

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE PRACTICE OF TRANSFORMATIONAL
LEADERSHIP AND A HIGH-PERFORMANCE CULTURE**

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**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE PRACTICE OF TRANSFORMATIONAL
LEADERSHIP AND A HIGH-PERFORMANCE CULTURE**

by

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DECLARATION

I, Harriet Tshamani Mathebula, declare that The Relationship between the Practice of Transformational Leadership and a High-Performance Culture is my own unaided work both in content and execution. All the resources I used in this study are cited and referred to in the reference list by means of a comprehensive referencing system. Apart from the normal guidance from my study leaders, I have received no assistance, except as stated in the acknowledgements.

I declare that the content of this dissertation has never been used before for any qualification at any tertiary institution.

I, Harriet Tshamani Mathebula, declare that the language in this thesis was edited by Professor Cecil Bodibe and M. Rika Weiss.

Date: 30May 2016

Signature

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE PRACTICE OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND A HIGH-PERFORMANCE CULTURE

ABSTRACT

The primary aim of this study was to determine the relationship between the practice of transformational leadership and a high-performance culture. The study hypothesized a positive relationship between transformational leadership and a high-performance culture. It also examined the predictive value of transformational leadership behaviours to the different dimensions of a high-performance culture. The survey included a sample of 209 leaders from various South African organisations. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ5X Form 5X) was completed by these leaders and their subordinates. The High-performance Culture Questionnaire was completed by the subordinates only. Findings indicated positive correlations between transformational leadership and a high-performance culture. Furthermore, differences were found to exist in the predictive value of transformational leadership behaviours to the various dimensions of a high-performance culture. The theoretical and practical implications of these findings were discussed.

Keywords: high-performance culture, High-Performance Culture Questionnaire (HPCQ), Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ5X), transformational leadership

CHAPTER 1:INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

This introductory chapter describes the background to the research, the problem statement, purpose statement, a brief description of the methodology and the contribution of the research.

1.1 BACKGROUND

Leadership is regarded as a factor that has a core influence as far as the performance and productivity of organisations are concerned. Due to the role that leaders play in the success of any organisation, leadership has received a lot of attention from scholars and researchers (Van Heerden & Roodt, 2007; Northouse, 2013). According to Northouse (2013), leadership is a highly sought-after and valued commodity. Its theoretical development has evolved considerably over the past several decades. The literature shows that in the first three decades of the 20th century, leadership was focused on control, power and domination (Northouse, 2013). Over the years, leadership theory shifted and came to be focused on the personal traits of leaders, leader charisma, leader behaviours, leader effectiveness, and the effect of situational contexts on leadership. During the 21st century, different leadership approaches, such as authentic, spiritual, servant and adaptive leadership, were introduced (Northouse, 2013). Ultimately though, the aim of the major leadership theories is to understand a leader's ability to influence followers and organisational performance (Northouse, 2013).

Although there are many theories of leadership, this study focuses on the transformational leadership theory, a leadership theory that was introduced by Burns in 1978 (as cited in Bass & Avolio, 1994). Burns defined transformational leadership as "the leader's ability to encourage followers by acting as a role model, motivating through inspiration, stimulating intellectually, and giving individualised consideration to their needs and goals" (cited in Bass & Avolio, 1994, p. 14). Burns also argued that transformational leadership enabled followers to exceed performance expectations (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Today, organisations operate in a never-changing environment and they are confronted by factors such as economic recessions, technological developments and governance and ethics challenges, and the intensified global competition that leaders face makes great

demands on them (Rasool & Botha, 2011). Morse, Buss, and Kinghorn (2007) argue that as the environment becomes increasingly complex and dynamic, new theoretical models are needed in order to understand the nature of leadership. They maintain that even though there are different leadership approaches, transformational leadership can play a critical role in promoting and ensuring organisational effectiveness.

Leaders are expected to provide visionary leadership and be able to use all available internal and external resources, including people, to achieve set organisational objectives (Banerji & Krishnan, 2000). Lindgren (2012) posits that leaders should be future strategists and be able to manage an organisation's strategic future by moving quickly within different roles. In addition, leaders should care about people and coach and empower them so that they can become more engaged and productive, which are the skills that transformational leaders should possess (Northouse, 2013). Hence an effective leader is one who possesses certain distinguishable qualities and is able to adapt quickly to change (Morse et al., 2007). Furthermore, effective leaders need to adopt a global outlook, have certain competencies and be aware of their personal strengths and weaknesses (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006).

The existing literature clearly articulates the significance of leadership to an organisation's culture. Schein (2010) asserts that leaders are vested with the responsibilities of building and maintaining an organisation's culture. Organisational culture, which is commonly defined as "the way we do things around here", is identified as one of the important elements that influence the success of an organisation (Schein, 2010). It is regarded as the "glue" that keeps the organisation together and differentiates it from other organisations (Bass & Avolio, 1994). An organisation's culture, which is manifested in its beliefs and assumptions, values, attitudes and behaviours of its employees, serves as its competitive advantage (Schein, 2010). Hence employees' commitment and accountability and their role in increasing their organisation's performance and productivity are directly related to a "strong" organisational culture (Cummings & Worley, 2005).

Over the years, some research has been done on the type of organisational culture required for high-performance. Research shows that a high-performance culture is one of the factors that correlate strongly with superior market and financial performance (Bettinger and Associates, 2009). In addition, the researchers conducted a corporate culture assessment, and found that among other components, leadership played an

important role in creating such a culture (Bettinger and Associates, 2009). Leaders have the power and authority to shape the destiny of their organisations by the way they respond to environmental changes (Mellahi, Jackson, & Sparks, 2002). Accordingly, this determines whether they will be able to remain competitive in the ever-changing environment. It has also been established that the speed at which organisations respond to change is informed by their culture (Cummings & Worley, 2005).

There is a good body of research that has linked leadership and organisational performance (Yammarino, Spangler, & Bass, 1993). Leaders use different leadership styles to improve performance and achieve their organisations' strategic objectives, and these styles range from autocratic leadership and transactional leadership to transformational leadership. These authors agree that transformational leadership, which occurs when "one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to levels of motivation", is the ideal and preferred style of leadership (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber 2009, p. 423), particularly to achieve high-performance. This connection is predicated on the behaviour of the transformational leader influencing subordinates to go beyond normal performance expectations (Bass & Avolio, 1993).

De Kock and Slabbert (2003) agree that for organisations to achieve a level of competitiveness, a transformational rather than a transactional leadership style should be embraced and practiced by leaders. Research has also been done to examine the influence of transformational leadership on organisational culture. For example, in a study conducted by Xenikou and Simosi (2006) that examined the relationship between organisational culture and transformational leadership (the relationship that has been tested most), evidence was found indicating that organisational culture and transformational leadership were scientifically linked to organisational effectiveness. However, they did not test the relationship between transformational leader behaviours (TLB) and dimensions of a **high-performance culture** (HPC). Thus, this study explores the relationship between a particular type of culture—high-performance—and transformational leadership behaviour in a South African context. Such an exploration is important because of South Africa's post-apartheid aspirations to build sustainable and effective organisations, which are seen as key to the country's economic and social development.

Thus, the goal of the research was to determine 1) if there was a positive relationship between transformational leadership behaviours (TLB) and a high-performance culture (HPC), and (2) if there were differences in the predictive value of transformational leadership behaviours (TLB) to the various dimensions of high-performance culture (HPC).

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The literature reviewed so far suggests that leaders can influence organisational culture (Schein, 2010) and that transformational leadership affects organisational culture (Mokgolo, Mokgolo, & Modiba, 2012). It is generally accepted that organisations are created to achieve their strategic objectives and make profits with the help of their employees. Hence, leaders are appointed and charged with the responsibility for ensuring that they encourage and motivate employees to improve their performance. An organisation's culture has also been identified as one of the elements that can contribute to employees engaging with and being committed to their work (Sorensen, 2002). Much research has gone into the different styles of leadership that leaders can employ when discharging duties and inculcating a strong organisational culture (Schein, 2010). However, organisations still struggle to ensure that leaders understand and practice the style of leadership that promotes high-performance among individuals. To achieve the latter, leaders are required to play a role in creating and sustaining a high-performance culture.

Organisations spend a lot of money on leadership development programmes in the hope that their leaders will learn more about leading people and helping to improve their performance. Culture transformation and change management experts are appointed to improve the cultures within organisations. However, most of these interventions fail. Beer and Nohria (2000) estimate the failures to range between 65% and 75%. Despite such interventions, most of these leaders still struggle to implement the leadership styles required and to promote a winning culture, hence performance remains the same or declines (Beer & Nohria, 2000).

For this reason, it is important to test the relationship between the practice of transformational leadership behaviours and a high-performance culture. Among the literature sources reviewed, no studies could be found that used a South African sample to examine this relationship. Further, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, no other

studies examined the predictive value of transformational leadership behaviours (TLB) to the various dimensions of a high-performance culture (HPC). With a view to addressing this gap, the current study was embarked upon to examine whether there was a positive relationship between the practice of TLB and HPC, and whether there were differences in the predictive value of TLB to the dimensions of HPC.

1.3 PURPOSE STATEMENT

The main purpose of the research was to determine the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and a high-performance culture.

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The specific objectives of the research were as follows:

- To determine if there was a positive relationship between transformational leadership behaviour and a high-performance culture
- To determine if there were differences in the predictive value of transformational leadership behaviours to various dimensions of a high-performance culture

1.5 METHODOLOGY

A quantitative research design, which is about “explaining phenomena by collecting numerical data that are analysed using mathematically based methods, in particular, statistics” (Muijs, 2011, p. 1), was used to examine the research questions. This study was based on a cross-sectional design according to which data for measuring the dependent and independent variables were collected at the same time (Kumar, 2008). This survey design was appropriate for this study as the research was aimed at determining the pervasiveness of a phenomenon by taking a cross-section of the population. In the case of this current study the aim was to test the relationships between two constructs, namely that of transformational leadership behaviours (TLB) and a high-performance culture (HPC). The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ5X) was used to measure transformational leadership, and the High-performance Culture Questionnaire (HPCQ) was used to measure high-performance culture. A survey was developed that contained these two measures as well as a section containing relevant demographic and background items. The survey was distributed to 200 managers in five organisations in the Gauteng

region of South Africa, and the managers were requested to distribute the survey to their subordinates. The final sample was comprised of 56 managers and 153 subordinates from these organisations. The sample for the study consisted of managers at various levels of management, and the subordinates in the sample were primarily lower-level managers reporting to managers at higher levels. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ5X Form 5X) was completed by leaders and their direct subordinates. The High-performance Culture Questionnaire (HPCQ) was completed by subordinates only.

Data analysis consisted of factor analyses to assess the dimensionality of the MLQ5X and the HPC measures as well as to assess their reliability by calculating the Cronbach's alpha coefficients. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated to assess the overall relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and a high-performance culture. Finally, multiple regression analyses were performed to investigate the predictive value of the elements of transformational leadership to the various dimensions of a high-performance culture.

Ethical clearance to conduct the research was obtained in accordance with prescribed University of Pretoria regulations that required approval from the Department of Human Resource Management. The ethical clearance approval letter is contained in Appendix B.

1.6 ACADEMIC VALUE AND CONTRIBUTION OF THE PROPOSED STUDY

Considerable research has been done providing evidence that TLB is positively related to affective outcomes such as employee engagement, employee performance and employee innovation and creativity (Jung, Wu, & Chow, 2008). Accordingly, the majority of the research conducted is based on explaining a leader's direct influence over individual employees. Jung et al. (2008) further assert that senior managers who practice TLB also affect organisational level performance or outcomes. An examination of the literature indicates that leadership and organisational culture have been independently linked to organisational performance (Ogbonna & Harris, 2000). Furthermore, organisational performance has been shown to be related to the style of leadership (Avolio & Yammarino, 2013).

Different types of culture are linked to superior performance, and culture and leadership are related (Ogbonna & Harris, 2000). However, limited research has been done on the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and a high-performance

culture. Therefore, this study is expected to contribute to the body of knowledge related to understanding whether there is a positive relationship between transformational leadership and a high-performance culture. The research will also shed light on possible differences in the predictive value of TLB to the various dimensions of HPC. The conceptualisation of HPC is based on several complex dimensions, which may suggest that not all TLB relate the same way to these dimensions (Van Heerden & Roodt, 2007).

1.7 DELIMITATIONS

Although there is a large body of literature on leadership and its effect on organisational culture, this study focuses specifically on a particular leadership theory, namely, transformational leadership theory, and its relationship to a particular type of organisational culture, referred to as a high-performance culture.

1.8 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

Transformational leadership: This style of leadership in which a leader creates a vision, encourages buy-in from employees and motivates them to be accountable and committed towards the achievement of goals (Conger, 1999).

Transactional leadership: This is a style of leadership in which the leader sets the vision, objectives and goals for employees. The leader forces employees to comply by giving them contingent rewards or threatening them (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999).

Laissez-faire leadership: This is a style of leadership in which the leader “takes a hands-off, let-things-ride approach”. These leaders abdicate their responsibilities, delay decision-making, give little or no feedback and put in little effort to empower employees (Northouse, 2013).

Organisational culture: This culture refers to the values and behaviour that contribute to the unique social and psychological environment of an organisation (Schein, 2010).

High-performance culture: This concept refers to a specific type of culture that creates an environment for high-performance. Thus, a high-performance culture is defined as a culture in which leaders are able to communicate a compelling vision to employees, a culture in which the systems and policies in place are meant to support the organisation to

achieve its strategic objectives and in which employees are accountable, engaged and committed to improving their performance to the benefit of the organisation (Van Heerden & Roodt, 2007).

Table 1 lists the abbreviations used in this study.

Table 1: Abbreviations used in this Study

Abbreviation	Explanation
EFQM	European Foundation for Quality Management
MLQ5X	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
TLB	Transformational leadership behaviours
HPC	High-performance culture
HPCQ	High-performance Culture Questionnaire
FRL	Full-range leadership

1.9 SUMMARY

In Chapter 1, the scientific orientation to the research was discussed. The orientation included the background to the study, problem statement, purpose statement, research objectives, methodology, academic value and contribution of the study, and delimitations. The chapter concluded by outlining definitions of the key terms. In chapter 2, leadership, the different leadership styles, organisational culture, high-performance organisational culture and the different high-performance organisational culture models will be examined.

CHAPTER 2:LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The theoretical and empirical literature related to the chosen research topic is discussed in the sections that follow. Sections 2.2, 2.3 and 2.4 provide a brief background on the concept of leadership, its definition and the different leadership theories. Sections 2.5 and 2.6 define, explain and provide more information on organisational culture and current understandings of a high-performance organisational culture. Finally, section 2.7 explores transformational leadership and a high-performance culture.

2.2 LEADERSHIP

Leadership has received a lot of attention in the literature due to the important role it plays in the achievement of an organisation's strategic objectives (Du Toit, Erasmus, & Strydom, 2008). Additionally, leadership has been shown to have a critical influence on performance. Throughout the years, a number of studies have examined the relationship between various leadership theories and aspects of performance. Some studies examined leadership effects on individual employee performance (Jung et al., 2008) and others examined financial performance (Ogbonna & Harris, 2000). In general, this research confirms one of the common tenets of leadership theories, namely that there can be a positive relationship between leadership and many aspects of performance, both at group and organisational levels. Accordingly, a great deal of attention has been given to trying to define leadership and how to develop effective leadership in organisations.

According to Banerji and Krishnan (2000, p. 406), leadership is exercised when "persons with certain motives and purposes mobilize and engage in competition or conflict with others, institutional, political, psychological and other resources to arouse, engage and satisfy the motives of followers". The simplified contemporary definition of leadership is that "it is a process of influencing employees to work willingly towards the achievement of organisational objectives" (Du Toit et al., 2008, p. 185). In essence, leadership is conceptualised as an influence process—a process that has the aim of affecting behaviour and ultimately the way organisations perform.

Previously, leadership was only focused on what the leader did, but recently the focus has moved to followers, peers, supervisors, work setting and culture (Avolio et al., 2009). Accordingly, tasks such as decision-making are now being regarded as not only the tasks of management but also those of a team. Followers are also regarded as active participants in leadership (Block, 2003). The shift in how leadership is defined has been influenced by the different leadership theories and styles.

Employee attitude towards their jobs and the expectations they have of their organisations and leaders have led to the evolvement of leadership styles over time from being autocratic or transactional to being more transformative (Banerji & Krishnan, 2000). Early theories were more transactional in nature, whereas contemporary theories are transformational (Martin, 2006).

2.3 LEADERSHIP THEORIES

Palestini (2013) posits that, to be effective, leaders need to understand different leadership theories, as theory informs practice and practice informs theory. This understanding will enable them to adapt and adjust as and when the environment demands. Given the focus of the research it is not possible to do a comprehensive review of the myriad of leadership theories, but the next sections offer a summary of the major leadership theories to contextualise the transformational theory examined in the present study.

2.3.1 The Early Leadership Theory

According to Martin (2006), the early leadership theory was based on the chain-of-command model developed for an industrial organisation. Workers knew their place, were passive and obedient and received and did not question orders or instructions. Leaders were mostly focused on production and had little concern for employee wellbeing. Hence leadership style was autocratic and workers were not encouraged to think creatively in order to improve their methods (Martin, 2006). Martin (2006) further asserts that this leadership theory described leadership in terms of traits or style. The trait leadership theory described leadership in terms of certain physical and psychological characteristics, which included charismatic leadership traits. On the other hand, style leadership theories assumed that leaders needed to display certain types of behaviour, and these theories

included situational and contingency leadership theories. The different early leadership theories are discussed below.

