

A leadership skills development model for the Kwaden Group: A case study of an African FMCG business-network

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201511834

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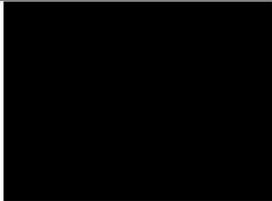
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To whom it may concern,

I, **Craig Muller** declare that the thesis titled **A LEADERSHIP SKILLS DEVELOPMENT MODEL FOR THE KWADEN GROUP: A CASE STUDY OF AN AFRICAN FMCG BUSINESS-NETWORK** is my own work. That all the sources used or quoted have been identified and acknowledged by means of references. That this thesis has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at any other university.



Signature

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ABSTRACT

Organisations competing in Africa face numerous challenges. These include its size and complexity, transformational population growth, abundance of talent but a lack of skills, a scarcity of large companies, the relatively small size of big companies, a poorly understood business environment, conflict, poverty and corruption. To successfully address these challenges, entrepreneurial energy, and a strategy to develop leadership skills at scale is required.

This study aimed to develop and assess whether a leadership skills development model which integrates six conceptual constructs is valid as a model for developing leadership skills in an African FMCG business-network.

Based on a review of literature, theoretically relevant leadership development dimensions and attributes were conceived in terms of six constructs. Afterwards, a conceptual model for leadership skills development was postulated. Measurable variables concerning the conceptual model constructs were subsequently developed.

The study took a pragmatic approach and followed an explanatory sequential design typology. An initial quantitative stage was conducted. A qualitative stage followed. The approach addressed the research problem from multiple perspectives.

An online survey approach collected data from 132 employees from an African FMCG business-network. Inferential statistics were employed to examine the validity and reliability of the constructs. Applying confirmatory factor analysis, three data-model fit tests gave empirical evidence that the leadership skills development model was a good model fit. Cronbach's alpha coefficient determined construct reliability.

A face-to-face interview approach facilitated data collection from 10 key decision-makers in the African FMCG business-network. Their experience and feelings on leadership skills and leadership skills development were recorded. Using inductive thematic interpretation methodology, the qualitative results helped explain the initial quantitative results.

The outcomes and practical value of this study included: a theoretically relevant, empirically validated leadership skills development model for an African FMCG

business-network as well as a range of recommendations on how to develop leadership skills throughout Africa.

Leadership skills development is complex, especially in a rapidly changing environment. This study contributed to the discipline of leadership and leadership development.

Keywords: leader; leadership; skills; development; model; Africa; FMCG; business; network; supply chain.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

All Quadrant, All Levels (AQAL)

Bottom of the Pyramid (BOP)

Charismatic/value-based leadership and participative leadership (CLT)

Chief Executive Officer (CEO)

Cognitive Resource Theory (CRT)

Comparative Fit Index (CFI)

Compound Annual Growth Rate (CAGR)

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Deliberately Developmental Organisations (DDO)

Fast Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG)

Fullerton Longitudinal Study (FLS)

Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE)

Gross Domestic Product (GDP)

Human Resource (HR)

Implicit leadership theories (ITL)

Industrial Revolution (IR)

Information Technology (IT)

Input/output (I/O)

Input-Process-Output (IPO)

International Monetary Fund (IMF)

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)

Minimum Sample Discrepancy divided by Degrees of Freedom (CMIN/DF)

National Qualification Framework (NQF)

Root Mean Square Error Approximation (RMSEA)

Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM)

Sector Education and Training Authority (SETA)

Small and Medium-sized Enterprises (SMEs)

Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS)

Sub-Saharan African (SSA)

United States Dollar (USD)

University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN)

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1. STUDY OVERVIEW

1.1. Introduction

Optimism about Africa's prospects remains widespread and decisive throughout the region (McKinsey & Company, 2018). Predictions suggest Africa's combined Gross Domestic Product (GDP) will be amongst the fastest growing on earth in the next two decades. An expectation is that the majority African homes will enter the consumer class, and educational performance will improve significantly within the next two decades. Africa offers large prospects for development to global and local businesses. However, with the continent's complexities, success is not certain: considered strategies are required to transform Africa's future growth opportunities into beneficial and sustainable organisations. Such plans must comprise a thorough approach to its geographical mark, novelty to tackle Africans' unmet requirements, the development of solutions that create resilience in business operations and taking confident and innovative moves to develop the necessary leadership skills amongst local talent. If more organisations adopt such strategies, Africa might be home to several larger, effective organisations that produce positive results for their shareholders and create a positive change in millions of people's lives (McKinsey & Company, 2018).

Generally times are uncertain. Kaletsky (2010) suggests that in a realm where the outlook is uncertain and influenced by impulsive relations concerning social conduct, hopes, and experience, the reasonable expectation of a distinct "correct" leadership model that all trust in is a myth. Despite the dynamic powers that influence business, value creation is the general objective and the typical judge of business success (Porter, 2008). Collins and Porras (2005) suggest that business success concerns more than just creating economic value and must also include motives for its existence. Beliefs in the meaning of value usually depend on business investors, of which leadership is possibly the main driver concerning value creation.

1.2. The African FMCG industry: overview and challenges

1.2.1. Introduction

Organisations competing and looking to compete in Africa face the continent's immense magnitude and complexity. Africa dwarfs China, Europe, and the United States combined land expanse (see Figure 1.1). The physical size of Africa is difficult to grasp. An equally critical task is to form a mental schema of Africa, let alone consider the complexities associated with leadership and leadership development. The African continent comprise 1.2 billion people in 54 countries. There are more than a thousand languages, different resources, range in income levels, infrastructure progress, educational ability, and business capabilities. The pursuit of business-model improvement, developing local talent, improving local development, and creating business resilience remain “must-dos” in Africa (McKinsey & Company, 2018; Leke, Chironga, & Desvaux, 2018).

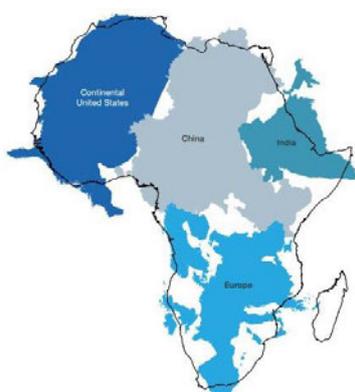


Figure 1.1 The size of the African continent

Source: Leke et al. (2018)

1.2.2. Africa rising

In the years to come, Africa should be home to some of the world's fastest developing economies (Bughin, 2016). Mozambique, Ethiopia and Rwanda are set to record the fastest growth in terms of real GDP, which is greater than the global average (Euromonitor International, 2018).

Euromonitor International (2018) suggests the primary markets in Africa are Nigeria and South Africa. In 2017 the two countries contributed almost 50% of the continent's GDP. However, by 2030, these two countries will likely account for 37% of Africa's total GDP, illustrating the rising economic importance of the continent's emerging markets.

Given the continent's growing population and GDP, Africa is likely to become the most potent territory for several industries, particularly the Fast Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG) industry, which includes packaged food, consumer electronics, beauty and personal care (Leke et al., 2018). The FMCG industry is a strategically important contributor to economic growth (Jacobs & Mafini, 2019).

Africa will hold 16% of the world's internet users by 2030, which suggests 260% growth from 2017. This shift renders Africa the fastest-growing region for the number of internet users, creating exciting opportunities, such as in online retailing and mobile banking (McKinsey & Company, 2018).

Africa's consumer spending will exceed the global average in the years to come. Most of the increase in Africa's consumer expenditure will come from rapidly growing smaller markets, such as those of Ethiopia and Kenya, which are both expected to record consumer spending compound annual growth rate (CAGRs) of 8% over the 2017–2030 forecast period. Africa's communications sector will gain the most from the increase in consumer spending. It is expected to result in significant developments in the continent's mobile offerings (Euromonitor International, 2018).

Although larger economies, such as Egypt, Nigeria, and South Africa, are expected to record relatively gradual consumer spending growth in percentage terms, the three combined will contribute over USD190 million to Africa's consumer expenditure during the forecast period of 2017–2030 (Euromonitor International, 2018).

1.2.3. Africa's population growth

For international and Africa-based organisations considering to enter growing markets, Africa presents various prospects. Africa comprise 1.2 billion people population with a median age of 20. Over the next 30 years, the population in Africa is

projected to double and will shortly be the quickest urbanised territory on earth. Africa has numerous cities, many with more than a million people. During the next two decades, more than 80 per cent of its population growth will happen in cities. In Africa's cities, the per capita income is over twice the continental mean, making them an appealing market of businesses. The current and future growth in Africa points toward a historic economic shift. The prompt development Africa is experiencing has given rise to the factor of ten increase in GDP per capita (Leke et al., 2018).

1.2.4. Africa's business and growth

Africa has many large organisations and has room to expand. Business in Africa is big: 400 businesses post incomes of USD1 billion or more, and almost 700 businesses have revenues greater than USD500 million. These businesses have grown faster in local currency terms and profitability than their global peers in most areas. The combined results boast USD1.4 trillion in revenues in 2015. Approximately 40% of the companies are listed, and the balance privately owned (Leke et al., 2018).

Despite varied success accounts, Africa trails in the wake of other emerging regions in accommodating large businesses. South African organisations account for almost half of Africa's big firms. Furthermore, on average, Africa's large businesses are smaller than businesses in other developing countries. For these two reasons, the sum of all large businesses in Africa is approximately a third of what it might be (Leke et al., 2018).

The lack of Africa's big businesses is not solely a problem for shareholders, but predominately society as these organisations are the catalysts for economic growth. Big companies are like baobab trees: they tower above others, have deep roots, and a longer life expectancy. Generally considered the tree of life, the baobab creates healthy food that maintains several areas. Organisational baobabs promote local industry: they provide financial resources for wages and taxes, operational improvements, innovation, and the adoption of technological advancements. Similar to baobabs, big organisations create ecosystems, promoting small-business creation throughout their supply chain. These large firms are generally better positioned to attract investment, helping them to compete globally. Africa has space, the need, and

a growing population to nurture billion-dollar companies across the continent (Leke et al., 2018).

However, Africa's business setting remains poorly understood and recognised to many merely by its reputation for complexity, corruption, and conflict (Chironga, Desvaux, & Leke, 2019; McKinsey & Company, 2018; Desvaux & Leke, 2018).

Jacobs and Mafini (2019) state that the South African FMCG industry is faced with challenges that require immediate attention and solutions.

1.2.5. Africa's consumer

"Africa Rising" refers to a rising middle class, although a vast opportunity exists at the "bottom of the pyramid" (BOP) (Euromonitor International, 2018, p. 7). The BOP refers to households with an annual disposable income of USD2,500 or less (Euromonitor International, 2018).

BOP represented more than a third of Sub-Saharan African (SSA) households in 2017, and in South Africa, BOP discretionary expenditure is the highest in the region and will likely increase to 46% by 2030 (Euromonitor International, 2018).

Nigeria is a significant BOP market due to its size in both proportional and absolute terms. The BOP market in Nigeria and South Africa is unlikely to shrink through 2030. Companies should take a long-term BOP strategy for these two countries (Euromonitor International, 2018).

1.2.6. Food and beverage offer great potential

FMCG products such as food and beverages account for the largest share of BOP households' expenditure across the African continent. However, many of the products purchased are from informal, open-air markets. Reaching these markets requires creative distribution strategies from FMCG businesses (Euromonitor International, 2018).

In Africa, partnering with established brands is generally the best way to expand market presence, and gaining access to BOP consumers in Africa usually requires an

unconventional distribution network; however, the FMCG industry offers excellent potential (Euromonitor International, 2018).

1.2.7. The African retailing environment

The African retail market achieved sales greater than USD350 billion in 2017. Sales were driven by non-grocery retailers which accounted for 44% of total retail sales in the region while traditional grocery retailers ranked second with over USD125 billion in sales (Euromonitor International, 2018).

Traditional grocery retailers comprise a significant channel in countries across the African continent for FMCG purchases. Despite the emergence of new retail channels throughout the region, informal retailing dominates due to the high proportion of low-income consumers and high unemployment levels. Consequently, new retail channels, such as hypermarkets and supermarkets, are considered expensive by many people (Euromonitor International, 2018).

New retailing accounts for 5–30% of the retail landscape in a country. However, informal retailing is not just for low-income consumers. Many middle-income Africans also regularly purchase from informal markets due to strong cultural tradition (Leke et al., 2018).

South Africa has a well-developed modern retail sector, compared to the rest of Africa, at over 70%. As such, in 2017, South Africa accounted for 22% of all retail sales on the continent. For major economies such as Nigeria, retail markets continue to be overshadowed by traditional informal means, for example open-air markets (Leke et al., 2018).

Currently, Nigeria lacks formal representation with contemporary retail development assessed at 5%. The disparity between Nigeria and South Africa emphasises the scale of the retail opportunity on the continent. Contemporary retailing in countries such as Angola, Cameroon, Ethiopia, Ghana, and Kenya, is also considered underdeveloped. In Kenya, the adoption of a new constitution in 2010 provides for the decentralisation of resources and power away from the central government. The expectation is to provide an opportunity to unite the rural-urban divide by bringing products and services

closer to consumers. The objective is to see the modern retail footprint expand, especially in modern rural cities (Leke et al., 2018).

The overarching challenge faced by organisations in the African FMCG industry is to innovate their business model and develop skills to build sustainable and resilient businesses. Africa comprise consumers whose economic activity is greater than India's, and will soon have twice the amount of smartphone users than North America (Leke et al., 2018).

Capitalising on opportunities offered by both the BOP and the growing middle-class consumer bases will be critical in African countries with bespoke product and service offerings for each segment. Companies will require an in-depth understanding of Africa's diverse consumer profiles to offer products and services to local, regional and country-specific preferences. Growth in modern retailing requires a business to understand the distribution model and consumer preferences for informal retailing, which is likely to remain dominant for some time (Euromonitor International, 2018).

Although poverty in Africa remains prevalent, by reassigning challenges as an invitation for innovation, organisational leadership can help their businesses, and Africa, to prosper (Euromonitor International, 2018; Leke et al., 2018; Swaniker, 2018).

1.3. Responding to the challenges

For African FMCG businesses to effectively contend in a dynamic setting, it is essential to respond and adjust to the challenges.

1.3.1. Entrepreneurial energy required

If Africa is to build big businesses, then lots of its smaller businesses will need the entrepreneurial energy required to step-up and be the future organisational baobabs. Small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) comprise a central part in fast-tracking economic growth, attending the needs of African markets, and particularly generating jobs (Leke et al., 2018).

The World Bank suggests that SMEs account for 77 per cent of jobs on the continent, which for some counties represents approximately half their GDP. Midsize businesses

are generally the primary creators of jobs. Studies indicate that businesses with 50 to 200 workers can generate opportunities at double the speed of small and large companies combined (Leke et al., 2018).

Africa is large with ample space to build scalable business-networks — whether in technology, retail, agriculture, manufacturing, mining, or other sectors. The immense unmet needs and unsatisfied demand of Africa make it ripe for entrepreneurship and improvement (Leke et al., 2018).

The Kwaden Group represents a business case in the African FMCG sector. In just over three decades the Kwaden Group has grown from a garage-based operation into African FMCG business-network employing hundreds of people. The Group comprise businesses in food manufacturing, food warehousing and distribution, food sales, Information Technology (IT), software development, property management, and support and administration companies to centralise support.

Table 1.1 provides a schema of the Kwaden Group FMCG business-network.

Table 1.1 Kwaden Group business-network schema

Company	Location	Industry
Imana Foods	KwaZulu Natal	Food manufacturing
SGX Logistics	National	Warehousing and logistics
SGX Sales	National	Sales Agency
Process Sales	KwaZulu Natal	Sales Agency
Fairlane Agencies	Gauteng	Sales Agency
Simpex	Windhoek, Namibia	Sales Agency
IT Dynamics	KwaZulu Natal	IT Infrastructure
Kwaden Software Development Company	KwaZulu Natal	Software Development

Company	Location	Industry
Kwaden Services	KwaZulu Natal	Administration
Dimabuzz	National	Property Company

Source: Researcher

1.3.2. Strategy required

To win in Africa, choosing how and where to participate is vital. Organisations competing in developing cities and regions increase their likelihood of success. However, sound strategic decisions are just one step in the journey for businesses looking to succeed on the continent (Leke et al., 2018).

A smart approach to expansion in Africa should consider the following: a clear plan for an innovative business model; operational solutions that handle risk and improve business resilience to Africa's inevitable shocks; and an innovative approach to unleash Africa's talent, such as developing occupational and leadership skills while cultivating an original type of African business leader for the coming century (Leke et al., 2018). Jacobs and Mafini (2019) state the African FMCG businesses require immediate leadership interventions to improve performance.

1.4. Research problem statement

Leadership is likely the most critical yet complex challenge facing humanity. Although widely discussed, there is a distinct lack of consent regarding the evolving concept of leadership (Eberly, Johnson, Hernandez, & Avolio, 2013; Landis, Hill, & Harvey, 2014). Despite significant investment, a growing concern for organisations is that leadership development initiatives are not building the necessary leadership skills (Cohen, 2017; Cullen-Lester, Maupin, & Carter, 2017; Eberly et al., 2013).

Cohen (2017) states the prevailing logic of leadership programmes appear to be built on questionable assumptions, unlike established disciplines such as philosophy, economics and sociology (Burns, Diamond-Vaught, & Bauman, 2015; Cohen, 2017; Eberly et al., 2013). Dansereau (2013) suggests an opportunity exists in unifying

traditional and contemporary leadership theories. Cullen-Lester (2017) recommends a need for interventions that employ collaborative, multi-level techniques as an approach to increase leadership capacity in organisations. Bolden, Witzel, and Linacre (2016) suggest the adoption of interconnected, interdependent, synergistic, holistic, and globalised perspectives in turbulent times. These studies indicate research gaps, needs and opportunity for the integration of leadership theories where concepts, models and principles unify into a more coherent, holistic, theoretically-relevant and empirically-validated model (Cullen-Lester et al., 2017; Dansereau et al., 2013; Eberly et al., 2013; Heath, Martin, & Shahisaman, 2017; Kim & McLean, 2015; Shrivastava, Selvarajah, Meyer, & Dorasamy, 2014).

Holt, Hall, and Gilley (2018) suggest that leaders should be at all levels of an organisation and that everyone contributes towards organisational performance. For an organisation to remain competitive, and thus sustainable, organisations need to ensure leadership skills development initiatives are coherent and ensure a multifaceted effort to respond to ongoing internal and external challenges. As such, it seems reasonable to suggest a gap exists to unify traditional and contemporary leadership theories that employ collaborative, multilevel techniques to increase leadership capacity.

Businesses that succeed in Africa need to invest in talent, and that investment will reap significant rewards for them as they grow. Developing talent is a strategic role, which should be considered part of the value chain and not outsourced to the national university system. Africa has an abundance of talent. Converting Africa's raw talent may only require a short training program that could be enough to unlock the skills that businesses require. Importantly, business that wants to expand into Africa should have a plan for doing good while doing well (Chironga et al., 2019; Leke et al., 2018; Swaniker, 2018). Furthermore, to improve performance, African FMCG businesses need leadership development interventions (Jacobs & Mafini, 2019). Therefore, it seems fair to suggest a gap exists for African FMCG businesses to improve leadership capacity to realise their potential.

To address the leadership challenges and the business prospects in FMCG businesses in Africa, an opportunity exists for the Kwaden Group, as a case in the

African FMCG sector, to cultivate the next generation of leaders and build the required leadership capability for doing good while doing well in Africa.

Considering the above, research gaps concern:

1. The need for the unification of traditional and contemporary leadership theories into a more coherent approach; and
2. The need for African FMCG businesses to improve leadership capacity to realise potential.

As such, the problem statement is as follows:

- Leadership skills development initiatives are built on questionable assumptions (Cohen, 2017; Eberly et al., 2013) and are not building the necessary leadership skills to improve leadership capacity required in African FMCG businesses (Chironga et al., 2019; Cohen, 2017; Cullen-Lester et al., 2017; Eberly et al., 2013; Jacobs & Mafini, 2019; Leke et al., 2018).

1.5. Research questions

To address the research problem, the following research questions need to be answered:

1.5.1. Theoretical questions: conceptual model development

1. What leadership skills, knowledge and abilities are important?
2. How is leadership currently developed?
3. How could leadership skills be developed?

1.5.2. Practical questions: conceptual model assessment

4. How important are the constructs of a conceptual model for leadership skills development to the Kwaden Group, as a case in the African FMCG sector?
5. As a case in the African FMCG sector, what leadership skills does the Kwaden Group require and how should they be developed?
6. How could leadership skills be developed in the Kwaden Group, as a case in the African FMCG sector?

1.6. Research objectives

Following the problem statement and research questions, this study has the following research objectives:

1.6.1. Theoretical objectives: conceptual model development

1. Determine theoretically relevant leadership constructs;
2. Determine theoretically relevant approaches to leadership skills development;
3. Conceptualise a model for leadership skills development;

1.6.2. Practical objectives: conceptual model assessment

4. Perform a quantitative assessment of the appropriateness of the leadership constructs within a conceptual model for leadership skills development in the Kwaden Group, as a case in the African FMCG sector;
5. Perform a qualitative assessment on the leadership skills and leadership skills development requirements in the Kwaden Group, as a case in the African FMCG sector; and
6. Critically explore how the conceptual model for leadership skills development could develop leadership skills in the Kwaden Group, as a case in the African FMCG sector.

1.7. Research design and methodology

The researcher chose to conduct a study in the African FMCG sector. The Kwaden Group was chosen as a case for practical accessibility and for the researcher's knowledge and experience in the FMCG sector. The researcher works for a company within the Kwaden Group. The Kwaden Group Chairman suggested the Group would provide an opportunity for the researcher to assess a conceptual model for leadership skills development. The Kwaden Group is concerned with creating hope and opportunity in people's lives and developing leadership skills is regarded important. The researcher's subjectivity followed the quantitative and qualitative design methodologies.

The research design and methodology for this study comprise an explanatory sequential mixed-methods approach. A mixed-method design captures the best of both qualitative and quantitative techniques (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018).

Firstly, a quantitative analysis of the Kwaden Group to empirically observe, measure, and validate a conceptual model for leadership skills development. A quantitative survey will be emailed to all the Kwaden Group full-time employees. There are approximately three hundred people in Sub Saharan Africa (SSA). Subjects will be required to complete an online questionnaire. Data collection will be done online via Google Forms. Google Forms automatically makes the data available in Google Sheets. The data will then be exported from Google Sheets to Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) numerical format. In the event there is no internet access, physical questionnaires for the quantitative data collection will be made available. The null hypothesis of no significant change will apply to all quantitative data. The data will be analyzed with appropriate parametric and non-parametric statistics. Organisation and biological results will provide demographic details of the participants in this study. Descriptive statistics will be applied to explain the importance of the constructs of the conceptual model. Multiple regression analysis will be performed to understand construct-to-construct correlations and significance. Cronbach's alpha coefficient will be used to establish construct validity.

Secondly, a qualitative, in-depth interview schedule with key decision-makers to further identify patterns and themes concerning leadership and leadership skills development. The qualitative interviews will be organised with the directors of the Kwaden Group. Qualitative data will be recorded into Google Documents. Braun and Clarke (2006) method of thematic analysis will be applied with the qualitative data to establish the themes and patterns supplied by the participants. Finally, the data will be used to originate a leadership skills development model for the Kwaden Group.

The study is informed by an initial literature review and a six-construct conceptual model.

1.8. Division of the study

The thesis consists of eight chapters:

Chapter 1: Study overview

Chapter 2: Leadership review: Toward a conceptual leadership model

Chapter 3: Leadership development review: Toward a conceptual leadership skills development model

Chapter 4: Research design and methodology: An assessment of the conceptual leadership skills development model

Chapter 5: Quantitative results and findings

Chapter 6: Qualitative results and findings

Chapter 7: Leadership skills development model

Chapter 8: Research conclusions, contributions, and recommendations

1.9. Resume

This chapter provides an overview of the African FMCG industry and describes both the challenges and opportunities on the African continent. The background and motivation concerning the research gaps and research problem were discussed, including the research questions and formulated research objectives. An overview of the research design and methodology followed and concluded with a concise summary of the division of the study.

The following chapter concerns a review of leadership literature toward the conceptualisation of a leadership model.

2. LEADERSHIP REVIEW: TOWARD A CONCEPTUAL LEADERSHIP MODEL

2.1. Introduction

The previous chapter provided an overview of the study. This chapter provides a review of leadership literature towards the conceptualisation of a leadership model.

Leadership research extends throughout the behavioural, social, and physical sciences, management, the disciplines of psychology, anthropology, politics, sociology, biology along with evolutionary studies. In contrast to the comparatively large account of leadership theory and research, the orderly analysis of leadership development (generally defined to also include leader development) has a relatively short history. The ancient Egyptian hieroglyphs also portrayed the leader, follower, and leadership (Yammarino, 2017).

More than a century of leadership study has resulted in some paradigm shifts and much confusion. On numerous occasions, leadership scholars have grown frustrated with minor theoretical advances and contradicting results. Bennis (1959, pp. 259-260), stated six decades ago that “Of all the hazy and confounding areas in social psychology, leadership theory undoubtedly contends for the top nomination... Probably more has been written and less is known about leadership than about any other topic in the behavioural sciences.” Equally, Hackman and Wageman (2007) established that the subject of leadership is “curiously unformed” (p. 43). For the last half-century, leadership scholars have battled to construct an integrated and theoretically cohesive view of leadership. As such, leadership remains an expansive and essential field of study (Bass & Bass, 2008; Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm, & McKee, 2014; Day & Thornton, 2018; Yammarino, 2017; Yukl, 2012).

Leadership is central in the managerial and mainstream media world. Corporate, government, military, and not-for-profit organisations all require the development of effective leadership, which is currently a major concern for all kinds of organisations (Day et al., 2014). Despite significant growth and investment in leadership development, there is little proof that leadership is improving and being more effective.

Leaders at the wheel of various religious, financial, corporate, educational, and government institutes have been responsible for the huge failures that have eroded public trust and led to damaging social, economic, political and environmental consequences (Cohen, 2017). To find solutions to the complex problems faced by our global society, we need leaders who have the necessary skills to transform our current social, economic, political and ecological realities (Burns, Vaught, & Bauman, 2015).

In this chapter, discussion concerns the concepts of leader and leadership.

The aims of this chapter are to:

1. Discuss general, traditional, and contemporary topics concerning leadership;
2. Determine theoretically relevant leadership dimensions, attributes, and constructs; and
3. Discuss a conceptual leadership model.

2.2. A brief overview of leadership

In this section, discussion concerns the past, present and future topics in the field of leadership. The objective is to provide a brief overview of leadership theory.

2.2.1. What is leadership?

Leadership is possibly the most critical event in the field of human behaviour as almost nothing gets done without it. Leadership is also one of the social sciences most significant studied phenomena, where the scrutiny afforded is not surprising taking into consideration it is a wide-spread action marked in both humanity and the animal species (Bass & Bass, 2008). Reference to leadership is clear in Western and Eastern texts, with a general consensus that leadership is essential for social, economic and environmental development (Antonakis & Day, 2018; Yammarino, 2017).

While leadership may be simple to recognise in practice, it is often hard to define. Considering the multifaceted study of leadership, a generally agreed definition of leadership does not presently exist. Also, Antonakis (2017) points out that learnings in the social sciences remain not cohesively integrated, and the perspective that

leadership researches operate is uncertain. Fiedler (1971) notes: "There are as many definitions of leadership as there are leadership theories-and there are almost as many theories of leadership as there are psychologists working in the field" (p. 1). It is therefore problematic to get leadership researchers to settle on a definition.

In the absence of consensus, the following description of leadership is made by Antonakis and Day (2018):

Leadership is equally formal and informal, contextually fixed and an objective-orientated manner that comprise leadership, followers, or societies. The discipline of leadership concerns a methodical inquiry of this practice and its effects. Leadership includes how the leader's character and behaviours, observer assumptions concerning the leader's qualities, and witness acknowledgements created concerning the effects.

Recognition of 'leader-centric' is mostly due to the one-way influences linked with the individual qualities of a leader. Nonetheless, equal importance is granted to followers as they ultimately legitimise leadership (Antonakis & Day, 2018; Yammarino, 2017). Leadership is a fundamental role in the coordination of human and organisational resources toward achieving a particular outcome. Leadership is mostly rooted in context, which might influence the leadership approach and thus, its effectiveness (Liden & Antonakis, 2009). To further explain the leadership phenomenon, definitional aspects comprising official and unofficial leadership, leadership as an individual, leadership behaviour, leadership development, the outcomes of leadership, the collaborative means concerning leadership and followers, including the meaning of social cognition and circumstance are incorporated (Antonakis & Day, 2018).

2.2.2. What leadership is not

When referring to leadership, confusion arises between concepts of power and management. Power concerns the discretion and means leaders may use in their position to control and enforce their will (Dansereau et al., 2013). The distinction concerning leadership and management is opposite. Leadership is driven by purpose, based on a vision, values, beliefs, ideas and emotions (Antonakis & Day, 2018; Antonakis, Day, & Schyns, 2012). Management is task-orientated, grounded in

operational efficiency and bureaucratic means to fulfil obligations. Although some regard managers and leaders as distinct individuals, others maintain effective leadership necessitates effective management, that they are complementary. However, leadership transcends management as leadership gives rise to outcomes that typically exceed expectations (Antonakis & Day, 2018).

2.2.3. The requirement for leadership

The requirement for leadership comprise many grounds (Lord, 1977). Research recommends that leaders at all levels of an organisation affect performance, implying the need for leadership effectiveness as well as leaders at all levels (Holt et al., 2018).

From a managerial level, leadership is required to enhance organisational practises and solve challenging tasks and social problems (Antonakis & Day, 2018). At a strategic level, leadership is essential to maintain the structure and alignment of organisational resources. At this level, such skills guide the organisation toward achieving its strategic objectives considering the external environment (Zaccaro, 2001). At a functional level, the coordination of organisational functions within a lively external environment is essential (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Therefore, taking a practical viewpoint, a leader is able to 'complete' whatever is not being effectively achieved by a group (McGrath, 1962).

For an organisation to remain competitive in a dynamic context, leaders need to monitor the internal and external environments continually. Leaders should formulate and pursue a strategy grounded on the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats of the organisation. It is essential that leaders effectively communicate the vision that inspires and motivates the team, provide the necessary support, and then evaluate progress to ensure the strategic objectives are met (Antonakis & House, 2014). In order to ensure optimum success, modern organisations require effective leaders (Landis et al., 2014).

2.2.4. A concise summary of leadership schools

Bass (1990) suggests that "if a theory of leadership is to be used for diagnosis, training, and development, it must be theory grounded in the concepts and assumptions that

are acceptable to and used by managers, officials, and emergent leaders” (p. 37). Concerning the most relevant leadership philosophies, concepts, theories, terms, definitions, and models, critical elements of the theory and the associated effects should be studied (Landis et al., 2014).

There are many views of leadership categorisation (Yammarino, 2017). This study draws on the recent work by Antonakis and Day (2018) on the nine primary schools of leadership, as illustrated in Figure 2.1. The term ‘schools’ in this study refers to literature concerning the field of study.

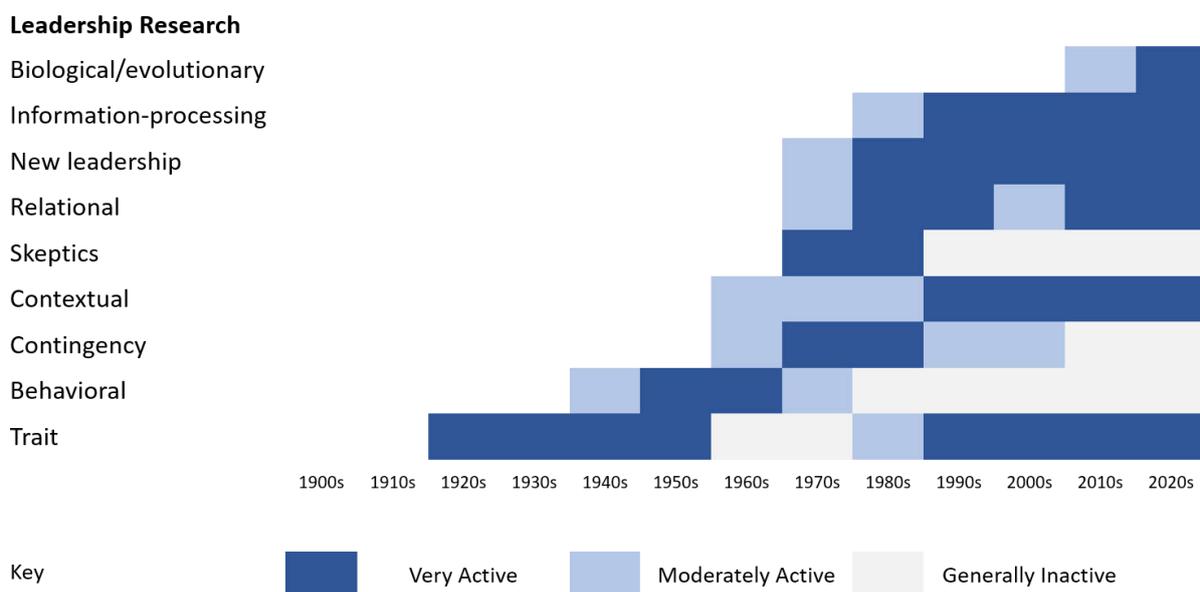


Figure 2.1 A brief history of leadership research

Source: Antonakis and Day (2018)

2.2.4.1. The trait school

The academic inquiry concerning the trait school leadership commenced early last century (Antonakis & Day, 2018). The trait-based or “great man” concept transpired first. This view considered influencing society through the lens of extraordinary people. The trait-based approach recommended that specific traits, i.e., steady behaviour characteristics and traits, distinguished leadership from non-leadership. Consequently, scholars in the field of leadership converged on establishing essential character traits believed to be related to successful leadership.

At the time, prominent reviews by Mann (1959) and Stogdill (1948) suggested that two predictive leadership traits were intelligence and dominance. However, many leadership scholars chose to end trait research following the pessimistic explanations of the research results (Day & Zaccaro, 2007; Zaccaro, 2012). These issues concerned the earliest challenge experienced by leadership academics. It took almost three decades for this field of study to re-emerge.

The reappearance of trait-based leadership arose from a further review of Mann's (1959) records examining the correlation of leadership and traits using a meta-analysis, a fairly new and pioneering technique (Lord, De Vader, & Alliger, 1986). This novel approach by Lord et al. (1986) proved a strong correlation between the trait of intelligence and perceptions of leadership. Recent meta-analyses studies by Judge et al. (2004) support that leadership effectiveness correlates with objectivity measured intelligence. There have been extensive studies of the trait viewpoint on leadership and the relatively compelling association with personality dynamics with leadership efficacy and development (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002; Judge, Colbert, et al., 2004; Zaccaro, 2007). Trait leadership research is progressing and considered on the verge of a resurgence (Antonakis et al., 2012; Zaccaro, 2012). Furthermore, progress is underway concerning the traits of a too-much-of-a-good-thing perception (Pierce & Aguinis, 2013). These findings suggest the relationship of character (Ames & Flynn, 2007) and perhaps intellect (Antonakis, House, & Simonton, 2017) to leadership is complex and possibly nonlinear. These results suggest flaws in previous research and underestimate the real relationship between traits and leadership (Antonakis & Day, 2018).

2.2.4.2. The behavioural school

Early negative views concerning trait research led scholars in the field of leadership to begin concentrating on the behavioural techniques of leaders. This research approach focused on the leader's behaviour and how leaders treated followers. Two overarching leadership factors emerged from studies by Ohio State University (Stogdill & Coons, 1957) and Michigan University (Katz, Maccoby, Gurin, & Floor, 1951). Consideration was the first leadership factor, where kindness and people-orientation in leadership are key. Second, initiating structure, which comprise task-orientation and

directive leadership. This study progressed to include outcomes at several levels of the organisation (Blake & Mouton, 1964). However, it fell into a trap of contradictory results relating to leadership behaviour styles and relevant outcomes. As a result, no reliable proof of a generally favoured leadership technique among tasks or situations exists. These conflicting results lead scholars toward the belief that the achievement of a leader's behavioural approach is subject to the context. These outcomes resulted in an emphasis on leadership contingencies in the 1960s (Antonakis & Day, 2018).

Studies on behavioural theories of leadership are in decline (Antonakis, Bastardo, Liu, & Schriesheim, 2014). Although, existing views of leadership are constructed from the behavioural movement (e.g., transformational leadership and contingency theories). Furthermore, contemporary meta-analytic findings point toward the possibility of improved support for initiating structure on determining leadership effects (Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004). Subsequently, emphasis on the initiating structure (generally referred to as "instrumental leadership") concept is growing (Rowold, 2014).

2.2.4.3. The contingency school

Fiedler (1971) mostly contributed to the leadership discipline concerning contingency theory. Fiedler acknowledged that leader-follower interactions, overall objectives, and the leader's position of command shaped the approach of the form of leadership used. House (1971) suggested another well-known contingency approach which converged on the leader's task to simplify means toward follower objectives. This field of study progressed into the "substitutes-for-leadership" theory by highlighting the circumstances where leadership is not required because of elements such as follower skills, and distinct and standardised organisational policies and procedures.

Further fields of study include theories of leadership decision-making techniques and the associated possibilities (Vroom, 1976; Vroom & Jago, 1978; Vroom & Yetton, 1973). Although, development in contingency theories appear to have come to an abrupt halt (Dinh et al., 2014). Elements concerning the discipline of contingency leadership currently incorporate the contextual methods to follow this section.

2.2.4.4. The contextual school

Closely associated with the contingent approach is the contextual school of leadership (Dinh et al., 2014). This view stands grounded, originally, in cross-cultural psychology (Hall, 1976; Hofstede, 1997; Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961b). The contextual perspective comprise broad topics about how contextual elements, for example, hierarchical leadership, leader-follower gender, domestic culture, organisation culture, and crisis, between other aspects, either produce or impede leadership behaviours, including what type of leadership is considered appropriate (Antonakis & Day, 2018). The appreciation of contextual elements in which leadership is rooted is required to advance a universal understanding of leadership. In other words, leaders' do not operate in a void (House & Aditya, 1997). Bacharach (1989) suggests leadership remains principally grounded in context, and its limits must be communicated to ensure its nature is better understood.

2.2.4.5. The relational school

Following the contingency approach, a new line of leadership emerged. This line focused on the relationships between leaders and followers. Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1975) originated the vertical dyad linkage theory which thereafter advanced into the theory of leader-member exchange (LMX) (Graen & Uhl-bien, 1995). LMX theory explains the nature of the relations between leadership and followers. Good associations concerning leaders and their followers, i.e., the "in" group, built on a foundation of respect and trust, while poor associations concerning leaders and their followers, i.e., the "out" group, centred on the achievement of set objectives.

The primary theme of the LMX theory is that the quality of the leader-follower association indicates practical and attitudinal results. Therefore, LMX comprise important variables guided at multiple levels, which may be the result of leadership, the followers, the organisational structure, or the environment (Antonakis, Bendahan, Jacquart, & Lalive, 2014). Empirically supported research of LMX theory suggests that good-quality relations between leaders and followers create better outcomes than those of poor-quality relationships (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007). The general interest in relational approaches to leadership

continues to find new directions and seems to be reasonably solid (Dinh et al., 2014; Gardner, Lowe, Moss, Mahoney, & Cogliser, 2010).

2.2.4.6. The sceptics-of-leadership school

In the 1970s and 1980s leadership inquiry faced yet another set of challenges. The legitimacy of questionnaire evaluations of leadership was considered possibly subjective concerning original concepts of leadership by those delivering the assessments (Eden & Leviathan, 1975; Rush, Thomas, & Lord, 1977). Such opinion proposes that what leadership does occurs mainly due to performance results and might also illustrate the inherent leadership principles leaders have in their minds (Eden & Leviathan, 1975). Generally, observes credit leadership as a means of describing experimental outcomes, even if the effects were owed to influences separate from leaderships' expertise (Weber, Camerer, Rottenstreich, & Knez, 2001). Researchers claim that observers create these assessments in the practice of recognising and detailing reasons to organisational results (Calder, 1977; Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987). Consequently, a leader's actions could be mostly immaterial, considering that the results of the leader's team or organisation affect how leaders are measured. In summary, leadership was a designation made to a person depending on how well their entity did.

A further field of study questioned if leadership occurred or was even required, therefore investigating whether or not leadership had any effect on organisational results (Gemmill & Oakley, 1992; Pfeffer, 1977). Leadership scholars who have tackled many of these arguments are classed as realists as opposed to sceptics (Barrick, Day, Lord, & Alexander, 1991; Day & Lord, 1988). However, an appeal exists to unite both views into a single theory (Jacquart & Antonakis, 2015). Attention to the sceptic's view has shrunk; however, research in follower's positions in leadership activities continues to grow (Gardner et al., 2010). Concerning various questions raised in the sceptic's school, the review of leadership has advanced from (1) improved research methodologies, (2) differentiating between different levels of leadership, and (3) addressing how followers observe truth. Also, the review of followership and the outcomes of information-processing perceptions of leadership have advanced leadership theory and the leadership field.

2.2.4.7. The information-processing school

Lord and associates (Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984) motivated the direction of the information-processing view of leadership. This approach has primarily focused on understanding why and how leaders are followed. Additionally, this perception provides an enhanced understanding of how cognition relates to the performance of leadership activities (Antonakis & Day, 2018). Further noteworthy aspects are the associations created to other leadership topics including contextual elements (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Lord & Emrich, 2001).

Information-processing views concerning leadership comprise considerable interest while continuing to grow, especially in leader/follower cognitions (Antonakis, Bastardo, et al., 2014; Gardner et al., 2010). Consequently, leadership understanding should progress as investigation continues in the areas of emotions, cognition, and information-processing.

2.2.4.8. The new school

While leadership research was starting to stagnate, Bass and colleagues (Bass, 1985, 1985b, 1990; Hater & Bass, 1988; Seltzer & Bass, 1990) contributed toward progressing charismatic and visionary leadership theories (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1988, 1998). The charismatic leadership hypothesis of House's (1977), inspired the piece by Burns (1978) and Bass (1985), who argued that the prevailing theories of leadership were mostly transactional, i.e., too centred on the joint approval of transactional commitments. Bass believed leadership required a distinct approach to accommodate for follower effects driven by an awareness of mission and purpose. He called this kind of leadership transformational leadership, whereby leaders' actions inspired followers to surpass their interest for the greater good. Charismatic and transformational leadership, along with other models grouped in "neo-charismatic" methods, account for the most significant leadership paradigm and have the leading position in terms of articles published (Antonakis, Bastardo, et al., 2014).

2.2.4.9. The biological and evolutionary school

It is ironic that the oldest branch of natural science - biology - is the latest trend in leadership studies (Antonakis & Day, 2018). This new line of research which is somewhat associated to the trait view of leadership with regards to evaluating distinct disparities has materialised. This view has a foundation in hard science with the ability to precisely measure specific distinctions, e.g., biological processes or variables, and respects the reasons of adaptive actions through evolutionary developments.

Biological and evolutionary studies generate exciting results, including leadership responsibility tenure (Ilies, Gerhardt, & Le, 2004), the heritability of leadership emergence (Ilies et al., 2004), and the classification of particular genes linked with leadership development (De Neve, Mikhaylov, Dawes, Christakis, & Fowler, 2013). Further opportunities of interest comprise the influence of hormones, links between leadership and leader results, neuroscientific views of leadership, and current evolutionary perspectives on leadership. Another leading topic considers the results of physical appearance on leader outcomes (Antonakis & Day, 2018).

2.2.5. Emerging issues

The field of leadership does not have a robust paradigm to guide it. Antonakis (2017) states the field suffers from disjunctivitis, the tendency to generate disjointed, superfluous, mismatched work, which is not cohesive or paradigmatically created. An opportunity exists to piece together the leadership puzzle and start to unify as accomplished by other branches of science.

Given the accumulated knowledge of leadership research, scholars should begin to integrate complementary theoretical views of leadership, and some maintain that the modern age of leadership inquiry should incorporate evidence of integration (Van Seters & Field, 1990). Approximately two decades later, Avolio (2007) emphasised the need for a more unified approach to developing leadership theory. Creating hybrid or integrative theories of leadership, including psychological, contextual, and biological strands is possible, especially in process-type theories (Antonakis, 2011). An instance relates to the integration of various "new" leadership theories by House and Shamir (1993). A hybrid framework by Zazzaro's (2001) combines cognitive, behavioural,

visionary, and strategic leadership theory perspectives. Another new and relevant agenda is the integral method of leadership development that concerns theoretical integration of somewhat unrelated themes of performance, skill, identity self-regulation, and adult development (Day, Harrison, & Halpin, 2012).

Academic literature suggests that there are many ways to develop hybrid approaches to leadership theory creation. It is on-going efforts to consolidate leadership research that will enable the progression of leadership theory development. Earlier studies have laid the foundations to develop such theories. Antonakis and Day (2018) suggest that leadership scholars need to start conceptualising ways to unite different findings, trim theories, and after that, synthesise and integrate within and between disciplines.

This section provided a brief overview of leadership, the dominant paradigms, and recent matters concerning leadership. The following section covers the nine major schools of leadership to explicate leadership dimensions and attributes, toward the conceptualisation of constructs for a conceptual leadership model.

2.3. Traditional topics in leadership

In the last century, scientific inquiry has tried to make sense of leadership (Antonakis & Day, 2018). The complex phenomenon of leadership has often led social scientists to believe that leadership is beyond the reach of academic inquiry. However, science has confirmed what people intuitively knew throughout history: leadership matters.

This section provides an insight into nine (contingencies, context and situation have been grouped together) primary schools of leadership. The objective of this section is to determine theoretically relevant leadership attributes and dimensions from the classic topics of leadership, towards establishing constructs for a conceptual leadership model.

This section aims to:

1. Discuss leader traits and attributes;
2. Discuss charisma and the “new” leadership;
3. Discuss follower-centric approaches to leadership;
4. Discuss relational leadership;

5. Discuss contingencies, context, situation, and leadership;
6. Discuss shared leadership; and
7. Discuss biological, evolutionary, and neuroscience perspectives.

2.3.1. Leader traits and attributes

2.3.1.1. Introduction

Leadership scholars have battled to grasp the part of individual differences and personal attributes in describing the role of the leader and leadership effectiveness. The earliest scientific perspective is the "great man" theory from the 19th century. This view identified the unique qualities or attributes of heroes (Carlyle, 1907) or geniuses (Galton, 1869), which represented leadership. The last century has contributed essential findings in leadership and follower attributes. However, as research progressed, the latter part of the century saw the adoption of more sophisticated statistical approaches highlighting the strong correlation between individual leader differences and leadership outcomes (Kenny & Zaccaro, 1983; Lord et al., 1986). As studies continue to advance the understanding of the role of leader traits and attributes on outcomes, more sophisticated models regarding leader traits, situational contexts, and behaviour processes are necessary to advance the understanding of the role of leader traits and leadership effects (Zaccaro, LaPort, & Jose, 2013). Antonakis, Day and Schyns (2012) argue that current trait leadership research efforts have led the trait leadership renaissance, which Zaccaro (2012) suggests as the third tipping point in trait research. This section investigates recent models of leader attributes, as well as multivariate, nonlinear, pattern and collective leadership models. The focus incorporates the psychological traits, attributes, cognitive skills, social skills, personality, motives, and other characteristics of leaders. A leader's physical attributes also contribute to leadership outcomes.

2.3.1.2. Categories of leader attributes

Between 1924 and 2011, Zaccaro et al. (2013) registered almost fifty leader traits and attributes cited in academic evaluations of leadership works. Leader traits and attributes may be categorised into groups of social, cognitive, personality, self-beliefs, motives, and knowledge and skills. Leadership attribute groups are justified by linking

them to functional performance requirements that involve most if not all leadership positions. For example, creating a direction for followers and business units is an essential leadership performance requirement (Morgeson, DeRue, & Karam, 2009; Zaccaro, 2001). This function requires the leader's to determine operational requirements, identify and manage emergent issues, create and evaluate appropriate countermeasures, and to plan the implementation of such interventions (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs, & Fleishman, 2000). A broader perspective requires a leader's to take a long-term view and develop a vision and strategy that provides the foundation for operational direction and activities (Zaccaro, 2001). These leadership tasks require a variety of cognitive abilities, including problem-solving skills, reasoning skills, thinking skills, cognitive complexity and cognitive flexibility (Zaccaro et al., 2013). Zaccaro et al. (2013) suggest that some personality traits support and enable cognitive performance functions in difficult and complicated operational settings, for example, open-mindedness, emotional steadiness, and diligence. Such traits prepare a foundation for leaders to harness cognitive skills in demanding and complex situations and implement countermeasures to ambiguous problems (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, et al., 2000).

Leading followers and business units toward a set direction is another essential leader performance requirement (Zaccaro, 2001). This role requires functions such as appointing staff, developing staff, resourcing teams, coordinating tasks based on staff skills, conflict resolution, inspiring others, negotiating, influencing, and being the an organisations representative to various stakeholders (Zaccaro et al., 2013). The skills required to fulfil these functions include social intelligence, personal motivation, persuasion, communication, negotiation, and conflict management (Zaccaro, Kemp, & Bader, 2004; Zaccaro et al., 2013). Personality traits like extraversion, friendliness, and sociability help direct leaders in successful social interactions (Judge et al., 2002).

At higher organisational levels, leadership work is often harsh and demanding (Hambrick, Finkelstein, & Mooney, 2005). It frequently requires speed in addressing several demands and the use of power. Consequently, Zaccaro et al. (2013) maintain that self-motivational attributes such as dominance, motivation to lead, need for power, dominance, achievement motivation, and high energy are required to achieve leader performance requirements. Judge, Locke, and Durham (1997b) argue that the trait

pattern termed core self-evaluation also adds to leadership action. It includes emotional stability, a locus of control, self-esteem, and generalised self-efficacy. These self-beliefs reveal high levels of personal confidence, which promote resilience through personal challenge (Zaccaro, Dubrow, & Kolze, 2018).

Table 2.1 summarises leader attributes revealed in meta-analyses linked to leader emergence and leader effectiveness.

