carrying out a request and provides enough resources (Yukl & Michel, 2006). This helps followers in carrying out difficult tasks. This was also echoed by Charbonneau (2004), who explained that collaboration influence tactics involve leader support such as providing resources and providing assistance for the tasks.

As for ingratiation, Barbuto and Warneke (2014) highlighted that a leader offers compliments or behaves in a friendly manner before asking the follower to carry out a task. Yukl and Tracey (1992) added that the leader tries to put the follower in a good mood or to think positively of the leader before a request is done. Apprising as a tactic involves a leader supplying information to the follower regarding the benefits of carrying out a task, for instance, career development and promotion (Yukl & Michel, 2006). Such benefits would likely profit the follower personally. Thus, the leader uses such benefits to encourage the follower to carry out a task.

Where a leader appeals to the follower's feeling of loyalty, friendship or relationship; this is personal appeals (Barbuto & Warneke, 2014). This was supported by Yukl and Tracey (1992), by citing that this request appeals to followers' friendships and loyalty before a leader asks for the request to be carried out. On the other hand, pressure, according to Barbuto and Warneke (2014), is where a leader uses threats, reminders and demands in a request for a task, and the leader expects compliance from the follower. This was also confirmed by Yukl and Tracey (1992) who indicated that the leader uses threats in the request to the follower.

Regarding legitimating, Barbuto and Warneke (2014) expressed that, for the leader to show that the request is legitimate, the leader uses authority to make a request, and subsequently, the request has to be carried out by the follower. This is based on the leader's legitimate authority, job description, organisational procedures as well as norms with which one has to comply. According to Yukl and Tracey (1992), this involves a leader leaning on authority to make the request, and that the request would be in line with rules and policies of the organisation. Meanwhile, a coalition is where a leader seeks the support of another third-party person in asking for the request to be carried out (Barbuto & Warneke, 2014). This can take the form of a leader mentioning someone high in the organisation to influence the follower. In other words, the leader seeks support from others in making a request to followers (Yukl & Trace, 1992).

As indicated by Yukl and Michel (2006), an exchange is when a leader clearly offers something as a reward for the follower to carry out a request, and the follower would be expected to carry out the task based on trust that the promised reward would be provided once the task is completed. Yukl and Tracey (1992) added that the leader proposes to give certain benefits if the task is carried out and shows a willingness to reciprocate to the follower if the task is done.

After assessing the application of the 11 proactive tactics, Bochenko, Leech, Gibson, Pate, and Siegrist (2015) grouped seven of these as hard tactics. The hard tactics were identified as legitimating, apprising, coalition, exchange, pressure, ingratiate, and personal appeals (Bochenko, et al., 2015). On the other hand, the other tactics, being “rational persuasion, inspirational appeal, collaboration, consultation, and personal appeal” (Yukl et al., 2008, p.614) were termed soft tactics (Falbe & Yukl, 1992) and were important in influencing subordinates’ commitment to work outcomes. Hard tactics refer to when a leader uses authority and a position of power to influence followers (Falbe & Yukl, 1992). These hard tactics are applied in an impersonal and manipulative manner (Falbe & Yukl, 1992). Hard tactics are also used in coercive ways, whereas soft tactics involve the use of personal power-sharing between the leader and followers.

While there is general consensus on the soft and hard influence tactics, some researchers have elected to classify ingratiation as hard tactics (Bochenko et al., 2015); while others accepting ingratiation as a soft tactic (Kapoutsis, Papalexandris & Nikolopoulos, 2010; Mehta & Krishnan, 2004). Additionally, Bochenko et al. (2015) classify personal appeal as a hard tactic. However, other studies consider it as a soft tactic (Mehta & Krishnan, 2004). Kapoutsis et al. (2010) posit that, of the proactive tactics classified by Falbe and Yukl (1992), soft tactics include ingratiation, consultation, inspirational appeal and personal appeal, while hard tactics include legitimating. From the above, most literature supports that hard and soft influence tactics are proactive tactics as illustrated.

Overall, hard tactics include pressure, legitimating, coalition, exchange, personal appeals to some extent, apprising to some extent, and to some extent, ingratiation. Soft tactics are mainly “rational persuasion, consultation, inspirational appeal, collaboration, and personal appeal” (Yukl et al., 2008, p.614) which are also termed

core tactics. When applied to a lesser extent, it would seem that ingratiation and apprising could also be treated as soft tactics.

#### **4.2.2 Impression management tactics**

Rosenfeld, Giacalone and Riordan (1995) described impression management as the process by which individuals try to influence the impression other people have of them. Impression management tactics, which are derived from impression management, can be defined as those tactics used by people “to influence the images others have of them during social interaction” (Lievens & Peeters, 2008, p.174). As highlighted by Fletcher (1990), and Schneider (1981), this could be done consciously or unconsciously. Further to this, Schneider (1981) viewed impression management tactics as having various forms that include verbal and non-verbal tactics. Lievens and Peeters (2008) observed that verbal impression management tactics can be assertive or defensive. They stated that assertive verbal tactics (for example self-promotion, opinion conformity, entitlement) are used to actively create a favourable image while defensive verbal impression management tactics are used to protect or repair one’s image (for instance, justification).

With regards to non-verbal tactics, Lievens and Peeters (2008, p.174) noted that these include “smiling, eye contact, hand gestures or nodding affirmatively”. However, Harris, Kacmar, Zivnuska & Shaw (2007) highlighted that little is known about why and how these impression management tactics work. These impression management tactics do not resemble any of the sPITS, but rather have some similarities to hard tactics, especially as the impression management tactics are based on conformity and entitlement among other factors.

#### **4.2.3 Political tactics**

Political tactics are those behaviours and actions used by a social actor to influence other social actors to achieve self-interest goals (Nejad, Abbaszadeh & Hassani, 2011). According to Nejad et al. (2011), and Hoy and Miskel, (2008), political tactics can be categorised to include ingratiation, networking, information management, impression management and coalition building. From the above classification, impression management tactics are thus part of political tactics. Political tactics can be used in organisations and have similarities to hard influence tactics, although they

are different (Nejad et al., 2011). Nejad et al. (2011) added that political tactics could be either legitimate or illegitimate, with illegitimate ones mostly based on misinformation and dishonesty. If compared to proactive influence tactics, this would have a resemblance to hard tactics that are manipulative and seek to capitalise on appeal to rewards, for example, ingratiation and coalition.

### **4.3 THE LINK OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP TO SOFT PROACTIVE INFLUENCE TACTICS**

This section assesses the relationship between TL and proactive influence tactics. This assessment focuses on both developing and developed countries, as well as on private and public sector organisations. The theoretical explanation for these relationships is also provided. The relationship of TL and influence tactics; though not widely studied has been observed by different researchers.

#### **4.3.1 The link of transformational leadership to soft proactive influence tactics in developing countries**

Lian and Tui (2012) used respondents from major industries in Malaysia, including the services industry, manufacturing industry, mining industry and construction industry for studies about the private sector. The study by Lian and Tui (2012) demonstrated a positive and significant relationship between TL and sPITS. Lian and Tui (2012) highlighted that TL positively and significantly predicted inspirational appeal, consultation and ingratiation. One of the reasons was because of the use of consultation, inspirational appeals and ingratiation nurturing a more satisfied, cooperative, and stable relationship between the TL and the follower (Lian & Tui, 2012; Yukl et al., 2008).

Inspirational appeals involve requests based on follower values and ideals, which ignite an emotional response from the followers and creates follower enthusiasm to carry out tasks or requests (Lian & Tui, 2012; Yukl, 2002). Hence inspirational appeals could be linked to TLr's inspirational motivation where the leader motivates and inspires followers towards a common vision, and uses emotional persuasion to gain followers' acceptance and commitment to the organisational goals. These TL attributes that have similarities to the inspirational appeals could, therefore, explain how TL is positively related to soft influence tactics.

TL attributes are also compatible with consultation tactics, where consultation includes asking followers to present alternative solutions to identified problems and asking followers to participate in proposals and planning of tasks (Lian & Tui, 2012; Yukl, 2002). This could be linked to TL's consideration and intellectual stimulation. With individual consideration, the leader views each follower as unique, supports the followers to pursue their aspirations, consider the follower's abilities, attend to the follower one-on-one, recognises follower achievements, and coaches and mentors the follower (Charbonneau, 2004; Lian & Tui, 2012). These TL behaviours create good relationships with followers who feel appreciated and who may comply with the leader's request. Hence the positive correlation between TL and soft influence tactics. In addition, intellectual stimulation involves challenging followers to think of alternative solutions and to find creative and innovative solutions. In turn, followers become closer to the TL, express ideas freely, and have mutual interests towards the organisation's goals (Charbonneau, 2004; Lian & Tui, 2012). Consultation influence tactics, therefore, resonate with TL. As such, this influence tactic is likely to be accepted by followers since the followers are involved in the planning process. In fact, involving the followers in the planning process can bring a sense of ownership to the tasks being requested by the leader.

Inspirational appeals influence tactics, which encompasses requests based on ideals, values and aspirations (Lian & Tui, 2012), stimulate the emotion of followers through symbols and appeals that are vividly imaginary (Charbonneau, 2004). The inspirational appeals also increase the followers' self-confidence (Lian & Tui, 2012). Through TL's inspirational motivation, the leader expresses an appealing vision using stories and symbols that invoke optimism and enthusiasm, thereby motivating followers in pursuing the vision (Yukl, 2002). The followers receive these inspirational appeals in a positive way and tackle the requests in an optimistic and enthusiastic manner. Hence the positive correlation between TL and inspirational appeals.

As pointed out by Lian and Tui (2012), despite several types of research expressing the importance of studying the leadership influence process (Bass, 1990; Hollander & Offermann, 1990; Yukl, 1989), there are a few studies on the relationship between TL and proactive influence tactics. In addition, Lian and Tui (2012) noted that, while there is extensive research on upward influence tactics, there are only a few studies on

downward influence tactics, and how these relate to TL in pursuit of organisational outcomes, such as OP. The present study thus seeks to bridge that gap by examining downward influence tactics, which are the proactive influence tactics as opposed to the widely studied upward influence tactics.

Lian and Tui (2012) also noted that studies that include leadership, downward influence tactics, and followers' competencies as a combined model in a single study, are very limited. The present study addressed this gap by including TL, sPITS, qFRs and OP in a comprehensive model. Of note from Lian and Tui's (2012) study is that this is one of the few studies where TL precedes proactive influence tactics. This is important in that it set the ground rules for the present study that modelled TL as an antecedent to proactive influence tactics in a composite TL-OP model.

#### **4.3.2 The link of transformational leadership to soft proactive influence tactics in developed countries**

Clarke and Ward (2006) opined that despite the importance of the leader's influence tactics on the follower, most of researches and validation thereof was on upward influence tactics, with lesser studies on the leader's downward tactics. This view supports that of Higgins et al. (2003) who noted the same. Meanwhile, besides the researches in developing countries, there are also studies carried out in developed countries on the relationship between TL and sPITS. In the private sector, some of the studies include Tepper (1993), and Clarke and Ward (2006). Such studies are critical to leadership literature in that it lays bare what proactive influence tactics are available to the leader, and how and when to use these tactics (Case, Dosier, Murkison, & Keys, 1988; Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988; Yukl & Falbe, 1990).

From their study involving a large financial institution in the USA, Tepper (1993) suggested that TL would use soft tactics such as inspirational appeals, consultation and rational persuasion to achieve routine objectives. Tepper (1993) explained that this is because TL instils follower commitment and loyalty, and this may foster acceptance of the leader's request by followers. This notion was supported by Clarke and Ward (2006), in their study conducted in a UK glassware manufacturing company. They observed that rational persuasion and other soft tactics are frequently used by TLrs and are more effective than hard tactics on followers. Clarke and Ward (2006) expressed that the consultation tactic which involves engaging followers in decision

making can be traced to TL. This could be so since the individual consideration dimension of TL involves one on one engagement with followers. Also, the intellectual stimulation dimension, which includes the leader using new ideas from followers on how to resolve challenging tasks, could also be linked to the consultation tactic.

Furthermore, inspirational appeals, which involve a leader using emotional language and appealing to follower value systems, was found to be associated with TL, as it fosters commitment and enthusiasm (Clarke & Ward, 2006). The reason could be that TL's inspirational motivation dimension also appeals to followers' values and beliefs, as well as fostering enthusiasm and commitment, hence the association. Those considerations mentioned above could explain a positive relationship between TL and soft influence tactics.

With regard to the public sector in developed countries, a study conducted in Canada by Charbonneau (2004) with respondents from military personnel showed that TL had significant positive correlations with various soft influence tactics: rational persuasion ( $r = .55, p < .001$ ), inspirational appeals ( $r = .45, p < .001$ ), and consultation ( $r = .34, p < .001$ ). However, there was also a non-significant positive correlation between TL and collaboration ( $r = .26, ns$ ). As highlighted by Charbonneau (2004), the use of "rational persuasion, consultation and collaboration are expected to result in followers' commitment to a request". With rational persuasion, the leader uses factual evidence, explanation and logical arguments to show that the request is possible to carry out successfully and that the request is in line with task objectives (Yukl, 2002; Yukl & Seifert, 2002), and this gains follower commitment. This is in common with Tepper (1993) where TL instils follower commitment, resulting in acceptance to soft influence tactics.

Charbonneau (2004) also explained that the collaboration influence tactic involves leader's support such as providing resources and assistance for the tasks and as a result the followers would have a positive attitude towards the leader (Yukl & Michel, 2006). Accordingly, the collaboration tactic resonates with TL's consideration, where the TL seeks to ensure that the followers' needs, aspirations and goals are supported (Charbonneau, 2004). TL's idealised influence dimension could be linked to the rational persuasion tactic. The idealised influence dimension involves leaders being role models, respected, trusted, admired and determined (Charbonneau, 2004). A

leader exhibiting idealised influence is firm on beliefs and values the purpose of existence (Bass, 1997) as well as being transparent and consistent in providing reasons for decisions (Kelloway & Barling, 2000). The consistency and transparency in providing reasons for decisions by the TL are consistent with rational persuasion tactics where the leader seeks to influence followers by providing rationale or reason, logic and evidence to execute a task (Yukl, 2002). As such, the above could explain the positive correlation between TL's idealised influence and rational persuasion.

Furthermore, the TL's attributes of intellectual stimulation involve enabling followers to be innovative, creative, reasoning (rational), factual (Charbonneau, 2004) and express their ideas, questioning the status quo, and thinking of alternative ways to solve problems (Boyett, 2006). It, therefore, shows that intellectual stimulation resembles the rational persuasion tactic, and this explains the positive correlation between TL and rational persuasion tactic.

However, in Charbonneau's (2004) study, the direction of the correlation, which is different from the direction in the present study, was noted. In Charbonneau's (2004) study, the influence tactics preceded TL, while in the present study, TL preceded sPITS. Thus, the direction of TL – sPITS in the present study widens the scope of the known relationship between these two variables. The study by Charbonneau (2004) simply provides a foundation for the theoretical explanation of the relationship between TL and sPITS.

#### **4.4 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SOFT PROACTIVE INFLUENCE TACTICS AND ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE**

In this section, the relationship between soft proactive tactics and OP is presented. Theoretical explanations, as well as the findings of empirical studies, are provided for this relationship. However, as indicated by Kapoutsis, Papalexandris and Thanos (2016), empirical evidence regarding how proactive influence tactics affect different facets of performance, such as OP, is scarce. A study by Shin and Hyun (2019) highlighted the positive relationship between rational persuasion and OP ( $r=.456$ ,  $p<.001$ ), inspirational appeals and OP ( $r=.399$ ,  $p<.001$ ), and consultation and OP ( $r=.462$ ,  $p<.001$ ). This will imply that if a leader applies more of these tactics, the OP increases. The observation in Shin and Hyun's (2019) study support other previous studies (Lee, Han, Cheong, Kim & Yun, 2017; Lian & Tui, 2012).

A related study was carried out by Lee et al. (2017), and this was a meta-analytic review of 49 research studies whose samples were from both developing and developed countries for public and private sectors. Lee et al.'s (2017,p.1) study showed that soft tactics in the form of “rational persuasion, inspirational appeal, collaboration, and consultation” had a positive effect on task outcomes, including OP. As such, an increase in the application of these soft tactics led to enhanced OP. Explaining the positive relationship between soft tactics and OP, Lee et al. (2017) noted that rational persuasion could persuade followers through reason to carry out tasks, as well as through encouraging follower commitment, all which consequently enhanced OP. As for the TL's use of inspirational appeals, Lee et al. (2017) expressed the view that this tactic ignites enthusiasm in followers by appealing to followers' values and ideals and this consequently increases follower confidence in carrying out a task. Thus, as the leader and followers share similar goals and values, there is likely to be more commitment, and eventually, the followers put more effort into getting the tasks done, thereby enhancing OP.

Furthermore, the findings of research executed by Lian and Tui (2012), showed that the inspirational appeals tactic was positively correlated to OP ( $r=.53$ ,  $p<.01$ ); while consultation's positive correlation to OP was  $r= .58$ ,  $p<.01$ . This would imply that as a leader applied more of these soft influence tactics, OP increased. Lian and Tui (2012) showed that the inspirational appeals tactic positively predicted OP ( $\beta = .153$ ,  $p<.005$ ). In the same study, the consultation tactics also predicted OP ( $\beta= .210$ ,  $p<.005$ ). This was because the use of sPITS motivate and inspire followers to perform better. The findings from Lian and Tui (2012) demonstrated that the use of soft influence tactics by leaders who exhibited TL behaviours had a significant positive contribution to OP.

#### **4.5 QUALITY OF LEADER-FOLLOWER RELATIONSHIP**

This section presented the theoretical framework for the qLFRs, the classification of the LFRs and the development of LFRs. Additionally, the relationship between TL and qLFRs is explained. In addition, the relationship between soft proactive tactics and the qLFRs is also explored. The other relationship assessed is that between the qLFRs and OP. From these relationships, hypotheses are developed for the present study.

#### **4.5.1 Theoretical frameworks/ models of leader-follower relationships**

Under this section, the models for qLFRs, namely the Leader-Member Exchange Theory and the Theory of Reciprocity, are discussed. The LFR can be viewed as a collaboration between leaders and followers or subordinates (May-Chiun, Mohamad, Ramayah, & Chai., 2015). This relationship between leaders and followers can be explained by the Leader-Member-Exchange Theory, which, according to Joo (2010) was popularised by Graen and various research associates as they assessed the exchange processes in the LFRs. (Dansereau, Cashman & Graen, 1973; Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975; Graen, 1976, Graen & Scandura. 1987) Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) mentioned that the conceptualisation of the Leader-Member Exchange theory had gone through refinements since its inception in the 1970s when it started as an alternative to the Vertical Dyad Linkage. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) highlighted that the original concept has developed into a clear prescription for developing and maintaining effective LFRs in the Leader-Member Exchange theory.

Graen and Scandura (1987) explained that leaders and followers could form a high-quality relationship (social exchanges) characterised by confidence, open interaction and sharing of information. It is also possible to develop low quality social exchanges between the leader and follower, and such a relationship does not go beyond the contractual employment requirements (Liden et al., 2006; Sparrowe & Liden, 1997). Despite this important theory for the LFRs, May-Chiun et al. (2015) noted that there is limited research that examined the relationships between leadership styles, leader-member exchange and their effects on OP.

Another related theory that explains the LFRs is the Theory of Reciprocity (Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003). This follows previous work by Gouldner (1960), Homans (1958), and Malinoski (1922), where Gouldner (1960) expressed reciprocity as a way of exchange among individuals which brings mutual dependency. In fact, with reciprocity comes a feeling of obligation between the individuals who feel indebted to each other until “repayment” (Gouldner, 1960). Uhl-Bien and Maslyn (2003), and Liden et al. (1997) highlighted that there is both negative and positive reciprocity. According to Uhl-Bien and Maslyn (2003), negative reciprocity involves individuals exchanging injuries or wrongs. Uhl-Bien and Maslyn (2003), Liden et al. (1997), and Uhl-Bien (2000) asserted

that negative reciprocity is characterised by disrespect, mistrust, disloyalty, poor communication, misunderstandings, lack of support, lack of commitment and at times some level of enmity. On the other hand, positive reciprocity entails benefits being exchanged between individuals and is categorised as balanced reciprocity and generalised reciprocity (Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003). Of this positive reciprocity, balanced reciprocity includes low and high-quality LFRs, while generalised reciprocity is the higher form of positive reciprocity, more than balanced reciprocity (Liden et al., 1997; Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003).

In their study, Uhl-Bien and Maslyn (2003) supported that indeed, the Leader-Member Exchange theory sufficiently distinguishes between high and low LFRs. However, Uhl-Bien and Maslyn (2003) highlighted that the theory was not enough to isolate negative reciprocity, which could be found in real work relationships. Uhl-Bien and Maslyn (2003) further indicated that their study validates the Leader-Member Exchange Theory, since the positive reciprocity behaviours are aligned with the Leader-Member Exchange theory.

While both the Leader-Member Exchange theory and the theory of reciprocity augment each other and are interlinked in assessing the qLFRs (Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003), the Leader-Member Exchange theory is adopted in the present study. Uhl-Bien and Maslyn's (2003) study on reciprocity theory supported the Leader-Member-Exchange theory as valid and sufficient in distinguishing between low-quality LFR and high-quality LFR.

#### **4.5.2 Classification of the Quality of Leader-Follower Relationships (using the Leader-Member Exchange Theory)**

The qLFRs are dependent upon trust, level of interaction, support as well as rewards awarded to the followers (Jyoti & Bhau, 2015), among other factors. Zacher, Pearce, Rooney, and McKenna (2014), Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995), and Liden et al. (1997) noted that the unique quality of leaders' relationships with followers are created by leaders and maintained over time. Jyoti and Bhau (2015) concurred with Graen and Uhl-Bien's (1995) classification of the qLFRs as either high quality relationships or low quality relationships, where high quality LFRs are characterised by mutual trust, support, loyalty, professional respect, work contribution as well as understanding.

In high-quality LFRs, followers benefit in terms of effective communication, the leader's support, and gaining the trust and approval of the leader (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Furthermore, followers have autonomy in decision making and get favourable tasks or assignments (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). In exchange for the above benefits extended to the followers, followers would reciprocate by ensuring more performance (Liden, Sparrowe & Wayne, 1997).

May-Chiun (2015) added that in high-quality relationships, leaders offer strong support to favoured followers and the followers perform their tasks beyond the basic job requirements due to motivation. May-Chiun (2015) added that high-quality relationships also enhance skills of followers and can improve OP. May-Chiun's (2015) assertion supports the view of Eisenberger et al. (2010) that a high-quality relationship between a leader and follower involves enhanced trust, liking, respect and chosen followers are provided with more resources which leads to followers' loyalty and improved performance. In high-quality relationships, leaders also encourage their followers to take up more responsibilities than those required under a normal employment contract (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

According to Howell and Hall-Merenda (1999), followers in high-quality relationships frequently interact with their leaders, have confidence, have the leader's consideration and play a bigger role in attaining organisational goals. In addition, Tse (2008) espoused that resources and benefits (tangible and intangible) provided by the leader assist in building the relationship, as the follower identifies himself or herself with a group based on the benefits extended to him/her. Consequently, the follower becomes committed to the qLFR and feels indebted or obliged to reciprocate by working better to maintain the relationships (Hogg et al., 2005). Also, followers in high-quality LFRs have less role conflict, get more emotional support and are assisted more on how to carry out daily tasks than those in low qLFRs (Gerstner & Day, 1997). In addition, followers in high-quality LFRs rise quickly on promotion as compared to followers in low LFRs (Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994).

On the other hand, low-quality LFRs are characterised by low-quality economic relationships where quid pro quo and contractual exchanges of tangible assets are the order of the day (Cropanzano & Mitchel 2005). Furthermore, in low-quality LFRs, followers are seen as "hired hands" and are restricted to formal job requirements

(Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The followers also get mundane tasks, have less support from the leader and have fewer chances for promotion (Bolino & Turnley, 2009). Some research studies (Erdogan & Liden, 2002) indicate that low-quality LFRs occur when the exchanges between the leader and follower are restricted to the exchange of specific contractual resources. Liden et al. (2006) added that leaders might choose to develop a low-quality relationship with the followers in which the relationship does not extend above the normal employment obligations. Such low-quality relationships are associated with lack of trust, less support from leaders, lack of follower motivation and few resources for the followers; which may all lead to lower performance when compared to high-quality relationships (May-Chiun, 2015).

Supporting the above views about low quality LFRs, Howell and Hall-Merenda (1999, p.689) maintained that “low quality leader follower relationships involve unidirectional downward influence and formal role-defined relationships and goals” that are based on contractual obligations. In these relationships, leaders rely on formal employment contracts of subordinates who in turn abide by the requirements of their contracts (Dunegan, Duchon & Uhl-Bien, 1992).

#### **4.5.3 Development of leader-follower relationships**

Wang et al. (2005) concurred with Graen and Uhl-Bien’s (1995) development phases of the qLFR as three sequential steps, which are “stranger”, “acquaintance” and “partner”. The stranger phase is where the leader offers modestly extended roles or tasks to see if the follower can complete these. This is a formal relationship that is less interactive, and there is low trust between the leader and the follower. Once the follower completes the expanded roles successfully, the leader provides more responsibilities, discretion and benefits. This second phase is the acquaintance stage. In this stage, there is a sharing of information, assigning of tasks, validating trustworthiness, validating potential followers, and building relationships.

The qLFRs then moves to the last phase of maturity (transformational kind). This phase is termed the partner stage, and at this stage, followers are motivated by the need to satisfy long term and broader goals of the collective work unit, as opposed to immediate self-interest. At this partner stage, there is sharing of more resources, more confidence, and more information sharing. These stages above are important in understanding how the qLFR develops. Moreso given that this understanding is critical

to both leader and followers, as they engage with each other. However, Graen and Uhl-Bien's (1995) study could not provide a timeline for each stage of development. It would be valuable if the previous research studies had provided indicative timelines for each of the stages or phases.

Nahrgang, Morgeson, and Ilies (2009) state that LFRs develop and evolve over time irrespective of it being a high quality or low-quality relationship. The study by Nahrgang et al. (2009) is important in that it implies that the qLFRs takes shape quickly at the initial interaction between leader and follower; hence both the leader and follower should consider the initial interaction as vital for their relationships. The above point was in common with Gerstner and Day (1997) who noted that, with new and different experiences between the leader and follower, the relationship changes as both leader and follower become more knowledgeable about each other. Therefore, a general improvement of the relationship between the leader and followers occurs over time. Therefore, the qLFRs should be managed continuously to improve it, otherwise the relationship may suffer. This supports other previous studies that noted that the qLFRs improves over time (Liden et al., 1993).