2.3.1.1 Trait and Great-Man Leadership Theories

According to Northouse (2013), the trait leadership theory is one of the first logical endeavours to study the nature of leadership. The trait leadership theory maintains that leaders are born with certain finer qualities that differentiate them from others (Martin, 2006). Leaders are said to possess particular physical, intellectual and interpersonal characteristics. They would mostly have a good posture, be assertive, attractive, exhibit confidence and be task orientated. The great-man theory also believes that leaders are of aristocratic lineage (Martin, 2006). This theory was, however, criticised for its lack of describing consistent leadership qualities that are suitable for all situations (Northouse, 2013). It was found that the focus of a leadership theory should not be on the personal characteristics of leaders but rather on the relationship between the leaders and employees in a social situation (Northouse, 2013).

2.3.1.2 Charismatic and Heroic Leadership Theory

According to Martin (2006), heroic leaders do not necessarily possess any particular quality, but their impact is based on the relationship that exists between them and their followers. These leaders are seen as heroes and are able to change passive followers into active followers who encourage others to follow the leader. Cohen (2010) describes heroic leaders as leaders who lead with integrity, set high standards for themselves and their followers and encourage them to improve their performance. These leaders have the qualities that equip them to build and promote teamwork. Hence they are regarded as role models and everyone wants to emulate their behaviour (Cohen, 2010).

The theory of heroic leadership likens the modern-day organisation to a battlefield where life and death decisions are made. Cohen (2010) asserts that organisations are faced with situations involving a lot of stress and requiring critical decisions to be made for the survival of the organisation and its people. Typically, heroic leaders are equipped to make such decisions because they know their work, accept responsibility, take care of employees, always put their work before themselves and persevere. Hence, according to Steyaert and Van Looy (2010), the heroic leadership theory corresponds more to the masculine ideal than to the feminine ideal.

Heroic leaders are closely associated with charismatic leaders. Charismatic leaders are often described in terms of their behaviours, personalities, positive attitudes towards their jobs, values and positive mind-sets (Walter & Bruch 2009). Avolio and Yammarino (2013) maintain that charismatic leaders have entrepreneurial skills, are jungle fighters, intellectual, servant and strategic leaders. However, Walter and Bruch (2009) have found that the heroic leadership theory neglects leaders' cognitive abilities as it only focuses on their ability to influence others through their behaviour. Furthermore, research has emphasised the positive qualities of charismatic leadership, known as socialised charismatic leadership behaviour. The aim of this behaviour is to promote the interests of people and to empower them, and it is associated with positive and ethical results. Walter and Bruch (2009) argue that research should be conducted on personalised charismatic leadership behaviour, which they describe as behaviour that is personally dominant, autocratic, self-centred and manipulative.

2.3.2 Style Theory of Leadership

Martin (2006, p. 45) defines the style theory of leadership as "the ways in which leaders express their influence". These leaders, who express their influence through their behaviour, can be divided into three main categories, namely; 1) an autocratic or authoritarian leader who gives instructions and does not allow employees to have inputs; 2) a democratic leader who stresses the need for group decision-making; and 3) an abdication or laissez-faire leader who allows the group to work on their own with little or no supervision.

The style theory of leadership maintains that a leader needs to occupy two roles, namely, that of a task director and of a social specialist (Gill, 2011). As a task director, the leader will define goals, plan solutions and provide the knowledge to execute the tasks. As a social specialist, the leader will maintain the morale and motivation of the team (Gill, 2011). This leadership theory has been criticised due to its failure to consider other contingencies in leadership situations.

2.3.3 Situational Leadership Theory

A major situational leadership theory, developed by Hersey and Blanchard, focuses on leadership in different situations (cited in Northouse, 2013). Its development is in reaction to the criticism of the behavioural leadership theory that it is not sufficient for the work environment as it can only be used in specific situations (Fairholm & Fairholm, 2009). Situational leadership takes into consideration the leader, the followers and the situation (time, place and circumstances) as well as the external and internal forces (Fairholm & Fairholm, 2009; Martin, 2006). Furthermore, an organisation's size, the maturity of the employees and complexity of the task at hand are some of the factors that leaders should consider when making decisions.

Martin (2006) asserts that the situation faced by leaders informs the qualities to be portrayed. In turn, the qualities portrayed are learned from the situation encountered previously. The situational leadership style recognises that subordinates' skills, experience and expertise differ (Northouse, 2013). Leaders, therefore, need to vary the extent to which they direct or support their subordinates in different situations. In essence, leaders are expected to know their people and adjust their approach according to the subordinates' level of understanding and expertise (Northouse, 2013).

Situational leadership is best explained by a leadership model developed by Hersey and Blanchard (cited in Northouse, 2013), which depicts four types of leadership style, namely:

- *S1: Directing style (high directive and low supportive)* – The leader focuses on giving directions, communicating the goals to be achieved and spending less time on being supportive.
- *S2: Coaching style (high directive and high supportive)* – The leader focuses on the goals to be achieved as well as the support to be given to subordinates by giving them directives and asking them for inputs. This style is applicable to subordinates who have just been trained and still need a lot of support and encouragement to gain confidence.
- *S3: Supporting approach (high supportive and low directive)* – The subordinates have been developed, have gained some confidence and know the goals to be achieved. Hence the leader focuses on listening, praising and giving feedback on performance.

- *S4:Delegating (low supportive and low directive)* – The subordinates have been developed and they have the skills, knowledge, expertise and confidence to perform their task. The leader now focuses on delegating and empowering them to do more.

2.3.4 Contingency Leadership Theory

According to Martin (2006), the contingency leadership style is based on the leader's individual leadership style and the responses they get from the team. It suggests that a leader's success is reliant on how well the leader's style fits the situation (Northouse, 2013). The main proponent of the contingency theory is Fiedler (1967) who developed the least preferred co-worker theory (LPC)contingency model. The theory is based on a leader's appropriateness of style in relation to the task at hand (Gill, 2011). According to Northouse (2013), in any leadership situation that is encountered, there are three factors that influence the decisions to be taken, namely;

- 1) the relationship between leader and the group (leader-member relations), which consists of the group atmosphere and the extent of confidence, loyalty and trust between the leader and the team;
- 2) the task structure, which consists of the degree to which the requirements of the task are standardised, documented, clearly communicated and understood; and
- 3) the power of the leader, whichconsists of the amount of power and authority the leader has to reward or punish subordinates.

2.3.5 Contemporary Leadership Theories

Before discussing transformational leadership theory, which is the focus of this research, it is important to give a brief overview of contemporary leadership theories. According to Martin (2006), contemporary leadership theories attempt to identify different leadership types and align them to the demands of organisations and society. Some contemporary leadership theories are the following:

- *Feminist leadership theory*: This theory seeks to challenge stereotypical traditional leadership traits and behaviours, such as dominance, competition and task orientation, that are associated with males. It argues that successful leaders can also have feminine values such as caring, empathy, unity and spirituality. Feminist leaders promote “leading from the heart” and leadership that revolvesaround trust,

respect and kindness (Palestini, 2013). The feminist leadership theory argues that due to the dominant type of leaders that are promoted, most relationships between leaders and their subordinates have become toxic. Feminist leaders are, therefore, faced with the challenge of transforming such adversarial relationships into ones based on mutual trust and respect (Palestini, 2013). The feminist leadership theory maintains that all people, regardless of gender, have the potential to be successful and effective leaders.

- *Authentic leadership theory*: Lussier and Achua (2010, p. 384) define authenticity as “a psychological construct that focuses on knowing, accepting and acting in accordance with one’s core values, beliefs, emotions and preference”. The main proponents of the authentic leadership theory are Avolio, Gardner, Walumba, Luthans and May (2004) who maintain that authentic leaders’ influence goes beyond the organisation’s financial success as they also play a pivotal role in addressing public policy issues and societal problems. The theory makes allowances for leaders who need to spend time meditating and reflecting on their decisions and actions to ensure that these are congruent with their values and beliefs. Avolio et al. (2004, p. 802) define authentic leaders as “those individuals who are deeply aware of how they think and behave and are perceived by others as being aware of their own and others’ values/moral perspectives, knowledge and strengths; aware of the contexts in which they operate; and who are confident, hopeful, optimistic, resilient and high on moral character”. Martin (2006) asserts that these leaders are able to portray these qualities because of their commitment to reflection. Reflection allows them to be fully present and respect diversity and to make fair and consistent decisions that are based on love and care for others (Martin, 2006). They focus on moral beliefs and promote as well as expect ethical behaviour from themselves and others.
- *Servant leadership theory*: This leadership theory is based on the premise that the leader wants to serve others (Northouse, 2013) and wants to make sure that the needs of others are met (Martin, 2006). Greenleaf and Spears (2002) describe servant leadership as leadership that is based on the conscience, that is, an innermost ethical or spiritual wisdom of what is right or wrong. Hence it is regarded as leadership that endures. Greenleaf and Spears (2002) further assert that the

core of servant leadership is sacrifice, inspiration to become part of a cause, the belief that the ends and the means are inseparable and that relationships and compassion are of equal importance. Servant leaders are able to listen to others, are discerning, show acceptance and empathy and are influential.

2.4 TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

According to Palestini (2013), the transformational leadership theory is referred to as a hybrid theory as it combines all aspects of the trait, situational and contingency leadership theories. The transformational leadership theory, introduced by Burns in 1978 (cited in Northouse, 2013), placed emphasis on the relationship between leaders and employees. Burns also introduced the theory of transactional leadership, which focuses on the exchanges between leaders and followers. According to this theory, leaders get employees to work and achieve objectives by promising them rewards, recognition or punishment, which according to Judge & Piccolo (2004) forms a basis for transformational leadership. Avolio et al. (2009) state that transformational leaders focus on indefinable traits such as shared vision, values and beliefs and aim to influence and empower employees with the intention of changing or transforming the organisation so as to achieve its objectives (Conger, 1999).

According to Trinchy and Devana (1986) (cited in Bass and Bass, 2008, p. 51), transformational leadership is “a behavioral process capable of being learned and managed. It is a leadership process that is systematic, consisting of purposeful and organised search for changes, systematic analysis and the capacity to move resources from areas of lesser to greater productivity in bringing about strategic transformation”. Hence transformational leaders have the ability to transform organisations through transforming people. Bass and Bass (2008) describe transformational leadership as the “prototype” of an ideal leader. Transformational leaders have well-developed skills that enable them to motivate employees to commit and achieve performance outcomes that exceed what is expected from them (Conger, 1999).

Transformational leadership is based on principal leadership processes of encouraging employees to learn and grow, motivating awareness and acceptance of an organisation’s vision and mission, and challenging employees to focus on the benefits of the whole organisation rather than on their personal interests (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Conger,

1999). According to Avolio et al., (2009), the leadership behaviours displayed by transformational leaders alter and inspire employees to perform beyond what is required of them for the benefit of the organisation. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) have identified that transformational leadership consists of six elements, namely; 1) communicating a vision for the future; 2) being a suitable role model; 3) promoting goal acceptance; 4) setting high-performance expectations; 5) giving individual support; and 6) providing intellectual stimulation. Eustace and Martins (2014) describe transformational leadership as the ability to transform people and organisations in order to bring about a positive change.

Eustace and Martins (2014) further state that transformational leaders need to communicate a shared vision so as to increase employees' personal dedication. These leaders focus their energy on longer-term goals and principles and the motivation of employees to work towards achieving a vision (Aragón-Correra, Garcia-Morales, & Cordon-Pozo, 2007). Block (2003) asserts that the power of transformational leadership is not dependent on position but on the ability to influence employees to work towards a common vision. Transformational leaders are, therefore, expected to inspire their team members to assume goals and values that are in line with the vision of the leaders and the organisation (Xenikou & Simosi, 2006). They should be able to communicate a compelling vision and to connect with employees on an emotional and psychological level by accentuating personal and organisational values (Yukl, 1999). Hence, being a transformational leader entails understanding the role they play within an organisation and the influence they have on employees (Aragón-Correra et al., 2007).

Transformational leaders respect and value employees and place a high value on employee development and organisational learning (Aragón-Correra et al., 2007). Furthermore, they coach and mentor their team members to accept personal accountability for the achievement of the organisation's vision and strategic objectives. Coaching and mentoring have also been proven to increase employee skills and self-efficacy, thus improving individual and organisational performance (Yukl, 1999). De Kock and Slabbert (2003) describe the transformational leadership approach as winning through people.

Eustace and Martins (2014) further assert that leaders who display transformational leadership behaviours are able to increase their colleagues' and employees' awareness

about important issues. To be able to increase this awareness a leader needs to have a vision, self-confidence, inner strength and resilience to stick with what is right (Eustace & Martins, 2014). Through their inner confidence and their outer behaviour, transformational leaders gain trust, loyalty and respect from their team members (Yukl, 1999). Hence they are able to positively persuade employees to commit to the organisation's vision and values.

However, critics of this leadership style believe that leaders who purport to be transformational can be superficial or manipulative in order to get what they want from employees, as the same qualities that make a great leader can make them behave unacceptably (Yukl, 1999). Northouse (2013) adds that research has identified the following weaknesses that are associated with transformational leadership, namely; 1) it lacks conceptual clarity in that it covers many characteristics, and therefore it is difficult to define its boundaries; 2) the validity of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ5X) used to measure transformational leadership has been challenged by different studies; 3) it treats leadership as a personality trait, and therefore it is difficult to train leaders in it; 4) it has not yet been determined whether transformational leaders are able to transform employees and organisations; and 5) transformational leaders are sometimes perceived to be acting independently from their subordinates.

Streater (2009), as well as Banerji and Krishnan (2000), address some of the criticisms by making a distinction between pseudo-transformational and authentic transformational leadership behaviours. Pseudo-transformational leaders pretend to practise transformational leadership behaviours but in fact are motivated by their egos and want to satisfy their own personal needs (Barling, Christie, & Turner, 2008). They behave unethically, not because of problems of belief, values or knowledge, but based on will (Price, 2003). They have or know what the right values of a transformational leader are, but they are manipulative and fail to practise those values (Price, 2003).

Pseudo-transformational leaders regard themselves as honest, straightforward and supportive of the organisation's mission and objectives, but their behaviours are inconsistent (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999) and hence they are unreliable. According to Price (2003), pseudo-transformational leaders may in fact lead employees in negative, unethical and immoral directions. They are, therefore, seen as representative of the unethical side of transformational leadership and they are characterised by low idealised influence and high

inspirational motivation (Barling et al., 2008). Authentic transformational leaders are differentiated from their pseudo counterparts through the presence of what Avolio, Waldman, and Yammarino (1991) refer to as the four “i’s” of transformational leadership, namely; 1) idealised influence (attributes); 2) idealised influence (behaviour); 3) inspirational motivation; and 4) intellectual stimulation. Antonakis, Avolio, and Sivasubramaniam (2003) have also identified the fifth “i” of transformational leadership known as individualised consideration. These elements are discussed below.

1) *Idealised influence*: Leaders who practise TLB use idealised influence to empower their employees (Mokgolo et al., 2012). These leaders become role models due to their personalities (Kirkbride, 2006). Idealised influence measures the degree to which managers inspire team members to be team players, encourage different units to work together to achieve common goals, develop a team outlook and character amongst employees and believe that all employees are important to the success of the organisation (Mokgolo et al., 2012). They instill faith and pride in their employees (Mester, Visser, & Roodt, 2003). According to Antonakis et al. (2003), idealised influence is divided into attributed idealised influence or charisma and behaviour idealised influence.

Attributed idealised influence refers to the way in which people view the leader’s charisma and confidence, or to a leader’s focus on higher-order principles and ethics (Antonakis et al., 2003). Charisma refers to the way in which a leader presents and articulates the self (Hellriegel & Slocum, 2010). This kind of influence involves motivating employees by developing in them a strong commitment to the organisation’s shared vision and strategy. Accordingly, employees feel free to ask questions and learn without fear of being ridiculed or judged.

Behaviour idealised influence refers to the charismatic actions or behaviours of leaders that are informed by values, beliefs and a sense of mission (Antonakis et al., 2003). Employees are able to identify with these leaders due to the values and behaviour they display and that are accompanied by high standards and moral ethics (Hellriegel & Slocum, 2010). Accordingly, they trust and respect the leaders, which encourage employee engagement. Employees willingly go the extra mile because of the intrinsic rewards they will receive as opposed to external rewards given by transactional leaders

(Hellriegel & Slocum, 2010). Accordingly, they feel a sense of obligation and loyalty towards the leader and would not want to disappoint the leader.

- 2) *Inspirational motivation* refers to the ways leaders inspire and encourage employees to accept challenging goals and to look beyond their self-interest (Mester et al., 2003). They are confident about the future, project an idyllic vision and communicate with enthusiasm to employees that the vision is achievable and that the future is better than the current reality (Antonakis et al., 2003). Inspirational motivation includes the extent to which managers encourage high standards, express hope and speak enthusiastically (Mokgolo et al., 2012). Accordingly, leaders who display transformational leadership behaviours inspire and empower their team members through expanding employees' interests and their capacity of participation. Hence, they help employees develop confidence in their own skills and abilities, as well as identify their potential.
- 3) *Intellectual stimulation* refers to leaders' actions that call on employees' intellectual capabilities by challenging them to think creatively and find solutions to difficult problems (Antonakis et al., 2003). Intellectual stimulation involves the degree to which leaders ask questions that make employees think about and rethink the way they do things and challenge them to think about problems in a new way (Mokgolo et al., 2012). Employees are, therefore, persuaded to be creative while performing their daily activities (Mester et al., 2003).
- 4) *Individualised consideration* refers to leaders' behaviour that adds to employees' fulfilment by advising, supporting and paying attention to their individual needs and thus allowing them to develop and self-actualise (Antonakis et al., 2003). They acknowledge that employees are different and provide them with coaching, mentoring and growth opportunities (Mester et al., 2003). Individualised consideration focuses on how leaders spend their time in getting to know their employees, reflecting on different employee strengths and abilities and developing those strengths (Mokgolo et al., 2012). Transformational leaders are good mentors and coaches, have faith in their team members, thus they help them grow (Garcia-Morales, Llorens-Motes & Verdu-Jover, 2008). In addition, leaders who display transformational leadership behaviours do not focus on employees' weaknesses, but afford them opportunities that encourage them to identify, accept and display their strengths.

