

Exploration of leader inclusiveness in the context of a post-conflict political transition

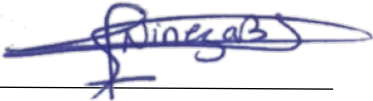
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An article submitted to the Gordon Institute of Business Science, University of Pretoria, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration.

7 November 2018

I declare that this research project is my own work. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration at the Gordon Institute of Business Science, University of Pretoria. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other University. I further declare that I have obtained the necessary authorisation and consent to carry out this research.

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'Steffi Barandereka Nineza', written over a horizontal line.

Steffi Barandereka Nineza

07 November 2018

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1 Cover Letter

07 November 2018

To whom it may concern

1.1. Identification of and motivation for target journal

The Leadership journal is an international peer-reviewed journal that aims to enhance knowledge on leadership studies. The article titled “Exploration of leader inclusiveness in the context of a post-conflict political transition” is a study of inclusive leadership in a new context and hence falls within the scope of the journal. This study juxtaposes the topic of inclusive leadership, which falls in the fields of human resources management and social studies, to the topic of political transition in a post-conflict environment which falls within the field of political science. The Leadership journal aims to advance leadership studies in the political and social areas and encourages complex topics that are relevant today. This is the case for this article because the African continent is still ravaged by violent conflicts and most of them are cases of repeat conflicts. This alarming fact calls for the continued study of leadership factors that could prevent these conflicts from reoccurring. In conclusion, this article is in line with the journal’s direction.

1.2. Journal accreditation

The 2017 impact factor was 1.462 and the journal was ranked 139 out of 209 journals in the management category. The 2018 AJG ranking is 2. The journal is listed on the ISI 2018 and Scopus 2018 accredited journal publication:

Leadership	17427150	17427169
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1.3. Confirmation of journal guidelines

1.3.1. Length

The length of the article is restricted to a maximum of 10,000 words, including all elements (title page, abstract, notes, references, tables, biographical statement, etc.). The final article length was above the 10,000 words however, the variance was within an acceptable range of 10%.

1.3.2. Journal style

The journal encourages the use of critical literature and this has been adhered to in the article. A critical approach to the subject of leader inclusiveness was taken along with a similar approach for the context of post-conflict political transition.

1.3.3. Referencing style

The Leadership journal adheres to the SAGE Harvard reference style. This referencing style was adhered to.

1.4. Sequence of authorship

In terms of the sequence of authorship, the researcher will be the first and corresponding author and the second author will be the researcher's supervisor.

Should you have any concerns, please do not hesitate to contact either myself or my supervisor on the details provided below.

Yours sincerely,

Steffi Barandereka Nineza

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2. Literature review

2.1. Introduction

History has proven that political transition can be quite complex. Choices made by political leaders and institutions during the period of transition can have a tremendous influence on the future of a country. Moreover, transition periods are also known to be period of instability with a high risk of conflict outbreaks. This research focuses on political transition in Sub-Saharan Africa due to the large number of democratic transitions that took place in that region since 1990 (Aidt & Leon, 2016). Furthermore, Africa is the “continent with the highest concentration of countries that are affected by violence and conflict and that appear regularly on lists of fragile states” (Centre for Strategic & International Studies, 2014). Therefore, this study will focus on political transitions that took place as a result of a conflict. An understanding of the factors surrounding post-conflict political transition in Sub-Saharan Africa remains relevant.

Over the past decade, one of the factors that has attracted academic and non-academic attention is inclusion. One of the non-academic sources stipulates that exclusion and discrimination of marginalised group of people in political decision-making “have been a key factor in political and civil conflict” (International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance, 2013). The opposite, which is inclusion, is identified as a key tool in peace-building processes (United Nations, 2014). From an academic standpoint, despite the increased focus on the benefits of inclusion, very few studies have focused on the inclusive nature of the political leader. This is the gap that this study is trying to fill.

Nembhard and Edmondson (2006) were the first to define leader inclusiveness as “words and deeds by a leader or leaders that indicate an invitation and appreciation for others’ contributions” (p.947). Until now, this concept of leader inclusiveness has been studied and tested on organisational leaders (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006; Mitchell et al., 2015; Randel, Dean, Ehrhart, Chung & Shore, 2016). Our argument is that this concept can also be studied by focusing on political leaders because they have similarities to top business leaders. Indeed, “several scholars have supported this claim by drawing comparisons between the challenges, skills, and responsibilities of top managers and political leaders” (Baur et al., 2016, p.159). Therefore, this research aims to explore the concept of leader inclusiveness in the context of a post-conflict political transition.

The literature review chapter will focus on presenting the results of previous academic studies. According to Pautasso (2013), a literature review is defined as a focused summary and critic of what the academic world knows on the subject being researched. This chapter will be split into three sections. The first section will be an analysis of the existing literature on political transition. The second section will review the literature on post-conflict transition. The third section on this chapter, will review the literature on leader inclusiveness. The closing section will introduce the research questions derived from the literature review.