Table 2.1 Key leader attributes

Attributes	Range of correlations from meta-analyses	
	Leader Emergence	Leader Effectiveness
Cognitive capacities and skills		
General intelligence	.25 - .52	.15 - .17
Creative/divergent thinking capacities	.35	.31
Problem-solving skills		.39
Decision-making skills		.52
Personality		
Extraversion	.15 - .32	.12 - .31
Conscientiousness	.19 - .33	.16 - .28
Openness	.17 - .24	.09 - .24
Agreeableness	.01 - .05	.03 - .21
Neuroticism	-.08 - .24	-.22 - .24
Positive affectivity	.28	.33
Narcissism	.16	.03
Integrity		.29
Motives		
Dominance	.17 - .37	.35
Achievement orientation		.28
Energy		.29
Need for power		.16
Proactivity		.19
Ambition		.05
Social skills		
Self-monitoring	.14	.19 - .21
Social acuity		.30
Communications		.24 - .25
Emotional regulation		.14 - .37
Task skills		
Administrative skills		.17
Self-beliefs		
Self-efficacy/Self-esteem	.17	.24
Knowledge		
Technical knowledge		.19

Source: Zaccaro et al. (2018)

Cognitive leader skills confirmed by meta-analyses include intelligence, lateral or creative thinking capabilities, judgement, decision-making, and problem-solving skills. Table 2.1 highlights the corrected correlation between leader emergence and intelligence ranged from .25 to .52, and those between leadership effectiveness and intelligence ranged from .15 to .17 (Zaccaro et al., 2018). Similarly, Ensari et al. (2011) stated a corrected correlation of .35 for lateral thinking skills in leadership emergence. Hoffman et al. (2011) conveyed a corrected correlation of .31 of this skill with leadership effectiveness.

Personality has been central to several meta-analyses (e.g., Hoffman et al., 2011; Judge et al., 2002). Every dimension of the Big Five model (McCrae & Costa, 1987), agreeableness, conscientiousness, extraversion, openness, and emotional stability have shown corrected correlations greater than .20 in meta-analyses assessing leadership effectiveness or leader emergence. Conscientiousness and extraversion usually have the highest corrected correlations with leadership outcomes, while agreeableness is generally the lowest corrected correlation for leader emergence and effectiveness.

Principal leader motives include achievement, dominance, power acquisition, and being proactive or taking the initiative. The highest corrected correlation is generally dominance. Ensari et al. (2011) related a corrected correlation of .37 while Hoffman et al. (2011) indicated .35 for dominance as an attribute in leader emergence.

Social skills supported by meta-analyses include emotional intelligence, communication skills, emotional self-regulation, self-monitoring, and social acuity. Day et al. (2012) found a corrected correlation of .21 for self-monitoring and leadership effectiveness.

Leadership attribute meta-analyses provide evidence of the link between leadership skills and leadership outcomes. Table 2.1 provides a list of the most generally supported leadership attributes in the empirical literature (Zaccaro et al., 2018).

2.3.1.3. Sophisticated models of leader attributes and outcomes

In view of modest relationships between leadership outcomes and leader characteristics, leadership scholars have suggested the need for more multivariate and sophisticated models of leader, attributes, traits and outcomes (Lord & Hall, 1992; Zaccaro, 2007).

Variable models

Researchers suggest the foundation of variable (multi-attribute) models must comprise leadership effects conditions where the results concern leader attributes of personality, motivation, cognition, skills, and intelligence (Zaccaro et al., 2013). Recent studies support the multi-attribute approach. Bakker-Pieper and de Vries (2013) learnt that various personality and social skills result in a multiple correlation of .77 in leadership results. Serban et al. (2015) highlighted a significant change in leader development with character traits, cognitive skills, and self-efficacy. Troth and Gyetvey (2014) discovered a multiple correlation of .74 amongst motivational, social, and cognitive skills. On a final note, Zaccaro et al. (2015) suggest a compelling correlation exists concerning personality attributes, motivational, social, and cognitive skills with leader endurance in an organisation. These studies suggest a robust multiple correlation exists between various leader attributes and leadership outcomes. It seems reasonable to suggest that a multi-attribute approach is essential for achieving leadership outcomes.

Multistage models

Multistage models comprise leadership attributes, mediators, and outcomes (Zaccaro et al., 2013). The first, most straight forward models state that follower behaviour mediate the influence of leadership attributes on leadership outcomes. For instance, Nadkarni and Hermann (2010) discovered that an organisations strategic agility mediated the influence on Chief Executive Officer (CEO) personality and company performance. Luria and Berson (2012) established that the role of teamwork activities as mediating the joint influence of leader cognitive skills and motivation to lead on leader emergence scores. The second multistage model by Zaccaro et al. (2013) stipulates that leadership behaviours mediate the results on leadership outcomes. For

example, DeRue et al.'s (2011) meta-analysis researched how several leadership behaviours mediated the results of groups of task-related and interpersonal qualities. They established that introducing structure, transformational leadership, and reward behaviours mediated the influence of intelligence on leadership effectiveness. Finally, the third group of multistage models concerns those that separate leader attributes into distal and proximal sets (Zaccaro et al., 2004). Distal attributes relate to those which are generally constant and resistant to short-term developmental change. Proximal attributes are more likely to develop as a result of training and experience.

Attribute pattern models

The attribute pattern models suggest that a multiplicative mix of attributes will support distinct variance in leadership results beyond that described by single attributes or additive mixes of multiple attributes (Foti & Hauenstein, 2007; Zaccaro et al., 2004). The cleanest forms of such models specify the combined or collaborative effects of two leader attributes on leader behaviours and outcomes. More advanced forms suggest profiles of three or more attributes. As Foti and Hauenstein (2007) stated, in the latter, "the person is considered as an integrated totality rather than a summation of variables" (p. 347). The notion of the attribute pattern models is that one attribute, or multiple attributes from the same attribute group, are necessary but not enough to describe leadership behaviour and outcomes. Therefore, leadership outcomes are explained as an integrated combination of multiple variables from cognitive, motive, personality, and social skills/knowledge attribute groups.

Leader attribute perception by leaders and followers perform an essential role in calculating leadership behaviours and leader effectiveness (Lord & Maher, 1993; Shondrick, Dinh, & Lord, 2010). According to a conceptual framework described by Dinh and Lord (2012), Foti and associates provide evidence that such perceptions create holistic profiles of self and ideal leaders and how these profiles influence leadership outcomes.

Collective leadership

Collective or shared leadership research has intensified over the last decade (Contractor, DeChurch, Carson, Carter, & Keegan, 2012; Day, Gronn, & Salas, 2004).

Shared leadership is considered an active, collaborative influence practise between people in groups. The purpose concerns directing the team toward the accomplishment of organisational or collective goals or both. Leadership roles are generally shared amongst a group of individuals as opposed to a centralised person who assumes the position of a manager (Zaccaro et al., 2018). As shared leadership emanates from team members' interactions, it is an evolving property of the team (Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007b; Day et al., 2004). Shared leadership involves team situations in which (1) all leadership roles are shared amongst the team; (2) several members have responsibility for various leadership roles; or (3) members switched into and out of the leader role and when in that role, have chief responsibility for leadership functions (Contractor et al., 2012).

Collective leadership provides a different view of leader attributes. The perspective suggests that leadership should develop from the structure of attributes held by individuals sharing leadership functions. The structure can suggest either attribute complementarity or attribute similarity. In the latter case, individuals sharing leadership roles have similar levels of specific leader attributes.

Nonlinear

Curvilinear models of leader attributes suggest a linear relationship between individual or multiple attributes and leadership outcomes, such that certain traits and attributes might result in either better or worse leadership outcomes. For example, Pierce & Aguinis (2013) suggest the "too-much-of-a-good-thing" phenomenon to leadership, argue that not only low but also high levels of specific attributes are more damaging for leadership than moderate levels of these attributes. In this case, a curvilinear relationship between leadership outcomes and leader attributes occurs. Research into bright and dark traits represent an example of curvilinear relationships. Judge and Long (2012) explain how bright traits, for instance, the Big Five personality traits could either have a positive or negative effect on leadership. For example, willingness to experience, which demonstrates some of the higher corrected correlations in meta-analyses of leadership, can result in improvements in innovation and adaptation; conversely, it could also lead to accepting less direction from higher leadership in

organisations. Similarly, extraversion can lead to views of more considerable charisma but also lead to spontaneity and less perseverance (Zaccaro et al., 2018).

2.3.1.4. Resume

Leadership scholars have argued that progress in studies concerning traits or personal characteristics and their effects on leadership requires more multifaceted models and approaches (Bass, 1990; Lord & Hall, 1992; Zaccaro et al., 2013).

In the last decade, a considerable growth in the number of studies that detailed and validated multistage, multi-attribute, and pattern models of leader attributes has emerged. Currently, research that combines leader attributes in the team and shared leadership, as well as research on curvilinear relationships between leader traits and leader outcomes are underway. Research supports Antonakis et al.'s (2012) idea that we are on the brink of a renaissance period of research on leadership skills, traits and attributes. Therefore, advances in both leader and leadership development are likely to occur.

Table 2.2 summarises the leadership dimensions and attributes discussed in this section.

Table 2.2 Leader traits and attributes dimensions and attributes summary

Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
Great man theory	Carlyle (1907); Galton (1869). Innate human qualities possessed by heroes or geniuses to bring about changes in society.	Physical, cognitive, emotional, problem-solving.
Trait theory	Stogdill (1948). Traits of character and personality define leadership.	Cognitive, emotional, personality, physical.
Leader attribute categories	Day et al. (2012); Zaccaro et al. (2013); (Zaccaro et al., 2018). Conceptual and empirical reviews of leadership literature between 1924 and 2011 relating to leadership	Cognitive, social, personality, motives and values, self-belief, knowledge, skills, cognitive abilities, including problem-solving skills, reasoning skills, thinking skills, cognitive complexity,

Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
	functional performance requirements part of most, if not all leadership positions.	cognitive flexibility, open-mindedness for ambiguity, emotional steadiness, diligence, conflict resolution, inspiring others, negotiating, influencing others, social intelligence, personal motivation, persuasion, communication, negotiation, conflict management, dominance, motivation to lead, need for power, dominance, achievement motivation, high energy, cognitive skills, intelligence, lateral or creative thinking, judgement, decision-making skills, problem-solving skills.
Variable (multi-attribute) models	Bakker-Pieper and de Vries (2013); Serban et al. (2015); Troth and Gyetvey (2014); Zaccaro et al. (2015); Zaccaro et al. (2013).	Personality, motivational, cognitive, cognitive skills, self-efficacy, cognitive, self-efficacy, social, cognitive,

Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
	Leadership effects comprise the personality, motivational, cognitive, skills-based, and intelligence attributes.	personality attributes, motivational, social, cognitive.
Multistage models	DeRue et al. (2011); Luria and Berson (2012); (Zaccaro et al., 2013). Leader attributes, mediators, and outcomes.	Teamwork, cognitive skills, motivation, behaviour, intelligence.
Attribute pattern models	(Foti & Hauenstein, 2007; Zaccaro et al., 2004); (Lord & Maher, 1993; Shondrick et al., 2010); Zaccaro et al. (2004). A multiplicative mix of attributes will support distinct variance in leadership results beyond that described by single attributes or additive mixes of multiple attributes.	Cognitive, motive, personality, social, skills, /knowledge.

Source: Researcher

2.3.2. Charisma and the new leadership

2.3.2.1. Introduction

The field of leadership has been largely influenced by charismatic leadership theory. Most scholars credit Weber (1947) with coining the phrase charisma and providing the original theoretical description concerning the influence of transformational leadership on groups. Proof regarding the origins of the term charisma originate in Greek tradition (Antonakis, Bastardo, Jacquart, & Shamir, 2016).

Furthermore, academic descriptions of the occurrence similar to charismatic leadership and how leaders ought to influence followers using effective influential means are located in the works of Aristotle (Antonakis, 2018). Aristotle claimed that leadership should obtain the trust of supporters by employing original linguistic means. These means comprise offering a moral view of their person (ethos), inspiring follower emotions (pathos), and then using a coherent case (logos). Contributions to the charismatic research stream follow chronologically.

2.3.2.2. The Weberian view

Weber (1947) labelled the kind of leader who could influence social transformation as charismatic. Charismatic leadership emerged during periods of "psychic, physical, economic, ethical, religious or political distress" (Weber, 1968). Furthermore, Weber (1968) believed that charismatic leadership signified the "special gifts of the body and spirit not accessible to everybody" (p. 19). Such leadership portrayed "supernatural, superhuman, or at least specifically exceptional powers or qualities" (Weber, 1947, p. 358) and could accomplish grand deeds. Weber (1968) trusted that followers of charismatic leaders put their fate in their leader's hands and back the leader's purpose that might have developed from "enthusiasm, or of despair and hope" (p. 49). Weber claimed that charismatic power differs from bureaucratic power. At the centre of charisma is an emotional charm where the "attitude is revolutionary and transvalues everything; it makes a sovereign break from all traditional or rational norms" (p. 24). Lastly, Weber pointed out that the charismatic impact of the leader could last as remnants of the culture although this would eventually diminish as the organisation or society wraps itself in the systematic process of bureaucracy. The Weberian notion of

the charismatic leader placed importance on the situation and even more emphasis on the ends than with the means.

2.3.2.3. Downton's theory of charisma

Consistent with Weberian theory, Downton (1973) proposed three aspects concerning the dissident political leader: inspirational, transactional, and charismatic leadership. Downton considered transactional leadership as "a process of exchange that is analogous to contractual relations in economic (and) contingent on the good faith of the participants" (p. 75). Downton suggests the achievement of transactional duties between leaders and followers creates a foundation of trust. It improves their rapport and creates an equally valuable environment promoting additional dealings. As a result of their inspiring vision and authority, Downton notes that charismatic leaders substantially influence followers and assist with the follower's association with the leader. In these situations, psychological interactions between the leader and the follower build a foundation of trust. Inspirational leadership further strengthens dedication and trust. Such leadership is convincing and inspires followers to devote to and make sacrifices for the leader's charming appeal. Therefore, Downton argues that inspirational leadership is independent of charismatic leadership; followers are not dependent on the inspirational leader. Furthermore, Downton suggests that charismatic interactions between leaders and followers will inevitably result in emotional relations. Lastly, Downton notes that elements of charismatic, inspirational, or transactional leadership must be used to a certain degree.

2.3.2.4. House's psychological theory of charisma

House (1977) presented an initial testable proposition and integrated theoretical framework explaining the charismatic leader's behaviour. He also highlighted the psychological influence of charismatic leaders on followers. House (1977) claimed that charismatic leaders have the essential influential skills to persuade others. House suggested that the foundation of the compelling pull is the emotional connection that transpires between leaders and their followers. Subject to the mission, charismatic leadership stimulates followers to achieve the vision and values of leadership. Followers resonate and show admiration in support of the leader while developing empathy toward the mission. House (1977) believed that charismatic leadership

comprise people "who by force of their abilities are capable of having profound and extraordinary effects on followers" (p. 189). Furthermore, House (1977) advised that such leadership exhibit confidence in their skills as well as their followers, set excellent prospects for all, and display conviction that the expectations will be met. House (1977) argued that these behaviours result in leaders becoming role models to followers, who subsequently begin to imitate their leader's vision and values to achieve superior results. Such leaders are considered courageous as they defy the status quo. Finally, House (1977) maintained that charismatic leaders must have the skill to demonstrate social assertiveness, self-confidence, moral conviction, self-sacrifice, self-promotion, and to appear powerful and competent.

2.3.2.5. Conger and Kanungo's charismatic theory

Conger and Kanungo (1998) suggested a charismatic approach of leadership where leadership is embraced by certain attributes. This approach takes the view followers have of leadership behaviour. Conger and Kanungo suggest that people are endorsed as leaders by followers in three-stages. The approach is not direct. Stages may follow in any sequence and occur concurrently. First, charismatic leaders establish followers needs, available resources, and provide a convincing case to create follower attention. Second, leaders describe an image of the future to motivate followers to accomplish goals that contribute toward fulfilling their vision. Followers resonate with the vision, creating a bond and fondness toward the leader as the image of the future state is appreciated. Third, leadership builds a culture of trust and provides assurance to achieve the vision. Leadership employ their resources to encourage movement toward the achievement of objectives. In this way, leaders become role models and promote follower engagement. The hypothesis of Conger and Kanungo's three-stage approach is to create trust between the leader and follower that facilitates in the achievement of organisational objectives (Antonakis, 2018).

2.3.2.6. Shamir and colleague's charismatic theory

House and Shamir (1993) suggested an integrative theory comprising charisma and identity. This theory explains how leadership involve the self-concepts of the follower. Such approach enables leaders to have a profound effect on followers who are driven by high levels of pride, confidence, self-efficacy, collective efficacy, social

identification, value identification, and association with the leader. Shamir et al. (1993) note that such leadership inspires groups by motivational means triggered by the leader's actions. These actions comprise the importance of collective purpose, presenting a logical reason for action, discussion about expectations of the vision, the self-efficacy and importance of followers, and asserting assurance in followers that they are skilled and capable to achieve the objectives. The leader's actions result in the sparking of the follower's motivational means and self-concept influence that result in a personal pledge to the leader's objectives, personal sacrifice behaviour, and task meaningfulness. These effects promote creativity and consistency from followers (Antonakis, 2018).

2.3.2.7. Transformational leadership

Burns transforming-transactional leadership

Burns (1978), distributed his masterpiece concerning leadership in civil contexts. Burns composition proved foundational for work by Bass (1985), comprising leaders and followers transformative results. Burns described leadership by way of "inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values, and the motivations-the wants and needs, the aspirations and expectations of both leaders and followers" (p. 19). While leadership ultimately concerns followers' achieving set targets, leaders play an objective role in directing groups to achieving their targets. The collaboration which occurs between the leader and follower is known as, first, transactional leadership, which entails an association grounded on the trade of items of value, whether economic, emotional or political; or second, transforming leadership, where, morals, ethics and the motivation of leaders and groups are considered.

Transforming leadership comprise superior and purposeful objectives that creates a significant influence on followers than transactional leadership (Burns, 1978). Transactional leadership focuses on promoting selfishness and is therefore considered constrained in scope and effect. The transforming leadership approach developed follower's consciousness for what is considered essential, especially regarding ethical and moral outcomes. This approach requires that leaders rise above their arrogance to serve humanity. While transforming and transactional leadership play a role in social purpose, Burns (1978) considers them as contradictory. Burns

states that "the chief monitors of transactional leadership are modal values, that is, values of means... Transformational leadership is more concerned with end-values" (p. 426). Furthermore, Burns (1978) understood transactional and transformational leadership techniques comprise a net-even result. However, Bass (1985) incorporated subcomponents that were defined as transformational (as opposed to transforming) leadership. In Bass's he did not consider ethical and moral implications in his initial conceptualisation of transformational leadership. However, Bass finally agreed with Burns that the foundation of transformational leadership was "good" morals (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999).

Bass's model of transforming and transactional leadership

Bass's (1985) concept concerning transforming and transactional leadership is known as the "full-range" leadership theory, and comprise "new leadership" and "old leadership" elements. Bass's approach is likely the most prominent modern-day leadership approach (Antonakis, 2018).

Podsakoff's model of transformational-transactional leadership

Bass and Riggio (2006) suggest that Podsakoff's transformational-transactional leadership model is generally considered the best. Podsakoff and associates recommended model (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996) incorporates elements of transactional and transformational leadership. The transformational elements comprise creating and formulating a vision, presenting a relevant approach, developing team objectives, conveying performance anticipations, giving personal encouragement, and being mentally motivating (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). Furthermore, Podsakoff's leadership model comprises a transactional leadership aspect and a contingent reward aspect. Both aspects build upon the Bass transformational-transactional model, although it does not incorporate laissez-faire leadership.

2.3.2.8. What makes leaders charismatic

Charismatic leadership employ several interaction and reputational-development tactics to propel confidence and power (House, 1977). Scholars recognise certain

tactics in regard to the substance of the dialogue, the context and the delivery approach (Den Hartog & Verburg, 1997). Charismatic leadership apply various tactics, which have been researched experimentally and in the field. Findings suggest such tactics provide compellingly evidence of the likelihood associated with leadership effects (Antonakis, 2011; Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; Frese, Beimeel, & Schoenborn, 2003; Howell & Frost, 1989; Jacquart & Antonakis, 2015; Towler, 2003). Such methods make the charismatic influence more material to objectively evaluate charismatic behaviour of leadership, independent of attributions and inferences (Antonakis, Tur, & Jacquart, 2017). As a result, Antonakis termed charisma being "values-based, symbolic, and emotion-laden leader signalling" (Antonakis et al., 2016); to prevent repetition and facilitate clarity concerning antecedents to the charismatic result.

Charismatic leaders contextualise as an approach to create attention and focus on critical issues. Furthermore, charismatic leaders can present the vision in a spirited manner. Generally, providing context comprise five steps; first, telling stories to make the message understandable and morally appropriate; second, using metaphors to simplify the idea making it easier to remember; third, asking rhetorical questions concerning the obvious; forth, using disparities to describe the leadership stance from an unfavourable stance; and fifth, creating a three-part lists to summarise the argument, to simplify complex aspects, and to help with recollecting (Antonakis, 2018).

The approach concerns the justification of the mission by, first, applying moral persuasion to convey important values; second, communicate the emotions of the team to reduce the psychological space amongst leadership and team members; third, to establish bold objectives to provide focus and alignment toward the objectives; and forth, conveying confidence that objectives are achievable to improve self-efficacy and belief. Zaccaro et al. (2018) suggest charismatic leaders communicate with conviction and display confidence through speech, physical gestures and facial expressions.

2.3.2.9. Resume

Leadership, particularly its charismatic form, is significant. When societies, businesses or teams pick leaders who possess charismatic influence, those leaders might lead for

some time. In summary, it is, therefore important, to appoint the right leader (Zaccaro et al., 2018).

Table 2.3 summarises the leadership dimensions and attributes discussed in this section.

Table 2.3 Charisma and new leadership dimensions and attributes

Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
The Weberian view	Weber (1947); Weber (1968). Leaders signify special gifts of the body and spirit – supernatural and superhuman powers and qualities.	Body, spirit, emotional charm, attitude, context.
Downton's' theory of charisma	Downton (1973). Methods of exchange comprising contractual interactions in economic (and) subject to the loyalty of the members.	Context, charismatic, inspirational, transactional, relations, good faith, trust, inspiring, vision, psychological, trust, inspirational, convincing, encourages, a sense of purpose, establishes meaning.
House's psychological theory of charisma	House (1977).	Behaviour, psychological influence, persuasive skills, emotional, stimulate, vision, values,

Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
	The psychological influence of charismatic leaders on followers.	confidence, self- belief, role model, vision, values, courageous, self-confidence, pro-social assertiveness, moral conviction, self-sacrifice.
Conger and Kanungo charismatic theory	Conger and Kanungo (1988, 1998). Leadership is embraced via attributional means grounded on the view's followers portray of leadership behaviours.	Behaviours, compelling argument, vision, inspires, affection, values, confidence, encourage, role model, trust.
Shamir and colleague's charismatic theory	House and Shamir (1993). An integrative framework of charisma and theories of identity to explain how leaders employ the self-concepts of followers.	Motivation, self-worth, self-esteem, self-efficacy, collective efficacy, social identification, values, influence, motivational, collective purpose, logical reasoning, self-efficacy, confidence, motivational, commitment, mission, personal sacrifice behaviour, meaningfulness, self-expression, consistency.

Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
Burns transforming-transactional leadership	Burns (1978). Transforming leadership-focused on superior goals and ideals that has a significant influence on followers compared to transactional leadership-considered the promotion of self-interest.	Goals, values, action, motivation, relationship, emotional, morality, ethics, the greater good, purpose, good values.
Podsakoff's model of transformational-transactional leadership	(Podsakoff et al., 1996; Podsakoff et al., 1990). Incorporates elements of both transformational and transactional leadership.	Vision, group goals, communication, support, intellectually motivating.

Source: Researcher

2.3.3. Follower-centric approaches to leadership

2.3.3.1. Introduction

Despite the disproportional prevalence of leader-centric leadership research, which accentuates the methodical variance in the influence process due to the leader characteristics, far less attention has been devoted to followers. The significance of the oversight appears readily apparent when contemplating the causes of essential events. Ultimately, followers empower leaders and grant them with the resources required to achieve their objectives. Outstanding leadership depends on superior followers - people who are competent, proactive, high in integrity, and who are ready and able to contribute toward the success of their groups or organisation (Bass & Bass, 2008). Good followers facilitate outcomes by propelling leadership to improve, whereas bad followers do the opposite. In summary, good leadership involves good followers (Hollander, 1993).

2.3.3.2. What is followership

Followers are a relevant consideration in leadership models, as many leadership-centric frameworks account for followers (Howell & Shamir, 2005). Generally, prior leader-centric work has characterised followers as passive aspects of the context that necessarily should be considered when determining the effectiveness of various leader styles (Avolio, 2007). The apathy of followers in such works is not unexpected, as the fundamental inherent motivation directing much research is leader-centric (Brown, 2018). For example, contingency approaches, such as Fiedler's (1967) leader-match theory, have proposed that the orientation of a leader's behavioural manner and the context, which contains elements of followers such as their devotion and support, are essential foundations to effectiveness. Situational leadership models, such as Hersey and Blanchard's (1977) model, suggest that an appropriate leadership style depends on the developmental level of followers, e.g., cognitive and emotional. House's (1971) path-goal theory shows that the skills and experience of followers are essential antecedents of which leadership style will be most encouraging.

Followers are not merely an inert aspect of nature supervised by leaders, instead they proceed in a self-governing manner (Grant & Ashford, 2008). Occasionally, followers

act as submissive spectators, choosing not to contribute or opposing to their leaders' choices. Sometimes, followers are stubborn enthusiasts who are either dedicated or opposed to leadership objectives (Kellerman, 2008).

In organisations, employees vary from those who barely perform their role, to those who enthusiastically decide to support leaderships vision and objectives, often at an individual sacrifice to their future freedom, health, family life, values and well-being. Followers must be premised on the assumption that they are agentic, intelligent beings who actively attempt to understand and shape their environment (Bandura, 1986).

2.3.3.3. Leaders-centric thinkers

A paradox that continues to entice people concerns the tendency for people to appreciate the world from the perspective of a leader and leadership. The ability to solve this obscurity rests in the ability to appreciate the human drive to embellish leadership. The romance of leadership perspective proposes that "as observers of and as participants in organisations, we have developed highly romanticised, heroic views of leadership, what leaders do, what they accomplish, and the general effects that they have on our lives" (Meindl, Ehrlich, & Dukerich, 1985, p. 79). At its core, the romance of leadership is an implicit theory that observers use while they attempt to comprehend the "causes, nature, and consequences of organisational activities" (Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987). Meindl et al. (1985) stated that the leader category has "achieved a heroic, larger-than-life value." Social actors have great faith in the efficacy of leaders who are identified to be the "premier force" underlying all organisational events, regardless of whether they are positive or negative (p. 79). Functionally, the leader category lowers uncertainty and anxiety and allows followers to "come to grips with the cognitive and moral complexities of understanding the myriad interactions among the causal forces that create and maintain organised activity" (Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987, p. 92).

In summary, research shows that people are leader-centric and generally assume a leadership perspective to appreciate their world. Although the concept of leadership itself remains uncertain - what is it, how does it improve, and the information processing that rests in the wake of its purpose (Brown, 2018).

2.3.3.4. The social-cognitive approach

Understanding how followers create leadership views rests in the human cognition ability to create representative constructs that are preserved in long-term memory. These constructs provide an internal, stable, and mental model. Bandura (1986) notes that individuals change their "transient experiences into internal models" (p. 18) as opposed to treating every case as an event, object, animal, or person. In categorising instances, social actors can access vast quantities of stored conceptual knowledge, which in turn enables adjustments to behaviour in anticipation of the expected outcomes (Murphy, 2002). The social-cognitive categorisation process forms the foundation of efficient collaboration, which is vital in a united view of reality. The application of the social-cognitive approach allows one to interpret a vast amount of information concerning a situation.

2.3.3.5. The subject and nature of the leader category

Perceivers hold in memory a well-elaborated category that includes the features that characterise leaders from non-leaders (Lord et al., 1984). Following this probabilistic view (Rosch, 1978), the leader category is considered as a fuzzy and ill-defined knowledge structure composed of properties that, individually, are neither necessary nor sufficient to warrant inclusion in this category. Based on previous work (Cantor & Mischel, 1979), Lord and his colleagues suggested that the leader category is structured around traits (Lord et al., 1986). Such an approach is not surprising, especially as traits are central to human thinking and memory processes and are automatically and impulsively applied when perceivers encounter others' behaviour (Uleman, Newman, & Moskowitz, 1996). However, Rosch (1978) suggests that people experience reality on a three-level structure: first, superordinate; second, basic; and third, subordinate. At the most general level, known as superordinate, the broadest and most abstract representation of the category exists. The superordinate level contains features that are generally common to most leaders and that overlap very little with different categories, e.g., non-leaders. Directly embedded beneath the superordinate level is the basic level, which incorporates context. Lord et al. (1984) declared that individuals distinguish eleven different basic level leaders. Although Lord et al.'s (1984) work remains seminal, the proposed structure is based on a single

study. Alternative basic level categories may exist (Den Hartog & Koopman, 2005). Finally, at the subordinate level, leader categories are further differentiated, providing a considerably nuanced understanding of leadership. As with the general leader category, possible leader targets vary along a group gradient, and followers' approval of leaders depends on the targets fit with the shared social identity of a group. Fit with a group's shared identity is relevant to leadership perceptions because it serves to reassure followers that a leader is trustworthy and that leaders will act in a manner that is coherent with the collective interest (van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, & Giessner, 2007). Supporting this thinking, a sizeable ever-growing body of work suggests that leader fit to a group category relates to perceived leader effectiveness and charisma (Hains, Hogg, & Duck, 1997; Platow & van Knippenberg, 2001).

2.3.3.6. Variability and stability of the leader category

Research suggests that the cumulative lifetime leadership observations and experiences of groups within a society are generally shared. Sensibly, just as most groups within a society share a common theoretical understanding of other concepts, they also share a common understanding of leadership. Findings show that university students and employees possess similar mental models of leadership, as do employees who differ in age, organisational service, organisational position (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Offerman, Kennedy, & Wirtz, 1994) and organisational identification (Martin & Epitropaki, 2001). However, some evidence suggests that males and females exhibit slight differences in their leader categories (Deal & Stevenson, 1998; Den Hartog & Koopman, 2005). Furthermore, research proposes that individuals vary cross-culturally in how they react to abusive leaders (Bond, Wan, Leung, & Giacalone, 1985) or breach of justice principles (Tsui, Nifadkar, & Ou, 2007). Such results suggest the possibility that Western leadership conceptualisation may not be universally approved (Den Hartog, House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla, & Dorfman, 1999; Gerstner & Day, 1994).

2.3.3.7. The progress of the leader category

From an early age, individuals experience co-occurring leadership features which unconsciously and slowly shape their view of the leader category (Brown, 2018). For example, as children may begin to associate business leaders with such

characteristics as intelligence, competence, and male dominated, and then mindlessly join these together and lock them away in memory (Rosette, Leonardelli, & Phillips, 2008). As the foundation of most leadership perception is the category stored in the slow-learning, slow-changing neocortical system, one may wonder whether there is a discernible development trajectory and/or age at which ones genetic leader category solidifies in memory (Brown, 2018). If the leader category takes shape early in individual development, one might anticipate that this may play a pivotal role later in life. Although linkages between childhood experiences and the leader category are rational, the topic requires further research (Brown, 2018).

2.3.3.8. Category use and application

Brown (2018) suggests that categories, such as stereotypes, are an essential determinant of the impressions that are formed about a target. When confronted with ambiguous or incomplete information, perceivers use categories in a top-down approach, filling in gaps and creating stereotypic judgements (Brown, 2018). Research indicates that the factor structure of behavioural questionnaires can be extracted, even when the raters are asked to rate imaginary leaders (Rush et al., 1977). Furthermore, research also suggests that subordinate evaluations on behavioural leadership questionnaires strongly correlate with the leader category (Avolio & Bass, 1989) and that raters who share a common leader category generate similar behavioural ratings, even when they are rating different targets (Rush & Russell, 1988). At a minimum, followers may think about targets in terms of their compatibility with the leader category (Lord & Maher, 1993), the group category (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005), racial categories (Rosette et al., 2008), previous leaders (Ritter & Lord, 2007), group performance (Phillips & Lord, 1981), and gender categories (Scott & Brown, 2006). The competition and interaction amongst these sources of information ricochet throughout the observer's mind, influencing information processing in a multitude of ways. It seems reasonable to conclude that the sensemaking of observers is complex and dependent on multiple pieces of information.

2.3.3.9. Follower perceptions and leader action

In the end, leadership comprise mutual influence. The type of followers' categorisations may provide support toward leadership behaviour. For example, while the competence to achieve success is important and failure is typically not a desirable option for leaders, not every failure is deemed equal and, sometimes, leadership may be given a license to fail by subordinates (Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008; Giessner, van Knippenberg, & Sleebos, 2009). Research suggests that leadership conclusions are responsive to the explanations offered for performance (Phillips & Lord, 1981) along with the processing plan employed by the bystanders (Foti & Lord, 1987). According to Hollander's (1958) idiosyncrasy credit model, leaders accumulate subordinate trust from their contributions to groups.

2.3.3.10. Resume

The significance of follower perceptions is critical for effective leadership. Generally, leadership is considered a leader-centric experience, however, the past four decades prove that leadership is extremely reliant on followers. As such, many people fail as leaders, not merely because of their behavioural shortcomings, but also because they are not categorised as being leader-like (Brown, 2018).

Table 2.4 summarises the leadership dimensions and attributes discussed in this section.

Table 2.4 Follower-centric dimensions and attributes

Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
Follower-centric terms and definitions	<p>Bass (2008); Hollander (1993).</p> <p>Ultimately followers legitimise leaders to attain their vision and objectives. Outstanding leadership depends on good followers.</p>	Integrity, ethical, emotional.
Leader-match theory	<p>Fiedler's (1967).</p> <p>The alignment of a leader's behavioural style and the context are essential precursors to effectiveness.</p>	Behaviour, context.
Situational leadership model	Hersey and Blanchard (1977).	Cognitive, emotional.

Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
	The appropriate leadership style depends in part on the developmental level of subordinates.	
Path-goal theory	House (1971). The skills and experience of followers are essential antecedents of which leadership style will be most motivating.	Skills, experience.
Social-cognitive approach	Murphy (2002). Human cognition is based on symbolic structures creating a mental map for leaders and followers.	Cognition, memory, conceptual knowledge, communication, behaviour.

Source: Researcher

2.3.4. Relational leadership

2.3.4.1. Introduction

Relationships underpin humanity: "We are born into relationships, we live our lives in relationships, and when we die, the effects of our relationships survive in the lives of the living" (Berscheid, 1999, p. 261). Leadership too is a relational concept comprising at least two individuals; the leader and the follower, who create a interpersonal practice of effect (Carter, DeChurch, Braun, & Contractor, 2015).

LMX theory concerns an established relational-grounded approach appreciating organisational leadership. Dihn et al. (2014) argue that LMX is "the archetypal social exchange leader-follower dyadic approach" (p. 39). LMX theory emphasises the leader-follower rapport contrasted by a leader or followers' styles, traits, or behaviours, like general leadership theories (Dihn et al., 2014). LMX theory accepts that leadership is concerned with the bidirectional association involving a leader and a follower meant to accomplish common goals (Epitropaki, Martin, & Thomas, 2018).

2.3.4.2. Leadership as a dyadic: LMX

For the past four decades, LMX has been the dominant relationship-based research area (Bauer & Erdogan, 2015). The underlying premise of LMX concerns the kind of relations among a leader and a follower. The condition of such relations shape the opinions and actions between the leader and the follower (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Leader-member exchanges are characterised by interaction, support, high trust, and rewards are deemed high-quality. In contrast, exchanges that only take place according to the formal occupational agreement are thought lower-quality (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen & Uhl-bien, 1995). Meta-analytic study results confirm that high-quality LMX relations improve the work attitude and job performance of the entire team (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2012).

The context of LMX research comprises three main theories. First, Blau's (1964) social exchange theory; second, Foa & Foa's (1974) resource theory of social exchange; and third, Crosby's (1976) theory of relative deprivation.

Blau (1964) suggests that reciprocity and equity are central to social exchange theory. People expect a fair deal for their contribution toward the relationship. Furthermore, people expect to increase their gain or reduce their loss, reciprocate where assistance has been received, and not hurt people who have helped them.

Foa and Foa's (1974) resource theory suggests that six kinds of resources are exchanged in relationships: goods, money, status, services, love and information - socio-emotional resources. In the LMX context, leaders and members are thought to regularly trade such resources in these categories (Wilson, Sin, & Conlon, 2010). Furthermore, depending on members' status in the workgroup, they will consider their environment as resource-munificent (in-group) or resource-constrained (out-group) with consequences for behavioural outcomes, such as upward influence (Epitropaki & Martin, 2013).

Finally, based on the grounds of relative deprivation theory (Crosby, 1976), people in low-quality exchanges are expected to undergo deprivation in comparison contrast to their colleagues. These individuals can respond to deprivation in two ways. First, in an optimistic manner, i.e., embracing self-improvement, or second, in a pessimistic manner, i.e., deficient occupational behaviours (Bolino & Turnley, 2009).

Traditional LMX research: antecedents and outcomes

Several factors remain precursors of LMX relationship quality (Dulebohn et al., 2012). These factors include follower and leader traits, and interactional and contextual variables.

Follower traits: A common follower LMX quality antecedent concerns personality. Most inquiries comprise the Big Five model of personality (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Research shows that followers with high levels of conscientiousness, extraversion, and agreeableness, and that have less neuroticism, generally have high-quality LMX relationships (Dulebohn et al., 2012). Furthermore, research suggests that followers who are competent will likely create high-quality LMX relations. Exceptional accomplishments comprise prominent means of trade that followers can provide to leadership. In response, leadership can offer appropriate resources considered valuable to followers. Additionally, followers' proactivity toward work-related

endeavours (Li, Liang, & Crant, 2010), role skill and ability (DeVecchio, 1998), and social responsibility behaviour (Bauer & Green, 1996) are reliably associated with high-quality LMX relationships.

Leader traits: Concerning personality, leader results mirror the follower results. Leaders that exhibit extraversion, conscientiousness, and agreeableness develop high-quality LMX relations with followers. Schyns (2015) suggests that kindness is the essential character dimension of leadership for establishing high-quality LMX relationships. Leaders displaying this characteristic typically maintain many positive relationships (Schyns, 2015). Generally, individuals with high agreeableness are considered good-natured, helpful, and trusting, all considered qualities to further relationship development (Schyns, Paul, Mohr, & Blank, 2005). High-quality LMX leadership behaviour comprise task entrustment (Bauer & Green, 1996), transformational leadership (Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005), ethical behaviour (Mahsud, Yukl, & Prussia, 2010), and not breaching psychological bonds (Restubog, Bordia, & Bordia, 2011).

Relational variables: LMX occurs as a dyadic process where the leader and follower antecedents collaborate. Typically, the leader-follower congruence promotes relationship development since it lowers ambiguity and possible argument, promoting high-quality LMX relationships (Epitropaki et al., 2018). Congruence suggests that the leader-follower resemblance on mindsets (Phillips & Bedeian, 1994), values (Ashkanasy & O'Connor, 1997), emotions (Bauer & Green, 1996), and authority (McClane, 1991) predict high-quality LMX relations (Wayne & Ferris, 1990).

Contextual variables: The last type of antecedent dynamics concerns contextual or organisational factors that determine LMX value. Generally, leader capacity and team size are adversely correlated with LMX quality (Green, Blank, & Liden, 1983).

LMX outcomes: Martin et al. (2010) notes, "If one had to be critical one might observe that there is a bewildering array of factors that have been identified as antecedents and outcomes of LMX. Indeed, one might be hard-pressed to identify any variable within the input/output (I/O) Psychology literature that has not, in some way, been linked to LMX" (p. 70). This statement suggests that the works assessing LMX

outcomes is not only is vast but comprises broad set of factors. Work attitudes and performance are the main types of LMX research outcomes (Martin et al., 2010).

Work attitudes: Dulebohn et al. (2012) suggests meta-analytic reviews reveal a strong correlation concerning the quality of LMX relationships and several professional thoughts and results. Martin et al. (2010) recommends three outcomes of analysis: First, high-quality LMX leads to outcomes at an individual-level (e.g., improvement in the meaning of the role, work happiness, enablement, organisational devotion, and a reduction in work stress); second, dyadic-level outcomes (e.g., improvement in work relationships, leadership support, and leadership task delegation); and third, outcomes at the organisational-level (e.g., an improved sense of integrity). High-quality LMX work relations correlates with several valuable workplace results. The positive effects of high-quality LMX relations are well supported. This directed Epitropaki and Martin (2015, p. 139) to reflect, "Is there anything left unsaid or unexamined?" Epitropaki and Martin (2015) conclude that the research is broad: more could be discovered by concentrating on developing improved academic models and practical methods.

Performance: Followers could "payback" or return the value received from the leader by achieving a high-quality LMX relationship (e.g., extra attention, more support, and additional opportunities) and effectively work toward achieving organisational objectives. Martin et al. (2016) reported a meta-analytic association amongst LMX and three performance results. First, a positive association amongst LMX and tasks; second, social responsibility achievements, and an undesirable connection concerning LMX; and third, inferior execution were found. Consequently, experiencing high-quality LMX with leadership led to improved performance by the follower. The improved performance by the follower did not only relate to job responsibilities, but also included additional-role endeavours that have value for the organisation and outside the direct leader-follower setting (Epitropaki et al., 2018).

LMX development: relationship science insights

Although academic evidence demonstrates the influence of the leader-member relationship concerning the successful integration of people into an organisation and its positive effect of organisational outcomes, queries remain how the rapport matures over time (Day, 2014). Three stages of "role-taking," "role-making," and "routinization"

form the initial and important steps in the growth of the relationship (Graen & Scandura, 1987). Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) suggest that the initial steps of LMX improvement comprises three parts. First, the "strange phase," as the leader-member exchange is primarily formal. Second, the "acquaintance phase," where social gatherings beyond workplace commitments occur amongst the leader and followers. Finally, the "mature partnership phase", where highly developed social interactions occur, and are not merely behavioural but similarly emotional (Epitropaki et al., 2018).

2.3.4.3. Group and collective relational perspectives

Almost a century ago, Mary Parker Follett (1924) proposed that leadership develops from dynamic relations between organisational actors. However, it is only lately that experimental work has emerged on collective leadership forms (Denis, Langley, & Sergi, 2012). The following two sections are essential strands of relational leadership that transcend the dyadic level and reside on the group and collective level: (1) LMX differentiation and (2) leadership and social networks research.

LMX differentiation

Differentiation is an inherent hypothesis of LMX theory. However, the explicit examination of LMX differentiation is a rather new phenomenon (Anand, Vidyarthi, & Park, 2015). LMX differentiation provides three distinct approaches: perceived LMX (Hooper & Martin, 2008), relative LMX (Hu & Liden, 2013), and group-level LMX differentiation (Erdogan & Bauer, 2010). Apparent LMX differentiation is a perceptual measure that depicts the supposed variability of LMX connections within a group, whereas comparative LMX and LMX differentiation clearly incorporate the team context. Group-level LMX differentiation depicts the extent of within-group disparity that exists when leadership establishes different-quality relations with several members (Erdogan & Bauer, 2010). Differentiation is neither good nor bad. Its effects hang on situational variables (e.g., justice climate, perceived organisational support) as well as personal resources (e.g., political skill) that employees utilise to deal with the differentiated relational leadership environment in their workgroup.

Social network relational leadership

Recently, Carter et al. (2015) theoretically integrated leadership and social network research and described leadership as a social event "situated in specific contexts, involving patterned emergent processes, and encompassing both formal and informal influences" (p. 616). Furthermore, Carter and associates maintained that social network tactics might present models that could radically progress relational leadership investigation. Sparrow and Emery (2015) provide a review of the development of the themes of structure and join strength in LMX literature and promote integrated LMX differentiation research with cognitive social networks. These networks are mental depictions concerning personal social networks characterised by actors and ties. Sparrow and Emery (2015) note that once a member mentally represents the leader-member relationship within the group, a cognitive social network is activated (which might differ from reality).

LMX differentiation research has thrived in recent years and has enlarged the LMX scope beyond the dyad. LMX differentiation has recognised that dyadic relationships are rooted in workgroups that are characterised by interdependence and complexity. Every dyadic relationship does not exist in isolation but is relative to other LMX relationships in the workgroup, and as a result of social comparison, processes are of vital importance for employee outcomes (Epitropaki et al., 2018).

2.3.4.4. Relational social constructionist leadership

Uhl-Bien (2006) suggests some methods consider the self as a discrete being constrained by engagements with others. Social constructionist views, however, appreciate the person as "in connection," designed during collaboration (Uhl-Bien, 2006).

Social constructionists believe that collective experiences are created through daily relations combined with historical and social contexts (Morgan & Smircich, 1980). Bradbury and Lichtenstein (2000) recommend the space between or relationality is considered important. The concept of social constructionist is grounded in Mead's (1934) interactionism. According to Mead (1934), people behave consequent to

meaning, that meaning derives from social collaboration, and that meaning may be transformed in social dealings.

From a social constructionist paradigm, leadership develops during the relationship and is merely fictional beforehand (Fairhurst, 2007). Endres and Weibler's (2016) suggest that leadership comprise three self-motivated components: first, a method of understanding social realities from on-going analysis and collaboration; second, superior communication and empathy; and third, developing personal motivation. Crevani, Lindgren, and Packendorff (2010) suggests that the concept of social constructionist transforms the emphasis from the leader to leadership. Furthermore, social constructionist confronts the importance of leadership by accepting a critical management lens (Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2003).

The "relationality" drive in leadership attempts to move leadership research away from individual, static perspectives (Uhl-Bien & Ospina, 2012). Relational social constructionist leadership approaches offer novel insights on relational leadership and leadership in general. Epitropaki et al. (2018) suggest that, from the relational social constructionist standpoint, leadership resides not in individual leaders or followers, but rather "in the between space" (p. 125) of the relationship; it does not exist before the relationship and develops through dialogue and ongoing communication.

2.3.4.5. Relational leadership: the road ahead

Relational leadership which spans across two levels of analysis, firstly dyadic and secondly, collective, are the two primary epistemological camps of positivist/post-positivist/entity and social constructionism (Epitropaki et al., 2018). Figure 2.2 attempts to bridge these two epistemological camps by illustrating the various quality of relationships between leaders and followers that develop in workgroups (LMX quality and LMX differentiation) as well as the "space between" in which leadership exists through social constructionist approaches (Epitropaki et al., 2018).

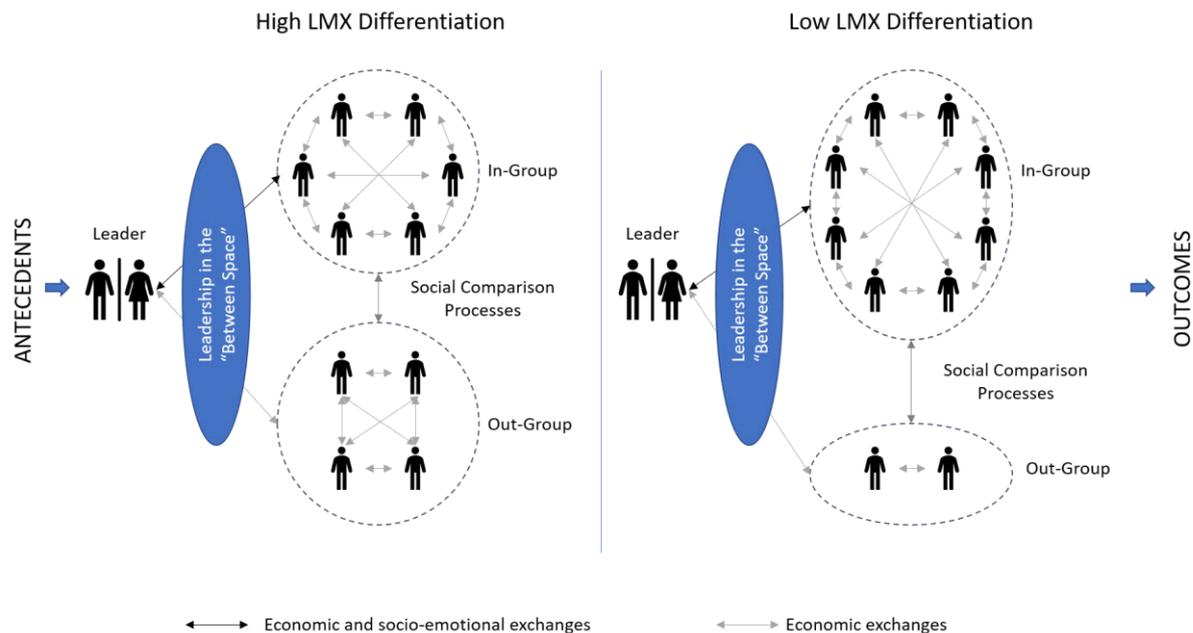


Figure 2.2 Dominant relational leadership processes

Source: Epitropaki et al. (2018)

2.3.4.6. Relational cognition and network schemas

Individuals' perceptions, expectations, and understanding are guided by relational schemas that have developed through the socialisation process and prior interpersonal experiences. Relational schemas include cognitive constructs that characterise symmetries in patterns of interpersonal likeness, which include three elements: first, an interpersonal script; second, a self-schema; and third, a schema about the other person (Baldwin, 1992).

2.3.4.7. Relational emotion and affect

The emotion between the leader and follower is an essential dimension in organisations (Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011). Research supports the emotional contagion hypothesis (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994) in leader-follower relationships. For example, Sy, Cote, and Saaveda (2005) established that when leaders were in a good mood, members of the team also experienced a positive disposition and were more likely to collaborate. Glaso and Einarsen (2006) suggest

that leader-follower relations comprise both positive and negative states concerning emotions and emotion-laden discernments. Newcombe and Ashkansay (2002) discovered that nonverbal expressive gestures had a profound effect on followers' assessment of LMX. Research suggests that leaders who express positive emotions, lead to higher-quality LMX relations (Epitropaki et al., 2018).

2.3.4.8. Relational identity

Brewer and Gardner's (1996) conceptualised three fundamental self-representations: first, the individual self; second, the relational self; and third, the collective self. Sluss and Ashforth (2007) built on Brewer and Gardner (1996) and maintained that relational identity at work combines person- and role-based identities and in that way the individual, interpersonal, and collective levels of self. Sluss and Ashforth (2007) further suggested that in an organisational setting, individuals have several relational personas (e.g., with subordinates, co-workers, leaders, suppliers, customers). Such multiplicity has inferences for relational identity prominence as well as for interactions and synergies amongst identities.