Bass and Avolio (1994) have referred to transformational leadership as stage two of the evolution of leadership theory. This stage comprises critically reviewing the focus of leadership. Transformational leadership has been revised and consolidated to form the third stage of leadership called the full-range leadership theory (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

2.4.1 Full-Range Leadership Theory (FRL)

Bass and Avolio (1993) assert that leaders cannot be purely transformational; depending on the situation they are facing they can also be transactional (see Figure 1). A transactional leadership style is one according to which everything is focused on the contractual relationship and obligation between the leaders and employees (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Northouse (2013) view transactional and transformational leadership styles as a leadership continuum. Kirkbride (2006) agrees that leaders can use a “range” of leadership styles; however, the intention is for them to move towards a transformational leadership style. The range of leadership styles available is depicted through the full-range leadership model discussed below.

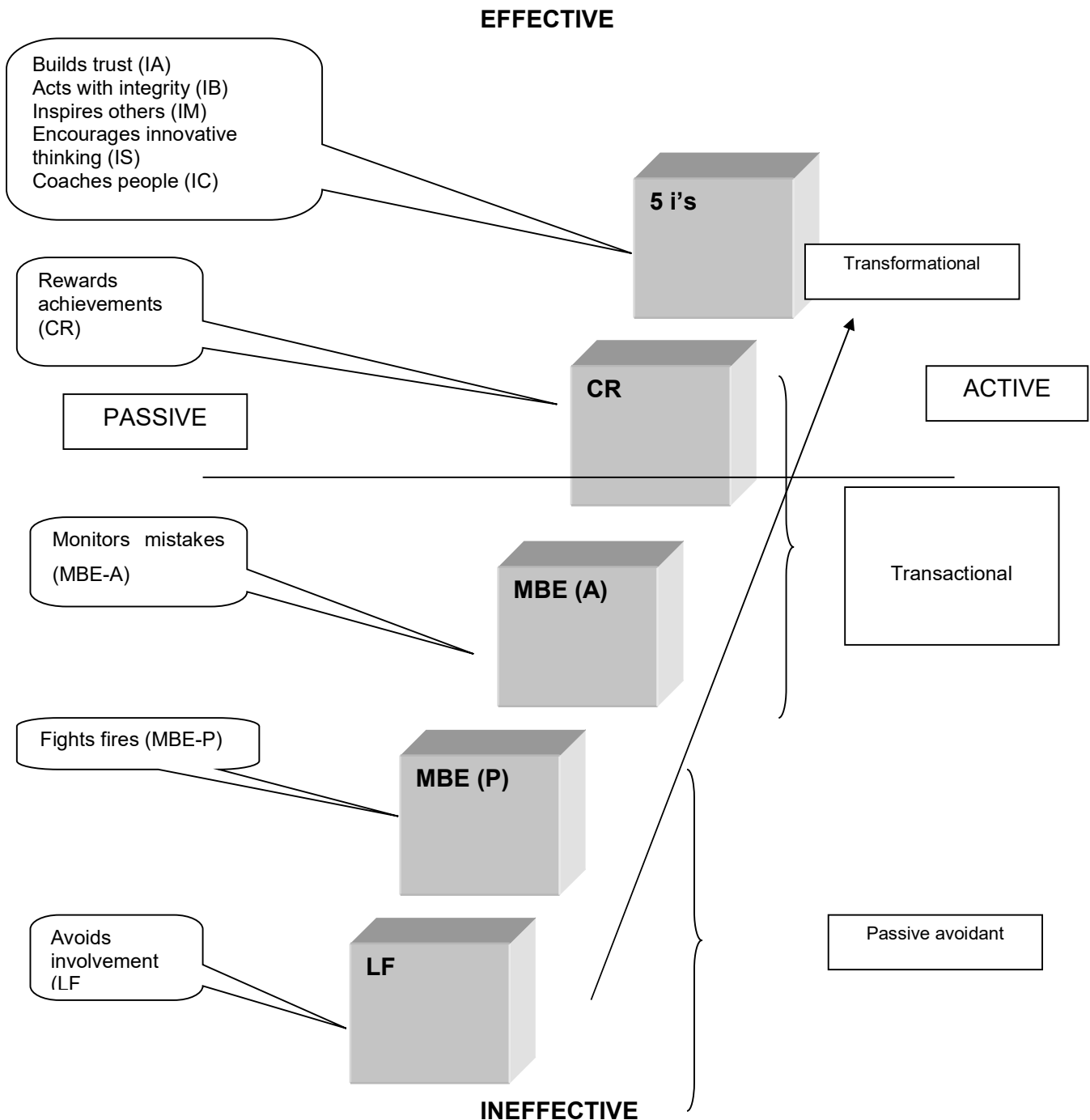


Figure 1: The full range leadership model

Source: Avolio and Bass (2008, p. 4)

The full-range leadership model clearly articulates the differences between laissez-faire, transactional and transformational leadership styles (Yukl, 1999). According to Kirkbride (2006), this model attempts to describe a whole array of leadership styles, from management or non-leadership (ineffective) to more transformational styles

(effective). Instead of insisting that leaders should use a specific type of leadership, the FRL model emphasises the importance of flexibility and balance of leadership behaviours (Kirkbride, 2006).

The different kinds of leadership style are explained below.

2.4.1.1 Laissez-faire Leadership Style

At the bottom of the model (see Figure 1) is the laissez-faire leadership style. According to Kirkbride (2006), this is not a leadership style but rather a management style. Accordingly, this leadership or non-leadership style is followed by leaders who are uninterested in the needs of their followers, leaving them to make decisions. Hence they offer their subordinates little or no leadership at all. This kind of leadership style is reflected by behaviour such as “avoiding to make decisions; relinquishing of responsibilities; refusing to take sides in a dispute; and showing lack of interest in what is going on” (Kirkbride, 2006). A laissez-faire leadership style can cause chaos and lead to a lot of crisis management. Due to the leaders’ apathy about their responsibility there is usually no proper planning, and employees deal with matters as and when they become urgent. Employees end up being discouraged, overwhelmed and disengaged (Avolio & Bass, 2008).

2.4.1.2 Transactional Leadership Style

Transactional leadership is defined as “an exchange process based on the fulfillment of contractual obligations, and is typically represented by setting objectives and monitoring and controlling outcomes” (Antonakis et al., 2003, p. 265). According to Bass and Steidlmeier (1999), transactional leadership involves contingent reinforcement, whereby leaders motivate their employees by promises, praise and rewards, or negative reinforcement, such as negative feedback, reproof, threats or disciplinary actions. Transactional leaders explain what is required of employees and the reward they will receive if expectations are fulfilled. If expectations are not achieved, they are reprimanded (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). In essence, employees are rewarded for complying with the leader’s requests or instructions (Du Toit et al., 2008).

According to Antonakis et al. (2003) and Kirkbride (2006), transactional leadership comprises three first-order factors, namely;

- 1) *Contingent reward leadership (constructive transactions)*, which refers to leader

behaviours that are focused on explaining roles to be fulfilled and tasks to be carried out and providing employees with substantive or psychological rewards based on the fulfilment of contractual obligations. Avolio and Bass (2008) assert that constructive transaction is reasonably effective as the rewards offered by the leaders are deemed to be constructive. This encourages subordinates to perform their duties as expected. However, it does not encourage them to “walk the extra mile”, which requires them to be committed to the goals to be achieved.

- 2) *Management-by-exception passive (passive corrective transactions)* is a process of only paying attention to the exception instead of the normal duties that are carried out daily. The leader gets involved only when expectations are not met or when mistakes have already occurred. This kind of leadership style does not encourage innovation and avoids unnecessary changes. When problems occur, these leaders focus their energies on fixing the problem and continue with the usual operations of the business.
- 3) *Management-by-exception active (active corrective transactions)* refers to the active observations of a leader whose goal is to ensure that standards are met. The leader pays close attention to any non-compliance and mistakes. Hence, this leader puts in place control measures that detect any deviations that may occur. Subordinates are forced to follow rules and, therefore, they are not able to be innovative and creative. They also learn to hide any mistakes and are taught to correct them.

Kirkbride (2006) asserts that transactional leadership may be effective in ensuring that goals are achieved; however, it does not encourage innovation. Furthermore, the relationship between the leader and subordinates is based on transactional exchanges rather than on commitment to a shared vision or goal. Transactional leaders work within an existing organisational culture and stick to the established rules, norms and procedures (Bass & Avolio, 1993).

Based on the above discussion of the transformational leadership style, it can be stated that the focus in this research study is on transformational leadership behaviours that comprise the elements of idealised influence (behaviour and attributes), individualised consideration, intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation.

Measurement of Transformational Leadership

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ5X), which is derived from the full-range leadership model, is used to measure all the elements of full-range leadership and to determine leaders' leadership style (Mokgolo et al.,2012). This questionnaire measures the five transformational leadership behaviour elements (idealised influence(attributes), idealised influence(behaviour), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration), the three transactional leadership elements (constructive transaction, management-by-exception active, and management-by-exception passive) and laissez-faire leadership styles. It also measures the leader's extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction (Kirkbride, 2006). However, in the present research, only the scores on transformational leadership behaviours were used.

The current version of the MLQ5X (Form 5X), which was developed using the earlier versions, contains 45 items. Even though it has been strongly criticised for its comparatively high levels of multi-collinearity, previous research has proven that it is a valid and reliable measurement instrument that can adequately measure TLB (Antonakis et al., 2003).

Effects of transformational leadership

According to a meta-analytical study conducted by Judge and Piccolo (2004), there have been some debates regarding the difference between transactional and transformational leadership. In their research they tested the validity of transactional leadership and transformational leadership and found that the two are not mutually exclusive. Transactional leadership forms the basis of transformational leadership; however, transformational leadership behaviours are positively correlated with affective responses and high-performance.

Transformational leadership has been linked to a number of dependent variables ranging from employee satisfaction and commitment to team performance and innovation (Eustace & Martins,2014). Existing research on transformational leadership shows that leaders who exhibit TLB are able to help improve their employees' and organisations' performance (Mester et al.,2003). A number of studies on transformational leadership in the South African context have been done. One study conducted in South African organisations has indicated that leaders in the public service and in private companies who practise

transformational leadership behaviours can improve service delivery and have a positive impact on organisational culture, job performance and job satisfaction (Mokgolo et al., 2012). Transformational leadership has also been positively correlated with variables such as emotional intelligence (Pillay, Viviers, & Mayer, 2013) and organisational culture (Mokgolo et al., 2012). In the next section, the relationship between organisational culture and transformational leadership behaviours will be discussed.

2.5 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

According to Rashid, Sambasivan, and Johari (2003), organisational culture is one of the important and most researched components of organisational behaviour due to its effects on organisational performance. Organisational culture has its origins in anthropology and its development was an attempt to understand communities and their behaviours (Ahmed, 1998). According to Alvesson (2013), organisational culture is one of the subsystems that make up and are found in all aspects of an organisation.

Schein (2010, p. 4) defines organisational culture as “a pattern of shared basic assumptions learned by a group as it solves its problems of external adaptation and internal integration”. Organisational culture comprises the shared beliefs and values guiding the thinking and behavioural styles of members. Eustace and Martins (2014, p. 4) define organisational culture as “the underlying values, beliefs and principles that are the foundation of an organisation’s management system”. Organisational culture includes all the institutionalised ways and the implicit beliefs, norms, values and premises that govern behaviour (Ahmed, 1998). Furthermore, it forms the basis for communication and mutual understanding (Martins & Terblanche, 2003).

Organisational culture influences the way employees think, feel and behave within an organisation, which also extends to how they view their performance (Dwivedi, 1995). Alvesson (2013) posits that organisational culture is a compass that directs behaviour within an organisation. Accordingly, “wrong values” are regarded as a defective compass as they lead employees towards the wrong behaviours. Organisational culture is the unseen force that unites employees and provides them with purpose and direction (Rashid et al., 2003), and, in this sense, organisational culture is the unspoken, unseen, inherent and informal consciousness of an organisation, a consciousness that cannot be duplicated by another organisation. Scholars agree that organisational culture guides and

shapes employees' behaviour and their commitment towards achieving an organisation's goals and objectives (Rashid et al., 2003; Shukla, 2005).

Organisational culture signifies the similar ways in which people interpret and respond to an organisation's reality (Shukla, 2005). An organisation's culture refers to the basic assumptions that worked well in the past and have become commonly accepted as the truth within the organisation (Martins & Terblanche, 2003). Van Heerden and Roodt (2007) compare organisational culture to an individual's culture that consists of a set of assumptions, norms, values and signs. In the case of an organisation, these assumptions, norms, values and signs can be seen in the organisation's members and their behaviours. Organisational culture is not something that an organisation acquires: it is part of its identity (Shukla, 2005). Rashid et al. (2003) argue that organisational culture should be kept separate from organisational identity. According to Alvesson (2013), an organisation's identity is the essence that defines it – it is the employees' subjective view of the organisation's qualities.

Ahmed (1998) maintains that organisational culture is closely related to organisational climate. He argues that whereas climate is observable through the organisations' practices and policies, organisational culture is not visible. It is a cognitive schema which guides behaviour when responding to particular stimuli (Ahmed, 1998). Sarros, Cooper, and Santora (2008) agree that although organisational culture and climate are different they have interrelated constructs. Glisson and James (2002) assert that whereas organisational culture focuses on shared values, beliefs and values, organisational climate describes employees' view of the extent to which their work environment has an impact on them.

According to Schein (2010), a culture that is embedded in an organisation is usually a reflection of what a leader has imposed on a group and that has worked out. He asserts that leaders have a significant influence on the shaping of an organisation's culture. Organisational culture is dynamic and is continuously being shaped and created by a leader's behaviour (Schein, 2010). Schein (2010) has identified three levels of organisational culture, namely; 1) artifacts and behaviours, which include any tangible, overt or verbally identifiable elements of the organisation; 2) espoused values, which are the organisation's stated values and rules of behaviour; and 3) assumptions, which are deeply embedded, taken-for-granted behaviours that are usually unconscious but constitute the essence of culture.

Similarly, Ahmed (1998) posits that culture is comprised of two components: implicit and explicit. The implicit component refers to the values, beliefs and norms that inform observed patterns of behaviour as consistent with espoused values and assumptions. The explicit component refers to the observable patterns of behaviour and artifacts (Ahmed, 1998), which is similar to Schein's (2010) artifacts and behaviours.

Shukla (2005) asserts that culture should be seen as a process. Consequently, one of the ways of determining an organisation's culture is to study its processes and policies, which equate with Ahmed's (1998) explicit component and Schein's (2010) artifacts and behaviours. Dwivedi (1995) adds that an organisation's culture is not only about employees' beliefs, principles and relationships but also about their opinions regarding their organisation's products, structures, system, vision, purpose and its reward systems.

The strength or weakness of organisational culture has also been researched. According to Sorensen (2002), organisations can have a weak or a strong organisational culture. A strong organisational culture, which is characterised by shared and strongly held norms and values, has significant performance benefits, such as enhanced coordination and control in the organisation, improved goal alignment between the organisation and its employees and increased employee commitment to work towards the achievement of performance objectives (Shukla, 2005). Ahmed (1998) agrees that a strong culture is dependent on the pervasiveness of the values, norms, beliefs and behaviours in the explicit culture and, in addition, on the match between the implicit and explicit aspects of the culture. In essence, there should be alignment of employees' values and beliefs and their behaviour. Ogbonna and Harris (2000) assert that an organisation's culture should be strong and should have distinctive characteristics that cannot be imitated.

Organisations with a strong culture are able to adjust to any environmental changes and they have committed employees that are high performers (Ahmed, 1998). However, strong organisational cultures can be beneficial or harmful to an organisation; for instance, they can sometimes hinder the need to implement change (Ahmed, 1998). One key beneficial consequence of a strong organisational culture is that it increases employees' reliability (Sorensen, 2002). Furthermore, due to the deeply held beliefs and assumptions of employees, the organisation is able to encourage behaviours that are consistent with its values (Sorensen, 2002).

An organisation with a weak corporate culture is characterised by little agreement on its vision, beliefs and values (Lussier & Achua, 2010). Employees do not buy into the organisation's vision as the leader may have failed to clearly articulate it. Gossiping, manipulation, conflict, lack of communication and favouritism prevail in such weak cultures (Lussier & Achua, 2010). Hence, performance suffers.

Organisational culture and performance

There is a large body of literature on how organisational culture affects performance. Dwivedi (1995) maintains that an organisation's culture can also be seen as an intervening variable. Such a variable is evident in employees' commitment to the organisation's objectives, their motivation, morale, perception about leadership, communication, conflict resolution and problem-solving. Employees' perception and interpretation of their organisation's culture influence their performance and job satisfaction (Dwivedi, 1995).