2.2. Political Transition

A political transition is defined as “the interval between one regime and another” (Osaghae, 1995). Around the world, the form of political transition that has been studied the most is the transition to democracy. The western democratisation literature includes classical work such as Moore’s 1966 work titled “Social Origins of Dictatorship and Democracy: Lord and Peasant in the Making of the Modern World”. Like Moore’s 1966 study, many studies that followed have focused on the factors leading to democracy. According to Leventoğlu (2014), authors such as Lipset, Feng and Zak, and Rosendorff have supported Moore’s theory that democracy results from the rise of the middle class. On the other hand, authors such as Therborn and Rueschemeyers, Stephens, and Stephens, have a contradicting view and believe that democratisation is driven by the working class (Leventoğlu, 2014). These various schools of thought form part of the wave of political economy literature on democratisation. Another classical work in this field relates to the 2001 study conducted by Acemoglu and Robinson titled “A Theory of Political Transition”. The main outcome of their work was that “regime changes are more likely during recessionary periods because costs of political turmoil, [...] are lower during such episodes” (Acemoglu & Robinson, 2001, p. 939). This theory went on to be tested by various other authors, including testing it in the context of Sub-Saharan Africa (Aidt & Leon, 2016).

In the 1980s and 1990s, a wave a political transition started hitting the African continent and hence attracted numerous studies on the democratisation process. However, one of the critics of the study of political transition in Africa is that it has mainly been dominated by Western scholars (Osaghae, 1995). Osaghae (1995) claimed that the way they were focusing only on the democratisation period was flawed. According to him, antecedent factors including transition events that had led to other types of social changes in the past; prior to the democratisation, were also relevant and needed to be considered. What Osaghae (1995) defined as the antecedent factors included the “gains, failures and lessons of previous efforts at democratisation” (p. 188).

A more recent critic of the democratisation literature points out how many of the attributes required to transition to democracy are not relevant in a post-conflict environment (Joshi, 2013). It is on this premise, that literature focusing on political transition in the context of post-conflict is more relevant. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, the focus was directed to this complex context of post-conflict transitions. Indeed, the journey to democracy for countries emerging from conflict has proven to be challenging due to the risk of recurring conflict remaining high (LeVan, 2011; Joshi, 2013; Brancati & Snyder, 2012; Graham, Miller, & Strom, 2017).

2.3. Post-Conflict transition

The phenomenon of repeated conflicts that has shaped the globe since the early 2000s has resulted in growing literature around repeated conflict, peacebuilding and peacekeeping. This increased interest is mainly because “the problem of civil war is now almost exclusively a problem of repeat civil war” (Walter, 2015). Costalli (2013) argues that “peacekeeping has been on the international agenda for a long time, but only relatively recently have peacekeeping activities been analysed with rigorous social scientific methods” (p. 357). On the other hand, Walter (2015) argues that there are mainly two schools of thought when it comes to the reasons underlying repeated wars. The first school claims that repeated wars are a result of how countries are left poor and with weak institutions, which in turn revive the cycle of violence (Walter, 2015). The second school claims that repeat wars are often due to unreconciled conflict that has lagged over many years with two opposing groups fighting for something they both consider valuable (Walter, 2015). It can be implied that the latter view is in line with Osaghae (1995) critic that democratic transitions cannot be studied at a certain point in time. Instead, the study of transition should also take into consideration prior transition periods including previous efforts of democratisation. However, both schools of thought presented by Walter (2015) focus on the underlying factors driving repeated civil wars.

When it comes to factors that could prevent repeated conflict and help maintain long-term peace after a political transition, the UN and other international organisations have present inclusion as a viable solution (United Nations, 2014). Therefore, the next sub-sections will explore and review the literature around some of the inclusive measures that are undertaken following a political transition, specifically transitions that took place after a period of conflict.

2.3.1. Power-Sharing agreements

In the post-conflict, peacekeeping and peacebuilding literatures, the inclusive process that is the most studied is power-sharing agreement. The latter is assumed to be inclusive because it ensures that all opponents, in a conflict, are given a place in the government post-transition (Brancati & Snyder, 2012). Over the years, scholars and practitioners have recommended the use of power-sharing agreements as a solution to end conflict while ensuring that the interests of minority group are protected (Graham et al., 2017). Due to its proven ability to put an immediate stop to violence, it is a commonly used practice for countries recovering from violent conflict or in deeply divided societies. Sub-Saharan African countries that have entered into a power-sharing agreement include the likes of South Africa, Burundi, Sierra Leone, Angola, Rwanda, Mozambique and the Democratic Republic of Congo (LeVan, 2011).

Despite the popularity and all the praises that power-sharing agreements have received, many scholars have also questioned its long-term benefits. Indeed, for many, power-sharing agreements are seen as a short-term solution to put a stop to the conflict while harming democracy in the long-term (Jung, 2012; Brancati & Snyder, 2012; Joshi, 2013). One of the reasons why these authors believe power-sharing is a long-term threat to democracy has to do with the fact that these agreements usually ensure former combatants are given some form of power in the state's institutions. According to LeVan (2011), "this undermine whatever steps these countries may be taking toward democracy, it also has important economic consequences" (p. 32). This is supported by Jung (2012) who affirms that power-sharing agreements reinforce wartime cleavages and carry them into political structures. Moreover, LeVan (2011) provides examples of the negative economic consequences resulting from power-sharing agreements such as Kenya and Zimbabwe's oversized cabinets which end up being costly for the taxpayer. Power-sharing agreements also prevent citizens from taking positive or negative actions based on politician's performance (LeVan, 2011). Some of these challenges are what led Graham et al. (2017) to study what type of power-sharing arrangements could mitigate the above-mentioned concerns.