However, it is not impossible that the relationship can actually deteriorate instead of improving since there are other factors that influence these relationships. To assume that the relationship quality improves over time could be overstating reality. The importance of this though, is that there is an opportunity for leaders to continuously build their relationships with their followers over time, irrespective of the relationship quality at the initial interaction.

#### **4.6 THE LINK OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP TO THE QUALITY OF LEADER-FOLLOWER RELATIONSHIPS**

In this section, the relationship between TL and the qLFRs are discussed. Theoretical explanations are provided for the relationships, as found in other empirical studies in both the developed countries and developing countries, covering various sectors, including the private sector and public sector.

##### **4.6.1 Transformational leadership and the quality of leader-follower relationships in developed countries**

As pointed out by Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber (2009), research on leadership often lacks a discussion on followership. Describing the relationship of a TL and the follower,

Burns (1978) stated that TL gives birth to a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers to leaders. The study by Howell and Hall-Merenda (1999) was one of the first ones to examine the relationship between the qLFR and TL empirically. This study was done in Canada for a large financial institution in the private sector. The study was in common with some previous studies (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) in that the qLFR was positively related to TL.

Howell and Hall-Merenda (1999), and Deluga (1992) argued that there was a significant positive relationship between TL's dimensions and high qLFR. Howell and Hall-Merenda (1999), observed that leadership-focused literature, for instance, research on TL, assumes a relationship between leader and follower. Still, it falls short on answering such questions as to how, and why followers' performance varies for different leaders. In this regard, calls have therefore been made to integrate the leader-focused literature (e.g. TL) and literature on the LFRs (e.g. leader-member-exchange) to explore how leaders create and maintain different qualities of relationships with different followers (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Related research was carried out by Yukl et al (2008) in the USA using samples from University MBA students working in the public and private sector. Other samples also came from the private sector's banking institutions and grocery chain shops. In the study, Yukl et al. (2008) highlighted that TL was significantly related to the qLFR. Through the individual consideration dimension of TL, the TL supports followers, recognises, develops, and consults followers, and delegates effectively. In response, followers reciprocate with a positive attitude towards the leader, the followers become committed to the leader, and they build trust with the leader Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995). Consequently, this improves the qLFR (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The study by Yukl et al. (2008), in which the samples were from both the public and private sector, demonstrates consistency in the results for the relationship between TL and the qLFRs. The empirical evidence for various studies points to same results for the relationship above.

However, Piccolo and Colquitt 's (2006) study that included various sectors (in the USA) observed that leadership is dependent on the follower's willingness to surrender powers partly; either through inclination or pressure. In this view, some of the followers could resist the TL's behaviour, while others accepted the TL's behaviour. Followers

in high-quality LFRs have trust in the leaders, show commitment, and they are more receptive to TL, while followers in low-quality LFRs exhibit formal and impersonal communication with the leaders which may not be responsive to TL.

#### **4.6.2 Transformational leadership and the quality of leader-follower relationships in developing countries**

In developing countries, research in the private sector showed that the understanding of TLs and follower relationships is very crucial (Fok-Yew, 2015), and this helps to expand knowledge of such relationships. Zou, Zheng and Liu (2015), in their study for the hospitality sector (hotels) in China, demonstrated that TLs develop followers' relational identity through communicating high expectations, personal recognition, follower development (individual consideration dimension), and intellectual stimulation. As a result, the followers reciprocate to the TLr by working hard work, showing trust and respect to the leader, resulting in high quality relationship between the TLr and the followers. TLs also cultivate followers' capabilities through constructive feedback, praise them for their skills and performance, provide advice for their development (individual consideration dimension); and encourage followers to apply new methods to solve problems (intellectual stimulation dimension). In return, followers recognise the TLr as a caring and supportive leader; thus, the bond of affection between the two strengthens (Zou et al., 2015).

The above studies support that of Bass (1985) which noted that TLs motivate followers (inspirational motivation dimension) to put in extra effort and think creatively about complex problems (intellectual stimulation dimension) which in turn sees followers' behaviour changing towards positive attitude for the leader. This helps build the LFR. According to Fok-Yew's (2015) study in multinational corporations in Malaysia, followers of TLs worked in a more resourceful environment; thus, their basic needs were fulfilled. With this support from the TLs, the followers consequently support the leader, including developing a good relationship with the leader.

Chun, Cho and Sosik (2016) had a similar study in Korea, covering various industries, namely manufacturing, telecommunications, financial services, construction and services. In this study, Chun et al. (2016), supported the views of Kark & Shamir (2002), and Atwater and Bass (1994) that intellectual stimulation ignites followers to think independently. Both individual consideration and intellectual stimulation are

viewed as providing intangible personalised resources to followers, and both individual consideration and intellectual stimulation, therefore, enhance high qLFRs (Chun et al. 2016). This explained the positive relationship between TL and the qLFRs.

Further, Chun et al.'s (2016) study investigating the relationship between TL, qLFRs and performance demonstrated that TL's group focused behaviour of idealised influence and inspirational motivation improved qLFRs between followers in high-performance teams. This was done through a shared vision, team synergy and perceived task independence. Furthermore, individual-focused TL behaviour of individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation improved personalised relationships. Therefore, high-quality LFRs could be linked to individual consideration and intellectual stimulation. Chun et al.'s (2016) study is important in that it covered various sectors and pointed to the positive relationship between TL and the qLFRs, implying that the relationship is consistent across various sectors.

In a study carried out at a call centre in China, Tse (2008) posited that TLs motivate followers to internalise the group and organisational values, thereby stimulating their social identification (Bass, 1995). As already indicated by Tse (2008), TL behaviour promotes trust in followers, thereby enhancing the qLFR development. Furthermore, Burch and Guarana (2014) noted that TL is focused on the leader's ability to change followers by inspiring them, while the qLFRs are focused on a leader's unique relationship with individual followers, and the attitudes and behaviours of followers are dependent on the relationship with the leader. Burch and Guarana's (2014) study was on a multinational technology company in Brazil. The study is important in integrating TL and leader-member-exchange theories. Previous studies have shown the qLFR to moderate between TL and task performance (Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang & Chen, 2005).

Wang et al. (2005) carried out their study in China, in various organisations, including a bank. By using SEM path coefficients, Wang et al. (2005) demonstrated that TL is a significant positive predictor of the quality of the LFR, as TL behaviour nurtures a high quality of the LFR. In addition, Wang et al. (2005) showed that TL was a stronger predictor of follower outcomes such as task performance when the qLFRs was high,

than when the qLFR was low. Wang et al. (2005) asserted in their research that TL positively influenced OP through positive association with the quality of the LFR.

Research in developing countries in the public sector shows that relationship building between the leader and followers can be traced to TL characteristics (Jyoti & Bhau, 2015). This study was carried out in the higher education sector for Government degree colleges. As demonstrated by Jyoti and Bhau (2015, p.8), “idealised influence, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation and individual consideration” can positively influence the development of high quality of the LFR. Intellectual stimulation helps the followers to think creatively and outside the box, with new ways of solving problems. This helps employees to improve OP (Jyoti & Bhau, 2015). Additionally, Jyoti and Bhau (2015) argued that TL improves the qLFR by ensuring that people become the best they can be, being friendly, providing individualised attention (individualised consideration dimension), motivating and satisfying them (inspirational motivation). Thus, TL’s positive correlation with the qLFRs.

With idealised influence, followers’ professional respect for their leader is enhanced; as well the followers seeing their leader as a role model and seeking to better their performance (Jyoti & Bhau, 2015). Inspirational motivation ensures that TL motivates and inspires followers, thereby increasing the qLFR (Stewart, 2006). Moreso, TL’s individualised consideration towards the followers helps in solving work-related and life-related problems of followers, consequently building a high qLFR resulting in satisfied followers (Bodla & Nawaz, 2010).

A study by Sadeghi and Pihie (2012) in Malaysia’s Government research universities showed that TLs have a close relationship with their followers by enhancing followers’ well-being. In return, the followers are loyal, grateful and they feel included in the organisational issues (Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012). Furthermore, TL is more effective than any other leadership style due to this close relationship between the TLs and followers (Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012). This confirms previous studies, for instance, Wang, Law and Chen (2008) who expressed that due to the positive attitude of TL towards followers, a strong bond between the follower and leader is created and developed (Wang et al., 2008). The importance of these research studies is the integration of TL and Leader-Member Exchange theories in management. They also expose how TL, as a

leadership model, is instrumental in developing a good relationships in the workplace with followers.

#### **4.7 THE LINK OF SOFT PROACTIVE INFLUENCE TACTICS TO QUALITY OF LEADER-FOLLOWER RELATIONSHIPS**

In this section, the relationship between proactive influence tactics and the qLFRs is explained. The explanation covers both developed and developing countries across various sectors. A theoretical explanation of this relationship is also provided.

##### **4.7.1 The link of soft proactive influence tactics to quality of leader-follower relationships in developed countries**

A research on the relationship between sPITS and qLFRs was carried out by Yukl and Michel (2006) in the USA, drawing respondents from Public Universities (MBA students), the financial services, pharmaceutical sector, manufacturing sector, dairy products firm and a printing company. In this research, Yukl and Michel (2006) expressed that their research in the public sector was one of the few studies to examine how the qLFRs are related to leaders' use of proactive influence tactics with subordinates. As indicated by Yukl and Michel (2006), and Schriesheim, Castro, Zhou and Yammarino (2002), there are only a few studies that examined the relationship of leaders' influence tactics and the quality of the leaders' relationships with their followers. Yukl and Michel (2006) further noted that some studies which investigated the relationship between the qLFRs and influence tactics used upward influence tactics by subordinates as opposed to proactive influence tactics by leaders (Deluga & Perry, 1991). The research by Yukl and Michel (2006) is critical in that it sets the foundation for study on the relationship between the qLFRs and proactive influence tactics, unlike previous studies which mainly focused on upward influence tactics. The other major factor of importance is that while the study drew on a sample from the public sector, it also had access to samples from other sectors as indicated above. This assisted in the validation of the relationship across various sectors.

In fact, Yukl and Michel (2006) expressed that in high-quality LFRs, the frequently used soft influence tactics were rational persuasion, consultation, inspirational appeals and collaboration. This was also confirmed by Yukl et al. (2008, p.614) who demonstrated that sPITS ("in the form of rational persuasion, consultation, inspirational appeals and collaboration") were positively correlated with the qLFRs. In

this regard, the high-quality relationship between the leader and follower would be expected to improve where there is more frequent application of the above sPITS. Yukl et al.'s (2008) study was conducted in the USA, with MBA students from a large university and employees from a grocery chain as respondents.

Moreover, Yukl et al. (2008) highlighted that the impact of using different proactive influence tactics would be observable in a leader's relationship with their followers. Thus, certain proactive influence tactics applied by the leader may affect the future relationship between leader and follower. On the other hand, the quality of existing relationships between the leader and follower can affect the leader's choice of proactive influence tactics applied on the follower (Sparrowe, Soetjpto & Kraimer, 2006), pointing to a possible reciprocal relationship.

Collaboration is where a leader supports followers by providing adequate resources, helping the followers to execute tasks, thereby increasing the positive affect of the followers towards the leader (Yukl & Michel, 2006). Consequently, this could result in the followers liking the leader and the followers reciprocating the supportive gesture, thereby cultivating a good relationship between leader and followers. Yukl and Michel (2006) also explained that inspirational appeals is where a leader makes a request based on ideals and values, communicates a vision of a better future and invokes emotions in the followers. This tactic would ignite enthusiasm in the followers, especially where the ideals and values being pursued are aligning with those of the followers. As a result, this leads to both the leader and follower having a common vision, thus helping to build high-quality LFRs.

Regarding rational persuasion; which uses reason, logic and explanation on how the task can be achieved and why the task is important, it is likely to be effective where followers trust the leader (Yukl & Michel, 2006). Due to the use of reason in influencing a follower to carry out a task, such influence may not face resistance but help build good relationships as the leader is believed to make informed decisions based on reason and not speculation and hearsay. In addition, followers may trust a leader where certain prior tasks could have been accomplished using similar rational thinking, as the leader is viewed as reliable and trustworthy.

Inspirational appeals involve requests based on ideals, values and aspirations (Lian & Tui, 2012) and it stimulates the emotion of followers through appeals that are vivid

imaginary and using symbols (Charbonneau, 2004). This soft influence tactic also increases the followers' self-confidence (Lian & Tui, 2012). As the leader uses this tactic, the followers feel attached to shared ideas and values, are inspired by the leader as the influence tactic stimulates positive emotion, and this consequently develops a bond in the relationship based on shared values and inspiration (Yukl & Michel, 2006). Thus, the more inspirational appeals are applied as an influence tactic, the more likely the qLFR would improve.

Furthermore, a similar study by Hunter, Ansari and Jayasingam (2013) on public universities in Canada and Malaysia proclaimed that leaders apply influence tactics on their followers based on the quality of LFRs; which concurs with previous studies like Yukl et al. (2008) where soft tactics were mostly positively related to a high qLFRs. This supports the findings of other researchers (Sparrowe et al., 2006) who expressed that use of soft tactics is viewed as a sign of respect to followers; hence soft tactics may promote a high qLFRs.

#### **4.7.2 The link of soft proactive influence tactics to the quality of leader-follower relationships in developing countries**

Studies relating to proactive influence tactics and the qLFRs in developing countries in the private sector showed that the leader's (agent) choice of proactive influence tactics depended on the leader's evaluation of the qLFRs (Lo et al., 2009). The study by Lo et al. (2009) was carried out on multinational companies in Malaysia from the manufacturing sector. The importance of this work is that it sets the base upon which the current research is to be built. Lo et al. (2009), however, exposed that there is little work linking the qLFR and proactive influence tactics in a single study, thus a need for incorporating these constructs simultaneously in one model, which cue the current study takes.

Another study was carried out by Cerado and Rivera (2015) in the Public Schools in the Philippines, using the Heads of the schools as the respondents. In this study, rational persuasion, inspirational appeals, personal appeals and consultation, collaboration were assessed. It was found that the most frequently applied proactive influence tactics were rational persuasion, inspirational appeals, personal appeal, consultation, and collaboration. Cerado and Rivera (2015) confirmed Lo et al.'s (2010) view that the sPITS were significantly and positively related to the qLFRs; which

results are consistent with other previous studies. This shows that in both the private and public sector, the relationship between sPITS and qLFRs was consistently a significantly positive one.

Cerado and Rivera's (2015) study demonstrated that "rational persuasion, inspirational appeal, consultation, collaboration, ingratiation and personal appeals" contributed to 69% of the variation in the qLFRs. This would imply that the more a leader applies soft influence tactics, the more likely the qLFR will improve. In their study, Cerado and Rivera (2015) also highlighted that leaders frequently used these sPITS. It was also observed that the above-mentioned soft tactics are most frequently preferred by leaders as they are friendly and subtle, and this consequently persuades followers to carry out tasks freely, support their leaders and become loyal to the leaders (Cerado & Rivera, 2015). Furthermore, the sPITS challenge followers to focus on shared goals, while the leader would support followers so that the best of the followers is achieved, thereby developing good LFRs (Cerado & Rivera, 2015).

It was also observed that as the leader applies the sPITS, both the leader and follower mutually recognise each other as unique individuals, and treat each other as friends, thereby improving their relationship (Cerado & Rivera, 2015). In addition, as indicated by Cerado and Rivera (2015), leaders provide support to followers, trust the followers, assist in the personal growth of followers; and in reciprocity, followers respect and become loyal to the leader, work hard and accomplish requested tasks. Overall, the above explanation on the relationship between sPITS and the qLFRs is important to the present study, as it sets a foundation regarding the proposed theoretical model in the present study on Zimbabwe's SOEs.

As expressed by Cerado and Rivera (2015), there is a need to replicate a similar study in other set-ups with a more extensive sample of varied people to enhance generalisability, especially in different organisational setups. The above observation has necessitated the use of various employee levels in SOEs, with Zimbabwe also seen as a different setup from the Philippines, which could make a difference in the results.

Other studies that focused on the review of samples across both private and public sectors, such as Lee et al. (2017) supported the positive relationship between sPITS and qLFRs. Lee et al. (2017) expressed that there was a positive relationship between

rational persuasion and the qLFRs. In addition, inspirational appeals were positively related to a high qLFRs (Lee et al., 2017). This agrees with earlier studies, for instance, Sparrowe et al. (2006), who observed that inspirational appeal was associated with a favourable follower response since the inspirational appeals tactic is viewed as confirmation of a good relationship with the leader. Yukl and Fable (1990) are of the same view, asserting that inspirational appeal was frequently used effectively to gain the cooperation of followers.

Lee et al. (2017) also highlighted that collaboration was positively correlated to qLFR, since the application of collaborations as a tactic is likely to be perceived as supportive and favourable behaviour. In addition, collaboration also improves a positive follower effect (Lee et al., 2017) towards the leader. Lee et al. (2017) added that the positive effect on leaders consequently would enhance or create high a qLFRs. Consultation was also found to be positively related to the qLFRs in Lee et al.'s (2017) study. As indicated by Lee et al. (2017), with consultation, the follower feels a good sense of being in charge of his or her work, which creates a favourable attitude towards the leader. Such a scenario is fertile ground for developing a high-quality relationship between leader and follower (Lee et al., 2017). This observation is in sync with previous studies, for example, Clarke and Ward (2006), in which it was noted that leaders' use of consultation enhances a sense of being trusted by the followers which consequently leads to positive outcomes of the relationship between leader and follower.

The importance of Lee et al.'s (2017) study is that it investigated the differential effects of individual proactive influence tactics on the qLFRs which is critical to the current study. Additionally, the study by Lee et al. (2017) can be helpful to leadership in deciding the appropriate proactive influence tactics to apply to create and enhance the qLFRs. However, as with some studies on the relationship for the same constructs, this study by Lee et al. (2017) did not specifically focus on TL but just on managers (agents) or leaders in general. It is hoped that specifically assessing how the sPITS affect the qLFRs in the context of TL would help in establishing valuable knowledge regarding TL theory.

## **4.8 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE QUALITY OF LEADER-FOLLOWER RELATIONSHIPS AND ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE**

In this section, the relationship between the qLFRs and OP is presented. Theoretical explanations are provided, based on empirical studies in both the developed countries and developing countries, covering various sectors, including the private sector and the public sector.

### **4.8.1 Relationship between the quality of leader-follower relationships and organisational performance in developed countries**

In their research in a large financial institution in Canada, in the private sector, Howell and Hall-Merenda (1999) noted that an explicit one-on-one relationship could develop between the leader and follower, and this involves mutual trust, respect and influence between the two. In related research done by Wayne, Shore, Bommer and Tetrick (2002) in two metal fabrication plants of a Fortune 500 company in the USA, the researchers found that a high qLFR ignites obligation and indebtedness by followers to reciprocate the leader's behaviour and attitudes shown towards them. In that regard, followers' behaviour in a high qLFR usually leads to performance beyond formal requirements, which in turn benefits the leaders (Liden & Graen, 1980). Wayne et al. (2002) agreed with previous research that there is a significant positive relationship between the qLFR and performance (Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999; Wayne et al., 1997). There are opportunities for future studies to focus on the relationship of qLFRs and performance, integrated with other leadership types as moderators or precursors (Erdogan & Enders, 2007). In the current study, the thrust was to integrate the qLFRs and performance, in the context of TL as a leadership style, thus answering to such call as above.

Of importance also is that the qLFR positively influenced follower performance regardless of the physical distance between the leader and the follower (Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999). This shows that it is possible and can even be effective still to lead from a distance; since with a high qLFR there is internalisation of "common goals, mutual trust, respect and obligation" (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) which helps followers to pursue organisational goals.

From their study carried out in Holland in an energy supply company, Janssen and Yperen (2004) noted that the qLFR motivates subordinates to improve in-role

performance. It was also observed that high-quality LFRs assist followers on skills development which eventually ensures that followers' in-role performance improves. Contrary to the high qLFRs, a low qLFRs was related to lower levels of in-role performance, and consequently low OP (Janssen & Yperen, 2004). Furthermore, Janssen and Yperen (2004) asserted that building a high-quality LFR can improve the performance of employees and the organisation; therefore leaders should work on building such relationships for better OP. Otherwise lower qLFRs would result in poor OP.

A related study by Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) which included varied sectors in the USA showed that qLFRs are positively related to task performance when qLFRs moderated between TL and task performance (as an indirect effect of TL on performance). Piccolo and Colquitt's (2006) study indicated that low TL was associated with low qLFRs and subsequently lower task performance, as compared to high TL which is related to high qLFRs and high task performance. For both high TL and low TL, low qLFRs was related to lower task performance than that of high qLFRs. Thus, leaders should cultivate a high qLFRs to enjoy high task performance. Particularly, the study is important as it simultaneously examined effects of TL through the qLFRs towards performance, which formed a good foundation for the present study on SOEs in Zimbabwe where TL, proactive influence tactics and qLFRs are examined in TL and OP.

As pointed out by Piccolo and Colquitt (2006), most of the research on leadership is based on a single theory or approach. However, an integrative approach may bring more insights; which gap must be covered by the integrated model of TL, proactive influence tactics, the qLFRs and simultaneously OP in the present study on Zimbabwe's SOEs.

Piccolo and Colquitt (2006), however asserted that it is reasonable to expect that while some followers are responsive to TL, other followers may be resistant to TL. This is in sync with some previous research (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) that pointed out that followers in high-quality LFRs are more responsive to their leaders since there are high trust and commitment levels between the leader and followers. On the other hand, followers in low quality LFRs have formal and impersonal communication with their leaders, which may be fertile ground for follower resistance to TL behaviours.

Mayfield and Mayfield's (2009) study from a health-care facility in the USA also observed that the qLFRs positively and significantly influenced employee performance, hence OP. It was, however, not clear whether this health-care facility was private or public sector related. This relationship was explained as when the relationship improves, followers reciprocate by improving OP, and these relationships are developed early but mature and become stable over time. In addition, good relationships between leader and followers nurture job satisfaction among followers (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2009), which can be instrumental to followers wanting and striving to achieve set goals, hence improved OP.

#### **4.8.2 The link of the quality of leader-follower relationships to organisational performance in developing countries**

It is important at this juncture to view in context that qLFR influences both "in-role" and "extra-role" follower performance, which together comprises OP (May-Chiun et al., 2015). In-role performance is "performance on tasks that employees are expected to perform as a normal function of their job" (Williams & Anderson, 1991). On the other hand, George and Brief (1992) described the extra-role performance as meaning performance on activities performed voluntarily, beyond the normal functions and this increases OP (Eisenberger et al., 2010). The above assertion is in sync with that of Kim (2013), who posited that high-quality LFRs are significantly positively correlated with the performance of organisations.

In their study, in a financial services company (private sector) in Malaysia, May-Chiun et al. (2015) also observed (using SEM path coefficients) that the qLFRs positively and significantly contributed to OP ( $\beta=.455, p<.01$ ). This was mainly because in high quality relationships between leader and followers, followers are comfortable with their leaders, the leaders treat followers in ways that fit with specific followers as individuals who are unique. The leaders develop trust and loyalty among followers (May-Chiun et al. 2015), and all this leads to a good relationship and consequently enhanced OP. May-Chiun et al. (2015) concurred with Tariq et al. (2014) that such results could be explained by the leader's encouragement to followers to take more responsibilities, to be proactive and be committed to work, and this eventually improves OP. In high-quality relationships, leaders also provide strong support to followers and followers reciprocate by being motivated to perform tasks beyond the contractual requirements

(May-Chiun et al., 2015) and are ready even to take up more tasks or responsibilities and this consequently improved OP.

From Gilbert, Thomas and Daunton's (2013) study in Nigeria on various organisations in different sectors, qLFRs was strongly and positively correlated to OP. Gilbert et al. (2013) noted that in high quality LFRs, there is mutual trust, confidence, commitment, common bonds, open communication, respect, reward as well as recognition between leader and follower, and all this consequently lead to improved OP. As such, for organisations that seek to enhance performance, leaders and followers have to build high-quality relationships. Gilbert et al.'s (2013) study is relevant as it provides a model that assists in offering solutions to enhancing OP in organisations. Moreso, the inclusion of various organisations across sectors helps in showing that the relationship between the qLFRs and OP is not restricted to a specific sector. This is in common with some previous research, for instance, Kilburn and Cates (2010), and Bhal and Ansari (2007) who explained that leaders who develop high-quality relationships with followers enhance follower communication feedback, exhibit behaviours that improve follower perception, consequently leading to better performance. Without relationship building and effective communication, the qLFRs may be reduced, and this could negatively affect OP.

A related study by Tariq et al. (2014) in the home appliance industry of Pakistan also showed that the qLFRs improved OP by 48%. Tariq et al. (2014) explained that leaders provide support to followers and enhances follower job satisfaction, and this contributes to followers, improving OP. In addition, the leader's good communication with followers, empowerment of followers, and delegating tasks also helps in improving OP. Thus, good quality LFRs positively predicted OP. By putting qLFRs at the centre of performance enhancement, Tariq et al.'s (2014) research provides a "free of cost" solution to organisations for performance enhancement, which is important especially in SOEs where Government resources are scarce and fast dwindling, especially in Zimbabwe.

According to Chaurasia and Shukla (2013) study that was carried out in India across various sectors, the qLFRs accounted for 15% in the OP. In Chaurasia and Shukla's (2013) study, this contribution to the OP was due to healthy and trustworthy relationships in high-quality LFRs, and this helped in improving performance as

individuals, as team members, and as organisation members. By developing trust, sharing information between leader and follower, providing resources, emotional support to followers in high-quality relationships (Chaurasia & Shukla, 2013), this encouraged followers to reciprocate by working hard to achieve results, thereby improving OP.

Loi, Ngo, Zhang and Lau (2011) carried out related research in China's SOEs in the public sector. In this study, it was observed that there was a positive relationship between qLFRs and OP. Explaining this relationship, Loi et al. (2011) suggested that in high-quality LFRs, there is more latitude on decision making, resources provision, motivation enhancement, support from the leader, and LF feedback. As such, all these factors contribute to followers working hard, thereby enhancing OP. In fact, Loi et al. (2011) highlighted that job autonomy and the leader's support were actually seen as resources available to followers in high qLFRs which makes job tasks more executable than by followers in low qLFRs who struggle to get such resources.