Ahmed (1998) asserts that for organisations to remain competitive in the ever-changing environment they need to encourage a culture of innovation. This author regards innovation as the engine of change and describes it as "a pervasive attitude that allows business to see beyond the present and create the future" (Ahmed, 1998, p. 31). Some of the determinants of a culture of innovation that are related to improved performance include the organisation's strategy, structure, support mechanism, behaviour and communication (Martins & Terblanche, 2003).

Denison and Mishra (1995) developed a theory of organisational culture and effectiveness in which they identified four cultural traits that were positively related to organisational performance, namely;

- *Involvement and participation*, which measure whether employees are engaged and aligned to the organisation's vision. Employees are encouraged to participate in decision-making so as to promote ownership and accountability;
- *Consistency and normative integration*, which measure whether the organisation's values and systems are properly defined and understood. Organisations that value consistency agree on how to approach performance;
- *Adaptability*, which measures the organisation's ability to listen, respond and adapt to environmental changes; and

- *Mission*, which measures whether employees know and understand the organisation's vision.

The four cultural traits described above confirm the statement of Ogbonna and Harris (2000) that for organisations to be successful, they need to be able to adapt to changes in the external environment and integrate those changes into the internal environment. Involvement and consistency focus on internal integration, whereas adaptability and mission focus on external adaptation (Ahmed, 1998). Denison and Mishra (1995) and Schein (2010) agree that culture develops as an organisation learns to cope with and adjust to external adaptation and internal integration.

2.5.1 Types of Organisational Culture

In the literature, different types of organisational culture have been identified. According to Deshpande and Farley (1999), as cited in Rashid et al. (2003), there are four types of organisational culture, namely; 1) competitive; 2) entrepreneurial; 3) bureaucratic; and 4) consensual. A competitive culture is found in organisations and countries that value achievement, demanding goals and superiority. An entrepreneurial culture, which is characterised by risk-taking and innovation, is associated with an organisation's success in meeting its financial targets (Rashid et al., 2003). A bureaucratic culture values structure, a hierarchical chain of command as well as rules and policies. An organisation with a consensual culture values rituals, loyalty, trust, teamwork and personal commitment (Rashid et al., 2003).

Kirby and Kummerow (2013) studied different typologies of culture, for instance the one developed by Schein, Bate and Harrison, in which four types of culture were identified – the apathetic culture, the caring culture, the exacting culture and the integrative culture. These cultures are an indication of the degree to which an organisation is either focused on its people or its performance, and an organisation's culture is evident through its reward system.

Kirby and Kummerow (2013) also refer to the six types of organisational culture that Bate (1984) based on certain cultural traits, namely, the unemotionality, depersonalisation, subordination, conservatism, isolationism and antipathy orientations. These orientations are briefly outlined below.

- *Unemotionality* indicates the degree to which emotional display is discouraged in the organisation. Employees are not allowed to express their feelings or opinions. They internalise problems, and there is a lack of trust and avoidance of conflict.
- *Depersonalisation* indicates the degree to which problems are blamed on nonhuman factors such as machinery and equipment or on factors outside the organisation's control. There is no personal accountability for challenges or mistakes.
- *Subordination* indicates a kind of organisation in which employees are not allowed to challenge their leaders, initiate change or take part in problem-solving or decision-making.
- *Conservatism* indicates the degree to which employees believe that things will never change. Furthermore, employees are doubtful that any change will be beneficial to the organisation.
- *Isolationism* indicates the extent to which an organisation encourages an individualistic rather than a participative approach to decision-making and problem-solving. The organisation is usually characterised by low levels of teamwork and high levels of internal competition.
- *Antipathy* indicates the level of intergroup conflict within the organisation. Organisations that are high in antipathy tend to be divided and are comprised of many competing groups and alliances.

Harrison (cited in Kirby & Kummerow, 2013) has identified the following four ideological orientations relevant to typologies of organisational culture:

- *Power orientation*: The organisation focuses on dominance and control. Leaders have absolute power and can be domineering. They work hard to maintain their power, hence they are paternalistic and autocratic in their management style.
- *Role orientation*: The organisation values and respects a person's role, rank or position rather than the individual, is characterised by strict compliance to rules, regulations, policies and procedures and it can be rigid and find it difficult to adjust to environmental changes.

- *Task orientation*:The organisation values the achievement of goals and targets. Leaders are respected for their knowledge and expertise and not because of their rank. The organisational structure is organic and can easily adjust to change.
- *Person orientation*:The organisation is seen as a means of satisfying employees' needs and it promotes teamwork and collaboration. The organisational structure is unclear and informal and authority is only considered on occasion. The people in the organisation depend on each other to be helpful and caring. Employees work in order to live their purpose and they appreciate meaningful work.

In summary, various approaches to organisational culture has been studied extensively. It can be concluded that organisational culture is unseen and directs employee behaviour towards the achievement of organisational goals (Shukla, 2005). The next section is devoted to a discussion of what has been defined as a strong organisational culture that is particularly important to an organisation's performance, namely a high-performance organisational culture.

2.6 HIGH-PERFORMANCE ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

According to Sorensen (2002), a strong positive organisational culture is a prerequisite for consistently high-performance. Kirby and Kummerow (2013) maintain that there is a link between a strong organisational culture and strong (successful) organisational performance. A high-performance culture is an extension of an organisation's culture (Van Heerden & Roodt, 2007). According to Finney (2008), a high-performance culture is shaped around three components:

- *A clear, compelling organisational mission*: An organisation's reason for being needs to be inspirational, inform decisions, improve customer loyalty and prop up employee passion, as well as motivate employees to go the extra mile.
- *Shared organisational values*: These are shared values that guide employee behaviour, such as employees' commitment to deliver on the promises made to customers and other stakeholders.
- *Shared accountability*: This encourages employee ownership of the organisation's bottom-line results and cultural foundations.

A high-performance culture is a way of working and it represents a set of values that encourages people to be engaged in order to achieve high results (Bettinger & Associates, 2009). A high-performance culture is achieved when an organisation is able to achieve its bottom-line results, inspire its employees to improve their performance and establish a high values-driven culture in which the focus is on inspiring commitment and reinforcing what the organisation stands for (Barrett, 2006).

Peters and Waterman, as cited in Shukla (2005, p. 162) have identified “action orientation, customer orientation, sticking to what they do best, placing high value on employees, giving autonomy to employees and encouraging entrepreneurial behaviour” as some of the core values that are common in organisations with a high-performance culture. A high-performance culture encourages the achievement of strategic objectives and promotes employee engagement. Schneider (2014) asserts that a high-performance organisational culture is one that is change driven, quality driven and technology driven, and one that supports creativity, proper knowledge management, open communication, respect and integrity as core values.

Finney (2008) is of the opinion that employee engagement is fostered in high-performance cultures as it is able to provide employees with meaning and emotional connection, to clear out bad business practices, to direct employee decisions, to encourage creativity and trust and to attract and retain exceptional performers. A high-performance culture creates an environment in which employees are motivated to perform to the best of their abilities, work as a team and feel a sense of belonging (Finney, 2008).

In their study, Denison and Mishra (1995) found that, in contrast to a culture with a bureaucratic orientation, a culture of support, innovation and goal orientation was related to higher performance in American colleges and universities. Furthermore, organisations with a high-performance culture 1) encourage and manage risk-taking; 2) institutionalise the free flow of information, innovation, openness and flexibility; and 3) treat exceptional and poor performers differently. Hence a high-performance culture provides the freedom to take risks, communicate and be flexible.

Denison and Mishra (1995) further assert that from a values perspective, organisational culture indicates the extent to which there is internal versus external integration and trade-offs of change and adaptability with stability and direction. High-performance culture is

therefore regarded as a filter through which important variables, such as leadership influence and organisational performance, become manifested (Xenikou & Simosi, 2006).

In their research, Xenikou and Simosi (2006) have identified three cultural traits that promote effectiveness and high-performance, namely:

- humanistic orientation, which is characterised by cooperation amongst members;
- achievement orientation, which involves assumptions, values and practices; and
- adaptive orientation, which is characterised by strong implementation focus, stability and continuity.

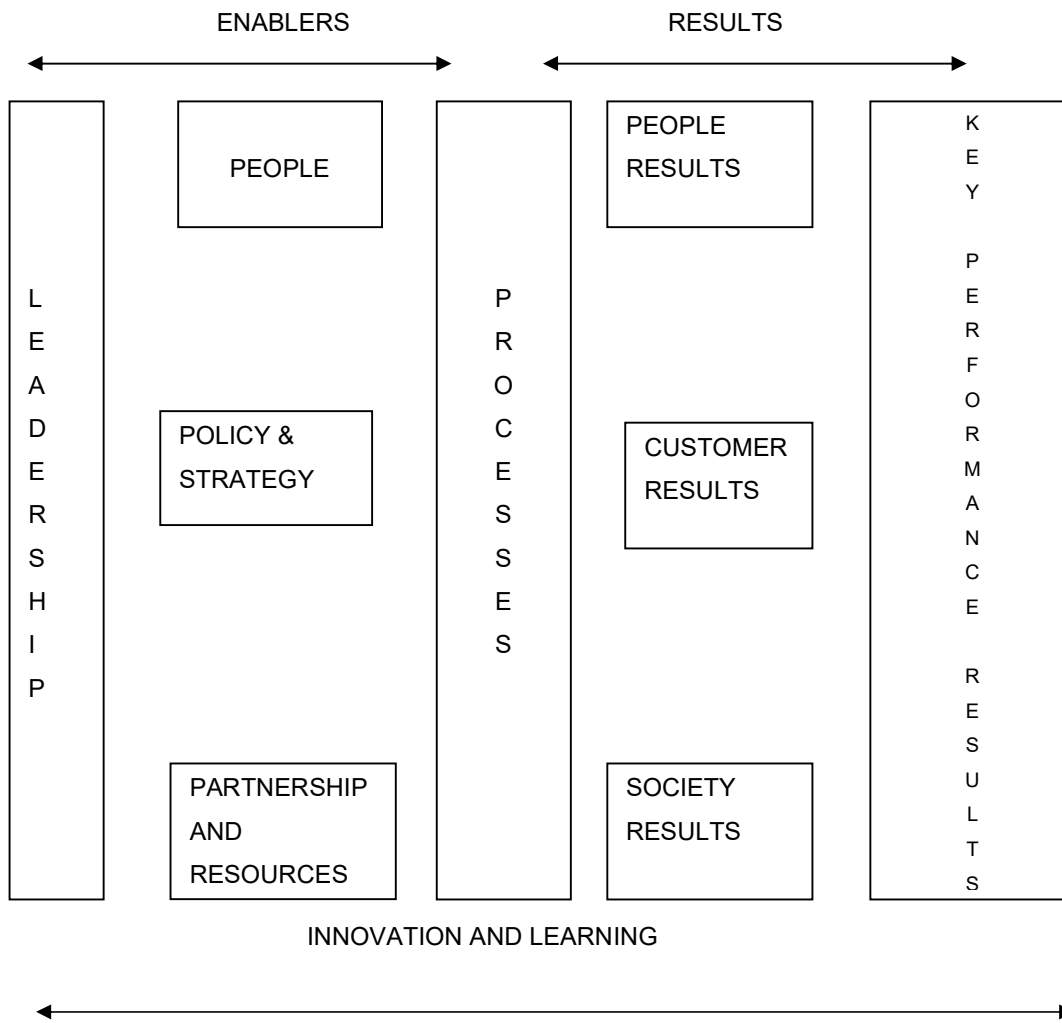
According to Finney (2008), some of the cultural traits that make up high-performance culture include co-worker involvement, risk-taking, co-worker cohesion, innovation, flexibility, internal communication and being future orientated.

In trying to understand what constitutes a high-performance culture in organisations and to develop an integrated high-performance organisational culture model, Van Heerden and Roodt (2007) studied different models and frameworks of performance excellence. Among other models, they identified the excellence model, the balanced scorecard and high-performance models as models that were commonly used by organisations to implement a high-performance culture. These models and the ways of measuring a high-performance culture are briefly discussed below.

2.6.1 The Excellence Model

The Excellence Model is registered by the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) and is used to measure organisational performance (Cook, 2004). This model enables organisations to compare and benchmark themselves against other similar institutions (Hakes, 2007). It has been used as a framework against which organisations that entered the European Excellence Awards could be judged, and it enables organisations to learn how to improve their performance.

Table2: The Excellence Model



Source: Cook (2004); Hakes (2007)

The EFQM Excellence Model is based on eight fundamental concepts, namely; “1) leadership and constancy of purpose; 2) continuous learning, innovation and improvement; 3) people development and innovation; 4) partnership development; 5) customer focus; 6) management by processes and facts; 7) corporate social responsibility; and 8) results orientation” (Hakes, 2007, p 14). The model comprises five key enablers (leadership, policy and strategy, people partnerships and resources, and processes) that assess what is being done in the organisation (Cook, 2004). These enablers are regarded as factors that influence the achievement of organisational results. The model is further comprised of four results criteria (customers, people, society and business stakeholders) that assess what the organisation has achieved (Hakes, 2007).

The South African Excellence Model provides a framework and direction that encourage a culture of high-performance in South African organisations (Van der Waldt, 2004). This model is based on the EFQM Excellence Model and their premise is similar, namely that high performing organisations have excellent leaders who develop and facilitate the achievement of organisations' missions and objectives by inspiring and supporting employees in order to create a culture of high-performance. The policies, plans and processes of these organisations are developed to support the delivery of their strategies. Furthermore, the people in the organisations are managed and developed to ensure achievement of their full potential at an individual, team and organisational level; external stakeholders and partnerships are managed appropriately; and processes are designed and improved to ensure internal and external customers are satisfied (Hakes, 2007; Van der Waldt, 2004).

In summary, "the level of excellence is determined by the effectiveness of an organisation's processes, supported by its policies and strategies, customer and market focus, people management, resources and information management that are driven by leadership" (Van Heerden & Roodt, 2007, p. 19). Learning and innovation are also important to organisational performance and excellence (Garcia-Morales et al., 2008).

2.6.2 The Balanced Scorecard

The balanced scorecard approach, which was first developed by Kaplan and Norton (as cited in Dressler, 2004), is based on the premise that the performance or effectiveness of an organisation should be measured from financial, customer, learning and growth as well as internal business processes perspectives (Dressler, 2004). Furthermore, these perspectives must balance and give top management a fast but comprehensive view of the organisation's performance. Each perspective must have objectives that are linked and aligned to the organisation's strategic direction (Dressler, 2004). Organisations use the balanced scorecard methodology to assess their performance and identify and close gaps so as to improve their performance. Van Heerden and Roodt (2007) used this methodology as a basis when developing the high-performance questionnaire used in this study. Organisations that want to encourage a high-performance culture also measure the individual performance of employees by making use of different performance management frameworks (Van Heerden & Roodt, 2007).

2.6.3 High-performance Organisations Model

Organisations that follow principles of a high-performance culture model have a distinguishable corporate culture and people and management systems that differentiate them from other organisations (Van Heerden & Roodt, 2007). Accordingly, these organisations have strong leaders as well as policies and procedures that support the achievement of their strategic objectives. These factors should have benefits for the organisations' employees and the communities that these organisations serve. High-performing organisational cultures, which are shaped around a clear, compelling corporate mission, shared organisational values that guide employee behaviour and influence business practices, and shared accountability, encourage (and indeed expect) employees to take ownership of their performance as well as of bottom-line results (Finney, 2008).

According to Osborne and Cowen (2002), a high-performing organisation has a culture that is characterised by the following: the vision is simple and compelling; employees can easily identify with the vision and all the employees believe in the vision; leadership and behaviour are values driven; employees are dissatisfied with their current performance and continuously seek opportunities to improve; and employees respect each other, value long-term relationships and have fun together.

In high-performing organisations, employees know what their organisation's vision, mission and strategies are (Kotter, 1995). Accordingly, the leaders are able to clearly articulate the vision and give direction. Hence, employees know what is expected of them as communication and dialogue channels are open, they have a clear understanding of and a firm belief in the organisation's vision, they feel valued, are committed and engaged, take ownership and have a "can do" attitude. Employees of high-performing organisations are willing to go the extra mile to ensure they achieve the set goals and objectives (Van Heerden & Roodt, 2007).

Finney (2008) points out that a high-performance culture can have a positive impact on employee engagement by providing meaning and emotional connection to its employees, preventing bad business practices, guiding and inspiring employee decisions, encouraging innovation, risk-taking and trust and attracting and retaining star performers. Furthermore, such a culture can align employees with diverse interests around the same goal. The leaders do not have to rely on power and authority to get results as they have a strong influence and are admired and respected.

According to Samson and Callis (1999), as cited in Van Heerden and Roodt (2007), organisations with a high-performance culture display trends such as; 1) a single, integrated strategy aimed at improving the organisation; 2) a conscious focus to create principles that will guide the management of behaviour in organisations; 3) active management of performance; 3) the linking of employee rewards to the success of the organisations; 4) benchmarking against other leading competitors; and 5) setting new stretch goals.

Organisations with a high-performance culture have a solid strategy based on precise performance measurements, a solid recognition system for great performers, and clear and transparent communication systems (Van Heerden & Roodt, 2007). These organisations implement performance management systems with the aim of reinforcing behaviour of high-performance, and not as performance measuring/appraisal tools that are used as checklists to appeasethair human resources requirements (Dwivedi, 1995). In addition to having an overall system that works, these organisations havesolid, transparent and fair rewards and recognition systems in place for high performers, and because these systems are credible, employees always know what is expected of them.In addition, these employees always know what is happening in the organisation (Van Heerden & Roodt, 2007).

Van Heerden and Roodt (2007) used the models discussed above to develop an integrated high-performance organisational model and a questionnaire to measure the high-performance culture. The model and the questionnaire are discussed below.