2.3.4.9. Resume

Relational leadership is a phenomenon that extends beyond the dyad and exists within a multi-actor and identity network of relationships, in a complex and multifaceted organisational setting. With rapidly changing and widespread technological availability, new approaches to relational leadership in work relationships are expected (Epitropaki et al., 2018).

Table 2.5 summarises the leadership dimensions and attributes discussed in this section.

Table 2.5 Relational leadership dimensions and attributes

Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
LMX theory	<p>(Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011); (Ashkanasy & O'Connor, 1997); Dihn et al. (2014); (Epitropaki et al., 2018); (Gerstner & Day, 1997); (Green et al., 1983; Schyns et al., 2005); Mahsud, Yukl, and Prussia, (2010); Martin et al. (2010); (Schyns et al., 2005).</p> <p>LMX comprise the social exchange leader-follower dyadic relationship.</p>	<p>Social, behaviours, influence relationship, mutual goals, attitudes, behaviours, agreeableness, extraversion, conscientiousness, trusting, helpful, and good-natured, ethical behaviour, attitudes, values, context, reduced job stress, friendships, emotional.</p>

Source: Researcher

2.3.5. Contingencies, context, and situational leadership

2.3.5.1. Introduction

Leadership studies have observed two broad lines of research progressing in parallel. First, research focused on the connection between leadership traits or behaviours and organisational effects. Second, research invoked incidents, context and situation (Judge et al., 2002; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). This parallel line of research suggests that leadership is a multifaceted challenge to study. Scholars maintain emphasis on context and contingencies, validating the importance of these aspects in the examination of leadership (Liden & Antonakis, 2009; Porter & McLaughlin, 2006).

2.3.5.2. Contingency models and leadership

The concept of leadership matured in the 1960s and 1970s and established that leadership value comprises the collaboration between the qualities of the leader and the condition (Fiedler, 1978). Certain models concentrated on the leader's internal state and characteristics, such as the contingency model of leadership effectiveness and the cognitive resource theory (CRT) (Fiedler, 1978; Fiedler & Garcia, 1987). Other models converged on the leader's apparent behaviours, such as the normative decision-making approach (Vroom & Jago, 1978; Vroom & Yetton, 1973), path-goal theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969). The categorisation and expectation of leadership depend on their role or the situation; and the following subsection describes each of these models and theories based on their approach to assessing the leader, the situation, and the leadership outcomes.

2.3.5.3. Leader trait contingency models

Two contingency models that exist determine the situational factors that intervene concerning the leadership characteristics and effects: first, the effectiveness of the contingency model of leadership and second, CRT. In both models, the characteristics of the leader correlate to the person- and group-level outcomes; however, the level of the rapport depends on the situation (Ayman & Lauriten, 2018).

A contingency model of leadership effectiveness

Fiedler (1964) developed the contingency model of leadership effectiveness. In this model, Fiedler (1978) anticipated leadership or team achievement as a result of the leader's inclination (i.e., task or relationship) coupled with the leader's situational authority. Furthermore, in Fiedler's (1978) model, leaderships' capacity to affect and control the achievement of the group's task concerns the leader's situational control. Situational control considers three elements: first, the team climate; second, the leader's task arrangement; and third, the leader's role of authority. Leader-member relationship, also referred to as team climate, determines team cohesion and the support of the leader. Leadership task structure comprises two aspects of the leader's tasks: first, dimensions of the task-structure; and second, the experience and training of the leader. Task structure comprise the clarity and direction provided to achieve the task objective. The calculation of the final task-structure determines a leader's experience and training level. Finally, role authority determines leadership legitimacy and their ability for disciplining and rewarding members of the team (Ayman, 2002; Fiedler, 1978).

Based on the leader-match idea, the contingency model of leadership effectiveness suggests that relationship-driven leadership improves effectiveness in some situational control environments than will task-driven leaders. However, leaders who are task-driven are more successful in both high- and low-control circumstances (Ayman & Lauriten, 2018). When leaders are in a situation where the approach suggests their most significant value, they are referred to as in-match leaders. When they are in situations where the approach suggests they will be less efficient, they are known as being out-of-match leaders (Ayman, 2002).

Fiedler and Chemers (1984) note that the contingency model of leadership effectiveness regards leadership traits as constant. Attempts to create in-match leaders require a change in the setting, referred to as situation engineering (Fiedler & Chemers, 1984). Based on this model, leadership training programmes were created to help the leader change the situation to fit their leader orientation best. Burke and Days (1986) meta-analysis of several managerial training models established leader match training to be most useful to other situations (Fiedler, Chemers, & Maher, 1976).

Cognitive resource theory

CRT is the second contingency approach grounded on leadership traits and attributes (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987), where a leader's value is determined based on the collaboration of two inherent traits - intelligence and experience - within the circumstance. In CRT, the notion maintains that situational aspects will regulate whether leader intelligence or experience foresees leadership effectiveness. Fiedler (2002) incorporated Sternberg's (1995) explanation of (a) intelligence referring to "fluid" intelligence versus (b) experience likened to "crystallised" intelligence. Fluid intelligence refers to cognitive ability to deal with novelty and crystallised intelligence refers to automatization of responses as a result of experiences and mastery. Leadership stress levels define the state in CRT. A leader can encounter role stress in many ways, such as role engagement and burden, as well as from other causes such as co-workers, the task, or the leader's leader (Fiedler, 1993).

2.3.5.4. Leader behavioural contingency approaches

A leadership decision-making model

Generally, the normative model concentrates on the collaboration concerning a leader's decision-making strategy options and the decision-making context. Vroom and Jago (1998) suggest five approaches for leadership decision making. The decision-making strategies range from leadership decision-making, to partially include subordinates, to complete participation of subordinates. The decision-making approach is based on four principles: first, improve the quality of decision making; second, improve subordinate decision making; third, reduce time; and fourth, developing members of the team (Vroom & Jago, 1998).

If decision-making quality is important, leadership should assess their level of the skill in the specific domain, determine the scale and structure of the problem, and thereafter establish the team members' agreeableness and skill concerning the decision to be made. When time is a constraint in the decision-making process, the involvement of the group becomes less practical. In time-constrained situations, leaders use more autocratic decision-making strategies. Finally, if the development of subordinate acceptance, commitment, and interest is vital for the conclusion to be adopted, more

involvement from the subordinate is required. In this situation, leadership might need to absorb the impact of more time and possibly forfeit the decision-making quality to safeguard team cohesion and support. The objective of maintaining a balance between time, quality, and maintenance of team support will affect whether the leader selects the goal of reaching a high-quality decision over that of high acceptance by team members, or vice versa (Ayman & Lauriten, 2018).

The participative leadership model, or normative model of leadership decision making, is generally supported. The decision-making model reveals that the level of participative decision making must be evaluated based on the context and the success standards used. Finally, there appear to be additional contingencies, e.g., gender, cultural values, that seem to check the effectiveness of the leader's choice in the decision-making approach (Ayman & Lauriten, 2018).

Path-goal theory

Concerning the path-goal approach, leader's help establish a path for follower's to achieve their objectives and the goals of the organisation by applying various types of leadership (House, 1996). House (1971) identified the theory's independent variables as achievement-oriented, directive, supportive, and participative leadership behaviours. The first two variables are task-focused, e.g. task assignment, planning, emphasising deadlines and the latter two variables are consideration-focused, e.g., ensuring people are at ease, being open to opinions, and motivating the team. The efficacy of such behaviours is controlled by the properties of the environment as well as the follower. The path-goal approach is considered an important advance in the theory of leadership that inspired the development of novel leadership conceptualisations. It inspired the progress of charismatic leadership and substitutes for leadership theories (House, 1996), and theoretically a motivation concerning the creation of the vertical dyad linkage approach (Dansereau et al., 1975).

Situational leadership theory

Hersey and Blanchard (1969) suggested that the efficacy of four leadership behaviours - selling, telling, participating, and delegating - hangs on whether they match the team members task-related traits, e.g., education, ability, psychological

maturity, and experience e.g., self-esteem, willingness, and drive. Many empirical studies use the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) in measuring the leader's behaviours (Case, 1987; Vecchio, 1987; Vecchio & Boatwright, 2002).

The situational leadership theory stipulates that the leader should "delegate" (i.e., show little consideration and minimal-structuring behaviours) in circumstances where team members are competent, willing, skilled, and motivated to accomplish the task. When subordinates are motivated yet unable, the proper leadership behaviour is to "sell", i.e., engage in high consideration with high-structuring behaviours. In circumstances where the subordinates are reluctant but skilled, the leader should pursue in "participative decision making", i.e., show high consideration but low-structuring behaviours. Finally, when followers are reluctant and incompetent, the leader must "tell" them what to do, i.e., show low regard but high-structuring behaviours (Fernandez & Vecchio, 1997; Vecchio, 1997; Vecchio & Boatwright, 2002; York, 1996).

2.3.5.5. Contingencies, context, a situation defined

Johns (2006) stated that context, which could include constraints and opportunities for behaviour, contains a phenomenon and is external to the individual. Similarly, leadership scholars suggest that leadership contingencies are the context. Therefore, in leadership, the situation is the context or contingency that can affect the rapport relating leadership characteristics or behaviour along with the results (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Avolio, 2007; Chemers, 2000; Dierdorff, Rubin, & Morgeson, 2009; Liden & Antonakis, 2009). Furthermore, the leader's characteristics, such as his personality, intelligence, gender, and experience can interact, and these interactions could create a situation or contingency that shapes the relationship between leader behaviour and outcomes.

2.3.5.6. Interpersonal aspect: substitutes for leadership theory

The interpersonal aspect of contingencies is considered objectively or subjectively. Objective contingencies may consist of country, level in an organisation, industry type or field of work, tenure in leadership role, and workgroup structure; which are generally considered substitutes for power, values, and interpersonal interaction (Antonakis et

al., 2003; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). The subjective assessment of context is generally evaluated through the lens of subordinates, where the assessment of context may include the leader's distance from the followers (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002), subordinates values (Dvir & Shamir, 2003), and uncertainty (Waldman, Ramirez, House, & Puranam, 2001).

2.3.5.7. Context in leadership

Two dynamic group models are used to help conceptualise the contextual factors in the study of leadership. First, Hackman and Morris (1975) proposed the input-process-output (IPO) model as a systems approach to groups; and second, the model of team effectiveness, which incorporates the role of context (West, Borrill, & Unsworth, 1998). Both models hold a dynamic perspective, which enables reciprocal effects between inputs and processes, and between processes and outputs (Ayman & Lauriten, 2018).

From a leadership process perspective, the inputs to the group involve cultural perspective and organisational context, i.e., feedback systems, reward structure, location of team members, communication approach, and time limits, team structure, and task requirements. Outputs or outcomes of the group can be behavioural, e.g. turnover, performance, organisational citizenship, or attitude, e.g., satisfaction, stress, and can occur as the individual leader, subordinate, leader-subordinate dyad, or group levels. Each of the four input factors can act as moderators, and therefore determine the contingencies between leadership processes and organisational outcomes (Ayman, 2002; Ayman & Lauriten, 2018).

2.3.5.8. Intrapersonal aspect

Contingencies at the intrapersonal level comprise several leadership traits that might influence the person's ability to lead. The varying traits of intrapersonal interaction may reduce a leader's strength or exacerbate a weakness (Ayman, 2002; Ayman & Lauriten, 2018).

2.3.5.9. Resume

Contingency approaches to leadership are firmly based in a person-situation fit framework (Ayman & Lauriten, 2018). The contingency models discussed prove that

successful leaders counter the situation in several ways: by shifting behaviours, by being thought to behave differently, or through changing their situation.

This approach is similar to Sternberg's (1988) definition of intelligent functioning, which suggests that the individual's "purposive adaption to, selection of and shaping of the real-world environment to one's life and abilities" (p. 65).

Contingencies, context, and situational factor considerations are required when selecting, training, and developing leadership (Ayman, 2002; Ayman & Lauriten, 2018). Chemers (2002) suggests the need to integrate and conceptualise leadership theories more effectively in an attempt to help the leader reach mettle.

Table 2.6 summarises the leadership dimensions and attributes discussed in this section.

Table 2.6 Contingencies, context, situational and leadership dimensions, and attributes

Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
Contingency model of leadership effectiveness	<p>Fiedler (1964); (Fiedler, 1978).</p> <p>Trait, task, and interpersonal orientation.</p> <p>Leadership success comprising the leader's approach and situational control.</p>	The traits, relationship, experience, training, and situation.
Cognitive resource theory	<p>Fiedler (2002); (Fiedler, 1993); Fiedler and Garcia (1987).</p> <p>Leadership effectiveness predicted based on the collaboration between two characteristics - experience and intelligence - within the situation.</p>	Traits, characteristics, experience, situation, fluid intelligence, crystallised intelligence, cognitive ability, stress, intelligence.

Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
A model for leadership decision-making	Vroom and Jago (1998). A leader's decision-making strategy choices and the situation.	Decision-making, choices, situation, knowledge, problem structure, agreeableness.
Situational leadership theory	(Fernandez & Vecchio, 1997; Vecchio, 1997; Vecchio & Boatwright, 2002; York, 1996). Leadership must delegate where subordinates are skilled and motivated to accomplish the task.	Ability, education, experience, psychological maturity, willingness, self-esteem, motivation, behaviour, decision-making.

Source: Researcher

2.3.6. Shared leadership

2.3.6.1. Introduction

Shared leadership theory shifts the perception on leadership from a tiered role to that of an active social progression (Pearce & Conger, 2003; Pearce & Wassenaar, 2014; Pearce, Wassenaar, & Manz, 2014). Shared leadership is described as "a dynamic, interactive influence process among individuals in groups for which the objective is to lead one another to the achievement of group or organisational goals or both" (Pearce & Conger, 2003, p. 1), which is a departure from traditional views of the hierarchical leader.

2.3.6.2. Historical bases of shared leadership

It generally appears that before the Industrial Revolution (IR), little thought was given to the study of leadership (Nardinelli, 2008). Early contributors in this field suggest principles of management could span various industries and primarily focused on leadership. One of the principles was the unity of authority, where commands came from management and work was performed by those following down levels of hierarchy (Wren, 1994). The majority of the IR writing on leadership concentrated on a top-down, command-and-control approach (Montgomery, 1836, 1840; Wren, 1994).

However, Follett (1924) proposed the law of situation concept that suggests it's sometimes logical to respect the person in the group with the best know-how concerning the situation and not the formally appointed leader. Additionally, Hollander (1961) suggested that a leader could emerge or be appointed by members of a leaderless group. The distinction between shared leadership and emergent leadership is that emergent leadership primarily deals with the choosing of a leader, whereas the concept of shared leadership suggests that several leaders will transpire and address the needs of the group based on the situation that they find themselves in (Pearce, 1997; Pearce & Sims, 2002). A further component of shared leadership is the literature on substitutes for leadership, which suggests that there are possible substitutes for a hierarchical leader that can manifest themselves in certain situations (Kerr & Jermier, 1978). Additionally, the concept of self-leadership is also considered as emergent from the theory of leadership substitutes (Manz, 1986). Manz and Sims (1980) determined

self-management, or self-leadership, as a likely substitute for a more traditionally appointed, vertical leader. Finally, empowerment is considered a foundational component of shared leadership. Empowerment focuses on the development of hierarchical power, usually to followers, rather than suggesting dynamic social processes involved in shared leadership (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). For shared leadership to happen within a group, participants should be involved and participate in the leadership activity, and as a result, empowerment is an important and essential aspect for the improvement of shared leadership in a group (Conger & Pearce, 2009).

2.3.6.3. Shared leadership antecedents and results

Shared leadership has increased attention in both practitioners (Pearce, Manz, & Sims, 2009) and academic literature (D'Innocenzo, Mathieu, & Kukenberger, 2014; Nicolaidis et al., 2014; Wassenaar & Pearce, 2015). A brief overview of empirical evidence on shared leadership follows.

2.3.6.4. Shared leadership antecedents

Researchers have discovered the following three groups of antecedents to shared leadership.

Hierarchical/vertical leaders

Hierarchical or vertical leaders comprise a considerable effect on the development and occurrence of shared leadership. For example, top leader support suggests shared leadership development; trust is strongly correlated with shared leadership and contributes towards smooth social relations, which as a result, improves the team's ability to frequently share leadership (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; George et al., 2002; Hess, 2015). Furthermore, the behaviour of the vertical leader is integrally important to the development of shared leadership in a group. Six vertical leadership behaviours establish the development of shared leadership: first, the value of excellence; second, creating clear objectives; third, providing suitable feedback; fourth, aligning tasks with skills; fifth, reducing interruptions; and sixth, creating a sense of freedom (Hooker & Csikszentmihalyi, 2003; Pearce et al., 2014). Pearce et al. (2014) established that

allowing leadership, visionary leadership, and leader emphasis on purpose and values, was related to the progress of shared leadership.

Support structures

Technology, as a support structure continues to be a key factor for shared leadership development in and amongst the team (Wassenaar, Pearce, Hoch, & Wegge, 2010). Support structures are essential components in the development and sustainability of shared leadership in virtual teams - both technologically and socially - that allow the team to collaborate efficiently, effortlessly moving information across time and location (Cordery, Soo, Kirkman, Rosen, & Mathieu, 2009). These structures are considered the technical foundation that is in place, which supports collaboration amongst members of a group, and education (employee training, orientations, or other organised education environments) that expands skills in the group (Wassenaar & Pearce, 2018). Pearce (2014) established that selection system, training and education development systems, and compensation systems facilitate the development of shared leadership.

Culture and empowerment

Konu and Viitanen (2008) established that a teams' values are an essential factor of shared leadership. Similarly, Pearce et al. (2014) observed culture and empowerment to be related to shared leadership. Furthermore, Carson et al. (2007a) and Serban and Roberts (2016) determined that internal environment - a concept similar to cultural values - also contributed to shared leadership, further supporting the notion that organisational culture or context influences shared leadership development. Lastly, Wood (2005) determined that teams who considered themselves empowered, were likely to work in a manner that shares leadership.

There are many precursors or possible causes that enable shared leadership to occur in groups. Understanding these causes will further enable organisations and groups to capitalise on the benefits or outcomes of shared leadership, which are covered next.

2.3.6.5. Outcomes associated with shared leadership

There are generally three levels of analysis concerning outcomes in organisational behaviour and leadership research - individual-, group-, and organisational-level outcomes. Outcome variables span from intermediate-type outcomes such as behaviour, attitudes, and cognition, to effectiveness or performance outcomes (Luthans, 2010).

Individual-level outcomes

Personal satisfaction is the most widely researched individual-level variables in organisational behaviour (Cranny, Smith, & Stone, 1992). Avolio, Jung, Murray, and Sivasubramaniam (1996) found team member satisfaction to be optimistically associated to shared leadership. Next, Shamir and Lapidot (2003) established that shared leadership was positively associated to approval with, including trust in, tiered leaders. Therefore, shared leadership is associated to fulfilment with team members and team leaders.

Group/team-level outcomes

Wang et al. (2014) established that shared leadership is a moderately strong determinant of group outcomes and that context matters: shared leadership is a better predictor of outcomes in complex environments. Mathieu, Kukenberger, D'Innocenzo, and Reilly (2015) established that shared leadership was positively correlated to team cohesion, while Grille and Kauffeld (2015) found shared leadership to be positively related to team performance. Furthermore, Sousa and Van Dierendonck (2015) determined shared leadership was related with the advancement of behavioural integration in teams, while Gu et al. (2016) learnt that shared-leadership is positively related to team creativity.

Organisational-level outcomes

While the results of shared leadership on individuals and groups is possibly the greatest significance, one must study the effects of shared leadership at the organisational level of analysis.

Hmieleski, Cole, and Baron (2012) observed positive effects of shared leadership on entrepreneurial firm performance. Likewise, Pearce et al. (2014) found strong evidence of shared leadership and organisational performance. As such, evidence concerning shared leadership proves that it may have a potentially potent effect on organisational performance. Finally, Zhou (2016) noticed shared leadership was related to improved team performance in China.

In summary, shared leadership generally predicts the outcomes that span attitudinal, behavioural, cognitive, and effectiveness outcomes at the individual, group and organisational levels of analysis (Wassenaar & Pearce, 2018).

2.3.6.6. Resume

Progress in the knowledge era requires leadership models to progress and comprise paradigmatic shifts away from leadership as a ranked position to leadership as a developing societal activity in a shared leadership manner (Wassenaar et al., 2010).

Developing shared leadership is challenging, yet Pearce (2010) suggests that most individuals are able of being both a leader and a follower, and that shared leadership is an organisational necessity in the knowledge era. In some circumstances shared leadership might not be practical, however, evidence suggests that shared leadership can positively influence individual-, team-, group- and the organisational-level effects, including organisational performance.

If shared leadership is to be effective preconditions such as well-developed knowledge, skills, and abilities, as well as the ability to work as both a follower and a leader are generally considered necessary (Wassenaar & Pearce, 2018).

Table 2.7 summarises the leadership dimensions and attributes discussed in this section.

Table 2.7 Shared leadership dimensions and attributes

Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
Law of the situation concept	<p>Follett (1924).</p> <p>Sometimes it makes sense to follow the person in the group who has the best knowledge concerning the situation in which the group is operating.</p>	Knowledge, situation.
Shared leadership theory	<p>(Dirks & Ferrin, 2002); Follett (1924); (George et al., 2002); Gu et al. (2016); (Hooker & Csikszentmihalyi, 2003; Pearce et al., 2014); Pearce and Conger (2003); Pearce and Wassenaar (2014); Pearce, Wassenaar, and Manz (2014); Reilly (2015).</p>	<p>Situation, knowledge, social, engaged and participative, influence, trust, behaviour, excellence, goals, feedback, skills, visionary, focus, communication, values, context, behaviour, attitudes, cognition, team cohesion, team creativity</p>

Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
	<p>Shared leadership is an active, collaborative effect practised amongst people in groups.</p> <p>The intent concerns guiding the team toward the attainment of group or organisational goals or both.</p>	

Source: Researcher

2.3.7. Evolutionary, biological and neuroscience perspectives

2.3.7.1. Introduction

Leadership has emerged in various social species, not just humans. Scholars in the field of leadership appreciate the importance of building comprehensive theories through integrating learnings from biological and social sciences (Antonakis, 2011; Bennis, 2007; Colarelli & Arvey, 2015).

Researches from most schools have studied various aspects of leadership emergence, yet there is little cross-fertilisation among these schools in developing consistent models and theories of leadership (King, Johnson, & van Vugt, 2009; Smith et al., 2015). Furthermore, social scientists researching leadership have contributed middle-ground concepts comprising cognitive, personality, contingency and contextual theories of leadership (e.g., (Bass, 1985; Fiedler, 1995; Graen & Uhl-bien, 1995; House, 1996; Shamir et al., 1993). Finally, most leadership theorists establish their views on data from modern, complex organisations such as businesses, military, and government, yet these are new structures on an evolutionary time scale. Humans have spent more than 95% of their evolutionary history in small-scale communities with informal, shared, and egalitarian leadership arrangements (van Vugt & Ronay, 2014; von Rueden & van Vugt, 2015). The evolutionary theory appears to provide a predominant structure that connects several distinct interests of review into leadership.

Darwin's (1871) concept of evolution via biological selection explains that the human mind is the result of genetic evolution - similarly, how human bodies are evolutionary outcomes - comprised of various qualities and mechanisms that developed since they helped humans to deal with the challenges of the social and physical situations in which they evolved. Subsequently, Darwin's work has been validated so often that concept of evolution is no longer regarded as a theoretical possibility, but rather as a natural law (van Vugt, 2018).

2.3.7.2. The evolutionary theory of leadership

The evolutionary theory of leadership comprise the neurological, psychological, and physiological developments of human behaviour. This approach suggests the

evolution of human behaviours similarly in other species (Buss, 2015; van Vugt & Ronay, 2014; van Vugt & Schaller, 2008).

Evolutionary biologists suggest "traits" are aspects of an organism that network with the environment, comprising physical features, e.g., height and eye colour; neurophysiological mechanisms, e.g., brain areas, neurotransmitters, and hormones; psychological mechanisms, e.g., cognition and emotions; and behaviours, e.g., risk-taking, sociability, and followership (van Vugt, 2018).

The concept of evolutionary leadership is based on evolutionary psychology which comprise the branch of psychology concerning the concept and theories of evolutionary biology to human psychology and behaviour (Buss, 2015; Pinker, 2002; Tooby & Cosmides, 2005). The primary belief underpinning evolutionary psychology is that the human brain is a result of evolution via natural selection: evolution shaped the human brain (including its elements of emotions, cognition, hormones, and behaviours) identical to how it affected the human body. Humans are part of the living world comprising the same laws of biology and evolution as other species (van Vugt, 2018).

An evolutionary perspective suggests four questions regarding the function, phylogeny, ontogeny, and mechanics of leadership. First, what is the role of leadership in promoting the survival and reproductive success of individuals? Second, the phylogenetic question concerns what series of steps in leadership evolved, and when it first appeared in the human lineage (Brosnan, Newton-Fisher, & van Vugt, 2009)? Third, what is leadership and how does it work? The final question concerns ontogenetic processes and questions how leadership and followership develop across the lifespan of an organism (van Vugt, 2006; van Vugt, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2008).

2.3.7.3. The evolutionary functions of leadership

Leadership for group movement has long been recorded across animal societies, from social insects to fish, and from birds to mammals and suggests that leadership and followership do not need complex computational rules (Couzin, Krause, Franks, & Levin, 2005; King et al., 2009; Smith et al., 2015). Simple rules such as "move if hungry" or "stay close to one's neighbour" produce something akin to leadership and

followership. Furthermore, if one assumes state or trait differences in the likelihood of a first move - such as one individual being hungrier or bolder than another - it will automatically create "leaders" and "followers," as game theory models suggest (Couzin et al., 2005; van Vugt, 2006).

In summary, evolutionary leadership theory presumes that leadership emerged as an underlying coordination mechanism among group-living species. Also, leadership enabled the solution of complex social problems that hunter-gatherer ancestors faced, such as policing groups, punishing free-riders, planning raids and battles, peacekeeping, teaching, and managing group resources. Anthropological research on small-scale societies provides evidence for each of the unique functions of leadership (Hooper, Kaplan, & Boone, 2010; von Rueden & van Vugt, 2015).

2.3.7.4. A brief natural history of leadership

All literature concerning leadership suggests four key evolutionary transitions in the emergence of leadership as indicated in Table 2.8 (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005; King et al., 2009; van Vugt, Hogan, et al., 2008).

First, leadership developed in prehuman kinds dating back many ten millions of years as an approach to overcome coordination challenges, where a person began a movement and others decided to follow. Second, dominance, a heritage of human primate nature, was attenuated in early human egalitarian societies, dating back 2.5 million years. Dominance paved the way for prestige-based leadership and more democratic, participatory forms of group decision making, especially after the emergence of language about 100,000 years ago. Third, the rise in scale and social complexity of human societies that occurred post the Agricultural Revolution some 13,000 years ago produced influential, formally appointed leaders to manage complex coordination challenges - the chiefs, priests, and kings. Fourth, approximately 250 years ago, nation-states emerged with democratically elected presidents and, after the IR, major companies with elected CEOs and educated workers, and large urban areas with highly educated citizens. Leadership is still hierarchical, but it is also participatory in most parts of the world, with followers free to leave organisations and move elsewhere (King et al., 2009; van Vugt, 2006, 2018; van Vugt, Hogan, et al., 2008).

Table 2.8 A natural history of leadership

Stage	Time Period	Society	Group Size	Leadership Structure	Leader	Leader-Follower Relations
1	>2.5 million years ago	Prehuman	Variable	Situational	Any individual, often the dominant group member	Situational or hierarchical (nonhuman primates)
2	2.5 million – 13,000 years ago	Band, clan, tribe	Dozens to hundreds	Informal, prestige- or expertise-based	Big man, head man	Egalitarian and situational
3	13,000 – 250 years ago	Chiefdoms, kingdoms, warlord societies	Thousands	Centralised, institutionalised (sometimes hereditary)	Chiefs, kings, warlords	Hierarchical, prestige- or dominance-based
4	250 years ago - present	Nations, states, large businesses	Thousands to millions	Centralised, democratic	Heads of state, CEOs	Hierarchical, but participatory

Source: van Vugt (2018)

2.3.7.5. Implications of the evolutionary leadership theory

An evolutionary framework of leadership theory sheds light on critical leadership questions and also generates a variety of implications, for instance, how leadership in organisations might evolve considering the constraints of human-evolved psychology (van Vugt & Ronay, 2014; von Rueden & van Vugt, 2015).

Why follow?

Understanding the psychology of followership appears to be more interesting than leadership itself as there are typically more followers than leaders. From an evolutionary perspective, why would individuals forsake their autonomy to follow another individual? An evolutionary theory of leadership suggests that followership evolved in response to recurring problems in evolutionary history. The implication suggests followership would emerge quicker in evolutionary situations and that there are variations in followership styles depending on the need (van Vugt, 2018; van Vugt, Hogan, et al., 2008).

The importance of context

The evolutionary theory of leadership provides a base for contingency leadership. Early humans would take different approaches to leadership to adapt to contextual challenges. Building on this from modern hunter-gather societies, leadership was adaptable and, subject to circumstances, distinct leaders emerged, for example, the top hunter led the hunting party, the wisest leader resolved conflicts, the most ferocious warrior led battles (von Rueden & van Vugt, 2015).

Ambivalent leader-follower relations

A further strength of the evolutionary theory of leadership is that it details the fundamental ambivalence in leader-follower relations (van Vugt, Hogan, et al., 2008). Concerning the evolutionary past as an egalitarian species, social hierarchies are flatter than nonhuman primates, and leadership built on respect rather than force (Henrich & Gil-White, 2001; van Vugt, Jepson, Hart, & De Cremer, 2004). Dominance, however, forms part of the human primate heritage, and humans have likely evolved psychological mechanisms for creating dominance-submission relations too (van Vugt & Ronay, 2014). An organisational risk is that leaders will use their power to exploit followers if conditions are right (Padilla, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2007). As a result, this makes the leader-follower relationship inherently ambivalent. However, humans have likely evolved leadership psychology with decision-making criteria that prompts control in certain situations. Conversely, humans have evolved followership psychology that

incorporates certain criteria to elude being ruled and used by leaders (van Vugt, 2018; van Vugt & Ronay, 2014).

Differences between ancestral and modern environments

Lastly, evolutionary leadership theory suggests why modern leadership structures may fail by highlighting that there is difference concerning human evolved leadership psychology and the issues confronting current environments. The psychology of human leadership grew in small groups where leadership was personal, informal, and consensual (van Vugt, 2018). The mismatch hypothesis accepts that this evolved psychology still affects the way humans select and respond to leaders, sometimes creating mismatch challenges (van Vugt, Johnson, Kaiser, & O'Gorman, 2008; von Rueden & van Vugt, 2015).

Who is the leader?

The evolutionary theory of leadership suggests why leadership correlates to physical traits such as height, voice, and facial masculinity that, yet have little to do leadership skills. In small scale ancestral societies, physical strength was particularly crucial as leadership was often physical, requiring dominance, e.g., for conflict resolution, or stamina, e.g., for group movement. Interestingly, successful leaders in modern societies are generally taller (e.g., (Blaker et al., 2013; Judge & Cable, 2004; Stulp, Buunk, Verhulst, & Pollet, 2013), while in certain sports teams, a player's age is often more important than their height (Elgar, 2016).

2.3.7.6. Resume

Inspired by evolutionary psychology, evolutionary leadership theory provides a method to the field of leadership that joins the different fields of study with the principles of evolutionary biology (van Vugt, 2018; van Vugt & Ronay, 2014).

Table 2.9 summarises the leadership dimensions and attributes discussed in this section.

Table 2.9 Evolutionary, biological and neuroscience dimensions and attributes

Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
The evolutionary theory of leadership	<p>Van Vugt (2018)</p> <p>Psychological, neurological, and physiological methods concerning human behaviours as outcomes of the biological evolution.</p>	<p>Physiological, neurological, psychological, behaviours, physical, neurophysiological, brain, neurotransmitters, hormones, cognition, emotions, behaviours, risk-taking, sociability, psychology, natural laws, decision-making, choice, context, relationship, decision rules, situations.</p>

Source: Researcher

2.4. Contemporary topics in leadership

In this section, the discussion concerns contemporary topics of leadership. The objective of this section is to determine theoretically relevant leadership attributes and dimensions, from the contemporary topics of leadership, towards establishing constructs for a conceptual leadership model.

This section aims to:

1. Discuss social-cognition, social perception, and leadership;
2. Discuss leadership and gender;
3. Discuss power and leadership;
4. Discuss leadership and identity;
5. Discuss leadership, culture, and globalisation; and
6. Discuss entrepreneurial leadership.

2.4.1. Social cognition, social perception, and leadership

2.4.1.1. Introduction

Although people may not have the same experience when finding and assessing new employees for organisations, they process information about others from brief observations (Macrae & Quadflieg, 2010), including their leadership skills and success (Antonakis & Dalgas, 2009; Benjamin & Shapiro, 2009; Poutvaara, Jordahl, & Berggren, 2009; Rule & Ambady, 2008, 2009, 2010; Sanchez-Cortes, Aran, Mast, & Gatica-Perez, 2010, pp. 8-12; Todorov, Mandisodza, Goren, & Hall, 2005; Tskhay, Xu, & Rule, 2014).

At any given point in time, people evaluate one another based on several characteristics, starting with simple assessments of age, ethnicity, sex, and continuing to more complex questions regarding personality traits and social status (Bruce & Young, 1986). At any given moment in time, the human brain processes a vast amount of information, from the perception of basic elements in the surrounding environment, e.g., ambient sounds; to evaluating complex social information, e.g., emotional states. Therefore, leaders should perceive information effectively and efficiently, retain this information for long periods, and use it to predict events that involve other people's

motivations, desires and behaviour - the study of this information-processing is known as social cognition (Fiske & Taylor, 2013; Gallese, Keysers, & Rizzolatti, 2004).

2.4.1.2. The social cognitive concept of information processing

Models of social cognition suggest that the human mind has developed a module for processing and integrating social information that assists people to understand the world (Caporael, 1997; Herrmann, Call, Hernandez-Lloreda, Hare, & Tomasello, 2007; Stevens & Fiske, 1995).

Mental representations

Mental representations form the basic units of social-cognitive processing (Bodenhausen & Todd, 2010). Generally, mental representations constitute the ideas and thoughts people have of one another. Further, mental representation can include physical features, e.g., facial hair, traits, e.g., masculinity, and representations of individuals' identity or group membership, e.g., man (Tskhay & Rule, 2018). Socio-cognitive theory suggests that the mind structures mental representations of people hierarchically, beginning from primary elements that aggregate toward trait perceptions and then peak as complex mental representations (Freeman & Ambady, 2011). While the notion of a schema as a composition of attributes is intuitive, the human mind must amass multiple categories that define highly and scarcely visible aspects of identity, e.g., age, sex orientation (Brewer, 1988; Tskhay & Rule, 2013). As a result, the mind categorises all the representations into connected networks where several schemata affect each other differentially (Read, Vanman, & Miller, 1997; Smith, 1996).

Undeniably, people use various mental representations to determine about others' group memberships, personality traits, and eventually their identities (Bruce & Young, 1986). A lot of the information that composes mental representations comes from an individual's previous encounters with others (Smith, 1996). As an example, although children can characterise basic and obvious social aspects early in life, e.g., sex; (Wild et al., 2000); more elaborate attributes, e.g., leadership skills, are learned as they mature (Antonakis & Dalgas, 2009; Heider, 1944). Mental representations are,

therefore developed over time through experience with the environment (Tskhay & Rule, 2018).

Social perception

Similar to the perception of shapes, lines, and sounds, which include elementary cognitive processing, social perception is the initiation point for social cognition (Brewer, 1988). Social perception, therefore, aims to understand how people use information in their social environment to process social stimuli and create mental models.

Social perception is a three-stage process (Gilbert, Pelham, & Krull, 1988). Firstly, people categorise one another into groups. Secondly, they translate the initial categorisation into a more refined assumption about the individual's character. Finally, they establish the circumstances and situational aspects regarding the person perceived, making changes to their assumption (Gilbert, Krull, & Malone, 1990; Gilbert et al., 1988). The process of observing others, therefore, comprises extracting evidence from the environment, accumulating the information and associated thoughts to construct an assumption, and re-evaluating the evidence in consideration of the surrounding situation (Tskhay & Rule, 2018).

The ecological model of social perception

The ecological model of social perception suggests that perceptions of others have evolved throughout human evolution as they serve survival-enhancing purposes (Gibson, 2014; McArthur & Baron, 1983). Several environmental adaptations are established from birth, e.g., avoiding bad smells (Rozin, Haidt, & McCauley, 1999), whereas others are developed through continuous contact to the physical and social environment, e.g., leadership (Brown, 2012).

The ecological model of social perception, therefore, suggests that the human mind will principally attend to social cues that afford survival-enhancing information. The social cues will then be encoded and stored as mental representations that one could later use across situations (Zebrowitz, Kikuchi, & Fellous, 2007). Consequently, the human mind learns associations that help organise the social world more generally.

Brunswik's lens model

Complementing the inferential portion of the ecological model of social perception, Brunswik's lens model attempts to describe how people correctly infer social information by tackling the sound cues that targets send and how perceivers may or may not use them (Brunswik, 1956). Although prominent and widely used, Brunswik's lens model is considered too simple (Gosling, Ko, Mannarelli, & Morris, 2002). Individuals may not exhibit the same indicating cues across various situations; contexts could limit or magnify perceivers' ability to detect them, and the model does not explain people's motivations or biases (West & Kenny, 2011). While Brunswik's lens model performs well in experimental design and analysis, the model is considered to lack the resolution required for parsing everyday life (Tskhay & Rule, 2018).

The realistic accuracy model

Funder (1995) suggested the realistic accuracy model is a sequential stage process that incorporates the adaptive function of the ecological model with the accurate measurement of the lens model across four stages: relevance, availability, detection, and utilisation. The notion concludes that one achieves accurate perception once all four stages are satisfied (Tskhay & Rule, 2018; Tskhay et al., 2014).

The dynamic interactive theory of personal construal

People's construal's of others are the result of multiple lower-level representations that follow into a prototype or holistic representation of identity (Tskhay & Rule, 2018). Critically, they establish the point at which the mind determines a person's identity, group membership, and trait characteristics. After that, people use this information to decide whether to associate, cooperate, mate, compete, or otherwise interact with others (Herrmann et al., 2007).

According to the dynamic collaborative theory of personal construal (Freeman & Ambady, 2011), schemata become established once the mind has aggregated the information received about a person. The mind continues to complete this task, iteratively to assimilate new confirmatory or contradictory information. Therefore, not only do representations of others get continuously updated, people may reinitiate their

judgement about others after each encounter with a person (Rule, Tskhay, Freeman, & Ambady, 2014). Social cognition, though somewhat stable, is also dynamic (Tskhay & Rule, 2018).

2.4.1.3. Social cognition and leadership

Following the principles of social cognition, leaders hold and display characteristics that ignite representations about leadership in other's minds. How people think about leaders, i.e., implicit leadership theories (ITL); (Offerman et al., 1994) and how those thoughts aggregate to shape holistic mental representation of leadership is vital (Brown, 2012; Smith, 1996).

Implicit leadership theories and leadership categorisation theory

ITL, i.e., their beliefs about the behaviours and traits that distinguish leaders from non-leaders, have received decades of research from scholars of leadership and organisational behaviour (Eden & Leviathan, 1975; House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002; Lord et al., 1984). For example, one may believe that a leader would be more attractive, dominant, masculine, and powerful than a non-leader (Tskhay & Rule, 2018). Therefore, people's beliefs about leaders generally refer to representations of their traits (Lord, Brown, Harvey, & Hall, 2001; Smith & Foti, 1998).

Leadership categorisation theory (Lord et al., 1984) explains how ITL create holistic representations of leadership. Notably, it suggests ITL are structured as leadership schemata - networks of traits that aggregate into leader and non-leader prototypes (Lord et al., 2001). Therefore, following connectionist models of cognition, multiple inputs into the cognitive system produce patterns of activation and inhibition, which produce the construction of representational output nodes (Smith, 1996; Smith & Foti, 1998). As a result, internal connections between representations dynamically incorporate information from lower-level perceptual attributes with high-order cognitions to reach a leader representation (Lord et al., 2001; Lord & Dinh, 2014).

As illustrated in Figure 2.3, information regarding the target from the environment enters the perceiver's mind, i.e., the social cognition module, through low-level perceptual characteristics. After that, these characteristics integrate with the

leadership schema, a network of traits that interpret the target as either a leader or non-leader - the system's output. This decision advances leadership emergence (Tskhay & Rule, 2018). Consequently, the categorisation translates into leadership effectiveness, as it is generally impossible to produce leadership outcomes and influence others if followers do not regard one to be a leader. Lastly, leader effectiveness feeds back into the system to strengthen the image of the person as a leader in the eyes of followers (Lord et al., 2001).

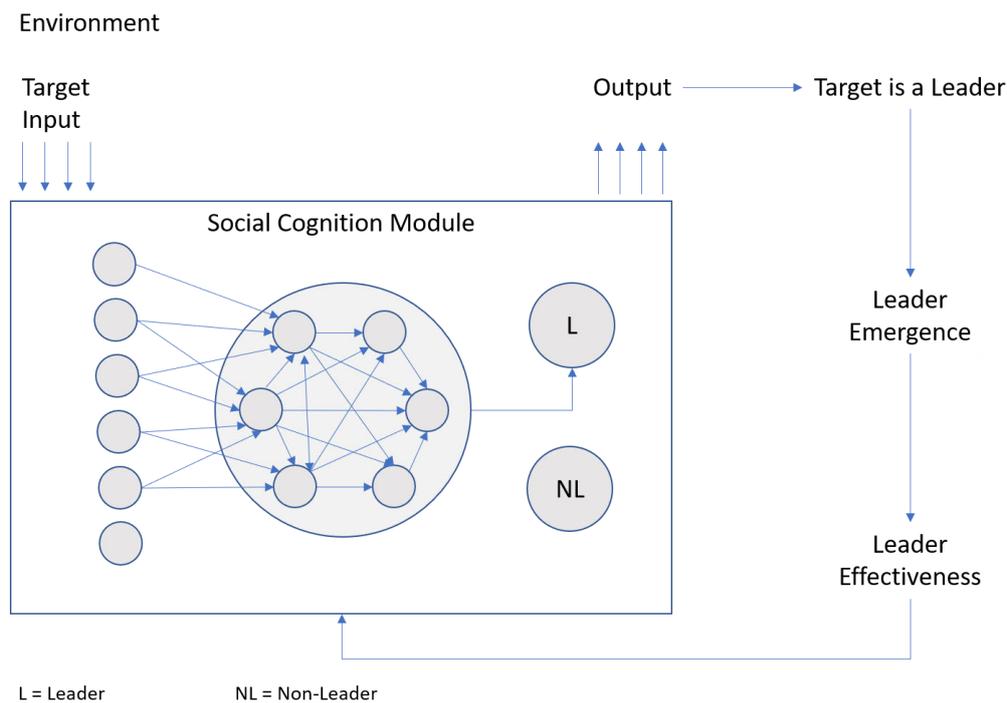


Figure 2.3 Social cognition schema of leadership

Source: Tskhay and Rule (2018)

2.4.1.4. Resume

Leadership from the perspective of social cognition plays a central role in leadership perception, leadership emergence, and leadership effectiveness (Tskhay & Rule, 2018; Tskhay et al., 2014). Furthermore, cognitions regarding leaders might translate into real-world outcomes (Tskhay & Rule, 2018).

Table 2.10 summarises the leadership dimensions and attributes discussed in this section.

Table 2.10 Social cognition, social perception leadership dimensions and attributes

Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
Social cognitive model of information processing	<p>(Bodenhausen & Todd, 2010); Caporael (1997); (Freeman & Ambady, 2011); Herrmann, Call, Hernandez-Lloreda, Hare, and Tomasello (2007); Stevens and Fiske (1995); (Tskhay & Rule, 2018).</p> <p>The model stores information about other people and their relationships to facilitate successful interactions.</p>	Mind, social, understanding, mental, social-cognitive, physical, traits, experience.
The ecological model of social perception	(Gibson, 2014; McArthur & Baron, 1983).	Physical, social, environment, mind, situations.

Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
	Perceptions of others have evolved throughout human evolution as they serve survival-enhancing purposes.	
Brunswik's lens model	(Brunswik, 1956). Describes how people correctly infer social information that targets send and how perceivers may or may not use them.	Social information, situations, contexts.
The realistic accuracy model	Funder (1995). A four sequential stage process, relevance, availability, detection, and utilisation.	Context, understanding.
The dynamic interactive theory of person construal	(Freeman & Ambady, 2011); (Herrmann et al., 2007); (Tskhay & Rule, 2018).	Mind, decide, interact.

Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
	Multiple lower-level representations that follow into a prototype or holistic representation of identity.	
Implicit leadership theories and leadership categorisation theory	(Eden & Leviathan, 1975; House et al., 2002; Lord et al., 1984). Beliefs, traits and behaviours that distinguish leaders from non-leaders.	Beliefs, traits, behaviours.
Leadership categorisation theory	(Lord et al., 1984). Explains how ITL create holistic representations of leadership.	Traits, cognition.

Source: Researcher

2.4.2. Leadership and gender

2.4.2.1. Introduction

In general, men occupy further authority and power than women in governments and organisations. Thus, gender equality remains a distant goal (Carli & Eagly, 2018).

2.4.2.2. Men and women in leadership positions

Women have achieved significant access to management positions in most industrialised societies (U.S. Census Bureau, 2016). Presently, almost 30% of chief executives are women (Helfat, Harris, & Wolfson, 2006; Statistics, 2016)

Women occupy important roles. At present, women lead governments as prime ministers or presidents in almost 20 nations. The International Monetary Fund (IMF) is also led by a woman, Ms. Kristalina Georgieva, who occupies the position as the managing director. Therefore, instead of the unfathomable obstacle described as the glass ceiling metaphor, the challenges women face is not unachievable. Eagly and Carli (2007) symbolise women's often challenging advancement to leadership as a labyrinth. Women do get to the centre of the labyrinth and achieve leadership positions. However, the contrast between men's comparatively direct path and women's less direct path is apparent (Carli & Eagly, 2018).

2.4.2.3. Family responsibilities and human capital investment

Men and women human capital

Carli and Eagly (2018) suggest that a reason for the leadership gender gap inequality is that there are differences in the knowledge, psychological qualities, and skills that facilitate leadership. Yet, women from several industrialised countries are now more qualified than men (United Nations, 2015).

Women's general career ambition is like men. The hunger for high-paying roles is currently greater amongst women than men in the United States (Pattern & Parker, 2012). Women excel in education although they might encounter several difficulties in business schools. Girls acquire skills independent of schoolwork while boys may obtain additional experience during competitive situations. A women's more inclusive

nature draws them toward specific leadership roles. Lastly, women's leadership determination may diminish as they traverse the labyrinth (Carli & Eagly, 2018).

Women and men's responsibilities

Human capital theory suggests that women's careers are challenged by family responsibilities. Generally, women devote more time compared with men on housework and childcare across all nations (World Bank, 2013; U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2015a). As household work is necessary and tedious, not doing it due to work responsibilities is usually not viable. Therefore, women usually forfeit personal time resulting in less personal time than men (Sayer, 2016).

Early in their career, women quit more often than men and usually due to family responsibilities (Bertrand, Goldin, & Katz, 2010). Generally, employees experience lasting effects from the loss of income due to job breaks due to family responsibilities. Such breaks are more damaging than interruptions for example pursuing further education opportunities (Theunissen, Verbruggen, Forrier, & Sels, 2011).

In summary, casual interruptions in employment reduce women's opportunity in comparison to that of men. These gaps likely further the gender gaps in remuneration and the progression to leadership positions (Abendroth, Maas, & van der Lippe, 2013; Blau & Kahn, 2013).

2.4.2.4. Women and men styles of leadership

Yukl (2013) states that leadership techniques influence leadership effectiveness. Differences in gender styles might shape women's leadership progression. Although, an analysis of gender differences in leadership techniques found that women generally adopt a somewhat less overbearing and more egalitarian approach. This approach typically includes subordinates in the leadership dialogue (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; van Engen & Willemsen, 2004).

Women's approach to leadership is generally considered more participative and democratic, in contrasted to a somewhat directive and autocratic approach by men. Furthermore, women leaders usually take a more transformational approach to leadership as opposed to men (Carli & Eagly, 2018). Transactionally, female leaders

employ more rewards compared to men. Generally, men assist subordinates' failures more than women do (Vinkenburg, van Engen, Eagly, & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2011).

As a result, research suggests that the difference between a female and a male leader's style and effectiveness are unlikely to impede women's leadership performance, but rather, it might improve their performance. Furthermore, scholars on leadership efficacy advocate no gender advantage; however, circumstantial effects may influence leadership effectiveness. In summary, little evidence exists to suggest that female leaders have ineffective leadership techniques or that they are ineffective compared with men (Carli & Eagly, 2018).

2.4.2.5. The nature argument

Evolutionary psychology theory

Evolutionary psychologists credit modern psychological gender contrasts to the different procreant pressures on males and females (Buss, 2016). An evolutionary approach suggests that women devote more time than men to their offspring, and as a result, women became particular about potential mates (Trivers, 1972). Presumably, these outcomes resulted in women choosing partners who could offer the necessary resources to provide for them and their offspring. Consequently, men rivalled with one another to gain access to mates. As a result, winners boasted the opportunity to procreate and pass their genes to the following generation. Consequently, men that progressed in competitions, exhibited aggression, were risk-takers, dominant, and competitive. These features enabled leadership and became the qualities etched in men as evolved attributes (Carli & Eagly, 2018).

Differences in gender leadership traits

Character attributes are considered key factors of leadership competence. The majority of modern psychologists perceive that gender disparities in traits and behaviours are a result of nurture and nature (Eagly & Wood, 2013). Tendencies concerning leadership seem to be somewhat heritable, however reactive to socialisation, whereby offspring can acquire leadership skills in various situations (Ilies, Arvey, & Bouchard, 2006).

The general view is that women do not compete as much as men do. This perception suggests men's overconfidence and a more favourable approach toward competition. In studies concerning competitiveness in mixed-motive and negotiating skills games, meta-analytical results show a minor gender difference where men behave slightly more competitively than women (Balliet, Wu, & De Dreu, 2014; Walters, Stuhlmacher, & Meyer, 1998). However, research suggests male collaboration is more effective than female collaboration. Whereas mixed-gender relations generated further rivalry and a reduction of teamwork in men than women (Balliet, Li, Macfarlan, & van Vugt, 2011).