Graham et al. (2017) categorizes political power sharing agreements into three groups:

1. **Inclusive** arrangements: These are the ones that ensure the participation of several parties in decision-making processes;
2. **Dispersive** arrangements: These are the ones that divide authority among the various parties based on a defined pattern such as territory

3. **Constraining** arrangements: These are the ones that constrain the power of all the parties to the agreement to ensure that there is no abuse of power and that citizens are protected

Using a quantitative study, Graham et al. (2017) tested the effects of each of these three types of power-sharing agreements to determine their effects on democratic survival. Their conclusion was that only **constraining** arrangements protect democratic survival under all political contexts (Graham et al., 2017). Included in a constraining power-sharing agreement are institutions such as “an independent judiciaries, civilian control of the armed forces, and strong protections of civil rights and liberties” (Graham et al., 2017, p. 702). In other words, what constraining arrangements support, is the presence of strong institutions. Walter (2015) also shares the same view and advocates for greater institutionalisation. In light of these findings, the next sub-section will explore further what the literature says about strong institutions in the context of political transitions taking place in a post-conflict environment. The focus will be to identify if the literature makes any mention of the inclusive nature of those institutions as inclusion is believed to be one of the factors that prevents repeated conflict to occur in a post-conflict environment.

2.3.2. Inclusive Institutions

In a post-conflict environment where a country is going through a political transition, one needs strong institutions. These include “independent and non-partisan judicial institutions, electoral commissions and other regulatory agencies; rules subjecting the armed forces to civilian control; and protections of religious freedom and separation of church and state” (Graham et al., 2017, p. 689). These strong institutions are believed to prevent the repeated outbreak of violence (Walter, 2015). The researcher’s view is that these institutions are inclusive because they ensure the marginalised minorities are not excluded and the political elite’s authority is weakened. Jung (2012) goes a step further by affirming that institutionalized cooperation contributes to political stability and sustainable democracy.

An important element that was lacking in the political transition, post-conflict, peacebuilding and peacekeeping literatures, is the inclusive nature of the political leaders. Emphasis was placed on the inclusive nature of a power-sharing agreement and the institutions that result from it. In the previous section on political transition, it was shared that according to Water (2015), there is one school of thought that claims that repeat wars are often due to unreconciled conflict that has lagged over many years with two opposing groups fighting for something they both consider valuable. However, the literature reviewed lacked an analysis of the type of leadership that could bring real

reconciliation to a country and avoid for countries to fall into the vicious circle of repeat conflicts. It is on this premise that an analysis of leader inclusiveness, a principle often studied in the business context, will be explored as a potential leadership type that can prevent repeat conflict from happening. Similarities that exist between a political leader and a business one has been supported by several scholars “by drawing comparisons between the challenges, skills, and responsibilities of top managers and political leaders” (Baur et al., 2016, p.159). This makes the study of leader inclusiveness in the context of a political transition relevant.

2.4. Leader Inclusiveness

The study of leader inclusiveness falls within the fields of human resource management and social sciences. This topic, which falls in the study of inclusion in the broader sense, requires to first understand how inclusion is approached in the literature.

The theme of diversity and inclusion has been the focus of many research studies. Although the issues of diversity and inclusion have often been tackled together, the main focused has been towards diversity. Researches such as the ones around the benefits of diverse teams have been very popular. On the other hand, there has been little theoretical background when it comes to inclusion, which to this day, remains a new concept (Shore et al., 2011).

In their 2011 study, Shore et al. present an inclusion framework that combines the concepts of belongingness and uniqueness in which they claim that both factors “work together to create feelings of inclusion” (Shore et al., 2011, p. 1265). They go on to present a model of contextual factors and outcomes that they associate with the employee’s perception of inclusion.

When it comes to the study of inclusive leadership, a 2006 study by Nembhard and Edmondson highlights what differentiates leader inclusiveness from other types of leaderships such a participative and transformational leadership.

The next sub-section will first dive into the 2011 study by Shore et al. in order to first better understand the concept of inclusion. Then, the second sub-section will review the literature around leader inclusiveness.

2.4.1. The inclusion framework

Shore et al. (2011) argue that inclusion can only exit when the employee’s perceptions of belongingness and uniqueness are fulfilled. Here what they refer to as a need for belongingness is when the employee feels that he or she is accepted by the other

members of the organisation (Shore et al., 2011; Boekhorst, 2015). On the other hand, their model draws attention to the conflicting need of uniqueness, which means the same employee also want to be valued for his or her unique contribution to the group (Shore et al., 2011; Boekhorst, 2015). Therefore, balancing both needs is what leads to inclusion. Here, it can be implied that these concepts of belongingness and uniqueness can also apply to citizens' needs. Citizens do not like to be marginalised and excluded. When followers' interests are not taken into consideration by political leaders, they may result to violence (Simons, Zanker, Mehler & Tull, 2013).

The element of belongingness included in Shore et al. 2011 inclusion framework draws on ancient theory of social identity. It is believed that through "social identification, people become attached to one another through their common connection of the social group" (Shore et al., 2011, p. 1263). The shared group identity has been proven to lead to positive outcomes for organisations. Indeed, through this increased sense of belongingness, employees will fill a sense of commitment leading them to work harder to achieve the common goal (Mitchell et al., 2015). Other forms of benefits that are expected to result from a sense of belongingness are increased information sharing and collaboration (Mitchell et al., 2015). These benefits then lead to uniqueness. Indeed, through information and collaboration, members of the group embrace others' unique contribution. The research argues that this shared group identity becomes quite complex when elevated at a country level. Indeed, "Africa's emerging democracies have struggled with [...] the context of extreme social heterogeneity" (LeVan, 2011, p. 35). From one country to another, this social heterogeneity can be driven by various factors such as ethnicity, religion or geographical region of origin. It is for this reason that the research seeks to explore what type of leadership can manage these complexities.