The study by Loi et al. (2011) is in agreement with other previous research (Bakker, Demerouti & Verbeke, 2004) which indicated that there are salient and accessible job resources for the followers in high-quality LFRs and this helps followers to achieve better performance in high quality LFRs. Bakker et al. (2004) opined that it is through access to job resources such as latitude or autonomy in decision making, and social support that followers can achieve extra role performance. Loi et al.'s (2011) study offers good insights into the relationship between the qLFR and OP in SOEs. This is critical to the present study as it also focuses on SOEs, albeit in Zimbabwe.

Other research, including meta-analytic research, was based on samples from across the globe, including both private and public sectors. As an example, a study by Lapierre and Hackett (2007), which was meta-analytic (derived from other published studies) covered various samples in different sectors. This study highlighted that the average correlation between the qLFRs and OP was positive and significant ( $r = .32$ ,  $p < .001$ ). As such, with good quality LFRs, the followers experience job satisfaction, and this increases follower performance. It is asserted that followers who experience good relationships with leaders reciprocate by improving OP (Lapierre & Hackett, 2007).

Another meta-analytic study was done by Ng (2017) and included 600 published empirical articles. Thomas' (2017) study showed that qLFRs are positively correlated to task performance (in-role performance). According to Ng (2017), TL's psychological support to followers enhance the qLFRs, which in turn improves performance; hence the importance of understanding the underpinning of TL. In fact, qLFRs mediated between TL and OP, and this resonates well with the current study on Zimbabwe's SOEs, which sought to investigate how TL influences OP through proactive influence tactics and qLFRs. The study by Ng (2017) demonstrated that TL does not only influence OP directly but through a combination of other variables like proactive influence tactics and qLFRs.

#### 4.9 PROPOSED CONCEPTUAL MODEL

In the above section, the complexity of the relationship between TL and OP is exposed, explaining the role of sPITS and the quality of the LFR. Based on these theoretical explanations and from previous empirical studies, a series of hypotheses, as well as a conceptual model, are proposed for the purposes of the present study (Figure 2).

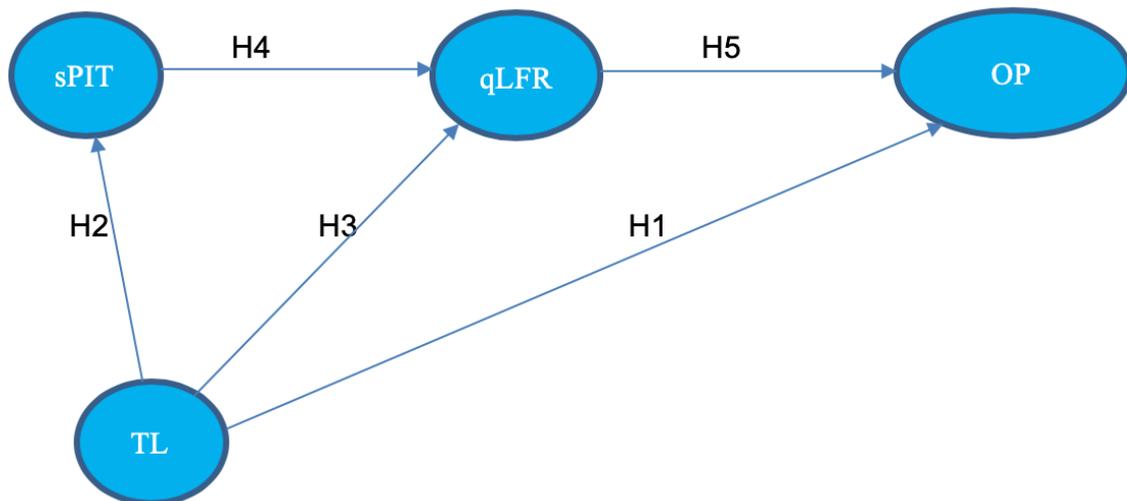


Figure 2: Proposed transformational leadership and organisational/conceptual model

Key:	TL:	Transformational leadership
	sPIT:	Soft proactive influence tactics
	qLFR:	Quality of leader-follower relationship
	OP:	Organisational performance

## Hypotheses

H1: TL has a statistically significant influence on OP

H2: TL has a statistically significant influence on sPITS

H3: TL leadership has a statistically significant influence on LFRs

H4: sPITS have a statistically significant influence on LFRs

H5: The quality of LFRs has a statistically significant influence on OP

H6: The conceptual TL and OP model demonstrates predictive validity in SOEs in Zimbabwe.

From the theoretical explanations, TL has a statistically significant influence on OP (H1). Furthermore, TL has a statistically significant influence on sPITS (H2) as well as on LFRs (H3). Following the explanation on TL's influence on sPITS, the sPITS also have a statistically significant influence on LFRs (H4). Moreover, the quality of leader-follower relationships has a statistically significant influence on OP (H5). In sum, the whole conceptual model is expected to demonstrate predictive validity, and a hypothesis to this effect is formulated as hypothesis H6. The relationships described above are observed for both developed and developing countries, and in both the private and public sectors. There are no differences identified between the different sectors or countries in terms of the relationships described. Thus, it would be expected that the relationship between these variables is not restricted to specific sectors or countries.

Based on previous research, the relationships between the variables in the proposed model demonstrated a positive relationship between TL and sPITS, as well as between sPITS and qLFRs, and between the qLFRs and OP. These chain relationships seem to demonstrate that TL could influence OP through sPITS tactics and qLFRs.

## **CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

The section presents the (i) research approach underpinning this study, (ii) research design, (iii) sampling design, target population and sample size, (iv) data collection instruments, reliability and validity of the instruments, (v) data analysis including, descriptive statistics, inferential statistics, structural equation modelling (SEM), and hypotheses testing, and (vi) ethical considerations. The inferential statistics are attained by the use of correlation analysis and stepwise multiple regression. In Partial Least Squares SEM (using SmartPLS), key areas covered include the quality criteria associated with both the outer model (internal consistency, convergent validity, indicator reliability) and inner model (path coefficients, the percentage of variance in dependent variable by the conceptual model).

### **5.2 RESEARCH APPROACH**

If it is to be based on the type of information sought, “research is classified either as quantitative research or qualitative research” (Sukamolson, 2007, p.1). Various definitions have been proposed for quantitative research, a concise one could be from Creswell (2017, p. 4), who defined quantitative research as: “an approach for testing theories by examining the relationship among variables. These variables, in turn, can be measured, typically on instruments, so that numbered data can be analysed using statistical procedures”. Key elements of the quantitative research are testing theory, the use of instruments to collect data, the use of statistics to analyse data and to examine relationships between variables. As such, there are appropriate designs for quantitative research, which include “survey research, experimental research, correlation research and causal-comparative research” (Sukamolson, 2007, p.12). The quantitative approach has been chosen for this research since it is appropriate; especially in correlational research that seeks to prove or disapprove relationships, as well as explain relationships.

Quantitative research is appropriate for testing hypotheses and explaining relationships. This process is termed “inferential research”. Inferential research goes

beyond describing relationships, with the goal of generalising the “truth” that would have been found empirically (Sukamolson, 2007). The advantages of quantitative research are that it is objective, provides accurate and reliable findings through validity and reliability; it has precision, is definitive and standardised and can be condensed to statistics.

### **5.3 DESIGN OF THE RESEARCH**

#### **5.3.1 Predictive research design**

Research design is a way “to design a study in order to arrive at reliable, well-argued conclusions” (Hofstee, 2013, p.120). Yin (2009, p.24) referred to research design as the “logic that links data to be collected (and conclusions to be drawn) to the initial questions of study”. (Yin, 2009, p. 24). Shmueli’s (2010) views are that predictive analysis is an application of statistical models to data to predict new or future occurrences, and therefore it is critical in the present study. Shmueli (2010) also noted that one of the most useful research designs is a predictive design, as it enables making predictions. Another study supporting the application of predictive design was Mahmoud’s (2017) study which expressed the view that predictive analysis is generally utilised to detect relationships and patterns that can be used for predicting future outcomes. This would mean that predictive analysis provides answers on what could happen in the future. Mahmoud (2017) further revealed that predictive analysis had been widely used in various organisational setups and various countries. Hence it also became valuable in the current study where various organisations are being assessed in Zimbabwe’s public sector.

Shmueli (2010) highlighted some statistical techniques associated with predictive designs, including the stepwise type of algorithms, for example, stepwise regression, which is focused on predictive power rather than explanatory power. Mahmoud (2017) supported other researchers such as Shmueli (2010) on the relevant statistical tools, citing that regression can be used in a predictive design. Indeed, Müller and Brandl (2009) observed that to get predictive power using statistical tools,  $R^2$  (R square) can be computed.

It is worth noting that one of the applications of Variance-based SEM is when the research intends to predict an outcome, thus predictive design can also utilise

Variance-based SEM as a statistical tool. This was supported by Garson (2016), who proposed that the Partial Least Squares (PLS) SEM can be used as a regression model for predicting one or more dependent variables. The Partial Least Squares (PLS) SEM can also be applied to path models evaluation.

Hence, in the current study, the Stepwise Multiple Regression and Partial Least Squares SEM are appropriately applied as the statistical techniques for the predictive research design.

Various benefits of predictive design have been expressed, for instance by Shmueli (2010), as indicated in text box 5.1 below.

**Text box 5.1: Benefits of predictive research design**

- |   |
|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"><li>I. Where there is complex relationships and patterns that are hard to hypothesise, predictive design can uncover new causal mechanism and even assist in developing new hypothesis,</li><li>II. Predictive design helps to improve existing explanatory research models, since it can deal with complex patterns and relationships,</li><li>III. Predictive design can help examine the gap between theory and practice, thus making a reality check on respective theories,</li><li>IV. Predictive design provides a clear way to compare competing theories through checking the predictive power of each theory's explanatory model, and</li><li>V. Predictive design is able to quantify level of predictability for the assessed constructs.</li></ol> |
|---|

## **5.4 SAMPLING DESIGN**

### **5.4.1 Sampling approach**

In this study, convenient sampling is adopted. According to Simon and Goes (2012), convenient sampling is the use of subjects who are readily available. Simon and Goes (2012) also highlighted that this technique is simpler to administer. Etikan, Musa, and Alkassim (2016, p.2) defined convenience sampling as a non-probability sampling method in which expected subjects are selected based on “easy accessibility, geographical proximity, availability at a given time and willingness to participate”. Etikan et al. (2016) further noted that convenience sampling is applicable to both quantitative and qualitative research, but widely used in quantitative studies. Müller, Sedley, and Ferrall-Nunge's (2014) view is that convenience sampling has been

widely used in academic surveys. Convenience sampling also enables useful data collection where ordinarily it may not have been possible due to restrictions of formal access to subjects.

To access the participants in the SOEs, the manager allowed the researcher to access the employees individually. Once access to employees was given, the researcher approached individual members willing to participate in the research, thus convenience sampling became the only way to collect the required data, in this case, irrespective of the disadvantages.

#### **5.4.2 Advantages and disadvantages of convenience sampling**

Various advantages and disadvantages have been observed in the use of convenience sampling. However, despite the disadvantages, there are situations and times where it is beneficial that convenience sampling is adopted. Regoli (2016) highlighted some advantages of convenience sampling as participants are easily accessible; the method is affordable and saves on costs when compared to other methods. This method also saves time as the participants are readily available. There are however some disadvantages that could be associated with convenience sampling, including that the chances for subjects from the population to participate are not equal, there is a risk of bias in selecting the participants, there is also a risk of biased information from the participants (Etikan et al., 2016).

However, to reduce the risk of biased information from the participants, the sample for this study included participants from different SOEs and sectors, and also at different levels. This helped in triangulating the data, thus reducing the possible bias. While it is true that all the subjects from the population were not given equal opportunities to participate, this study actually included those who could be accessed and who were willing, given that the whole population could not easily be accessed in the state enterprises due to certain restrictions associated with some SOEs. What is also important is that other participants outside the SOEs were also included, in the form of officials from government ministries, to ensure that the bias from employees only being used would be reduced. As such, the method is considered useful given the benefits of the technique as well as the ways it could be employed to mitigate the risks.

### 5.4.3 Target population

According to the Government of Zimbabwe (2017), Zimbabwe has 56 SOEs, five of which are currently not operational. This leaves a total of 51 operational SOEs, representing various sectors. From this pool, the researcher selected 12 SOEs representing seven sectors, from which the sample of participants for this research is selected. In this study, the target population is 812, and this included executive managers, middle managers, non-managerial employees and government representatives who oversee the respective SOEs. These participants are people stationed at the Head Offices or Headquarters of the SOEs and respective Ministries.

Table 1 below shows the population for each organisation.

**Table 1**  
**Population per organisation**

Population per organisation							
Sector	SOE	Head of SOEs	Managers			Non-Government	Total
			Managers	Executive Managers	Other Managers	Officials	
FINANCIAL	NSSA	GM	8	10	51	6	75
	ZIA	CEO	3	3	13	6	25
TRANSPORT	CAAZ	MD	7	12	79	7	105
	CMED	MD	6	7	44	7	64
POWER	ZESA	CEO	9	11	52	6	78
	ZPC	MD	9	10	35	6	60
	ZENT	MD	8	9	38	6	61
ENERGY	ZETDC	MD	8	14	57	6	85
	ZERA	CEO	6	6	23	8	43
HEALTH	MCAZ	CEO	10	12	37	7	66
TELECOMMS	TEL ONE	MD	7	13	74	7	101
PETROLEUM	PETRO TRADE	CEO	6	8	29	6	49
Total			87	115	532	78	812

As indicated in Table 1 above, the Executive Managers participated as informants in the research. These are members of the organisation who report directly to the CEO/Managing Director/General Manager as the case may be in each specific organisation. The other managers are those members who are at managerial level but do not report directly to the CEO/Managing Director/General Manager. It is important to extract information from this group also, as proposed by García-Morales et al.

(2012) to eliminate the possible bias and subjectivity which managers who report directly to the Chief Executive Officer may have.

Incorporating other non-managerial staff members and government officials who look after the SOEs also helped in verifying and cross-checking the CEO's behaviour ratings and OP ratings by direct subordinates (García-Morales et al., 2012). However, the government officials only completed the MLQ 5X and CVQ surveys, leaving the other two (IBQ-G and LMX -7) for completion by respective staff members since government officials are not privy to influence tactics by the CEO; neither are the officials close enough to the goings-on between the CEO and members for them to rate the qLFRs. Restricting the government officials to the MLQ-5X and CVQ surveys only ensured that the correct information was extracted from the appropriate respondents, otherwise letting government officials rate the qLFRs would have distorted the data.

#### **5.4.4 Sample size**

There are considerations when determining the sample size for it to be an adequate representation of the population. Israel (1992, p.1) listed for consideration “the level of precision (sampling error), confidence level (risk level) and degree of variability” (distribution of attributes in the population). Over time, different methods of sample determination have been applied. According to Israel (1992), the methods include published tables, using a size from a similar study, use of a census for a small population or formulae to calculate the sample. In this study, the table (*Table 2*) suggested by Israel (1992) is used to determine the sample size at +\_5% precision and a 95% confidence level.

**Table 2**  
**Sample Size**

Size of Population	Sample Size (n) for Precision (e) of:			
	±3%	±5%	±7%	±10%
500	a	222	145	83
600	a	240	152	86
700	a	255	158	88
800	a	267	163	89
900	a	277	166	90
1,000	a	286	169	91
2,000	714	333	185	95
3,000	811	353	191	97
4,000	870	364	194	98
5,000	909	370	196	98
6,000	938	375	197	98
7,000	959	378	198	99
8,000	976	381	199	99
9,000	989	383	200	99
10,000	1,000	385	200	99
15,000	1,034	390	201	99
20,000	1,053	392	204	100
25,000	1,064	394	204	100
50,000	1,087	397	204	100
100,000	1,099	398	204	100
>100,000	1,111	400	204	100

a = Assumption of normal population is poor (Yamane, 1967). The entire population should be sampled.

“For ±3%, ±5%, ±7%, and ±10% Precision levels where Confidence Level is 95% and P= .5.” Extracted from Israel (1992, p. 2)

By making use of the suggested table above, with a population of 812, the nearest population of 900 is selected, and this corresponded with a sample of 277. Above this sample of 277, an additional 10% was added to compensate for persons who may not be available (Israel, 1992). In Israel’s view (1992), a further 30% is usually added to compensate for non-responses and improve reliability, making the total sample size 388. Increasing the sample would also improve precision (by reducing the sampling error of estimate). Naing, Winn and Rush (2006) recommended increasing the sample by 10% to 20% above the actual sample from published tables or those computed. Other researchers who recognised the use of published tables include Barlett, Kotrlík and Higgins (2001); Yıldırım and Şimşek (2006); Ross (2004); Delice (2010); and one developed by Yamane (1967).

The chosen sample would be expected to provide appropriate and relevant information for the study. In addition, the sample's proximity enabled the study to be executed within the confines of a reasonable time and budgetary targets. Most of all, the sample is viewed as a fair representation of all other SOEs in Zimbabwe. A total of 388

questionnaires representing all four structured questionnaires are administered in this study.

## **5.5 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS**

The study made use of four standardised questionnaires. These are the Multifactor MLQ-5X(MLQ-5X) for assessing TL, the Influence Behaviour Questionnaire (IBQ-G) for assessing proactive influence tactics, the Leader-Member-Exchange (LMX-7) for assessing the qLFRs and finally, the Competing Values Questionnaire (CVQ) for assessing OP. For these instruments, the purpose, reliability and validity of the instruments, as well as reasons for inclusion in the study are provided. The samples for these instruments are attached as Appendices (MLQ-5X on Appendix 1, IBQ-G on Appendix 2, LMX-7 on Appendix 3 and CVQ is on Appendix 4)

### **5.5.1 MLQ-5X questionnaire for determining transformational leaders**

#### ***5.5.1.1 Description and purpose***

Bass and Avolio's (2004) Multifactor MLQ-5X (MLQ) form 5X (short version) is utilised to assess TL. This tool has indicators for a number of TL dimensions, namely "idealised influence (attributed), idealised influence (behaviour), intellectual stimulation, individualised consideration and inspirational motivation" (Peterson et al., 2009, p.10). As already described in the aforementioned sections, idealised influence is charismatic actions exhibited by a leader which evokes followers to have a sense of loyalty, trust, respect, a sense of mission and to go beyond their self-interest for the overall good of the organisation (Muterera et al., 2012). The ability of a leader to expand the follower's potential to achieve beyond expectations is what Bass (1998) termed intellectual stimulation. A leader's capacity to inspire and galvanise followers by clearly stating an irresistible vision is referred to as inspirational motivation. Individualised consideration is how leaders attend to their follower's needs for achievement, growth and support (Bass, 1998).

The MLQ has 45 questions describing behaviour and is a reliable tool used widely to measure the behaviour of a TL. For the purposes of this study, only 20 out of the 45 questions relating to TL are used. Specifically, each of the characteristics of TL has four questions relating to it, namely "idealised influence (attributed), idealised influence (behaviour), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised

consideration” (Cavazotte et al. (2013, p.493). This approach is consistent with other researchers on TL; that is, instead of taking all 45 questions when using MLQ 5X, only those 20 items applicable to TL are used. (Altahayneh & Wezermes, 2008; Alsayed, Motaghi, & Osman, 2012; Barnes, Christensen & Stillman, 2013; Hemsworth, Muterera & Baregheh, 2013; Moore & Rudd, 2006).

The rating of the above dimensions is based on a 5-point Likert scale of 0 to 4 with rating scales as: *Not at all (0)*, *Once in a while (1)*, *Sometimes (2)*, *Fairly often (3)*, and *Frequently, if not always (4)*. Examples of questions include; “the person I am rating provides me with assistance in exchange for my effort”, “the person I am rating is absent when I need him /her”; whilst self-rating questions include “I fail to interfere until problems become serious”, and “I talk optimistically about the future”.

#### **5.5.1.2 Reliability of MLQ-5X**

Barnes et al. (2013), highlighted the MLQ-5X reliability in their study as .92, which is high. According to Bass and Avolio (2000), MLQ-5X had reliability of between .74 and .91, which reliability was also supported by Moore and Rudd (2006) as acceptable. Another study by Altahayneh and Wezermes (2008) provided support for the reliability of MLQ-5X, noting that MLQ-5X has strong reliability and has been used widely for research across the world. Altahayneh and Wezermes (2008), using Cronbach’s alpha coefficient, demonstrated that the reliability for all the items of TL, as well as for individual leadership dimensions were between .85 and .93.

A similar study by Sadeghi and Pihie (2012) showed a reliability of between .84 and .91 for MLQ-5X, using Cronbach’s alpha. This is in line with other previous studies like Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, and Tatham (1998) who noted a range of reliability between .67 and .94, which is acceptable. This is similar to Alsayed et al. (2012) who demonstrated reliability estimates between .85 and .96. Hemsworth, Muterera and Baregheh (2013) also confirmed the reliability of MLQ-5X, stating the reliability in their research as .94. It is clear from the various studies that MLQ-5X is a reliable instrument for measuring TL, hence its adoption in the current study.

#### **5.5.1.3 Validity of MLQ-5X**

MLQ form 5X is still a valid instrument for measuring TL (Barnes et al., 2013; Moore & Rudd, 2006; Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012). MLQ-5X has been evaluated for validity by various researchers as an instrument. The validity of MLQ-5X was supported by

Altahayneh and Wezermes (2008), who noted that MLQ-5X has a strong validity, in addition to being applied extensively in research and commercial purposes. Specifically, Altahayneh and Wezermes (2008) agreed that the instrument has strong validity, with convergent and discriminant validity ranges of .46 to .68, which are acceptable (Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1999).

Sadeghi and Pihie (2012) also demonstrated the validity of MLQ-5X in their study in Malaysia. The above observations were further buttressed by Hemsworth, Muterera and Baregheh (2013) who indicated that discriminant validity and convergent validity of the MLQ-5X survey was acceptable for both the 20 items of MLQ-5X. Interestingly, Hemsworth et al.'s (2013) study was in a Government setting targeting upper level leaders in USA, which resonates with the current study and the setting of SOEs in Zimbabwe.

#### ***5.5.1.4 Reasons for inclusion in the present study***

MLQ-5X as a measurement tool is selected for the present study due to its appropriateness to assessing the Bass (1995/1998) model of TL (explained in the previous chapter), its confirmed reliability and validity. In various studies, the MLQ-5X survey has demonstrated acceptable reliability, using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. This instrument has also demonstrated strong validity; convergent validity, construct validity and discriminant validity. In addition, the MLQ-5X has been a reliable tool in both the public and private sectors; hence it is an appropriate measure for the current study, which explores Zimbabwe's SOEs.

### **5.5.2 IBQ-G questionnaire for proactive influence tactics**

#### ***5.5.2.1 Description and purpose***

The Influence Behaviour Questionnaire (IBQ-G) by Yukl et al. (2008) is applied to quantify the follower (target)'s perceptions on the agents' (leader's) use of proactive in attempting to influence the follower. IBQ-G evaluates an individual's perceptions on proactive influence tactics, "including rational persuasion, inspirational appeal, collaboration, consultation, and personal appeal" (Yukl et al., 2008, p.614). The objective of the IBQ-G questions are to determine the attitudes which motivate the follower to comply with any requests from the leader, whether these are to perform a task, to offer assistance, to endorse or affect a proposed change, or even to assist with a personal favour for the leader (Alshenaifi & Clarke, 2014; Tyrovola,

Papanikolaou & Adamis, 2011/2012). These proactive influence tactics scales each have four items. The scales measure the frequency of influence tactics used by the leader on the follower to influence the follower.

Of the four items on each scale, there are five response choices by the respondent, corresponding with options 1 to 5, namely:

- I. "I can't remember him/her ever using this tactic with me";
- II. "He/she very seldom uses this tactic with me";
- III. "He/she occasionally uses this tactic with me";
- IV. "He/she uses this tactic moderately often with me"; and
- V. "He/she uses this tactic very often with me" (Alshenaifi & Clarke, 2014).

For each of the proactive influence tactics, the scales for the four items are averaged to get a mean score. The mean score then represents the score for each tactic.

#### **5.5.2.2 Reliability of IBQ-G**

Tyrovola et al. (2011) confirmed the reliability of the IBQ-G, using Pearson's correlation at two points in time (i.e. test-retest the reliability). The reliability for individual scales was high. Another study by Yukl and Michel (2006) supported the reliability of IBQ-G using Cronbach's alpha coefficient; which ranged from .69 to .90 for the IBQ-G scales. In their study, Yukl et al. (2008) reported high Cronbach alpha coefficients (internal consistency) of above .80. Another study which demonstrated adequate reliability was by Lewis-Duarte and Bligh (2011), where the Cronbach's alpha coefficients were between .83 and .96, which is acceptable.

#### **5.5.2.3 Validity of IBQ-G**

The IBQ-G is a valid instrument for proactive influence tactics (Alshenaifi & Clarke, 2014; Yukl & Michel, 2006; Yukl et al., 2008; Yukl, Ping Fu & McDonald., 2003). Charbonneau observed that "IBQ-G is a valid, reliable and comprehensive tool to measure proactive influence tactics" (Charbonneau, 2004). Tyrovola et al. (2011) also asserted that IBQ-G has been validated as a target instrument for examining downward influence. "Although some instruments are cultural-bounded there are evidence that IBQ is a valid instrument in different cultures" (Tyrovola et al. ,2011, p.755).

#### **5.5.2.4 Reasons for inclusion in the present study**

The IBQ-G is an instrument developed to measure all 11 downward/target proactive influence tactics and is viewed as the appropriate tool. Besides the IBQ-G, there are no known instruments that measure all the 11 proactive influence tactics. The IBQ-G instrument has also demonstrated that it is reliable, as explained in previous sections. In addition, the instrument demonstrated validity in different countries and cultures, as shown in the previous sections.

### **5.5.3 LMX-7 questionnaire for quality of the leader-follower relationship**

#### **5.5.3.1 Description and purpose**

The LMX-7 questionnaire is adopted in this study to assess the LFR. The LMX-7 developed by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) provides a good basis for measuring the qLFR (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001). An additional benefit is that the LMX-7 items include important components that characterise various aspects of a working relationship between leader and follower; hence it is ideal for measuring the quality of such relationships. The aspects of a working relationship between a leader and follower include the quality of the working relationship, as well as “the understanding of job problems and needs, recognition of individual potential as well as willingness to support each other” (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001, p.701). Thus, the researcher chose this tool as the most appropriate for measuring the quality of the LFR.