Although competitiveness and assertiveness generally reside in males more than females, there is little evidence to suggest that these attributes contribute toward leadership effectiveness. In modern professional organisations physical aggression is barely considered a method of advancement. However, verbal hostility and competitiveness could accelerate leadership development in certain environments. Yet traits such as selfish ambition, arrogance, bullying or taking an aggressive approach, are understood to ruin leaders (Judge, Piccolo, & Kosalka, 2009).

For effective leadership, experts generally encourage a combination of skills. These include cooperation, team building, negotiation, diplomacy, and motivating and developing others. In modern settings, it is doubtful that successful leadership stems from typical male authoritarian behaviour, or that males' ascent to leadership positions reveals their generally domineering approach. As a result, the possibility of prejudice and discrimination is considered (Carli & Eagly, 2018).

2.4.2.6. Prejudice and discrimination against female leaders

Economic research concerning skill and capability provides little explanation in the gender gaps in career advancement and remuneration. These unexplained gaps imply possible discrimination against female leaders (Johnson & Lee, 2012; Mandel & Semyonov, 2014). Research show a continuous intensity of gender prejudice throughout organisations levels, suggesting that women encounter constant challenges resulting in less females in senior positions (Elliot & Smith, 2004). Finally, further research indicates that it is doubtful that female workers simply avoid leadership positions due to family duties (Corrigall & Konrad, 2006). Instead, prejudice

could demoralise women's desire and might be the reason behind the gender gap in leadership (Mintz & Krymkowski, 2010; Schieman, Schafer, & McIvor, 2013).

2.4.2.7. Stereotypes concerning women, men, and leaders

Prejudice against female leadership generally transpires because some individuals think women lack the skills required of an effective leader (Carli & Eagly, 2018). The concept of role incongruity suggests bias toward females in leadership typically stems from perceived gender positions. Such views comprise beliefs of what men and women are like, or injunctive hopes regarding what men and women should be like (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

Worldwide studies suggest that people assume men to be agentic - competent, assertive, authoritative, and dominant, - and women to be communal - warm, kind, helpful, and supportive (Williams & Best, 1990). Cultural stereotypes about race and ethnicity compound such perceptions regarding gender stereotypes of women leaders (Carli & Eagly, 2018). Unlike conventional women who are deemed warm and friendly, but not particularly skilled, women who stand out and exhibit leadership are perceived to be skilled, however not usually warm (Glick, Diebold, Bailey-Werner, & Zhu, 1997). Both genders are known to be extra critical of women in leadership; this inclination is greater among men (Napier, Thorisdottir, & Jost, 2010). Furthermore, men, typically, relate leadership by masculine attributes (Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell, & Ristikari, 2011). This is generally considered an unfavourable assessment of female leadership (Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani, 1995; Koch, D'Mello, & Sackett, 2015).

Gender roles create an expectation that prefers women as communal, creating a double bind for females in leadership positions. Unfortunately, females must display exceptional skills to be considered equal to males plus avoid intimidating others with authority and an absence of warmth (Carli & Eagly, 2018; Eagly & Carli, 2007).

2.4.2.8. Women's organisational leadership challenges

Generally, positions of leadership have been occupied by men and organisations have been structured to accommodate their practices. As a result, organisations often create norms that seem to be gender-neutral, yet they generally benefit men (Martin,

2003). Several organisations have raised claims on their professional and managerial team, demanding extensive hours and personal sacrifices. These pressures suggest a model employee that suits a conventional male persona, with limited external obligations and total commitment to the organisation (Williams, Berdahl, & Vandello, 2016). After hours demands of professional and executive roles result in faster development and higher remuneration (Cha & Weeden, 2014). Working excessive hours may be considered a challenge for women who generally do the majority of household duties (Gascoigne, Parry, & Buchanan, 2015). Consequently, it is usually easier for men to occupy demanding roles.

Women's demanding family obligations might also weaken their capacity to create professional networks, which require socialising after work. Therefore, generally, men have a larger business network than women (Burt, 1998; Dreher & Cox, 1996). Furthermore, such professional contacts and business mentors correlate to higher compensation and career advancements (Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005). Therefore, the relative lack of business networks for women hinder their leadership prospects. Such obstacles result in women feeling victimised, and contribute toward their somewhat non-appearance in roles of leadership roles (Carli & Eagly, 2018).

2.4.2.9. Resume

The rise of women leaders has grown. In some groups, females in leadership signify contemporary and future-orientated leadership. While the outcomes of the increase in females in leadership roles are not completely known, including women in leadership positions significantly strengthens the pool of leadership talent (Carli & Eagly, 2018).

Table 2.11 summarises the leadership dimensions and attributes discussed in this section.

Table 2.11 Leadership and gender dimensions and attributes

Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
Gender differences in leadership traits	<p>Archer (2004); Halpern (2012); Schmitt, Realo, Voracek, and Allik (2008).</p> <p>Neither gender has a clear advantage in leadership, and men and women do not differ in overall intelligence.</p>	Not applicable.

Source: Researcher

2.4.3. Power and leadership

2.4.3.1. Introduction

Plato stated that people who lacked the depth of character must be eliminated from leadership positions as they would be most apt to use power for selfish reasons. Furthermore, Plato criticised "the naive view that leaders are as a matter of source motivated by the honourable advancement of a community's aims" (Williamson, 2008, p. 397). Therefore, Plato trusted that rulers should be sensibly selected and developed to govern and that only the virtuous - people with a greatly developed appreciation of righteousness - ought to be permitted to exert power (Williamson, 2008).

Aristotle echoed Plato's view of carefully choosing leaders to govern in society. Furthermore, Aristotle believed that all individuals should, above all else, be leaders of themselves. Therefore, for Aristotle, leadership - and by extension, being capable to exert power - was only intended for those who could control their urges through the leadership of self, as such self-control would avoid leaders from acceding to the corruptive type of power, i.e., becoming tyrants (Aristotle, 1999). Both Plato and Aristotle agreed that only those who are amidst the wisest men have the necessary right to rule because wisdom allows leaders to build regimes that highlight the common good. For Aristotle, wisdom plays a dominant role in ensuring moral leadership, as it allows leaders to balance their character strengths to overcome challenges in a harmonic, adaptive and prosocial manner (Aristotle, 1999).

2.4.3.2. Defining power

Sturm and Antonakis (2015) recognised three aspects of power that have developed in explanations and measurements of power in several years of research: that power comprises controlling the (1) choice and (2) resources to (3) impose one's desire. Discretion comprise the choices and autonomy of action available to powerholders to enforce their will. In relations of having the methods to impose one's will, these methods can be inherent, e.g., charisma, physical appearance, obtained through preparation and expertise, or operational - that is, bound to one's role, e.g., punishment, and rewards; (French & Raven, 1959). Lastly, according to Bendalan, Zehnder, Pralong, and Antonakis (2015), leaders imposing their will over others

indicates those who are dependent on the leader, and therefore the more followers that leaders have, the more power they possess.

Sturm and Antonakis (2015) define power as controlling both the options and the resources to enforce one's desire. Power can thus be applied to various levels of analysis, going from a dyadic analysis where leaders enforce their will on a follower to being able to enforce their will on entire countries (Sturm & Monzani, 2018). Leadership is a method comprising the individual traits of the leader, the collaboration amongst the leader and follower(s), and contextual burdens. The dynamics of power reflect the leadership process as they are also rooted in context (Emerson, 1962) and comprise the dynamics and structure of personality (McClelland, 1975). Therefore, power comprise the leader, followers, and the situation (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 1999). As Russell (1938) suggests, power is a vital force in social relationships.

2.4.3.3. Scientific background on the definition of power

Some leaders naturally consider leadership positions to fulfil an innate need for power (Sturm & Monzani, 2018). McClelland (1975) classified the desire to lead as the want for command and thought that people differ in the psychological pleasure they receive from commanding others. Hence, leaders who devise a desire for power will look for roles that allow them access to different types of power so they can coerce their will on others. Furthermore, measures of trait dominance have been used as a proxy for power in empirical research (Anderson & Berdahl, 2002; Weick & Guinote, 2008). A desire for dominance or power is not enough to explain leader emergence, as it is common for people to "land" in a leadership role (e.g., forced promotion). Moreover, culture might also facilitate the "rise to power" (Sturm & Monzani, 2018).

Power is a significant factor in political, economic, and social relations (Fehr, Herz, & Wilkening, 2013), and therefore crucial to practising leaders. As such, the appreciation of what power is and how leaders achieve it helps explain how social interactions work.

2.4.3.4. The source of power

Power comes from multiple sources. Figure 2.4. highlights these sources (i.e., antecedents) as structural, cognitive, from traits, and physical as well (Sturm &

Antonakis, 2015). Bases of power are apparent in the "means" quality defining power, suggesting power can be enlarged and imposed through a range of mechanisms.

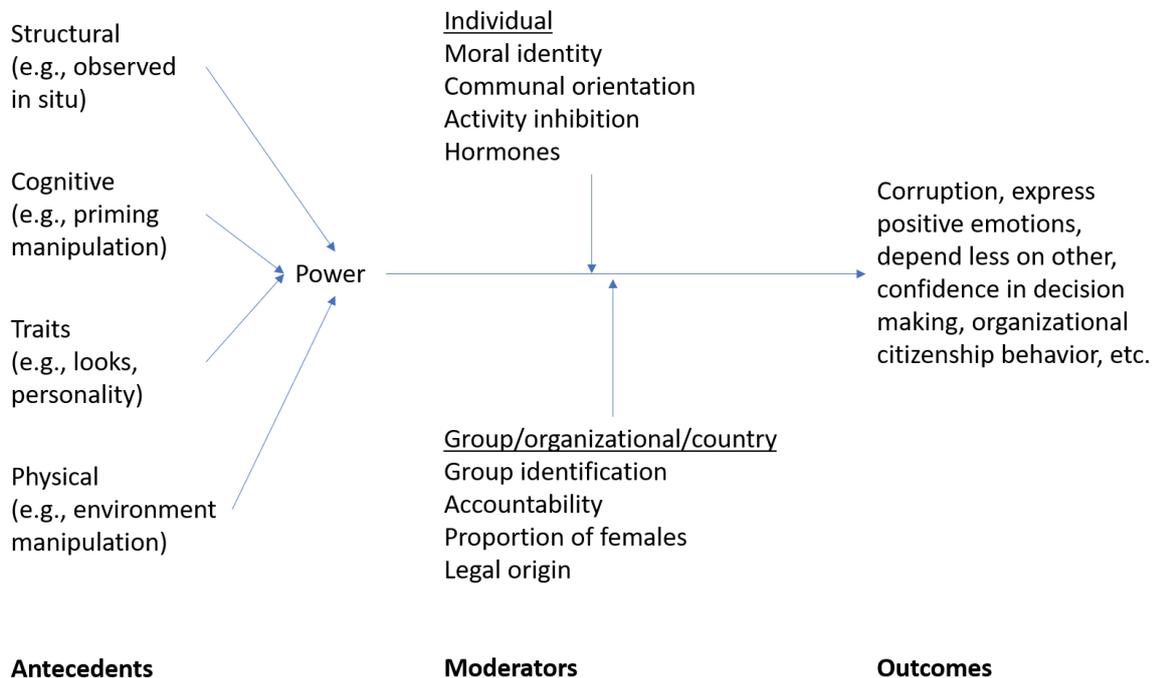


Figure 2.4 A model of interpersonal power

Source: Sturm and Monzani (2018)

Structural sources

Structural power can be established in position, task assignments, as well as titles, and authority. French and Raven (1959) suggest that positional sources of power include reward, coercive, and legitimate power. Reward power concerns the control over valuable resources - a leader can control a subordinate's promotion and salary - while coercive power relates to a leader being able to cause an unkind experience for a follower through fears of punishment and abuse. Furthermore, leaders can have power based on their role in an official hierarchy, i.e., genuine power, where both the leader and follower consent that the leader has influential authority based on position. Further structural sources include bureaucratic structures, political coalitions and alliances within organisations, social networks, and resource dependencies (Anderson & Brion, 2014); aligned with these resources, individuals are inclined to think that powerholders have stronger political power (Stern & Westphal, 2010). Also, situational

pressures play a role in how leaders exercise their power in the organisation (Sturm & Monzani, 2018).

Cognitive sources

Cognitive means of power shift the attention from social positions and roles to the individual level. Expressly, cognitive power assumes that individuals experience it at one time or another (Galinsky, Gruenfeld, & Magee, 2003) and is embedded within an individual (Rucker, Galinsky, & Dubois, 2012). Sturm and Antonakis (2015) suggest that power involves enforcing one's will over others. Although leaders may feel powerful, they might not be able to enforce their will.

Traits as a source of power

Anderson and Brion (2014) note that power is given to those perceived as having superior characteristics, e.g., expertise. According to French and Raven (1959), two critical individual sources of power are expert and referent power. Expert power refers to work-related skills and knowledge (Whetten & Cameron, 2016). Blau and Scott (1962) established that power is granted to individuals that are recognised as the most competent. Yukl (2013) states that having expertise becomes essential when people depend on the leader for advice. Referent power concerns interpersonal attraction and occurs when followers want to please the leader due to feelings of admiration, affection, and loyalty toward the leader (Yukl, 2002).

Physical environment

While the physical characteristics of a leader, e.g., height, gender, are an essential source of power, the physical environment surrounding a leader is also a source of power that can and often is, manipulated (Yap, Wazlawek, Lucas, Cuddy, & Carney, 2013). Furthermore, Yap et al. (2013) found that experiments that expanded the body resulted in a greater sense of power in people. Sources of power are not mutually exclusive of one another, although, structural sources of power can impact the perceptions of leader's physicality (Sturm & Monzani, 2018).

2.4.3.5. What power does to leaders

Changes occur when individuals possess power (Jordan, Sivanathan, & Galinsky, 2011; Keltner, Gruenfeld, & Anderson, 2003).

Changes in cognition

Power enhances the setting and pursuit of goals (Anderson & Brion, 2014). Furthermore, power not only facilitates individuals to set, initiate, and prioritise objectives (Guinote, 2007), it can also make powerholders view themselves as less constrained in the attainment of their objectives (Whitson et al., 2013). Yap and colleagues (2013) established that power holders might underestimate the physical size of others when pursuing their goals. Also, Burgmer and Englich (2013) found that emphasis on achieving goal-relevant outcomes improved motor task performance for powerholders. Thus the benefits of goal setting might exist as powerholders tend to be less distracted by details and are therefore better able to extract the essence from incoming information in the environment (Smith & Trope, 2006). In essence, high-power leaders are inclined to see the forest through the trees compared to low-power leaders.

Furthermore, high-power leaders are also more prone to analytical and abstract thinking (Miyamoto & Ji, 2011; Smith & Trope, 2006). In general, powerful leaders work hard to achieve their goals and therefore, the content of the goals powerful leaders set, are of importance. Likewise, if leaders have incorrect information related to their goals, and power makes them excessively confident, they might not see problems that others do (Sturm & Monzani, 2018).

Changes in effect

Power, in general, increases positive effects such as experience and expressed emotion in powerful leaders, however reduced power augments the adverse effect (Keltner et al., 2003). Research suggests the expression of positive affect comprise enthusiasm, desire, happiness, dignity, and optimism (Anderson & Galinsky, 2006; Berdahl & Martorana, 2006; Fast, Sivanathan, Mayer, & Galinsky, 2012; Keltner et al., 2003). Furthermore, powerholders tend to portray smiles of pleasure more (Keltner,

Young, Heerey, Oemig, & Monarch, 1998), and sadness is often hard to sense in powerholders (Kemper, 1991). A further reason why powerholders have a positive effect could be that they prioritise themselves over others because it is emotionally rewarding for them (van Kleef, Oveis, Homan, van der Lowe, & Keltner, 2015); in particular, van Kleef et al. (2015) established that powerholders are more inspired by themselves than by others.

Changes in behaviour

Typically, power increases an action orientation (Galinsky et al., 2003; Keltner et al., 2003), which suggests that high-power leaders are more likely to take action, than low-power leaders. Powerful leaders not only take action but are more likely to approach rewarding outcomes (Keltner et al., 2003). According to Bendahan et al.'s (2015) research on corruption, powerholders are further inclined to use their power to disrupt social standards and fulfil their interests to the damage of the common good. Such behaviour might transpire as power causes leaders less reliant on others (Emerson, 1962) while similarly making them experience more detached from others (Magee & Smith, 2013). A reason why power might blind leaders to social norms and therefore make them behave in socially inappropriate ways, is that power makes them more defiant to other's social influence (Berdahl & Martorana, 2006), which allows them to express themselves more freely. It appears that high-power leaders engage in less social conformity and could violate social norms more frequently (Galinsky, Aumann, & Bond, 2008). Furthermore, power increases risk-seeking behaviour (Anderson & Galinsky, 2006), which is often a result of their overconfidence.

Changes in neurochemistry

Bullmore & Sporns (2012) state that the human brain is a system of neurophysiological constructs that conform systems, which in healthy grown-ups function as a highly synchronised, holistic unit. Each system has precise functions that affect how humans experience and process stimuli from the environment around them. An example is the deeper, more fundamental structures that conform to the limbic system, which can quickly assess threats that an external stimulus poses to one's social status, and intuitively determine the "chances" of surviving a confrontation (Gray, 1994). Furthermore, the limbic system also elicits most primal emotions in people, including

fear, anger, anxiety, and joy. Equally, the upper more complex structures of the brain in the neocortex determine the processing of incoming raw information into cognitions and therefore control the intensity of primal emotions and behavioural responses (Kandel, Schwartz, Jessell, Siegelbaum, & Hudspeth, 2013).

Throughout the complex network of systems in the human brain, information is communicated via neurotransmitters, e.g., serotonin, dopamine, and hormones, e.g., testosterone, cortisol, and oxytocin. Dopamine and serotonin are traditionally concerned with feelings of reward, achievement, and well-being, respectively (Mogenson, Jones, & Yim, 1980). Testosterone is an androgen hormone, i.e., it develops and maintains masculine features, which are linked to competitive, status-enhancing behaviours (Mazur & Booth, 1998), while cortisol is a hormone associated with stress and fight-or-flight behaviours. Oxytocin, however, has been widely associated with trust, communal, prosocial, and group-orientated behaviours (Campbell, 2010).

Neurotransmitters travel across synaptic connections throughout the brain with a quick yet short-lived effect, whereas hormones reach the brain through the blood and have a more lasting effect. As both neurotransmitters and hormones travel through neural pathways, they leave chemical trails as they pass by. The resultant chemical trails create a temporary chemical imbalance in the brain that communicates essential information to the human body. In healthy adults, once the external stimulus that initiated the neurochemical response disappears, the neurotransmitters and hormones jointly regulate, thereby restoring balance to the brain (Plaff, Arnold, Fahrback, Etgen, & Rubin, 2002). Zilioli & Watson (2014) aimed to establish whether the frequent exposure to power-related situations could create a constant neurochemical imbalance in the brain, resulting in the gradual reshaping of powerholders' neurophysiological structures and neural pathways, similar to how analogous drugs affect addicts. Schmid and Schmid Mast (2013) found that powerholders have lower heart rates following stressful tasks, suggesting that power can act as a buffer against stress. In summary, when it comes to leadership and power, neurochemistry, affect, cognition, and behaviour are highly interconnected (Sturm & Monzani, 2018).

2.4.3.6. Self-enhancement effect of power

It appears that power acts as a catalyst to expose a leader's true self (Hirsh, Galinsky, & Zhong, 2011). It is understandable why Plato and Aristotle stressed the importance of who is appointed to positions of leadership as they will have access to power, which enhances self-expression. Lord Acton once declared, "power tends to corrupt, and absolute power corrupts absolutely" (Acton & Himmelfarb, 1948, pp. 335-336). Although the effect of self-enhancement could result in prosocial outcomes if those in power are inherently prosocial. DeCelles, DeRue, Margolis, & Ceranic (2012) established that power heightened the moral awareness for those with a strong moral identity. It also enabled communally orientated people to behave more altruistically (Chen, Lee-Chai, & Bargh, 2001).

2.4.3.7. Who should be in positions of power?

Power magnifies a leader's characteristics (Sturm & Monzani, 2018). Such magnification, up to a certain point, can be functional; however, after a certain threshold, power becomes corruptive. Power-induced corruption suggests that leaders are using power to increase personal gain in a manner that contravenes social norms and is damaging to the common good (Bendahan et al., 2015). In order to abstain from the corruptive nature of power, Crossan, Vera, and Nanjad (2008) state that leaders do not only have to be exceptionally good at leading an organisation but also need to genuinely master "leadership of self".

The corruptive impact of power

Some organisations are antisocial and destructive from the very outset, e.g., gangs. Others formed for prosocial intentions could have lost their way, becoming fundamentally corrupt. The negative influence of pseudo-transformational leaders can alter an organisations culture into a conducive environment for their toxic leadership (Barling, Christie, & Turner, 2008). Features of structurally corrupt organisations comprise (1) a monopolistic, profit-driven approach with no social concern; (2) a highly competitive environment; and (3) a highly dictatorial culture. On the flip side, situationally corrupt organisations are those that have a culture of prosocial values,

yet because of threats or instability, resort to unethical policies and practices at the time (Sturm & Monzani, 2018).

Power-induced corruption will likely affect how leaders lead others. Team leaders and managers at lower levels of an organisation are often susceptible to power-induced corruption that stems from their social status within a group. A recent evaluation of the social dynamics of leadership highlighted that power is not only claimed by leaders but also granted by followers (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). Therefore, granted power may be highly corruptive as well.

The importance of virtuousness

Power-induced corruption is not just a leader's issue; it can root and impact many within an organisation as well as impact society. Aristotle's teachings are centuries old yet provide an essential manner for dealing with the corruptive effects of power. Under the idea of virtue, Aristotle collected those behaviours labelled today as functional, adaptive, and prosocial (Crossan, Mazutis, Seijts, & Gandz, 2013). Aristotle believed that power is not fundamentally wrong although is corruptive only if it destroys the harmonious stability of one's behaviour, changing virtues into vices and therefore damaging one's character. According to Aristotle, a positive and virtuous character is the result of frequently portraying good behaviours. Contemporary research regards character as a group of virtues that are universally deemed to be noteworthy to well-being and excellence (Peterson & Seligman, 2004; Seijts, Gandz, Crossan, & Reno, 2015). Modern psychology views character as consisting of distal (stable, inherited traits such as conscientiousness) and proximal (malleable, context-dependent, and acquired traits such as self-efficacy) personality traits aligned with prosocial values, expressed in behaviourally virtuous ways. Crossan and colleagues (2013) suggest 11 character traits, i.e., judgement, humanity, courage, justice, transcendence, temperance, accountability, collaboration, drive, humility, and integrity; that are vital for virtuous leadership and positive organisational performance (Seijts et al., 2015; Sosik, Gentry, & Chun, 2012). Therefore, the display of character in a leadership role represents what is considered good leadership (Seijts & Gandz, 2013) and highlights why leadership scholars propose virtuousness as the gold standard. In order to develop virtuous leadership, Aristotle held practical wisdom as the critical virtue as it

allows one to recognise and appreciate the circumstances of each situation (Aristotle, 1999).

2.4.3.8. Resume

Both Plato (1901) and Aristotle (1999) believe virtuous leaders are the best suited to hold power as they will use it in prosocial ways. Thus, considering the ever-growing list of power abuse by leaders, it appears the crisis is not of power and corruption, but one of a lack of leader character (Sturm & Monzani, 2018).

Table 2.12 summarises the leadership dimensions and attributes discussed in this section.

Table 2.12 Power and leadership dimensions and attributes

Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
Virtuous leadership	<p>Aristotle (1999); Plato (1901).</p> <p>Only the wisest have the claim to rule as wisdom enables leaders to build regimes that emphasise the common good.</p>	Morals, ethics.

Source: Researcher

2.4.4. Leadership and identity

2.4.4.1. Introduction

Identity is central to the psychology of group membership - the perception of self and others in terms of a shared group membership. Identity comprises an essential role in the leadership process. Follower identity influences responses to leadership and is influenced by leadership (Lord, Brown, & Freiberg, 1999; Shamir et al., 1993; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003; van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & Hogg, 2004).

2.4.4.2. Leadership and social identity

Theories of social identity, self-categorisation, and self-construal describe the self-defining quality of social group membership (Hogg, 2003; Tajfel & Turner, 1986; Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987). Self-definition, as a group member wields an essential influence on perceptions, attitudes, and behaviour. It means considering the self as part of the group membership; social identity involves choosing the best outcome for the group and feeling the group identity as both self-describing and self-guiding (Turner et al., 1987). Both processes are essential to the social identity analysis of leadership. Follower's social identity leads followers to support leaders who are group prototypical (i.e., they exhibit the group identity and thus the social reality shared by the group) and to be serving the group's best interest. Furthermore, successful leadership could stem from leaders' skill to create followers' identification with the group and to alter followers' appreciation of the collective identity (van Knippenberg, 2018).

2.4.4.3. Group prototypicality and group-serving orientation

The social identity method explains in what way social groups are conceptually characterised as group prototypes. These qualities define group commonalities and determines what makes the group different from other groups (Hogg, 2001; Turner et al., 1987). Group prototypes describe what is group normative. Thus, the group prototype is a basis of influence on those who relate with the group, i.e., self-defined in terms of group membership (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), as identification directs one to

attribute group-defining qualities to the self and motivates the individual to adhere to group norms (Abrams & Hogg, 1990; Turner et al., 1987).

Central to social identity enquiry of leadership is the point that group members, and therefore, also group leaders may vary in the degree to which they characterise or embody group prototype, i.e., group prototypical. To the degree that a leader of a collective, i.e., group, team, organisation, and nation, is recognised to be group prototypical, i.e., embody the collective identity, the leader gains inspiration that they represent what is considered group-normative (Hogg, 2001).

The social identity model of leadership advances prototypicality and group-orientedness as two core elements of effective leadership. These elements directly follow from an analysis of the psychology of group membership concerning the social identity and self-categorisation theories.

2.4.4.4. Extension and integration

Prototypically, uncertainty, and change

A pivotal leadership function, some might argue the essence of leadership, lies in bringing about change and managing uncertainty.

Uncertainty is an essential part of the social identity approach to leadership. Hogg (2007) furthered a desire for uncertainty reduction as an essential motive underpinning affiliation with social groups. Ambiguity comprise an aversive inner state that individuals aim to resolve or at least reduce. Uncertainty also welcomes a desire for leadership. When people are uncertain, they look to leadership to reduce uncertainty (van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, & van Dijk, 2000).

An essential role for the leadership of change is to act not as agents of change, but as agents of continuity of identity to remove resistance to change (Shamir, 1999; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). The leadership of change is more effective when it conveys the message that despite all changes, the fundamental aspects of the collective identity are maintained (van Knippenberg, 2018).

Social identity and leader fairness

The psychology of justice has a history of academic interest (Lind & Taylor, 1988; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Research has identified the perceived fairness of the outcomes one receives (distributive fairness), the procedures followed to arrive at the outcomes (procedural justice), and the fairness of interpersonal treatment (interactional justice), as essential determinants of people's responses to treatment by and relationships with authorities (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001).

A social identity approach to leader fairness offers a viable perspective to advance the understanding of leadership and to integrate it into other perspectives of leadership.

Group versus leader prototypicality

The notion of leader group prototypicality, which is central to the social identity analysis of leadership, can be found in the theory of categorisation in cognitive psychology. Another view in leadership that revolves around the concept of prototypicality, and also traces its roots to the same work in cognitive psychology, is leadership categorisation (Lord & Maher, 1993).

The social identity of leadership follows a very similar process. However, the implicit standard differs. Leaders are implicitly evaluated in terms of their group prototypicality rather than their leader prototypicality. Hogg and colleagues (Fielding & Hogg, 1997; Hogg, Hains, & Mason, 1998) identify follower identification as the primary moderator of the relative significance of group prototypicality versus leader prototypicality in response to leadership. With higher follower identification, group prototypicality becomes a more significant basis for leadership effectiveness compared to leader prototypicality.

2.4.4.5. Leadership as shaping identity

Follower identity is not merely something that motivates responses to leadership; it is also something that could be affected by leadership. The critical point is that identity is not set in stone. Identity can gradually change over time, and situational factors may have relatively quick influences on identity (Sani, 2008). Identity sometimes referred to as the working self-concept (Markus & Nurius, 1986), is somewhat fluid and may

change as a function of situational cues. Self-categorisation theory's treatment of social identity salience (Turner et al., 1987) states where situational cues, e.g., a threat to the group; may make group identity relevant, whereas group identity may withdraw to the background after the situational cues that initiated its activation is no longer present. Leadership face the challenge of unifying a diverse group of people toward the attainment of team, group, organisational, or societal goals and objectives (Burns, 1978).

Collective identification may influence the prioritisation of collective interest (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Social identity analyses of leadership can mobilise and motivate followers for collective activities by building follower identification (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). Reicher and Hopkins (2003) established that leadership may not only influence followers' comprehension of the group distinctiveness but also affect follower perceptions of leader group prototypicality.

2.4.4.6. Self-evaluations and leadership

People are evaluators. Self-evaluations are generally considered either as self-esteem, which often tends to highlight the evaluation of the social self (how others regard one), or as the more skilled-orientated concept of self-efficacy in one's assessment of personal capabilities to achieve specific goals (Bandura, 1997).

However, there is a view that self-esteem and self-efficacy are instantiations of the higher-order notion of self-evaluations (Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997a). Self-evaluations are significant to purpose, as greater self-evaluations encourage higher achievement goals (van Knippenberg, 2018).

The effect for leadership is that leadership may deprive part of its effectiveness of developing individual, follower, and collective self-esteem and self-efficacy, as higher levels of (collective) self-evaluation may enthuse more ambitious achievement goals (Shamir et al., 1993).

2.4.4.7. Follower identity over time

Generally, people have a sense of the relationship between their past, present, and future identity, and they appreciate a sense of continuity of identity (Sani, 2008; Shamir

et al., 1993). Further to a sense of continuity in identity, another essential component to the temporal dimension of identity is possible selves. Individuals may have more or less well-defined beliefs regarding who they could be in the future (Markus & Nurius, 1986). Such selves can take the form of ought selves (images of who one should be) as well as ideal selves (images of who one ideally would be). Individuals tend to be more determined and better at self-regulating their efforts in goal pursuit for goals that connect to possible selves (Banaji & Prentice, 1994).

Grounded in the belief regarding motivation and self-regulating potential of possible selves, Lord et al. (1999) and van Knippenberg et al. (2004) proposed that leadership might be more effective if it invites follower formation of possible selves that are coherent with collective goals and missions. Building on this conceptual analysis, Stam, van Knippenberg, and Wisse (2010) suggest that a leader's visionary speech explicitly invites followers to create an ideal-self based on a central vision.

2.4.4.8. Leader identity

At the core of the identity practice to leadership is the belief that character moulds opinions, behaviour, and attitudes, and that identity, therefore, could be a strong inspiring force. An emphasis on follower identity is vital in the appreciation of leadership effectiveness; however, an identity perspective might also be applied to understand what motivates leadership itself. Although the primary focus on leadership research is leadership effectiveness, i.e., in terms of the effects on followers, there is also a long-standing tradition in researching the determinants of leadership. The traditional perspective on leadership determinants is the personality perspective, but an identity perspective might be at least as suited to address the issue (Judge & Bono, 2000; van Knippenberg, 2011).

Identity in relations of group membership shared with followers is not the only significant aspect of leader identity to consider. For leaders, an essential part of their identity may also be role-related and encompass the extent to which they conceive themselves as a leader (Stets & Burke, 2000).

The development of a leader identity can originate in leadership behaviour even when one does not hold a formal leadership position. Lord and Hall (2005) agree on the

development of possible selves as a vital role in leadership development. It may not be so much viewing oneself as a leader in the present as it is as having a future picture of the self as a leader that inspires and guides leadership development. A possible self as a leader might initiate one to develop the necessary leadership skills and to experiment with leadership behaviours (van Knippenberg, 2018).

2.4.4.9. Resume

Research in the social identity analysis provides a substantial and consistent conclusion that in leadership, identity matters (van Knippenberg, 2018).

Table 2.13 summarises the leadership dimensions and attributes discussed in this section.

Table 2.13 Leadership and identity dimensions and attributes

Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
Social identity approach	(Abrams & Hogg, 1990; Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1986; Turner et al., 1987). How individuals see themselves in a group and organisational memberships.	Influence, motivates, group norms.
Social identity and the psychology of justice	Lind and Tyler (1988); Thibaut and Walker (1975). The perceived fairness of the outcomes and the fairness of interpersonal treatment with authorities.	Justice, interpersonal, relationships.

Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
Leader identity	<p>(Judge & Bono, 2000; van Knippenberg, 2011).</p> <p>Identity forms opinions, attitudes and behaviour, and that identity, therefore, could be a dominant and inspiring force.</p>	Attitude, behaviour, motivating.

Source: Researcher

2.4.5. Leadership, culture, and globalisation

2.4.5.1. Introduction

Although business is conducted all over the world, different perspectives exist concerning what leadership behaviour is thought appropriate or valuable. Cultural differences in what is considered effective leadership also exists. Cultural values comprise values and customs - typically established by societal practices - these explain right and wrong and suggest general inclinations (Adler, 2002).

The globalisation of business suggests that leaders are increasingly required to deal with people from different cultures (Javidan, Dorfman, de Luque, & House, 2006). Leadership as a function in human groups is practised all over the world, and stories highlighting the significance of leadership established throughout history (Bass & Bass, 2008).

As cultures differ, so too do the customs within cultures, and leadership as well (Dickson, Den Hartog, & Castano, 2009). For example, in the "West", participation typically refers to influencing a decision, while in Japan it refers to the consensus-orientated approach, bottom-up procedures, and lobby consultants of the *ringi* system (Steers, Nardon, & Sanchez-Runde, 2009).

The Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE) Project is an immense scale research initiative intended to assess similarities and differences in the cultural definition of leadership. GLOBE defined leadership as "the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organisation which they are members." The intentionally broad definition of leadership is acceptable to scholars representing a variety of cultures while allowing for its culture-specific nature (Den Hartog, House, Hanges, Dorfman, et al., 1999; House, Dorfman, Javidan, Hanges, & DeLuque, 2014; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004).

2.4.5.2. Leadership studies in diverse countries

The majority of leadership studies to date originates from North America and Western Europe (Dickson, Castano, Magomaeva, & Den Hartog, 2012). During the past two

decades, leadership research incorporated regions of the world that traditionally did not study leadership much. Many leadership studies in non-Western regions of the world occur in a single country (Den Hartog & Dickson, 2018). Furthermore, preferences vary across regions. For example, participation-oriented sources of guidance, such as subordinate dependency were found mostly in Western Europe. Managers from other regions such as Africa relied on more hierarchical orientated sources of information such as superiors and rulers. Managers in other countries relied more strongly on widespread beliefs as a source of direction (Smith, Peterson, & Schwartz, 2002).

Global leadership research takes a different focus from comparative, cross-cultural leadership research and tries more holistically to comprehend who global leaders are, what they do, and how the environment in which they work affects them (Den Hartog & Dickson, 2018).

The application of concepts and theories developed in one part of the world should be supported elsewhere. Although leadership research occurs in many countries, there remains a bias toward North American leadership models and measures (Den Hartog & Dickson, 2018).

2.4.5.3. Elements of societal culture correlated to leadership

Culture shapes shared activities to solve complex problems. Schein (1992) focused on two such challenges. First, how to adapt to the changing environment, and second, how to ensure the ability to adapt and survive. People develop common beliefs and assumptions regarding the world and people in it when they come together as a group. These beliefs help them survive. Value orientations, beliefs, and assumptions suggest the essential nature of people, human relationships, as well as relationships with nature, time, and activity (Hofstede, 2001; Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961a; Nardon & Steers, 2009; Schwartz, 1999).

Culture dimensions are one way to study culture. Several typologies of societal culture dimensions exist, the most commonly known being Hofstede's (1980, 2001) framework, although criticised for being overly simplistic. Hofstede's (2001) original study identified four cultural dimensions: first, power distance; second, uncertainty

avoidance; third, masculinity-femininity; and fourth, collectivism-individualism; and later incorporated two more; fifth, long-/short-term orientation; and sixth, indulgence/restraint dimensions.

Masculinity

An aggressive attitude in the "Western" business world typically represents a positive connotation. Aggression infers being robust, fast, and forceful, in contrast to weak and vulnerable (Den Hartog, 2004). According to Hofstede (2001), "aggressive" holds a positive connotation only in masculine countries. High cultural masculinity characterises cultures in which men are required to be tough and women tender. Femininity characterises cultures where both men and women are expected to be modest and tender. Hofstede (2001) asserts that masculine and feminine cultures produce different kinds of leader.

Uncertainty avoidance

Uncertainty avoidance explains a society's dependence on social norms and procedures to ease the volatility of the future and refers to the extent to which members in a society feel uneasy with and try to avoid ambiguous and uncertain situations (Hofstede, 2001).

Stability and formal rules are favoured by high uncertainty avoidance societies, while those from low uncertainty avoidance societies prefer job mobility and role flexibility. Furthermore, high uncertainty avoidance countries foster a belief in experts (Hofstede, 2001).

Relationships with others: collectivism

Individualism versus collectivism is another well-known cultural dimension. Hofstede (2001) explains cultures typified by individualism as loosely knit social frameworks where people are thought to take care of themselves and look after their interests and those of their close families only. In contrast, a close social framework where people differentiate between in-groups and out-groups is an essential characteristic of cultures high on collectivism. In-groups are unified and resilient. People anticipate their in-group to take care of them throughout life and, in exchange, feel they owe the in-

group total loyalty, including looking out for others in the in-group (Den Hartog & Dickson, 2018).

Hierarchy, status, and power and distance

Status and power differentials are within all societies, and these relate to leadership. Power distance relates to a focus of authority (Hofstede, 2001). In cultures with considerable power distance, organisations generally have various levels, and the chain of command is vital. In high power distance societies, leaders who add to society may be admired and imitated by others in the culture, while more egalitarian societies highlight the role of the leaderless (Dickson et al., 2009).

2.4.5.4. Culture and leadership beyond the “Western” world

Research and models on leadership and culture were developed in and therefore primarily focus on industrialised countries as opposed to developing countries (Aycan, 2004). However, developing countries represent approximately 80% of the global population and comprise a large, growing market and labour force, spread among extremely diverse countries (Punnett, 2004).

Developing countries are diverse, and a single, unified portrayal of their cultural characteristics is impossible. However, Aycan (2004) suggests that many share vital elements in the historical background (e.g., colonialism, autocratic rule), subsistence systems (e.g., agricultural reliance), political environments (e.g., volatility), economic conditions (e.g., inadequacy), and/or demographic makeup (e.g., young workforce, unequal opportunity to access education). Economic/political events shape cultures. Thus, certain aspects of the cultures of these countries are likely similar. However, vast differences also exist between and within developing countries. These may be regional or reflect differences between ethnic or religious groupings. Differences in behaviour or values can also relate to the organisation's people work for or to the socioeconomic status, education, or age.

Cultures in developing countries are typically more collectivistic, external, and higher on power distance. Feelings of helplessness and fatalism are generally common culturally (Aycan et al., 2000). Often, networks and relationships are more important

than procedures and rules, which can lead to favouritism among in-group members and discrimination against out-group members. Within-group loyalty and peace are often valuable, as is interdependence, with personal achievement less valued; getting along is more valuable than getting ahead (Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 2001). A peaceful approach generally results in smoothly operating work processes, though not necessarily effective ones. Communication is often indirect, non-assertive, nonconfrontational, and usually downward. Negative feedback is often averted or provided indirectly due to the potentially destructive disruption to peace (Ayman, 2004).

One common subject throughout developing societies concerns a "paternalistic" leadership technique that is high on individual status, high on involvement in nonwork lives, and highly directive (Ayman, 2004; Chen, Eberly, Chiang, Farh, & Cheng, 2014). In developing societies, organisations are largely expected to look after their workers and workers' families. Leaders are inclined to form close interpersonal relationships with subordinates, and subordinates expect personalised relationships, protection, close guidance and supervision. The paternalistic relationship is strongly hierarchical. The leader is assumed to "know what is best" for subordinates, leading them in various aspects of life (Ayman, 2004; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008).

2.4.5.5. Leadership perceptions across cultures

People create ideas regarding what makes an effective leader. Cultures influence these ideas. Lord and Maher (1993) suggest that societal culture and its values and ideologies should affect leadership prototypes and ITL. In strong/uniform cultures, prototypes are generally shared, while countries with weak cultures or multiple subcultures will show a more extensive variation amongst individual prototypes (Hunt, Boal, & Sorensen, 1990). House et al. (2004) consider these shared beliefs as culturally endorsed ITL.

Universally approved leader characteristics

The GLOBE Project is the most significant cross-cultural leadership study project to date (Dorfman, Javidan, Hanges, Dastmalchian, & House, 2012). Early findings of the GLOBE project reported which leadership attributes were (1) universally endorsed as contributing to outstanding leadership, (2) considered desirable, or (3) culturally

contingent. Participants agreed that outstanding leadership comprise positive, encouraging, motivational, dynamic, a confidence builder, and the ability of foresight. Such a leader is excellence orientated, decisive, and intelligent. Exceptional leaders are good at communicating, team building, and coordinating. Integrity is esteemed, as such leaders are honest and trustworthy. Attributes universally perceived as ineffective include being noncooperative, nonexplicit, ruthless, a loner, irritable, and dictatorial (Den Hartog, House, Hanges, Dorfman, et al., 1999; Dorfman, Hanges, & Brodbeck, 2004).

Variations in the universal leader characteristics

When attributes are universally valued, such attributes may not necessarily play out in the same way across cultures. Dickson, Hanges and Lord (2001) suggest the various meanings for "universal" findings. The distinction between simple universals, in which the principle and enactment are the same across contexts, and variform universals, in which the principle is consistent across contexts, but the enactment differs. For instance, a variform universal is that the visionary is observed as a positive leader in most cultures, yet what one needs to do to be perceived as visionary differs from one culture to another (Den Hartog & Dickson, 2018).

Leadership profiles, culture clusters, and organisational culture

GLOBE results demonstrate that members of cultures share a standard view regarding effective leadership. The GLOBE leadership attributes were also statistically grouped into six leadership dimensions (Hangs & Dickson, 2004). The six dimensions are first, charismatic/value-based leadership, e.g., inspirational, visionary, integrity, decisive; second, team-oriented leadership, e.g., collaborative, integrating, diplomatic; three, participative leadership, e.g., permitting participation and non-autocratic; four, autonomous leadership, e.g., independent, individualistic, unique; five, humane leadership, e.g., tolerance, modesty, sensitivity; and six, self-projective leadership, e.g., self-centred, face-saver. The initial GLOBE study (House et al., 2004) revealed that the performance orientation of culture is associated to charismatic/value-based leadership and participative leadership at the organisational and societal levels of culture. Therefore, societies and organisations valuing high-performance orientation appear to look to charismatic leaders with the skills to paint a picture of an ambitious

and exciting future. Often, the impact of organisational culture on the leadership belief system, or ITL, is typically representative of the societal culture (Dorfman et al., 2004).

Leaders of organisations entrench and transmit culture in the thinking, feeling, and behaviour of the team. Bass and Bass (2008) suggest leaders function as founders of cultures or countercultures, as culture builders, and as agents of change in the dominant culture. Schein (1992) states that "leadership is originally the source of the beliefs and values that get a group moving to deal with its internal and external problems. If what a leader proposes works and continues to work, what once was only the leader's assumption gradually comes to be a shared assumption" (pp. 26–27). The founder of the organisation, therefore, performs a critical part in the culture formation by determining the mission, the team members, the context in which to operate, and the initial responses of the team to prosper and integrate within the environment. Dickson, Resick, and Hanges (2006) focus on the strength of the organisational culture and show, based on GLOBE data, that coherent organisational climates are typically stronger.

2.4.5.6. Resume

Culture can affect ITL and behaviour, and even when preferred leadership tactics are alike, the execution could vary amongst societies (Den Hartog & Dickson, 2018).

Table 2.14 summarises the leadership dimensions and attributes discussed in this section.

Table 2.14 Leadership, culture and globalisation dimensions and attributes

Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
Globe project	<p>Dorfman et al. (2012); (Hanges & Dickson, 2004); House et al. (2014; 2004).</p> <p>The largest cross-cultural leadership project to date. A synthesis of universal leadership traits and attributes directed toward the development of knowledge concerning how societal and organisational cultures affect leadership and organisational practices.</p>	<p>Visionary, inspirational, integrity, decisive, collaborative, integrating, diplomatic, participative, unique, modest, tolerance, sensitive, self-centred.</p>

Source: Researcher

2.4.6. Entrepreneurial leadership

2.4.6.1. Introduction

Entrepreneurship is likely the most influential aspect shaping societies in the 21st century. Globally, people are taking initiatives to pursue opportunities for personal financial gain, for personal development, for their families, for their customers', and for improving society (Renko, 2018).

In developing countries and BOP markets around the world, entrepreneurship is flourishing. Entrepreneurial energy in developing countries is creating opportunities for entrepreneurs to pursue, and young people are choosing careers as entrepreneurs (Khanna, 2013). A pressing question concerns the relationship between leadership and entrepreneurship. Renko (2018) asks how to lead the entrepreneurial workforce of millennials and generations after them, who have little regard for formal authorities and who want to make meaning through their work.

2.4.6.2. What is entrepreneurial leadership?

The contextual phenomenon of entrepreneurial leadership

Scholars have adopted several perspectives concerning entrepreneurial leadership. The first aspect of entrepreneurial leadership studies assumes an approach where new/or small-business owners need to take leadership positions to ensure that their business expands and prospers (Hmieleski & Ensley, 2007; Kang, Solomon, & Choi, 2015; Koryak et al., 2015; Leitch, McMullan, & Harrison, 2013). Some scholars have expanded the domain of entrepreneurial leadership to include "entrepreneurial contexts," such as family businesses and corporations acting entrepreneurially (Simsek, Jansen, Minichilli, & Escriba-Esteve, 2015).

Firms have life cycles: they move from the nascent stage (pre-founding) to start-up, consolidation, and growth. The relevant managerial skills required at each stage differ, and the same is true for leadership skills (Antonakis & Autio, 2006). Generally, leading people is a challenge for many founders, and this challenge is often a moving target as firms progress through the early stages of their life cycles and experience growth and consolidation (Antonakis & Autio, 2006).

Entrepreneurial leadership as a company culture

Besides the phenomenon of being a new firm, entrepreneurial leadership is considered the culture (e.g., value system) of a firm of any size or age that portrays the entrepreneurial values and vision of its leaders (Covin & Slevin, 2002; Gupta, MacMillan, & Surie, 2004; McGrath & MacMillan, 2000; Thornberry, 2006). Thus, entrepreneurial leadership becomes a company-wide orientation (Antoncic & Hisrich, 2001).

The entrepreneurial leadership style

Besides being conceptualised as a new trend and as a facet of organisational culture, entrepreneurial leadership comprises a specific way of leadership. Similar to other leadership manners, for example transactional, transformational, or authentic leadership, entrepreneurial leadership is considered a set of behaviours, actions, and attributes of leaders that are distinct enough from other styles to warrant a new category of leadership to emerge (Renko, El Tarabishy, Carsrud, & Brannback, 2015). When considered a style of leadership, it becomes apparent that entrepreneurial leadership may occur in businesses of any nature.

The entrepreneurial leadership approach is described as "influencing and directing the performance of group members toward achieving organisational goals that involve recognising and exploiting entrepreneurial opportunities" (Renko et al., 2015). According to Renko et al.'s (2015) definition, what makes leadership entrepreneurial is determined by the goals of the process, as in specific leadership styles. The view of opportunity is central to most modern definitions of entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurship relies on creative disruption and opportunity recognition (Baron & Ensley, 2006). The entrepreneur might create or discover a potentially disruptive innovative opportunity, and the exploitation of this entrepreneurial opportunity is the central activity of entrepreneurship (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000).

The two pillars of entrepreneurial leadership style

Entrepreneurial leadership is comprised of two pillars: (1) opportunity-focused activities and attributes of the leader himself or herself and (2) the process of influence,

whereby the leader encourages and motivates followers to pursue entrepreneurial recognition and exploitation. The first role, "entrepreneurial doer," considers entrepreneurial leaders as key individuals who, within organisational contexts, identify and develop new business opportunities (Cunningham & Lischeron, 1991; Thornberry, 2006). In the second role, "entrepreneurial accelerators," entrepreneurial leaders influence followers by guiding followers' focus to entrepreneurial (e.g., opportunity-focused) future visions and goals, and by motivating them to work toward achieving these objectives (Hunt, 2004; Ireland, Hitt, & Sirmon, 2003; Yukl, 2013). Entrepreneurial leaders also assist followers to appreciate their capabilities in the business as those who will likely become accountable for its future results (Renko et al., 2015).

Characteristics of entrepreneurial leaders

Entrepreneurial leaders' behaviours are risk-taking, creative, passionate, and visionary. Entrepreneurs are considered risk-takers as they provide several resources in the advancement of their business ideas (Renko, 2018).

In the context of leadership, the risk is an essential element of the entrepreneurial leadership style, as both entrepreneurial leaders' pursuit and their encouragement of followers' pursuit of new opportunities have uncertain outcomes.

Besides risk, creativity is another skill that entrepreneurial leaders exhibit. Creativity is described as the skill to create innovative ideas, make breakthrough discoveries, and express unique thoughts (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997). While creativity is a vital element of the opportunity recognition and exploitation process, the two are not synonymous. Imagination is necessary for the creation of ideas, although not all ideas are considered business opportunities. Furthermore, scholars suggest that followers will be more creative when they believe that leadership is encouraging them and their innovative activities (Basadur, 2004; Mainemelis, Kark, & Epitropaki, 2015; Tierney & Farmer, 2004). The importance of entrepreneurial leadership is on promoting behaviours that result in the creation and commercialising of products, services, or processes that can result in opportunities for the organisation in the market (Renko, 2018).

Besides risk-taking and creativity, passion is an essential attribute that characterises entrepreneurial leaders. Emotions and affective states matter for entrepreneurial behaviours (Goss, 2005). Passion for one's work and business is described as a deep affective state (Chen, Yao, & Kotha, 2009), an intense positive feeling (Cardon, Wincent, Singh, & Drnovsek, 2009), and even love (Baum & Locke, 2004). Passion can be a driver of decision making and behaviour (Cardon et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2009). Feeling passion is usual of many committed entrepreneurs; it is the "fire of desire" that pushes their efforts (Cardon et al., 2009, p. 515) and makes them endure in the face of challenges (Chen et al., 2009).