Shore et al. (2011), created a visual representation of their inclusion framework that can be seen in Figure 1 below. The authors argued that inclusion is achieved when employees have a perception of high belongingness and high uniqueness. This is illustrated at the bottom-right of the spectrum. Opposite to inclusion is the feeling of exclusion. The authors argued that this happens when an individual has the perception of being treated as an outsider while there are others who are seen as insiders. This perception coupled with the perception of not feeling like their unique contributions are valued, leads to exclusion. The below illustration also addresses two other phenomena: assimilation and differentiation. This inclusion framework is easy to use and self-explanatory.

	Low Belongingness	High Belongingness
Low Value in Uniqueness	<p>Exclusion</p> <p>Individual is not treated as an organizational insider with unique value in the work group but there are other employees or groups who are insiders.</p>	<p>Assimilation</p> <p>Individual is treated as an insider in the work group when they conform to organizational/dominant culture norms and downplay uniqueness.</p>
High Value in Uniqueness	<p>Differentiation</p> <p>Individual is not treated as an organizational insider in the work group but their unique characteristics are seen as valuable and required for group/ organization success.</p>	<p>Inclusion</p> <p>Individual is treated as an insider and also allowed/encouraged to retain uniqueness within the work group.</p>

Figure 1: Inclusion Framework (Shore et al., 2011, p. 1266)

In many human resources and social studies, it has been found that members of the groups contribute in the creation of an inclusive team dynamic. Moreover, scholars have also emphasised the role that leaders play in creating such inclusive dynamic. Indeed, Sugiyama, Cavanagh, Esch, Bilimoria and Brown (2016) believe that “inclusive leadership plays an important role in ensuring that differences that may create conflict and negative outcomes are mitigated through positive relationships and valuing of diverse identities” (p. 257). The uniqueness factor that was earlier mentioned in the definition of inclusion, can be implied from the difference and diverse identities mentioned by Sugiyama et al. (2016). Finally, Randel et al. (2016) argue that despite the importance of inclusive leadership, the diversity literature lacks sufficient analysis of this construct. This means that future research on leader inclusiveness has value.

2.4.2. Leader inclusiveness

In 2013, Tost, Gino and Larrick, stated that although leaders have the ability to increase team performance, they could also hinder team success. The authors stressed that some specific use of power by the leader can go as far as threatening the “open exchange of information within the team” (Tost et al., 2013, p. 1466). This in some cases can go as far as dominating group discussion and interactions. We argue this is a threat to the element of belongingness presented in the inclusion framework.

In light of the risk that certain type of leadership poses to inclusion, one has to question which type can promote inclusion. Nembhard and Edmondson (2006) introduced the notion of leader inclusiveness. The authors argued that leader inclusiveness “captures attempts by leaders to include others in discussions and decisions in which their voices and perspectives might otherwise be absent” (p. 947). This also involved welcoming other people’s views even when they contradict the leader’s views. Mitchell et al. (2015), who tested the 2006 Nembhard and Edmondson theory of leader inclusiveness, concluded that this type of leadership presents a solution to address group divides

through social identity in diverse teams. The quantitative study that they conducted in 2015 supported the relevance of inclusiveness in leadership (Mitchell et al., 2015). Academic scholars emphasised the difference between leader inclusiveness and other forms of leadership. Although it is related to participative leadership, leader inclusiveness differs in the way it focuses on situations of status and power (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006; Mitchell et al., 2015). Moreover, leader inclusiveness also differs from transformational leadership in the way it endorses behaviours of “openness and accessibility to create a dynamic that promotes a diversity of opinions in the context of collective team goals” (Mitchell et al., 2015). These elements make the study of leader inclusiveness relevant in the context of a political transition that takes place following a period of conflict. Indeed, these critical periods usually involve dynamics of status, power and in some cases repression of diversity of opinions through exclusion of free media. Indeed, according to Randel et al. (2016), “more conceptual and operational development of the leader inclusiveness construct is needed.” (p. 230). This supports the claim that leader inclusiveness can further be explored in a new context.

2.5. Exploration of leader inclusiveness in the context of a post-conflict political transition

Walter (2015) emphasises that repeat conflict is more likely to happen in an environment where government elites are not operating in an open system in which citizens are invited to participate in the political life. Claims made by Walter (2015) can be compared to the concept of inclusion. Indeed, leader inclusiveness is expected to promote behaviours of open communication, information sharing and where all the members of the group are invited to participate (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006; Mitchell et al., 2015). It is therefore relevant to study whether this phenomenon referred to by Walter (2015) is not in fact touching on elements of a lack of leader inclusiveness.

Hegre and Nygård (2015) argued that good governance could be a powerful tool in the prevention of recurring conflict. The authors stated the importance for the government to implement policies that aim to serve the interest of all. This again can be linked to inclusive procedures as per Shore et al. (2011) inclusion framework. Shore et al. (2011) stated that in a climate of inclusion “policies, procedures, and actions of organizational agents are consistent with fair treatment of all social groups” (p. 1277).