2.6.4 An Integrated High-performance Organisational Culture Model

Based on the different high-performance culture models they studied, Van Heerden and Roodt (2007) developed their own integrated high-performance organisational model (see Table 4). This model is made up of six elements, namely; 1) vision and strategy, 2) leadership, 3) core capabilities, 4) delivery process, 5) stakeholder satisfaction, and 6) organisational performance (Van Heerden & Roodt, 2007). These elements are grouped into three categories, namely, direction, delivery system and business results. Van Heerden and Roodt (2007) maintain that 1) vision and strategy as well as leadership give direction in the organisation, 2) the core capabilities of individuals, groups and the whole organisation, as well as the delivery process through policies and procedures, determine

the effectiveness of the organisation's delivery system, and 3) business results are achieved through stakeholder satisfaction and organisational performance. Each of the categories and elements are discussed below.

2.6.4.1 Direction

High-performing organisations give direction through a well-developed and clear vision and solid strategy (Van Heerden & Roodt, 2007) and their leaders give direction by communicating the vision with energy and passion (Helbesche, 2005). These leaders are committed to the vision and strategy and are able to translate this vision and strategy into achievable goals and milestones, communicate these to employees, as well as display a "can do" attitude that will motivate and inspire others to follow (Van Heerden & Roodt, 2007). Owing to the vision that is portrayed, the organisation is able to attract and retain high-performers, be a great place to work at and have employees that are highly committed to their jobs and the organisation. An organisation's vision forms the basis for its strategic objectives, policies and practices that will ensure that it maintains a sustainable competitive advantage (Mello, 2011).

2.6.4.2 Delivery System

A delivery system comprises all policies, procedures, practices, as well as performance management and reward systems that are in place and that will enable an organisation to achieve its set strategic objectives (Van Heerden & Roodt, 2007). Accordingly, core capabilities at different levels of the organisations are needed in order to support the organisation to achieve these set objectives. At an organisational level, the organisation is measured in terms of its ability to create an enabling and conducive working environment; at a team level it is measured in terms of its effectiveness to implement strategies that will enable teams and individuals to achieve their objectives; and at an individual level it is measured in terms of its ability to train and develop employees.

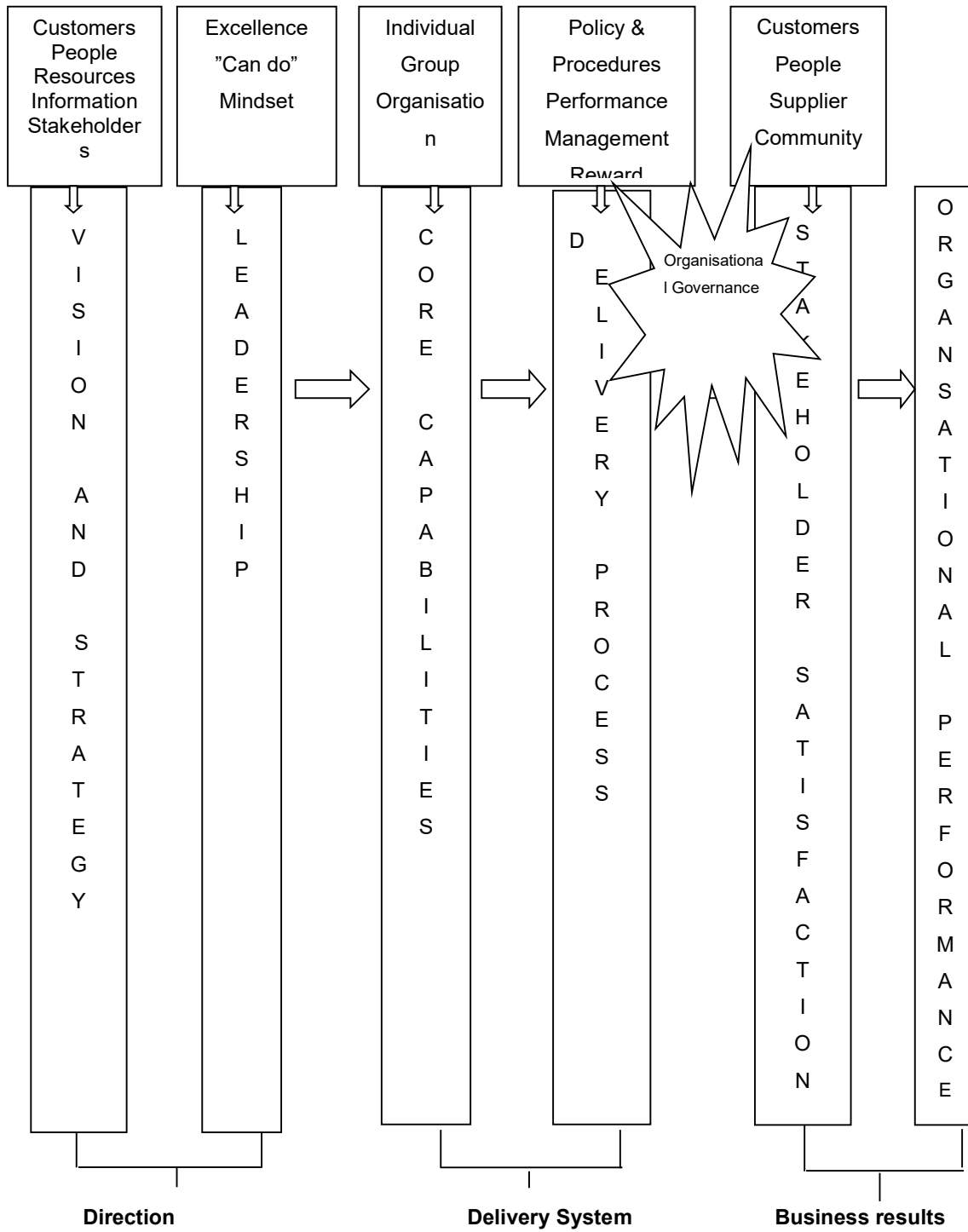
Job-related training, coaching and mentoring are some of the strategies used for employee development as well as for communication of organisational values and vision (Helbesche, 2005). The focus on employee engagement, an attractive employee value proposition and the ability to meet promises made through its employer brand are ways of ensuring that the

organisation's delivery system is effective in achieving its organisational objectives (Mello, 2011; Van Heerden & Roodt, 2007).

2.6.4.3 Business Results

Stakeholder satisfaction and organisational or financial success are the two determinants used by organisations to measure whether they have achieved their business results (Van Heerden & Roodt, 2007). Organisations are established in order to serve the community or clients or to make a profit. Hence they conduct customer surveys to determine whether the needs of the customers, community and other stakeholders have been met.

Table3: An Integrated High-performance Organisational Culture Model



Source: Van Heerden and Roodt (2007, p. 22)

2.6.5 Measuring high-performance cultures

Van Heerden and Roodt (2007) developed a High-performance Culture Questionnaire (HPCQ) consisting of 12 dimensions that measure the various dimensions of the integrated high-performance model. These dimensions are; “1) vision and strategy; 2) leadership; 3) core capability: organisation; 4) core capability: group/team; 5) core capability: individual; 6) reward system; 7) performance management; 8) policies and procedures; 9) stakeholder satisfaction: customer; 10) stakeholder satisfaction: supplier; 11) stakeholder satisfaction: community; and 12) stakeholder satisfaction: people” (Van Heerden & Roodt, 2007, p.24). In the current study, only 11 of the 12 dimensions were measured. The leadership dimension was removed as it was assessed extensively through the MLQ5X.

Having covered the key components pertaining to a high-performance culture, the link between transformational leadership and a high-performance culture is discussed in the next section.

2.7 TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND A HIGH-PERFORMANCE CULTURE

A wide range of literature describes the general influence of leadership on high-performance culture. Researchers have argued that leadership is at the core of organisational culture (Schein, 2010). Accordingly, leaders are believed to create and shape an organisation’s culture. It is impossible to expect organisations to have a high-performance culture without having the required leadership (Phillips, Phillips, & Zuniga, 2013).

According to Van Heerden and Roodt (2007), the key factor in improving organisational performance and transforming a low performance culture into a high-performance culture is leadership. Rashid et al. (2003) posit that leaders have a responsibility to develop and shape organisational cultures that are beneficial to employees and the organisation. Ogbonna and Harris (2000) maintain that there is interplay between leadership and organisational culture –as the culture is formed, it also influences and shapes the leaders’ behaviour.

Ahmed (1998) has expressed the opinion that leaders can create culture through the use of words. The degree of approval or disapproval attached to an expectation, and the

prevalence (crystallisation) with which the norm is shared have the power to influence an organisation's culture (Ahmed, 1998). Leaders set the tone in determining acceptable or non-acceptable behaviour. Ogbonna and Harris (2000) posit that the performance of an organisation is dependent on the alignment of employee values with the values of the company's strategy. Ahmed (1998) asserts that employees form priorities according to what leaders' value and use them to inform their behaviour.

Daft (2010) states that transformational leaders are able to improve and sustain business excellence through inspiring employees to perform to the best of their abilities to improve individual and organisational performance. To this, Sarros et al. (2008) add that transformational leadership has a positive influence on a competitive, performance-orientated organisational culture. However, less is known about the relationship with transformational leadership behaviours and high-performance culture.

Transformational leaders are able to transform their followers' personal values and organisational culture (Jung et al., 2008). Schein (2010) asserts that leadership is the source of beliefs and values and those leaders should be concerned about understanding the deeper levels of culture. The values that make up an organisation's culture are either a reflection of the underlying beliefs of the current leaders – particularly the chief executive – or of the heritage of past leaders (Barrett, 2006). Thus, organisational culture is created, embedded, evolved and manipulated by leaders.

Dwivedi (1995) asserts that top leadership has the ability to redefine an organisation's vision and mission that were originally in place. The premise that the South African Excellence Model is based on is that organisations with a high-performance culture have excellent leaders that encourage followers to reach a common understanding of and to achieve the vision and mission of their organisations (Van der Walddt, 2004). Transformational leaders create awareness and acceptance of the organisation's purpose (Garcia-Morales et al., 2008). Helbesche (2005) maintains that leaders in a high-performing organisation give direction by communicating the vision with energy and passion. They are committed to the vision and strategy, are able translate these into achievable goals and milestones and communicate them to employees (Van Heerden & Roodt, 2007).

Leaders who practise transformational leadership behaviours (TLB) help employees to understand the importance of having a shared vision and mission (Jung et al., 2008). The shared and aligned goals and values serve to motivate employees (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Transformational leaders use idealised influence to improve employees' self-concept and encourage their personal and collective identification with the goals and objectives of the leaders and the organisation (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

According to Kotter (1995), some of the reasons why organisations and leaders fail to change their cultures are due to under-communicating the vision and not anchoring changes in the corporate culture. Podsakoff et al. (1990) maintain that transformational leaders have the energy and commitment to change and create a high-performance culture. Transformational leaders are believed to have the capabilities of communicating a compelling vision and walking the talk, and, therefore, are able to inculcate change successfully (Kotter, 1995).

Ogbonna and Harris (2000) assert that transactional leaders are likely to function within the boundaries of an existing culture. However, transformational leaders are able to challenge and adjust to an ever-changing environment. They regularly work towards changing an organisation's culture in line with its vision (Ogbonna & Harris, 2000). These leaders have a great interest in organisational change and improvement (Evans & Lindsay, 2008). Hence, they promote and encourage a high-performance culture within their organisation.

Bass (1985) and Mokgolo et al. (2012) point out that leaders' transformational qualities lead and inspire followers to performance beyond expectations. Transformational leaders encourage employees to achieve a high level of team performance by elevating the needs of the team far above the selfish interests and needs of individuals (Jung & Sosik, 2002). Through inspirational motivation, transformational leaders inspire and encourage employees to accept challenging goals and to look beyond their self-interest (Mester et al., 2003). They create a good internal environment of warmth and trust (Conger, 1999) and encourage collaboration and teamwork (Aragón-Correra et al., 2007).

Managing employee performance through individualised consideration is an important element in being an effective leader (Podsakoff et al., 1990) and it results in higher levels of engagement, retention and organisational performance (Dwivedi, 1995). Sethibe and

Steyn (2015, p. 333) define organisational performance as “the ability to efficiently and effectively provide a service to the customer whilst maintaining superior financial results”. Organisational performance focuses on the operational as well as the financial aspects of performance (Sethibe & Steyn, 2015).

The operational side of performance is based on employees’ understanding of their role in the organisation and their individual contribution towards satisfying customer needs (Sethibe & Steyn, 2015). Intellectual stimulation allows transformational leaders to call on employee’s intellectual capabilities by challenging them to think creatively and find solutions to difficult problems (Antonakis et al., 2003). This is consistent with the view articulated by Podsakoff et al. (1990) that transformational leaders set high-performance expectations for their teams. Chan, Shaffer and Snape (2004) agree that leadership and an appropriate culture serve as the drivers of sustained superior performance.

Schneider (2014) maintains that transfer of learning, which has a positive impact on employee engagement, is also positively associated with superior performance. Leaders who practise TLB are committed to developing employees. They mentor and coach their employees, thereby contributing to employee engagement and improved performance (Bass & Riggio, 2006). A key determinant of employees’ superior performance is the degree to which transformational leaders care about employee development (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Such care is strongly associated with lower turnover, higher productivity and quality, and higher employee satisfaction (Evans & Lindsay, 2008).

Sorensen (2002) has identified innovation as being central to improving performance and achieving a high-performance culture. Garcia-Morales et al. (2008) add that transformational leadership is positively related to organisational performance through learning and innovation. Transformational leadership is regarded as a catalyst for innovation, which is fundamental to improved and sustained performance (Garcia-Morales et al., 2008). According to Jung et al. (2008), leaders who practise TLB are able to create an environment that is conducive to innovation. They empower employees to learn, take calculated risks and make decisions without fear of being penalised.

Jung et al. (2008) posit that leaders who exhibit TLB understand the role they play in the organisation and the type of influence their behaviour has on employees. They act as role models and are committed to ensuring that their behaviour is aligned with their organisation’s values and strategy. Ahmed (1998) maintains that when creating an

organisation's culture, leaders should be sensitive to the impact their behaviour has on employees. It enables them to close the gap between "leaderspeak" and the organisation's culture. A high-performance culture, therefore, depends on the commitment of top management to implement it and ensure its sustainability.

Although the literature contains some empirical studies on the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and organisational performance and culture, no empirical tests have been carried out (to the best of the researcher's knowledge) on the relationship between transformational leadership and a high-performance culture (which has been specified as a particular type of organisational culture). Nor has there been any investigation into the predictive value of TLB to the various dimensions of a high-performance culture. In terms of the latter, the literature discussed suggests that certain elements of TLB may influence particular dimensions of a high-performance culture. For example, there may be a relatively higher relationship between inspirational motivation behaviours and the vision and strategy dimension of a high-performance culture. Additionally, idealised influence behaviour may be associated with employees' collective identification with organisations' vision and goals (Bass & Riggio, 2006). By studying the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and high-performance culture, the study will contribute to the literature in building on the existing knowledge about the creation of high-performance cultures and the importance of transformational leadership behaviours. Furthermore, the study will meet the need to investigate the relationship between these two variables within a South African context, a need that has come to the fore because of the nation's efforts to improve its competitiveness and achieve social goals.

2.8 HYPOTHESES

The following two hypotheses were tested in this study:

- H1: There is a positive relationship between transformational leadership behaviours (TLB) and a high-performance culture (HPC).
- H2: There will be significant differences in the predictive value of transformational leadership behaviours (TLB) to the dimensions of a high-performance culture (HPC).

2.9 SUMMARY

Previous empirical research indicates that transformational leadership has a positive influence on job satisfaction, employee performance and innovation (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). The preceding literature review also shows that scholars posit a positive relationship between transformational leadership and the creation of a high-performance organisational culture (Van Heerden & Roodt, 2007). However, there have been very few studies that have explicitly tested the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours (TLB) and a high-performance culture (HPC). TLB is defined as comprising five major behaviours: idealised influence (attributes and behaviours), individual consideration, intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation. A close reading of the description of the behaviours within each sub-element suggests the possibility that these elements display different associations with the various dimensions of a high-performance culture. In Chapter 3 the methodology of the research, an investigation of these associations will be explained.

CHAPTER 3:RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

In chapter 3, the research paradigm/philosophy, the broad research design, sampling and data collection and data collection procedures that were followed during the study will be discussed. The chapter will conclude by also discussing the research ethics followed.

3.1 RESEARCH PARADIGM / PHILOSOPHY

A quantitative research design, which is about “explaining phenomena by collecting numerical data that are analysed using mathematically based methods, in particular, statistics” (Muijs, 2011, p. 1) was used to test the proposed hypotheses. Furthermore, a positivist research approach, the primary goal of which is to objectively measure and observe a phenomenon, was adopted (Ponterotto, 2005). Positivist research approach is regarded as a scientific method involving logical examination and explanation of a phenomenon within a predetermined framework, the presentation of hypotheses, the implementation of a study in a controlled environment, the use of inferential statistics to test hypotheses and the interpretation of results whilst taking into consideration the original theory (Ponterotto, 2005). A positivist research approach enables the researcher to remain objective and unbiased and to act as an observer (Racher & Robinson, 2003).

3.2 DESCRIPTION OF INQUIRY STRATEGY AND BROAD RESEARCH DESIGN

This study was based on a cross-sectional design that involved the collection of dependent and independent variables at the same time or at one point (Kumar, 2008). A cross-sectional design is appropriate to be used in research that is aimed at determining the pervasiveness of a phenomenon by taking a cross-section of the population. The current study was aimed at testing the relationships between two constructs, namely those of transformational leadership behaviours and a high-performance culture. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ5X form 5X) was used to measure transformational leadership and the High-performance Culture Questionnaire (HPCQ) was used to measure high-performance culture. These two questionnaires, along with demographic and background questions, were used together in a survey.