Passion can also enhance the communication of an entrepreneurial leader's vision for the organisation (Baum & Locke, 2004). The fourth attribute of entrepreneurial leaders is that they are visionaries; an opportunity-focused vision for the future is a central element in entrepreneurial leadership. Being a visionary emerges as typical to both leaders and entrepreneurs (Antonakis & Autio, 2006; Cogliser & Brigham, 2004; Fernald, Solomon, & Tarabishy, 2005; Renko et al., 2015). Portraying a vision for the future, entrepreneurial leaders possess a definite hope to originate, establish, or change things (Thornberry, 2006). The characteristic of entrepreneurial leadership is a vision for the future of the organisation centred on constant recognition of new opportunities and pursuing the vision through creative, innovative, and sometimes risky tactics.

Further characteristics identified as areas that coincide amongst entrepreneurship and leadership: focus, opportunity, influence, planning, achievement orientation, motivating others, flexibility, self-confidence, tenacity, patience, acceptance for ambiguity, persistence, power-orientation, proactiveness, and internal locus of control (Becherer, Mendenhall, & Eickhoff, 2008; Cogliser & Brigham, 2004; Fernald et al., 2005; Renko et al., 2015; Thornberry, 2006).

Entrepreneurial and transformational leadership

Transformational leadership has led to its inclusion in the entrepreneurial domain (Engelen, Gupta, Strenger, & Brettel, 2015; Ensley, Hmieleski, & Pearce, 2006; Ensley, Pearce, & Hmieleski, 2006; Ling, Simsek, Lubatkin, & Veiga, 2008; Peterson, Walumbwa, Byron, & Myrowitz, 2009). This leadership approach embraces

charismatic role modelling, personalised consideration, inspirational motivation, and intellectual stimulation (Bass & Avolio, 1995), which also assist entrepreneurs in achieving their goals. Through intellectual stimulation, leadership can motivate people to consider old problems in different ways and elicit new role behaviours, such as creative problem solving (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich, 2001).

Although entrepreneurial and transformational leadership methods have more disparities than similarities, entrepreneurial leaders direct with distinct purpose and objectives. They might not be labelled as inspirational or charismatic by others, as transformational leaders appear to be (Podsakoff et al., 1990). Renko et al. (2015) suggest entrepreneurial leaders are transparent regarding the entrepreneurial goals of the organisation, the process by which followers rationalise their beliefs and values may be less on several types of stimulating appeals and more on the leader's character, dedication and personal example.

In the assessments of any leadership style, including entrepreneurial leadership, one should adopt a perspective where a single type of behaviour, attribute, or goal is not enough to call the leadership style. Thus, a more holistic assessment of a leader and their relationship with followers is required (Renko, 2018).

2.4.6.3. The dynamics of entrepreneurial leadership

Antecedents

Different factors drive individuals to acknowledge and pursue entrepreneurial opportunities in a variety of contexts. Entrepreneurial alertness, defined as "an attitude of receptiveness to available (but hitherto overlooked) opportunities" (Kirzner, 1997, p. 72), is an essential element of an individual's nature that promotes entrepreneurial opportunity discovery. Entrepreneurial alertness is required for people to integrate views about market needs and the methods to satisfy those needs and thereby perceive opportunity (Tang, Kacmar, & Busenitz, 2012). As being a role model for entrepreneurial opportunity identification and pursuit is a fundamental component of entrepreneurial leadership, entrepreneurial alertness is considered a potential antecedent of such leadership (Renko, 2018).

It is possible to develop entrepreneurial leadership although its characteristics define neither leaders nor entrepreneurs, but rather, their actions and behaviours (Cogliser & Brigham, 2004; Gartner, 1988; Stogdill, 1948). Scholars suggest that those interested in developing entrepreneurial leadership skills should learn to think like entrepreneurial leaders, enhance creative skills, interpersonal knowledge, trust-building with relevant groups, and cognitive abilities - aspects of entrepreneurship- and leadership-specific human capital and social capital (Leitch et al., 2013). Research suggests that human capital can develop. Martin, McNally, and Kay (2013) established that entrepreneurial education and training positively correlates to the entrepreneurship-related human capital assets, as well as entrepreneurial performance.

Outcomes

Entrepreneurial leaders strive for goals of recognising and exploiting entrepreneurial opportunities through their actions and the actions of their followers. The most immediate results of entrepreneurial leadership relate to the increase and quality of ideas for innovative products or services that the company could offer the market, opportunities for improvements for current products and services, and both new and improved ideas put into practice. In time, the process of entrepreneurial renewal should benefit the company sales and also the bottom line (Renko, 2018).

Moderators and mediators

Followers of an entrepreneurial leader typically comprise different levels of influence of the leader. Three factors are essential in explaining follower susceptibility to entrepreneurial leadership: (1) followers' entrepreneurial self-efficacy, (2) followers' empowerment, and (3) followers' level of entrepreneurial passion (Renko et al., 2015). First, entrepreneurial self-efficiency is the level to which individuals believe they are skilled to execute the responsibilities and duties of an entrepreneur (McGee, Peterson, Mueller, & Sequeira, 2009). Zhao, Seibert, and Hills (2005) suggest that a followers' belief in their ability to develop a novel idea and identify a business opportunity might be central to their susceptibility to the influence of an entrepreneurial leader. Second, employee empowerment generally comprises the transfer for power from leadership to employees. The concept was promoted by Conger and Kanungo (1988) who gave

it relational and motivational dimensions. In a motivational sense, power concerns an individual's inherent desire for self-determination or a belief in personal self-efficacy. Empowerment refers to any managerial strategy or approach that furthers the self-determination desire or self-efficacy belief of employees and makes them feel powerful. Third, scholars suggest that emotions and affective states matter for entrepreneurial behaviours (Baron, 2008; Renko, 2018). People who pursue recognising and originating new opportunities, are expected to pursue such activities and as a result, realise the associated entrepreneurial results (Cardon et al., 2009). Avolio and colleagues established that positive emotions impact the relations concerning genuine leaders and followers (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004), as well as positive emotions of followers impact the influence of transformational leadership on employee motivation (Ilies, Judge, & Wagner, 2006).

Finally, the external environment of an organisation may affect the entrepreneurial leadership process, and both culture and markets can play a dominant role. Renko et al. (2015) note that in dynamic and competitive markets entrepreneurial leadership might be stronger than in less dynamic markets as such an environment may stimulate people to act entrepreneurially. Entrepreneurial leadership success rests on collaboration among followers, leaders, and their situation. Entrepreneurial leadership could possibly accomplish its objectives of opportunity identification and development when leaders behave as “entrepreneurial doers,” where enabled people are led by leaders' direct encouragement of opportunity-focused (e.g., leaders acting as “entrepreneurial accelerators”), and where organisational, environmental situations and required means are favourable.

2.4.6.4. Resume

The nature and outcomes of entrepreneurial leadership are predominantly positive (Antonakis & Autio, 2006). Scholars suggest that greed and hubris may be traits of entrepreneurial leadership (Haynes, Hitt, & Campbell, 2015); however, a fine line exists amongst being self-assured in one's abilities and exhibiting hubris. Also, entrepreneurial leaders' passionate approach to their work and company can be inspiring, although there is a concern that passion can manifest into a dogma or an obsession (Vallerand et al., 2003).

A practical challenge for entrepreneurial leaders is to establish a balance between administrative and managerial requirements and the future orientation and opportunity-focused behaviours of their leadership role on the other. Organisations rely on their leaders for detection, development, growth, and coordination-focused administrative tasks (Renko, 2018).

Table 2.15 summarises the leadership dimensions and attributes discussed in this section.

Table 2.15 Entrepreneurship leadership dimensions and attributes

Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
As a leadership style	<p>Renko et al. (2015).</p> <p>A leadership style with the primary goal of promoting entrepreneurial opportunity recognition and exploitation.</p>	Purpose, goals, inspirational, transparent, character, dedication.
Organisational culture	<p>(Covin & Slevin, 2002; Gupta et al., 2004; McGrath & MacMillan, 2000; Thornberry, 2006).</p> <p>The culture of a firm reflects entrepreneurial values and vision.</p>	Vision, values.

Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
Characteristics of entrepreneurial leaders	<p>(Becherer et al., 2008; Cogliser & Brigham, 2004; Fernald et al., 2005; Renko et al., 2015; Thornberry, 2006).</p> <p>Key attributes that characterise entrepreneurial leaders.</p>	<p>Visionary, creative skills, interpersonal knowledge, trust-building, cognitive abilities, creative problem solving, influence, opportunity focus, planning, achievement orientation, motivating others, flexibility, self-confidence, tenacity, patience, acceptance for ambiguity, persistence, power-orientation, proactiveness, and internal locus of control.</p>

Source: Researcher

2.5. Leadership dimensions, attributes, and constructs

In this section, the researcher highlights the leadership dimensions and attributes established during the review of leadership literature. After that, constructs were conceptualised as the basis of a conceptual leadership model.

Table 2.16 presents the leadership dimension and attributes findings from the review of leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models from the leadership categories discussed in this chapter.

Table 2.16 Leadership dimensions and attributes

Leadership Categories	Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
Leader traits and attributes	Great man theory	Carlyle (1907); Galton (1869). Innate human qualities possessed by heroes or geniuses to bring about changes in society.	Physical, cognitive, emotional, problem-solving.
	Trait theory	Stogdill (1948).	Cognitive, emotional, personality, physical.

Leadership Categories	Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
		<p>Traits of character and personality define leadership.</p>	
	<p>Leader attribute categories</p>	<p>Day et al. (2012); Zaccaro et al. (2013); (Zaccaro et al., 2018).</p> <p>Conceptual and empirical reviews of leadership literature between 1924 and 2011 relating to leadership functional performance requirements part of most, if not all leadership positions.</p>	<p>Cognitive, social, personality, motives and values, self-belief, knowledge, skills, cognitive abilities, including problem-solving skills, reasoning skills, thinking skills, cognitive complexity, cognitive flexibility, open-mindedness for ambiguity, emotional steadiness, diligence, conflict resolution, inspiring others, negotiating, influencing others, social intelligence, personal motivation, persuasion, communication, negotiation,</p>

Leadership Categories	Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
			conflict management, dominance, motivation to lead, need for power, dominance, achievement motivation, high energy, cognitive skills, intelligence, lateral or creative thinking, judgement, decision-making skills, problem-solving skills.
	Variable (multi-attribute) models	<p>Bakker-Pieper and de Vries (2013); Serban et al. (2015); Troth and Gyetvey (2014); Zaccaro et al. (2015); Zaccaro et al. (2013).</p> <p>Leadership effects comprise the personality, motivational, cognitive, skills-based, and intelligence attributes.</p>	Personality, motivational, cognitive, cognitive skills, self-efficacy, cognitive, self-efficacy, social, cognitive, personality attributes, motivational, social, cognitive.

Leadership Categories	Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
	Multistage models	DeRue et al. (2011); Luria and Berson (2012); (Zaccaro et al., 2013). Leader attributes, mediators, and outcomes.	Teamwork, cognitive skills, motivation, behaviour, intelligence.
	Attribute pattern models	(Foti & Hauenstein, 2007; Zaccaro et al., 2004); (Lord & Maher, 1993; Shondrick et al., 2010); Zaccaro et al. (2004). A multiplicative mix of attributes will support distinct variance in leadership results beyond that described by single attributes or additive mixes of multiple attributes.	Cognitive, motive, personality, social, skills, /knowledge.
Charismatic leadership	The Weberian view	Weber (1947, 1968).	Body, spirit, emotional charm, attitude, context.

Leadership Categories	Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
		Leaders signify special gifts of the body and spirit – supernatural and superhuman powers and qualities.	
	Downton's' theory of charisma	Downton (1973). Methods of exchange comprising contractual interactions in economic (and) subject to the loyalty of the members.	Context, charismatic, inspirational, transactional, relations, good faith, trust, inspiring, vision, psychological, trust, inspirational, convincing, encourages, a sense of purpose, establishes meaning.
	House's psychological theory of charisma	House (1977). The psychological influence of charismatic leaders on followers.	Behaviour, psychological influence, persuasive skills, emotional, stimulate, vision, values, confidence, self- belief, role model, vision, values,

Leadership Categories	Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
			courageous, self-confidence, pro-social assertiveness, moral conviction, self-sacrifice.
	Conger and Kanungo charismatic theory	Conger and Kanungo (1988, 1998). Leadership is embraced via attributional means grounded on the view's followers portray of leadership behaviours.	Behaviours, compelling argument, vision, inspires, affection, values, confidence, encourage, role model, trust.
	Shamir and colleague's charismatic theory	House and Shamir (1993). An integrative framework of charisma and theories of identity to explain how leaders employ the self-concepts of followers.	Motivation, self-worth, self-esteem, self-efficacy, collective efficacy, social identification, values, influence, motivational, collective purpose, logical reasoning, self-efficacy, confidence, motivational, commitment, mission, personal

Leadership Categories	Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
			sacrifice behaviour, meaningfulness, self-expression, consistency.
	Burns transforming-transactional leadership	Burns (1978). Transforming leadership-focused on superior goals and ideals that has a significant influence on followers compared to transactional leadership-considered the promotion of self-interest.	Goals, values, action, motivation, relationship, emotional, morality, ethics, the greater good, purpose, good values.
	Podsakoff's model of transformational-transactional leadership	(Podsakoff et al., 1996; Podsakoff et al., 1990). Incorporates elements of both transformational and transactional leadership.	Vision, group goals, communication, support, intellectually motivating.

Leadership Categories	Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
Follower-centric leadership	Follower-centric terms and definitions	<p>Bass (2008); Hollander (1993).</p> <p>Ultimately followers legitimise leaders to attain their vision and objectives.</p> <p>Outstanding leadership depends on good followers.</p>	Integrity, ethical, emotional.
	Leader-match theory	<p>Fiedler's (1967).</p> <p>The alignment of a leader's behavioural style and the context are essential precursors to effectiveness.</p>	Behaviour, context.
	Situational leadership model	<p>Hersey and Blanchard (1977).</p> <p>The appropriate leadership style depends in part on the developmental level of subordinates.</p>	Cognitive, emotional.

Leadership Categories	Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
	Path-goal theory	House (1971). The skills and experience of followers are essential antecedents of which leadership style will be most motivating.	Skills, experience.
	Social-cognitive approach	(Murphy, 2002). Human cognition is based on symbolic structures creating a mental map for leaders and followers.	Cognition, memory, conceptual knowledge, communication, behaviour.
Relational leadership	LMX theory	(Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011); (Ashkanasy & O'Connor, 1997); Dihn et al. (2014); (Epitropaki et al., 2018); (Gerstner & Day, 1997); (Green et al., 1983; Schyns et al., 2005); Mahsud,	Social, behaviours, influence relationship, mutual goals, attitudes, behaviours, agreeableness, extraversion, conscientiousness, trusting, helpful, and good-natured, ethical

Leadership Categories	Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
		<p>Yukl, and Prussia (2010); Martin et al. (2010); (Schyns et al., 2005).</p> <p>LMX comprise the social exchange leader-follower dyadic relationship.</p>	<p>behaviour, attitudes, values, context, reduced job stress, friendships, emotional.</p>
Contingencies, context, and situational leadership	Contingency model of leadership effectiveness	<p>Fiedler (1964).</p> <p>Trait, task, and interpersonal orientation.</p> <p>Leadership success comprising the leader's approach and situational control.</p>	<p>The situation, traits, relationship, experience, training.</p>
	Cognitive resource theory	<p>Fiedler (2002); (Fiedler, 1993); Fiedler and Garcia (1987).</p> <p>Leadership effectiveness predicted based on the collaboration between two</p>	<p>Traits, characteristics, intelligence, experience, situation, fluid intelligence, crystallised intelligence, cognitive ability, stress.</p>

Leadership Categories	Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
		characteristics - experience and intelligence - within the situation.	
	A model for leadership decision-making	Vroom and Jago (1998). A leader's decision-making strategy choices and the situation.	Decision-making, choices, situation, knowledge, problem structure, agreeableness.
	Situational leadership theory	(Fernandez & Vecchio, 1997; Vecchio, 1997; Vecchio & Boatwright, 2002; York, 1996). Leadership must delegate where subordinates are skilled and motivated to accomplish the task.	Ability, education, experience, psychological maturity, willingness, self-esteem, motivation, behaviour, decision-making.
Shared leadership	Law of the situation concept	Follett (1924).	Knowledge, situation.

Leadership Categories	Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
		Sometimes it makes sense to follow the person in the group who has the best knowledge concerning the situation in which the group is operating.	
	Shared leadership theory	<p>(Dirks & Ferrin, 2002); Follett (1924); (George et al., 2002); Gu et al. (2016); (Hooker & Csikszentmihalyi, 2003; Pearce et al., 2014); Pearce and Conger (2003); Pearce and Wassenaar (2014); Pearce, Wassenaar, and Manz (2014); Reilly (2015).</p> <p>Shared leadership is an active, collaborative effect practised amongst people in groups. The intent concerns</p>	Situation, knowledge, social, engaged and participative, influence, trust, behaviour, excellence, goals, feedback, skills, visionary, focus, communication, values, context, behaviour, attitudes, cognition, team cohesion, team creativity

Leadership Categories	Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
		guiding the team toward the attainment of group or organisational goals or both.	
Biological, evolutionary and neuroscience	The evolutionary theory of leadership	Van Vugt (2018). Psychological, neurological, and physiological methods concerning human behaviours as outcomes of the biological evolution.	Physiological, neurological, psychological, behaviours, physical, neurophysiological, brain, neurotransmitters, hormones, cognition, emotions, behaviours, risk-taking, sociability, psychology, natural laws, decision-making, choice, context, relationship, decision rules, situations.
Social cognition, social perception and leadership	Social cognitive model of information processing	(Bodenhausen & Todd, 2010); Caporael (1997); (Freeman & Ambady, 2011); Herrmann, Call, Hernandez-Lloreda, Hare, and Tomasello, (2007); Stevens	Mind, social, understanding, mental, social-cognitive, physical, traits, experience.

Leadership Categories	Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
		<p>and Fiske (1995); (Tskhay & Rule, 2018).</p> <p>The model stores information about other people and their relationships to facilitate successful interactions.</p>	
	The ecological model of social perception	<p>(Gibson, 2014; McArthur & Baron, 1983).</p> <p>Perceptions of others have evolved throughout human evolution as they serve survival-enhancing purposes.</p>	Physical, social, environment, mind, situations.
	Brunswik's lens model	<p>(Brunswik, 1956).</p> <p>Describes how people correctly infer social information that targets send and</p>	Social information, situations, contexts.

Leadership Categories	Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
		how perceivers may or may not use them.	
	The realistic accuracy model	Funder (1995). A four sequential stage process, relevance, availability, detection, and utilisation.	Context, understanding.
	The dynamic interactive theory of person construal	(Freeman & Ambady, 2011); (Herrmann et al., 2007); (Tskhay & Rule, 2018). Multiple lower-level representations that follow into a prototype or holistic representation of identity.	Mind, decide, interact.
	Implicit leadership theories and leadership categorisation theory	(Eden & Leviathan, 1975; House et al., 2002; Lord et al., 1984).	Beliefs, traits, behaviours.

Leadership Categories	Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
		Beliefs, traits and behaviours that distinguish leaders from non-leaders.	
	Leadership categorisation theory	(Lord et al., 1984). Explains how ITL create holistic representations of leadership.	Traits, cognition.
Leadership and gender	Gender differences in leadership traits	Archer (2004); Halpern (2012); Schmitt, Realo, Voracek, and Allik (2008). Neither gender has a clear advantage in leadership, and men and women do not differ in overall intelligence.	Not applicable.
Power and leadership	Virtuous leadership	Aristotle (1999); Plato (1901). Only the wisest have the claim to rule as wisdom enables leaders to build	Morals, ethics.

Leadership Categories	Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
		regimes that emphasise the common good.	
Leadership and identity	Social identity approach	(Abrams & Hogg, 1990; Turner et al., 1987). How individuals see themselves in a group and organisational memberships.	Influence, motivates, group norms.
	Social identity and the psychology of justice	Lind and Tyler (1988); Thibaut and Walker (1975). The perceived fairness of the outcomes and the fairness of interpersonal treatment with authorities.	Justice, interpersonal, relationships.

Leadership Categories	Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
	Leader identity	<p>(Judge & Bono, 2000; van Knippenberg, 2011).</p> <p>Identity forms opinions, attitudes and behaviour, and that identity, therefore, could be a dominant and inspiring force.</p>	Attitude, behaviour, motivating.
Leadership, culture and globalisation	Globe project	<p>Dorfman et al. (2012); (Hanges & Dickson, 2004); House et al. (2004, (2014; 2004).</p> <p>The largest cross-cultural leadership project to date. A synthesis of universal leadership traits and attributes directed toward the development of knowledge concerning how societal and organisational cultures affect leadership and organisational practices.</p>	Visionary, inspirational, integrity, decisive, collaborative, integrating, diplomatic, participative, unique, modest, tolerance, sensitive, self-centred.

Leadership Categories	Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
Entrepreneurial leadership	As a leadership style	Renko et al. (2015). A leadership style with the primary goal of promoting entrepreneurial opportunity recognition and exploitation.	Purpose, goals, inspirational, transparent, character, dedication.
	Organisational culture	(Covin & Slevin, 2002; Gupta et al., 2004; McGrath & MacMillan, 2000; Thornberry, 2006). The culture of a firm reflects entrepreneurial values and vision.	Vision, values.
	Characteristics of entrepreneurial leaders	(Cogliser & Brigham, 2004; Fernald et al., 2005; Renko et al., 2015; Thornberry, 2006).	Visionary, creative skills, interpersonal knowledge, trust-building, cognitive abilities, creative problem solving, influence, opportunity focus,

Leadership Categories	Leadership theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models	Author(s) and brief description or explanation	Leadership dimensions and attributes
		Key attributes that characterise entrepreneurial leaders.	planning, achievement orientation, motivating others, flexibility, self-confidence, tenacity, patience, acceptance for ambiguity, persistence, power-orientation, proactiveness, and internal locus of control.

Source: Researcher

Following the establishment of theoretically relevant leadership dimensions and attributes, six constructs were conceptualised and are presented in Table 2.17.

Table 2.17 Leadership constructs

Leadership dimensions and attributes	Leadership constructs
<p>Physical, cognitive, emotional, problem-solving, cognitive, emotional, personality, physical, cognitive, social, personality, motives and values, self-belief, knowledge, skills, cognitive abilities, including problem-solving skills, reasoning skills, thinking skills, cognitive complexity, cognitive flexibility, open-mindedness for ambiguity, emotional steadiness, diligence, conflict resolution, inspiring others, negotiating, influencing others, social intelligence, personal motivation, persuasion, communication, negotiation, conflict management, dominance, motivation to lead, need for power, dominance, achievement motivation, high energy, cognitive skills, intelligence, lateral or creative thinking, judgement, decision-making skills, problem-solving skills, personality, motivational, cognitive, cognitive skills, self-efficacy, cognitive, self-efficacy, social, cognitive, personality attributes, motivational, social, cognitive, teamwork, cognitive skills, motivation, behaviour, intelligence, cognitive, motive, personality, social, skills/knowledge, body, spirit, emotional charm, attitude, context, context, charismatic, inspirational, transactional, relations, good faith, trust, inspiring, vision, psychological, trust, inspirational, convincing, encourages, sense of purpose, establishes meaning, behaviour, psychological influence, persuasive skills, emotional, stimulate, vision, values, confidence, self- belief, role model, vision, values,</p>	<p>1. Choices (e.g., morals, values, attitude, decision-making, judgement, risk-taking)</p>
	<p>2. Principles (e.g., ethics, context, situation, principles)</p>

Leadership dimensions and attributes	Leadership constructs
<p>courageous, self-confidence, pro-social assertiveness, moral conviction, self-sacrifice, behaviours, compelling argument, vision, inspires, affection, values, confidence, encourage, role model, trust, motivation, self-worth, self-esteem, self-efficacy, collective efficacy, social identification, values, influence, motivational, collective purpose, logical reasoning, self-efficacy, confidence, motivational, commitment, mission, personal sacrifice behaviour, meaningfulness, self-expression, consistency, goals, values, action, motivation, relationship, emotional, morality, ethics, greater good, purpose, good values, vision, group goals, communication, support, intellectually motivating, integrity, ethical, emotional, behaviour, context, cognitive, emotional, skills, experience, cognition, memory, conceptual knowledge, communication, behaviour, social, behaviours, influence relationship, mutual goals, attitudes, behaviours, agreeableness, extraversion, conscientiousness, trusting, helpful, and good-natured, ethical behaviour, attitudes, values, context, reduced job stress, friendships, emotional, situation, traits, relationship, experience, training, traits, characteristics, intelligence, experience, situation, fluid intelligence, crystallised intelligence, cognitive ability, stress, decision-making, choices, situation, knowledge, problem structure, agreeableness, ability, education, experience, psychological maturity,</p>	<p>3. Mental (e.g., cognitive, logos, problem-solving, knowledge, vision, experience, understanding, memory, education, goals)</p> <p>4. Emotional (e.g., emotion, pathos, social, motives, self-efficacy, relational, communication, social, interpersonal, influence, conflict resolution)</p>

Leadership dimensions and attributes	Leadership constructs
<p>willingness, self-esteem, motivation, behaviour, decision-making, knowledge, situation, situation, knowledge, social, engaged and participative, influence, trust, behaviour, excellence, goals, feedback, skills, visionary, focus, communication, values, context, behaviour, attitudes, cognition, team cohesion, team creativity, physiological, neurological, psychological, behaviours, physical, neurophysiological, brain, neurotransmitters, hormones, cognition, emotions, behaviours, risk-taking, sociability, psychology, natural laws, decision-making, choice, context, relationship, decision rules, situations, mind, social, understanding, mental, social-cognitive, physical, traits, experience, physical, social, environment, mind, situations, social information, situations, contexts, context, understanding, mind, decide, interact, beliefs, traits, behaviours, traits, cognition, morals, ethics, influence, motivates, group norms, justice, interpersonal, relationships, attitude, behaviour, motivating, visionary, inspirational, integrity, decisive, collaborative, integrating, diplomatic, participative, unique, modest, tolerance, sensitive, self-centred, purpose, goals, inspirational, transparent, character, dedication, vision, values, visionary, creative skills, interpersonal knowledge, trust-building, cognitive abilities, creative problem solving, influence, opportunity focus, planning, achievement orientation, motivating others, flexibility, self-confidence, tenacity, patience, acceptance for ambiguity, persistence, power-orientation, proactiveness, and internal locus of control.</p>	<p>5. Physical (e.g., physical, stress, body, physiological)</p> <p>6. Spiritual (e.g., character, ethos, integrity, trust, purpose, trust-building, role-model)</p>

Source: Researcher

The six leadership constructs are choices, principles, mental (cognitive), emotional, physical, and spiritual, which are perceived as humancentric, multidimensional and inherently incorporate the notion of being developmental, that is, they can be developed.

Table 2.18 provides a summary of the six leadership constructs, the associated construct theories, as well as examples of the related leadership skills for development.

Table 2.18 Leadership constructs, associated theories, and skills

Leadership constructs	Theory, author(s) and a brief description or explanation	Leadership skills for development
1. Choices (e.g., morals, values, attitude, decision-making, judgement, risk-taking)	Choice theory: Levin and Milgrom (2004). Choice theory is the skilful process of evaluating available options and then choosing the preferred option based on a consistent criterion	E.g., Decision-making; risk assessment; moral decision-making
2. Principles (e.g., ethics, context, situation, principles)	Principle theory: Caldwell, Karri, and Vollmar (2006). Principle theory provides a foundation of guiding principles which relate to a person's ability to act by the rules or standards	E.g., Context; ethics; governance
3. Mental (e.g., cognitive, logos, problem-solving, knowledge, vision, experience,	Cognition theory: Prinsloo and Barrett (2013), Mumford, Todd, Higgs, and McIntosh (2017). Cognition theory is a person's ability to solve problems, to plan, to reason,	E.g., Thinking; learning; teaching

Leadership constructs	Theory, author(s) and a brief description or explanation	Leadership skills for development
understanding, memory, education, goals)	to think conceptually, to grasp complex concepts and to learn quickly as well as learn from experience; cognitive skills are essential aspects and of critical importance in the leadership context	
4. Emotional (e.g., emotion, pathos, social, motives, self-efficacy, relational, communication, social, interpersonal, influence, conflict resolution)	<p>Emotional intelligence theory: Doe (2015), Heath et al. (2017), Mayer et al. (2004).</p> <p>Emotional intelligence theory comprises of a four-branch ability model of a person being able to perceive, use, understand and manage emotions. Each branch of emotional intelligence can be developed and are vital attributes of effective leadership</p>	E.g., Social skills; motivation; self-awareness
5. Physical (e.g., physical, stress, body, physiological)	<p>Physical wellbeing theory: Hattie et al. (2004).</p> <p>The 'Wheel of Wellness' theory relates to a person's physical health, and that stress management, nutrition, and exercise are critical aspects of the physiological wellbeing of a leader</p>	E.g., Stress management; nutrition; exercise
6. Spiritual (e.g., character, ethos,	Spirituality Scale: Avolio et al. (2009), Delaney (2005); Maslow (1972).	E.g., Individual, team, and

Leadership constructs	Theory, author(s) and a brief description or explanation	Leadership skills for development
integrity, trust, purpose, trust-building, role-model)	The 'Spirituality Scale' is a method to assess a person's beliefs, values, and choices. The spiritual life (the contemplative, religious, philosophical, or value-life) is part of the human essence a defining characteristic of human nature	organisational leadership (purpose, meaning, and values)

Source: Researcher

2.6. Conceptual leadership model

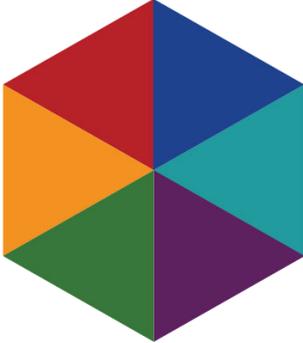
In this study, the researcher conceptualised a six-construct leadership model from leadership theory discussed and presented earlier in this chapter.

The conceptual leadership model was represented as a cube and named super-cube®. The super-cube® model in the schema in Table 2.19 implies that each side of the cube integrates to create a holistic, integrated, coherent, multifaceted humancentric perspective.

Foti and Hauenstein (2007) argue that 'the person is considered as an integrated totality rather than a summation of variables' (p. 347). Leadership scholars argue that progressing research on traits or personal characteristics and their effects on leadership require more multifaceted models and approaches (Bass, 1990; Lord & Hall, 1992; Zaccaro et al., 2013). Taking the above into consideration, the researcher conceptually developed a leadership model which comprised six leadership constructs grounded in academic literature.

Table 2.19 presents a conceptual leadership model.

Table 2.19 A conceptual leadership model

Leadership constructs		A conceptual leadership model
1. Choices		
2. Principles		
3. Mental		
4. Emotional		
5. Physical		
6. Spiritual		

Source: Researcher

In the conceptualisation and naming of the conceptual model, the word cube, refers to 'you', where the letter 'u' in the word cube represents you – a leader. The word super is an adjective, where the word implies you are wonderful, fantastic, great, marvellous, fabulous, excellent, splendid, superb, brilliant, superior, enhanced, and outstanding etcetera. The objective is to provide a model that promotes and enables *superior* leadership (you) capability, i.e., you (from a multidimensional perspective) are super.

The conceptual model proposes Buber's I-Thou relation which appreciates people as equals (Morgan & Guilherme, 2012). The I-Thou relation highlights the mutual and holistic existence of two entities. Morgan and Guilherme (2012) describe the I-Thou approach as an encounter of equals, who value each other as such. The ethical nature of the I-Thou relation suggests that if someone is unable to respect a fellow human being as a person, and merely as an object, they too will be considered an object (Morgan & Guilherme, 2012). This approach represents a person as a *means to an end*, which ceases to ascribe rights and duties to both parties. However, Buber encouraged people and communities to see fellow human beings as *Thous*, with the

same psychological, intellectual, emotional, and spiritual attributes. In this study, the conceptual model appreciates people as holistic entities comprising multidimensional capabilities, capable of being both a leader and/or follower in certain contexts.

The first two theories of the conceptual leadership model represent the choices and principles constructs. Choice theory is the notion that making choices is a skilful process of evaluating available options and then choosing the preferred option based on a consistent criterion (Levin & Milgrom, 2004). Levin and Milgrom (2004) suggest that real-world choices often appear to be highly situational and context-dependent such as the social context, the emotional state of the decision-maker, and a variety of other environmental factors which influence choice behaviour. From the conceptual model perspective, the choice construct represents the primary function, influenced by the cognitive, emotional, physical, and spiritual dimensions, yet conceptually guided by the principles construct.

Principle theory provides a foundation of guiding principles which relate to a person's ability to act by the rules or standards (Caldwell et al., 2006). Furthermore, Johns (2006) suggests that context is a phenomenon external to the individual, yet effects leadership decision-making. In the context of this study, the principle construct represents the rules and standards of social, economic, and natural laws, e.g., science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM). In essence, the principles construct represents ethics (decision-making foundations) and thus, ethical leadership development for the greater good of humanity (Wilson & McCalman, 2017). Based on the evidence in these two theories, it seems reasonable to suggest that choice and principle theory support and guide one another as established in the conceptual model for leadership skills development.

The following four theories represent the remaining (cognitive, emotional, physical, and spiritual) constructs of the conceptual leadership model.

Concerning the conceptual leadership model, the cognitive construct represents a leader's mental intelligence. Cognition theory is a person's knowledge, skills, and ability to solve problems, to plan, to reason, to think conceptually, to grasp complex concepts, and to learn quickly, as well as learn from experience, and the ability to teach; these cognitive skills are essential aspects and of critical importance within and

throughout the leadership context (Mumford et al., 2017; Prinsloo & Barrett, 2013). Mumford et al. (2017) argues that mental intelligence ultimately refers to the speed and depth of leaders' information processing skills and abilities when working to solve complex problems. Furthermore, evidence suggests that mental intelligence can be developed to provide people with the knowledge and skills they need to perform complex leadership tasks (Mumford et al., 2017).

Emotional intelligence theory comprises of a four-branch ability model of a person being able to perceive, use, understand and manage emotions (Mayer et al., 2004). Each branch of emotional intelligence can be developed and are critical attributes of effective leadership (Doe et al., 2015; Mayer et al., 2004). Heath et al. (2017) state that great leaders can develop the following five emotional intelligence skills, namely, self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills. The first three skills are considered personal competence, while the last two skills are considered social competence, all of which determine how leaders handle relationships (Doe et al., 2015).

The physical construct of the conceptual model for leadership skills development represents a leader's physiological wellbeing and is conceptualised as physical intelligence. The 'Wheel of Wellness' theory concerns a person's physical health, and that stress management, nutrition, and exercise are all vital aspects of the physiological wellbeing of a leader (Hattie et al., 2004). Harms, Credé, Tynan, Leon, and Jeung (2017) suggest that stress and leadership are inextricably linked with one another and argue that stressful events are when leadership is most needed. Leaders who can handle stressful events effectively are generally more inclined for decision-making and group fitness (Harms et al., 2017). Edwards (2006) maintains that regular exercise for an average of thirty minutes a day at least three times a week is associated with significant improvements in a person's physical wellbeing, as well as aspects of mood, coherence, fortitude, and stress management.

The spiritual construct of the conceptual model for leadership skills development conceptually represents the conduit between the leader's choice construct and the principle construct. The construct also symbolises the fusion between the mental, emotional, and physical constructs of a leader. Delaney's (2005) 'Spirituality Scale' is

a method used to assess a person's beliefs, values and choices. Maslow (1972) contends that 'the spiritual life (the contemplative, religious, philosophical, or value-life) is ... part of the human essence... a defining characteristic of human nature...'. Avolio (2009) suggests that spiritual intelligence is central in leadership as it unites the four innate aspects of a person's existence (mind, heart, body and spirit) so that people are intrinsically motivated to achieve important goals, are more committed to achieving organisational objectives and experience higher levels of personal joy, peace and fulfilment. Research findings in South Africa established that higher levels of spirituality were generally associated with improved health, less mental health problems, and better health-related physical, psychological and environmental aspects of life outcomes (Edwards, 2012b).

Based on the conceptual leadership model, the researcher defines leadership as a "multidimensional, human centric and principled approach towards the progression of humanity."

2.7. Resume

Progress in the knowledge era requires models of leadership to evolve and embrace paradigmatic shifts away from leadership as merely a hierarchical role to leadership as an unfolding social process in a shared leadership type perspective (Wassenaar et al., 2010). Developing shared leadership is challenging, yet Pearce (2010) suggests that generally people are capable of being leaders and followers, and that shared leadership is an organisational necessity in the age of knowledge work.

Both van Vugt (2018) and Zaccaro et al. (2018) suggest leadership outcomes are explained as an integrated combination of multiple variables from cognitive, motive, personality, social, and skills/knowledge attribute groups. When evolutionary biologists refer to "traits", they imply any aspect of an organism that is active when an organism's genes network with their environment, including physical features, e.g., height and eye colour, neurophysiological mechanisms e.g., brain areas, neurotransmitters, and hormones, psychological mechanisms e.g., cognition and emotions, and behaviours e.g., risk-taking, sociability, and followership (van Vugt, 2018; van Vugt & Ronay, 2014).

In this chapter, the researcher examined the past, present and future aspects in the field of leadership, the nine major schools of leadership, and current topics in leadership. The researcher summarised the chapter with a comprehensive overview of leadership dimensions and attributes grounded in leadership theory. The researcher conceptualised six leadership constructs and presented and discussed a conceptual leadership model. After that, the researcher provided a definition of leadership based on the conceptualised leadership model.

The following chapter provides discussion on leadership development. The objective of chapter 3 is to establish theoretically relevant approaches to leadership development for the conceptualisation of a model for leadership skills development.

3. LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT REVIEW: TOWARD A CONCEPTUAL LEADERSHIP SKILLS DEVELOPMENT MODEL

3.1. Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the topic of leadership and presented a six-construct conceptual leadership model. This chapter provides a review of leadership development literature towards the conceptualisation of a leadership skills development model.

Leadership alone is a highly complex construct, which, as a scholarly discipline, seems "curiously uninformed" (Hackman & Wageman, 2007, p. 43). Furthermore, Baltes (1987) suggests that development is an equally complex construct, given that it involves change and is a process of innate gains and losses. Zaccaro and Horn (2003) state that there is a wide gap between leadership theory and leadership practice. As a result of this gap, the field of leadership development is mainly a collection of disparate "best practices", e.g., coaching, mentoring, on-the-job experience, rather than a coherent, continuous, theoretically relevant, and empirically validated process (Day, 2000).

Advances in the field of leadership development suggest that building an evidence-based science of leadership development is no longer a pipe dream. There is, however, evidence of some practitioners with unclear motives who often assert that they can prescribe the answer on how best to develop leaders and leadership in organisations, or promote the use of assessment instruments of questionable validity to diagnose leadership needs (Zaccaro & Horn, 2003). However, Avolio et al. (2009) suggest that scholars have had positive results from the scientific impact of leadership training and development interventions. Despite such advances, researchers suggest there is much unknown regarding the nature of leadership development (Day & Thornton, 2018).

An important consideration is a clear description of what is meant by leadership development. The dominant thinking suggests that leadership development involves

developing leadership, which appears to make sense. Although the definition of leadership has proven difficult to define, many scholars claim that leadership involves social collaboration between two or more people in pursuit of a mutual goal (Bennis, 2007). As such, Day (2000) suggests that most of what passes as leadership development is instead, leader development. Whereas leaders can work to develop their leadership-related skills, knowledge, and competencies, because of its goal-orientated interpersonal and relational nature, leadership cannot be developed directly unless intact dyads, workgroups, or the organisation are the focus of development. Based on the distinction between leader and leadership development, leader development is the expansion of an individual's capacity to be effective in leadership roles and processes, while leadership development is the expansion of an organisation's capacity to perform basic leadership tasks required to accomplish shared, collective work (McCauley, Van Velsor, & Ruderman, 2010). Drath et al. (2008) suggest that instead of primarily focusing on organisational position, hierarchy, or status to denote leadership, the belief that roles and processes refer to behaviours or other actions enacted by anyone irrespective of formal role that facilitates setting direction, creating alignment, and building commitment. Furthermore, the fundamental "leadership tasks" are functional, adaptable, and pragmatic, which are more fitting for the continuously increasing kinds of challenges that require collaborative forms of leadership (Drath et al., 2008).

The general question or underlying assumption regarding leadership development is how much of development as a leader is due to factors such as genetics, i.e., nature; and how much is due to experiences in the environment, i.e., nurture?

In this chapter, discussion concerns the topic of leadership and leadership skills development.

The aims of this chapter are to:

1. Discuss innate and acquired leadership, leadership development and what develops in leadership development;
2. Discuss how best to promote leadership development, and the science and practice of leadership development;

3. Establish theoretically relevant approaches to leadership skills development;
and
4. Discuss a conceptual model for leadership skills development.

3.2. Innate and acquired leadership

A 2014 assessment of 2500 businesses and Human Resource (HR) leaders in 94 countries suggested that improving and accelerating leadership development is considered crucial and important by almost 90% of respondents (O'Leonard & Krider, 2014). U.S. organisations invest somewhere between US\$20 billion and US\$40 billion annually in leadership development interventions and other similar management education initiatives (Lamoureux, 2007). Given the significant investment made in leadership development, it seems reasonable to assume that organisations believe leadership development is possible.

An important question raised by researchers pertains to the existence of a specific leadership gene (Antonakis et al., 2012). Research suggests such a gene in predicting leadership role occupancy, i.e., whether someone holds a supervisory role or not exists. De Neve et al. (2013) found from two longitudinal studies that leadership role occupancy is linked with a genetic attribute called rs4950, a "single nucleotide polymorphism residing on a neuronal acetylcholine receptor gene CHRNA3" (p. 45). Furthermore, results indicated that the heritability (h^2) of leadership role occupancy accounts for approximately 24%, i.e., roughly a quarter of the variance in role occupancy is due to genetic factors. Similar findings established that heritability in leadership role occupancy accounted for approximately 30% (Arvey, Rotundo, Johnson, Zhang, & McGue, 2006; Arvey, Zhang, Avolio, & Krueger, 2007). Further analysis from these studies determined that work experience explained approximately 11.5% of the variance in leadership role occupancy, with other environmental influences explaining the balance.

Although some proportion of inherited capabilities may be associated with leadership role occupancy (approximately 24%-30%), a far more significant portion of the variance is associated with environmental influences. By "good genes" some individuals appear to have a genetic advantage. However, the results suggest that anyone might become a better leader and increase their opportunity of leadership role

occupancy through deliberate practice and experience. DeRue and Wellman (2009) suggest that amount of environmental support is an essential resource for developing leaders.

Having argued that leadership development in the form of predicting leadership role occupancy is more than genetics, the next question concerns leader and leadership development over time.

3.3. Leadership development

The earliest published research of psychological factors relating to leadership advancement was the AT&T Management Progress Study (Bray, Campbell, & Grant, 1974) that pioneered the adoption of the assessment centre for selection and development. The study began in 1956, and the focus of this longitudinal research was to address three questions relating to organisational changes and the associated reasons for the changes. The study director noted that "the most significant single finding... is that success as a manager is highly predictable" (Bray, 1982, p. 183). Although Bray (1982) frames results in terms of determining success as a manager rather than a leader, contemporary scholars frame similar career advancement in terms of leadership role occupancy (Arvey et al., 2006; Arvey et al., 2007; De Neve et al., 2013). Leadership motivation was one of the essential personality factors in the study, which was strongly correlated to assessment factors such as leadership skills and work motivation. Ambition and optimism were other personality factors related to multiple assessment factors. Chan & Drasgow (2001) determined similar findings regarding developing and testing a motivation to lead construct. Similarly, the role of optimism, as a positive psychological skill that is believed capable of development, became part of authentic leader development (Luthans & Avolio, 2003).

The Fullerton Longitudinal Study (FLS) is a continuous long-term project designed to study child development through adolescence and into adulthood. The initiative began in 1979 with 130 participants receiving annual assessments through age 17, then again at age 24 and age 29. The study provides a rare opportunity to trace the developmental pathways from personal differences in early childhood to self-rated adult leadership potential and leadership role occupancy. Results from one set of analyses determined that children who were more approaching of new places, people,

and experiences at ages 2-16 tended to become more extraverted adolescents (age 17) with more significant social skills as adults (age 24) and more work-related leadership responsibilities and higher transformational leadership potential (Guerin et al., 2011). In summary, the FLS study provides insights into the early influences on leader development. Childhood intrinsic motivation appears to correlate with adolescent motivation and personality, which predicts elements of motivation to lead and self-appraised leadership potential in adulthood. A potential implication of the FLS findings is that introverted children and adolescents might benefit from youth leadership interventions designed to prepare them for possible future leadership roles (Day & Thornton, 2018).

In summary, longitudinal investigations conclude that leadership can and does develop over time and that individual differences can predict development and its forms (Day & Thornton, 2018).

3.4. What develops in leadership development?

There is a wide range of possible criteria to consider when determining what develops in leadership development. Leadership competency models offer both popular and controversial methods. Though the term competency apparently "has no meaning apart from the particular definition with whom one is speaking" (Schippmann et al., 2000, p. 706), one way to explain competencies is as bundles of leadership-related abilities, knowledge, and skills.

Some argue that competency models are the best practice "that defies logic, experience, and data" (Hollenbeck, McCall, & Silzer, 2006, p. 399), while some have countered that competency models provide an overarching framework that creates a focus for individuals and organisations in developing leadership skills. Competency models help individuals by providing an outline of a leadership framework that could be used to select, develop, and understand leadership effectiveness, and used as a foundation for leadership training and development throughout an organisation. Competency models also help organisations communicate which general forms of leader behaviours are essential as well as generally offer a leadership framework that is relevant across positions and situations (Day & Thornton, 2018).

3.4.1. Developing the expert leader

Leadership competency models provide a taxonomy of various leadership-related skills, subskills, and skills bundles, i.e., competencies. A generic model of leadership skill requirements throughout organisational levels is the so-called leadership skills strataplex (Mumford, Campion, & Morgeson, 2007). Central to the model are four general categories that explain leadership skills requirements: (1) cognitive, (2) interpersonal, (3) business, and (4) strategic skills. Many subskills for each general category have also been proposed and evaluated.

Van Velsor and McCauley (2004) proposed another model to develop individual leadership capabilities. The three general categories of skills concern (1) self-management competencies, (2) social competencies, and (3) work facilitation competencies.

Understanding leadership as a set of skills provides some advantages. First, a skills-based approach is consistent with the notion that individual leadership capabilities can be developed (Lord & Hall, 2005). Second, skills provide a bridge between trait theories and behavioural theories of leadership and help determine missing components that enable effective leaders to enact the appropriate behaviours at the right time (Mumford, Zaccaro, Connelly, & Marks, 2000).

Developing leadership skills is comparable to developing expertise in various fields such as science, music, chess, and sports (Bloom, 1985; Chi, Glaser, & Farr, 1988; Ericsson, Charness, Feltovich, & Hoffman, 2006). Research suggests it takes ten years or 10,000 hours of dedicated practice to achieve primary expert status in a given field (Ericsson et al., 2006; Ericsson, Krampe, & Tesch-Romer, 1993). Recent meta-analytic results suggest that practice may account for between 1% to 26% of the variation in performance throughout a variety of domains (Macnamara, Hambrick, & Oswald, 2014). Deliberate practice matters in the domain of leadership skills development.

Leaders need to develop strategic thinking skills to form "value-creating strategic goals and strategies" (Dragoni et al., 2014, p. 867). Scholars found that accumulated work experience positively correlates to executives' strategic thinking skills after controlling

for individual characteristics and further measures of work experience (Dragoni, Oh, VanKatwyk, & Tesluk, 2011). Furthermore, global work experience, particularly those involving more significant cultural differences, developed the strategic thinking skills of leaders (Dragoni et al., 2014).

Day and Dragoni (2015) argue that thinking of programs, experiences, or interventions as directing enhancing leadership development is overly simplistic (Day & Dragoni, 2015). One reason is that developing leaders starts at various stages due to their capabilities and change in multiple ways as a function of developmental experiences. As such, experience is a moderator of the relationship between individual skills brought to an experience and more immediate developmental outcomes. Such outcomes include skills referred to as leader self-views in the form of self-awareness, self-efficacy, and self-identity. The leader development outcomes are proximal to distal outcomes related to enhanced forms of adult development changes that occur only through extensive, dedicated practice. Such changes typically alter the internal operating system of a leader and take vast amounts of time, practice, and continuous support.

The benefit of detailing the outcomes of leader development is that the proximal indicators of leader development can establish that deeper, longer-term development may occur with practice. A similar structure is believed to be in place in developing the longer-term (distal) leadership skills of groups and organisations (Day & Thornton, 2018).

Figure 3.1 illustrates the traditional, simplistic thinking of leader development.

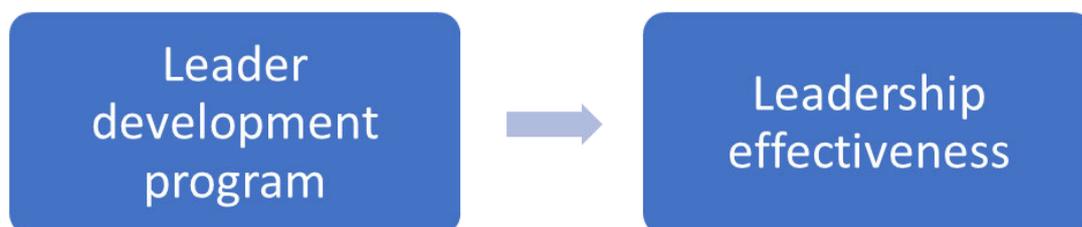


Figure 3.1 Traditional, simplistic thinking on leader development

Source: Day and Thornton (2018)

Figure 3.2 illustrates the recently revised, contemporary thinking of leader development.