As part of their work around the development of an inclusion framework, Shore et al. (2011) came up with a list of contextual factors that contribute to employee’s perception of inclusion. Those factors are presented in Figure 2 below. These factors were used as a basis to frame the interview questions. However, it is important to note that these

contextual factors were arrived to from studying the perspective of employees. For the purpose of this research, the perceptions of political leaders and experts were studied. However, the below framework proved to be relevant in the context of this study because as previously demonstrated, the literature on post-conflict transition mentioned elements of inclusive behaviours and practices.

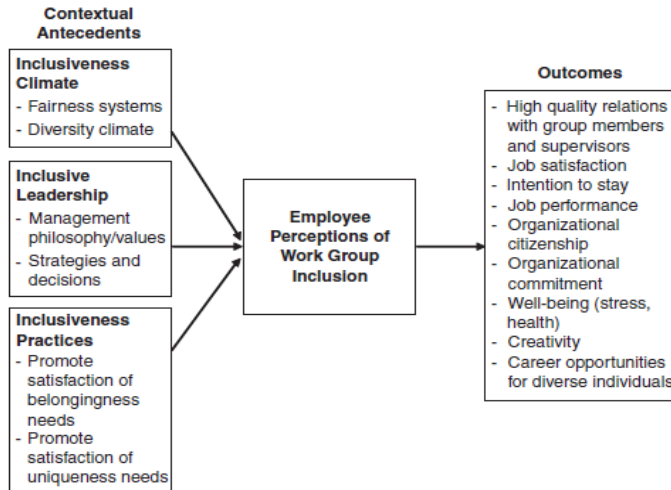


Figure 2: Antecedents and Outcomes of Inclusion (Shore et al., 2011, p. 1276)

2.6. Conclusion

In conclusion, the literature has demonstrated a clear need to expand the limited literature around inclusion and leader inclusiveness (Shore et al., 2011; Boekhorst, 2015; Randel et al., 2016). The benefits of inclusion but also the risks associated with exclusion have been raised in this analysis. Moreover, the work conducted by Tost et al. (2013) demonstrated that leaders have the potential to both be a driver of performance but also have the capability to hinder growth. This emphasises the importance of studying leader and hence validates the study of leader inclusiveness. Finally, the need to study the leader inclusiveness construct in the context of a political transition has been demonstrated. Elements of the literature around repeat conflict and peacebuilding presented factors that lead to inferring the importance of inclusion. Findings by Walter (2015) along with findings by Hegre and Nygard (2015) which speak about the importance of an open system for all citizens and good governance, make the inclusion construct relevant in this context. Therefore, this study will aim to explore leader inclusiveness following a political transition from the perception of political leaders and experts. The study will be exploring the inclusive leader behaviours following a political transition; exploring the factors that would hinder or form a barrier to leader inclusiveness following a political transition; exploring the inclusive procedures and/or policies that leaders undertake following a political transition and finally, by exploring the possible outcomes of leader inclusiveness following a political transition.

3. Proposed research methodology and design

3.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses the chosen methodology for this study. The design of the methodology as well as the interview guideline were founded on the literature review presented in the previous section. The approach that was adopted for this study is qualitative and exploratory.

3.2. Choice of methodology

The philosophy that was adopted for this research study is interpretivism. According to Saunders and Lewis (2012), the interpretivist perspective is highly appropriate in fields such as human resource management and social sciences, which are fields in which inclusion falls in. This philosophy is also supported by the research questions we were seeking to answer. Moreover, exploring leaders and experts' perceptions of the culture of inclusion is likely to generate subjective views.

The approach followed was an inductive approach. In this study, the use of a deductive approach would not have been appropriate because we were not aiming to test a theoretical proposition. If the purpose of the research would have been to test quantitatively Shore et al. (2011) inclusiveness framework, then a deductive approach would have been appropriate. In this case, although the research study was based on their 2011 inclusiveness framework, our focus was on the leader and not the employee. The initial framework was constructed having the employee as a focus. The purpose of the current study was to understand better the nature of leader inclusiveness (Saunders & Lewis, 2012); therefore, the use of an inductive approach was more appropriate.

In order to meet the research objectives and answer the research questions, a single qualitative data collection technique was used. This is a mono method. The discussion around the theme of inclusion is a sensitive subject because it involves individuals' feelings. The sensitive nature of the study also applies to the post-conflict political transition as it involves a complex topic affecting the lives of many. Therefore, in light of the sensitivity of the study and the depth of insights required, an intimate qualitative method was more appropriate. In-depth interviews were therefore the method chosen.

An explorative research design was followed because the purpose of this research study was to generate new insights on leader inclusiveness in the context of a post-conflict political transition (Saunders & Lewis, 2012). Considering the fact that "inclusion remains

a new concept without consensus on the nature of this construct or its theoretical underpinnings” (Shore et al., 2011, p. 1263), the explorative research design was appropriate.

According to Baxter and Jack (2008), a qualitative case study allows for the exploration of a phenomenon within its context. The purpose of the study being to explore leader inclusiveness in the context of a post-conflict political transition, the use of case study was also appropriate. This research strategy allowed us to gain a deeper understanding of the complex context present following a political transition. This strategy usually allows to respond to questions such as “why?”, “how?” and “what?” (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). The latter is in line with the research questions of this study.