The LMX-7 questionnaire has seven items using a 5-point Likert scale, rated as follows; *rarely* (1), *occasionally* (2), *sometimes* (3), *fairly* (4), and *very often* (5). In the present study, the followers used the LMX-7 questionnaire to measure how true each of the seven relationship items is. An example would be, “How does your leader recognise your potential?” Once the rating of the seven items has been done, the scores indicate the level of quality of the LFR. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) suggested that a mean score of 4.3 to 5.0 shows that the relationship is of very high quality while a mean score of 3.6 to 4.1 indicates a high-quality LFR. A mean score of 2.9 to 3.4 is indicative of a moderate quality relationship, and a mean score of 2.1 to 2.7 shows a low-quality relationship between a leader and followers. At the bottom of the scoring scales is a mean score of 1 to 2, which is indicative of a very low-quality relationship.

### **5.5.3.2 Reliability of LMX-7**

Various studies have confirmed that the LMX-7 can be applied reliably as a single instrument to measure the overall qLFRs (Bauer, Erdogan, Liden & Wayne, 2006; Erdogan & Enders, 2007). Supporting the reliability of the LMX-7, Tandon (2015) noted that Cronbach's alpha was at .79; hence it showed that the LMX-7 was a reliable instrument. Goh and Wasko (2012) reported reliability of .934, which is considered high. In another study, Mayfield and Mayfield (2009) assessed the LMX-7's reliability as .92. Support for the LMX-7 also came from Baek-Kyoo et al. (2012), where Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .87. From the various studies as indicated above, the LMX-7 instrument is still a reliable instrument for assessing the quality of the LFR.

### **5.5.3.3 Validity of LMX-7**

In a study by May-Chiun et al. (2015), the discriminant validity of LMX-7 was assessed and it was found that LMX-7 is still a valid instrument. May-Chiun et al. (2015) also confirmed the discriminant validity for the same instrument. All the loadings were above .5, using AVE, thereby demonstrating convergent validity. Thus, the convergent validity was at acceptable levels. Other studies supporting the discriminant validity of LMX-7 were done by Eisenberger et al. (2010) and Goh and Wasko (2012), where it was demonstrated that the LMX-7 had adequate discriminant validity.

### **5.5.3.4 Reasons for inclusion in the present study**

Many researchers have supported the LMX-7 as an appropriate instrument to measure the qLFRs, expressing that this is an adequate measure. Further, the reliability of LMX-7 has been demonstrated in different countries and even after translating it to other languages like Portuguese, while it has also been used in China, thereby enhancing generalisability. The reliability was mainly measured using Cronbach's alpha coefficient, which was above the acceptable levels. In addition, the validity of LMX-7 was also proved in various studies, mostly using Confirmatory Factor Analysis; while others applied SmartPLS. Therefore, LMX-7 is selected as an appropriate, reliable and valid instrument for assessing the qLFRs in the current study.

## **5.5.4 Competing Values Questionnaire (CVQ) for organisational performance**

### **5.5.4.1 Description and purpose**

In this study, the researcher made use of the Competing Values Questionnaire (CVQ) based on the CVF developed by Cameron (1981) and expanded by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) to measure OP. The CVF uses “a rational goal, open systems, human relations, and internal processes” to assess OP (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983, p.375). Use of the above-cited performance measurement criteria ensures that the organisation caters for the various competing interests and the values of different stakeholders, rather than using single performance criteria such as the use of financial performance measures only. Thus, the SOEs and parastatals need to apply performance criteria that are holistic and all-encompassing in nature, especially given that some of them are set up for both service provision as well as profitability. The customised Competing Values Questionnaire is, therefore, appropriately applied in the current research.

The Competing Values Questionnaire has 85 questions and uses four criteria measures which are; “rational goal”, “human relations”, “open systems”, and “internal processes models” (as previously discussed). The Competing Values Questionnaire is rated on a Likert scale of 1 to 7, denoting how often the organisation successfully engages in each activity (1 = *Never*; 7 = *Almost always*). Competing Values Questionnaire criteria are employed by rating items for each specific criteria or model, which is “a rational goal model, OSM, HRM, and internal processes” (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983, p.375) model. The ratings for each model are then averaged, to show the mean ratings and this mean rating would be between 1 to 7.

### **5.5.4.2 Reliability of competing values questionnaire**

Various researchers established the validity and reliability of the Competing Values Questionnaire (DiPadova & Faerman, 1993; García-Morales et al., 2012; Lamond, 2003; Nguni, Slegers & Denessen, 2006; Rohrbaugh, 1981; Yu & Wu, 2009) in different countries and for both the public sector and private sector. In their study, Muterera et al. (2012) applied Cronbach’s alpha and found the reliability estimates for the CVF to be .91. According to Prajogo and McDermott (2011), the CVF proved to be reliable, with Cronbach’s alpha reliability estimates that ranged between .79 and .91. In a similar study, using Cronbach’s alpha, Melo, Silva and Parreira (2014) showed

that the CVF reliability was above .83 for each CVF dimension. Yu and Wu (2009) supported previous studies that assessed the reliability of the CVF and found it to be acceptable (Howard, 1998; Lamond, 2003; Ralston et al., 2006). Another study on public sector organisations by Muterera et al. (2012) confirmed the reliability of CFV, noting that other previous researches like DiPadova and Faerman (1993); Jones, Jimmieson and Griffiths (2005); Nguni et al. (2006) had demonstrated CVF reliability across various organisational setups.

#### **5.5.4.3 Validity of competing values questionnaire**

The Competing Values Questionnaire (CVQ) is still a valid instrument as indicated by some researchers (Garcia-Morales et al., 2012; Rodrigues & Caetano, 2013; Morais & Graça, 2013; Prajogo & McDermott, 2011; Yu & Wu, 2009). The Competing Values Questionnaire has been shown to be a valid measure of OP in Australia (Lamond, 2003) and China (Yu & Wu, 2009). According to Morais and Graça (2013), the CVF is one of the most popular frameworks used to integrate the major dimensions of OP and has been used to improve OP. Muterera et al. (2012) supported that the Competing Values Questionnaire and validity was established in various organisational setups. Furthermore, Aubry and Hobbs (2011) confirmed that the Competing Values Questionnaire had been widely used in various sectors, after originally debuting in the public sector (Rohrbaugh, 1981).

#### **5.5.4.4 Reasons for inclusion in the present study**

The Competing Values Questionnaire (CVQ) instrument is adopted for various reasons in the present study. As indicated in the previous section (2.2.4.2), the Competing Values Questionnaire is the most suitable instrument to assess OP in the SOEs due to multiple stakeholders with diverse and competing expectations. It was demonstrated that the CVF addresses these various stakeholders values through the four models; RGM, OSM, IPM, and HRM (Cameron and Quinn, 1999).

In addition, the Competing Values Questionnaire is a reliable measure of OP, both in the public and private sector, as well as across different countries, hence it is viewed as a universal instrument. The Competing Values Questionnaire was originally used in the public sector and expanded to the private sector. In various studies, the reliability of the Competing Values Questionnaire was demonstrated using mainly Cronbach's alpha coefficient, with reliability estimates above minimum acceptable levels. The

validity of the Competing Values Questionnaire was confirmed in different countries, including Australia and China; and in both the public sector and the private sector. In short, the Competing Values Questionnaire is an appropriate instrument for assessing OP in Zimbabwe's SOEs. Furthermore, the Competing Values Questionnaire's reliability and validity enhance credibility and generalisability, hence its adoption as an instrument in the present study.

## **5.6 DATA ANALYSIS**

The data analysis utilised included descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. With the inferential statistics, Pearson's correlation, stepwise multiple regression and variance-based SEM are applied. Pearson's correlation analysis is utilised to investigate the relationships between the variables in this research study (Bordens & Abbott, 1991). Stepwise multiple regression is utilised to assess the direct relationship between the independent variable and dependent variable (or a combination of independent variables). This study used the Variance-based SEM approach to test the sequential relationships between variables in the conceptual model. In particular, Smart PLS is applied to perform the SEM. This software (Smart PLS version 3.2.7) is utilised in assessing the measuring instruments' accuracy (quality criteria associated with the outer model) and generate the path coefficients (inner model) for both the indirect and direct relationship, as detailed in the sections to follow.

### **5.6.1 Descriptive statistics**

#### **5.6.1.1 Means and standard deviations**

Leech, Barrett and Morgan (2005) highlighted that in descriptive statistics, the *Mean* is the average score for a variable, *N* denotes the number of participants or subjects, *Minimum* is the lowest score, while *Maximum* is the highest score. Finally, *Standard deviation* (Std) is the measure of the variability of the scores.

#### **5.6.1.2 Estimating reliability**

Some researchers proposed criteria, for example, Cronbach's alpha coefficient, for estimating the reliability. George and Mallery (2003) proposed that an acceptable level of Cronbach's alpha coefficient is .70 or higher. Garson (2016) supported George and Mallery (2003), highlighting that the Cronbach's the alpha coefficient value cut-off of at least .70 is acceptable; while .60 is acceptable for exploratory researches. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients above the minimum of .70 criterium was also proposed

by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) as acceptable. Others, like Sekaran and Bougie (2009) proposed Cronbach's alpha level of .60 as acceptable. Another guide for accepting Cronbach's alpha coefficient was provided by Mind Garden (MLQ, 2004) which is the legal entity that sells MLQ-5X; stating that the most common range is at least 0.60.

The reliability estimates by George and Mallery (2003) are shown below (*Table 3*);

**Table 3**  
**Criteria for accepting Cronbach's alpha coefficient**

Coefficient range	Acceptability
Coefficient > 0.90	Excellent
0.80 < Coefficient < 0.90	Good
0.70 < coefficient < 0.80	Acceptable
0.60 < coefficient < 0.70	Questionable
0.50 < coefficient < 0.60	Poor
Coefficient < 0.40	Unacceptable

Generally speaking, a reliability estimates of at least of .60 is acceptable, and therefore estimates of at least .60 are adopted in this study as acceptable.

## 5.6.2 Inferential statistics

### 5.6.2.1 Correlational analysis: Pearson's correlation coefficient

According to Marshall and Boggis (2016, p.32), "correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) is used to measure the strength of association between two variables and ranges between -1 (perfect negative correlation) to 1 (perfect positive correlation)". Pearson's correlation is the most used means of estimating correlations for continuous variables. The main assumptions for Pearson's correlation are that there is continuous data for the variables, variables are linearly related, and both variables are normally distributed (Garth, 2008; Marshall & Boggis, 2016). Generally, the guidelines below (*Table 4*) are used for interpreting a correlation coefficient (Cohen, 1992).

**Table 4**  
**Guidelines for interpreting correlation coefficient**

Correlation coefficient value	Association
.00 to .30 or (.00 to -.30)	Weak positive/ (negative)
.30 to 0.5 or (-.30 to -.5)	Moderate positive/ (negative)
.50 to .90 or (-.50 to -.90)	Strong positive/ (negative)
.90 to 1.0 or (-.90 to -1.0)	Very strong positive/ (negative)

Adapted from: Cohen, L (1992, pp. 155-159).

Pearson's correlation coefficient can also be tested for statistical significance by applying the conventional probability criteria of 0.05 or 0.01 (Landau & Everitt, 2004). According to Arkkelin (2014); if Sig., or probability (p), referred to as the p-value, associated with the Pearson's coefficient (r value), is 0.01 or less (if a level of significance of 1% is used) or 0.05 or less (if a level of significance of 5% is used), it can be concluded that there is a statistically significant correlation between the variables. However, if the p-value > 0.01 or p-value > 0.05, as the case may be, based on significance level of either 1% or 5%, then it can be concluded that variables are not statistically significantly correlated.

#### **5.6.2.2 Stepwise multiple regression**

In essence, stepwise multiple regression investigates the direct relationship between an independent variable (or combination of independent variables) and a dependent variable. Regression is appropriate where one seeks to assess how a predictor variable affects the dependent variable or outcome variable (Leech et al., 2005). Leech et al. (2005, p.90) added that "the assumptions for multiple regression include the following: that the relationship between each of the predictor variables and dependent variable is a linear one; and that the error, or residual, is normally distributed and uncorrelated to the predictors".

Furthermore,  $R^2$  (R square) shows that "the percentage or level of variance in the dependent variable which can be predicted from the predictor variable" (Leech et al., 2005, p.229); for example, if  $R^2$  is .42, then 42% of the variance in the dependent variable can be predicted by the predictor variable. In the ANOVA table, the Sig. value shows whether the variable or combination of the variables significantly predicts the dependent variable; for instance, if the Sig=.000, then  $p < .001$  and therefore the predictor variables would significantly predict the dependent variable at a .001 level of significance. For the coefficient table from SPSS, the  $t$ -value and the  $p$ -value for each predictor or independent variable denotes whether or not a predictor variable significantly contributes to the equation for predicting the output variable from the total combination or set of predictors (Leech et al., 2005). That is; the  $t$ -value shows whether the predictor variable or independent variable significantly predicts the dependent variable.

### **5.6.2.3 Structural equation modelling**

The variance-based “Partial Least Squares (PLS) approach to the Structural Equation Modelling offers an alternative to Covariance Based Structural Equation Modelling” (Monecke & Leish, 2012, p.1) that test models or causal mechanisms. Wong (2013, p.1) expressed that “the inner model specifies the relationships between independent and dependent latent variables, whereas the outer model specifies the relationships between latent variables and their observed indicators”. In fact, SEM makes use of two types of variables, “the exogenous variable has path arrows pointing outwards and none leading to it. An endogenous variable has at least one path leading to it and represents the effects of other variable(s)” (Wong, 2013, p. 3). Furthermore, the Variance-based Partial Least Squares is a method for SEM that is applied with no assumption about data distribution (Vinzi, Trinchera & Amato, 2010; Wong, 2013).

There are various advantages that are attributable to the application of the Variance-based Partial Least Squares approach. Wong (2013), supported other researchers such as Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics (2009) on the advantages of the Variance-based Partial Least Squares approach, and these researchers highlighted the advantages to include;

- I. It can be used for predictive based studies, (as is the case in the present study);
- II. It can be utilised to estimate complex models, where there are many latent and manifest variables;
- III. It can produce high predictive accuracy;
- IV. It can be used where the sample is small,
- V. It can be utilised where theory is insufficiently grounded;
- VI. It can be applied in the early stages of theory development; and
- VII. It has less restrictive assumptions about distribution of variance and error.

Given the advantages and areas of utilisation above, this technique is deemed appropriate for assessing the proposed model of the present study.

According to Monecke and Leish (2012), and Ringle, Wende and Becker (2015) one of the software products that can be utilised in Variance-based Partial Least squares

is SmartPLS, which is a standalone software program developed to create, calculate and validate path models (SEM). Hair, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2012) supported that SmartPLS is useful in explanatory/causal studies that explain the patterns of relationships between variables where covariance methods could not give valid and reliable results, hence the adoption of SmartPLS in this study as a relevant software tool that supports Partial Least Squares SEM.

#### *5.6.2.3.1 Internal consistency (Quality criteria)*

Reliability and validity can be used for evaluating measurement models (Hair et al., 2012). In this regard, composite reliability from SmartPLS can complement SPSS results on internal consistency. To be considered as satisfactory, the composite reliability values have to be at least .70 for advanced research, and .60 for exploratory researches (Hair et al., 2012; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). It is important, therefore, to note that where the results of SmartPLS are used alongside other such as those from SPSS, these results are used to corroborate the other results.

#### *5.6.2.3.2 Convergent validity*

According to Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics (2009, p.299), “convergent validity signifies that a set of indicators represents one and the same underlying construct”. In this regard, Fornell and Larcker (1981) suggested that the average variance extracted (AVE) could be used to determine convergent validity. In assessing convergent validity in SEM through SmartPLS, AVE values of .50 and above are considered as a sufficient degree of convergent validity (Hair et al., 2012; Henseler et al., 2009). The AVE of .5 and above demonstrate that a latent variable can explain more than half of its indicators’ variance (Gotz, Liehr-Gobbers & Krafft, 2010; Hair et al., 2012). Goh and Wasko (2012) also expressed support for the assessment of convergent validity using SmartPLS and noted that acceptable convergent validity should have AVE values above .50, meaning that the construct would account for the majority of variance (Chin & Newsted, 1999).

#### *5.6.2.3.3 Path coefficients*

Concerning the level and significance of path coefficients, the literature states that “the individual path coefficients’ significance is assessed using a bootstrapping procedure” (Hair et al., 2012). In this regard, paths that are non-significant do not support the model hypothesis, while the paths that are significant support the hypothesis of the

model (Hair et al., 2012). Bootstrapping involves the use of a re-sampling method to calculate the significance of the PLS coefficients and is usually applied where data cannot be assumed to be normal (Garson, 2016). The importance of bootstrapping is also that it calculates not only the significance of paths but also indirect effects, direct effects and total effects (Garson, 2016). From the bootstrapping process, values of t-tests of significance for two-tailed tests are used. According to Garson (2016), t-values greater than 1.96 are considered significant at THE 0.05 level (5%) of significance. Therefore, this guide is applied for analysis in the current study.

#### *5.6.2.3.4 Level (%) of variance in the dependent variable ( $R^2$ values)*

In variance-based SEM, the main evaluation criteria are  $R^2$  measures as well as “the level and significance of the path coefficients” (Hair et al., 2012).  $R^2$  values are usually indicated inside the ellipse for endogenous latent variables (factors), which is also similar in interpretation to multiple regression (Garson, 2016). The  $R^2$  denotes the level (%) of variance in the endogenous variable which is explained by a model (Garson, 2016), for example, if the value of  $R^2$  is .431 in the endogenous variable, it means that 43.1% of the variance in that variable is due to the exogenous latent variable (s). Hair et al. (2012) further explained that since the purpose of structural modelling is prediction, there is a need to explain the endogenous latent variable’s variance using  $R^2$ . An endogenous latent variable is the one with incoming arrows in the SEM, while the exogenous latent variable is the one with outgoing arrows in the structural model (Garson, 2016).

According to Chin (1998), Höck and Ringle (2010), and Achar (2016),  $R^2$  cut off values of .67 represents a substantial effect; .33 represents a moderate effect and .19 represents a weak effect. Garson (2016), however, noted that what is considered “high” is relative to the field, and .25 may be considered high in given areas that had lower values previously. Garson (2016) confirms other researchers like Hair et al. (2012) also indicated that in some disciplines, for example, consumer behaviour,  $R^2$  value of .20 is considered high. In the present study, Chin’s (1998) guidelines are adopted.

#### *5.6.2.3.5 Predictive validity and hypotheses testing*

As alluded to in previous sections, the study adopted Pearson’s correlation analysis, stepwise multiple regression and Variance-based SEM. Reliability and validity

estimates are provided from the SPSS software tool. In assessing the predictive validity of the proposed model in the study, as well as hypotheses, the above statistical techniques are applied.

## **5.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

This research was carried out with full ethical adherence. In line with the University of the Free State's requirements on research, the work passed through the Ethics Committee that approved the study (ethical clearance number: UFS-HSD2017/1150) as complying with ethical conduct in research. The guiding ethics in this study include informed consent, respect for anonymity and confidentiality, respect for privacy, new and original work that involves appropriate acknowledgement and citations. The study engaged only participants who agreed to voluntarily participate in the research after elaborating on the purpose of the research, research significance and benefits to the participants themselves together with their organisations, the researcher and academic field. The participants were also informed beforehand that if anyone was no longer comfortable to continue participating, she or he was free to disengage from the survey at any time.

Regarding confidentiality and anonymity, the researcher used codes for respondents instead of their actual names. Protecting the anonymity of the participants also covered the confidentiality of information regarding the participants, thus information of biographical nature, such as age, academic qualification, race, or religion was not required. In addition, the organisations' identifications are coded, instead of using the real names. Furthermore, this study is for academic uses only, and not for any other purposes. With individual privacy, researchers collect and analyse data concerning people's behaviour. In this case, since the study requires obtaining some sensitive information about the leader's behaviour and attributes, the researcher avoided invading the privacy of the participants and that of the Heads of SOEs by using only the approved standard questionnaires.

## 5.8 SUMMARY

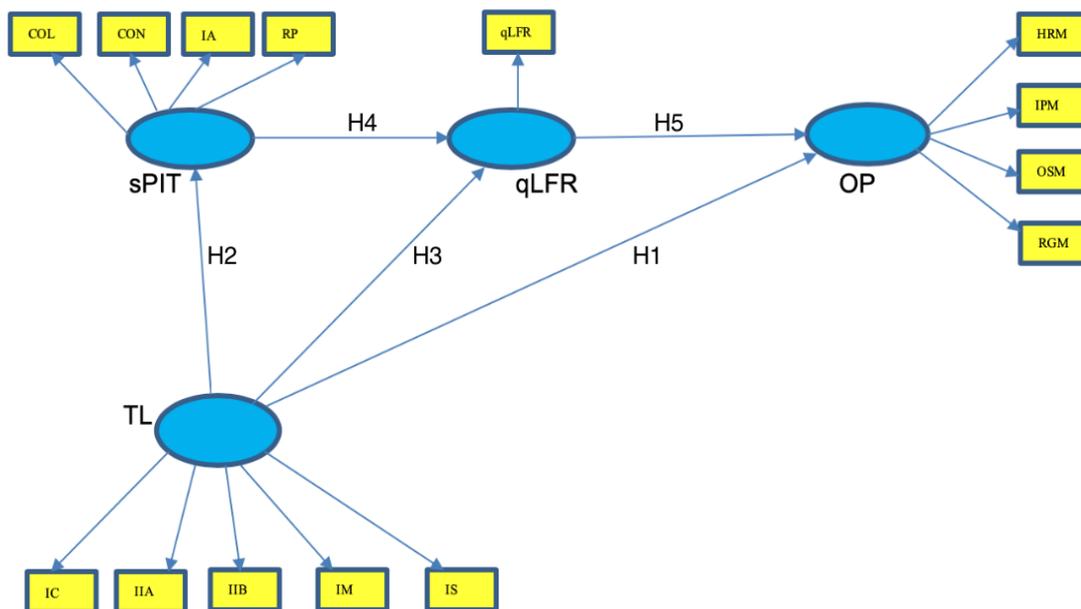
In this chapter, the research's approach of using quantitative study with predictive research is presented. The predictive analysis is seen to be the most appropriate design as it could assess complex relationships, as well as enable the making of predictions. With regard to the sampling approach, convenience sampling is adopted as the most relevant, especially where there are restrictions on formal access to research subjects. In addition, the sample size for the study is scientifically calculated to be 388 participants across the 12 SOEs, based on guidelines of previously published tables for sample size. The data collection instruments adopted in the present study are the standardised questionnaires; being the MLQ-5X for TL, IBQ-G for proactive influence tactics, LMX-7 for qLFRs, and finally the Competing Values Questionnaire for OP. The reliabilities and validities for all the above instruments were confirmed in various studies, across different countries. Furthermore, the justification for selecting the data collection instruments are proffered for the present study.

The data analysis techniques employed by the present study are explained in detail, focusing on descriptive statistics, and inferential statistics that included correlational analysis, stepwise multiple regression and variance-based SEM. Under SEM, the SmartPLS software is applied. It is also highlighted how the research adhered to ethical standards and requirements, including research approval by the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Economics and Management (Clearance number: UFS-HSD2017/1150), ensuring confidentiality and anonymity, coding of organisations to protect identity, as well as acknowledgement of previous scholars and researchers through appropriate citation. Overall, the methodology chapter presented how the research was carried out.

## CHAPTER 6: ANALYSIS OF DATA AND PRESENTATION

### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter briefly presents the hypothesised model, a recap of the research questions, the hypothesis, data analysis and the presentation of the results in the form of descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. A total of 302 respondents from 12 SOEs completed the questionnaires, giving a response rate of 78%, based on the target sample of 388 respondents. The reliability and validity of the questionnaires are assessed, while the Pearson correlation analysis (using SPSS) is applied in assessing the linear relationships between the variables in this research study (Bordens & Abbott, 1991). For testing of the sequential relationships between variables in the conceptual model, the variance-based SEM approach is adopted, by using SmartPLS. In general, the present study attempted to evaluate the appropriateness of the theoretical model depicted in *Figure 3*.



**Figure 3: Conceptual model: Transformational leadership and organisational performance**

Key: TL: Transformational leadership  
 sPIT: Soft proactive influence tactics  
 qLFR: Quality of leader-follower relationship  
 OP: Organisational performance

## 6.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The specific research objectives of the study are as follows:

- I. To develop a conceptual transformational leadership and organisational performance model in state-owned enterprises in Zimbabwe.
- II. To theoretically explain the relationship between variables in the proposed transformational leadership and organisational performance model, using previous literature.
- III. To determine the predictive validity of the proposed transformational leadership and organisational performance model in SOEs in Zimbabwe.

## 6.3 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

### 6.3.1 Reliability estimates

Using Cronbach's alpha coefficient, the reliability estimates for all dimensions of OP are above .85. Meanwhile, all the measures used for each of the independent variables had acceptable reliability estimates, ranging from .785 for TL to .859 for qLFRs (*Table 5 below*).

**Table 5**  
**Reliability estimates**

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Transformational leadership	.785	20
Soft proactive influencing tactics	.835	16
Quality of leader-follower Relationships	.859	7
Organisational performance		
Rational Goal Model	.854	22
Open Systems Model	.881	22
Human Relations Model	.899	23
Internal Processes Model	.873	18

These reliability estimates are within acceptable ranges, based on the recommendations of Garson (2016) and George and Mallery (2003) that acceptable Cronbach's alpha coefficient value cut-offs are at least .70.

### 6.3.2 Means and Standard Deviations

As already indicated in the previous chapter, the mean is the average score for a variable, N denotes the number of participants or subjects, with *Minimum* being the lowest score, while *Maximum* is the highest score, and *Standard deviation* (Std) is the measure of the variability of the scores.

#### 6.3.2.1 Transformational leadership

From the results for TL (*Table 6*), the mean score for TL is 3.06, with a minimum of 2 and maximum of 4. The mean rating for TL shows high levels of TL attributes, as alluded to by the Chamberlain scale (Chamberlain, 2003; Fox, 2007; Leapley-Portschelle, 2008); where the mean scales are categorised into ratings of 0 to 1.33 being low TL; ratings of 1.34 to 2.66 being moderate TL; and ratings of 2.67 to 4.0 denoted as high TL.

Therefore, based on the perceptions of their subordinates and other employees, the leaders of the sampled SOEs showed that they generally exhibited TL attributes.

**Table 6**  
**Descriptive Statistics-Transformational Leadership**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
TL	302	2.00	4.00	3.0575	.32450
IIA	302	2.00	4.00	3.0764	.47177
IIB	302	2.00	4.00	3.0795	.42048
IM	302	2.00	4.00	3.1118	.44709
IS	302	2.00	4.00	3.0331	.39743
IC	302	2.00	4.00	2.9909	.49133
Valid N (listwise)	302				

Key:

- IIA: Idealised influence attributable
- IIB: Idealised influence behaviour
- IM: Inspirational motivation
- IS: Intellectual stimulation
- IC: Individual consideration

Concerning scores on individual dimensions of TL, the results (*Table 6*) showed that the highest-rated dimension is inspirational motivation (IM) with a mean score of 3.1, and this is above the mean score for the total TL variable. The inspirational motivation is followed by *idealised influence behaviour* (IIB), then *idealised influence attributable* (IIA), both of which are above the TL mean score. *Intellectual stimulation* ranked

fourth, followed by *individual consideration*, and these last two dimensions scored slightly below the TL mean score.