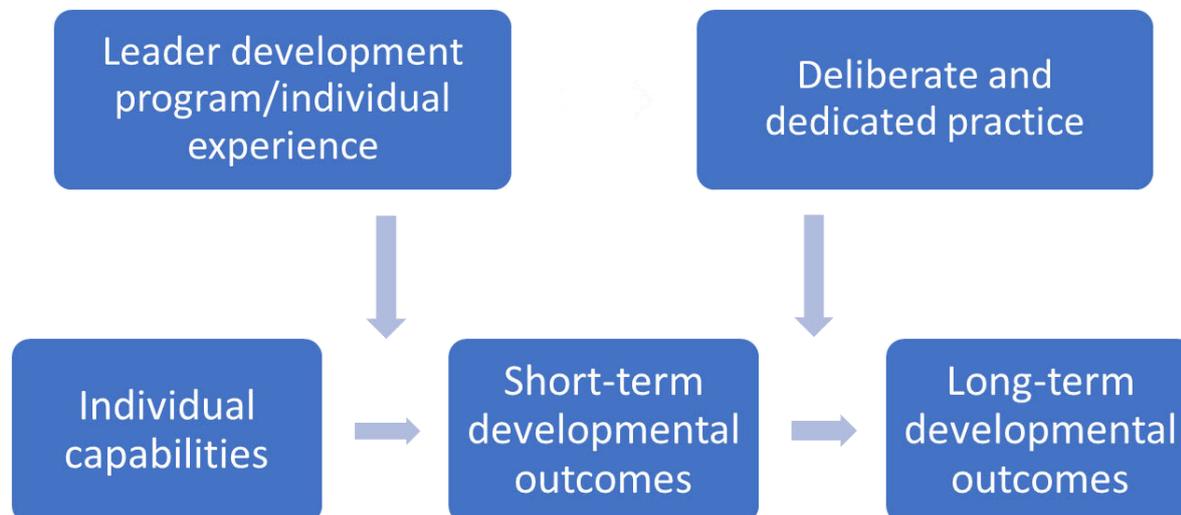


Figure 3.2 Revised, contemporary thinking on leader development

Source: Day and Thornton (2018)

3.5. How best to promote leadership development?

Aspects of how to develop leaders and leadership are vital and require better integration with theoretical and empirical concerns. The following three approaches suggest developmental leadership practices.

3.5.1. Structure programs to develop leaders and leadership

Structured programs typically vary in duration from a few hours to several years and provide multiple types of content. Conger (2010) classifies leader and leadership initiatives into four general groups: (1) individual skill development, (2) socialising of the organisational purpose and values, (3) strategic leadership ideas to promote large-scale change, and (4) action learning initiatives focused on addressing organisational challenges and opportunities.

Individual skill development is a well-liked approach to leader development with many organisations and consulting firms offering generic and bespoke programs. Such initiatives include assessment for development and feedback-intensive programs (Guthrie & King, 2004). Such interventions require participants to complete a variety of individual difference measures, e.g., values, personality, leadership skills assessments and receive the results of 360-degree assessments completed by self, subordinates, peers, and supervisors. These initiatives aim to create self-awareness concerning individual strengths and developmental requirements to heighten the perception of how one is understood by others (Day et al., 2014).

When linked with coaching and an action-orientated development plan, individual skill development initiatives provide a blueprint of building the required leadership skills while acknowledging and leveraging identified strengths (Day & Thornton, 2018).

Nonetheless, caveats are associated with the success of skills development programs. A comprehensive meta-analytic review of feedback interventions found that almost 40% of the interventions harmed performance, and almost 15% were found not to affect performance (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). These results suggest that providing feedback may not result in positive development outcomes. Although research suggests that working with a coach can help improve 360-degree feedback rating overtime (Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, & Kuchine, 2003), and that sessions with direct reports to discuss their upward feedback is positively related to subsequent improvement (Walker & Smither, 1999), positive change might not be guaranteed. Improvement is likely to occur when the following conditions apply: (1) feedback suggests that change is necessary; (2) individuals have a positive feedback orientation; (3) change is possible; (4) relevant goals are set to regulate behaviour; and (5) actions are taken that can result in skills improvement (Smither, London, & Reilly, 2005).

Leader and leadership development programs are also used to socialise either new or newly appointed members with the vision and values of an organisation. Drath et al. (2008) note that further to setting direction and building commitment, scholars have argued that creating alignment is an essential leadership process. An important aspect

of alignment is in developing a shared understanding of organisation priorities and collaborative methods (Conger, 2010).

The active strategic change management of an organisation is a driving force behind leadership development about addressing changes in the requisite leadership skills required to implement widespread change. Such interventions are typically tailored to an organisation's strategy, with emphases on communicating strategic objectives, creating alignment among organisational leaders in terms of strategy, and creating developing change agents throughout the organisation levels to enable change and enhance progress toward strategic priorities. These programs can be useful for developing individual and organisational change related skills; however, an essential component in overall success is that senior leaders have a clear change agenda and know what leadership requirement is needed, which is often not a given (Day & Thornton, 2018).

The final category of structured leadership programs includes action learning initiatives. Such programs involve team collaboration to address problems of strategic importance (action) while also developing self-awareness and learning about leadership through individual and group reflection (learning). The focus of action learning initiatives is on holistic leader development, in contrast with action training (Frese et al., 2003) that focuses on learning by doing through structured practices to develop specific skills (e.g., charisma). Equally, action learning has foundations in the pioneering work of Revans (1980) and is effectively an unstructured or semi-structured form of active learning.

In summary, structured programs are a popular approach for addressing leader and leadership development needs in an organisation. The four categories suggested offer diversity within each category in terms of program focus, length, and intensity. A concern is that leadership development occurs only during a designated formal program, whereas development must continue when an individual comes back to their job. Personal change and development require a long period of dedicated practise (Ericsson et al., 1993). In essence, if persons only attempt to develop during a formal programme, then it is unlikely that they will ever acquire the sophisticated level of leadership skills required to be effective in leadership roles (Day & Thornton, 2018).

3.5.2. Developing leadership through experience

Successful executives suggest leadership development is the result of on-the-job experience (McCall, Lombardo, & Morrison, 1988).

McCall (2010) proposed modifying leadership development to make better use of experience, while also accepting that "using experience effectively to develop leadership talent is a lot more complicated and difficult than it appears" (p. 3). Part of the issue causing the complexity is that experience is so broad and wide-ranging, including job rotations, strategic job assignments, action learning projects, as well as experientially based development programs. What is not experience? In order to address this issue, some organisations have created frameworks that identify and combine experiences, relationships, skills, and learning capabilities that individuals need to develop as they progress through job assignments and progress in the organisation (Yost & Mannion Plunket, 2010).

In summary, the notion that experience is often considered the most promising and potentially powerful developer of leaders (McCall, 2010) makes sense at a general level. However, when the nature of experience is unpacked, it proves to be more complicated. Everything related to leadership development could be formed in terms of experience, from the shortest classroom workshop to challenging assignments or ongoing work experiences. Experience is complex and multifaceted, making it difficult to quantify and categorise (Tesluk & Jacobs, 1998). Regardless, scholars have established that it is possible to obtain an estimate of the degree of developmental challenge in work experiences and to couple it with relevant outcomes (DeRue & Wellman, 2009; Dragoni et al., 2011). Day (2010) suggests that more attention should be provided to assist individual learners in gaining the desired lessons of experience as part of the developmental process as opposed to merely providing experiences.

3.5.3. Deliberately Developmental Organisations (DDO)

DDO is a relatively new addition to leadership development. Kegan & Lahey (2016) suggest it is an innovative approach to develop people and organisations simultaneously by embedding continuous developmental practices in the cultures of an organisation.

Three overarching principles form the construct of DDO: (1) home, (2) edge, and (3) groove. Collectively, the three concepts create space for people to be vulnerable to self and others in order to enhance human and organisational potential.

Home refers to the need for a community of co-workers built on a foundation of trust and mutual respect. In this community, rank does not have its usual privileges, and everyone plays a role in fostering others' development.

Edge denotes to the need to establish one's current self-understanding on a scale of developmental levels that characterise increasingly complex ways in which adults understand themselves (Kegan, 1982; Kegan & Lahey, 2009, 2016). While Kegan's full model of adult development comprises five development levels, he argues that the highest three levels are relevant to people in modern organisations. At level three (socialised mind) people internalise and identify with external powers, which often results in being a loyal and obedient team member. At level four (self-authoring mind) socialised expectations lose their rule, as the self increasingly identifies with its unique values and perspectives in ordering autonomy. At level five (self-transformed mind) self-authored perspectives loosen as the self-increasing identifies with the active interdependence between self, others, and the world, in prioritising a more orderly understanding of self. One's edge is typically established through deep, reflective exercises that require identification of unconscious beliefs that can undermine developmental progress (Kegan & Lahey, 2009).

Groove emphasises development through embedded practice. Practices are short activities that are deliberately undertaken on a daily, or weekly basis to advance psychological growth along the scale of developmental levels. Customs are bespoke to one's present developmental journey and used during daily tasks with further assistance and challenge, and thus may be more effective than traditional training programs in fostering development (Day, 2010; McCauley et al., 2010).

Adopting the three principles of home, edge, and groove results in multiple distinct departures from traditional organisations. Firstly, destabilising can be constructive, in which feelings of inadequacy and incompetence are appreciated as resources and actively promoted (i.e., no pain, no gain; or pain plus reflection = growth). Secondly, the interior life is part of what is manageable, in which one's whole self, including

values, thoughts, and feelings are prioritised to the same extent as behaviours, therefore closing the gap between personal and professional lives (Day & Thornton, 2018).

Kegan and Lahey (2016) suggest that DDO cultures play a vital role in improving multiple aspects of organisational performance, including team effectiveness, financial performance, and market reputation.

3.6. How to improve leadership development science and practice

3.6.1. Theory

Avolio (2007) suggests the need for promoting more integrative theory-building strategies in the general field of leadership and leadership development. The dynamic interplay between leaders and followers should be more fully considered, taking into account the context in which these interactions occur (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). More integrative theories appreciate that the leadership landscape includes leaders, followers, and the situational context as essential ingredients in the dynamic interaction. An appealing aspect of DDO is the notion of an everyone culture (Kegan & Lahey, 2016) rather than a focus on developing a relatively few employees (usually 3%-5%) who are considered to be high-potential leaders capable of handling senior leadership roles and responsibilities.

Leadership is a dynamic, evolving process. It incorporates behaviours, perceptions, decision making, and multiple constructs. Therefore, leadership by its nature is a universal phenomenon requiring multiple theoretical perspectives, e.g., motivational, emotional, behavioural. Day et al. (2012) suggest that more inclusive and integrative perspectives are required that cut across a variety of theoretical domains to advance leadership skills development theory.

3.6.2. Research

Researchers suggest that leadership development is fundamentally a multilevel activity (Avolio, 2004; Day & Dragoni, 2015). Levels include within-person and between-person; higher dyadic levels involving relationships with followers, peers, and

subordinates; and team and organisational levels. It appears that cross-level research approaches will further the understanding of leadership skills development.

Leader and leadership development is a dynamic and longitudinal process, which involves the consideration of time (Day, 2014). The development of organisational leadership in general and leaders, in particular, is a process occurring throughout the entire adult lifespan (Day et al., 2012). Furthermore, leaders do not develop in the same way with identical growth patterns (Day & Sin, 2011). People learn different things from the same experience, and some learn the critical lessons of experience quicker than others (Day & Thornton, 2018).

3.6.3. Practice

A notion exists that leaders are ill-prepared to handle future challenges. Drucker (1995) noted that no more than one-third of executives selection decisions turn out right, approximately one-third are marginally useful, and the final one-third outright failures. A concern of these estimates is that while leadership development is a strategic human capital issue for many organisations, both current and past data suggest that it is not enough.

One issue that undermines the effectiveness of leadership development initiatives is the focus on generally short-term, episodic-based thinking of how development occurs. Typically, the notion of leadership development has viewed it as a series of unconnected, discrete programs with minimal assistance in integration across the development episodes (Vicere & Fulmer, 1998). Contemporary views about leadership development consider it as a continuous and ongoing process throughout the adult lifespan (Day et al., 2012). McCauley et al. (2010) suggest that just about all experience has the potential to enhance learning and development, and will likely do so to the extent that it includes aspects of assessment, challenge, and support.

The focus in the field relates to developing individual leader skills; although there is no assurance that improved leadership will result. As such, leadership involves collaboration within a given situational context. Thus, effective followers are required, along with effective leaders (Hollander, 2009). Furthermore, real collective leadership development will possibly require intervention at the group, team, or organisational

levels. Despite the distinction between leader development and leadership development, it is not an either/or proposition. Instead, advanced initiatives seek to establish ways to combine individual leader development with collective leadership development to further overall leadership capacity in teams and organisations (Day & Dragoni, 2015).

3.6.4. Learning theory

Illeris (2018) states that more education does not necessarily result in more and better learning and that while the theory of learning is broad, it invariably comprises three dimensions:

1. Content dimension: refers to the knowledge, understanding, behaviour, skills, values, or feelings – typically cognitive;
2. Incentive dimension: refers to the intrinsic, interest and motivational aspects – typically emotional; and
3. Interaction dimension: refers to the social engagement and has various layers, ranging from the current situation, the local, institutional, environment, national and other situations to the global context in general.

3.7. Leadership skills development

In this section, the researcher provides a summary of approaches to leadership skills development findings during the review of leadership skills development literature.

Table 3.1 presents the leadership skills development findings from the review of leadership development theory, concepts, terms, definitions, and models from the leadership skills development categories discussed in this chapter.

Table 3.1 Leadership skills development summary

Leadership Theory, Concepts, Terms, Definitions, and Models	Author(s) and a Brief Description or Explanation	Leadership Skills Development
Nature vs Nurture	De Neve et al. (2013). Leadership can be developed (70% - 76%) with on-going practice and experience as opposed to purely inheritable (24%-30%)	Practice; experience
Leader development through time	Day and Thornton (2018); Gully and Chen (2010). Individuals do not experience or benefit from leader development in the same ways. Leaders can and do develop over time	Personality; psychosocial; emotional
What develops in leader development	Day and Thornton (2018); Hollenbeck, McCall, and Silzer (2006); Mumford, Campion, and Morgeson (2007). Leadership competencies such as leadership related knowledge, skills, and abilities	Cognitive; emotional; principles; decision-making
How best to promote leadership development	Conger (2010); Day and Thornton (2018); Kegan and Lahey (2016). Structured programmes, experiences, and continuous developmental practices best promote leadership development	Personality; values; emotion; vision; principles; cognition.

Leadership Theory, Concepts, Terms, Definitions, and Models	Author(s) and a Brief Description or Explanation	Leadership Skills Development
Learning theory	<p>Illeris (2018).</p> <p>Learning theory comprises of three dimensions, namely content, incentive, and interaction</p>	<p>Content (cognitive); incentive (emotional); interaction (social).</p>

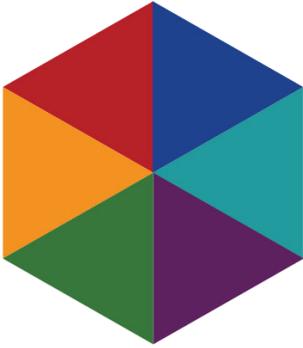
Source: Researcher

3.8. Conceptual leadership skills development model

The unification of the conceptual leadership model (discussed and presented in chapter 2) and the leadership skills development findings in the previous section (Table 3.1), a model for leadership skills development was conceptualised as shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 presents a conceptual model for leadership skills development.

Table 3.2 A conceptual model for leadership skills development

Leadership constructs		A conceptual leadership model	Leadership skills development
1. Choices			<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Leaders can and do develop over time 2. Create structured programmes and experiences 3. Adhering to the theory of learning
2. Principles			
3. Mental			
4. Emotional			
5. Physical			
6. Spiritual			

Source: Researcher

In the conceptual model for leadership skills development, the leadership skills development process is considered inherent in each of the six leadership constructs of the model. The leadership skills development rational follows that (1) leadership can

and does develop overtime (De Neve et al., 2013); (2) structure programmes and experiences best promote leadership development (Conger, 2010; Day & Thornton, 2018; Kegan & Lahey, 2016) ; and (3) adhering to the theory of learning during the developmental process (Illeris, 2018).

Based on the conceptual leadership skills development model, the researcher defines leadership skills development as an “inherent skills developed by structured methodologies concerning learning theory, regarding the development of multidimensional, human centric and principled approaches towards the progression of humanity.”

3.9. Resume

Leadership development is the expansion of an organisation's capacity to perform basic leadership tasks required to accomplish shared and collective work (McCauley et al., 2010). Leadership development offers an exciting future on both the scientific and scientist-practitioner equation. Research designs that incorporate multiple perspectives, mixed methods, as well as longitudinal components, are likely to establish scientific insight into the leadership development process (Day & Thornton, 2018).

In this chapter, the researcher examined innate and acquired leadership, leadership development, leadership skill development, and how best to promote leadership development. The chapter provides an overview of leadership dimensions and attributes grounded in the theory of leadership development. After that, the researcher presented a conceptual model for leadership skills development which concerns the theoretical objective of this study. A definition of leadership skills development is provided.

The following chapter reviews the research design and methodology to assess the conceptual leadership skills development model.

4. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY: AN ASSESSMENT OF THE CONCEPTUAL LEADERSHIP SKILLS DEVELOPMENT MODEL

4.1. Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the topic of leadership development and concludes with the conceptual model for leadership skills development. In this chapter discussion concerns the research design and methods applied in the assessment of the conceptual model for leadership skills development.

The chapter starts by explaining the research process followed in the study. The research process comprises five sections, as illustrated in Figure 4.1. It covers the research philosophy, research design, research methods, the quantitative strand, and the qualitative strand. The methodology section presents the approach the study took to address the research problem, research questions and research objectives. The quantitative and qualitative sections conclude with an investigation on the validity and reliability of this research and its associated methodology.

The intentions of this chapter are to:

1. Discuss the research philosophy, design, and methods;
2. Discuss the quantitative strand; and
3. Discuss the qualitative approach.



Figure 4.1 The research process followed in this study

Source: Researcher

4.2. Research philosophy

A research philosophy, or in particular, a paradigm, is a comprehensive approach of correlated practices and thinking that define the type of inquiry (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018).

The expression paradigm originated from the Greek word *paradeigma*, which means *pattern* and was initially used by Kuhn (1962) to describe a conceptual framework used by scientists to provide them with an approach to examine problems and find solutions. Kuhn (1962) defines a paradigm as “an integrated cluster of substantive concepts, variables and problems attached with corresponding methodological approaches and tools...”. Kuhn (1977) goes on to suggest that the term paradigm refers to a research ethos with a set assumptions that researchers share concerning the nature and conduct of research. However, the way scholars use the term paradigm has evolved since the original perspective of it as merely a way to summarise researchers’ ideas regarding their efforts to create knowledge (Terre Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006). The choice of paradigm determines the intent, motivation, and expectations for a research project (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). A paradigm, therefore, implies a pattern, structure and framework or system of scientific ideas, values and assumptions (Olsen, Lodwick, & Dunlap, 1992). Although Kuhn (1977) suggests many definitions of paradigm exist, the term used in this study is worldview.

Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) suggest that four worldviews exist, and that all research has a philosophical foundation that shapes the process of research and the method of inquiry, as shown in Table 4.1. Although Crotty (1998) suggests that the different worldviews are not ‘watertight compartments’ (p. 9) and merely provide a general philosophical orientation toward research that can be used individually or combined.

Table 4.1 Four worldviews used in research

Postpositivist Worldview	Constructivist Worldview	Transformative Worldview	Pragmatist Worldview
Determination	Understanding	Political and activist	Consequences of action
Reductionism	Multiple participant meanings	Empowerment, human rights, social justice oriented	Problem centred
Empirical observation and measurement	Social and historical construction	Collaborative	Pluralistic
Theory verification	Theory generation	Change, emancipatory oriented	Real-world practice-oriented
Typically, quantitative methodology - deductive	Typically, qualitative methodology - inductive	Typically, qualitative methodology - participatory	Typically, mixed- methods methodology

Source: Adapted from Creswell and Plano Clark (2018)

A postpositivist worldview is typically associated with quantitative approaches where scholars acquire knowledge from (1) determinism or cause and effect thinking; (2) reductionism narrowing and focusing on select variables; (3) thorough observations and measures of variables; and (4) testing theories that are often refined (Slife & Williams, 1995).

A constructivist worldview is generally associated with qualitative approaches and works from a different set of assumptions. Typically, the understanding or meaning of phenomena is formed through participants and their subjective views (Denzin, 2012).

Mertens (2009) states that the transformative worldview considers the need for social justice and the pursuit of human rights, where importance is given to the marginalised communities of society and the economically disadvantaged.

The fourth worldview, pragmatism, is typically associated with mixed-methods research as an overarching philosophy (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). For studies with a pragmatic worldview, the importance of the research concerns finding practical results. It is recognised that single perspectives may not provide the solutions, and there may be multiple realities (Saunders & Tosey, 2012). From a pragmatic worldview, the focus is on research outcomes, and the importance of the question asked rather than the methods (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018).

Due to the complex nature of the research problem addressed by this study, an overarching philosophy of pragmatism has been embraced as it combines two worldviews which provide the benefit of addressing the research problem from multiple perspectives, i.e., pragmatism is one philosophy that includes post positivism and constructivism as shown in Table 4.2 (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010).

Furthermore, Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) note that a research paradigm includes three major dimensions: ontology, epistemology, and methodology, as shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Elements of worldviews and implications for practice

Philosophical Question	Post positivism	Constructivism	Transformative	Pragmatism (this study)
Ontology (What is the nature of reality?)	Singular reality (e.g., researchers reject or fail to reject hypotheses)	Multiple realities (e.g., researchers provide quotes to illustrate different perspectives)	Multifaceted ad based on different social and cultural positions (e.g., researchers recognize different power	Singular and multiple realities (e.g., researchers test hypotheses and provide

Philosophical Question	Post positivism	Constructivism	Transformative	Pragmatism (this study)
			positionalities in our society)	multiple perspectives
Epistemology (What is the relationship between the researcher and that being researched?)	Distance and impartiality (e.g., researchers objectively collect data on instruments)	Closeness and subjectivity (e.g., researchers visit with participants at their sites to collect data)	Collaboration (e.g., researchers actively involve participants as collaborators, build trust, and honour participant standpoints)	Practicality (e.g., researchers collect data by “what works” to address research question)
Axiology (What is the role of values?)	Unbiased (e.g., researchers use checks to eliminate bias)	Biased (e.g., researchers actively talk about and use their personal biases and interpretations)	Based on human rights and social justice for all (e.g., researchers begin with and advocate for this premise)	Multiple stances (e.g., researcher include biased and unbiased perspectives)
Methodology (What are the procedures and the	Deductive (e.g., researchers test on a	Inductive (e.g., researchers start with participants’ views and build	Participatory (e.g., researchers involve participants in	Combining (e.g., researchers collect both quantitative

Philosophical Question	Post positivism	Constructivism	Transformative	Pragmatism (this study)
process of research?)	priori theory)	“up” to patterns, theories, and interpretations)	all stages of the research and engage in cyclical reviews of results)	and qualitative data and mix them)
Rhetoric (What is the language of research?)	Formal style (e.g., researchers use agreed-upon definitions of variables)	Informal style (e.g., researchers write in a literary, informal style)	Advocacy, activist-orientated (e.g., researchers use language that will help bring about change and advocate for human rights and social justice)	Formal or informal (e.g., researchers may employ both formal and informal styles of writing)

Source: Creswell and Plano Clark (2018)

The first worldview used in this study, a postpositivist perspective, argues that practical assumptions about the phenomenon by relating empirical observations with deductive logic can be made (Bryman & Cramer, 2005). Post positivists typically regard science as based on several contingencies, and explore the contingencies to understand social reality (Bhattacharjee, 2012). In line with the various dimensions of a post positivists philosophy.

- Ontologically, the researcher took a singular reality perspective seeking to understand the nature of reality from a Kwaden Group perspective.
- Epistemologically, the researcher was distant and impartial and collected quantitative data from an online questionnaire survey, practically accessible to Kwaden Group employees.

- Methodologically, deductive data analysis was completed to empirically test the data, discussed later in chapter 5.

The second worldview used in this study, which is included within the pragmatism philosophy, a constructivist perspective, suggests that participants provide their understanding regarding the phenomenon of inquiry which leads to inductive reasoning and the adoption of qualitative research methods (Denzin, 2012).

- Ontologically, the researcher transcribed the views and opinions regarding their nature of reality from participants in the interviews held with key decision-makers in the Kwaden Group.
- Epistemologically, the researcher met with the interview participants on the company premise to understand their reality.
- Methodically, the researcher flowered an inductive thematic process to analyse and establish themes and patterns from the participant feedback discussed later in chapter 6.

The objectives of the mixed-methods approach are to interweave quantitative and qualitative methods, where the researcher aims to understand both worlds: the structured and more objective overall findings from statistics, as well as detailed, in-depth descriptions of views and emotions gathered from the qualitative findings (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018).

4.2.1. Theoretical lens

A theoretical lens operates at a narrower perspective than a philosophy (Crotty, 1998). A theoretical lens is the overall explanation of what the researcher believes in discovering from a study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018).

This study took an integral, All Quadrant, All Levels (AQAL) (Wilber, 2005) approach, which considers leadership levels, lines, states, stages, types and quadrants, from individual, collective, exterior and interior perspectives. While contexts may vary, this integral approach appreciates that leadership inevitably includes will, body, mind, emotions, and spirit and considers multilevel, longitudinal, and social network perspectives in the contexts in which they manifest. Therefore, it fits well with the

various aspects of the research problem and the study to address the research problem.

The AQAL lens applied in this study perceives that leadership incorporates the individual, who has a simple, yet holistic approach, which includes mind, heart, body, spirit, and free will (e.g., choices) yet is governed by social, economic and natural principles.

4.3. Research design

Research approaches are broadly classified into two categories, namely quantitative and qualitative methods, and when combined, referred to as mixed-methods (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018).

In a mixed-methods approach, researchers take multiple perspectives and thus, multiple methods of data collection are used to inform the problems and orientated toward 'what works' in real-world practice (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018, p. 37). A mixed-methods approach provides an intuitive way of conducting research and provides new insights that go beyond separate quantitative and qualitative results (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Greene (2007) suggests that mixed-methods research provides 'multiple ways of seeing and hearing' (p. 20), and therefore offers multiple ways to address a research problem which provides the researcher with new knowledge that is more than the sum of the two parts (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018).

The pragmatist philosophy adopted in this study requires quantitative and qualitative research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018).

Table 4.3. provides an overview summary of the differences between quantitative and qualitative research.

Table 4.3 Differences between a quantitative and qualitative study

Quantitative study	Qualitative study
Take an objective, separate view towards the participants in a study and their context	Become generally concerned with participants in the study, to the extent of revealing perspectives and adopting a caring attitude
Study populations or samples that characterise a populace	Study cases
Study actions and observe beliefs	Assess values that people create and other internal experiences
Assess individual behaviour in a natural or unnatural context	Study human action in natural settings
Analyse social reality in terms of variables	Make general observations concerning the context in which social experience is composed
Use preconceived concepts and theories to determine what information will be obtained. Produce numerical information to present the social situation	Determine concepts following data collection and analysis. Create verbal and graphic information to denote the social situation
Apply statistical methods to examine information	Apply analytic induction to examine information
Apply statistical deduction techniques to generalise results from sample to defined population	Generalise results by searching for other similar instances

Quantitative study	Qualitative study
Make objective accounts of research conclusions	Prepare accounts that reflect the researcher's interpretations of the information so that readers will form their constructs from what is reported

Source: Gall, Borg, and Gall (1996)

In this study, the researcher used both quantitative and qualitative research methodologies, known as mixed-methods research. In mixed-methods research, three core typologies exist, namely: (1) convergent designs; (2) explanatory sequential designs; and (3) exploratory designs (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018).

This study required that the qualitative results would further explain the initial quantitative results regarding the deductive analysis of a conceptual model for leadership skills development. As a result, this study took an explanatory sequential design typology which started by conducting a quantitative stage and following up on the results with a qualitative stage, as shown in Figure 4.2.

Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) suggest an explanatory sequential design when: (1) the researcher knows the critical variables and has access to quantitative tools for measuring the constructs of interest; (2) the researcher can meet with participants for a second round of qualitative data collection; and (3) the researcher has limited resources (perhaps the sole investigator) and requires a design where only one type of data is being collected and analysed at a time.

In this study, the researcher: (1) provided the critical variables as informed by a conceptual model for leadership skills development discussed in chapter 2 and chapter 3 and had access to quantitative tools for measuring the constructs; (2) had access to Kwaden Group employees; and (3) had limited resources in that the researcher was the sole person collecting and analysing the research data.

Based on the explanatory sequential design criteria mentioned by Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) and the context and situation of the researcher, it seems reasonable to suggest an explanatory sequential mixed-methods design is appropriate for the study.

The procedural steps for an explanatory sequential mixed-methods design comprise of four-steps, as shown in Figure 4.2.



Figure 4.2 Explanatory sequential mixed-methods design process

Source: Researcher adapted from Creswell and Plano Clark (2018)

In the first step, the researcher designs and implements a quantitative approach that includes collecting and analysing quantitative data. During the second step, the researcher connects to a second stage (the point of integration for mixing) by determining specific quantitative results that suggest additional explanation and applying these findings to determine the development of the qualitative strand. At this point, the researcher refines and develops the qualitative research questions, the sampling procedures, and the data collection procedures so that they follow from the quantitative results. Therefore, generally, the qualitative strand is connected to and depends on the quantitative results. In the third step, the researcher executes the qualitative stage by collecting and analysing qualitative data. Finally, the researcher interprets to what degree and in what ways the qualitative findings explain and provide insight into the quantitative results, and what overall is discovered in response to the research purpose (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018).

There are two points in this study where integration occurred. Firstly, integration occurred between the quantitative data analysis in the first stage of the research and the qualitative data collection in the second stage. Quantitative research presents statistical results underpinned by numerical data (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Thomas (2014) suggests that quantitative results follow a deductive approach with the

fundamental aim of verifying relationships between measurable variables, whereas qualitative research is primarily inductive and focuses more on data as a descriptive narrative to understand a social view from participants' perspectives (Thomas, 2014). Secondly, after the qualitative phase was complete, the researcher integrated the two sets of associated results and drew a unified conclusion regarding how the qualitative results clarified and extended specific quantitative results (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018).

Some scholars query the paradigmatic foundations of mixed-methods research, while others believe that one paradigm should not be considered being better than another (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Instead, researchers find that quantitative and qualitative approaches can combine to build on their 'complementary strengths and weaknesses' (Shannon-Baker, 2016, p. 320).

4.4. Research methods

Experiment, survey, case study, grounded theory, ethnography and archival research methods exist (Saunders & Tosey, 2012). In this study, the case study approach was used as a specific case, namely an in-depth study, was done on a leadership skills development model for the Kwaden Group. Oosthuizen and Botha (2009) suggest that a case study may comprise form of quantitative and qualitative inquiry, which incorporates with in-depth analysis of a phenomenon. Leedy and Ormrod (2014) elaborate by suggesting that in a case study a particular individual, program or event is studied in depth. Henning (2003) specified further that many case study methods include both quantitative and qualitative procedures for acquiring data in order to portray a better image of the phenomenon of inquiry. McMillan and Schumacher (2010) argue that whether the term system, event or case is being applied, the importance is on a single instance of something or a single entity, not on methodology. Therefore, a case study can be quantitative and/or qualitative. A case study concerns an in-depth and detailed study of a subject (the case), as well as its related contextual conditions.

In this research, an in-depth study was done to develop a leadership skills development model for the Kwaden Group. This was based on a quantitative research method, where the results were used to assist with further questions during the

interviews, as a qualitative research method of an explanatory sequential mixed-methods design.

4.5. Quantitative strand

4.5.1. Introduction

The quantitative strand presents the methods used to combine empirical observations with deductive reasoning (Bryman & Cramer, 2005). The quantitative strand covers the conceptualisation and operationalisation of a conceptual model for leadership skills development (as discussed in chapter 3), the model measurement design and development, the data collection, data analysis, and data validity. The quantitative section concludes with the data reliability of a leadership skills development model for the Kwaden Group, a case in the African FMCG sector.

4.5.2. Conceptualisation

In postpositivist practice, measurement begins with conceptualisation (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) suggest that conceptualisation is the theoretical task of defining what the researcher will be measuring, and generally, social scientists are concerned with measuring constructs.

Constructs are attributes that have been conceptualised in a language which has been theoretically elaborated in terms of how they are related to other constructs (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). A construct is a theoretical concept used to explain a given phenomenon (Bhattacharjee, 2012). It incorporates more straightforward concepts, particularly when the view one means to express is not exactly subject to examination (Cooper & Emory, 1995; Peterson, 2014). Peterson (2014) argues that constructs, irrespective of the way that they are conceptualised, are not empirically real and are typically described in terms of a diagram, model, or a conceptual expression used to explain the fact.

Terre Blanche et al. (2006) argue that conceptual definitions typically derive from scholarly literature and that a good conceptual definition ensures the attribute being measured has a sound theoretical grounding. Mouton (2011) describes

conceptualisation as the procedure when the meaning of a concept is explained during the deductive cause of its basic meaning.

The conceptualisation of leadership constructs originated from the idea that leadership is not a clearly evident human trait, and as a result, should, be regarded as attributes comprising of several aspects or dimensions.

As conceptualisation is the first stage of measurement, it is vital that the researcher develops a theoretical and conceptual definition of the construct that matches the attribute to be measured (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). The conceptual definitions concern the conceptual leadership skills development model as discussed in chapter 3 (see Table 3.2).

Table 4.4 provides the conceptual definitions for the six leadership constructs – a definition in abstract theoretical terms of the attribute being measured.

Table 4.4 Construct conceptual definitions

Leadership constructs	Conceptual definition
1. Choices	Decision-making intelligence
2. Principles	Decision-making foundations
3. Mental	Mental intelligence
4. Emotional	Emotional intelligence
5. Physical	Physical intelligence
6. Spiritual	Spiritual intelligence

Source: Researcher

In this study, the researcher completed an extensive review of leadership (chapter 2) and leadership development (chapter 3) theory in an attempt to ensure that the attributes being measured have theoretical grounding. Terre Blanche and Durrheim

(1999) suggests that following the conceptual definition of a construct, an operational definition should follow.

4.5.3. Operationalisation

Following the conceptual definitions of the leadership constructs, the researcher established operational definitions that define the constructs in terms of specific operations and measurement instruments and procedures which can be observed (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999).

An operationalisation definition translates the linguistic meaning of the conceptual definition into observable indicators of the construct (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Cooper and Emory (1995) state that operational clarity must be explained in terms of precise assessment standards or operations. That these terms or definitions should include empirical dimensions that can be measured or counted (Cooper & Emory, 1995). The principle is that the construct operational definition corresponds with the construct conceptual definition (Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

Table 4.5 presents the operational definitions relating to the six leadership constructs of the conceptual model for leadership skills development.

Table 4.5 Construct conceptual and operational definitions

Leadership constructs	Conceptual definition	Operationalisation definition
1. Choices	Decision-making intelligence	The ability to make decisions based on a set of principles
2. Principles	Decision-making foundations	The ability to understand the rules and standards of social, economic, and natural laws
3. Mental	Mental intelligence	The ability to think, learn, teach, and self-awareness

Leadership constructs	Conceptual definition	Operationalisation definition
4. Emotional	Emotional intelligence	The ability to perceive, use, understand and manage emotions
5. Physical	Physical intelligence	The ability to manage stress, nutrition, and cardiovascular well-being
6. Spiritual	Spiritual intelligence	The ability to act according to principles

Source: Researcher

The word “intelligence” in the conceptual definition, operationally means “knowledge, skills and abilities”.

Attributes which require measurement are first translated into a conceptual construct, which is then translated into observable indicators of the construct either by scales or indexes (Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

Scale construction is an essential feature of measurement in social science and is created to measure knowledge, attitudes and beliefs, sentiments and judgements (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Terre Blanche et al. (2006) state that a scale is a measure of a construct containing one or more indicators of the construct that aggregate into a score depicting the intensity, direction, and level of potency of the variable being measured. The measurement design and development process are discussed next.

4.5.4. Measurement design and development

Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) suggest that measurement design consists of rules for assigning numeric values to objects in such a way as to represent quantities of attributes. The design of the measurement instruments in this study had to address the perceived importance of the dimensions and attributes of the six leadership constructs.

Considering the research problem involved information concerning attitudes and perceptions in the Kwaden Group, it was resolved that primary data would be gathered. The researcher followed Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) procedural steps used to conduct a typical two-phase explanatory mixed-methods design. Mouton (2011) believes surveys are appropriate in situations where:

1. A general summary of a typical section of a substantial population exists;
2. Primary information is applied; and
3. The descriptive view is taken – all of which apply to this study.

Questionnaires typically assess the attitudes and interests of respondents according to their feelings, preferences or experiences (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Surveys are organised questionnaires which can be managed in ways such as by electronic means via email, and face-to-face interviews. Bhattacharjee (2012) described questionnaire surveys as a set of questions where answers from the participants are provided in a consistent way.

Survey questionnaires are typically structured or unstructured. Structured questions require participants to pick a response from a set of options, while unstructured questions require participants to provide an answer in their own words. Participants' answers to specific questions in a structured survey questionnaire can be grouped into a composite scale for statistical examination. Participants' response to unstructured questions is typically understood using thematic analysis. Questions should be designed that participants can understand and answer them in a meaningful way (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999; Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

When developing the electronic questionnaire survey, the researcher took the following into account (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Cooper & Emory, 1995; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018; Leedy & Ormrod, 2014; Mouton, 2011; Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999):

1. Strengths: The ability to access many participants; an economic process; an ability to ensure anonymity; and the ability to generalise across large populations; and
2. Weaknesses and limitations: possible low response rate; excluding valuable questions; and the possibility of misunderstanding of the questions.

Following the conceptualisation and operationalisation of the six constructs of the conceptual model for leadership skills development, the researcher developed a questionnaire survey. The questions aimed to evaluate the constructs of the conceptual model for leadership skills development.

The questionnaire consisted of the following sections:

1. Research project overview;
2. Informed consent; and
3. Leadership question evaluation:
 - 3.1. Choices construct: three questions;
 - 3.2. Principles construct: three questions;
 - 3.3. Mental construct: three questions;
 - 3.4. Emotional construct: three questions;
 - 3.5. Physical construct: three questions; and
 - 3.6. Spiritual construct: three questions.

In the development and assessment of the structured questionnaire, the researcher deliberated the guidelines and risks detailed in Table 4.9.

Table 4.6 Guideline and risks during the development and assessment of structured questionnaires

Guideline and Risks	Source
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The risk of long, double-barrel questionnaires • The significance of the general design and question sequence 	Bhattacharjee (2012) Mouton (2011)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The risk of not determining how coding will be conducted in the design stage • The value of giving participants context 	Leedy and Ormrod (2014)

Guideline and Risks	Source
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The risk associated with the assumption of the participants' interpretation of terms 	Cooper and Emory (1995)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The risk of several questionnaire submissions 	Bhattacharjee (2012)

Source: Researcher

Checklists, rating scales, and ranking scales are techniques typically used to evaluate and quantify complex phenomena (Cooper & Emory, 1995; Leedy & Ormrod, 2014). Furthermore, Bhattacharjee (2012) and Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) suggest the subsequent scale formats are generally applied in structured questions concerning social science studies:

- Ordinal scale: when there are more than two ordered possibilities (e.g., the Likert-type scale) and no equal space amongst options is assumed;
- Nominal scale: when participants are required to choose one of two or more potential unordered options;
- Interval-level scale: when participants have more than two ordered options and equal space amongst them; and
- Ratio scale: includes all the attributes of ordinal scales, nominal scales, and interval scales and, includes a “true zero” value.

In this study, ordinal scales were applied to obtain response selections. Scales were developed to measure, *inter alia*, the knowledge, beliefs, attitudes, judgements, and sentiments concerning the six constructs of the conceptual leadership skills development model. Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) state that a scale measures the intensity, direction, level of potency of the variable being measured. Three questions relating to each of the six constructs were used as the scales.

Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) suggest ordinal measures indicate categories that are both (1) distinct from each other, and (2) ranked or ordered in terms of an attribute. There are various kinds of rating scale formats, however Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) suggest the Likert scale format is generally the most used approach. In this

study, the subsequent Likert-type response design was applied in the ordinal-scaled statements, although only not important (coded 1) and very important (coded 7) were labelled:

- Not important (coded 1);
- Largely unimportant (2);
- Unimportant (3);
- Neutral (4);
- Important (5);
- Relatively important (6); and
- Very important (coded 7).

Sturgis, Roberts, and Smith (2014) suggest most attitude survey measures generally aim to establish the course of the assessment and its strength; a neutral alternative was provided as the middle of the response scale considers genuinely neutral opinions.

Next, the researcher evaluated the questionnaire with the Kwaden Group Chairman, the Kwaden Group Training and Development Business Partner, the Kwaden Group Human Resource (HR) Executive, and the research promotor. Feedback regarding the questionnaire length of eighteen questions, i.e., three questions concerning each of the six constructs, and the questionnaire clarity were all deemed relevant and appropriate. The questions originated from leadership theory associated with dimensions and attributes pertaining to each construct in the conceptual model for leadership skills development. The questionnaire was then adapted into an electronic format (the Google Forms online application) by the researcher (Annexure A).

The electronic questionnaire was designed to ensure each question had to be answered refuting the risk of neglecting questions. Also, as the online survey was to be concluded incognito (besides the participant's informed consent – Annexure E and F), so the risk of prejudice (if the survey was not secret) offset the risk of multiple-submissions, and furthermore, participants were not incentivised to complete the questionnaire. The last activity in the measurement development stage was to perform a pre-test.

Pre-testing must be done to identify limitations in the measurement instrument and in the data collection and analysis procedure (Cooper & Emory, 1995). As a pre-test, the online survey link to the questionnaire was emailed to three people (two were not part of the target population but had knowledge in scholarly research) with an explicit appeal to detect any issues concerning access to the questionnaire, clearness of the research instructions, question clarity, accessibility, and time taken to complete the online survey.

The three people partook in the pre-test and stated survey completion times within 15 minutes, and that no further concerns about the survey were mentioned. The researcher established that all three participant questionnaire results reflected in the Google database, and subsequently deleted their data.

4.5.5. Data collection

The research sampling method followed three steps:

1. Target population establishment;
2. Selecting a sampling frame; and
3. Actual sampling.

The target population concerns the *what* of the research; the method, entity, event or phenomenon the researcher is concerned with (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Mouton, 2011).

The researcher selected the Kwaden Group as the target population. However, the target population was further refined to employees who had a company email address and thus had access to email to practically complete the survey; Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) suggest that sample size calculation must consider practical constraints.

A sampling frame concerns a group of the target population (Diamantopoulos & Schlegelmilch, 2000) with an available selection from which a sample can be used (Bhattacharjee, 2012). In this study, all the Kwaden Group employees with a Kwaden Group email address were selected. As the Gatekeeper, the Kwaden Group Chairman authorised the researcher to email the questionnaire to all employees in the Kwaden Group (Annexure C).

Sampling is a method of choosing a section of the target population to make comments and statistical conclusions about that population. The said population can typically be arranged into two groups: (1) probability (random) sampling group, and (2) non-probability sampling group (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Leedy & Ormrod, 2014). Leedy and Ormrod (2014) explained non-probability sampling as a condition when the researcher will not be able to allocate a likelihood to each section of the target population to be incorporated in the sample.

Consequently, three types of non-probability sampling are defined:

1. Convenience sampling;
2. Purposive sampling; and
3. Quota sampling.

Convenience sampling concerns the method where a sample is taken from that section of the population that is readily available, accessible, and close at hand (Bhattacharjee, 2012). The approach in this study can, therefore, be considered non-probability-convenience sampling as all people with a Kwaden Group company email address were targeted.

An email invitation to partake in the study (Annexure A) was emailed to the Kwaden Group email address, which comprised 331 email accounts. The email included a brief note from the Kwaden Group Chairman encouraging participation in the study. Leedy and Ormrod (2014) suggest the following points to improve the rate of response of the survey, and the following points were employed:

- Timing: holiday times were considered, and as the intent was to send reminders, no cut-off date for survey completion time were provided;
- First impression: the questionnaire was designed to incorporate the Kwaden Group branding, and the cover letter and the content was concise; and
- Motivate: a succinct overview with the aim and value of the study was given.

While 331 questionnaire email invitations were emailed to the Kwaden Group, the researcher discovered that some individuals had more than one email address (where an individual had two or more Kwaden email addresses). Furthermore, some email

addresses were no longer valid as some people had left the Kwaden Group, but their email address was still active.

The researcher worked systematically through each email address to remove individuals with duplicate email addresses and worked with HR to establish who still worked for the Kwaden Group. As a result, the researcher established that 30 email invitations were either duplicates or the email addresses were inactive, and thus, the total population amounted to a maximum of 301 participants. Over ten weeks, one hundred and thirty-two (132) replies were collected resulting in a 43.9% rate of response. Further discussion on sampling adequacy follows.

4.5.6. Data analysis

In this study, the statistical examination was performed by the Statistical Consultation Services of the North-West University (Potchefstroom campus) utilising the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (IBM SPSS/AMOS Statistics Version 25) and comprised of descriptive and multivariate procedures (Annexure C).

Descriptive and inferential statistics are generally used when assessing quantitative information and survey questionnaires (Bryman & Cramer, 2005). Descriptive statistics summarise experience, while inferential statistics go beyond what has been observed in order to make predictions about what is likely to happen in the future (Behr, 1983).

Descriptive statistics concerns summarising and describing a sample quantitatively and allows the researcher to determine trends and assets of the information by examining one variable (univariate analysis), two variables (bivariate analysis), or multiple variables (multivariate analysis) (Behr, 1983; Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999; Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

Descriptive statistical methods applied in this research were as follows:

- Frequencies: (shown by the symbol f) is a statistical description which indicates a direct frequency total of the number of times a certain response of variable transpires in every category (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999);

- Percentage: the number of participants who replied to a question in a certain way, recorded as a percentage (Behr, 1983). Leedy and Ormrod (2014) note that the application of a percentage has two objectives in data analysis:
 - The data is simplified; and,
 - Comparisons between large sets of data are provided.
- Mean: Behr (1983) explains the mean as a gauge of central tendency most frequently used, obtained by tallying all the amounts in distribution and dividing it by the number of observations; and
- Standard deviation: determines the extent to which the data varies from the average information value of the population. The standard deviation enables scholars to establish the sum of difference that exists amongst participants and the mean (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999).

Inferential statistics has two primary objectives:

1. To estimate population parameters; and,
2. Test hypotheses (Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) note that hypotheses are calculated estimates of expectations about variances between groups in the population or about relationships among variables. Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) note that inferential statistics comprise two broad categories, namely:

1. Parametric tests; and,
2. Non-parametric tests.

This study followed non-parametric statistical techniques as the focus of the research was on the order and ranking of ordinal scales (distinct and ranked) (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999; Terre Blanche et al., 2006). While parametric techniques might be considered more authoritative, Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) argue that parametric and non-parametric results often yield very similar results.

The following data analysis techniques are used in this study:

4.5.6.1. Leadership survey

The leadership survey followed a descriptive statistics univariate analysis to determine, describe and summarise the results from the questionnaire.

To ensure the questionnaire results were comparable, a multivariate, multiple regression analysis was followed to standardise the variables (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Terre Blanche et al. (2006) note that the regression coefficients based on standardised variables are called beta coefficients and provide a rough indication of the relative contributions of each variable in the regression equation.

Beta coefficients indicate how 'important' each of the independent variables is (Bryman & Cramer, 2005; Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999, p. 372). The standardised regression weights analysis provides an indication of the relative contributions of each variable in the regression equation.

4.5.6.2. Construct correlations

Several statistical methods provide the ability to address complexity and inter-relatedness under the heading multivariate data procedures (Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

Univariate statistics consider one variable at a time, whereas multivariate statistics considers several variables simultaneously, or more precisely, that consider variables in conjunction with other variables (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999).

Multivariate approaches can be broken down into three methods, namely:

1. Cluster analysis: an attempt to introduce a classification of objects where none existed before the analysis;
2. Factor analysis: a method applied to determine a moderately small number of factors used to characterise the correlation between sets of multiple interconnected variables; and
3. Multidimensional scaling: aims to reduce a broad set of variables by establishing dimensions that statistically underlie the variables – appropriate for

simplification of complexity. (Bryman & Cramer, 2005; Leedy & Ormrod, 2014; Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999; Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

Multivariate procedures are useful for modelling complex phenomena; Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) state that the most critical method is multiple regression. Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) suggest that multiple regression is the process of examining the separate and collective contributions of several independent variables to the variation of a dependent variable.

In this study, multiple regression analysis was used to explain the strength of the construct-to-construct correlations and to determine how meaningful they are.

4.5.6.3. Conceptual model-fit

The requirement for concepts rests in the desire to order unordered practises (Holton & Lowe, 2007). In the social sciences, a concept might be deemed a method for justifying a set of actions that determines and concerns several aspects that are noticeable in the behaviour. Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) argue that theories are general truth statements that researchers put to the empirical test by deriving hypotheses about observations. The purpose for this modelling is that the world is generally so multifaceted that it typically needs to be conceptually abridged to understand it.

To further address the research problem, validation of the conceptual model for leadership skills development was required.

A multivariate Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) technique was followed in this study as a CFA is a theory-testing approach as opposed to a theory-generating approach (Stapleton, 1997). In CFA, the researcher begins with a hypotheses or conceptual model, in this case, a conceptual model for leadership skills development, and specifies which variables will be correlated with which factors and which factors correlated. Ullman (2006) notes that once the subject of concern is multifaceted and multidimensional, a CFA is the one assessment that offers concurrent tests on all the correlations in a theorised framework or model. CFA, consequently, supports a level of examination to be fit with the level of theory, as CFA can test the hypothesis at a

factor or construct level. Wunsch, Mouchart, and Russo (2014) suggests CFA is usually applied in social science research and practice. Stapleton (1997) suggests a CFA provides the researcher a more viable method for evaluating construct validity and that the researcher is able to explicitly test a hypotheses concerning the factor structure of the data having a predetermined conceptual model, specifying the number and composition of the factors. In CFA, the measure of *influence* instead of the cause-and-effect association is considered and explained (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010)

Confirmatory methods, following the specification of the *priori* factors, seek to optimally match the observed and theoretical factor structures for a given data set in order to determine the “goodness of fit” of the predetermined factor model (Stapleton, 1997, p. 7). Hancock and Mueller (2010) suggest three data model-fit assessments to establish if the level of variance and covariance in the information is coherent with the theorised model described in the research. In this study, the conceptual model for leadership skills development was measured with the following three data-model fit tests:

4.5.6.3.1. Absolute indices

The Minimum Sample Discrepancy divided by Degrees of Freedom (CMIN/DF) analysis was used to determine the general discrepancy concerning observed and implied covariance matrices which result in a model-fit indicator.

4.5.6.3.2. Incremental indices

The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) analysis assessed absolute or parsimonious fit relative to a baseline model to determine an overall model-fit.

4.5.6.3.3. Parsimonious indices

The Root Mean Square Error Approximation (RMSEA) analysis evaluated the general difference concerning observed and implied covariance matrices to determine an overall model-fit.