The research was cross-sectional due to various reasons. First, there was a time constraint because this research had to be conducted between the months of May and November 2018 (i.e. GIBS submission date of research reports). The second reason was because there are currently limited published data around the study of inclusion. Should published data been available, this would have been a counter-argument to the time constraint (Saunders & Lewis, 2012).

In terms of the data gathering technique, it was face-to-face, telephonic and videoconference semi-structured interviews. These allowed for a deeper study of the leader inclusiveness within the context of a post-conflict political transition. An interview questionnaire was designed around the themes presented in the inclusiveness framework of Shore et al. (2011). Although semi-structured interviews were planned, “the order of questions may also be varied depending on the flow of the conversation” (Saunders & Lewis, 2012, p. 374). This left room for spontaneity and allowed the interviewees to express themselves in their own words resulting to a deeper understanding of the subject (Gavin, 2008).

3.3. Population

The population is a complete set of group members that shares some common characteristics (Zikmund, Babin, Carr & Griffin, 2011). For this research, the population was leaders and experts who had been involved in a post-conflict political transition. These leaders and experts came from two different groups, which comprise of:

1. Political leaders such as Head of States and ministers;
2. International experts from organisations that specialise in facilitation political transitions such as the UN, International Crisis Group, USAID, ACCORD and African Union.

The aim was to select candidates from different countries and different organisations in order to reduce any country specific biases.

As a starting point to identify countries that went through a political transition, databases from the UN and World Bank were used. Additionally, the literature review on political transitions that took place after a period of conflict also allowed to identify relevant Sub-Saharan African countries.

3.4. Unit of analysis

Determining the unit of analysis was a critical guide in terms of the areas in which to gather the data. For the purpose of this study, the unit of analysis was the perceptions of leader inclusiveness from the perspective of the two groups of political leaders and experts who were involved in efforts relating to a post-conflict political transition.

3.5. Sampling method and size

Saunders and Lewis (2012) define a sample as a subgroup of the whole population. In this case study, the actual size of the population was unknown because of the lack of known sources of reliable data. Therefore, in the absence of a reliable complete list of the population, it was impossible to select a sample randomly. This led to the choice of a non-probability sampling method which Zikmund et al. (2011) defines as “a sampling technique in which units of the sample are selected on the basis of personal judgment or convenience” (p. 395). More specifically, the study used a two-layered technique namely, purposive sampling and snowball sampling, which are non-probability selection technique (Saunders & Lewis, 2012; Zikmund et al., 2011).

Purposive sampling allowed the use of judgment in the sample selection. The samples in the two groups of leaders and experts were selected based on their level of experience and knowledge of the context. In the case of political leaders, the focus was on senior leaders who were involved in a post-conflict political transition. Candidates in the second group were selected based on their theoretical knowledge and their practical experience around the time of a post-conflict political transition. The purposive sampling was also combined with snowball sampling technique. This technique allowed to have access to key political leaders and experts who had been involved in a political transition, especially the ones that took place following a period of conflict. The individuals that were identified through the snowball technique were highly recommended political leaders and experts.

Quota sampling is similar to purposive sampling because they both rely on the researcher’s judgment. However, quota-sampling goes an extra step whereby they ensure that various subgroups of a population will be represented (Zikmund et al., 2011).

According to Zikmund et al. (2011), the major advantages of quota sampling over probability sampling are speed of data collection, lower costs, and convenience. These were important factors considering that this study was conducted over a very short period of time.

Concerning the sample size, Saunders et al. (2012) recommends collecting qualitative data until data saturation is reached which is usually when “additional data collected provides few, if any, new information or suggests new themes” (p. 283). This study focused on two groups and in order to ensure that each of the two groups of leaders and experts were adequately represented, quota sampling was used. Seven participants per population type were used which lead to a total sample size of fourteen. Data saturation was reached at that point as no new themes were emerging.

The fourteen respondents had covered political transitions in West, East, Central and Southern Africa regions, in countries within the Sub-Saharan region. However, because judgmental sampling was applied, each of the country was not equally represented. Respondents who had the relevant experience, or were highly recommended through the snowball sampling technique, who were easily accessible and available were used for this study. This resulted in most participants from the group of political leaders to come from East Africa. The potential region and country biases that can result from this study were therefore highlighted as a limitation. It is important to note that all countries represented were within the scope of post-conflict political transition which made the study of leader inclusiveness possible in that context. The number of respondents for each region where the post-conflict political transition had taken place are disclosed in Tables 1 and 2. When a respondent had expertise and involvement in more than one country, this has been highlighted in the tables below.

Table 1: Region of transition of chosen sample for Group 1 – Political Leaders

Group 1: Political Leaders	
Region of Transition	Number of Respondents
East Africa	5
Southern Africa	2
Total Respondents	7

Table 2: Region of transition of chosen sample for Group 2 – Experts

Group 2: Experts	
Region of Transition	Number of Respondents
East and Central Africa	2
All of Sub-Saharan Africa	2
East, West and Central Africa	1
East and West Africa	1
Southern Africa	1
Total Respondents	7

3.6. Measurement instrument

It was established that a qualitative study in the form of an exploratory case study was an appropriate research methodology to be followed for this particular study. Indeed, case studies tend to be well suited for an in-depth description of complex social phenomena (Baškarada, 2014) which is the case with the topic of inclusion. The research instrument that will be adopted for this study was a multiple holistic case study. This was achieved by studying leader inclusiveness in multiple countries that have gone through a political transition.