Using Chamberlain’s scale, all the ratings for TL dimensions in the present study are high level TL; thus generally the leaders in the sampled SOEs are viewed as highly TLrs. Regarding these scores for individual dimensions of TL, Timén, Hess, and Gustafsson (2007) also indicated that the optimal scores for the dimensions are between 3.0 to 3.75 across all dimensions (unpublished material from Mind Garden), which is the case in the current results where the individual dimensions averaged 2.9909 (that is 3.0) and 3.1. This shows that the scores in the current study are within the optimal score ranges. Thus, it demonstrates that each dimension is equally important for the leader’s effectiveness (Timén et al., 2007); without ignoring any of the dimensions.

### 6.3.2.2 Organisational performance

#### 6.3.2.2.1 Open System Model (OSM)

Regarding OP, from *Table 7* below, the open system model (OSM) had a mean score of 5.0, with the minimum and maximum score being 2 and 6, respectively. Since the average score is almost near the maximum possible score from the Likert scale of 1 up to 7, the OSM rating can be regarded as high. The standard deviation of .75 shows the variation from the mean score and is considered low on the mean score of 5.0.

The sub-elements of the OSM, namely the open system model-means (OSM\_M) and open system model-ends (OSM\_E) had mean scores of 5.2 and 4.7, respectively. From the scoring, the OSM\_M is perceived higher than OSM\_E. The OSM\_M is even above the overall open system model mean of 5.0; thus, the organisations are perceived as performing well on OSM-M.

**Table 7**

**Descriptive Statistics–Open System Model**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
OSM	302	2.00	6.00	5.0093	.74962
OSM_M	302	3.00	7.00	5.2070	.77464
OSM_E	302	2.00	6.00	4.7722	.85816
Valid N (listwise)	302				

Key:

OSM: Open system model

OSM\_M: Open system model-means

OSM\_E: Open system model-ends

### 6.3.2.2.2 Human Relations Model (HRM)

With the HRM, the mean score is 5.08, with a standard deviation of .82 (*Table 8* below), which shows more variability than the OSM. Again, the variation of .82 from the mean of 5.08 overall for the HRM could be considered as low. In this model, Human relations model-ends (HRM\_E) is rated higher than the Human relations model-means (HRM\_M), scoring 5.11 and 5.05 respectively; thus, in this model, HRM\_E is perceived to be higher/more important.

**Table 8**  
**Descriptive Statistics–Human relations model**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
HRM	302	3.00	6.00	5.0798	.82350
HRM_M	302	2.00	7.00	5.0506	.87459
HRM_E	302	3.00	7.00	5.1065	.86147
Valid N (listwise)	302				

Key:

HRM: Human relations model

HRM\_M: Human relations model-means

HRM\_E: Human relations model-ends

### 6.3.2.2.3 Internal Process Model (IPM)

In the IPM, the scores ranged between 2 and 6, with a mean score of 4.9 and a standard deviation of .84 (*Table 9* below). This shows that participants rated this model of performance as moderately high. In addition, the IPM-ends (IPM\_E) is rated higher at 5.01 when compared to the IPM-means (IPM\_M), which is rated 4.8. Therefore, the participants perceived the organisation as performing better on the IPM\_E, than the IPM\_M.

**Table 9**  
**Descriptive Statistics–Internal process model**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
IPM	302	2.00	6.00	4.9118	.83803
IPM_M	302	2.00	6.00	4.8306	.92661
IPM_E	302	3.00	7.00	5.0157	.85593
Valid N (listwise)	302				

Key:

IPM: Internal process model

IPM\_M: Internal process model-means

IPM\_E: Internal process model-ends

6.3.2.2.4 *Rational Goal Model (RGM)*

As for RGM, from *Table 10* below, the mean score is 5.19, with a minimum and maximum score of 3 and 7. The mean score of 5.19 is nearest to the maximum possible score of 7; hence it can be considered that the RGM ratings are high. The standard deviation of .70 is indicative of the variation from the mean score, and this can be said to be low on the mean score of 5.19.

The sub-elements of the RGM, that is the rational goal model-means (RGM\_M), and rational goal model-ends (RGM\_E), had mean scores of 5.3 and 5.1 respectively, therefore, RGM\_M is perceived higher than RGM\_E. Further, the RGM\_M rating is higher than the overall RGM mean; thus, the participants perceived the organisation as performing well on the RGM\_M under this model.

**Table 10**

**Descriptive Statistics: : Rational goal model**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
RGM	302	3.00	7.00	5.1936	.70056
RGM_M	302	3.00	7.00	5.3046	.74416
RGM_E	302	2.00	7.00	5.0825	.80366
Valid N (listwise)	302				

Key:

- RGM: Rational goal model
- RGM\_M: Rational goal model-means
- RGM\_E: Rational goal model-ends

Overall, between all the models of OP, the highest rating is on the RGM with a mean score of 5.19, followed by the HRM with a mean score of 5.08, then the OSM which had a mean score of 5.01, and finally the IPM, with a mean score of 4.91. Therefore, the sampled organisations are perceived to have performed well across all models, as shown by the ranges around a mean score of 5.0. As indicated by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983), an effective organisation has to perform well on all four performance criteria (models), despite being faced with competing values.

6.3.2.2.5 *Soft proactive influence tactics*

From the results in *Table 11* depicted below, the proactive influence tactics had a mean score of 3.68 and a standard deviation of .544 overall. The scores range from 2 (minimum) to 5 (maximum). Furthermore, the mean score of 3.68 on a scale of 1 to 5 demonstrates a moderately high score for the use of sPITS; combined with the

standard deviation of .54 this would mean that the leaders fairly often used these sPITS on their followers.

In terms of individual scores, the proactive influence tactics had almost similar mean scores, which are about and around 3.7. This shows that the perception of followers of their leaders' proactive influence tactics is that the various soft tactics are applied almost equally. Therefore, the leaders often used these proactive influence tactics on their followers.

**Table 11**  
**Descriptive Statistics–Soft Proactive Influence Tactics**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
sPIT	302	2.00	5.00	3.6803	.54402
RP	302	2.00	5.00	3.6714	.63356
IA	302	2.00	5.00	3.6523	.64826
COL	302	2.00	5.00	3.6904	.67014
CON	302	2.00	5.00	3.7070	.68972
Valid N (listwise)	302				

Key:

- RP: Rational persuasion
- IA: Inspirational appeal
- COL: Collaboration
- CON: Consultation
- sPIT: Soft proactive influence tactics

#### 6.3.2.2.6 Quality of leader-follower relationships

The qLFR had a minimum score of 2 and a maximum score of 5 (Table 12). In terms of the mean score, the qLFR is 3.7, which is considered moderately high for a Likert scale of 1 to 5, with a variation of .63 as the standard deviation. A standard deviation of .63 on a scoring mean of 3.7 can be considered as low; hence it can be said that leaders of the sampled SOEs exhibited high-quality relationships with followers most of the time. Thus, overall, the quality of the LFRs are high.

**Table 12**  
**Descriptive Statistics–Soft proactive influence tactics**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
qLFR	302	2.00	5.00	3.7143	.63011
Valid N (listwise)	302				

## 6.4 INFERENCE STATISTICS

This section reports the inferential statistics associated with the following techniques namely, the correlational analysis among variables in the hypothesised model; stepwise multiple regression; and finally, SEM. As alluded to earlier in previous sections, for correlations, the current study utilised Pearson's correlation. Regarding the assessment of direct relationships between variables, stepwise multiple regression is applied. SEM is performed using Variance-based SEM, emphasising the quality criteria associated with both the inner and outer models of the proposed theoretical model. Finally, on the basis of the inferential statistics, a summary of the outcomes of each of the hypotheses are provided.

### 6.4.1 Correlations

#### 6.4.1.1 Transformational leadership and Organisational performance

The results (*Table 13*) of the study showed that a higher degree of TL is related to a higher degree of OP (through all its models). As the TL application is increased, as are its attributes, the OP is also expected to improve. If management wants to improve OP, it can improve on TL.

**Table 13**

Correlations between independent variables and components of the dependent variable

		RGM	OSM	HRM	IPM
TL	Pearson Correlation	.626**	.596**	.657**	.668**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	302	302	302	302
sPIT	Pearson Correlation	.597**	.515**	.581**	.600**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	302	302	302	302
qLFR	Pearson Correlation	.405**	.298**	.366**	.335**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	302	302	302	302

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

Key:

RGM: Rational goal model  
 OSM: Open system model  
 HRM: Human relations model  
 IPM: Internal process model  
 sPIT: Soft proactive influence tactics  
 TL: Transformational leadership

Besides establishing the correlations between the main variables in the study model, correlations related to the various sub-dimensions of the independent variables are also assessed (*Table 14*). TL dimensions, namely *idealised influence attributed* (IIA), *idealised influence behaviour* (IIB), *inspirational motivation* (IM), *intellectual stimulation* (IS), and *individual consideration* (IC) all showed a significant positive correlation towards the OP models of the RGM, OSM, the HRM and the IPM.

These correlations ranged between *moderate* and *high*; with a minimum *r*-value of .397 between *idealised influence behaviour* (IIB) and the OSM; the highest *r*-value being .537 between *idealised influences attributed* (IIA) and IPM. This shows that the more a leader exhibits TL attributes or behaviours, the more all the models of OP are enhanced.

#### **6.4.1.2 Proactive influence tactics and Organisational performance**

The results (*Table 13*) show that there is a strong significant positive relationship between sPITS and all models of OP, meaning that increased use of these sPITS would result in increased OP. This suggests that if management wants to increase OP, it can increase the use of sPITS like “rational persuasion, inspirational appeal, collaboration, consultation, and personal appeal” (Yukl et al., 2008, p.614).

When assessing the individual dimensions of the sPITS towards individual OP models, there is moderate to high positive significant correlations (*Table 14*). Thus, as leaders apply sPITS on their followers, there is improved OP across all the models of the RGM, the OSM, the HRM and the IPM, although the positive effect is on a different levels for each model.

**Table 14**

**Correlations between dimensions of independent variables and components of the dependent variable**

		RGM	OSM	HRM	IPM
IIA	P	.490**	.469**	.513**	.537**
	S	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	302	302	302	302
IIB	P	.437**	.397**	.450**	.444**
	S	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	302	302	302	302
IM	P	.423**	.407**	.487**	.475**
	S	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	302	302	302	302
IS	P	.460**	.403**	.457**	.449**
	S	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	302	302	302	302
IC	P	.456**	.472**	.478**	.507**
	S	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	302	302	302	302
RP	P	.517**	.470**	.507**	.502**
	S	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	302	302	302	302
IA	P	.509**	.429**	.474**	.506**
	S	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	302	302	302	302
COL	P	.514**	.398**	.467**	.478**
	S	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	302	302	302	302
CON	P	.433**	.402**	.466**	.491**
	S	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	302	302	302	302
qLFR	P	.405**	.298**	.366**	.335**
	S	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	302	302	302	302

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

Key

P= Pearson's Correlation

S=Sig (2-tailed)

**6.4.1.3 Quality of leader-follower performance and Organisational performance**

From the results of the study (*Table 13*), it is clear that qLFRs are moderately positively significantly correlated to all the models of OP. The correlation coefficients fall within the range of 3.0 and 4.0; hence they are considered moderate relationships, as alluded to earlier on. Consequently, high-quality LFRs are associated with high OP. Also, low-quality LFRs would be associated with low OP. It means that as the qLFRs improves, the OP is moderately improved, therefore, for organisations that seek to improve performance, it is important to ensure that the qLFR is improved.

## 6.4.2 Stepwise multiple regression

In essence, stepwise multiple regression investigates the direct relationship between an independent variable (or combination of independent variables) and a dependent variable. Therefore, where one seeks to assess how a predictor variable affects the dependent variable or outcome variable (Leech et al., 2005), stepwise multiple regression is appropriate.

### 6.4.2.1 Predictors of the organisational performance (rational goal model)

Based on the results from the study (Table 15), only two of the independent variables (TL and sPITS) are significant predictors of OP (RGM). These two independent variables explained 44.5% of the variance in OP (RGM). TL contributed 39.2% of the variance, while sPITS explained 5.3% of the variance. The regression model is statistically significant ( $F = 119,723$ ;  $p = .000$ ).

**Table 15**  
**Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.626 <sup>a</sup>	.392	.390	.54700
2	.667 <sup>b</sup>	.445	.441	.52379

a. Predictors: (Constant), TL

b. Predictors: (Constant), TL, sPIT

#### ANOVA<sup>a</sup>

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
2	Regression	65.694	2	32.847	119.723	.000 <sup>c</sup>
	Residual	82.033	299	.274		
	Total	147.727	301			

a. Dependent Variable: RGM

b. Predictors: (Constant), TL

c. Predictors: (Constant), TL, sPIT

#### Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.
2	(Constant)	.999	.286		3.489	.001
	TL	.883	.128	.409	6.874	.000
	sPIT	.407	.077	.316	5.308	.000

a. Dependent Variable: RGM

The formula for this relationship (Coefficients) in Table 15 above is therefore;  
 $RGM = \text{Constant} + \beta (TL) + \beta (sPIT) + \text{Residual}$ .

Therefore,  $RGM = .999 + .883TL + .407sPIT + \text{Residual}$ . Thus, the improvement in TL attributes and the increased use of sPITS positively enhance the RGM by .883 times the TL factor, and .407 times of sPITS, in the above formula where the constant remains .999.

#### 6.4.2.2 Predictors of organisational performance (open systems model)

According to the results in *Table 16*, only two of the independent variables (TL and sPITS) are significant predictors of OP in the OSM. Both these independent variables explained 37.6% of the variance in OP in the OSM. The TL, therefore, contributed 35.5% of the variance in the OSM, while sPITS explained 2.1% of the variance. The regression model is statistically significant ( $F = 89,913$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ).

**Table 16**  
**Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.596 <sup>a</sup>	.355	.353	.60305
2	.613 <sup>b</sup>	.376	.371	.59434

a. Predictors: (Constant), TL

b. Predictors: (Constant), TL, sPIT

#### ANOVA<sup>a</sup>

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Regression	63.521	2	31.761	89.913	.000c
	Residual	105.618	299	.353		
	Total	169.139	301			

a. Dependent Variable: OSM

b. Predictors: (Constant), TL

c. Predictors: (Constant), TL, sPIT

#### Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.
	(Constant)	.761	.325		2.343	.020
	TL	1.061	.146	.459	7.282	.000
	sPIT	.273	.087	.198	3.140	.002

a. Dependent Variable: OSM

The formula for the regression (Coefficients) is;  $OSM = .761 + 1.061TL + .273sPIT + \text{Residual}$ , which means that the OSM is positively improved by 1.031 times the TL factor and .273 times of sPITS, together with the constant of .761.

### 6.4.2.3 Predictors of organisational performance (Human Relations Model)

From the results of *Table 17*, only two of the independent variables (TL and sPITS) are significant predictors of OP in the HRM. These two independent variables explained 46.3% of the variance in OP in the HRM.. TL contributed 43.2% of the variance in the HRM, while sPITS explained 3.1% of the variance. The regression model is statistically significant ( $F = 128,965$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ).

**Table 17**  
**Model Summary, Stepwise Multiple Regression: Human relations model**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.657 <sup>a</sup>	.432	.430	.62156
2	.681 <sup>b</sup>	.463	.460	.60541

a. Predictors: (Constant), TL

b. Predictors: (Constant), TL, sPIT

#### ANOVA<sup>a</sup>

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Regression	94.536	2	47.268	128.965	.000 <sup>c</sup>
	Residual	109.589	299	.367		
	Total	204.124	301			

a. Dependent Variable: HRM

b. Predictors: (Constant), TL

c. Predictors: (Constant), TL, Spit

#### Coefficients<sup>a</sup>

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
	(Constant)	-.075	.331		-.228	.820
	TL	1.244	.148	.490	8.381	.000
	sPIT	.367	.089	.243	4.150	.000

a. Dependent Variable: HRM

The formula (Coefficients) for the regression is;

$HRM = -.75 + 1.244TL + .367sPIT + \text{Residual}$ ; which means that HRM is positively improved by 1.244 times of TL, and .367 times of sPITS, and reduced by the constant of -.75.

#### 6.4.2.4 Predictors of organisational performance (Internal Process Model)

The results in *Table 18* show that only two of the independent variables (TL and sPITS) are significant predictors of OP (IPM). These two independent variables explained 48.3% of the variance in OP in the IPMI. TL contributed 44.7% of the variance in the IPM, while sPITS explained 3.6% of the variance. The regression model is statistically significant ( $F = 139,917$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ).

**Table 18: Model Summary: Stepwise Multiple Regression: Internal process model**

**Model Summary: Stepwise Multiple Regression: Internal process model**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.668 <sup>a</sup>	.447	.445	.62444
2	.695 <sup>b</sup>	.483	.480	.60432

a. Predictors: (Constant), TL

b. Predictors: (Constant), TL, sPIT

#### ANOVA<sup>a</sup>

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Regression	102.196	2	51.098	139.917	.000 <sup>c</sup>
	Residual	109.196	299	.365		
	Total	211.392	301			

a. Dependent Variable: IPM

b. Predictors: (Constant), TL

c. Predictors: (Constant), TL, sPIT

#### Coefficients<sup>a</sup>

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.
(Constant)	-.425	.330		-1.288	.199
TL	1.255	.148	.486	8.469	.000
sPIT	.408	.088	.265	4.616	.000

a. Dependent Variable: IPM

The combined formula (Coefficients) for the regression is;

$IPM = -.425 + 1.255TL + .408sPIT + \text{Residual}$ , meaning that the IPM is improved by 1.255 times of TL, and .408 times of sPITS, and reduced by the constant of -.425.

Generally, the stepwise multiple regression results demonstrated that TL had a higher contribution than sPITS on all models of OP (RGM, OSM, HRM and IPM). Therefore, TL plays the biggest role in contributing to the prediction of OP. However, it is important to note that both the TL and sPITS positively and significantly contributed to the prediction of all the OP dimensions.

### 6.4.3 Structural Equation Modelling

#### 6.4.3.1 Outer model (Quality Criteria and Results)

##### Internal consistency

Reliability and validity can be used for evaluating measurement models (Hair et al., 2012). In this regard, composite reliability from SmartPLS complemented the SPSS-results on internal consistency. The results showed a composite reliability of .849 for TL; .894 for proactive influence tactics; .964 for OP and 1 for qLFR (*Table 19*). It may be noted that the reason for the qLFR having a composite reliability (as well as an AVE) of 1 is that a single indicator (composite score) is used. Meanwhile, for the other instruments, various sub-dimensions associated with each variable are used as indicators in the outer model.

**Table 19**  
**Quality Criteria, Outer Model (Round 1)**

	Cronbach's Alpha	rho_A	Composite Reliability	Average Extracted (AVE)	Variance AVE	Square root
qLFR	1	1	1	1		1
OP	0.95	0.961	0.964	0.869		0.932
sPIT	0.842	0.843	0.894	0.679		0.824
TL	0.777	0.783	0.849	0.53		0.728

The reliability estimates presented here are higher than 0.7, and these are regarded as acceptable and satisfactory values (Hair et al., 2012; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). These results, therefore, corroborate the reliability estimates (SPSS results) presented in the previous section.

##### Convergent validity

Convergent validity is also assessed by using the AVE; with values of .50 and above considered as a sufficient degree of convergent validity (Goh & Wasko, 2012; Hair et al., 2012). As already alluded to in previous sections, an AVE of at least .5 would mean that the construct account for the majority of the variance (Chin & Newsted, 1999; Gotz et al., 2010; Hair et al., 2012). From *Table 19* above, it is clear that all four variables had AVEs above .50; hence the variables had sufficient convergent validity.

### 6.4.3.2 Outer loadings (Indicator reliability)

Indicator reliability, which refers to the loadings between an indicator and its associated variable/latent variable, is also important for PLS assessment (Hair et al., 2012). Hair et al. (2012) recommended maintaining indicator values above .4. All the indicators in the current study had loadings above .4; hence their reliability is acceptable and is maintained. In addition, all the indicators had statistically significant factor loadings on their respective latent variables (Table 20).

**Table 20**  
**Loadings Outer Model (Round 1)**

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics ( O/STDEV )	P Values
COL <- sPIT	.792	.792	.026	30.814	.0000
CON <- sPIT	.834	.833	.02	42.76	.0000
IA <- sPIT	.851	.85	.017	49.331	.0000
RP <- sPIT	.816	.816	.021	38.972	.0000
HRM <- OP	.935	.934	.007	133.62	.0000
IPM <- OP	.932	.932	.01	97.788	.0000
OSM <- OP	.93	.929	.01	91.691	.0000
RGM <- OP	.932	.933	.007	134.962	.0000
IC <- TL	.757	.759	.026	29.068	.0000
IIA <- TL	.725	.725	.038	19.317	.0000
IIB <- TL	.733	.732	.03	24.586	.0000
IM <- TL	.779	.78	.025	30.6	.0000
IS <- TL	.637	.635	.043	14.77	.0000
qLFR <- qLFR	1	1	.000		

### 6.4.3.3 Inner model (Quality Criteria and Results for Round 1)

#### Level (%) of variance in the dependent variable (R<sup>2</sup> values)

As already alluded to in earlier sections, the R<sup>2</sup> denotes the level (%) of variance in the endogenous variable, which is explained by the model (Garson, 2016). Chin (1998) and, Höck and Ringle (2010) maintained that the R<sup>2</sup> cut off values of 0.67 represent a substantial effect; 0.33 represents a moderate effect and 0.19 represents a weak effect. Garson (2016) further suggested that what is considered “high” is relative to the field, and 0.25 may be considered high in given areas that had lower values previously. Hair et al. (2012) also indicated that in some disciplines, for example, consumer behaviour, the R<sup>2</sup> value of 0.20 is considered high.

The results from round 1 (*Figure 4* and *Table 21*) showed that the R<sup>2</sup> value for OP is .47, meaning that 47% of the variance in OP is explained by all the independent variables in the model (i.e. TL, influencing tactics, and quality of subordinate relationships). Hence, the theoretical model (all the independent variables) explained 47% of the variance in the dependent variable, which can be interpreted as moderate.

**Table 21**  
**R-square, Inner model (Round 1)**

	R Square	R Square Adjusted
qLFR	0.32	0.315
OP	0.145	0.142
sPIT	0.474	0.472

**Path coefficients**

Regarding the level and significance of path coefficients, it was alluded that “the individual path coefficients’ significance is assessed using a bootstrapping procedure” (Hair et al., 2012). According to Garson (2016), t-values greater than 1.96 are considered significant at the 0.05 level (5%) of significance. As such paths, which are statistically non-significant (t-value less than 1.96), do not support the model hypothesis. In contrast, the paths, which are significant (t-value above 1.96), support the hypothesis of the model (Hair et al., 2012).

It is evident from the results in *Table 22* that all the proposed paths in the theoretical model are statistically significant, except between TL and quality of subordinate relationships ( $\beta = .117, p = .079$ ). Hence, this path must be removed from the proposed model.

**Table 21**  
**Inner model Path coefficients (Round 1)**

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics ((O/STDEV))	P Values
qLFR → OP	.381	.38	.043	8.816	.0000
sPIT → qLFR	.479	.477	.061	7.878	.0000
TL → qLFR	.117	.117	.066	1.76	.0790
TL → sPIT	.688	.693	.032	21.193	.0000

#### 6.4.3.4 Inner model (Quality Criteria and Results for Round 2)

##### Level (%) of variance in the dependent variable (R<sup>2</sup> values)

From the results of round 2 (Figure 4 and Table 23), the R<sup>2</sup> value for OP is .47, indicating that 47% of the variance in OP is explained by all the independent variables in the model (i.e. TL, influencing tactics, and quality of subordinate relationships). As such, the theoretical model (all the independent variables) explained 47% of the variance in the dependent variable, and this could be interpreted as a moderate effect. Interestingly, there is no real difference between the R-squared values of the inner model in Round 1 (47%) and Round 2 (47%). Hence, the removal of the non-significant path did not seem to have a major impact on the predictive ability of the model.

**Table 22**  
Inner model (Round 2)R-square

	R Square	R Square Adjusted
qLFR	.313	.31
OP	.47	.466
sPIT	.474	.472

##### Path coefficients

In Round 1 of bootstrapping, one of the paths in the conceptual model (TL → qLFR) could not be supported, as already explained in a previous section. This required the present study to investigate the accuracy of a revised inner model. As such, a second round of bootstrapping is required (excluding the non-significant path).

The revised model is evaluated, and the results are in Table 24 below. It is clear that in the revised theoretical model, all the paths are statistically significant.

**Table 23: Inner model (Round 2): Path Coefficients**  
Inner model (Round 2): Path Coefficients

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics ((O/STDEV))	P Values
qLFR → OP	.092	.089	.047	1.961	.050
sPIT → qLFR	.559	.56	.036	15.63	.000
TL → OP	.64	.641	.042	15.32	.000
TL → sPIT	.688	.691	.032	21.227	.000

Hair et al. (2012) suggested that paths which are statistically non-significant (t-values less than 1.96), do not support the hypothesised model. However, paths which are significant (t-values above 1.96), do support the hypothesised model. From the current

study, the following paths had t-values above 1.96 at a 5% significance level; hence the paths are supported.

- I. Quality of leader-follower relationship→organisational performance ( $\beta = .092$ ;  $t = 1.961$ ),
- II. Soft proactive influence tactics→quality of leader-follower relationship ( $\beta = .559$ ;  $t = 15.63$ ),
- III. Transformational leadership→organisational performance ( $\beta = .64$ ;  $t = 15.32$ ); and
- IV. Transformational leadership→soft proactive influence tactics ( $\beta = .688$ ;  $t = 21.227$ ).

For ease of reference, the hypotheses are again shown below.

- I. H1: TL has a statistically significant influence on OP
- II. H2: TL has a statistically significant influence on sPITS
- III. H3: TL leadership has a statistically significant influence on LFRs
- IV. H4: sPITS have a statistically significant influence on LFRs
- V. H5: The quality of LFRs has a statistically significant influence on OP
- VI. H6: The conceptual TL and OP model demonstrates predictive validity in SOEs in Zimbabwe.