3.3 SAMPLING AND DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

Purposive sampling, also known as judgmental sampling (Kumar, 2008), was used to select the sample for the study. According to Gerrish and Lacey (2010), purposive sampling is used when the researcher knows and understands the population, its fundamentals and the goal of the study. The participants are selected according to the preselected criteria that are relevant to the research question (Gerrish & Lacey, 2010). Furthermore, purposive sampling is used when the goal is not to produce a sample that is representative of the target population but to represent certain characteristics that are considered to be applicable to the study.

The research was carried out in Gauteng, South Africa. A survey questionnaire was sent to 200 senior, middle and junior leaders in five different organisations that operate in different industries. The leaders in these organisations have an average of three people reporting to them. Thus, the senior and middle level leaders were all in charge of subordinates who were managers. The leaders were asked to complete the MLQ5X, which was a self-assessment of their own leadership style. The leaders were also asked to distribute the surveys to their subordinates. The subordinates of each leader completed the MLQ5X as well as the HPCQ. All in all, 56 leaders and 153 subordinates participated in the survey.

In the initial conceptualisation of the research, the intent was to also determine whether there was a significant difference in the leaders' perceptions and the subordinates' perceptions of leaders' leadership styles. The completion of the surveys was to be followed up with interviews with the leaders to gain a deeper insight into their subjective understanding of TLB. However, due to challenges in gaining access to leaders to do interviews as well as in getting an adequate number of subordinates per leader, the study was confined to examining the relationship between TLB and HPC using subordinate ratings of TLB and HPC. Questions were included in the survey to gather demographic information about the sample, such as age, gender, management level, management experience and number of years working in the organisation.

Measures

The independent variable, namely TLB, was measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, also known as MLQ5X (Avolio & Bass, 2008). This questionnaire

determines whether leaders exhibit TLB that reflect a laissez-faire management style, a management-by-exception (passive) style, a management-by-exception (active) style, a transactional or a transformational leadership style (Roth, 2003). Furthermore, it measures the elements of transformational leadership (idealised influence (attributes), idealised influence (behaviour), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration), as well as leaders' effectiveness, extra effort and satisfaction (Bass & Avolio, 1993).

The MLQ5X also allows for self-reporting and subordinate reporting (Roth, 2003). It is comprised of a 45-question leader form and a 45-question rating form that uses a numerical frequency scale ranging from 0 = "not at all" to 4 = "frequently" (Antonakis et al., 2003). One of the questions is, "Does the person I am rating 1) provide me with assistance in exchange for my effort, and 2) fail to interfere until problems become serious". According to Roth (2003), the MLQ5X has been subjected to statistical analysis to establish its reliability. The reported reliabilities from previous research for the total items and for each leadership factor scale ranged from 0,74 to 0,94 (Roth, 2003). This indicated that the MLQ5X was highly reliable and could be used for the current study.

The High-performance Culture Questionnaire (HPCQ) developed by Van Heerden and Roodt (2007) was used to measure a high-performance culture (the dependent variable). The scale consists of twelve dimensions, namely; 1) vision and strategy, 2) leadership, 3) core capability: organisation, 4) core capability: group, 5) core capability: individuals, 6) reward systems, 7) performance management, 8) policies and procedures, 9) stakeholder satisfaction: customer, 10) stakeholder satisfaction: supplier, 11) stakeholder satisfaction: community, and 12) stakeholder satisfaction: people". In this study, the leadership dimension was not used as the MLQ5X was used to measure leadership. Hence, only 11 dimensions of the HPCQ were measured via the survey.

The HPCQ uses a numerical frequency scale that ranges from 1 = "very negative" to 5 = "very positive". Some of the questions are: "How optimistic are you about the management plans for the future?"; "How well does the team understand the goals?" and; "How often are people in your organisation, who perform well, rewarded accordingly?" (Van Heerden & Roodt, 2007). The researcher was granted permission to use the questionnaire. The HPCQ was completed by the subordinates only. The survey used in the study is available in Appendix A.

In previous research, factor analyses, followed by interactive item analyses, were used to determine the validity and reliability of the HPCQ (Van Heerden & Roodt, 2007). Furthermore, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were used to determine the appropriateness of conducting factor analysis. The statistical analyses indicated that the measuring instrument had construct validity and was internally consistent with a Cronbach's alpha of 0,947 for the scale (Van Heerden & Roodt, 2007). The iterative item analyses yielded sound metric properties for each dimension (Van Heerden & Roodt, 2007).

3.4 DATA ANALYSIS

In the current study, data were analysed using rigorous statistical analysis techniques and the results were interpreted based on the established values for statistical significance. Data analysis proceeded in three phases. Firstly, exploratory factor analyses were conducted for each construct to determine if they were unidimensional constructs. Secondly, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients, a measure of internal consistency (reliability) for each of the MLQ5X and HPCQ, were calculated. Finally, the hypotheses were first tested using Pearson product-moment correlation followed by multiple regression analysis to gain a better understanding of the relationship between TLB and the different HPC dimensions.

All the statistical analyses (namely, descriptive, factor analysis, Cronbach's alpha, Pearson product-moment correlation and regression analysis) were done using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23.

3.5 RESEARCH ETHICS

All ethical issues were addressed during all stages of the research and the ethical guidelines of the University of Pretoria's Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences Research Ethics Committee were complied with. Ethical clearance was obtained through the ethics process of the university's Department of Human Resource Management. See Annexure B for a copy of the approval letter. Written permission was also received from the organisations in which the study was conducted.

All participants were asked to complete a consent form before participating in the study. The form indicated that the participants would be guaranteed anonymity. The consent letter

indicated that they gave permission to be involved in the study and acknowledged that their rights would be protected. The participants were informed that although the results of the study would be shared with the academic community, these results could in no way be traced back to them.

The anonymity of the participants was protected by numerically coding each questionnaire and keeping the responses confidential. All study data, including survey questionnaires, were kept in locked file cabinets in the researcher's office and would be destroyed after a reasonable period of time had elapsed as per the University of Pretoria's IP regulations.

The researcher remained objective, honest and did not falsify the data collected. The researcher collected data through the survey sent to the sample of managers and their subordinates. The data were collected using standardised procedures, including reliability and validity checks of the measures.

In chapter 3, the research paradigm and procedures that were followed in collecting and analysing data were discussed. In chapter 4, the results of the study will be discussed.

CHAPTER 4:RESULTS

In this chapter, the results of the research are presented and discussed.

The demographic items used to gather information on the sample, such as age, gender, management level, management experience and number of years working in the organisation, were part of the survey. The demographic characteristics of the participants are summarised in Tables 4 and 5.

Table 4: Respondents' Demographic Characteristics (Managers)

Demographic characteristics	No.	%
Gender		
Male	20	35,7
Female	36	64,3
Age in years		
18–24	0	0
25–30	3	5,4
31–34	8	14,2
35–40	22	39,3
41–50	20	35,7
51–60	3	5,4
No. of years in organisation		
Less than a year	1	1,8
1–2 years	3	5,4
3–4 years	15	26,8
5–7 years	18	32,1
8–10	12	21,4
11–14	4	7,1
15 years and more	0	0
Missing Information	3	5,4
Management positions		

Junior management	30	53,6
Middle management	16	28,6
Senior management	10	17,8

As indicated in Table 4, out of the 56 managers who responded to the survey, the majority were at junior management level (53,6%). The majority of these respondents were females (64,3%). The majority of the respondents were between the ages of 35 and 40 (39,3%), and the majority of them (32,1%) had been with the organisation for between five and seven years.

Table 5: Respondents' Demographic Characteristics (Subordinates)

Demographic characteristics	No.	%
Gender		
Male	67	43,8
Female	86	56,2
Age in years		
18–24	1	0,7
25–30	4	2,6
31–34	9	5,9
35–40	62	40,5
41–50	72	47
51–60	5	3,3
No. of years in the organisation		
Less than a year	0	0
1–2 years	9	5,9
3–4 years	21	13,7
5–7 years	49	32
8–10 years	43	28,1
11–14 years	20	13,1
15 years and more	4	2,6
Missing Information	7	4,6

Years with leader		
Less than a year	6	3,9
1–2 years	70	45,7
3–4 years	60	39,2
5–7 years	15	9,8
8–10 years	1	0,7
14 years and more	1	0,7
Subordinates' positions		
Junior management and lower	93	60,8
Middle management	60	39,2

Table 5 shows that out of the 153 subordinates who responded to the survey, the majority were at junior management and lower levels (60,8%) whereas 56,2% of the respondents were females. The majority of the respondents were between the ages of 41 and 50 (47%). This is an indication that most of the respondents had significant work experience. Most of the subordinates had worked with their leaders between one and two years (45,7%), and 32% of the respondents had been with the organisation for between five and seven years.

4.1 FACTOR ANALYSIS

DeCoster (1998, p. 1) defines factor analysis as “a collection of methods used to examine how underlying constructs influence the responses on a number of measured variables”. Exploratory factor analysis is viewed as the systematic overview of interrelated items (DeCoster, 1998).

There are different opinions about conducting a factor analysis or not. In the current study it was decided to conduct a factor analysis of the TLB and HPC measures to assess the dimensionality of these constructs. Based on recommendations in the literature, exploratory factor analysis was used to confirm the unidimensionality of each of the constructs for each of the instruments (DeCoster, 1998; Zhan, 2008). According to Yu (2001), a high Cronbach's alpha does not necessarily imply the absence of multiple latent dimensions and that consistency and dimensionality must be assessed separately.

Furthermore, unidimensionality is a subset of consistency, and if a test is unidimensional it will show internal consistency. However, if a test is internally consistent, it does not necessarily entail one construct only (Gardner, 1995, 1996).

According to Pallant (2011), two issues should be considered in ascertaining whether the data collected are appropriate for factor analysis: the sample size and the strength of the relationship among the items. Previous research indicated that correlation coefficients of small sample sizes were not reliable. The sample size for the analysis in the current study was 153 cases (only the subordinates), which was deemed sufficient to conduct a factor analysis. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy were used to ascertain whether the factor analysis was appropriate.

A factor analysis was performed in respect of both the independent variable (TLB) and the dependent variable (HPC). The results are shown in Table 6 and Table 7 respectively, which contain the values for the KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity. The percentage of variance is explained by the extracted factors based on the Kaiser eigenvalue criterion of above 1, the extracted factor loadings and the associated Cronbach's alpha values.

Table6: Transformational Leadership BehaviourFactor Analysis

Idealisedinfluence attributes	KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Variance explained (%)	Factor loadings	Cronbach'salpha
Q10: Instills pride in others for being associated with him/her.	KMO = 0,801 Bartlett ($p < 0,001$)	66,95%	0,885	0,885
Q18: Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group.			0,866	
Q21: Acts in ways that build others' respect for him/her.			0,901	
Q25: Displays a sense of power and confidence.			0,576	
Idealised influence behaviour				
Q6: Talks about their most important values and beliefs.	KMO = 0,783 Bartlett ($p < 0,001$)	61,71%	0,736	0,854
Q14: Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.			0,921	
Q23: Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.			0,583	
Q34: Emphasises the importance of having a collective sense of mission.			0,859	

Inspirational motivation			
Q9: Talks optimistically about the future.			0,871
Q13: Talks enthusiastically of what needs to be achieved.	69,54%		0,865
Q26: Articulates a compelling vision of the future.		KMO = 0,833 Bartlett ($p < 0,001$)	0,817
Q36: Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved.			0,779
			0,898
Intellectual stimulation			
Q2: Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.			0,694
Q8: Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems.	67,61%		0,822
Q30: Gets others to look at problems from many different angles.			0,882
Q32: Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.		KMO = 0,817 Bartlett ($p < 0,001$)	0,877
			0,891

Individualised consideration			
Q15: Spends time teaching and coaching.			0,843
Q19: Treats others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group.	37%		0,868
Q29: Considers an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others.			0,895
Q31: Helps others to develop their strengths.		KMO = 0,835	0,842
Q35: Expresses satisfaction when others meet expectations.		Bartlett ($p < 0,001$)	0,887
Q24: Keeps track of all mistakes.			0,918
Q27: Directs attention to dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures.			0,633
Q20: Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before action can be taken.			0,865
Q7: Is absent when needed.			0,620
Q28: Avoids making decisions.			0,814
Q33: Delays responding to urgent questions.			0,760
Q41: Works with others in a satisfactory way.			0,894
Q45: Leads a group that is effective.			0,833

The factor analysis computed above indicates that the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy for all the MLQ5X measures were all above the recommended threshold of 0,5. The KMOs ranged from 0,783 (idealised influence (behaviour) being the lowest, to 0,835 (individualised consideration) being the highest. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for all the measures was also significant ($p < 0,001$) for all the items dealing with understanding the different MLQ5X constructs. This was an indication that factor analyses were appropriate for all constructs.

The analyses also identified only one factor for each of the MLQ5X constructs based on the eigenvalue criterion (eigenvalue greater than 1), which was consistent with what was reported. This confirmed the purported dimensionality of TLB. The factors' explained variance ranged from 61,71% for idealised influence (behaviour) to 74,37% for individualised consideration. The Cronbach's alphas of the different MLQ5X leader behaviour subscales were also computed. For the present research, all the reliabilities were high (between 0,854 and 0,914), exceeding the suggested threshold of 0,70 for internal consistency as recommended (Tejeda, Scandura, & Pillai, 2001).

The factor analysis for the HPC variables is shown in Table 7.

Table7: High-performanceCulture Questionnaire Factor Analysis

Vision and strategy	KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Variance explained (%)	Factor loadings	Cronbach's alpha
How inspired are you about top management's vision?			0,971	
How optimistic are you about management's plans for the future?			0,956	
How sufficient is communication on the organisation's strategy?	KMO = 0,892		0,875	
How well does management focus simultaneously on long-term sustainability and short-term goals?	Bartlett ($p < 0,001$)	70,88%	0,869	0,931
How well are the people development strategies aligned with the organisation's business strategy?			0,741	
How strongly does your manager believe that there is a future for your organisation?			0,572	
Core capability:organisation				
How trustworthy is management in your organisation?		71,15%	0,932	
To what extent is the culture of your organisation described as trustworthy?	KMO = 0,922		0,898	
How beneficial is the competitive environment for the employees in the organisation?	Bartlett ($p < 0,001$)		0,866	0,944
How important is respecting diversity in your organisation?			0,825	

How sufficient is the communication of the organisation's financial standing to all employees?			0,814	
To what extent does your organisation ensure that employees are provided with learning opportunities to do their job better?			0,809	
How willing are the people to go the extra mile?			0,748	
Core capability:group/team				
To what extent do managers and employees respect each other's different interests?	KMO = 0,801		0,852	
How well does your team understand their goals?	Bartlett ($p < 0,001$)		0,846	
To what extent are your colleagues/peers free to share their suggestions with management?			0,818	
How often does your team seek new ways of doing things?			0,814	0,897
To what extent do your team members support each other?		58,79%	0,772	
To what extent do your team members respect each other?			0,694	
How well are employees kept uptodate on matters that affect their jobs?			0,515	
Core capability:individual				
			Fa1	Fa2
How well do you cope with your current workload?	KMO = 0,905	5,62%	0,951	0,697

How satisfied are you with the amount of responsibility that you have been given in your job?	Bartlett ($p < 0,001$)	0,887	
To what extent do you use your initiative at work?		0,832	
How accountable are you for the quality of your work?		0,688	
To what extent are you encouraged to come up with innovative solutions to work-related issues?		0,616	
To what extent do you believe that you have the relevant competence to meet the challenges of your job?		0,522	
How empowered are you to take control of your own development within your organisation?		0,818	
How positive are your working relationships?		0,476	0,297
How sufficient are your physical working conditions?		0,315	
Reward systems			
How often are people in your organisation who perform well rewarded accordingly?		0,879	
To what extent do all employees at the same level receive benefits in your organisation?	62,93%	0,851	
To what extent does your total remuneration package match the responsibilities?	KMO = 0,827	0,773	0,809
How often in the last six months have you received recognition for work that you had done well?	Bartlett ($p < 0,001$)	0,741	
How often do you receive praise when you do a good job?		0,710	
Performance management			

To what extent have your goals been agreed to by your manager?		66,20%	0,868	
How well does your organisation conduct fair performance reviews?			0,839	
To what extent do you believe that your performance is linked to a good performance rating?	KMO = 0,904		0,838	
How sufficient is the feedback you receive regarding your work performance?	Bartlett ($p < 0,001$)		0,824	0,932
To what extent does your organisation keep you accountable for meeting goals?			0,776	
To what extent does your direct manager give you honest positive and negative feedback related to your performance?			0,773	
How often in the last six months has your career path in the organisation been discussed?			0,771	
Policies and procedures				
How well do you understand your company's ethics policy?			0,842	
How committed is your organisation to have clear policy and commitment towards dealing with HIV/AIDS in the workplace?	KMO = 0,867	51,39%	0,818	
To what extent are the staff procurement procedures applied fairly in your organisation?	Bartlett ($p < 0,001$)		0,725	0,858
To what extent are the company policies and procedures clearly communicated to your team?			0,683	
How well do you understand the link between employment equity plans and business success?			0,622	

To what extent are the disciplinary procedures applied fairly to all employees?			0,571	
Stakeholder satisfaction:customer				
To what extent does your organisation consider the customer's needs and expectations when making decisions?		71,24%	0,962	
To what extent does your organisation consider that its products and services meet the requirements of the customer?	KMO = 0,871		0,947	
How much value does your organisation place on customer feedback?	Bartlett ($p < 0,001$)		0,919	0,901
To what extent has your organisation refrained from abusing its power/position towards its customers?			0,860	
How accurate is the feedback from customers to your organisation?			0,393	
Stakeholder satisfaction:supplier				
How much value does your organisation place on supplier feedback?	KMO = 0,749	66,36%	0,887	
How much emphasis does your company place on its suppliers being important partners in their business?	Bartlett ($p < 0,001$)		0,878	0,885
To what extent has your organisation refrained from abusing its power/position towards its suppliers?			0,781	
To what extent has your organisation allowed its suppliers to participate in business decisions?			0,698	

Stakeholder satisfaction:community				
To what extent does your organisation act in a socially responsible manner?	KMO = 0,731		0,942	
How significant is your company's contribution to the development of the community?	Bartlett ($p < 0,001$)		0,883	0,904
To what extent does your organisation encourage employees to become involved in community upliftments?		76,68%	0,796	
Stakeholder satisfaction:people				
To what extent does your organisation look after its people?	KMO = 0,919	71,94%	0,933	0,939
To what extent has your organisation's BBBEE policy been communicated to all?	Bartlett ($p < 0,001$)		0,922	
To what extent does your organisation encourage a healthy work-life balance?			0,862	
To what extent has your company established a good relationship with employees?			0,856	
How easily would you encourage your friends to join your organisation?			0,844	
How proactive is your organisation in the advancement of previously disadvantaged individuals?			0,685	
To what extent are black suppliers promoted within your organisation's commercial policy?			0,582	

How satisfied are you that your job gives you the opportunity to do what you are best at doing?	0,947	
How interesting is your work?	0,899	0,890
How strongly do you believe that your job contributes to the success of the business?	0,769	
To what extent is your workplace a fun place to work?	0,640	

NoteFa1 = Factor loadings 1 Fa2 = Factor loadings 2

The factor analysis computed for the HPC indicated that all the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy values for all the dimensions were above the recommended threshold of 0,5. The KMOs ranged from 0,731 (Stakeholder satisfaction: community) being the lowest, to 0,919 (Stakeholder satisfaction: people) being the highest.