4.5.7. Data validity

Validity draws attention to what extent a measure measures the concept that it claims to measure (Bryman & Cramer, 2005). The validity of a measurement instrument

concerns its adeptness to expose the actual variances between respondent's feedback (Cooper & Emory, 1995) and the degree to which it assesses what it has planned to measure, and can take many forms (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014).

For validity, the researcher must establish whether the measurement instrument provides a reliable operational definition of the construct and whether the instrument is suited to the purposes for which it was used (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Terre Blanche et al. (2006) and Leedy and Ormrod (2014) state that testing the validity of measures is typically associated with three kinds of measurement validity:

1. Face validity
2. Content validity, and
3. Construct validity.

4.5.7.1. Face validity

Face validity criteria concerns the degree to which, on the surface, an instrument appears to measures specific characteristics (Bryman & Cramer, 2005; Leedy & Ormrod, 2014). The survey questionnaire instrument's face validity was reviewed in the pre-testing phase in conjunction with three informed people mentioned earlier in the chapter.

4.5.7.2. Content validity

Content validity concerns the degree to which the instrument is characterises the aspects of the topic being assessed (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). The literature review (chapter 2 and chapter 3) and the measurement development procedure (described earlier in this chapter) were followed to provide utmost content validity. Bhattacharjee (2012), Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999), and Leedy and Ormrod (2014) suggest employing experienced individuals in the area of inquiry to assess the validity of the instrument. As discussed earlier, the researcher consulted with informed individuals during the creation of the survey questionnaire.

4.5.7.3. Construct validity

Construct validity concerns the degree to which an instrument measures an attribute that is difficult to observe yet is expected to occur based on actions (Bryman & Cramer, 2005; Leedy & Ormrod, 2014; Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). The conceptualisation of a leadership skills development model and its formative constructs, dimensions and attributes were introduced earlier in this chapter. Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999); Terre Blanche et al. (2006) state the construct validation involves three steps, namely:

1. Specify a set of theoretical relationships between constructs;
2. Empirically test the hypotheses (CFA); and
3. Interpret the pattern of relationship in terms of how the construct validity of the measure is clarified.

4.5.7.4. Conceptual model-fit validity

While unassessed models might fit the data as well or even better, an accepted model is merely a not-disconfirmed model (Hancock & Mueller, 2010).

In this study, the researcher adhered to the following CFA techniques, generally based on Hancock and Mueller (2010) recommended phases.

Firstly, an original model specification: during this phase, theories strengthening the conceptual model must be described. In this study, a comprehensive review of the literature (chapter 2 and chapter 3) was the basis from which the conceptual leadership skills development model was proposed. After that, the researcher discussed the measurement and design of the conceptual model for leadership skills development.

Secondly, a data-model fit assessment: in this study, the researcher followed Hancock and Mueller (2010) suggested the three data-model fit indices, one for each of the following three classes:

4.5.7.4.1. Absolute indices

As the Chi-square assessment is generally perceived as a too rigorous model fit statistic, given its ability to identify minor differences from the conceptualised model (Hancock & Mueller, 2010), Hancock and Mueller (2010) recommend that the Chi-square assessment statistic be divided by degrees of freedom (CMIN/DF) to determine the model fit validity (Mueller, 1996).

4.5.7.4.2. Incremental indices

Mueller (1996) suggests that CFI values greater than 0.9 be considered indicative of an exact model-fit.

4.5.7.4.3. Parsimonious indices

Models with RMSEA results of 0.10 and larger are not accepted as an overall model-fit (Blunch, 2008).

4.5.8. Data reliability

Reliability concerns the consistency and accuracy with which a measurement instrument returns a constant outcome when the object being evaluated has not changed (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014). Bryman and Cramer (2005) note that reliability is the degree to which a measurement instrument is exempt from casual and systematic errors. Reliability is typically a contributor but not enough for validity (Cooper & Emory, 1995). A consistent, dependable instrument works best at various times and circumstances. The idiosyncrasy of time and circumstance concerns the foundation for the reliability perspective of:

1. Stability: coherent findings with the recurring measurement with the identical participant;
2. Equivalence: error ascribable to multiple examiners; and
3. Internal consistency: the extent to which the instrument objects are consistent and reproduce the original construct.

Given the method taken in this study, the reliability attribute of internal consistency was taken. To establish internal consistency reliability concerning the constructs,

Cronbach's alpha coefficients were assessed for each construct as a technique of determining the reliability amongst the constructs (Cooper & Emory, 1995; Field, 2009).

Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) suggest Cronbach's alpha coefficient – a value that varies from 0 (no internal consistency) to 1 (maximum internal consistency) – is the most common estimate. Although an acceptable internal consistency varies on what is being measured, "Kline (2009) notes that although the generally accepted value of 0.8 is appropriate for cognitive tests such as intelligence tests, for ability tests, the cut-off point of 0.7 is more suitable. He goes on to say that when dealing with psychological constructs, values below even 0.7 can, realistically, be expected because of the diversity of the constructs being measured." (Field, 2009, p. 675).

4.6. Qualitative strand

4.6.1. Introduction

The primary intent of a mixed methods explanatory sequential design is for the qualitative phase to explain the initial quantitative results (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Furthermore, Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) suggest that the qualitative phase typically explores and elaborates on the results of the statistical tests from the quantitative phase.

The qualitative strand presents the methods used to combine empirical observations with inductive reasoning. The qualitative strand covers the study sample, the interview protocol development, alignment of both strands to answer the research questions, data collection and data analysis. The qualitative section concludes with data validity.

Characterised by its aim, qualitative research seeks to understand some aspects of social life, and its methods which generally generate words, as opposed to numbers, as data for analysis (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Qualitative research does not require a hypothesis to begin; it employs inductive data analysis to provide an enhanced understanding of the interaction of 'mutually shaping influences' and to explain the interacting experiences and realities of researcher and participant (Thomas, 2014).

4.6.2. Study sample

In this study, the researcher invited 14 'key decision-makers' in the Kwaden Group to participate in a one-on-one, face-to-face in-depth interview with the researcher at the location and context of their operation. Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999, p. 126) suggests that understanding human phenomena 'in context' is central to qualitative methodology, and researchers should make sense of the feelings, experiences, and social situations in their natural setting.

The sampling criteria for the qualitative strand of this study took into consideration (1) key-decision makers throughout (2) the Kwaden Group. The term 'key decision-makers' refers to the Kwaden Group directors who are ultimately responsible for the leadership of the organisations within the Group and likely the most informed. The sampling methodology for the qualitative strand of this study was purposeful sampling, where all 14 'key-decision makers' were invited to participate in the study.

Table 4.7 Depicts the participant composition sample.

Table 4.7 Composition of the sample

Kwaden company	Business Focus	No. of people
Simpex	Sales	2
Fairlane Agencies	Sales	1
SGX Sales	Sales	2
Process Sales	Sales	1
SXG Logistics	Logistics	3
Imana Foods	Manufacturing	1
Total		10

Source: Researcher

Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) propose that a case study sample size should be between 4 and 10 participants, and in this study, 10 of the 14-key decision-makers were willing and able to participate which is a response rate of 71.43%.

4.6.3. Interview development

In this study, the researcher developed the interview schedule early in the study, as the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) required that all questionnaires and interview schedules pass ethical clearance (Annexure F) prior to the commencement of primary data collection. Six open-end questions were developed to help achieve the research objectives.

The first three questions of the interview schedule (Annexure B) aimed to understand the leadership skills required by the Kwaden Group in the past, in the present, and in the future. The fourth question aimed to understand if leadership skills development should be offered at all levels of the Kwaden Group, i.e., for everyone. The fifth question aimed to understand the participant perspectives and feelings concerning how to develop leaders. The sixth and final question was aimed at understanding if there was anything else the participant wanted to include concerning leadership skills development in the Kwaden Group. These questions helped address the research objective to determine what leadership skills and leadership skills development requirements were required by the Kwaden Group.

The interview protocol was pilot tested on one participant, purposefully selected from those who had piloted the quantitative survey in the quantitative phase of the study. Consequently, the order of the questions was revised, and further probing questions were developed to address the research objectives.

4.6.4. Data collection

A comprehensive interview schedule was created to manage the interview process. A personalised online calendar meeting request was emailed to each participant to establish availability, as well as confirm participation. Due to availability and practicality, the interviews took place between November 2018 and February 2019 in Pinetown and New Germany, South Africa.

At the start of the interview process, the researcher provided a summary of the nature of the study for which they were being interviewed, stating the research title and research objectives. The researcher had had some business interactions with each participant which made the interview process fluid and honest as an element trust existed in the relationship.

The researchers' objective was to ensure the participant was comfortable in the hope that they would speak freely. To create a sense of comfort and promote free speech and openness, the researcher chose not to record the interview visually or audibly but instead took notes next to each of the open-ended questions during the interview process.

The researcher used a semi-structured approach towards the interviews. Six open-ended questions formed the basis of all interviews. Furthermore, the researcher encouraged participants to elaborate on their thoughts and feelings about their perspectives.

The interviews were typically conducted over the period of an hour, and after each interview, the researcher transcribed the notes into an electronic format while the notes and interview were still top of mind. An electronic copy of the notes was emailed to each participant for them to provide validation or amendment of what had been said. Of the ten transcripts emailed to the participants, only two were slightly amended.

4.6.5. Data analysis

The analysis was performed at two levels; using coding and thematic interpretation (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2003). Steps in the qualitative analysis included:

1. Familiarisation and immersion from an initial assessment of the data by reading the transcripts and writing down notes;
2. Coding the data by highlighting and labelling the text according to the six constructs from the conceptual leadership skills development model which were derived from the theory and informed by the research objectives;
3. Verifying the codes against the construct operational definitions;

4. Consolidating the data to validate and develop themes by aggregating similar codes together;
5. Linking and interrelating themes;
6. Forming a case study account comprised of descriptions and themes;
7. Interpretation of themes in relation to the theory; and
8. Cross-case thematic analysis.

The credibility of the findings was secured by triangulating multiple perspectives to interpret a single set of data, as well as that the research findings could be combined into a more macro analytical level of inference (Groenland & Dana, 2019; Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999; Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

4.6.6. Data validation

It is generally harder to ensure the trustworthiness of data collected in qualitative research, and thus Shenton (2004) proposes four criteria to warrant a trustworthy study, namely:

1. Credibility in relation to internal validity;
2. Transferability in relation to external validity;
3. Dependability in relation to validity; and
4. Conformability in relation to objectivity.

4.6.6.1. Credibility

The principle of credibility is that of internal validity which refers to the importance of the study testing or measuring what it intended. The approach taken in this study to advance credibility and confidence when collecting qualitative data were: the adoption of established research methods discussed earlier in this chapter, triangulation via the use of several perspectives, as well as having a familiarity with the culture of the participants and the organisation.

4.6.6.2. Transferability

External validity concerns the degree to which the findings in a study can be applied to other situations (Shenton, 2004; Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Transferability

within a qualitative study is not viable to demonstrate as the findings are specific to an environment. The results produced in this study are specific to the requirements of the Kwaden Group.

4.6.6.3. Dependability

The dependability of the research should be such that if the study happened to be replicated, in the identical environment, with the same techniques and with the identical participants, comparable outcomes would emerge (Shenton, 2004). The qualitative data obtained from participants is dependable as the participants validated the information via email correspondence, as well as the general feedback, which was similar.

4.6.6.4. Confirmability

For confirmability, triangulation should be applied to reduce the effect of investigator bias (Shenton, 2004; Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) suggest theory triangulation of qualitative data warrants the validity of data. In this study, the researcher applied theory triangulation where multiple perspectives were taken to interpret a single set of data.

4.7. Resume

This chapter discussed the research philosophy, design, and methodology used to assess the conceptual model for leadership skills development.

For the credibility of the findings from this research, it is essential to provide a comprehensive understanding of the philosophy, design, and methods applied during the research process.

The philosophy taken in this study was pragmatism. Firstly, comprising a postpositivist worldview and secondly, a constructivist worldview. The overarching research philosophy of pragmatism promotes the use of mixed methods in research. The research approach was explanatory sequential that combines quantitative and then qualitative research methods.

The quantitative data was collected via an online Google Forms survey questionnaire emailed to 301 employees in the Kwaden Group. The North-West University Statistical Consultation Services were contracted to ensure the validity and reliability of the quantitative data used. The information from the quantitative strand was then used to validate the constructs of the conceptual model for leadership skills development. Confirmatory factor analysis provides validation of the overall model-fit. Cronbach alpha coefficient provides construct reliability.

The qualitative data methods consisted of face-to-face, one-on-one, semi-structured interviews with key decision-makers in the Kwaden Group, a case in the African FMCG sector. The data analysis comprised of thematic interpretation and aimed to explore and elaborate on the results from the quantitative results. The validity of the qualitative data was assured by applying the four criteria used to ensure a trustworthy study, namely credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability (Shenton, 2004).

The following chapter presents the quantitative results and findings of the appropriateness of the leadership constructs within a conceptual model for leadership skills development in the Kwaden Group, as a case in the African FMCG sector.

5. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND FINDINGS

5.1. Introduction

The previous chapter described the research design and methodology to assess the conceptual model for leadership skills development for the Kwaden Group, as a case in the African FMCG industry. It also explained the research design and methodology of this two-stage explanatory sequential mixed methods, quantitative and qualitative study. In this chapter discussion concerns the quantitative results and findings of the appropriateness of the leadership constructs within a conceptual model for leadership skills development in the Kwaden Group, as a case in the African FMCG sector.

This chapter presents and explains the results and findings of the quantitative strand in this study. The chapter is structured as follows:

- Response rate;
- Descriptive statistics concerning the organisation, biographical, and the measurement instrument;
- Construct validity; and
- Construct reliability.

Descriptive statistics concerning the online survey questions are presented, and where applicable, include percentages, frequencies, means and standard deviations.

The inferential statistics methodology was described in the chapter 4, and the following results and findings concerning the conceptual model for leadership skills development are discussed:

- Construct importance; and
- Construct correlation.

Reliability was discussed in chapter 4. To establish the internal consistency reliability concerning the constructs, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were assessed and will be discussed.

The results and findings concerning the CFA data analysis applied to validate the conceptual data-model fit findings were calculated and are discussed later in this chapter.

5.2. Response rate

As discussed in chapter 4, the target population was identified as all Kwaden Group employees with an email address.

Of the 301 subjects emailed, 132 participated in the online questionnaire survey, which represents a 43.9% response rate.

5.3. Descriptive statistics

5.3.1. Organisational and biographical

This section depicts the descriptive statistics of both the organisational and biographical information concerning the participants from the quantitative phase of this study. The demographic details of the participants in this study are illustrated in Tables 5.1 to 5.6.

5.3.1.1. Age

Figure 5.1 depicts the age distribution results.

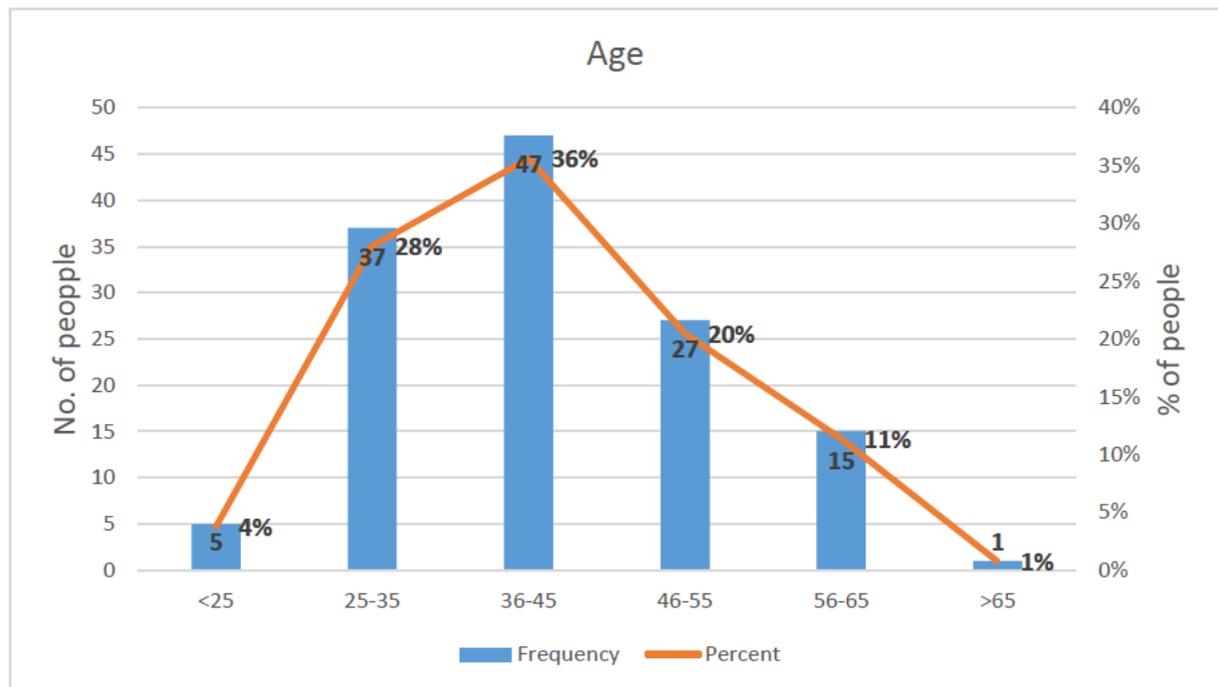


Figure 5.1 Clustered Column Chart: Age distribution

Source: Researcher

The age group with the highest population is the 36-45-year olds at 36% of the population. The second highest age group population is the 25-35-year olds at 28%. There is a small population of below 25 years old at 4%, and only 1% at over 65 years old.

5.3.1.2. Gender

Figure 5.2 depicts gender distribution results.

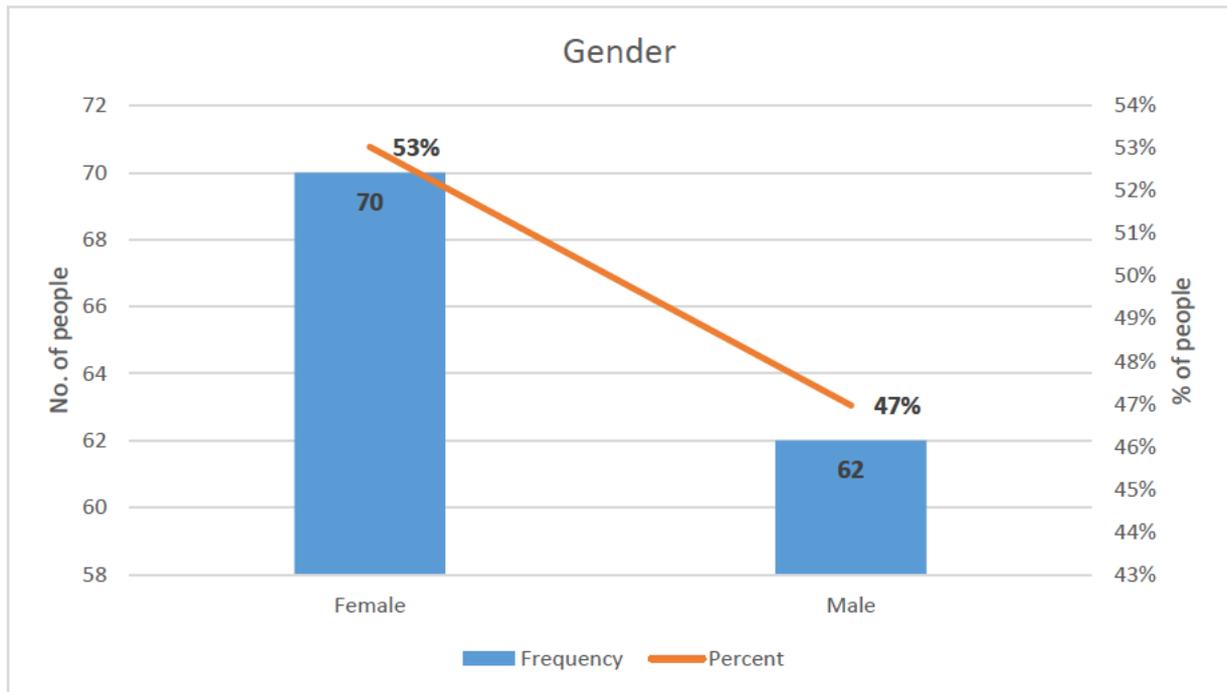


Figure 5.2 Clustered Column Chart: Gender distribution

Source: Researcher

The gender population is relatively equal, however there were slightly more female participants at 53% versus 47% of the male population.

5.3.1.3. Ethnicity

Figure 5.3 depicts the ethnicity distribution results.

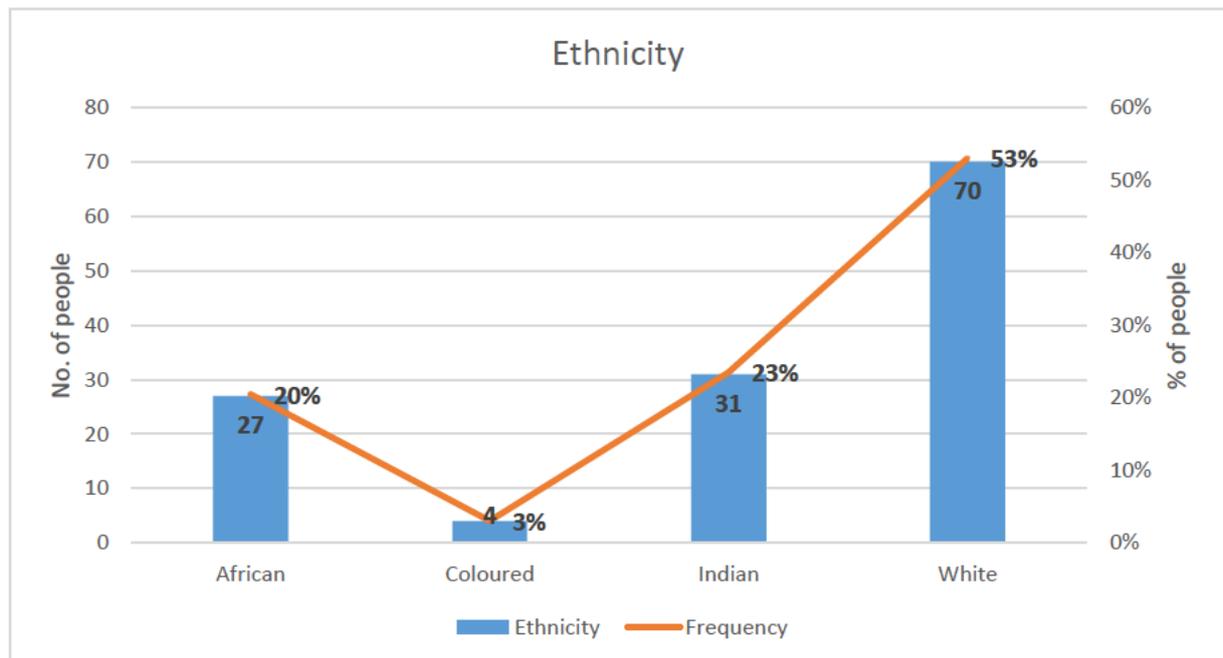


Figure 5.3 Clustered Column Chart: Ethnicity distribution

Source: Researcher

Whites represented most of the participant population at 53%. Indians represented the second highest ethnic group at 23%. Africans were the third highest at 20% and the coloured ethnic participant population at 3%.

5.3.1.4. Region

Figure 5.4 depicts the regional distribution results.

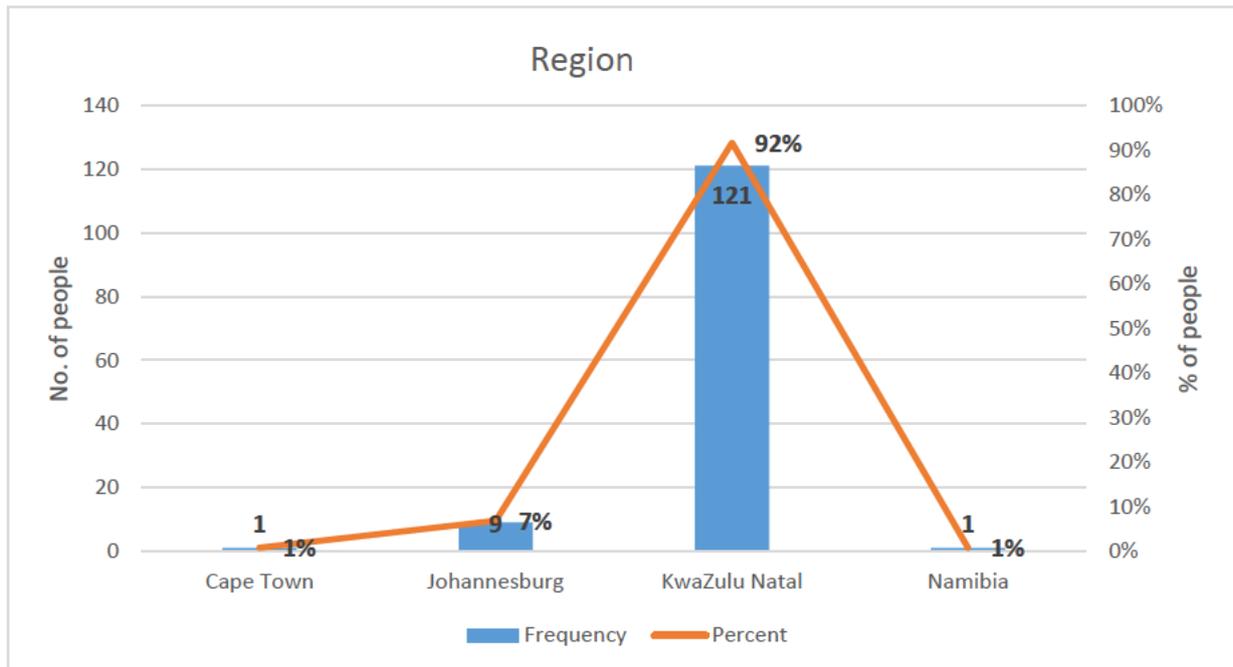


Figure 5.4 Clustered Column Chart: Regional distribution

Source: Researcher

Most of the participant population are from KwaZulu Natal contributing 92%. The balance of the participants representing Johannesburg, Cape Town, and Namibia.

5.3.1.5. Qualification

Figure 5.5 depicts the qualification distribution results.

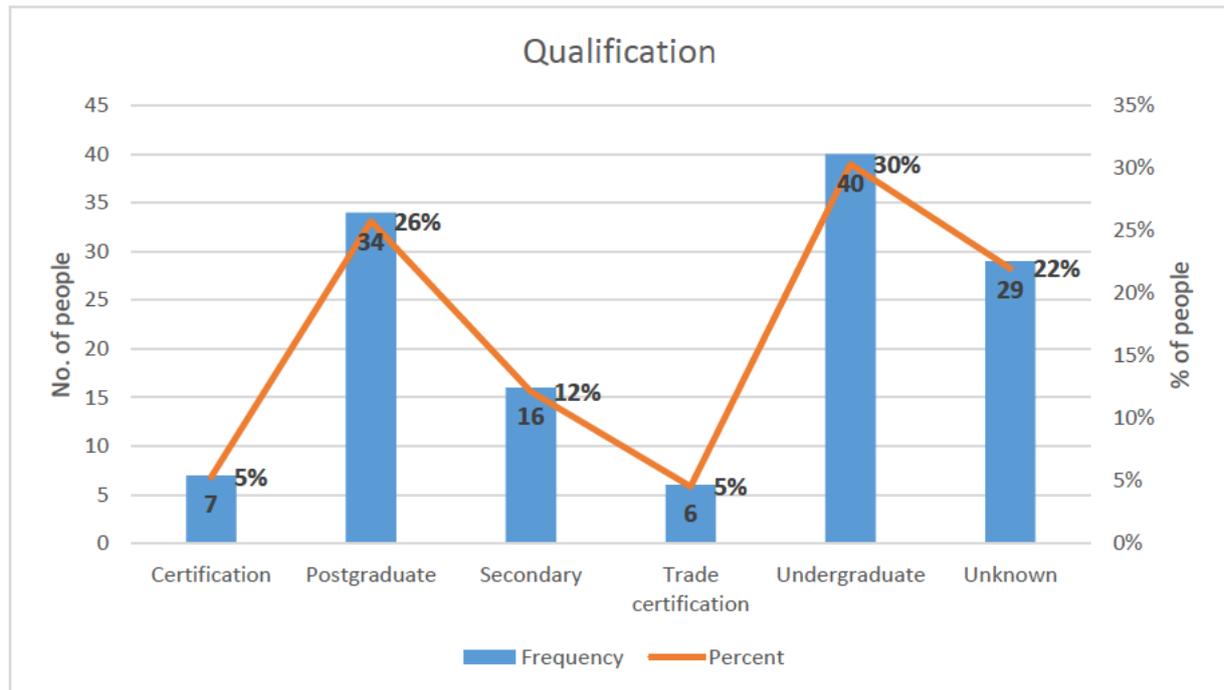


Figure 5.5 Clustered Column Chart: Qualification distribution

Source: Researcher

Much of the population (30%) have an undergraduate qualification, with the second highest population (26%) having a postgraduate qualification. The third highest response rate qualification status is unknown at 22%. 12% of the population have a secondary qualification. A certification (5%) and trade certification (5%) contribute towards 10% of the participant population.

5.3.1.6. Salary grade

Figure 5.6 depicts the salary grade distribution results.

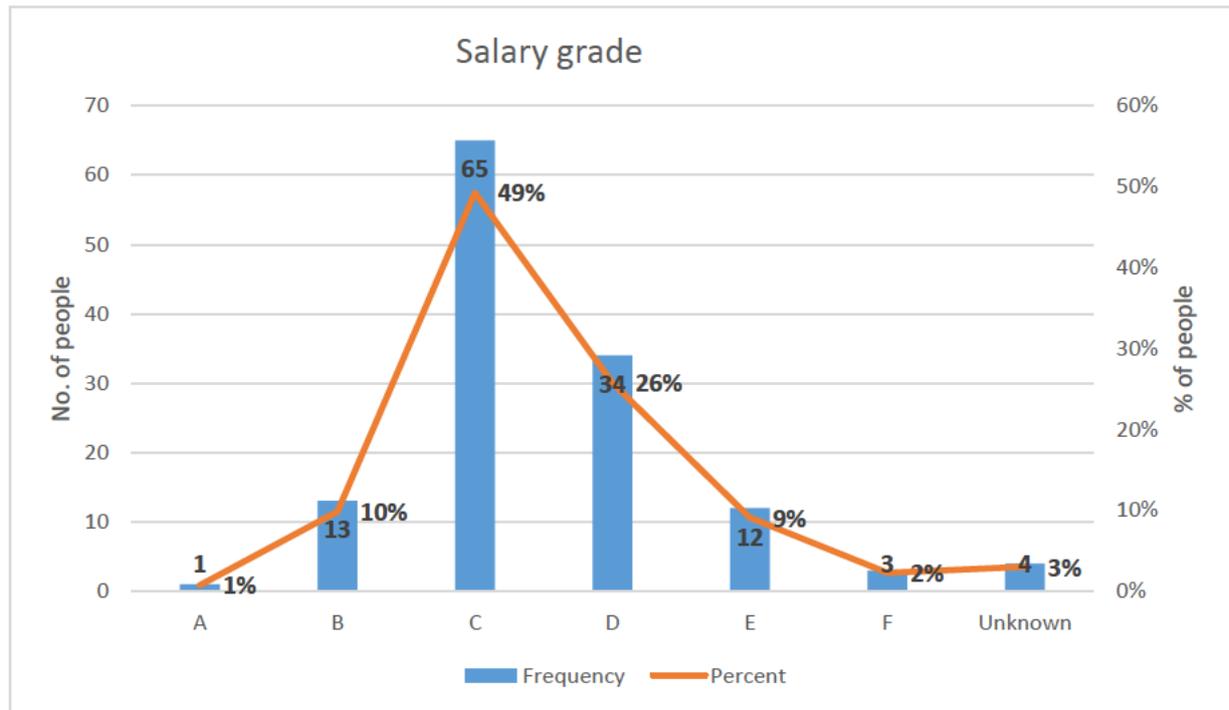


Figure 5.6 Clustered Column Chart: Salary grade distribution

Source: Researcher

Approximately 94% of the participant population comprise of the salary grade C (49%), grade D (26%), grade B (10%) and grade E (9%). The balance of the participant population comprised of unknown (3%), grade F (2%) and grade A (1%).

5.3.2. Measurement instrument

Table 5.1 depicts the online survey questionnaire results.

Table 5.1 Online survey questionnaire results

Question number	Construct	Questions	Mean	Standard deviation
1	Choices	How important is it for a leader to act morally?	6.80	0.670
2	Choices	How important is it for a leader to manage risk?	6.46	0.868
3	Choices	How important is it for a leader to make moral decisions?	6.72	0.724
4	Principles	How important is it for a leader to communicate and instil company values in the team?	6.66	0.616
5	Principles	How important is it for a leader to work ethically?	6.83	0.413
6	Principles	How important is it for a leader to ensure the company operates ethically?	6.78	0.484
7	Mental	How important is it for a leader to have good thinking skills?	6.61	0.661
8	Mental	How important is it for a leader to have personal reflection?	6.09	1.142

Question number	Construct	Questions	Mean	Standard deviation
9	Mental	How important is it for a leader to learn something new and teach and/or demonstrate what they have learnt?	6.13	1.007
10	Emotional	How important is it for a leader to work with the team, and involve the right people at the right time?	6.70	0.549
11	Emotional	How important is it for a leader to be motivated and disciplined to achieve an important goal?	6.75	0.468
12	Emotional	How important is it for a leader to communicate effectively with the team?	6.87	0.336
13	Physical	How important is it for a leader to consume healthy foods?	5.05	1.530
14	Physical	How important is it for a leader to manage personal and team stress?	6.33	0.805
15	Physical	How important is it for a leader to do some exercise?	5.04	1.550
16	Spiritual	How important is it for a leader to work toward achieving meaning, purpose and fulfilment in their life?	5.95	1.152

Question number	Construct	Questions	Mean	Standard deviation
17	Spiritual	How important is it for a leader to lead and serve a team to achieve company objectives?	6.70	0.523
18	Spiritual	How important is it for a leader to lead a company to achieve the organisational dream (vision)?	6.66	0.640

Source: Researcher

The results present the mean and standard deviation for each of the survey questions.

While descriptive statistics results provide information regarding each question, i.e., the mean and standard deviation, this information alone does not provide enough insight into the overall meaningfulness of the constructs of the conceptual leadership skills development model.

5.4. Construct validity

In this study, a confirmatory factor analysis was used as it provides a viable method for evaluating construct validity (Stapleton, 1997). Figure 5.7 provides a graphical representation of the construct-to-construct relationship.

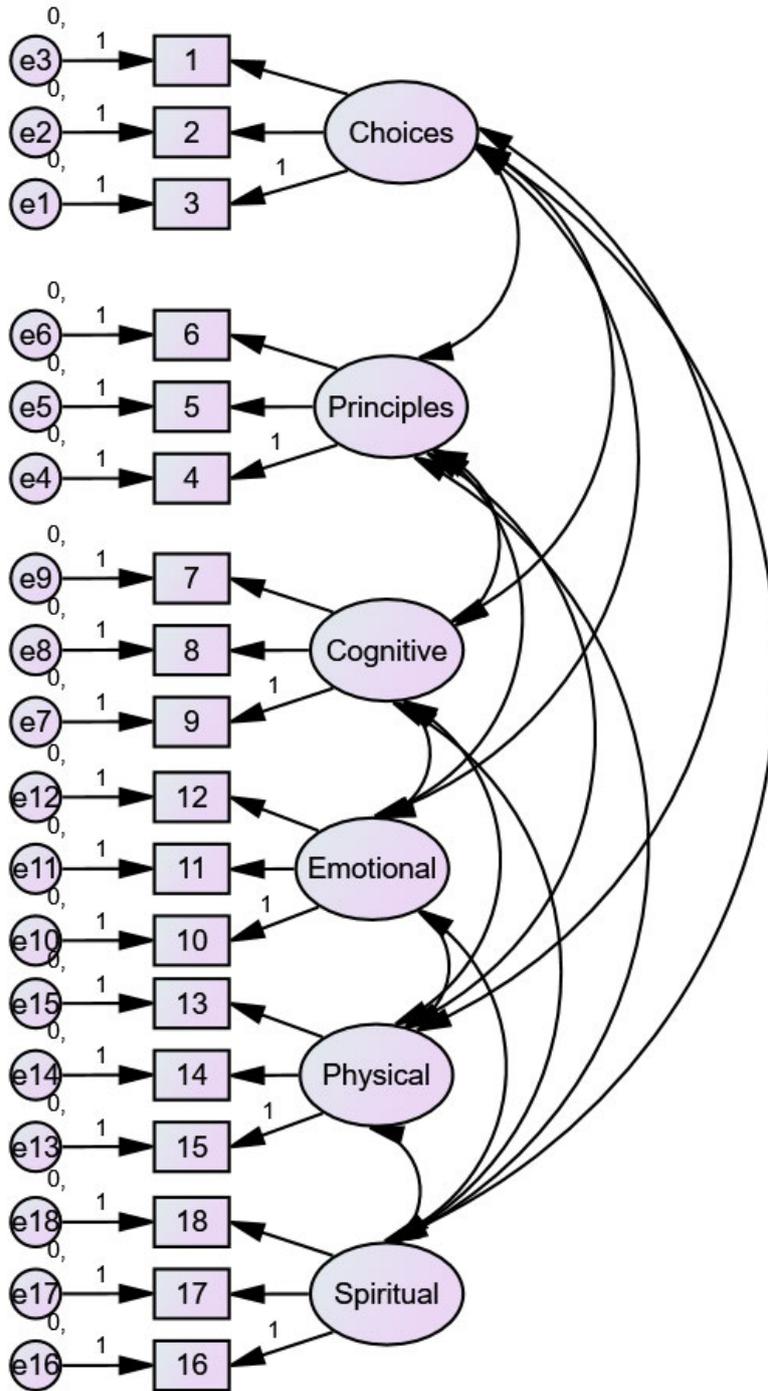


Figure 5.7 Confirmatory factor analysis

Source: Researcher

To determine the relative contribution of each variable, i.e., each question, a standardised regression weight analysis was performed.

Table 5.2 depicts the standardised regression weight results.

Table 5.2 Standardised regression weight results¹

Question number	Question	Construct	Estimate
1	How important is it for a leader to act morally?	Choices	.776
2	How important is it for a leader to manage risk?	Choices	.377
3	How important is it for a leader to make moral decisions?	Choices	1.071
4	How important is it for a leader to communicate and instil company values in the team?	Principles	.713
5	How important is it for a leader to work ethically?	Principles	.529
6	How important is it for a leader to ensure the company operates ethically?	Principles	.622
7	How important is it for a leader to have good thinking skills?	Cognitive	.614
8	How important is it for a leader to have personal reflection?	Cognitive	.495

¹ All standardised regression weights were statistically significant with a P value of <0.001

Question number	Question	Construct	Estimate
9	How important is it for a leader to learn something new and teach and/or demonstrate what they have learnt?	Cognitive	.710
10	How important is it for a leader to work with the team, and involve the right people at the right time?	Emotional	.509
11	How important is it for a leader to be motivated and disciplined to achieve an important goal?	Emotional	.804
12	How important is it for a leader to communicate effectively with the team?	Emotional	.518
13	How important is it for a leader to consume healthy foods?	Physical	.969
14	How important is it for a leader to manage personal and team stress?	Physical	.386
15	How important is it for a leader to do some exercise?	Physical	.955
16	How important is it for a leader to work toward achieving meaning, purpose and fulfilment in their life?	Spiritual	.572
17	How important is it for a leader to lead and serve a team to achieve company objectives?	Spiritual	.736

Question number	Question	Construct	Estimate
18	How important is it for a leader to lead a company to achieve the organisational dream (vision)?	Spiritual	.773

Source: Researcher

The results from the standardised regression weights analysis determined the relative contribution of each variable (research question), and in this case, are noted as the estimate. Estimates values between 1.0 and 0.5 are acceptable, however values of 0.3 are also considered acceptable.

The Choices construct had an estimates of 1.071, .776 and 0.377. While an estimate value of 1.071 is marginally higher than 1.0, it is deemed acceptable. The Principles construct results of .713, .622 and .529, are deemed acceptable. The results for the Cognitive construct were .710, .614 and .495, all considered acceptable. The Emotional construct results were .804, .518 and .509, all deemed acceptable. The results of the Physical construct were .969, .955 and .386, which are all acceptable. The Spiritual construct results were .773, .736 and .572, all deemed acceptable.

Table 5.3 depicts the construct-to-construct correlation results.

Table 5.3 Construct-to-construct correlation results

Construct-to-construct correlation	Estimate	P Value ²
Choices ← → Principles	.303	.004
Choices ← → Cognitive	.115	.247
Choices ← → Emotional	.308	.005

² *** represents a P value of <0.001 which is statistically significant

Construct-to-construct correlation	Estimate	P Value²
Choices ← → Physical	.058	.481
Spiritual ← → Choices	.097	.295
Principles ← → Cognitive	.643	***
Principles ← → Emotional	.761	***
Principles ← → Physical	.372	.002
Spiritual ← → Principles	.792	***
Cognitive ← → Emotional	.926	***
Cognitive ← → Physical	.605	***
Spiritual ← → Cognitive	.734	***
Emotional ← → Physical	.455	***
Spiritual ← → Emotional	.704	***
Spiritual ← → Physical	.491	***

Source: Researcher

The P value results of the Choices and Cognitive (.247), Choices and Physical (.481), and Spiritual and Choices (.295) reported low construct-to-construct statistical significance correlation. However, the majority (83%) of the construct-to-construct correlations were statistically significant.

Behr (1983) provides a construct correlation strength description (see Table 5.4) that the researcher used to interpret the construct-to-construct correlation results.

Table 5.4 depicts the construct correlation strength descriptions.

Table 5.4 Construct correlation strength description

Correlation Value	Description
< 0.20	Indifferent, almost negligible relationship
0.20 – 0.40	Definite but slight relationship
0.40 – 0.70	Moderate relationship
0.70 – 0.90	High and substantial relationship
0.90 – 1.00	Very high, rising to perfect relationship

Source: Behr (1983)

5.4.1. Very high correlations

The highest, near-perfect correlation exists between the mental and emotional constructs. These findings suggest an almost perfect relationship occurs in participants' perception of leaders' abilities to think, to learn, and their self-awareness, with their ability to perceive, use, understand and manage emotions. In relation to the conceptual model, the mental and emotional constructs are presented as being side-by-side, both acting as conduits between the choices and principles constructs.

5.4.2. High correlations

The spiritual and principles construct-to-construct correlation is the next strongest with a .792 result, defined as having a substantial relationship. The results support the construct operational definitions where the spiritual construct is defined as a leader's ability to act according to principles; and the principles operational definition being a leader's ability to understand the rules and standards of social, economic, and natural laws. In the context of the conceptual model, the spiritual construct is considered the overall/primary conduit between the choices and principles constructs. This implies

that a leader's ability to choose should be based on principles, and that principles should influence a leaders' decision-making ability or choice.

The principles and emotional construct-to-construct correlation is the third strongest correlation at 0.761. In the context of the leadership model, the principles construct represents a leaders decision-making foundation; which in this case, have a strong relationship with a leaders' ability to manage their emotional intelligence, i.e., how they to perceive, use, understand and manage their emotions.

The next strongest construct relationship occurs between the spiritual and mental constructs. In relation to the leadership model, the spiritual construct is defined as a leaders' 'ability to understand the rules', which has a strong relationship with a leader's 'ability to think and learn' from the mental construct.

The spiritual and emotional construct-to-construct correlation is the next strongest and defined as having a high and substantial relationship. While the spiritual construct is considered the primary leadership conduit, mainly the fusion between a leader's choices and principles, the emotional construct plays a significant role in a leader's ability to manage emotions during interactions as either a leader or a follower.

5.4.3. Moderate correlations

The principles and mental relationship are considered moderate. In the context of the leadership model, the result suggests the principles construct can moderately influence a leader's mental capacity to learn and understand.

The next strongest relationship exists between mental and physical constructs. In relation to the leadership model, a leader's ability to 'think and learn' has a moderate relationship with a leader's ability to manage their physical intelligence, i.e., the ability to manage stress.

The spiritual and physical construct-to-construct relationship is the next strongest with a result of .491. The principles construct represents the 'rules and standards' which in the context of the leadership model, has the ability to influence the physiological well-being of a leader.

The next strongest construct-to-construct relationship is the moderate relationship between emotional and physical constructs. The emotional construct represents a leader's ability to manage their emotions. This result suggests that participants perceived that leaders' emotions can moderately influence their stress and overall physiological well-being.

5.4.4. Definite correlations

A definite relationship exists between the principles and physical constructs. In the context of the leadership model, the physical dimension of a leader is influenced by the principles construct, i.e., the physical domain is influenced by natural laws.

The choices and emotional construct-to-construct relationship are considered definite. In this context, a leader can make a choice to manage their emotions.

The next strongest construct-to-construct relationship is the relationship which exists between the choices and principles constructs. The relationship is considered definite, and in the context of the leadership model, the two constructs are opposite one another, implying that they support one another. The results of this study support the relationship.

5.4.5. Indifferent correlations

The results from this study suggest that there is an indifferent or average relationship between the choices and mental constructs. Similar results were found for the construct-to-construct relationship between the spiritual and choices constructs. The choices and physical construct-to-construct was the lowest relational strength amongst the construct relationships.

5.4.6. Model fit

As discussed in chapter 4, the model fit statistics evaluates a model in relation to the fixed parameters applied to postulate the model, and the approval or dismissal of the model (Stapleton, 1997).

5.4.6.1. Absolute indices

The study results indicate a CMIN/DF value of **2.232**.

Table 5.5 depicts the CMIN/DF conceptual model-fit distribution results.

Table 5.5 CMIN/DF conceptual model-fit distribution results

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	69	267.810	123	.000	2.232

Source: Researcher

Explanation of the size of the CMIN/DF estimate varies to a large degree on the researcher's perspective, but in general, a result of 1 and 2 suggests a good model-fit, although some understand ratios as high as 3, 4 or 5 representative of a good model-fit (Mueller, 1996). The results of this study suggest a good conceptual model-fit result.

5.4.6.2. Incremental indices

The study results indicate a CFI value of **0.86**.

Table 5.6 depicts the CFI conceptual model-fit distribution results.

Table 5.6 CFI conceptual model-fit distribution results

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.778	.717	.864	.821	.860

Source: Researcher

Mueller (1996) direction of CFI results greater than 0.9 as suggestive of an exact fit was reflected. The results concerning this study suggest an acceptable conceptual model-fit result.

5.4.6.3. Parsimonious indices

In this study an RMSEA with a 90% confidence interval of [0.08; 0.10] test statistic was used. The RMSEA results from this study present a value of **0.097**.

Table 5.7 depicts the RMSEA conceptual model-fit distribution results.

Table 5.7 RMSEA conceptual model-fit distribution results

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.097	.081	.113	.000

Source: Researcher

Blunch (2008) suggests that models with RMSEA values of 0.10 and larger are not acceptable. Based on this information, it seems reasonable to suggest that the results of this study indicate a good model fit.

Table 5.8 depicts a summary of the conceptual model-fit results.

Table 5.8 Model-fit summary

Model	CMIN/DF	CFI	RMSEA
Requirement	~1:5	≥0.90	<.100
Study results	2.232	0.86	.097
Study findings	Good model fit	Acceptable model fit	Good model fit

Source: Researcher

In this study, the results provide empirical evidence that the conceptual model for leadership skills development is considered a good model fit.

5.5. Construct reliability

As discussed in the previous chapter, Cronbach's alpha coefficient is applied to test the reliability of the measurement instrument (the online survey questionnaire) used in this research.

Cronbach's alpha is sensitive to the number of items in the scale and generally tends to underestimate the internal consistency reliability. In this study, a composite reliability approach was taken given the number of items in the scale. Composite reliability values of 0.60 to 0.70 are acceptable in exploratory research, while in more advanced stages of research, values between 0.70 and 0.90 can be regarded as satisfactory (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

In the present study, Cronbach's alpha coefficient values ranged between 0.604 and 0.803, which indicate acceptable and satisfactory reliability.

Table 5.9 depicts Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient distribution results.

Table 5.9 Construct reliability distribution

Constructs	Cronbach's Alpha	Mean	Standard Deviation
Choices	0.74	6.66	0.62
Principles	0.65	6.76	0.39
Cognitive	0.60	6.28	0.72
Emotional	0.62	6.78	0.35
Physical	0.80	5.47	1.14
Spiritual	0.63	6.44	0.62

Source: Researcher

5.6. Resume

This chapter discussed the quantitative results and findings of the appropriateness of the leadership constructs within a conceptual model for leadership skills development in the Kwaden Group, as a case in the African FMCG sector.

A response rate of 43.9% was achieved in this study, with 132 online questionnaire surveys being completed.

The organisational and biological descriptive statistics results were discussed, providing demographic details of the respondents from the study. Descriptive statistics results from the online survey questionnaire presented the mean and standard deviation for each of the survey questions.

A confirmatory factor analysis was used to provide a viable method for evaluating construct validity. A graphical representation from AMOS presented the construct-to-construct relationship. All standardised regression weights were statistically significant with a P value of <0.001 . 83% of the construct-to-construct correlation results were statistically significant. An analysis of the construct relationships was discussed in relation to the conceptual model. Three model-fit tests were completed to establish the model-fit of the conceptual model for leadership skills development. A CMIN/DF result of 2.232, a CFI result of 0.86 and an RMSEA of 0.097 are all indicative of a good model fit.

Cronbach's alpha coefficient results ranging between 0.604 and 0.803 indicate acceptable and satisfactory construct reliability in the study.

Based on the quantitative results and findings in this study, it seems reasonable to suggest that the leadership constructs within the conceptual model for leadership skills development in the Kwaden Group, as a case in the African FMCG sector, are statistically valid and reliable and are therefore considered appropriate.

The following chapter presents the qualitative research results and findings on the assessment of the leadership skills and leadership skills development requirements in the Kwaden Group, as a case in the African FMCG sector.

6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND FINDINGS

6.1. Introduction

The previous chapter provides evidence that the leadership constructs within the conceptual model for leadership skills development in the Kwaden Group, as a case in the African FMCG sector, are statistically valid and reliable, and are therefore considered appropriate. In this chapter discussion concerns the qualitative assessment of the leadership skills and leadership skills development requirements in the Kwaden Group, as a case in the African FMCG sector

The objective of the qualitative phase in an explanatory mixed-methods design is to further explain and elaborate on the initial quantitative results obtained from the statistical analysis (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018).