Therefore, the conceptual model is supported except for the proposed path of H3, which hypothesised that TL has a statistically significant influence on LFRs. The final model is shown in *Figure 4*, where TL has proved that it can indirectly influence OP through other variables, including sPITS and the quality of the LFR, besides the direct effect on OP. Specifically, a variance of 47% in OP is attributed to all the independent variables in the model. As already highlighted, there is no real difference between the R-squared of the inner model in Round 1 (47%) and Round 2 (47%); thus the removal of the non-significant path did not seem to have a major impact on the predictive ability of the model.

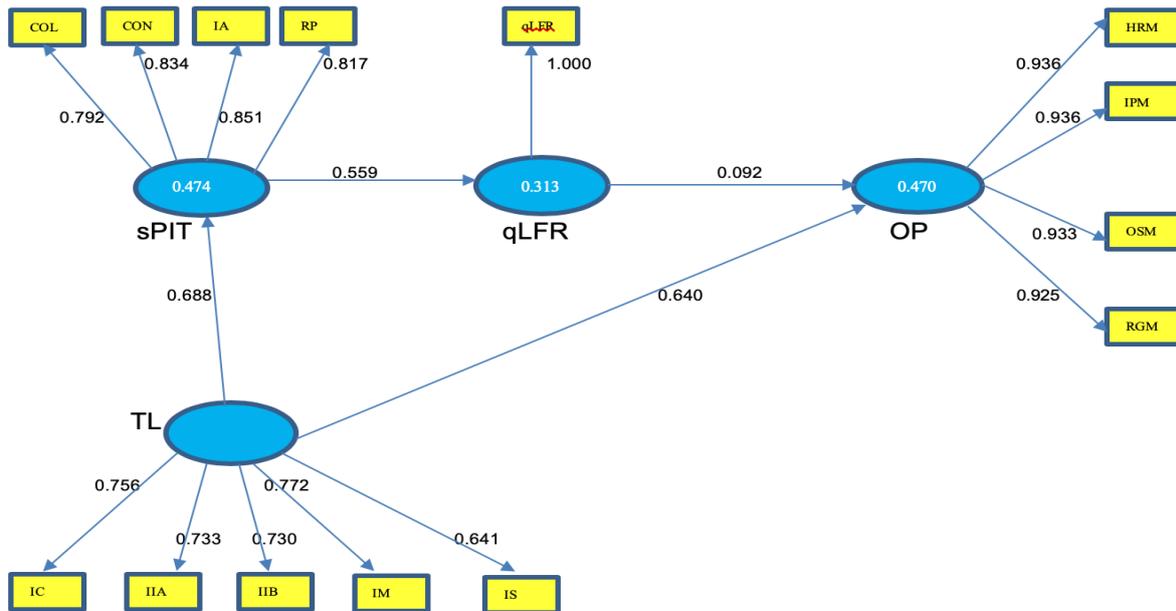


Figure 4: Final empirical model

#### 6.4.4 Summary of hypotheses testing

In this study, stepwise multiple regression is used to evaluate the direct linear relationships (presented in section 6.4.2), while the variance-based approach to SEM is applied to assess both the direct and indirect relationships between variables of the model. When consulting the stepwise multiple regression results, it is clear that only TL and influencing tactics are significant predictors of OP. The R-squared values from the stepwise multiple regression ranged between 38% and 48%. Therefore, although SEM suggested that most of the paths are significant, it seemed as if both TL and soft influence tactics played an important role in our understanding of OP.

The SEM helped to explain “how” these two variables (TL and sPITS) might influence OP; where,

- I. TL has a direct influence on OP , and
- II. TL, through influencing tactics and quality of leader-follower relationships, has an indirect influence on OP.

Table 25 below shows the hypotheses that are supported in the study; as well as the unsupported hypothesis. As already indicated, all hypotheses are supported in the model except for, TL→ qLFRs; thus, the final model of the study is reached, as depicted in Figure 4 above.

**Table 24**  
**Summary of supported hypotheses**

Relationship	Type of relationship	Assessing method	Hypothesis supported
TL → OP	Predictive relationships direct	Correlation, Multiple Regression, Structural Equation Modelling	H1 supported
TL → sPIT	Predictive relationship direct	Structural Equation Modelling	H2 supported
TL → qLFR	Predictive relationship direct	Structural Equation Modelling	H3 not supported
sPIT → qLFR	Predictive relationship direct	Structural Equation Modelling	H4 supported
qLFR → OP	Predictive relationship direct	Correlation, Multiple Regression, Structural Equation Modelling	H5 supported
TL → sPIT → qLFR → OP	Predictive relationships indirect	Structural Equation Modelling	H6 supported

Key

sPIT: Soft proactive influence tactic(s)

qLFR: Quality of leader-follower relationship

TLSP: Transformational Leadership

OP: Organisational Performance

## 6.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this study, there are 302 participants (a 78% response rate) comprised of managerial staff and non-managerial staff from 12 SOEs in Zimbabwe, as well as Government officials from Ministries supervising the SOEs. However, as part of the ethical considerations, some demographic data such as the participants' gender, race, and religion are not considered. Rather, the participants are considered as "all types and gender" (with no differentiation). Furthermore, while the age groups for selected participants are above 18 years, age is not used as a data set for analysis. All four instruments used in the study demonstrated good reliability and validity. Between the independent variables and the dependent variable, there are significant positive correlations. TL and sPITS are the only significant predictors to performance. TL explained a 40% variance, while sPITS explained a 3.5% variance in OP. In addition, the proposed theoretical model is supported by the SEM results, where all paths are statistically significant, save for one, the path TL→ qLFRs that is statistically non-significant. Thus, TL influenced OP through sPITS and the qLFRs. Overall, the final theoretical model explained a 47% variance in OP (indicative of a moderate effect), and this variance is above that of direct predictors to OP.

# **CHAPTER 7: RESULTS DISCUSSION AND CONTRIBUTIONS MADE BY THE STUDY**

## **7.1 INTRODUCTION**

Following the analysis and presentation of results, this chapter presents the discussion of the findings and contributions made by the present study. In pursuit of this, the explanations are provided for the direct relationships and indirect relationships, where TL works through other variables in influencing OP. This would culminate in a demonstration of the predictive validity of the theoretical model in the present study, with conclusions made thereof. The chapter also states the limitations to the study. In addition, the theoretical implications and recommendations for future research, as well as practical implications and recommendations for state-owned enterprises are also provided.

At the onset of the study, the aim is to develop a theoretically defensible and predictive transformational leadership and organisational performance model for SOEs in Zimbabwe. As indicated already, the research is done with the following hypotheses in mind and these formed part of the presentation in this section:

- I. H1: TL has a statistically significant influence on OP
- II. H2: TL has a statistically significant influence on sPITS
- III. H3: TL leadership has a statistically significant influence on LFRs
- IV. H4: sPITS have a statistically significant influence on LFRs
- V. H5: The quality of LFRs has a statistically significant influence on OP
- VI. H6: The conceptual TL and OP model demonstrates predictive validity in SOEs in Zimbabwe.

## **7.2 DIRECT RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN INDEPENDENT VARIABLES AND ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE**

Under this section, the discussion is on direct relationships of independent and dependent variables. This includes the direct relationship between TL and OP; sPITS and OP; as well as the qLFRs and OP. In this regard, consideration is on the correlational relationships and predictive relationships.

### **7.2.1 Direct relationship between transformational leadership and organisational performance (H1)**

It is demonstrated in the present study, using Pearson's correlation, that TL has a strong significant positive correlation with OP. It, therefore, implies that as the application of TL increases, so does OP. The predictive relationship of TL on OP, assessed through stepwise multiple regression, showed that TL contributed 39.2% of the variance in the RGM, 35.5% in the OSM, 43.2% in the HRM and 44.7% in the IPM, providing an average variance of 40% on all OP models. Using path coefficients of SEM, the path of TL → OP is also found to be statistically significant ( $\beta = .64$ ;  $t = 15.32$ ), hence corroborating the results from stepwise multiple regression.

The results above are consistent with previous research, for instance, Wahab et al. (2016) in which TL positively influenced OP; Dhanphat et al. (2015) where TL is instrumental for 14% variance in OP; Íscan et al. (2014) in which TL directly predicted OP and explained 13.2% of the variance in the OP.

Furthermore, the results in the present study confirm another research on Zimbabwe's state-owned enterprises done by Desderio (2016) that demonstrated a significant and strong positive relationship between TL and OP ( $r = .6$ ,  $\text{Sig.} < .05$ ). This would imply that with more TL attributes exhibited by a leader to followers, the OP increases. These previous studies included both private and public organisations, as well as in both developing and developed countries, which results are confirmed in the present study that focused on the state-owned enterprises (public sector) in Zimbabwe. Consequently, the relationship between TL and OP could be said to be universal.

The positive influence of TL on OP could be explained by the TL's encouragement to followers so that they could achieve set goals (Wahab et al., 2016), motivation and inspiration to followers such that the followers rather pursue the higher cause than self-interest (Avolio, 2007; Obiwuru et al., 2011), thereby achieving better OP. Besides the above reasons for improved performance, the TL's development of organisational goals, empowerment of followers (Dhanphat et al., 2015), as well as employee motivation aided in the improvement of OP.

In Íscan et al.'s (2014) study, improved OP led by TLrs could be explained by the TLrs' encouragement to followers to take risks in uncertain environments which could produce better yields the form of OP (Waldman et al., 2001). The TLrs also inspire

and motivate followers to be creative and pursue tough goals and encourage followers to think about alternative ways of solving problems, which all assist in producing high OP (Íscan et al., 2014).

Desderio (2016) also explained that TLrs help in followers' personal growth, influences followers to assist each other, motivate the followers to focus on the whole organisation and not individual interests, encourage innovation, and motivate them put extra effort in, thereby improving OP. Desderio (2016) added that by instilling pride in followers, showing confidence, being optimistic about the future and eager to achieve goals, the TL encourages better OP from such followers.

In the present study, the results are also important as they further assert the predictive nature of TL beyond just correlation, which many previous studies had assessed. The other important aspect is the level of variance on OP attributable to TL, wherein the current study the variation in OP attributable to TL is as high as 40%, when compared to some previous studies, for instance, Dhanphat et al. (2015), that demonstrated a contribution of around 14% in OP; or Íscan et al. (2014), whose study explained a 13.2% variance in OP as already shown above. The present results, therefore, support the first hypothesis (H1); that is, TL has a statistically significant influence on OP.

### **7.2.2 Direct relationship between soft proactive influence tactics and organisational performance (supplementary results)**

Results on correlations in the present study showed that there is a strong significant positive relationship between sPITS and OP, meaning that increased use of these sPITS would result in increased OP. The findings suggest that if management wants to improve OP, it can increase the use of sPITS in the form of "rational persuasion, consultation, inspirational appeal, collaboration and personal appeal" (Yukl et al., 2008, p.616). The correlation results are in sync with some previous studies such as Lian and Tui (2012) where the correlation for inspirational appeals and OP is  $r = .53$ ,  $p < .01$ ; and  $r = .58$ ,  $p < .01$  for the relationship between consultation and OP. Therefore, as leaders applied more of these soft influence tactics, the more OP increased.

In addition, the findings from the present study showed that sPITS predict OP. Using stepwise multiple regression to assess the predictive relationship, sPITS are seen to contribute on average 3.53% on OP, 5.3% on RGM, 2.1% on the OSM, 3.1% on the HRM and 3.6% of the variance on IPM directly. This is in line with previous research

such as that done by Lian and Tui (2012), who indicated that a leader's choice of proactive influence tactics contributed to enhancing OP.

In Lian and Tui's (2012) study, both the TL and proactive influence tactics were strong predictors of OP, since the use of sPITS motivates and inspires followers to perform better. The results of multiple regression analysis of Lian and Tui (2012) showed that inspirational appeals ( $\beta = .153$ ;  $p < .005$ ) and consultation ( $\beta = .210$ ;  $p < .005$ ) predicted OP. Thus, these findings from Lian and Tui (2012) demonstrated that where leaders exhibited TL behaviours; applying the inspirational appeal and consultation had a significant positive contribution to OP. These results entail that the leader's application of inspirational appeal and consultation as influencing tactics would motivate followers to improve their OP, which also supports similar observations by Sparrowe et al. (2006). Both the inspirational appeal and consultation were actually highlighted as more effective in enhancing follower performance (Lian & Tui, 2012) as these tactics rely on personal power and power-sharing, as opposed to hard tactics that rely on authority and position power.

Lee et al.'s (2017) study also empirically demonstrated that soft tactics in the form of "rational persuasion, consultation, inspirational appeal, collaboration and personal appeal" (Yukl et al., 2008, p.616) had a positive effect on task outcomes, including OP; thus the more frequent the application of these soft tactics, the more the performance outcome would improve. In explaining this relationship between soft tactics, Lee et al. (2017) highlighted that rational persuasion could persuade followers, through reasoning to carry out tasks, and also encouraged follower commitment which consequently improved their performance. With regard to the TL's use of inspirational appeals, Lee et al. (2017) noted that the tactic ignites enthusiasm of followers by appealing to values and ideals that increase follower confidence in carrying out a task. Where both the leader and followers share similar goals and values, there is likely to be more commitment, and eventually, the followers put in more effort to get the tasks done, thereby enhancing OP.

### **7.2.3 Direct link of the quality of leader-follower relationships to organisational performance (H5)**

In the present study, using Pearson's correlation, the qLFRs is moderately, positively and significantly correlated to OP. It would mean that with the high qLFRs, it is

expected that OP would be high, while low-quality LFRs would be expected to have low OP.

Beyond the correlation; the paths coefficients of the SEM results demonstrated that the path for qLFR→ OP is statistically significant ( $\beta = .092$ ;  $t = 1.961$ ) at a 5% significance level. While it is noted that when using stepwise multiple regression, the qLFRs is not a significant predictor to OP, the inner model results above supported the relationship. Since both the stepwise multiple regression and SEM are meant to corroborate and complement each other, the results of the inner model suffice in demonstrating that the qLFRs has a statistically significant influence on OP. In this regard, the hypothesis that the qLFRs has a statistically significant influence on OP (H5) is supported.

The results in the present study support previous studies (Lapierre & Hackett, 2007; Mayfield & Mayfield, 2009) that showed a positive significant association between qLFR and OP. In this previous research, high quality LFR is significantly and positively associated with high OP; while low quality LFR is associated with low OP.

In their study, Lapierre and Hackett (2007) highlighted that the average correlation between qLFRs and OP is positive and significant ( $r = .32$ ,  $p < .001$ ). As such, with good quality LFRs, the follower experience job satisfaction and this increases follower performance more. In fact, it is asserted that followers who experience good relationships with leaders reciprocate by improving OP (Lapierre & Hackett, 2007).

Mayfield and Mayfield (2009) also observed that the qLFRs positively and significantly influenced employee performance, hence also OP. This relationship is explained in that; as the relationship improves, followers reciprocate by improving OP, and these relationships are developed early but mature and become stable over time. In addition, good quality LFRs nurture job satisfaction among followers (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2009), which can be instrumental to followers wanting and striving to achieve set goals, hence resulting in improved OP.

The results of the current study also concurred with previous studies, for instance Tariq et al. (2014) where the qLFRs improved OP by 48%. Chaurasia and Shukla (2013) observed that the qLFRs accounted for 15% in the OP, a result which is supported by the present study. As indicated above, Tariq et al. (2014) showed that the qLFRs is a

positive and significant predictor of OP. Tariq et al. (2014) explained that leaders provide support to followers and enhance follower job satisfaction, and this contributes to followers improving OP. In addition, the leader's good communication with followers, empowerment of followers and delegating tasks also helps in improving OP.

In Chaurasia and Shukla's (2013) study, the 15% contribution of the qLFRs on OP is due to healthy and trustworthy, high-quality LFRs, and this helped in improving performance as individuals, as team members, and as organisation members. By developing trust, sharing information between leader and followers, providing resources, emotional support to followers in high-quality relationships (Chaurasia & Shukla, 2013), this can also encourage followers to reciprocate by working hard to achieve results, thereby improving OP.

The present results are also in sync with those of May-Chiun et al. (2015) who also observed that, using SEM path coefficients, the qLFRs positively and significantly contributed to OP ( $\beta=.455, p<.01$ ), hence the qLFRs can positively influence OP. This is mainly due to the fact that in high quality relationships between leader and followers, followers are comfortable with their leaders. Leaders treat followers in ways that are fit for specific followers as individuals who are unique; leaders develop trust and loyalty among followers (May-Chiun et al., 2015). All this leads to good relationships which enhance OP. May-Chiun et al. (2015) also added that the results could be explained by the leader encouraging followers to take more responsibilities, to be proactive and be committed to working; which eventually improves OP (Tariq et al., 2014). In high-quality relationships, leaders also provide strong support to followers and followers reciprocate by being motivated to perform tasks beyond the contractual requirements (May-Chiun et al., 2015). They are ready even to take up more tasks or responsibilities and this consequently improves OP.

The value of the results therefore demonstrated that high quality LFR can easily improve OP so that organisations can take advantage by enhancing their performance "free of cost" through developing high quality LFR, as suggested by Tariq et al. (2014).

### **7.3 THE COMPLEXITY OF THE LINK BETWEEN TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE, THROUGH PROACTIVE INFLUENCE TACTICS AND QUALITY OF LEADER-FOLLOWER RELATIONSHIPS**

Following the direct relationships provided in the previous section, this section provides detail on the more complex indirect relationships between the variables under study. Relationships between TL and sPITS is explained firstly, followed by the relationship between soft influence tactics and the qLFRs, and finally the relationship between the qLFRs and OP. Furthermore, the theoretical explanations of the relationships and how the variables are linked theoretically are elaborated. Both correlational relationships and predictive relationships are explained. Finally, the predictive validity of the model of TL and OP are demonstrated.

#### **7.3.1 The link of transformational leadership to proactive influence tactics (H2)**

Results in the present study demonstrated a strong significant positive correlation between TL and sPITS ( $r = .689, p < .01$ ). As such, the more TL behaviours are exhibited by the leader, the more likely the leader will apply sPITS on the followers. Conversely, it is reasonable to expect that the less the TL behaviours exhibited, the less likely a leader would use sPITS frequently.

On the basis of the results from the inner model, it is evident that there is a significant path coefficient between TL and proactive influencing tactics ( $\beta = .688, p = .000$ ). In fact, looking at the inner model, it seems as if TL explains 47.4% of the variance in sPITS. This shows that TL positively and significantly predicts soft proactive tactics. The present study therefore goes beyond just a correlational relationship, but actually demonstrate the predictive nature in the relationship between TL and soft tactics. These results therefore support the hypothesis that TL has a statistically significant influence on sPITS (H2).

These findings are in sync with previous studies such as Lian and Tui (2012) that demonstrated a positive and significant relationship between TL and sPITS. In Lian and Tui's (2012) study, TL positively and significantly predicted inspirational appeal, consultation and ingratiation. This relationship could be due to the use of consultation; inspirational appeals and ingratiation nurture a more satisfied, cooperative, and stable relationship between the TL and the follower (Lian & Tui, 2012; Yukl et al., 2008).

In fact, inspirational appeals involve requests based on follower values and ideals, which ignite an emotional response from the followers and create follower enthusiasm to carry out tasks or requests (Lian & Tui, 2012; Yukl, 2002); hence inspirational appeals could be linked to the TLR's inspirational motivation where the leader motivates and inspires followers towards a common vision, and uses emotional persuasion to gain followers acceptance and commitment to the organisational goals. These TL leadership attributes that have similarities to the inspirational appeals could therefore explain how the TL is positively related to soft influence tactics.

TL attributes are also compatible with consultation, where consultation includes asking followers to present alternative solutions to the problems, and to participate in proposals and planning of tasks (Lian & Tui, 2012; Yukl, 2002). This could be linked to "transformational leaders' individual consideration and intellectual stimulation" (Tse & Chiu, 2014, p.2829). With individual consideration, and intellectual stimulation, the transformational leader "communicates a vision, develops, provides support and empowers followers, is innovative, leads by example and is charismatic" (Carless et al., 2000, p.390). The TLR also considers followers' abilities and aspirations, listens to followers and in turn, the followers feel valued and contribute to a prolonged relationship of commitment. In addition, intellectual stimulation involves challenging followers to think of alternative solutions, to find creative and innovative solutions, and in turn, followers become closer to the TLR, express ideas freely, and have mutual interests towards the organisational goals. As such, with consultation influencing tactics, this resonates with TL, thus is likely to be accepted by followers as the followers are also involved in the planning process, and the followers may actually feel that the tasks being requested are not only for the leader but also belong to them.

TL's idealised influence can be linked to rational persuasion tactics. Idealised influence involves the leader being a role model, respected, trusted, admired and determined (Charbonneau, 2004). A leader exhibiting idealised influence is firm on beliefs and values the purpose of existence (Bass, 1997) as well as being transparent and consistent in providing reasons for decisions (Kelloway & Barling, 2000). The consistence and transparency in providing reasons for decisions by the TLR is consistent with rational persuasion tactic where the leader seeks to influence followers by providing rationale or reason, logic and evidence to execute a task (Yukl, 2002).

Thus, this can explain the positive correlation between TL's idealised influence and rational persuasion.

The present results are also consistent with Charbonneau (2004), which showed that TL had significant positive correlations with various soft influence tactics, with rational persuasion ( $r = .55, p < .001$ ), inspirational appeals ( $r = .45, p < .001$ ), consultation ( $r = .34, p < .001$ ) and non-significant positive correlation for collaboration ( $r = .26, ns$ ). As highlighted by Charbonneau (2004), the use of rational persuasion, consultation and collaboration is expected to result in followers' commitment to a request. With rational persuasion, the leader uses factual evidence, explanation and logical arguments to show that the request is possible to carry out successfully and in line with the task objectives (Yukl, 2002; Yukl & Seifert, 2002), and this gains follower commitment.

Furthermore, the TLr's attributes of intellectual stimulation involve enabling followers to be innovative, creative, reasoning (rational), factual (Charbonneau, 2004) and to express their ideas, querying the status quo, and thinking of alternative ways to solve problems (Boyett, 2006). It, therefore, shows that intellectual stimulation resembles rational persuasion tactics, hence the positive correlation.

As alluded to earlier on in the Lian and Tui (2012) study, consultation can be linked to TLr's individual consideration where the leader views each follower as unique, supports the follower to pursue his/ her aspirations, attends to the follower one-on-one, recognises follower achievements and coaches and mentors the follower (Charbonneau, 2004). These behaviours by the TLr creates a good relationship with followers who feel appreciated and may comply with the leader's request, hence the positive correlation between TL and soft influence tactics.

In addition, Charbonneau (2004) explained that collaboration involves the leader's support such as providing resources, providing assistance for the tasks and as a result followers would have a positive attitude towards the leader (Yukl & Michel, 2006) and this resonates with the TL's individual consideration, where the TLr seeks to ensure that the follower's needs, aspirations and goals are supported.

Inspirational appeals which encompass requests based on ideals, values and aspirations (Lian & Tui, 2012) stimulate emotion of followers through appeals that are vividly imaginary, and symbols (Charbonneau, 2004). The inspirational appeals also

increase the followers' self-confidence (Lian & Tui, 2012). Through TL's inspirational motivation, the leader expresses an appealing vision using stories and symbols that invoke optimism and enthusiasm, thereby motivating followers in pursuing the vision. Due to this, the TLr's' use of inspirational appeals would be positively received by the followers and they would be enthusiastic and optimistic of tackling the request, hence the positive correlation between TL and inspirational appeals.

Regarding predictions, the Charbonneau (2004) study showed that inspirational appeals and rational persuasion contributed significantly to the perception of TL behaviour. Rational persuasion is the only significant predictor of all TL behaviours ("idealised influence; inspirational motivation; intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration" Charbonneau (2004, p.572) and the composite TL. Inspirational appeals predicted both the idealised influence and inspirational motivation, while consultation and collaboration did not significantly predict TL behaviours, individually and as a composite group. Overall, the more the use of the above soft tactics by the leader, the more the leader is perceived as a TLr.

It is, however, noted that the direction of the prediction is different from the present study, in the Charbonneau (2004) study, the influencing tactics preceded TL, but in the present study, TL precedes soft proactive influencing tactics. Thus, the direction of TL→*soft proactive influencing tactics* in the present study widens the scope of the known relationship between these two variables. Comparing these prediction results with different directions, therefore, point out that soft influencing tactics can influence the perception of TL. At the same time, the TL also influences soft influencing tactics, which could be explained mainly by the similarities between the soft influencing tactics and TL behaviours. In this regard, these two theories of TL and influencing tactics can easily be integrated to produce positive results for the organisations.

### **7.3.2 The link of transformational leadership to quality of leader-follower relationships (H3)**

Regarding the correlational relationship, the results of the present study, through Pearson's correlation indicated that TL has a moderately positive significant correlation with the qLFRs, where  $r = .452$ ,  $p < .01$ . The relationship implies that the more TL behaviours exhibited by the leader, the higher the qLFRs. On the other hand, with less TL behaviours exhibited, then it would be expected to have low-quality LFR.

In terms of correlations, the present results support previous studies, for instance, Zacher et al. (2014), where TL is positively and significantly correlated with the qLFRs. The present results are also consistent with that of Li and Hung (2009) with regards to correlations, where, in their study, all TL dimensions were positively and significantly correlated to the qLFRs.

However, although the present results confirmed a positive correlation between TL and the qLFRs, these results did not support the predictive relationship of TL on the qLFRs as proposed in the hypothesised model. This could be explained by the indirect relationship where soft proactive influencing tactics possibly mediated the relationship between TL and the qLFRs. As is explained in the following sections, it shows that TL influenced the quality of LF relations indirectly, through soft proactive influencing tactics. These results therefore does not support the hypothesis that TL has a statistically significant influence on the qLFRs (H3).

For instance, as pointed out by Lian and Tui (2012) and Yukl (2002), the TL attributes of individual consideration and intellectual stimulation can be linked to the soft tactic of consultation. The consultation tactics include asking followers to participate in proposals, the planning of tasks, finding creative and innovative solutions to problems. In turn, followers become closer to the transformational leader, express ideas freely and have mutual interests in the organisational goals. With individual consideration and intellectual stimulation, the transformational leader “communicates a vision, develops, provides support and empowers followers, is innovative, leads by example and is charismatic” (Carless et al., 2000, p.390). In addition, the transformational leader considers followers’ abilities and aspirations, listens to followers. In turn, followers feel valued and thereby develop a prolonged relationship of commitment between the leader and followers. As a result of these engagements between the leader and follower, through soft influencing tactics, this would develop a good quality relationship between the leader and followers; thus the more a transformational leader applies soft tactics, the more likely the qLFRs are expected to improve. This, therefore, explains a possible mediation effect of soft influencing tactics between TL and the quality of LFRs.