The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for all constructs was also significant ($p < 0,001$).

The analysis identified that nine out of the eleven HPC constructs confirmed a single factor based on the eigenvalue criterion (eigenvalue greater than 1). The factors explained a variance ranging from 51,39% for Policies and procedures to 71,24% for Stakeholder satisfaction: customer.

The analysis also identified two constructs (Core capability: individual and Stakeholder satisfaction: people) that loaded on two factors. These two factors, in each construct, were subsequently treated as two sub-constructs and were analysed separately.

The above results indicated high internal consistencies (0,809 to 0,944) for the nine constructs. The Cronbach's alphas of the remaining two constructs consisting of two factors were also computed and are shown in Table 8.

**Table8: Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients for Core Capability (Individual1 and 2)
Stakeholder Satisfaction (People1 and 2)**

Item – total statistics					
Core capability: individual1	Scale mean if item deleted	Scale variance if item deleted	Corrected item – total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted	Cronbach's alpha
Belief in own competence	18,72	18,217	0,647	0,887	0,895
Coping with workload	19,01	15,513	0,776	0,868	
Satisfied with responsibility	19,10	15,792	0,782	0,866	
Use of initiative	19,08	16,723	0,789	0,866	
Accountability for quality of work	18,38	18,197	0,699	0,881	
Encouragement for innovative solutions	19,16	17,506	0,640	0,888	
Core capability: individual2					
Empowered – takes control of development	7,95	20,754	0,359	0,160	0,297
Sufficient working conditions	7,00	4,039	0,203	0,760	
Positive working relationships	7,63	20,378	0,290	0,173	
Stakeholder satisfaction: people1					
Healthy WLB	17,98	46,924	0,860	0,927	0,941
Good relationship with employees	18,24	44,036	0,917	0,921	
Promotion of black suppliers	17,73	55,073	0,686	0,943	
Communication of BBBEE policy	18,37	53,167	0,658	0,944	
Looking after employees	18,17	42,635	0,928	0,921	
Proactiveness in PDI advancement	17,59	54,642	0,738	0,940	
Encouragement to join the company	17,99	43,938	0,934	0,919	
Stakeholder satisfaction: people2					
Opportunity to do best	11,23	7,819	0,792	0,846	0,890
Interesting work	11,09	7,631	0,815	0,837	
Job contributes to job success	10,49	9,492	0,690	0,887	
Fun place to work	11,67	7,703	0,762	0,859	

Note. WLB = Work life balance . BBBEE = Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment

PDI = Previously Disadvantaged Individuals.

The above results indicated high internal consistency (reliabilities) for the items that loaded onto the first factor for each construct (0,895 and 0,941). The second factor of Stakeholder satisfaction: people also indicated a high internal consistency (reliability) of 0,890. However, the second factor of Core capability: individual showed a very low internal consistency (reliability) of 0,297. The analysis further indicated that by deleting the statement referring to sufficient working conditions, the Cronbach's alpha increased to 0,76, leaving the two items to remain as a second construct.

In testing the hypotheses, the original 11 dimensions of the HPC as well as the two dimensions that emerged were used.

4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics, namely means and standard deviations, were computed for each of the MLQ5X and the HPC sub-constructs. The mean is a sum of all the scores for a specific variable divided by the number of observations, and the standard deviation of a set of observations shows the spread of distribution around the mean (Salkind, 2012). The standard deviation is indicated in the same units of measurement as the original data. A small standard deviation means that the scores are clustered closely around the mean, whereas a larger standard deviation is an indication that the scores deviate significantly from the mean (Salkind, 2012). The means and standard deviations of the constructs are presented in Table 9.

**Table9: Transformational Leadership Behaviour and High-performance Culture
Questionnaire Descriptive Statistics**

TLB elements	Mean	Std. deviation
Idealised influence (attributes)	3,22	0,88
Idealised influence (behaviour)	2,28	0,54
Inspirational motivation	2,95	0,89
Intellectual stimulation	2,81	0,83
Individualised consideration	2,97	0,96
HPCQ		
Vision and strategy	2,77	1,03
CC organisation	2,88	1,00
CC group/team	3,62	0,81
CC individual1	3,78	0,82
CC individual2	3,50	1,00
Reward systems	2,76	0,95
Performance management	3,10	0,92
Policies and procedures	3,14	0,79
SS customer	3,36	0,95
SS supplier	2,80	0,71
SS community	3,56	0,82
SS people1	3,00	1,16
SS people2	3,71	0,94

Note. Std.= Standard . HPCQ = High Performance Culture Questionnaire CC =Core Capability .SS = Stakeholder Satisfaction .

The lowest MLQ5X element was Idealised influence (behaviour) (Mean = 2,28, Standard deviation = 0,54), and the highest was Idealised influence (attributes) (Mean = 3,22, Standard deviation = 0,88).

Table 8 also shows that out of the 11HPC dimensions that were computed, the lowest score was in respect of Reward system (Mean = 2,76, Standard deviation = 0,95), and the highest was in respect of CC individual1 (Mean = 3,78, Standard deviation = 0,92).

4.3 PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATION ANALYSES

The Pearson product-moment correlation was computed in order to determine whether there was a positive relationship between each of the sub-elements of TLB (the five's) and HPC. The size of the computed correlation is represented by the letter *r* and is used to

determine the strength and direction (positive or negative) of the linear relationships between variables (Hatcher, 2003). The results can show that there is a positive or a negative relationship or no relationship between the variables (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011). A positive correlation indicates that an increase in the value of one variable leads to an increase in the value of another. A negative correlation means that an increase in one variable leads to a decrease in the other variable (Hatcher, 2003). According to Gravetter and Wallnau (2011), the Pearson product-moment correlation only describes the relationship between the variables and does not explain any causality between them.

Table 10 contains the Pearson product-moment correlations that were computed between TLB and the HPC elements.

Table 10: Pearson Product-Moment Correlations

Correlations													
TLB elements	Vision & strategy	Core capability: organisation	Core capability: group	Reward systems	Performance management	Policies & procedures	Stakeholder satisfaction: customer	Stakeholder satisfaction: supplier	Stakeholder satisfaction: community	Core capability: individual1	Core capability: individual2	Stakeholder satisfaction: people1	Stakeholder satisfaction: people2
Idealised influence (attributes)	0.437**	0.385**	0.736**	0.557**	0.737**	0.521**	0.345**	0.360**	0.448**	0.591**	0.480**	0.422**	0.496**
Idealised influence (behaviour)	0.359**	0.357**	0.577**	0.521**	0.698**	0.501**	0.261**	0.325**	0.434**	0.533**	0.402**	0.430**	0.373**
Inspirational motivation	0.447**	0.416**	0.681**	0.547**	0.711**	0.522**	0.385**	0.324**	0.431**	0.565**	0.494**	0.449**	0.505**
Intellectual stimulation	0.438**	0.438**	0.706**	0.571**	0.752**	0.558**	0.395**	0.340**	0.476**	0.633**	0.534**	0.471**	0.502**
Individualised consideration	0.443**	0.430**	0.741**	0.553**	0.764**	0.558**	0.382**	0.353**	0.493**	0.629**	0.524**	0.479**	0.535**

* $p < 0,5$. ** $p < 0,01$. *** $p < 0,001$.

According to Hatcher (2003), the following guidelines should be followed when interpreting the strength of the relationship: if $r = 0,01-0,29$: small; if $r = 0,30-0,49$: medium and; if $r = 0,50-1,0$: large).

Table 10 shows that all TLB elements on the MLQ5X (Idealised influence (attributes), Idealised influence (behaviour), Inspirational motivation, Intellectual stimulation and Individualised consideration) are strongly correlated with performance management ($r = 0,737$, $r = 0,698$, $r = 0,711$, $r = 0,752$ and $r = 0,764$) respectively. The TLB elements are also highly correlated with Core capability: group ($r = 0,736$, $r = 0,577$, $r = 0,681$, $r = 0,706$, $r = 0,741$) and Core capability: individual1 ($r = 0,591$, $r = 0,533$, $r = 0,565$, $r = 0,633$, $r = 0,629$). All the p values were less than 0,05 ($p \leq 0,05$), which indicated that there was a statistically significant correlation between TLB elements and performance management, Core capability: group and Core capability: individual1.

Results further showed that the transformational leadership elements that indicated whether a leader practised TLB, were moderately and positively correlated with the remaining HPC dimensions (Vision and strategy, Core capability: organisation, Stakeholder satisfaction: customer, Stakeholder satisfaction: supplier, Stakeholder satisfaction: community and Stakeholder satisfaction: people). Their p values were also less than 0,05 ($p \leq 0,05$), which indicated that there was a statistically significant correlation between the TLB elements and the remaining HPC constructs.

As all the correlation coefficients were positive, it indicated that when leaders scored high on TLB, scores on HPC were also high. It can, therefore, be concluded that there was a positive relationship between TLB and HPC. The more a leader practised TLB, the higher the perception of a high-performance culture by subordinates in the organisation. Therefore, hypothesis 1 could be accepted.

4.4 MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSES

As far as hypothesis 1 is concerned, the Pearson product-moment correlation analysis indicated an overall positive relationship between TLB and HPC. To test hypothesis 2, multiple regression analyses were performed. Hypothesis 2 stated as follows: There will be significant differences in the predictive value of transformational leadership behaviours (TLB) to the dimensions of a high-performance culture (HPC). The aim of conducting

multiple regression analyses was to understand the predictive value of TLB to the different dimensions of HPC. This will be done by computing the R^2 , which indicates how well a regression model predicts responses for new observations (Field, 2005). In the regressions, each of the HPC dimensions were the dependent variables, and the elements of TLB were the independent variables.

According to Field (2005), the variance inflation factor (VIF) values that exceed 10 are regarded as indicating multicollinearity and can therefore be disregarded. In the preliminary analysis, one of the TLB elements (Individual consideration) was multicollinear (tolerance = 0,097, VIF = 10,310), meaning that individual consideration correlated highly with one or more of the other predictor variables. This further indicated that Individual consideration could be linearly predicted from the others with a substantial degree of accuracy, and would thus not be considered in subsequent analyses. This resulted in four TLB elements. Tables 11 to 23 summarise the descriptive statistics and regression analyses results.

Table 11 provides the descriptive statistics and analysis results when Vision and strategy was a dependent variable. The multiple linear regression model with the four predictors explained 21% of the variance in the Vision and strategy dimension of HPC ($R^2 = 0,212$, $F(5, 129) = 6,927$, $p < 0,001$). The only statistically significant predictor of Vision and strategy was Inspirational motivation ($p < 0,05$), indicating that a change in a unit of Inspirational motivation would have the most impact on an increase in Vision and strategy.

Table 11: Regression – Results for Vision and Strategy Dimension

Descriptive statistics			
	Mean	Std. deviation	Standardised β
Vision and strategy	2,8136	1,05292	
Idealised influence attributes	3,1352	0,97677	-0,059
Idealised influence behaviours	2,3685	0,86755	-0,151
Inspirational motivation	2,8667	0,98250	0,377*
Intellectual stimulation	2,7815	0,90677	0,289

Note. Std. = Standard β = standardised beta coefficient

* $p < 0,05$. ** $p < 0,01$. *** $p < 0,001$. $R^2 = 0,212$.

Table 12 below summarises the descriptive statistics and analysis results for the dimension Core capability: organisation. The model explained 20% of the variance in the Core capability: organisation dimension ($R^2 = 0,196$, $F(4, 127) = 7,756$, $p < 0,001$). Table

12 shows that Inspirational motivation and Intellectual stimulation ($p < 0,05$) were statistically significant predictors of Core capability: organisation.

Table 12: Regression – Results for Core Capability: Organisation Dimension

Descriptive statistics			
	Mean	Std. deviation	Standardised β
Core capability: organisation	2,9416	1,01614	
Idealised influence (attributes)	3,1288	0,98194	-0,270
Idealised influence (behaviour)	2,3598	0,87166	-0,159
Inspirational motivation	2,8693	0,97559	0,409*
Intellectual stimulation	2,7803	0,90957	0,444*

Note. Std. = Standard β = standardised beta coefficient

* $p < 0,05$. ** $p < 0,01$. *** $p < 0,001$. $R^2 = 0,196$.

Table 13 below provides the descriptive statistics and the analysis results for the dimension Core capability: group. The model explained 58% of the variance in the said dimension ($R^2 = 0,575$, $F(4, 129) = 43,615$, $p < 0,001$). Table 13 further shows that Idealised influence (attributes) had a significant positive coefficient, whereas Idealised influence (behaviour) had a significant negative coefficient. This suggests that Idealised influence (attributes) is a positive predictor of Core capability: group.

Table 13: Regression – Results for Core Capability: Group Dimension

Descriptive statistics			
	Mean	Std. deviation	Standardised β
Core capability: group	3,6674	0,79313	
Idealised influence (attributes)	3,1325	0,97992	0,501*
Idealised influence (behaviour)	2,3713	0,87021	-0,261*
Inspirational motivation	2,8675	0,98613	0,244
Intellectual stimulation	2,7799	0,90997	0,263

Note. Std. = Standard. β = standardised beta coefficient

* $p < 0,05$. ** $p < 0,01$. *** $p < 0,001$. $R^2 = 0,575$.

Table 14 below provides the descriptive statistics and analysis results for Core capability: individual1. The model explained 37% of the variance in the Core capability: individual1 dimension of HPC ($R^2 = 0,371$, $F(4, 130) = 19,158$, $p < 0,001$). Table 14 further shows that Inspirational motivation and Intellectual stimulation ($p < 0,05$) were statistically significant predictors of Core capability: individual1.

Table14: Regression – Results for Core Capability: Individual1Dimension

Descriptive statistics			
	Mean	Std. deviation	Standardised β
Core capability: individual1	3,8296	0,78318	
Idealised influence (attributes)	3,1352	0,97677	-0,086
Idealised influence (behaviour)	2,3685	0,86755	-0,065
Inspirational motivation	2,8667	0,98250	0,383*
Intellectual stimulation	2,7815	0,90677	0,395*

Note. Std. = Standard β = standardised beta coefficient

* $p < 0,05$. ** $p < 0,01$. *** $< 0,001$. $R^2 = 0,371$.

Table 15 below summarises the descriptive statistics and analysis results for the Core capability: individual2 dimension. The model explained 26% of the variance in the Core capability: individual2 dimension of HPC ($R^2 = 0,261$, $F(4, 130) = 11,503$, $p < 0,001$). Table 15 further shows that Inspirational motivation ($p < 0,01$) and Intellectual stimulation ($p < 0,05$) are statistically significant predictors of Core capability: individual2.

Table15: Regression – Results for Core Capability: Individual2Dimension

Descriptive statistics			
	Mean	Std. deviation	Standardised β
Core capability: Individual2	3,5852	0,96881	
Idealised influence (attributes)	3,1352	0,97677	-0,220
Idealised influence (behaviour)	2,3685	0,86755	-0,198
Inspirational motivation	2,8667	0,98250	0,481**
Intellectual stimulation	2,7815	0,90677	0,427*

Note. Std. = Standard β = standardised beta coefficient

* $p < 0,05$. ** $p < 0,01$. *** $< 0,001$. $R^2 = 0,261$.

Table 16 below summarises the descriptive statistics and analysis results for the Reward system dimension. The model explained 36% of the variance in this dimension of HPC ($R^2 = 0,357$, $F(4, 122) = 16,899$, $p < 0,001$). Table 16 further shows that Intellectual stimulation is a statistically significant predictor of the Reward system dimension.