A holistic approach to the multiple case study was followed because only one unit was analysed per case (Baškarada, 2014). The unit of analysis was the perceptions of two groups of leaders and experts of leader inclusiveness following a post-conflict political transition. Baškarada (2014) also argues that multiple case studies generate more robust conclusions than a single case study, especially when the aim is to generate new theories (inductive approach).

3.7. Data gathering process

In line with the research strategy of a case study, data was gathered through face-to-face semi-structured interviews. This type of data collection, is often used in qualitative research method as it helps understand the “how”, “what” and “why” contained in the research questions that we are aiming to answer (Saunders & Lewis, 2012). For respondents that were located outside of South Africa, a telephonic or videoconference interview was conducted.

Interview questions were designed around the themes disclosed in the inclusion framework developed by Shore et al. (2011) The semi-structured interviews were conducted with open-ended questions but leaving room for improvisation; which is important to allow further examination and deeper understanding of the participant's

answers. Table 3 shows how interview questions are linked to the research objectives and research questions:

Table 3: Mapping of interview questions to research objectives and research questions

Research Objectives	Research Questions	Interview Questions
RO1: Exploring the inclusive leader behaviours following a political transition	RQ1: What inclusive leadership behaviours are likely to be demonstrated following a political transition?	1.What are some of the behaviours and values that you think an inclusive leader has? 2.On a scale of 1 to 10, how important do you think leader inclusiveness is in ensuring a peaceful political transition? 3.How was the diversity of opinions treated by the leadership in place during the political transition? 4.How would you describe the participation of civil society, opposition groups, women and youth groups during the transition?
RO2: Exploring the factors that would hinder or form a barrier to leader inclusiveness following a political transition;	RQ2: What are the factors that would hinder or form a barrier to leader inclusiveness following a political transition?	1.Are you aware of any barriers to leader inclusiveness that would have been present during the political transition?
RO3: Exploring the inclusive procedures and/or policies that leaders undertake following a political transition	RQ3: What inclusive procedures and/or policies are undertaken by a leader following a political transition?	1.Are there any inclusive procedures/practices/policies that were implemented in your country during the political transition? If yes, which ones? (question for Group 1 - Political leaders) 2.Are there any inclusive procedures/practices/policies that were implemented in the country(ies) you were involved in, during the political transition? If yes, which ones? (question for Group 2 – International Experts) 3.What role did the leadership in place play towards the implementation of such policies?
RO4: Exploring the possible outcomes of leader inclusiveness following a political transition	RQ4: What are the possible outcomes of leader inclusiveness following a political transition?	1.What do you think are some of the outcomes of having leader inclusiveness in a country? 2.Does leader inclusiveness play any role in maintaining social cohesion or preventing repeat conflict?

After developing the set of interview questions, a phase of participants' selection was conducted. The participants were selected based on a certain set of criteria such as the level of experience and involvement in a post-conflict political transition. Respondents who were highly recommended through the snowball sampling technique were also evaluated against the same criteria to ensure their expertise was relevant to the study.

The third phase was to conduct pilot interviews with two participants. This allowed getting insights on how the interviews would flow and how participants understand the questions. Pilot interviews also allow the interviewer to make adjustments on how interview questions were asked or on the interview style. One pilot interview was conducted in French and the other one in English to ensure that the interviewer was comfortable to articulate fluently all questions in both languages as these were the two languages spoken by the respondents.

The final stage of the data gathering process was to conduct the face-to-face, telephonic and videoconference, semi-structured interviews with the two groups of respondents until data saturation was achieved. All respondents agreed to be recorded except one. Therefore, comprehensive interview notes were taken for that one respondent.

3.8. Analysis approach

The main research approach that was followed for this study was an inductive approach. Saunders and Lewis (2012) argue that even though an inductive approach is followed, starting the research using existing theory can have certain advantages. It is with those advantages in mind that Shore et al. (2011) inclusion framework was used as a starting point, making it an initial deductive approach. However, because this research explored inclusion from the perspective of leaders and experts, it was anticipated that the data collected would not apply to the existing theory. Instead, the study was expected to yield new insights hence making it an inductive approach.

A content analysis technique, which is often used in qualitative research, was used for this study. In content analysis, the “researcher searches for structures and patterned regularities in the text and makes inferences on the basis of these regularities” (Myers, 2013, p.172). The six phases thematic analysis approach suggested by Braun & Clarke (2006) was followed. The six phases are summarized in the Table 4 below:

Table 4: Phases of Thematic Analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 87)

Phase	Description of the process
1. Familiarizing yourself with your data:	Transcribing data (if necessary), reading and re-reading the data, noting down initial ideas.
2. Generating initial codes:	Coding interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the entire data set, collating data relevant to each code.
3. Searching for themes:	Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme.
4. Reviewing themes:	Checking if the themes work in relation to the coded extracts (Level 1) and the entire data set (Level 2), generating a thematic ‘map’ of the analysis.
5. Defining and naming themes:	Ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells, generating clear definition and names for each theme.

6. Producing the report:	The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back to the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis.
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The computer software programme called Atlas.ti was used for the coding. This process allowed to identify areas of similarity and difference.

Finally, the thematic analysis supports the frequency analysis and coding frame which were used in order to aggregate the data in terms of the research questions.