Another interesting study that puts the present results into perspective is by Piccolo and Colquitt (2006), which suggested that the leadership is dependent on followers’

willingness to partially surrender power through inclination or pressure (Smircich & Morgan, 1982). Therefore, some followers may resist transformational behaviours, yet others may accept the transformational behaviours directed at them. As alluded to by Piccolo and Colquitt (2006), followers in conducive TL relationships have trust in the leaders and show commitment. They are more receptive to transformational leaders, while followers in low qLFRs exhibit formal and impersonal communication with the leaders, which could mean that such followers may not be responsive to transformational leader behaviours.

The study by Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) could point to the effect that TL may not necessarily always develop high-quality LFRs. Still, follower responses to the leader could impact the qLFRs, and consequently, whether TL positively predict the qLFRs. Furthermore, leaders lacking some of the characteristics associated with TL (idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration) are less likely to use positive influencing tactics when interacting with their subordinates, resulting in less than optimal LFRs.

### **7.3.3 The link of proactive influencing tactics to quality of leader-follower relationships (H4)**

The correlational relationship between soft proactive influencing tactics and qLFRs is a moderate, significantly positive one ( $r=.557$ ,  $p<.01$ ). The more the leader applied soft proactive influencing tactics, the higher the qLFRs. However, when leaders use fewer soft tactics, it would be expected to result in lower quality LFRs in an organisation. In the present study, through SEM path coefficients, the path soft proactive influencing tactics → qLFRs demonstrated positive statistical significance ( $\beta = .559$ ;  $t = 15.63$ ) at 5% significance level; thus results supported the predictive direct relationship of soft proactive influencing tactics on qLFRs.

The findings of the present study resonate well with previous studies, for instance, Cerado and Rivera's (2015) study. Cerado and Rivera's (2015) findings on soft proactive influencing tactics and qLFRs demonstrated that the soft tactics in the form of "rational persuasion, personal appeals, consulting, collaboration, ingratiation and personal appeals" contributed to 69% of the variation in qLFRs (Cerado & Rivera, 2015). This means that the more a leader applies soft influence tactics, the more likely

the qLFR will improve. Cerado and Rivera (2015) highlighted that leaders frequently used these soft proactive influencing tactics. It is also observed that the soft tactics mentioned above are mostly preferred by leaders as they are friendly and subtle, which consequently persuades followers to carry out tasks freely, support their leaders and become loyal to the leaders (Cerado & Rivera, 2015). Cerado and Rivera (2015) further highlighted that the soft proactive influencing tactics challenge followers to focus on shared goals, while the leader would support followers so that the best potential of the followers is achieved, thereby developing good LFRs.

Another observation is that as the leader applies the soft proactive influencing tactics, both the leader and follower mutually recognise each other as unique individuals, and treat each other as friends, thereby improving their relationship (Cerado & Rivera, 2015). In addition, as indicated by Cerado and Rivera (2015), leaders provide support to followers, trust the followers, assist in the personal growth of followers; and in reciprocity, followers respect and become loyal to the leader, work hard and accomplish requested tasks.

In addition, the results in the present study support previous research, for instance, Yukl and Michel (2006, p.15); where soft tactics in the form of “consultation, collaboration, inspirational appeals, and rational persuasion had a positive and significant correlation” with the qLFRs. Yukl et al. (2008, p.616) assert that sPITS (in the form of “rational persuasion, consultation, inspirational appeals and collaboration”) were positively correlated with qLFRs. The present results also resonate with Cerado and Rivera’s (2015) study where proactive influencing tactics are positively correlated with the qLFRs. These previous studies are critical in that they resonate with results from the present research where soft proactive influencing tactics predicted (i.e. were related to) the qLFRs in Zimbabwe’s state-owned enterprises.

In the study by Yukl and Michel (2006), in high-quality LFRs, the frequently used soft influencing tactics were rational persuasion, consultation, inspirational appeals and collaboration. Thus, the high-quality relationship between the leader and follower would be expected to improve where there is more frequent application of the above soft proactive influencing tactics. As indicated by Yukl and Michel (2006), consultation which involves follower participation in tasks, providing ideas by followers, with the leader listening and giving opportunities to followers to contribute on how the tasks will

be carried out can help to build mutual trust between the leader and follower as well as improving effective communication. Consequently, this develops a good quality relationship between the leader and followers, thus with more use of consultation, the qLFRs are expected to improve.

As highlighted earlier on, the collaboration includes a leader's support in terms of providing adequate resources, helping the followers to execute a task and this increases the positive effect of the followers towards the leader (Yukl & Michel, 2006). This could result in the followers liking the leader, reciprocating the supportive gesture, thereby cultivating a good relationship between leader and followers. Yukl and Michel (2006) explained that inspirational appeals, which is a request based on ideals and values, communicate a vision of a better future and a vision that invokes emotions in the followers. This tactic would ignite enthusiasm in the followers, especially where the ideals and values being pursued are aligned with those of the follower. Consequently, this results in both the leader and follower having a common vision, thus helping to build high-quality LFRs.

Regarding rational persuasion; which uses reason, logic and explanation on how the task can be achieved and why the task is important, it is likely to be effective where followers trust the leader (Yukl & Michel, 2006). Due to use of reason in influencing a follower to carry out a task, such an influence may not face resistance but help build good relationship since the leader is believed to make informed decisions based on reason and not speculation and hearsay. In addition, followers may trust a leader where certain prior tasks could have been achieved using similar rational thinking, as the leader is viewed as reliable and trustworthy. As demonstrated, the results in the current study support the hypothesis that soft proactive influencing tactics have a statistically significant influence on LFRs (H4).

#### **7.3.4 Predictive validity of the conceptual model in state-owned enterprises in Zimbabwe (H6)**

This section explains the predictive validity of the model in terms of reliability and validity of measures used in the study, in terms of the simple direct relationship of TL and OP, as well as the more complex relationships between the variables contributing to the prediction of OP. All the measures (MLQ-5X, IBQ-G, LMX-7 and CVQ) applied in evaluating the theoretical model met the quality criteria in the form of reliability and

validity. Furthermore, all the proposed paths in the model are statistically significant, except for the path TL → quality of the LFR. One possible reason for the statistically non-significant path is that soft proactive influencing tactics possibly mediate the relationship between TL and the qLFRs, as explained above. As such, this could point to the more complex relationship among variables that contribute to the prediction of OP. Overall, the model predicted a 47% variance in OP, which could be indicative of the predictive ability of the model. The predictive ability of the model in the present study could be interpreted using Chin's (1998) interpretation (in terms of R-squared values), where R<sup>2</sup> values of at least .67 represent a substantial effect; .33 to below .67 represents a moderate effect, and .19 to below .33 represents a weak effect. Thus, the present model's predictive ability (in terms of R-squared value of 47%) could be interpreted as moderate.

#### ***7.3.4.1 The direct relationship on organisational performance***

Based on the stepwise multiple regression results; for the direct influence of TL on OP, the TL contributed an average variance of 40% on all OP models (RGM, OSM, HRM, and IPM). TL's contribution is the highest on the IPM, followed by the HRM, then the RGM, and lastly the OSM.

These results are shown to be consistent with previous studies, for instance, Íscan et al. (2014), Desderio (2016) and, Dhanphat et al. (2015). The level of variance in the present study is found to be higher than some of the previous studies (e.g., 13.2% variance in Íscan et al. (2014) and a 14% variance in Dhanphat et al. (2015). As such, this point to a very significant role which TL can play in directly and positively predicting OP. Therefore, organisations can directly apply TL or encourage the leaders to exhibit more behaviours that are transformational to positively influence OP. Demonstrating that TL directly predicts OP shows that TL can be applied in different sectors, different organisational settings and globally, although producing similar results of positive prediction; hence this demonstrates that there is predictive validity of TL directly on OP.

It may also be worth noting that, independent of the TL or qLFRs, soft proactive influencing tactics are able to demonstrate a direct influence on OP, although in a small way when compared to TL. On average, the soft proactive influencing tactics explained 3.53% variance in OP. The direct influence of soft proactive tactics on OP

is consistent with previous studies, such as Lian and Tui (2012), Sparrowe et al. (2006) and Lee et al. (2017). The sPITS, therefore, demonstrated predictive validity on OP, and use of these soft tactics is expected to produce similar results in different organisational setups, and regardless of geographical boundaries.

However, one of the independent variables, the qLFRs is not a significant direct predictor of OP in the present model. One possible explanation could be that, if the qLFRs is treated as an independent antecedent to OP, the variable did not have sufficient predictive power, but rather significantly related to OP when applied as a mediator between soft influencing tactics and OP. Thus, this could point to the strength of the whole model in predicting OP, when compared with the effect of individual predictor variables.

#### ***7.3.4.2 Linking the variables in the complex relationship***

Theoretically, the model shows how TL is linked to soft proactive influencing tactics, and how soft influence tactics are linked to the qLFRs, with a final link to OP. Thus, besides the direct influence of TL on OP, it seems that the relationship is not always that simple. In the proposed theoretical model, the TL explained 47.4% variance in sPITS, and the path is extended from sPITS to qLFRs, reflecting an indirect path. Eventually, the indirect effect of TL through soft influencing tactics and qLFRs predicted a 47% variance in OP. The present results supported that TL predicted OP and the qLFRs through soft proactive influencing tactics.

##### *7.3.4.2.1 Linking transformational leadership to soft influencing tactics*

Inspirational appeals include leaders' requests based on follower values and ideals, and the requests ignite an emotional response from the followers and create follower enthusiasm to carry out tasks or requests (Lian & Tui, 2012; Yukl, 2002). As such, inspirational appeals can be linked to the transformational leader's inspirational motivation where the leader motivates and inspires followers towards a common vision and uses emotional persuasion to gain followers' acceptance and commitment to the organisational goals. The TL's inspirational motivation has similarities with inspirational appeals, and this could, therefore, explain how TL is positively related to soft influencing tactics.

TL's individual consideration and intellectual stimulation can also be linked to consultation, where consultation includes asking followers to present alternative

solutions to the problems and to participate in proposals and planning of tasks (Lian & Tui, 2012; Yukl, 2002). With individual consideration and intellectual stimulation, the transformational leader “communicates a vision, develops, provides support and empowers followers, is innovative, leads by example and is charismatic” (Carless et al., 2000, p.390). The leader also involves them in decision making. The transformational leader (individual consideration) also considers followers’ abilities and aspirations and listens to followers. The leader views each follower as unique, supports the followers in pursuit of their aspirations, attends to the follower one-on-one, recognises the follower’s achievements, coaches and mentors the follower (Charbonneau, 2004). In turn, followers feel valued and recognised, contribute to a prolonged committed relationship and may comply with the leader’s request, hence the positive correlation between TL and consultative influence tactic.

In addition, the transformational leader’s intellectual stimulation includes challenging followers to think of alternative solutions, to find creative and innovative solutions. In turn, followers become closer to the transformational leader, express ideas freely, and have mutual interests towards the organisational goals. As such, the consultation influence tactics that involve asking followers to present alternative solutions to the problems and to participate in proposals and planning of tasks (Lian & Tui, 2012; Yukl, 2002), resonates with TL’s intellectual stimulation, especially on seeking alternative innovative and creative solutions. This could also explain the positive relationship between TL and consultative tactics.

Charbonneau (2004) highlighted that the use of rational persuasion is expected to result in followers’ commitment to execute a request. With rational persuasion, the leader uses factual evidence, explanation and logical arguments to show that the request is possible to carry out successfully and that the request is in line with task objectives (Yukl, 2002; Yukl & Seifert, 2002), and this gains follower commitment. The rational persuasion is synonymous with TL’s intellectual stimulation where transformational leaders’ intellectual stimulation involves enabling followers to be innovative, creative, reasoning (rational), factual (Charbonneau, 2004) and expressing their ideas, questioning the status quo, and thinking of alternative ways to solve problems (Boyett, 2006). Thus, TL’s intellectual stimulation resembles rational persuasion tactics, hence the positive correlation between rational persuasion and TL.

It was also explained by Charbonneau (2004) that collaboration involves the leader's support including providing resources, providing assistance for the tasks and consequently, followers would have a positive attitude towards the leader (Yukl & Michel, 2006). Collaboration tactics therefore resonate with TL's consideration, where the transformational leader seeks to ensure that the followers' needs, aspirations and goals are supported, the leader listens to followers, recognises follower achievements, coaches and mentors the follower. This link between TL's consideration and collaboration tactics could explain the positive relationship between TL and collaboration.

Inspirational appeals can be linked to TL's inspirational motivation. The inspirational appeals encompass requests based on ideals, values and aspirations (Lian & Tui, 2012) and it stimulates the emotion of followers through appeals that are vividly imaginary, and symbols (Charbonneau, 2004). This soft influencing tactic also increases the followers' self-confidence (Lian & Tui, 2012). Through TL's inspirational motivation, the leader expresses an appealing vision using stories and symbols that invoke optimism and enthusiasm, thereby motivating followers to pursue the vision. Due to this, the transformational leader's use of inspirational appeals would be received positively by the followers and the followers would be enthusiastic and optimistic of tackling the request. As highlighted, the TL's inspirational motivation resembles inspirational appeals tactics, hence the positive correlation between TL and inspirational appeals.

TL's idealised influence is associated with rational persuasion tactics. Idealised influence involves the leader being a role model, respected, trusted, admired and determined (Charbonneau, 2004). A leader who exhibits idealised influence is also firm on beliefs and values the purpose of existence (Bass, 1997) as well as being transparent and consistent in providing reasons for decisions (Kelloway & Barling, 2000). Idealised influence is also associated with follower teamwork, a mutual relationship between the leader and follower, as well as loyalty from followers (Muterera et al., 2012). The consistency and transparency in providing reasons for decisions by the transformational leader are synonymous with rational persuasion tactics where the leader seeks to influence followers by providing a rationale or reason,

logic and evidence to execute a task (Yukl, 2002). This would contribute to the positive correlation between the TL's idealised influence and rational persuasion.

By being a role model, being firm on beliefs and values; the TL's idealised influence is in sync with inspirational appeals. With inspirational appeals, the leader uses values and beliefs (ideals) to trigger follower emotions and enthusiasm for tasks (Charbonneau, 2004; Yukl, 2002; Yukl & Seifert, 2002). This, therefore, explains the link between TL's idealised influence and inspirational appeals tactics, hence the positive correlation.

#### *7.3.4.2.2 Linking transformational leadership to quality of leader-follower relationships via soft influence tactics*

Having theoretically linked TL to soft influence tactics, here, the next thread linking soft influence tactics to the qLFRs is pursued. Basically, TL's inspirational motivation, individualised consideration, intellectual stimulation and idealised influence are linked to soft influence tactics of inspirational appeals, collaboration, consultation, and rational persuasion. For this thread of soft tactics and qLFRs, the link is being made between the inspirational appeals, collaboration, consultation, and rational persuasion to the qLFRs.

Consultation influence tactics is where followers participate in tasks and provide ideas. At the same time, the leader listens and gives an opportunity to followers to contribute to how the tasks can be carried out (Yukl & Michel, 2006). This tactic can help to build mutual trust between the transformational leader and follower, as well as improving effective communication. As a result, this develops a good quality relationship between the leader and followers, hence the predictive relationship between consultation and quality of a LFR. Thus, it could explain the predictive relationship between consultation and good quality LFRs. Therefore, with more use of consultation, the qLFRs are expected to improve.

Collaboration includes a leader's support in terms of providing adequate resources and helping the followers to execute a task. This increases the positive attitude of the followers towards the leader (Yukl & Michel, 2006). Consequently, it may lead to the followers liking the transformational leader, the followers reciprocating the supportive gesture, thereby cultivating a good relationship between the leader and followers. This could explain the predictive relationship between collaboration and good qLFRs. In

this regard, the more the transformational leader applies collaboration tactics to followers, this highly likely increases the chances of good quality LFRs.

Yukl and Michel (2006) described inspirational appeals as a request based on ideals and values that communicates a vision of a better future and a vision that invokes emotions in the followers. This tactic ignites enthusiasm in the followers, especially where the ideals and values being pursued are aligning with those of the follower. As such, this results in both the transformational leader and follower having a common vision, thus helping to build high-quality LFRs. This could explain the predictive relationship between inspirational appeals to a good qLFRs. Thus, the more the transformational leader applies inspirational appeals; the more likely good relationships can be developed between the leader and follower.

Rational persuasion tactics use reason, logic and explanation on how the task can be achieved and why the task is important, and it is likely to be effective where followers trust the leader (Yukl & Michel, 2006). Due to the use of reason in influencing a follower to carry out a task, such influence tactics may not face resistance but instead help to build a good relationship since the leader is believed to make informed decisions based on reason and not speculation and hearsay. In addition, followers may trust a leader where specific prior tasks could have been accomplished using similar rational thinking, as the leader is viewed as reliable and trustworthy. Consequently, this assists in building a good relationship between the transformational leader and followers; hence the rational persuasion can predict a good qLFRs. Therefore, the more the transformational leader uses rational persuasion on followers, the higher the chances of building good LFRs are.

#### *7.3.4.2.3 Linking transformational leadership to organisational performance via soft influence tactics and quality of leader-follower relationships*

The relationships above have demonstrated that TL is theoretically linked to the soft influence tactics, and these soft influence tactics in the form of consultation, collaboration, inspirational appeals and rational persuasion are instrumental in predicting good relationships between the transformational leader and followers. With good quality relationships between the TL and followers, the OP can be improved. This link is explained in this section.

As highlighted by Mayfield and Mayfield (2009), once good quality LFRs are developed, these good relationships positively and significantly influence employee performance, hence OP. These relationships could be explained in that, as the relationship improves, the followers reciprocate by improving OP. In addition, good relationships between leader and followers nurture job satisfaction among followers (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2009), which is valuable to followers wanting and striving to achieve set goals, hence improved OP. In supporting the positive relationship between the qLFRs and OP, Tariq et al. (2014) explained that leaders provide support to followers, as well as enhancing follower job satisfaction, and thus contributes to followers improving OP. In addition, the leader's good communication with followers, empowerment of followers and delegation of tasks also helps in improving OP, thus good quality LFRs positively predict OP.

Chaurasia and Shukla (2013) also supported the positive relationship by indicating that good quality LFRs help in improving performance as individuals, as team members, and as organisation members. This is due to leaders and followers developing trust and sharing information, with the leader providing resources and emotional support to followers in high-quality LFRs (Chaurasia & Shukla, 2013). Therefore, this encourages followers to reciprocate the kind gesture from the leader by working hard to achieve results, thereby improving OP. May-Chiun et al. (2015) also added that with good quality LFRs, the leader encourages followers to take more responsibilities, to be proactive and being committed to work, and this eventually improves OP (Tariq et al., 2014). The above explains the positive relationship between good quality LFRs and OP. Thus, the better the transformational leader's relationships with followers, the more likely OP would be improved.

Overall, the predictive validity of the proposed model is demonstrated by;

- I. All the measures used in the study, as these met the quality criteria in terms of reliability and validity.
- II. The predictive ability demonstrated using an R squared value of 47%, which is interpreted as a moderate effect on OP (using the interpretation of Chi, 1998).
- III. The theoretical explanation where TL and sPITS are direct predictors of OP.
- IV. The theoretical explanation where TL influenced OP through sPITS and the qLFRs.

As an example, a transformational leader's dimensions of inspirational appeals, individual consideration, intellectual stimulation and idealised influence help the leader to apply soft influence tactics in the form of inspirational appeals, collaboration, consultation and rational persuasion. By their nature, as highlighted above, the soft influence tactics help in building good LFRs, and because of the developed good LFRs, this positively influences OP in the state-owned enterprises in Zimbabwe.

In view of calls from various researchers to integrate TL theory and influence tactics theory; and to combine influence tactics theory and leader-member-exchange theory to explain the effects of these on OP, it is reasonable to suggest that the integrated theoretical model in the present study has provided empirical evidence and theoretical explanations for the integration. In fact, this comprehensive model overall explained a 47% variance in the OP in SOEs in Zimbabwe.

#### **7.4 CONTRIBUTIONS MADE BY THE PRESENT STUDY**

Following the aim of this study and subsequent findings, this section provides general conclusions, the limitations of the study, theoretical implications and recommendations for future research, practical implications and recommendations for state-owned enterprises.

##### **7.4.1 General conclusions**

Regarding general conclusions, these are provided based on each of the three research objectives. The **first objective** is to develop a conceptual transformational leadership and organisational performance model in state-owned enterprises in Zimbabwe. Indeed, a theoretical model was developed, using previous knowledge and integrating the TL theory, proactive influence tactics theory, leader-member-exchange theory, and CVF for OP. The results of the study, together with previous studies, supported this objective in that the combined theories provided a conceptual model, which is tested for statistical significance and predictive validity in state-owned enterprises in Zimbabwe. It is concluded, therefore, that a predictive transformational leadership and organisational performance model is developed for state-owned enterprises in Zimbabwe.

From the present study, the **second objective** is to theoretically explain the relationships between variables in the proposed transformational leadership and

organisational performance model, using existing literature. In pursuing this objective, the literature is examined, with explanations provided for direct relationships and indirect relationships between variables in the theoretical model. TL could positively influence OP due to the transformational leader's encouragement to followers so that they achieve set goals (Wahab et al., 2016), motivation and inspiration for followers such that the followers pursue a higher cause than self-interest (Avolio, 2007; Obiwuru et al., 2011), empowerment of followers (Dhanphat et al., 2015), leader's inspiration for creativity in followers (Íscan et al., 2014), and encouragement to followers to take risks in uncertain environments, which all helps in improving OP (Waldman et al., 2001).

SPITS also directly predicted OP. Lee et al. (2017) explained that soft tactics in the form of "rational persuasion, inspirational appeal, collaboration, consultation, and personal appeals" (Yukl et al., 2008, p.614). had a positive effect on task outcomes, including OP, therefore the more frequent the application of these soft tactics, the more the OP outcome would improve. In addition, Lee et al. (2017) highlighted that rational persuasion could persuade followers, through reason to carry out tasks, and also encourage follower commitment which consequently improves their performance. With regard to inspirational appeals, Lee et al. (2017) noted that the tactic ignites the enthusiasm of followers by appealing to values and ideals that increases follower confidence in carrying out a task. Where both the leader and followers share similar goals and values, there is likely to be more commitment and eventually, the followers put more effort to get the tasks done, thereby enhancing OP.

The literature also provided a basis for the integration of theories in the model, which integration included linking all the variables from TL, to soft influence tactics, to qLFRs and OP as detailed in previous sections. For instance, soft tactics of inspirational appeals include the leader's requests based on follower values and ideals, and the requests ignite an emotional response from the followers and create follower enthusiasm to carry out tasks or requests (Lian & Tui, 2012; Yukl, 2002). As such, inspirational appeals can be linked to the transformational leader's inspirational motivation where the leader motivates and inspires followers towards a common vision and uses emotional persuasion to gain followers' acceptance and commitment to the organisational goals. The TL's inspirational motivation, therefore, resonate with

inspirational appeals and this assists in explaining how the TL is positively related to soft influence tactics.

In addition, the TL's consideration and intellectual stimulation can also be linked to consultation, where consultation includes asking followers to present alternative solutions to the problems, to participate in proposals and planning of tasks (Yukl, 2002; Lian & Tui, 2012). With individual consideration and intellectual stimulation, the transformational leader "communicates a vision, develops, provides support and empowers followers, is innovative, leads by example and is charismatic" (Carless et al., 2000, p.390). The leader also involves them in decision making.

The transformational leader (individual consideration) also consider followers' abilities and aspirations, listens to followers, the leader views each follower as unique, supports the followers to pursue their aspirations, attend to the follower one-on-one, recognises follower achievements, coaches and mentors the follower (Charbonneau, 2004). As a result, followers feel valued and recognised, contribute to a prolonged relationship of commitment and may comply with the leader's request, hence the positive correlation between TL and consultation influence tactics.

From the link of TL to soft influence tactics, theoretical explanations are provided on soft influence tactics relationship to the qLFRs, as detailed in previous sections. For example, consultation influence tactics is where followers participate in tasks and provide ideas, while the leader listens and gives an opportunity to followers to contribute on how the tasks can be carried out (Yukl & Michel, 2006). This tactic assists to build mutual trust between the transformational leader and followers, as well as improving effective communication. Consequently, this develops a good quality relationship between the leader and followers, hence the predictive relationship between consultation and the qLFRs. Thus, it could explain the predictive relationship between consultation and good quality LFRs. Therefore, with more use of consultation, the qLFRs are expected to improve.

Furthermore, collaboration includes a leader's support in terms of providing adequate resources, helping the followers to execute a task and this increases the positive attitude of the followers towards the leader (Yukl & Michel, 2006). Consequently, it may lead to the followers liking the transformational leader, reciprocating the supportive gesture, thereby cultivating a good relationship between the leader and

followers. This could explain the predictive relationship between collaboration and the good qLFRs. In this regard, the more the transformational leader applies collaboration tactics on followers, the more likely the chances of good quality LFRs realising.

Following the theoretical explanations linking soft influence tactics to the qLFRs, the link between the qLFRs and OP is also theoretically explained. Mayfield and Mayfield (2009) explained that where good quality LFRs are developed, these good relationships positively and significantly influenced employee performance, hence also the OP. As the relationship between the leader and followers improves, the followers reciprocate by improving OP. In addition, good relationships between the leader and followers nurture job satisfaction among followers (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2009), which is valuable to followers wanting and striving to achieve set goals, hence improved OP results. Tariq et al. (2014) also explained that leaders provide support to followers, as well as enhancing follower job satisfaction, and thus contributes to followers improving OP. In addition, the leader's good communication with followers, the empowerment of followers and delegation of tasks also helps in improving OP (Tariq et al., 2014). Thus, good quality LFRs positively predict OP.

In summary, based on the theoretical explanations for both the direct relationships between variables and indirect relationships linking the variables towards an integrated model, it is concluded that the literature provided a theoretical basis in explaining the relationships between variables in the proposed model. As such, the explanations provided aided in fulfilling the second objective.

The **third objective** is to determine the predictive validity of the proposed transformational leadership and organisational performance model in state-owned enterprises in Zimbabwe. As alluded to in previous sections in detail, all measures (MLQ-5X, IBQ-G, LMX-7 and CVQ) used in evaluating the theoretical model, met the quality criteria in terms of reliability and validity. In addition, TL directly contributed an average variance of 40% to all OP. Also, on average, the sPITS explained a 3.53% variance in OP.