Table16:Regression – Resultsfor Reward SystemDimension

Descriptive statistics			
	Mean	Std. deviation	Standardised β
Reward system	2,8000	0,94281	
Idealised influence (attributes)	3,1240	0,99197	-0,042
Idealised influence (behaviour)	2,3760	0,86995	0,017
Inspirational motivation	2,8681	1,00338	0,239
Intellectual stimulation	2,7776	0,92326	0,408*

Note. Std. = Standard β = standardised beta coefficient

* $p < 0,05$. ** $p < 0,01$. *** $< 0,001$. $R^2 = 0,357$.

Table 17 below summarises the descriptive statistics and analysis results for the Performance management dimension. The model explained 59% of the variance in this dimension of HPC ($R^2 = 0,591$, $F(4, 124) = 44,850$, $p < 0,001$). Table 17 further shows that Inspirational motivation and Intellectual stimulation are statistically significant predictors of Performance management.

Table17:Regression – Results for Performance Management Dimension

Descriptive statistics			
	Mean	Std. deviation	Standardised β
Performance management	3,1783	0,90210	
Idealised influence (attributes)	3,1376	0,97676	0,123
Idealised influence (behaviour)	2,3508	0,85782	0,094
Inspirational motivation	2,8895	0,97021	0,277*
Intellectual stimulation	2,7868	0,90846	0,319*

Note. Std. = Standard β = standardised beta coefficient

* $p < 0,05$. ** $p < 0,01$. *** $< 0,001$. $R^2 = 0,591$.

Table 18 below summarises the descriptive statistics and analysis results for the Policies and procedures dimension. The model explained 55% of the variance in this dimension of HPC ($R^2 = 0,548$, $F(4, 120) = 12,843$, $p < 0,001$). Table 18 further shows that Intellectual stimulation ($p < 0,05$) is a statistically significant predictor of Policies and procedures.

Table18: Regression – Results for Policies and Procedures Dimension

Descriptive statistics			
	Mean	Std. deviation	Standardised β
Policies and procedures	3,1640	0,77482	
Idealised influence (attributes)	3,1520	0,97390	-0,195
Idealised influence (behaviour)	2,3940	0,83356	0,031
Inspirational motivation	2,8760	0,99324	0,285
Intellectual stimulation	2,7980	0,91123	0,443*

Note. Std. = Standard β = standardised beta coefficient

* $p < 0,05$. ** $p < 0,01$. *** $< 0,001$. $R^2 = 0,548$.

Table 19 below summarises the descriptive statistics and analysis results for the dimension Stakeholder satisfaction: customer. The model explained 17% of the variance in this dimension of HPC ($R^2 = 0,166$, $F(4, 121) = 6,036$, $p < 0,001$). Table 19 further shows that Inspirational motivation and Intellectual stimulation ($p < 0,5$) are statistically significant predictors of Stakeholder satisfaction: customer.

Table19: Regression – Results for Stakeholder Satisfaction: Customer Dimension

Descriptive statistics			
	Mean	Std. deviation	Standardised β
Stakeholder satisfaction: customer	3,3905	0,95326	
Idealised influence (attributes)	3,1032	0,99512	-0,211
Idealised influence (behaviour)	2,3313	0,87226	-0,279
Inspirational motivation	2,8413	1,00678	0,399*
Intellectual stimulation	2,7579	0,93217	0,453*

Note. Std. = Standard β = standardised beta coefficient

* $p < 0,05$. ** $p < 0,01$. *** $< 0,001$. $R^2 = 0,166$.

Table 20 below provides the descriptive statistics and analysis results for the dimension Stakeholder satisfaction: supplier. The model explained 14% of the variance in this dimension of the HPC ($R^2 = 0,140$, $F(4, 113) = 4,591$, $p < 0,001$). Table 20 further shows that none of the TLB elements are statistically significant predictors of Stakeholder satisfaction: supplier.

Table20: Regression – Results for Stakeholder Satisfaction: Supplier Dimension

Descriptive statistics			
	Mean	Std. deviation	Standardised β
Stakeholder satisfaction: supplier	2,8157	0,70894	
Idealised influence (attributes)	3,1780	0,94682	0,022
Idealised influence (behaviour)	2,4153	0,82639	-0,070
Inspirational motivation	2,9280	0,93547	0,357
Intellectual stimulation	2,8220	0,89341	0,065

Note. Std. = Standard β = standardised beta coefficient

* $p < 0,05$. ** $p < 0,01$. *** $p < 0,001$. $R^2 = 0,140$.

Table 21 below summarises the descriptive statistics and analysis results for the dimension Stakeholder satisfaction: community. The model explained 19% of the variance in this dimension of HPC ($R^2 = 0,189$, $F(4, 130) = 7,593$, $p < 0,001$). Table 21 further shows that none of the TLB elements are statistically significant predictors of Stakeholder satisfaction: community.

Table21: Regression – Results for Stakeholder Satisfaction: Community Dimension

Descriptive statistics			
	Mean	Std. deviation	Standardised β
Stakeholder satisfaction: community	3,6123	0,78671	
Idealised influence (attributes)	3,1352	0,97677	-0,097
Idealised influence (behaviour)	2,3685	0,86755	0,103
Inspirational motivation	2,8667	0,98250	0,246
Intellectual stimulation	2,7815	0,90677	0,206

Note. Std. = Standard β = standardised beta coefficient

* $p < 0,05$. ** $p < 0,01$. *** $p < 0,001$. $R^2 = 0,189$.

Table 22 below summarises the descriptive statistics and analysis results with Stakeholder satisfaction: people1 as a dependant variable. The multiple linear regression model with the four predictors explained 24% of the variance in the Stakeholder satisfaction: people1 dimension of HPC ($R^2 = 0,235$, $F(4, 125) = 9,577$, $p < 0,001$). Table 22 further shows that Inspirational motivation ($p < 0,05$) is a statistically significant predictor of Stakeholder satisfaction: people1.

Table22: Regression – Results for Stakeholder Satisfaction: People1 Dimension

Descriptive statistics			
	Mean	Std. deviation	Standardised β
Stakeholder satisfaction: people1	3,0505	1,17114	
Idealised influence (attributes)	3,1250	0,98990	-0,286
Idealised influence (behaviour)	2,3577	0,87711	0,035
Inspirational motivation	2,8596	0,99417	0,363*
Intellectual stimulation	2,7692	0,92060	0,376

Note. Std. = Standard β = standardised beta coefficient

* $p < 0,05$. ** $p < 0,01$. *** $< 0,001$. $R^2 = 0,235$.

Table 23 below summarises the descriptive statistics and analysis results for the dimension Stakeholder satisfaction: people2. The model explained 27% of the variance in the Stakeholder satisfaction: people2 dimension of HPC ($R^2 = 0,271$, $F(4, 128) = 11,888$, $p < 0,001$). Table 23 further shows that Idealised influence (behaviour) ($p < 0,05$) had a significant negative coefficient, whilst Inspirational motivation ($p < 0,01$) had a significant positive coefficient. This suggests that Inspirational motivation is a positive predictor of Stakeholder satisfaction: people2.

Table23: Regression – Results for Stakeholder Satisfaction: People2 Dimension

Descriptive statistics			
	Mean	Std. deviation	Standardised β
Stakeholder satisfaction: people2	3,7500	0,89029	
Idealised influence (attributes)	3,1335	0,97969	0,034
Idealised influence (behaviour)	2,3741	0,87236	-0,400*
Inspirational motivation	2,8741	0,97343	0,572**
Intellectual stimulation	2,7876	0,90897	0,258

Note. Std. = Standard β = standardised beta coefficient

* $p < 0,05$. ** $p < 0,01$. *** $< 0,001$. $R^2 = 0,271$.

The aim of the regression analyses was to determine the predictive value of TLB elements on HPC. Therefore, multiple linear regression analyses were performed, wherein the four TLB elements were independent variables and the HPC variables were dependent variables. According to Field (2005), the guidelines for multiple regression analyses are as follows: if $R^2 \leq 0,12$ the practical effect size is small; if $R^2 \geq 0,13 \leq 0,25$ the practical effect size is medium; and if $R^2 \geq 0,26$ the practical effect size is large.

The calculations above (Tables 11 to 23) show that the four TLB elements have a large practical size effect on seven HPC variables (Core capability: group, Core capability: individual 1 and 2, Stakeholder satisfaction: people2, Reward systems, Performance management and Policies and procedures). Furthermore, the TLB elements have a medium practical effect size on the six remaining HPC variables (Vision and strategy, Core capability: organisation, Stakeholder satisfaction: customer, Stakeholder satisfaction: supplier, Stakeholder satisfaction: community, and Stakeholder satisfaction: people2). Therefore, the TLB elements explain a variance of between from 14% (the lowest) of Stakeholder satisfaction: supplier ($R^2 = 0,140$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0,109$) to 59% (the highest) of Performance management ($R^2 = 0,591$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0,578$). The F values for all the models computed were statistically significant ($p \leq 0,001$), indicating that the regressions for all the variables were significant.

In chapter 4 the results of the study consisting of the demographic details of all respondents, factor analyses and descriptive statistics for the TLB and HPCQ elements, the Pearson product-moment correlation as well as multiple regression analyses results were presented. In chapter 5 the results will be discussed in detail.

CHAPTER 5:DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In Chapter 5, the results presented in Chapter 4 are discussed. In addition, this chapter contains a discussion of the limitations of the research, recommendations for future research and practical recommendations for leaders and organisations.

5.1 DISCUSSION

The primary aim of the study was to examine the relationship between the practice of transformational leadership behaviours (TLB) and a high-performance culture (HPC). The MLQ5X was used to measure the TLB elements of idealised influence (attributes), idealised influence (behaviour), inspirational motivation, individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation (Antonikas et al., 2012). The HPCQ was used to measure HPC (Van Heerden & Roodt, 2007). A second objective was to determine if there were differences in the predictive value of TLB to the various dimensions of HPC. Two hypotheses were tested: 1) There is a positive relationship between TLB and HPC; and 2) There will be significant differences in the predictive value of TLB to the dimensions of HPC.

The results indicated that TLB correlated positively with HPC. Even though some of the correlations (Idealised influence (behaviour) and Stakeholder satisfaction: customer) were small ($r < 0,3$), the remaining constructs were high. However, further analysis provided some preliminary indication that there were differences in the predictive value of TLB elements to the various dimensions of HPC. Collectively, the results suggested that TLB were important to establishing HPC, but that different elements of TLB were perhaps more important for certain dimensions of HPC.

To summarise, the results of the multiple regression analyses found differences in the predictive values of TLB elements to the various dimensions of HPC (see Table 24 below). Therefore, hypothesis 2 could be accepted.

Table 24: Summary of Multiple Regression Analyses

Dimensions of HPC	Idealised influence (behaviour)	Idealised influence (attributes)	Intellectual stimulation	Inspirational motivation
1. Vision and strategy				✓
2. Core capability: organisation			✓	✓
3. Core capability: group		✓		
4. Core capability: individual1			✓	✓
5. Core capability: individual2			✓	✓
6. Reward systems			✓	
7. Performance management			✓	✓
8. Policies and procedures			✓	
9. Stakeholder satisfaction: customer			✓	✓
10. Stakeholder satisfaction: supplier				
11. Stakeholder satisfaction: community				
12. Stakeholder satisfaction: people1				✓
13. Stakeholder satisfaction: people2				✓

Table 24 above indicates that 1) jointly, Inspirational motivation and Intellectual stimulation are significant predictors of 10 HPC dimensions (Vision and strategy, Core capability: organisation, Core capability: individual1 and individual2, Reward systems, Performance

management, Policies and procedures, Stakeholder satisfaction: customer and Stakeholder satisfaction: people1 and people2); and 2) Idealised influence (attributes) is a significant predictor of one HPC dimension (Core capability: group). Therefore, Inspirational motivation and Intellectual stimulation were found to be significant predictors of HPC, whereas Idealised influence (behaviour) and Idealised influence (attributes) were found to be low predictors of HPC. By implication, leaders who 1) inspire and encourage employees to accept challenging goals and look beyond self-interest (Mester et al., 2003) and 2) challenge employees to think creatively and be innovative (Antonikanis et al., 2003) are able to promote an HPC in an organisation. These findings confirm the findings of Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) and Conger (1999) that transformational leaders who use inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation are able to create awareness and acceptance of their organisations' vision and mission. These leaders help set high-performance standards (Podsakoff et al., 1990), in that way creating an HPC.

In contrast, leaders who rely on their personalities, charisma, personal values, principles, ethics and behaviour to influence employees' behaviour and performance (Antonikanis et al., 2003) may not necessarily promote an HPC. Eustace and Martin (2014) maintain that because of the leaders' behaviour and attributes (idealised influence) employees are transformed and make positive changes within themselves, the organisation and their community. However, the results of the current study confirm the argument by Northouse (2013) that transformational leadership treats leadership as a personality trait as a result of which, it might be difficult to train leaders in transformational leadership. Furthermore, since the leaders in the current study demonstrated low idealised influence and high inspirational motivation, they could be said to be practising unethical transformational leadership (Barling et al., 2008). These leaders use their values and behaviour to manipulate employees and do not acknowledge employees' personal values and principles. This implies that employees in the current study were probably not influenced by leaders' values and behaviour but instead by the time the leaders spent in encouraging, inspiring and challenging them to develop and think beyond their current circumstances and challenges (Antonikanis et al., 2003).

The results further indicated that the TLB elements were highly correlated and able to predict the Performance management dimension of the HPC. Furthermore, the multiple regression analyses showed that the TLB elements explained a high variance of the

Performance management dimension of the HPC. The current research confirmed the finding of the study by Van Heerden and Roodt (2007) that performance management forms part of an organisation's culture. Performance management enables an organisation to achieve its set strategic objectives. Organisations that fail to implement effective performance management systems are not able to achieve their strategic objectives (Mello, 2011).

Previous studies demonstrated a positive relationship between leader behaviour and organisational culture, and the results of the current study provided evidence that transformational leadership behaviours were positively related to HPC. Therefore, it can be concluded that the South African organisations that formed part of the current study can use the results of this research to identify the TLB elements that employees perceive to contribute more to an HPC.

5.2 LIMITATIONS

As with any study, this research also has limitations. Firstly, the sample size consisted of 153 subordinates, which was just above the acceptable level of 150 cases. A larger sample size would have provided a more robust test of the relationship between the practice of TLB and HPC. Furthermore, the time and cost it took to complete both measures due to the large number of items could have restricted the response rate. Secondly, data from leaders of the subordinates could not be used as they completed the MLQX5 only, resulting in a partial view of the relationship between the constructs of TLB and HPC. Thirdly, as the study used a cross-sectional design the causal relationship between these two constructs could not be determined. Nevertheless, the study did shed some light on the positive relationship between subordinates' perceptions of the relationship between TLB and HPC.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

The results of this research have implications for theory, for future research and also for practice. Looked at from a theoretical perspective, and given the current paucity of research testing the relationship between transformational leadership and a high-performance culture, this study fulfilled the need for more research on this relationship. However, whereas a high-performance culture was the dependent variable in the current study, future studies should perhaps extend the research by measuring the actual

performance of organisations and treat a high-performance culture as a mediating variable (Xenikou & Simosi, 2006). Researchers could also shed further light on the effects of TLB on different types of organisational culture. The results suggested that not all TLB behaviours needed to be practised to have predictive value to different dimensions of a high-performance culture, but this aspect needs to be explored further as the results could depend on how researchers theorise the elements of TLB.

The initial aim of the study was to determine whether there was a significant difference between leaders' self-rating of their own leadership styles compared to the rating of their leadership styles by their subordinates. However, as only a few subordinates reporting to the same leader responded to the questionnaire this information was unobtainable. This type of data would have provided an opportunity to assess whether leaders' self-reports on leadership style were similar to subordinates' reports on leadership styles and to assess the degree to which differences might affect subordinates' perceptions of a high-performance culture. It is, therefore, recommended that future researchers should attempt to match leader self-ratings and subordinate ratings, and to explore whether a difference in the scores could be used to better assess affective outcomes of transformational leadership (Northouse, 2013). That is, perhaps the larger the difference between the two scores might be a more accurate indication of the leadership relationship or dynamics in a particular department, and could be helpful feedback to an organisation and individual leaders. It is also recommended that future studies focus on acquiring the leaders' feedback through a 360 degree feedback system. However, Bearley (1996) warns against assuming that collecting data from different sources will give an accurate and objective reality of the leader as the data are still the raters' perceptions. Hence, it is critical that results be consolidated in order to provide useful feedback. Gaining access to organisations and leaders for such research would be challenging.

Practical Recommendations

From a practical perspective, the results of the current study have important implications for leaders and HR practitioners. The results confirmed that leaders needed to be aware of the positive role they could play in establishing a high-performance organisational culture. In a study done by Kirkbride (2006) it was found that leaders could be trained to practise TLB. Leaders have the power to improve their policies, systems and procedures. Since

transformational leadership theory emphasises behaviours, leaders can be trained to practise them. Additionally, leaders can be trained to practise different elements of a high-performance culture, to create such a culture and to take leadership in it. The results of the current study indicated that in this kind of training the dimensions of intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation rather than idealised influences should be emphasised.

Recommendations for HR practitioners

It is believed that this study could help HR practitioners to develop their leadership development philosophies and design training interventions that are aimed at developing transformational leaders and creating a high-performance culture. In the last instance, HR practitioners could come to understand the critical roles their HR policies, systems and procedures play in creating a high-performance culture.

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