3.9. Data Validity and Reliability

The concept of reliability is concerned with whether a consistent set of results will be obtained by repeating the same data collection procedures (Baškarada, 2014; Zikmund et al., 2011). To ensure the reliability of this multiple case study, a case study protocol was developed. The latter included documents such as an overview of the project and the guiding interview questions (Baškarada, 2014). The translation aspect of the study also posed a risk to reliability. Indeed, four out of the fourteen interviews were conducted in French to allow the interviewees to communicate in a language in which they were comfortable. After, transcribing the interviews in French, these were translated to English by the researcher. To test the reliability of the data, one of the four interviews was then sent out to a professional translator to verify if the English transcript was similar to the one done by the researcher. No material discrepancies were identified in this process.

On the other hand, validity looks at the accuracy of the measure (Zikmund et al., 2011). In this study, it was looking at whether we accurately measured the leaders and experts' perceptions of leader inclusiveness in the context of a post-conflict political transition. There are three different kinds of validity: construct, internal and external validities (Barcik, 2016). In terms of the construct validity, the choice of an exploratory inductive multiple case study approach has already been explained and supported for this study. Internal validity only applies to explanatory research (Baškarada, 2014), which was not the case for this particular study as we were conducting an exploratory research.

Finally, external validity looks at whether this study can be generalised to other studies. As discussed previously, these political leaders and international experts were selected from various countries and organisations in order to reduce any country specific biases. However, as highlighted by Table 1 above, in the group of political leaders, five out of the seven respondents came from East Africa and as such a potential country and/or region-specific bias form a potential limitation.

3.10. Ethics

The University of Pretoria and GIBS ethical conduct guidelines were adhered to throughout the whole research process. First, the researcher ensured to get ethical clearance prior to collecting the data. Secondly, the researcher ensured all respondents had signed the consent letter. Respondents were informed that they could withdraw at any time as it was indicated on the consent form. Thirdly, prior to each interview, respondents were asked permission to record the interview. All agreed except one. For that one respondent, comprehensive notes of the interview were taken. The services of two transcribers were used to transcribe the English interviews. All transcribers were asked to sign a confidentiality agreement prior to the start of their services. As stipulated on the consent forms for the second group of experts, data was stored and analysed using a predetermined identification code. However, for the political leaders as agreed on their consent form, their names could be mentioned should the article be eligible for publishing, to augment the credibility of the research. However, data collected during the interviews with the political leader was aggregated with data from other interviews and was therefore not attributed to their name.

3.11. Limitations

Multiple limitations could result from the research methodology chosen for this research study. The main limitations are:

- The use of non-probability sampling usually has the tendency to increase the researcher's bias;
- According to Saunders and Lewis (2012), a qualitative exploratory research is preliminary and should usually be followed by a more detailed research such as quantitative analysis to provide results that are more dependable. Due to limited scope, a quantitative analysis will not follow our initial qualitative explorative research.
- One of the two groups of interviewees included political leaders who may want to appear in a positive light by providing biased answers regarding their perception of leader inclusiveness in the context of post-conflict political transition. This might result in skewed answers, which in turn would affect the reliability of the data.
- Political leaders mainly came from East Africa which could have resulted into a country and/or region bias. This impacts the ability to generalise the findings of this study to the whole Sub-Saharan Africa region.

- The only data collection method that was used for this study is semi-structured interviews. The lack of triangulation in this study is therefore an important limitation that could have an impact on the validity of the research instrument.
- There is a potential risk of research's bias, which would ultimately affect interpretations and conclusion made in this research study. This would have an impact on the reliability of the study.

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5. ANNEXURE A: Interview Schedule

Questions were created based on the contextual factors presented in the 2011 Shore et al. inclusion framework (Figure 2). These questions will be used as a basis to guide the conversation. However, the study is exploratory and the aim is to get in-depth insights. Therefore, there will be room for spontaneity and the interviewees will be encouraged to express themselves in their own words.

Part A: Introduction

1. Tell me more about your role in your organisation and what it entails?
2. What is your understanding of the concept of leader inclusiveness?
This question will be followed by an explanation to the participants of what the literature says about leader inclusiveness

Part B: Antecedent Factors

1. Tell me more about what led to the political transition in your country? (*question for Group 1 - Political leaders*)
2. Tell me more about what led to the political transition in the country(ies) you have intervened in? (*question for Group 2 – International Experts*)
3. How would you describe the type of leadership that was in place during the time prior to the transition?

Part C: Period of Transition

C.1. Inclusive leadership behaviours

1. What are some of the behaviours and values that you think an inclusive leader has?
2. On a scale of 1 to 10, how important do you think leader inclusiveness is in ensuring a peaceful political transition?
3. How was the diversity of opinions treated by the leadership in place during the political transition?
4. How would you describe the participation of civil society, opposition groups, women and youth groups during the transition?

C.2. Barriers to leader inclusiveness

5. Are you aware of any barriers to leader inclusiveness that would have been present during the political transition?

C.3. Inclusion procedures

6. Are there any inclusive procedures/practices/policies that were implemented in your country during the political transition? If yes, which ones? (*question for Group 1 - Political leaders*)

7. Are there any inclusive procedures/practices/policies that were implemented in the country(ies) you were involved in, during the political transition? If yes, which ones? *(question for Group 2 – International Experts)*
8. *What role did the leadership in place play towards the implementation of such policies?*

Part D: Outcomes of leader inclusiveness

1. What do you think are some of the outcomes of having leader inclusiveness in a country?
2. Does leader inclusiveness play any role in maintaining social cohesion or preventing repeat conflict?