Furthermore, all the proposed paths in the model are statistically significant, except for the path TL → quality of the LFR. One possible reason for the statistically non-significant path is that sPITS possibly mediate the relationship between TL and the qLFRs, as explained in previous sections. In this regard, this could point to the more

complex relationship among variables that contributed to the prediction of OP. Overall, the model predicted a 47% variance in OP, which could be indicative of the predictive ability of the model. It can thus be concluded that the TL-OP model demonstrated predictive validity.

#### **7.4.2 Limitations of the present study**

The present study is a cross-sectional one, that looked at a particular point in time. The cross-sectional method may not be able to assess changes over time in variables such as the relationship of leader and follower over time, and the consistency in such relationships. As highlighted by Camarero, Garrido and San José (2015), longitudinal studies can be helpful in assessing the evolution of variables under study. Thus it is suggested that the longitudinal approach may be adopted in future research to assess, for instance, changes in the qLFRs over time for the same group of followers and their leader. The longitudinal study would also help to assess if the transformational leaders consistently apply sPITS on followers in high-quality relationships over time.

In the present study, a quantitative approach is adopted. However, with a quantitative study only, this may not provide a complete understanding of leadership behaviours (Mbithi, 2014), as well as follower behaviours. In this regard, Mbithi (2014) suggested that to complement quantitative studies; qualitative studies can be carried out, for instance, in-depth face to face interviews with both leaders and followers. This would help in understanding the leader and follower behaviours in more depth.

A survey is used as the design in the public sector, and while these present results are not expected to differ from other organisational settings, for example, the private sector, in the future, it is encouraged to have surveys in other sectors as it provides more insight across a broad spectrum of industries or sectors. As suggested by Camarero et al. (2015), it may be interesting to examine other sectors whose characteristics are different, and this can also assist in having a wider sample. It is also suggested to have comparative studies between varied sectors such as between the public sector and private sector to juxtapose the findings from the two sides and therefore widen the empiricism.

The present study measured variables based on followers' perspective and those views from line ministries staff members. As highlighted by Mbithi (2014), it may be

important to have the perspective from both the leaders and followers, to have a more comprehensive view on the variables under study, than only having a perspective of either leaders or followers. Inclusion of other stakeholders when measuring OP using CVF can also provide more insights when compared to the perspective of employees only. Such inclusion can assist with triangulation of data.

#### **7.4.3 Theoretical implications and recommendations for future research**

The results of the present study add to the body of knowledge on the complex relationship between TL and OP, through other variables such as qLFRs and sPITS. This follows various calls to integrate TL and qLFRs (Burch & Guarana, 2014; Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999); and to integrate TL, qLFRs and organisational leadership with other important variables (Fok-Yew, 2015) such as proactive influence tactics. In the present research, integrating proactive influence tactics and the qLFR as predictor variables to OP in one study is valuable in understanding how these variables can simultaneously contribute to overall OP. The present study, therefore, demonstrated how important it is to integrate the various leadership and management theories, as this is likely to positively influence OP in state-owned enterprises in Zimbabwe.

The present empirical model has shown that when integrated with the qLFRs and sPITS, TL contributed more to OP (47% variance) than compared to TL's direct effect on OP (40% variance); thus the integrated model plays an important role in understanding and improving OP. It is therefore recommended to further expand the present theoretical model, together with other key theories such as innovation, in understanding the contribution to OP.

Previous researchers (Martin, Epitropaki, Thomas, & Topakas, 2010) highlighted that some studies used a single measure for OP, instead of a multi-dimensional measure, which addresses varied stakeholder interest. The present study puts to rest that concern by applying a multidimensional measure of the CVF in the state-owned enterprises in Zimbabwe to assess OP. The CVF has four models or criteria; being the RGM, HRM, OSM and IPM. Ignoring any one of the four models would mean an inadequate, partial, and incomplete view on performance of the SOEs, thus the importance of the fullness of the CVF as a performance measurement tool in SOEs.

The four outcomes of the CVF had the same predictors, being TL and soft influence tactics. Of interest is that on these competing values, there are no major differences in terms of their importance claimed by the respondents, where the predictors explained 48.3% variance in the IPM, 46.3% variance in the HRM, 44.5% variance in the RGM, and a 37.6% variance in the OSM. In this regard, the recommendation is to conduct further studies in other organisational settings and other countries to improve the generalisability of the CVF and its promotion as a good performance measurement tool in environments where there are different values from varied stakeholders.

Some studies, mostly those on the relationship between sPITS and qLFRs, were based on leadership in general (Lee et al., 2017; Sparrowe et al., 2006; Yukl & Michel, 2006), and not TL, while the present study provided a grounding specifically on TL. This is critical in widening the knowledge on how soft influence tactics are applied by leadership style in influencing the relationship between leaders and followers. A recommendation is therefore made to assess further the relationship between sPITS and the qLFRs under TL, as it provides a more focused assessment when compared to leadership in general since the behaviours of each leadership type differ. Future studies can also assist in distinguishing a leader's use of sPITS on a comparative basis with demographics, such as the followers' gender, the social status of followers, and roles in an organisation, for example to assess if the transformational leader uses a similar influence tactic on both genders.

In some previous studies, the data was collected through experimental manipulation, where for instance, students with a Master's of Business Administration could be asked to form groups that simulate real work situations (Mehta & Krishnan, 2004) and not real day to day work are set up. In the simulated groups, some students would play the role of followers, while others would play the role of leaders. However, the present study tried to address that by providing evidence from a real work situation, from SOEs in Zimbabwe. This widens the knowledge in terms of empiricism, as well as the diverse application of different methodologies in research. It is recommended that more studies should be carried out in real work set-ups, to have a better understanding of these relationships in a real work situation.

The present study is able to provide evidence from various organisational settings, representing different industries such as power, health, finance, transport and

telecoms. This addressed the deficiency in some methods such as case studies (e.g. Clarke & Ward, 2006) where the generalisability of results are affected due to single case study results. In addition, most studies on some of the dual relationships included in the present model are from developed countries and mainly the private sector, thus the present study bridged the gap by providing empirical evidence from the less researched public sector, specifically state-owned enterprises in Sub-Saharan Africa. More studies are thus recommended in the public sector of developing countries in Africa to widen the knowledge base.

Contrary to some theoretical understanding where generally TL influenced the qLFRs (Zacher et al., 2013), there is only a positive correlation in the present study. However, TL could not predict a good quality relationship between leaders and followers. One possible explanation could be that TL and the qLFRs are mediated by soft influence tactics, as highlighted in the previous sections. Furthermore, some studies such as Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) intimated that leadership is dependent on followers' willingness to surrender power partially through inclination or pressure; thus, some followers may resist transformational behaviours, yet others may accept the transformational behaviours directed to them. A recommendation is being made for further examination of the relationship between TL and qLFRs to understand which follower behaviours would result in low quality LFRs, and those that would result in high quality LFRs, when under TL.

#### **7.4.4 Practical implications and recommendations for SOEs**

One of the questions that arise in poorly performing state enterprises is the type of leadership driving these organisations; and, if at all, the leadership types exhibited are capable of improving OP. With the present study, it has been demonstrated that TL is very influential in enhancing OP. It is therefore recommended that deliberate steps should be undertaken by the SOEs to train the management and the other staff members to attain TL attributes. Training programmes can be embedded in organisations' strategic plans, staff performance appraisal systems, as well as employee development plans. Monitoring and evaluation systems can then buttress the training programmes to assess continually the level acquisition of the transformational behaviours and how such behaviours are contributing to the performance.

From this study, it has been demonstrated that sPITS directly influence OP, as well as contributing to performance as part of the present model. It is therefore recommended that leaders should be encouraged to apply soft influence tactics on their followers to contribute positively to enhanced OP. In addition, based on the indications that training staff members on these influence tactics can help, it is recommended that deliberate training programmes should be undertaken for both management and other staff members so that they understand how to apply these sPITS, in pursuit of improved OP.

In the SOEs, like many other organisations, performance plays a key role in transforming the fortunes of the organisation. The present model demonstrated that TL, combined with proactive influence tactics and the good qLFRs, is likely to contribute 47% variance in OP. It is recommended that leadership in the SOEs and the government adopt the empirically tested TL OP model, as this may positively influence OP in SOEs. Besides SOEs, other organisation, even in the private sector, are also advised to utilise the present TL-OP model due to its likelihood of positively influencing OP.

With regards to the relationship between leaders and followers, good relationships are shown to be critical as part of the model that can influence OP. The study demonstrated the importance of developing good LFRs; thus rather than only focusing on management, organisations pay attention to followers as they are an integral part of the organisation. As such, recommendations are made for leaders and followers to strive to develop good quality relationships. The reciprocity in the good quality relationship can then enable, among others, the provision of resources and support from the leader, and extra effort from the followers, which is important in positively influencing OP.

Furthermore, the model in the present study has the potential to assist leaders in their understanding of how to manage followers as individuals and not only as homogeneous resources, and this improves the quality of their relationship with the followers and is likely to influence OP positively. As with TL behaviours and soft influence tactics, training on how to develop good LFRs can also be done by organisations. Such training programmes are therefore recommended in SOEs, and

other organisations, with a view to ensure that high quality relationships are fostered between leaders and followers.

With varied methods of measuring performance being applied in Zimbabwe's SOEs, the present study recommends the use of the CVF to take into account various competing values from the different stakeholders of these SOEs. The SOEs serve multiple stakeholders, among them citizens, political leaders, appointed officials, interest groups, employees, customers, lenders and suppliers. All these stakeholders have competing interests that need to be satisfied, and this raises the question of whose preference should be satisfied with these diverse stakeholder interests. As demonstrated in the present study, use of the CVF, which takes into account simultaneous demands on organisational goals from different directions to meet different stakeholder interests, provides answers to the thorny question of whose preferences are to be fulfilled by the SOEs.

With the CVF, all the competing stakeholders are catered for; hence a recommendation for adoption of the CVF for OP management in SOEs. In addition, it is being recommended that the CVF should be applied uniformly across all the state enterprises to easily compare the performance of these state enterprises, as opposed to a situation where an individual entity applies its own performance management model, which makes it difficult for government to assess different SOEs. Since the present study used data from employees of the SOEs, it may be important also to get the views of the other stakeholders, hence a recommendation for further studies that take account of the other stakeholders' views on OP in SOEs.

Also, the CVF does not only measure the *ends* or outputs of SOEs such as profitability, but also measures the *means* (for example, planning, goal setting and resourcing) which are critical processes for achieving the *ends*, and this shows how comprehensive the tool is in assessing OP. It also goes without saying, that a recommendation for training and awareness on this performance tool is very important among most of the stakeholders, especially the employees, management, government and interest groups, among others. The training and awareness are important in clarifying any grey area, in equipping the employees, the leaders and government so that they all understand what needs to be measured, and how it can be measured. This reduces expectation gaps within the public sector and provides a solid base for

effective and comprehensive monitoring and evaluation of SOEs, with the expectation that this will contribute to the development of the country.

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# APPENDICES

## 9.1 APPENDIX 1: MLQ-5X QUESTIONNAIRE

MIND GARDERN

MLQ Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Leader Form (5X-Short)

This questionnaire is to describe your supervisor's leadership style as you perceive it. Please answer all items on this answer sheet.

If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.

Forty-five (45) descriptive statements are listed on the pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits your supervisor.

The word "other" may mean your peers, you, clients, direct reports, supervisors, and/ or all of these individuals.

Use the following rating scale and Insert X for your selection:

	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
	0	1	2	3	4
1. S/he provides others with assistance in exchange for their efforts					
2. S/he re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate					
3. S/he fails to interfere until problems become serious					

4. S/he focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards					
5. S/he avoids getting involved when important issues arise					
6. S/he talks about my important values and beliefs					
7. S/he is absent when needed					
8. S/he seeks differing perspectives when solving problems					
9. S/he talks optimistically about the future					
10. S/he instills pride in others for being associated with her/ him					
11. S/he discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets					
12. S/he waits for things to go wrong before taking action					
13. S/he talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished					
14. S/he specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose					
15. S/he spends time teaching and coaching					
16. S/he makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved					
17. S/he shows that s/he is a firm believer in "If it isn't broke, don't fix it"					
18. S/he goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group					

19. S/he treats others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group					
20. S/he demonstrate that problems must become chronic before s/he takes action					
21. S/he acts in ways that build others' respect for her/ him					
22. S/he concentrates her/ his full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures					
23. S/he considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions					
24. S/he keeps track of all mistakes					
25. S/he displays a sense of power and confidence					
26. S/he articulates a compelling vision of the future					
27. S/he directs his attention towards failures to meet standards					
28. S/he avoids making decisions					
29. S/he considers an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others					
30. S/he gets others to look at problems from many different angles					
31. S/he helps others to develop their strengths					
32. S/he suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments					
33. S/he delays responding to urgent questions					
34. S/he emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission					

35. S/he expresses satisfaction when others meet expectations					
36. S/he expresses confidence that goals will be achieved					
37. S/he is effective in meeting others' job –related needs					
38. S/he uses methods of leadership that are satisfying					
39. S/he gets others to do more than they expected to do					
40. S/he is effective in representing others to higher authority					
41. S/he works with others in a satisfactory way					
42. S/he heightens others' desire to succeed					
43. S/he is effective in meeting organisational requirements					
44. She increases others willingness to try harder					
45. S/he leads a group that is effective					

## 9.2 APPENDIX 2: INFLUENCE BEHAVIOUR QUESTIONNAIRE (TARGET IBQ-G)

### Influence Behaviour Questionnaire (Target IBQ-G)

**Instructions:** The purpose of this questionnaire is to learn more about the different ways people try to influence each other in work organisations. Please describe how much the person indicated above uses each type of behaviour in an effort to influence you. For each type of behaviour item, select one of the following response choices, and write the number for your choice on the line provided.

- 1 I can't remember him/her ever using this tactic with me.
- 2 He/she very seldom uses this tactic with me
- 3 He/she occasionally uses this tactic with me
- 4 He/she uses this tactic moderately often with me
- 5 He/she uses this tactic very often with me

If an item does not apply to your situation, then use the #1 response. Please try to avoid letting general impressions of the person bias your answers. Before you begin it is helpful to look over the 11 different types of influence behaviours so that you do not get them confused with each other.

#### Rational persuasion

- \_\_\_ 1. Uses facts and logic to make a persuasive case for a request or proposal.
- \_\_\_ 2. Explains clearly why a request or proposed change is necessary to attain a task objective.
- \_\_\_ 3. Explains why a proposed project or change would be practical and cost effective.

\_\_\_4. Provides information or evidence to show that a proposed activity or change is likely to be successful.

#### Exchange

\_\_\_5. Offers something you want in return for your help on a task or project.

\_\_\_6. Offers to do something for you in exchange for carrying out a request.

\_\_\_7. Offers to do a specific task or favour for you in return for your help and support.

\_\_\_8. Offers to do something for you in the future in return for your help now.

#### Inspirational appeal

\_\_\_9. Says a proposed activity or change is an opportunity to do something really exciting and worthwhile.

\_\_\_10. Describes a clear, inspiring vision of what a proposed project or change can accomplish.

\_\_\_11. Talks about ideals and values when proposing a new activity or change.

\_\_\_12. Makes an inspiring speech or presentation to arouse enthusiasm for a proposed activity or change.

#### Legitimizing

\_\_\_13. Says that his/her request or proposal is consistent with official rules and policies.

\_\_\_14. Says that a request or proposal is consistent with a prior agreement or contract.

\_\_\_15. Verifies that a request is legitimate by referring to a document such as a work order, policy manual, charter, bylaws, or formal contract.

\_\_\_16. Says that a request or proposal is consistent with prior precedent and established practice.

#### Apprising

- \_\_\_17. Explains how the task he/she wants you to do could help your career.
- \_\_\_18. Describes benefits you could gain from doing a task or activity (e.g., learn new skills, meet important people, enhance your reputation).
- \_\_\_19. Explains how a proposed activity or change could help you attain a personal objective.
- \_\_\_20. Explains why a proposed activity or change would be good for you

#### Pressure

- \_\_\_21. Demands that you carry out a request.
- \_\_\_22. Uses threats or warnings when trying get you to do something.
- \_\_\_23. Repeatedly checks to see if you have carried out a request.
- \_\_\_24. Tries to pressure you to carry out a request.

#### Collaboration

- \_\_\_25. Offers to help with a task that he/ she wants you carry out.
- \_\_\_26. Offers to provide resources you would need to do a task for him/ her.
- \_\_\_27. Offers to show you how to do a task that he/ she wants you carry out.
- \_\_\_28. Offers to provide any assistance you would need to carry out a request.

#### Ingratiation

- \_\_\_29. Says you have the special skills or knowledge needed to carry out a request.
- \_\_\_30. Praises your past performance or achievements when asking you to do a task for him/her.
- \_\_\_31. Praises your skill or knowledge when asking you to do something.
- \_\_\_32. Says you are the most qualified person for a task that he/ she wants you to do.

## Consultation

- \_\_\_ 33. Asks you to suggest things you could do to help him/ her achieve a task objective or resolve a problem.
- \_\_\_ 34. Consults with you to get your ideas about a proposed activity or change that he/ she wants you to support or implement
- \_\_\_ 35. Encourages you to express any concerns you may have about a proposed activity or change that he/ she wants you to support or implement.
- \_\_\_ 36. Invites you to suggest ways to improve a preliminary plan or proposal that he / she want you to support or help implement.

## Personal appeals

- \_\_\_ 37. Appeals to your friendship when asking you to do something.
- \_\_\_ 38. Says he/ she needs to ask for a favour before telling you what it is.
- \_\_\_ 39. Asks you as a friend to do a favour for him/ her.
- \_\_\_ 40. Asks for help as a personal favour.

## Coalition

- \_\_\_ 41. Mentions the names of other people who endorse a proposal when asking you to support it.
- \_\_\_ 42. Gets others to explain to you why they support a proposed activity or change that he/she wants you to support or help implement.
- \_\_\_ 43. Brings someone along for support when meeting with you to make a request or proposal.
- \_\_\_ 44. Asks someone you respect to help influence you to carry out a request or support a proposal.

## 9.3 APPENDIX 3: LMX 7 QUESTIONNAIRE

### LMX 7 QUESTIONNAIRE\*

*Instructions:* This questionnaire contains items that ask you to describe your relationship with either your leader or one of your subordinates. For each of the items, indicate the degree to which you think the item is true for you by circling one of the responses that appear below the item.

1. Do you know where you stand with your leader (follower) ... [and] do you usually know how satisfied your leader (follower) is with what you do?
 

Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Fairly often	Very often
1	2	3	4	5
2. How well does your leader (follower) understand your job problems and needs?
 

Not a bit	A little	A fair amount	Quite a bit	A great deal
1	2	3	4	5
3. How well does your leader (follower) recognize your potential?
 

Not at all	A little	Moderately	Mostly	Fully
1	2	3	4	5
4. Regardless of how much formal authority your leader (follower) has built into his or her position, what are the chances that your leader (follower) would use his or her power to help you solve problems in your work?
 

None	Small	Moderate	High	Very high
1	2	3	4	5
5. Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your leader (follower) has, what are the chances that he or she would "bail you out" at his or her expense?
 

None	Small	Moderate	High	Very high
1	2	3	4	5
6. I have enough confidence in my leader (follower) that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so.
 

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5
7. How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader (follower)?
 

Extremely ineffective	Worse than average	Average	Better than average	Extremely effective
1	2	3	4	5

By completing the LMX 7, you can gain a fuller understanding of how LMX theory works. The score you obtain on the questionnaire reflects the quality of your leader-member relationships, and indicates the degree to which your relationships are characteristic of partnerships, as described in the LMX model.

You can complete the questionnaire both as a leader and as a subordinate. In the leader role, you would complete the questionnaire multiple times, assessing the quality of the relationships you have with each of your subordinates. In the subordinate role, you would complete the questionnaire based on the leaders to whom you report.

#### Scoring Interpretation

Although the LMX 7 is most commonly used by researchers to explore theoretical questions, you can also use it to analyze your own leadership style. You can interpret your LMX 7 scores using the following guidelines: very high = 30–35, high = 25–29, moderate = 20–24, low = 15–19, and very low = 7–14. Scores in the upper ranges indicate stronger, higher-quality leader-member exchanges (e.g., in-group members), whereas scores in the lower ranges indicate exchanges of lesser quality (e.g., out-group members).

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SOURCE: "Reprinted from "Relationship-Based Approach to Leadership: Development of Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory of Leadership Over 25 Years: Applying a Multi-Level, Multi-Domain Perspective," by G. B. Graen and M. Uhl-Bien, 1995, *Leadership Quarterly*, 6(2), 219–247. Copyright © 1995. Reprinted with permission from Elsevier Science.

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## 9.4 APPENDIX 4: COMPETING VALUES QUESTIONNAIRE

### COMPETING VALUES QUESTIONNAIRE (CVQ) FOR ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE

This questionnaire of 85 questions assesses your organisational performance based on Competing Values Criteria of;

Rational goal model, Open Systems model, Human relations model and Internal processes model.

Using a scale of 1 to 7, select how often your organisation has successfully engaged in the activity.

Each of the four criteria models has questions for both the means and ends.

Scales are as follows and Insert X for your selection.

1= Never, 2= Very seldom, 3= Seldom, 4= Occasionally, 5= Frequently, 6= Very frequently, 7= Almost always

Criteria	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Rational goal model							
Means: Planning (objectives)							
1. Our goals are clear and well understood.							
2. The organisation's strategic plan has a compelling and clear vision for the future.							
3. The strategic plan has comprehensive input from all departments and key stakeholders.							

4. In the strategic plan are clear actions for attaining the goals.							
5. The outputs, outcomes and impacts are clearly spelt out in the strategic plan.							
6. The objectives in the plan are Specific, Measurable, Attainable, Realistic and Time bound (SMART).							
7. In the plan is a clear resourcing plan.							
8. The organisation excels in getting financial resources.							
9. We review the strategic plan at least once per quarter.							
10. The organisation's performance is reviewed against the strategic plan.							
11. Our organisation engages in long-term plan for at least 4 years.							
Ends: Productivity and efficiency							
12. The organisation achieves set goals in the strategic plan.							
13. The organisation is successful in satisfying its clients.							
14. Customer complaints are promptly attended to and resolved accordingly.							
15. The organisation ensures that the clients are kept informed of the organisation changes that affect them.							
16. The organisation's service or outputs always exceed customer expectations.							
17. Our management always focus on key strategic decisions.							
18. Our organisation maximises financial resources utilisations all the time.							
19. Our management always make informed and rational decisions in order to achieve goals.							
20. Our organisation has strong cash flow stability (cash on hand).							
21. The organisation excels in profitability (Return On Assets-ROA)/ Surplus over expenditure							

22. Our organisation always equates or exceeds prior year profitability (ROA)/ Surplus over expenditure in progression.							
Open system (Relations with environment)							
Means: flexibility and readiness							
23. The organisation accepts public criticism.							
24. The organisation is transparent in its operations to the external stakeholders.							
25. Our organisation always informs the public of its operations and activities.							
26. The organisation creates networks with various stakeholders to improve quality of product or service.							
27. The organisation is always ready to change to the needs and requirements of prevailing external and internal environment.							
28. The organisation is open to new ideas for change and innovation.							
29. The organisation has a conducive environment for new product or service development.							
30. Our organisation engages in various researches for product/service development.							
31. Our organisation excels in good public relations.							
32. The organisation is always tracking changes in Government policy or direction which can affect its operations.							
33. The organisation successfully recruits staff with the right talent at all levels of organisational structure.							
34. The organisation successfully attracts clients as the best choice in the industry.							
Ends: Growth and resource acquisition external support							
35. Our organisation accesses enough Government funding.							

36. The organisation has capacity to acquire funds from various sources.							
37. The organisation excels in new revenue sources.							
38. The organisation achieves high revenue from new innovations.							
39. Our brand is rated by stakeholders.							
40. The organisation excels in revenue/ income growth progressively.							
41. Clients and other stakeholders support our organisation due to the strong ties with them.							
42. The organisation always strives to increase its market/ clients.							
43. Our organisation strives for improved capital investment (capital base).							
44. The organisation excels in competitiveness in the sector.							
Human relations							
Means: maintaining cohesion and morale							
45. Our organisation uses an effective staff performance system.							
46. Our staff members work in teams with strong cohesion and solidarity.							
47. Our staff members prioritize teamwork over personal interest.							
48. Staff members are appointed on the basis of skills and experience.							
49. The organisation continuously identifies skills gaps requiring staff training and development.							
50. Our organisation appoints board members based on skills and experience.							
51. The organisation has a good reward and recognition system for all members.							

52. The organisation has a good and comprehensive grievance procedure in place.							
53. The organisation excels in staff morale.							
54. The organisation considers employee stress levels and exhaustion.							
55. Staff health and wellness is a priority for the organisation.							
Ends: value, development of human resources and skilled workforce.							
56. There is a good balance between work life and social life for our staff members.							
57. The organisation has members with relevant expertise and experience that ensure quality product/service.							
58. Staff members are recognised for their achievement and competence.							
59. Our staff members are committed.							
60. Our members are always ready to assist clients.							
61. Our staff members always abide by the organisation's values.							
62. Staff members perform their duties in a professional and ethical manner.							
63. Staff members are always working to achieve common goals.							
64. The organisation has very low staff turnover.							
65. Absenteeism of staff is low in the organisation.							
66. The organisation retains our best staff members.							
67. The organisation excels in hiring top skilled employees.							

Internal processes.							
Means: information management and coordination.							
68. Our organisation communicates well with parent Ministry and other Government agencies.							
69. The organisation successfully receives feedback from stakeholders.							
70. The organisation has a clear information flow and dissemination system within the organisation.							
71. All relevant information is readily available for all stakeholders.							
72. The organisation makes use of Information technology for wide information dissemination.							
73. There is excellent coordination between departments in order to deliver quality product or service.							
74. Our organisation has a call centre that operates 24 hours, 7 days a week for clients' solutions.							
75. The organisation has a short turnaround time for solving client's problems.							
76. The organisation excels in ease of doing business.							
77. Our organisation excels in providing the best interactive website platform.							
Means: Stability/equilibrium.							
78. The organisation's efficiency is rated high.							
79. The organisation has a good retention levels for staff.							
80. The organisation maintains a good brand positioning/standing.							
81. The management is consistent in strategic direction and decisions.							
82. The organisation provides the best quality service or product.							
83. Our organisation continuously excels in process improvement.							

84. The organisation is credited for percentage on-time service delivery.

85. Our organisation excels in internal cost saving.