This chapter presents and explains the results and findings concerning the qualitative strand. The chapter is structured as follows:

- Leadership skills;
- Multilevel leadership;
- Leadership skills development; and
- Chapter summary

6.2. Leadership skills

The results from the interviews relating to the leadership skills required by the Kwaden Group are presented in the following six sections concerning the empirically validated constructs established in the previous chapter.

6.2.1. Choices construct

Table 6.1 depicts the qualitative results of the choices construct.

Table 6.1 Choices construct and theme results

Participant word summary results describing the Kwaden Group leadership skills required	Theoretical alignment
Decision-making; Purpose; Values; Decide; Direction; Attitude; Philosophy. Identical words: 7. Total word count: 28.	Choice theory: Levin and Milgrom (2004); Vroom and Yetton (1973) Choice theory is the skilful process of evaluating available options and then choosing the preferred option based on a consistent criterion.

Source: Researcher

Seven words were used twenty-eight times to describe the skills aligned with the theoretical theme of the choices construct as discussed in chapter 4. The choices construct is conceptually described as a leaders decision-making intelligence, which operationally means the ability to make decisions based on a set of principles.

Figure 6.1 depicts the results of the words most used in the choices construct.

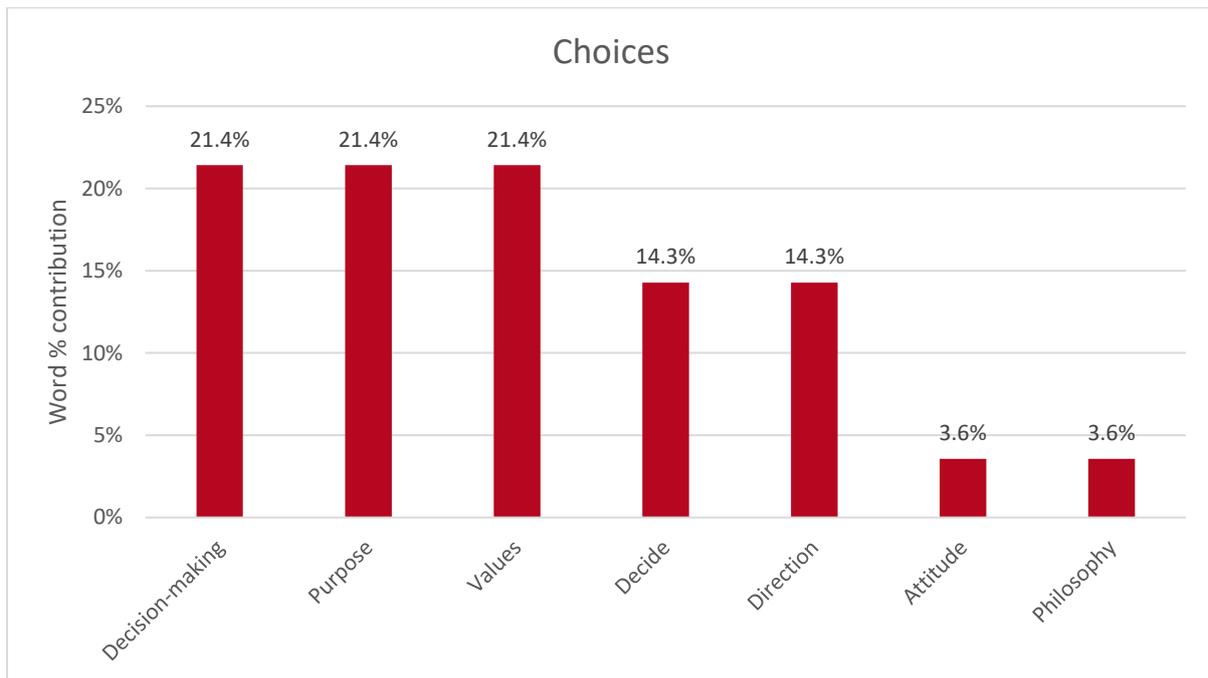


Figure 6.1 Choices words most used

Source: Researcher

The findings indicate that decision-making, purpose and values were the top three words used in the choices construct representing 64.2% of the total words used. Decide, direction, attitude and philosophy concern the balance (35.8%) of the words used aligned with the choices construct.

From the conceptual model perspective, the choices construct represents the primary function of a leader, influenced by the mental, emotional, physical, and spiritual dimensions, yet conceptually guided by the principles construct.

Based on these results, it seems reasonable to suggest that the words used to describe the leadership skills required by the Kwaden Group are aligned to the choices construct in the conceptual model for leadership skills development.

6.2.2. Principles construct

Table 6.2 depicts the qualitative results of the principles construct.

Table 6.2 Principles construct and theme results

Participant word summary results describing the Kwaden Group leadership skills required	Theoretical alignment
<p>Servanthood; Business; Honesty; Love; Consistency; Entrepreneurial; Standardise; Sacrifice; Humanitarian; Principles; Professional; Respect; Basics; Core; Ethos; Excellence; Foundations; Lean; Transparency.</p> <p>Identical words: 19.</p> <p>Total word count: 59.</p>	<p>Principle theory: Aristotle (1999); Bass and Steidlmeier (1999); Caldwell et al. (2006); Knights (2016); Wilson and McCalman (2017)</p> <p>Principle theory provides a foundation of guiding principles of the rules or standards.</p>

Source: Researcher

Nineteen words were used fifty-nine times to describe the skills aligned with the theoretical theme of the principles construct discussed in the conceptualisation section in chapter 4. The principles construct is conceptually described as the decision-making foundation, which operationally is the ability to understand the rules and standards of social, economic, and natural laws.

Figure 6.2 illustrates the results of the words most used in the principles construct.

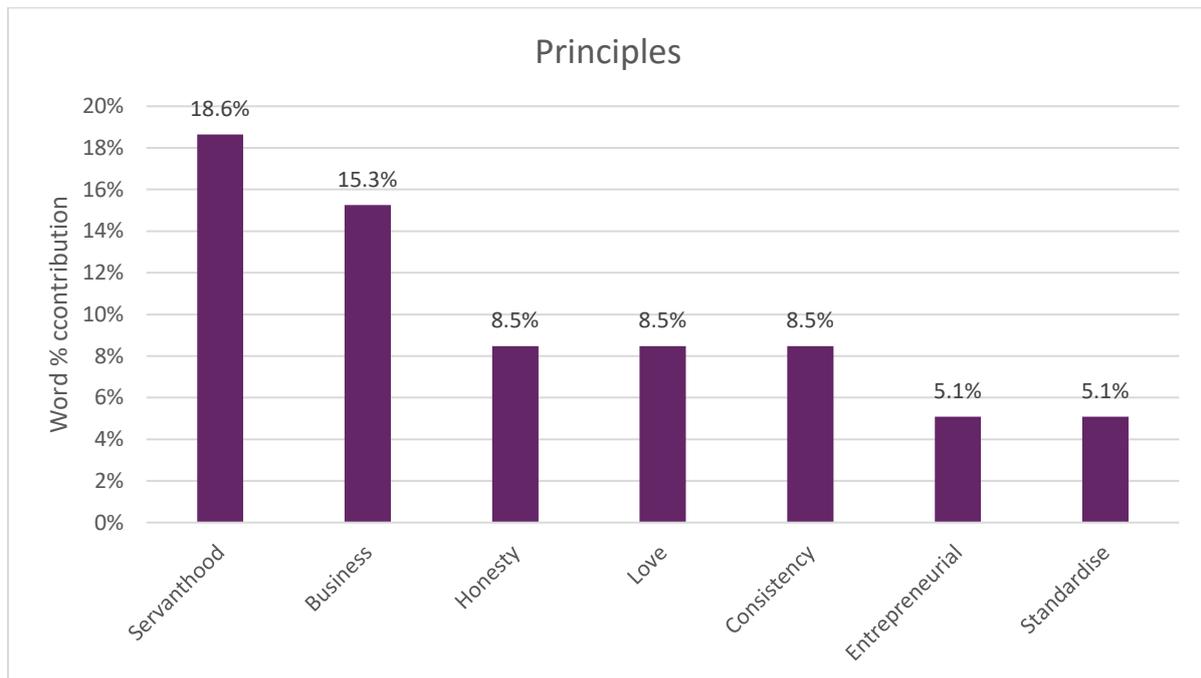


Figure 6.2 Principles words most used

Source: Researcher

The findings indicate that servanthood and business were the top two words used aligned with to the principles construct and represent more than a third (33.9%) of the total words used. Honesty, love, consistency, entrepreneurial and standardise made up 35.6% of the words used. The top seven words used in the principles construct represents almost 70% (69.5%) of all the words used supported with the principles construct. Sacrifice, humanitarian, principles, professional, respect, basics, core, ethos, excellence, foundations, lean, and transparency make up the balance (30.5%) of the words used.

From the conceptual model perspective, the principles construct represents the foundation of guiding principles relating to a person's ability to act by the rules or standards (Caldwell et al., 2006). In essence, the principles construct denotes ethics (decision-making foundations) and thus, ethical leadership for the greater good of humanity (Wilson & McCalman, 2017).

Based on these results, it seems reasonable to suggest that the words used to describe the leadership skills required by the Kwaden Group are aligned to the principles construct in the conceptual model for leadership skills development.

6.2.3. Mental construct

Table 6.3 depicts the qualitative results of the mental construct.

Table 6.3 Mental construct and theme results

Participant word summary results describing the Kwaden Group leadership skills required	Theoretical alignment
<p>Vision; Thinking; Strategic; Dream; Creative; Development; Goal; Planning; Skills; Visionary; Ability; Create; Future; New ideas; Big picture; Developing; Learn; Change; Problem-solving; Coordination; Creativity; Focus; Innovative; Knowledge; Learning; Self-awareness; Solutions; Transformational; Understand.</p> <p>Identical words: 29.</p> <p>Total word count: 100.</p>	<p>Cognition theory: Harung, Travis, Blank, and Heaton (2009); Heath et al. (2017) Mumford et al. (2017); Prinsloo and Barrett (2013)</p> <p>Cognition theory is a person’s ability to solve problems, to plan, to reason, to think conceptually, to grasp complex concepts and to learn quickly as well as learn from experience; cognitive skills are essential aspects and of critical importance in the leadership context.</p>

Source: Researcher

Twenty-nine words were used one hundred times to describe the skills aligned with the theoretical theme of the mental construct discussed earlier in chapter 4. The mental construct is conceptually described as mental intelligence, which operationally means the ability to think, learn, teach, and self-awareness.

Figure 6.3 depicts the results of the words most used in the mental construct.

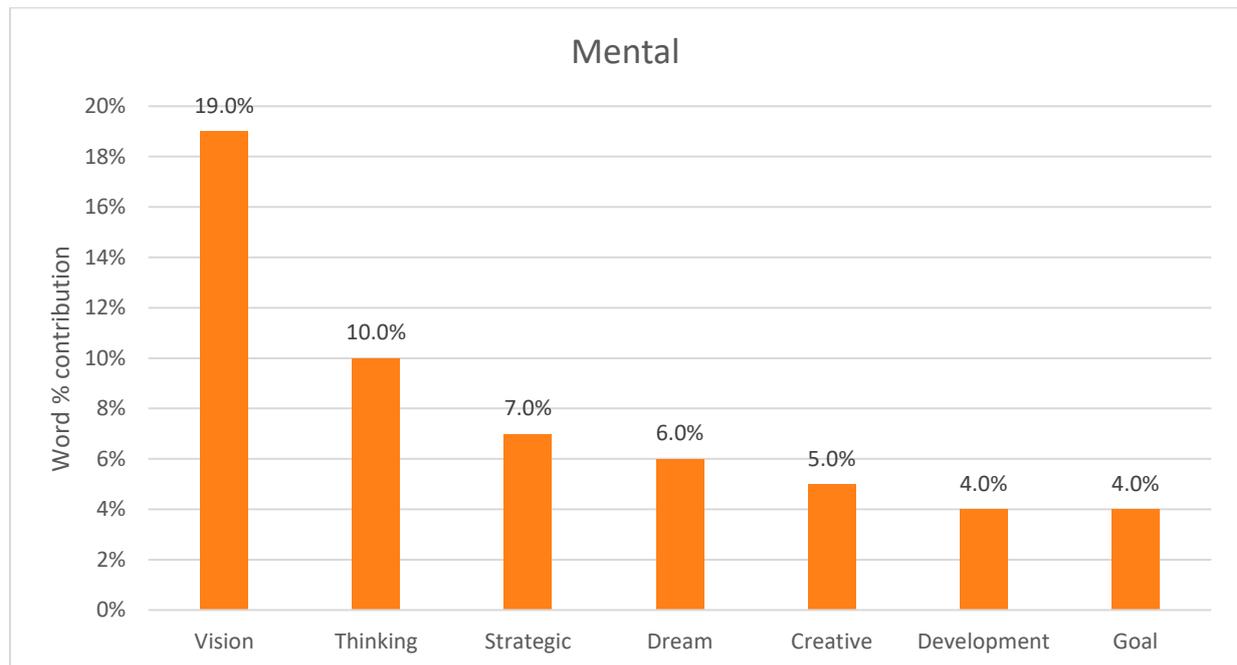


Figure 6.3 Mental words most used

Source: Researcher

The findings indicate that vision, thinking and strategic were the top three words used in the mental construct which represent more than a third (36%) of the total words used. Dream, creative, development and goal make up 19% of the words used. The top seven words used in the mental construct represents more than half (55%) of all the words used aligned to the mental construct. The balance (45%) of the words used are planning, skills, visionary, ability, create, future, new ideas, the big picture, developing, learn, change, problem-solving, coordination, creativity, focus, innovative, knowledge, learning, self-awareness, solutions, transformational, and understand.

From the conceptual model perspective, the mental construct represents a person's knowledge, skills, and ability to solve problems, to plan, to reason, to think conceptually, to grasp complex concepts, to learn quickly, learn from experience, and the ability to teach (Mumford et al., 2017; Prinsloo & Barrett, 2013)

Based on these results, it seems reasonable to suggest that the words used to describe the leadership skills required by the Kwaden Group align with the mental construct in the conceptual model for leadership skills development.

6.2.4. Emotional construct

Table 6.4 depicts the qualitative results of the emotional construct.

Table 6.4 Emotional construct and theme results

Participant word summary results describing the Kwaden Group leadership skills required	Theoretical alignment
Commitment; Communication; Collaboration; Caring; Determination; Relationships; Compassion; Influence; Passion; Reflection; Understanding; Listening; Motivation; Resilience; Sharing; Tenacity; Adventurous; Affirmation; Approachable; Balance; Braveness; Community; Delivering; Drive; Ego; Encouragement; Energy; Harmonious; Inspiring; Intent; Kind. Identical words: 39. Total word count: 92.	Emotional intelligence theory: Baxter, Hayward, and Amos (2008) Doe (2015), Hatfield et al. (1994); Heath et al. (2017), Mayer et al. (2004) Emotional intelligence theory comprises of a four-branch ability model of a person being able to perceive, use, understand and manage emotions. Each branch of emotional intelligence can be developed and are vital attributes of effective leadership

Source: Researcher

Thirty-nine words were used ninety-two times to describe the skills aligned with the theoretical theme of the emotional construct discussed in chapter 4. The emotional construct is conceptually described emotional intelligence which operationally means the ability to perceive, use, understand and manage emotions.

Figure 6.4 illustrates the results of the words most used in the emotional construct.

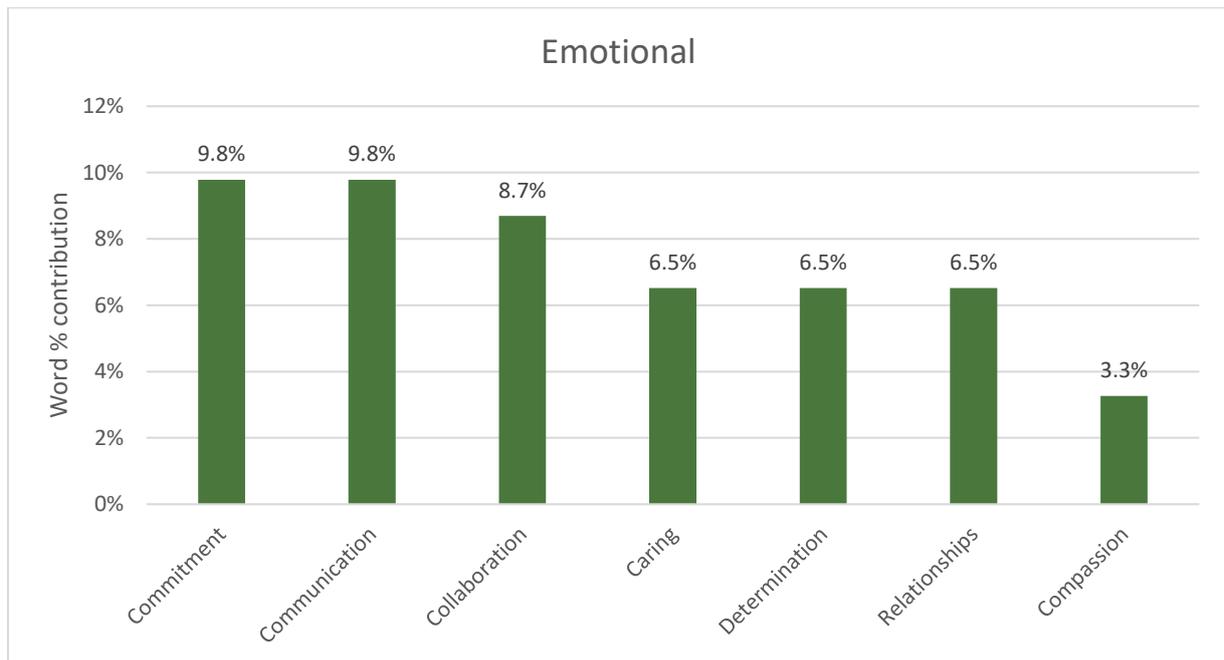


Figure 6.4 Emotional words most used

Source: Researcher

The findings indicate that commitment, communication, and collaboration were the top three words used in the emotional construct, which represents 28.3% of the total words used. Caring, determination, relationships and compassion make up 22.8% of the words used. The top seven words used in the emotional construct represents more than half (51.1%) of all the words aligned with the emotional construct. The balance (48.9%) of the words used are influence, passion, reflection, understanding, listening, motivation, resilience, sharing, tenacity, adventurous, affirmation, approachable, balance, braveness, community, delivering, drive, ego, encouragement, energy, harmonious, inspiring, intent and being kind.

From the conceptual model perspective, the emotional construct represents a person's to perceive, use, understand and manage emotions which are critical attributes of effective leadership (Doe et al., 2015; Mayer et al., 2004).

Based on these results, it seems reasonable to suggest that the words used to describe the leadership skills required by the Kwaden Group align with the emotional construct in the conceptual model for leadership skills development.

6.2.5. Physical construct

Table 6.5 depicts the qualitative results of the physical construct.

Table 6.5 Physical construct and theme results

Participant word summary results describing the Kwaden Group leadership skills required	Theoretical alignment
<p>Rest; Stress-relief.</p> <p>Identical words: 2.</p> <p>Total word count: 2.</p>	<p>Physical wellbeing theory: (Edwards, 2006, 2012a, 2013); Harms et al. (2017); Hattie et al. (2004); Heath et al. (2017)</p> <p>The ‘Wheel of Wellness’ theory relates to a person’s physical health, and that stress management, nutrition, and exercise are critical aspects of the physiological wellbeing of a leader</p>

Source: Researcher

Two words were used to describe the skills aligned with the theoretical theme of the physical construct discussed in chapter 4. The physical construct is conceptually described as physical intelligence which operationally means the ability to manage stress, nutrition, and cardiovascular well-being.

Figure 6.5 depicts the results of the words most used in the physical construct.

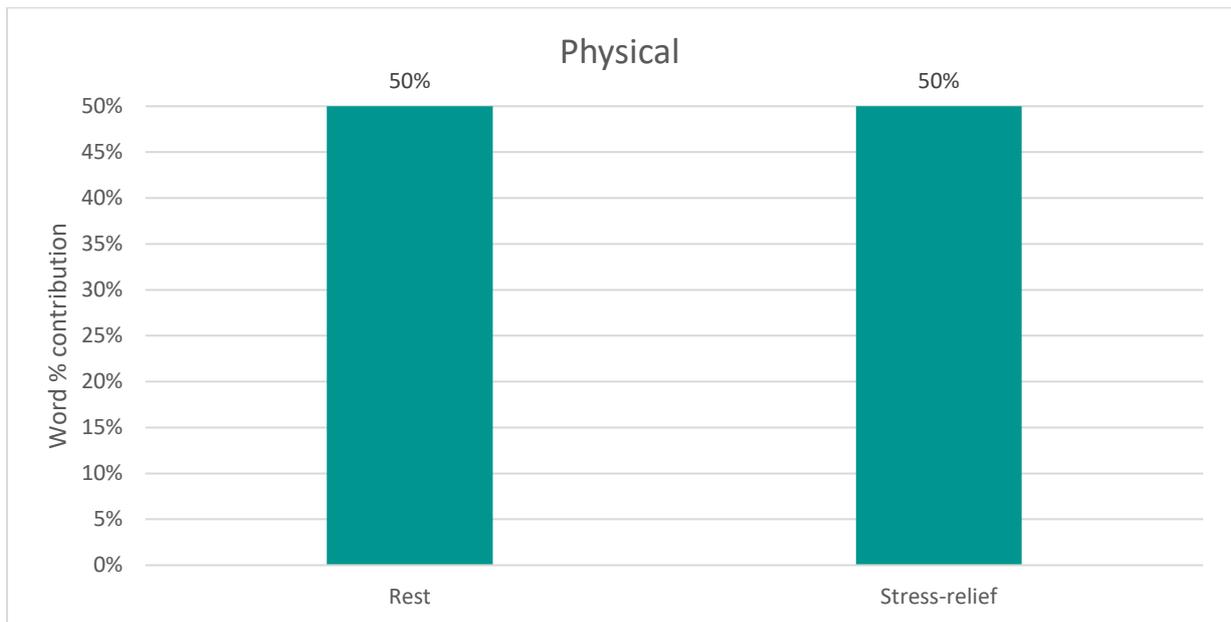


Figure 6.5 Physical words most used

Source: Researcher

The findings indicate that rest and stress-relief were the two words used in the physical construct, which represents 100% of the words used.

From the conceptual model perspective, the physical construct represents a person's physiological wellbeing and that stress management, nutrition, and exercise are all vital aspects of the physiological wellbeing of a leader (Hattie et al., 2004). Harms et al. (2017) state that stress and leadership are inextricably linked. Edwards (2006) maintains that regular exercise is associated with significant improvements in a person's physical wellbeing, as well as aspects of mood, coherence, fortitude, and stress management.

Based on these results, it seems reasonable to suggest that the words used to describe the leadership skills required by the Kwaden Group align with the physical construct in the conceptual model for leadership skills development.

6.2.6. Spiritual construct

Table 6.6 depicts the qualitative results of the spiritual construct.

Table 6.6 Spiritual construct and theme results

Participant word summary results describing the Kwaden Group leadership skills required	Theoretical alignment
<p>Leadership; Accountable; Leader; Serving; Courageous; Good; Integrity; Behaviour; Character; Execution; Fair; Leading; Loving; Loyal; Loyalty; Openness; Reputation; Spirit; Trusting; Trustworthy.</p> <p>Identical words: 20.</p> <p>Total word count: 40.</p>	<p>Spirituality Scale: Avolio et al. (2009), Delaney (2005); Driscoll and Wiebe (2007); (Edwards, 2012b); Maslow (1972); Pearce (2007)</p> <p>The 'Spirituality Scale' is a method to assess a person's beliefs, values and choices.</p> <p>The spiritual life (the contemplative, religious, philosophical, or value-life) is part of the human essence a defining characteristic of human nature</p>

Source: Researcher

Twenty words were used forty times to describe the skills aligned with the theoretical theme of the spiritual construct discussed in chapter 4. The spiritual construct is conceptually described as spiritual intelligence which operationally means the ability to act according to principles.

Figure 6.6 depicts the spiritual construct words most used results.

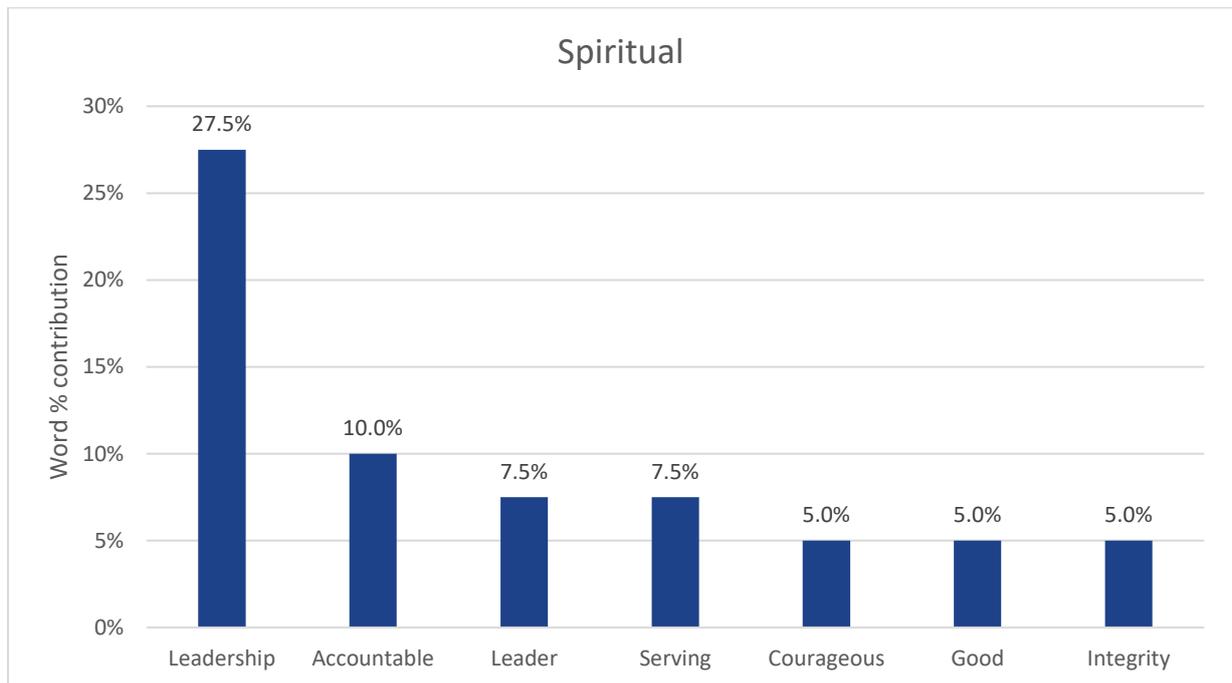


Figure 6.6 Spiritual words most used

Source: Researcher

The findings indicate that leadership was the top word used in the spiritual construct, representing 27.5% of the total words used. Accountable, leader, serving, courageous, good and integrity contribute 40% of the words used. The top seven words used in the spiritual construct, therefore, represent more than two thirds (67.5%) of all the words aligned with the spiritual construct. The balance (32.5%) of the words used are behaviour, character, execution, fair, leading, loving, loyal, loyalty, openness, reputation, spirit, trusting and being trustworthy.

From the conceptual model perspective, the spiritual construct represents the conduit between the choices and principle construct. Avolio (2009) suggests spiritual intelligence unites the four innate aspects of a person's existence (mind, heart, body and spirit) so that people are intrinsically motivated to achieve essential goals.

Based on these results, it seems reasonable to suggest that the words used to describe the leadership skills required by the Kwaden Group align with the spiritual construct in the conceptual model for leadership skills development.

6.2.7. Leadership skills summary

The interview results from the words used are discussed next.

6.2.7.1. Construct distribution summary

The construct distribution summary presents the results of the constructs with the most words concerning the conceptual model.

Figure 6.7 depicts the construct distribution results.

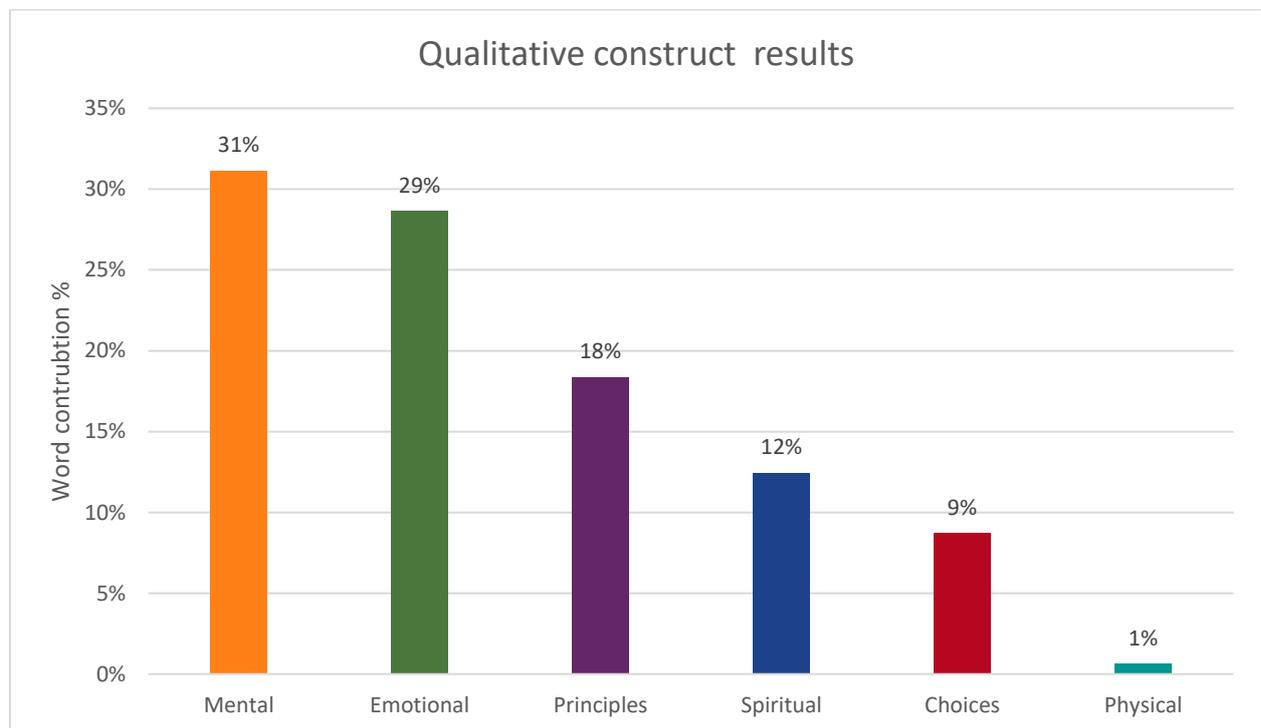


Figure 6.7 Construct distribution results

Source: Researcher

Concerning the conceptual model, the results indicate that the mental construct had the most words at 31% with the emotional construct marginally lower at 29%. The mental and emotional constructs, therefore, represent 60% of the words described by participants in the interview process regarding the leadership skills required by the Kwaden Group. The principles and spiritual contribute 30%, with 18% and 12% respectively. Choices contribute 9% to the total word count and physical only 1%, with two words used from a total three hundred and twenty-one words.

While some constructs have more words than others, and as a result, a higher percentage of the overall contribution, the importance in the findings is that each construct contributed toward the conceptual model. Furthermore, while the frequency of the words used tells a story, there is no importance/significance weight/factor applied to each word, which may or may not have a bearing on the overall results.

Based on these results, it seems reasonable to argue that the words gathered during the interview process, concerning the leadership skills required by the Kwaden Group, appear to support the constructs of the conceptual model for leadership skills development.

6.2.7.2. Word summary

The word distribution summary presents the results of the words most used concerning the leadership skills required by the Kwaden Group.

Figure 6.8 depicts the word distribution results.

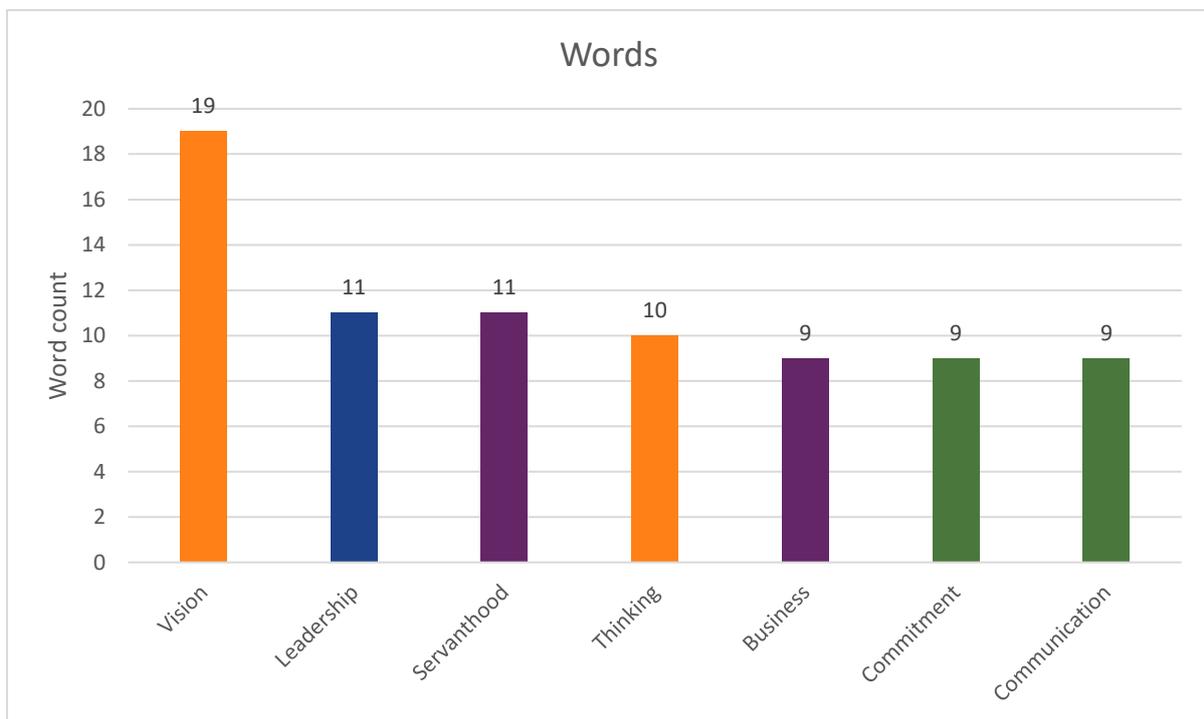


Figure 6.8 Words distribution summary

Source: Researcher

Vision was the most used word with a count of 19, which represents 5.9% of the total words used. The next most used words are leadership, servanthood, thinking, business, commitment, and communication, which collectively, including vision, make up 24.3% of all the words used. While all the words having meaning and importance, only the top seven words are summarised in Figure 6.8.

The results suggest that leadership concerns having a vision, and after that, employing servanthood leadership skills to achieve the vision. That leadership toward a vision includes thinking, adhering to business principles, and working together with a committed (commitment) and informed (communication) team to achieve the overall objective.

The next objective was to establish if leadership skills development should be multilevel.

6.3. Leadership development

The results and findings concerning leadership development follow.

6.3.1. Multilevel leadership development results

Participants unanimously agreed that leadership skills development should be multilevel, that is, developed at all levels of the Kwaden Group. Words such as “definitely”, “absolutely”, “obviously” and “yes” formed the standard response.

6.3.2. Multilevel leadership development rationale

Participants provided further information to justify their rationale concerning multilevel leadership development. The following direct quotes were given in the interview process:

“Grow through and within the business.”

“Equip the team with skills to enable growth and make the load lighter.”

“Future growth. Creating alignment, building the corporate culture, tapping into hidden gems and unknown skills.”

“Leadership is not a position; it is a style of how you interact with everyone - everyone is a leader.”

“Top-down and from inside (our businesses) to outside (suppliers and customers) to create a ripple effect. A circle of influence, all reading from the same page - a leadership culture, where everyone is a leader.”

“If we care for our people we will help them grow.”

These findings suggest that *everyone* in the Kwaden Group requires leadership skills development. The results imply that developing leadership capability is a key objective of the Kwaden Group. Furthermore, participants suggest developing leadership capability should extend beyond the Kwaden Group and include the supply chain partners, e.g., suppliers and customers, to develop a leadership culture.

6.4. Leadership skills development

The results and findings concerning leadership skills development follow in the next three sections.

6.4.1. Strategic intent

The results suggest the Kwaden Group leadership team needs to determine “what is the destination” and “where we are today and where we plan to be in the future” as the overall strategic direction that is required.

Ascertaining how to lead the business requires taking the “culture” (values and behaviours) into consideration and then establishing how to measure “intent” and “servanthood dimensions”, both considered fundamental leadership skills required by the Kwaden Group as a “leader instils trust in his followers.”

Participants believe there needs to be a “deliberate approach to building skills and knowledge.” That leadership needs to be “deliberate about building skills.” Leadership must start by “identifying required skills” and then “design interventions” to acquire those skills. That “acquiring skills” should be developed by “design” and that leadership development “interventions” need to be a strategic imperative which requires “careful planning.” Kegan and Lahey (2016) suggest that DDO is an innovative approach to

simultaneously developing people and organisations, implying that organisation must be strategic and intentional regarding embedding continual developmental practices in the culture of an organisation.

6.4.2. Theoretical approach

The results from this study suggest formal training is considered a “theoretical” approach to leadership development. The participants agreed that “formal leadership development” which would include “rotation through the businesses” is essential in the leadership development journey. Furthermore, participants note that “training at business school” helps build “confidence”. However, participants believed that a combination of “self-study, interaction, courses and personality types” is the key contributor toward leadership skills development. While “education” and “some formal training” provides “confidence”, practical experience is considered “best.”

6.4.3. Practical approach

A common theme concerned a “sense of importance and belonging” and to “share experiences within and throughout the Kwaden Group” is required in the approach to leadership skills development. That “collaboration amongst” Kwaden businesses and sharing “expertise (people), data, systems and operating procedures” will enhance on the job training and development. Day (2010) recommends that attention should be given to assist individual learners in gaining the required lessons of experience as part of the developmental process as opposed to merely providing experiences.

The results indicate that leadership skills development is “human dependent”, that it “depends on the person”, and could be “varied for each entity.” A “combination of formal learning and practising the principle” is essential during the leadership development process. It might be worthwhile trying a “blended learning” approach in that one might “discover another” approach which might “further enhance learning and development”.

A finding is that leadership could be “developed overtime with peer guidance”, and that both “mentoring” and “mentorship” would be beneficial. Day and Thornton (2018) suggests that with coaching and an action-orientated development plan, individual skill

development initiatives provide an opportunity to build the required leadership skills. Participants agreed that one learns “by doing” and that to “act by example” is the “espousal value of leadership”, where one is “seen to be held accountable for behaviour.”

The evidence from this study suggests that leadership skills development is a personal journey which should include both a theoretical and practical component. That theory provides “confidence” while practical experience “by doing” and “acting by example” is considered vital. The findings further suggest that mentorship, coaching, and rotation through the Kwaden businesses is an essential aspect of the leadership developmental process, and that strategic intent should drive the overall process.

6.5. Resume

This chapter discussed the qualitative results and findings for this study. The validity of the research findings was discussed in chapter 4, where credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability were explained.

The results and findings concerning the leadership skills required by the Kwaden Group support the constructs from the initial quantitative results discussed in chapter 5, as required in an explanatory sequential mixed-methods design.

It was established that leadership skills development should be multilevel, which implies that everyone should have the opportunity to develop their leadership skills, and that developing leadership capability is a company objective. Importantly, the findings suggest that the Kwaden Groups’ leadership team need to prioritise leadership development which requires careful thought and planning. The findings recommend that leadership skills development is a continual journey, which should include coaching, mentorship, and a blended learning approach.

Based on the qualitative results and findings in this study, it seems reasonable to suggest that the qualitative phase in this explanatory mixed-methods study explains and elaborates on the initial quantitative results obtained from the quantitative strand.

The following chapter provides an overview of the quantitative and qualitative findings in this study and critically explores how the conceptual model for leadership skills

development could develop leadership skills in the Kwaden Group, as a case in the African FMCG sector.

7. LEADERSHIP SKILLS DEVELOPMENT MODEL

7.1. Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the qualitative results and findings concerning leadership skills and leadership skills development in the Kwaden Group, as a case in the African FMCG sector. The qualitative results and findings in this study further explain and elaborate on the initial quantitative results, as required in an explanatory sequential mixed methods study. This chapter critically explores how the conceptual model for leadership skills development could develop leadership skills in the Kwaden Group, as a case in the African FMCG sector.

This chapter will present and explain the following:

- Quantitative findings;
- Qualitative findings;
- Leadership skills development model; and
- Chapter summary.

7.2. Quantitative findings

A conceptual model for leadership skills development grounded in leadership and leadership development theory was introduced in chapter 2 and chapter 3. The conceptual model was empirically validated in chapter 5, resulting in a leadership skills development model comprising six constructs and named super-cube®.

Table 7.1 depicts a summary of the quantitative research results in this study.

Table 7.1 Summary of the quantitative leadership model results

Super-Cube® Model	Constructs	Construct reliability
Model-fit tests: CMIN/DF: 2.232; CFI: 0.86; and RMSEA: 0.097	1. Choices	0.739
	2. Principles	0.646
	3. Mental	0.604
	4. Emotional	0.617
	5. Physical	0.803
	6. Spiritual	0.634
Good model-fit = accepted as a model	Cronbach alpha = construct reliable	

Source: Researcher

The CFA results indicate the acceptance of the model-fit, as indicated by the three indices, namely the CMIN/DF result of 2.232; the CFI result of 0.86; and the RMSEA result of 0.097.

The measurement of internal consistency of reliability denoted by Cronbach's alpha coefficient suggests the measurement instruments (the online survey questions concerning the leadership constructs in the conceptual leadership skills development model) are reliable and in a range of 0.604 to 0.803.

The quantitative results and findings in this study provide empirical evidence of a good model-fit.

7.3. Qualitative findings

The qualitative strand of this study was discussed in chapter 4 in the research design and methodology. Following inductive thematic interpretation discussed in chapter 6,

the researcher established leadership skills and leadership skills development requirements from the perspectives of key decision-makers in the Kwaden Group, as a case in the African FMCG sector. The findings recommend that leadership skills development should be a strategic objective, multilevel, continuous, and that leadership skills development interventions should be designed, and incorporate a blended learning approach.

Table 7.2 presents the results of how the qualitative results compliment the initial quantitative results concerning the leadership constructs of the conceptual leadership skills development model.

Table 7.2 Summary of qualitative results

Super-Cube® Model	Constructs	Measurement reliability	Qualitative results
Model-fit tests: CMIN/DF: 2.232; CFI: 0.86; and RMSEA: 0.097	1. Choices	0.74	9%
	2. Principles	0.65	18%
	3. Mental	0.60	31%
	4. Emotional	0.62	29%
	5. Physical	0.80	1%
	6. Spiritual	0.63	12%
Good model-fit = accepted as a model	Cronbach alpha = construct reliable		Interview: word count as a percentage (%)

Source: Researcher

The qualitative results represent the word count percentage concerning each construct in the conceptual model from the findings during the interview process. The word count results do not include a factor/weight to account for the importance of certain words.

As discussed in chapter 4, the primary objective of an explanatory sequential design study is to use the qualitative strand to explain the initial quantitative results (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018).

Based on the qualitative results in this study, it seems reasonable to suggest that the qualitative results support the conceptual leadership skills development model constructs based on the results from the initial quantitative strand.

7.4. Leadership skills development model

7.4.1. Leadership skills

The six leadership constructs concern how the leadership skills integrate with the conceptual model.

7.4.1.1. Choices

Empirical evidence discussed in the quantitative strand note the Choices construct as the second most reliable (0.74) construct and was supported and explained in the qualitative strand with an overall word count of 9%.

The choices construct concerns the primary construct in the leadership model. In this study, the ability to make choices is described as a skilful process of considering available options and then choosing an option based on principles (Levin & Milgrom, 2004). As the choice's skill develops, decision-making can improve decision-making speed, accuracy, and consistency.

7.4.1.2. Principles

The empirical results presented in the quantitative strand state that the Principles construct is the third most reliable (0.65) and was confirmed and explained in the qualitative strand with an overall word count of 18%.

The principles construct concerns the foundational and guiding principles which relate to the ability to make decisions according to rules or standards (Caldwell et al., 2006).

In this study, principles concern the following:

- Social principles: the skills and abilities to care for other people, putting other people's needs first, serving others and acting as a servant for the good of another person, i.e., embracing the principles of servanthood leadership;
- Economic principles: the skills and abilities to operate efficiency (lean) and effectively in business operations. For example, a business should adhere to economic principles, e.g. a business should make a profit to ensure continuity – to pay employees, suppliers, and other business-related activities. Importantly, the business must adhere to ethical principles, that is, the rules and standards concerning statutory and regulatory requirements in the context in which the manifest and where the business operates.
- Natural law principles: the skills and abilities to understand and apply the STEM etcetera and natural law, i.e., gravitational principles.

The understanding of principles will inevitably vary based on personal circumstances, e.g., education and experience; however, improving the understanding and adherence (choices construct) to principles is considered foundational, and intentionally designed as the foundation of the leadership skills development model.

7.4.1.3. Mental

Empirical evidence discussed in the quantitative strand note that the Mental construct is the least reliable (0.60) yet was supported and explained in the qualitative strand with the highest word count of 31%.

The mental construct represents the skills and ability to solve problems, to plan, to reason, to think, to grasp complex concepts, to learn quickly, learn from experience, and the ability to teach and impart knowledge (Mumford et al., 2017; Prinsloo & Barrett, 2013).

In this study, the mental construct refers to the speed and depth of information processing skills when solving complex problems. Evidence suggests that mental

intelligence can improve to provide the knowledge and skills required to perform complex leadership tasks (Mumford et al., 2017).

7.4.1.4. Emotional

The empirical results presented in the quantitative strand state that the Emotional construct is the Fifth most reliable (0.62) yet was explained in the qualitative strand with an overall word count of 29%, the second highest.

The emotional construct represents the skills to perceive, use, understand and manage emotions (Mayer et al., 2004).

In this study, the emotional construct concerns the skills of self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills. The first three skills are regarded as personal competence and the last two skills considered social competence. All five skills determine how relationships are handled and are skills that can be improved (Doe et al., 2015; Heath et al., 2017; Mayer et al., 2004).

7.4.1.5. Physical

Empirical evidence discussed in the quantitative strand note that the Physical construct is the most reliable (0.80) yet was hardly discussed in the qualitative strand with the lowest overall word count of 1%.

The physical construct represents the physiological wellbeing of a person.

In this study, the management of stress, nutrition, and exercise are considered essential aspects of physical wellbeing (Hattie et al., 2004). Edwards (2006) suggests that regular exercise is associated with significant improvements in physical wellbeing, including aspects of mood, coherence, fortitude, and stress management. Harms et al. (2017) note that stress and leadership are inextricably linked.

7.4.1.6. Spiritual

The empirical results presented in the quantitative strand state that the Spiritual construct is the fourth most reliable (0.63) and was confirmed and explained in the qualitative strand with an overall word count of 12%.

The spiritual construct represents the conduit between the choices and principle constructs and unites the four innate aspects of a person's existence (mind, heart, body and spirit) so that people are intrinsically motivated to achieve important goals (Delaney, 2005; Maslow, 1972).

In this study, the spiritual skills and abilities concerns personal progress toward the fulfilment of humanitarian related objectives, i.e., evidence demonstrating service toward the greater good and wellbeing of others.

In summary, this study claims that **leadership skills** relate to the six leadership constructs of the conceptual model for leadership skills development.

Approaches to leadership development follow.

7.4.2. Leadership development

The findings from this study indicate that leadership can be developed through a series of events to improve the overall wholeness of a person. In this study, the events concern the following two aspects:

7.4.2.1. Time

De Neve et al. (2013) suggests 24% to 30% of leadership capacity is purely heritable, which implies that 70% to 76% of the time leadership can improve through on-going practice and experience. Ericsson et al. (1993) note that personal development requires a long period of dedicated practise.

Longitudinal studies indicate that leadership can and does develop over time and that individual differences can predict development and its forms (Day & Thornton, 2018). In essence, if people only attempt to develop during a formal programme, then it is doubtful that they will acquire the level of leadership skills required to be effective in leadership roles (Day & Thornton, 2018).

This study provides evidence in support of leadership development. This implies that each of the six leadership constructs, therefore, can be developed through continuous dedication and practice, i.e., leadership development interventions.

7.4.2.2. Interventions

Structured programmes, experiences, and continuous developmental practices best promote leadership development (Conger, 2010; Day & Thornton, 2018; Kegan & Lahey, 2016). Hollenbeck et al. (2006) suggest that leadership competencies such as leadership related knowledge, skills and abilities improve during leadership development initiatives. Illeris (2018) suggests that developmental interventions should be designed and developed to include the three dimensions from learning theory.

1. Content: should include relevant and appropriate content concerning the topic, and primarily concerns the mental construct of the leadership model;
2. Incentive: content needs to be engaging to ensure the person is connected in the learning process, stimulating the motivation to learn which primarily concerns the emotional construct of the leadership model; and
3. Interaction: concerns the social and practical aspect to apply the new skills in the workplace and the context of the business, industry, and broader society.

In this study, the **leadership development** (learning) process concerns the three dimensions of learning theory.

A model for leadership skills development follows.

7.4.3. Leadership skills development model

People have different education, different experiences, different views, and different circumstances – resulting in different knowledge, skills, abilities, and perspectives.

An objective of this study was to critically explore how the conceptual model for leadership skills development could develop leadership skills in the Kwaden Group, as a case in the African FMCG sector; implying the model should cater to *all* people in the Kwaden Group - irrespective of age, ethnicity, education, experience, belief system and circumstances etcetera.

The overall objective of the leadership skills development model is to help people improve their leadership capacity, and in this case, the Kwaden Group, as a case in the African FMCG sector.

The following leadership skills development approaches are presented:

1. Leadership skills development model for an individual;
2. Leadership skills development model for a business;
3. Leadership skills development model for the Kwaden Group;
4. Leadership skills development model for the Kwaden Alliance; and a
5. Leadership skills development model for the African FMCG industry.

7.4.3.1. Individual

Figure 7.1 Illustrates leadership skills development at an individual level.

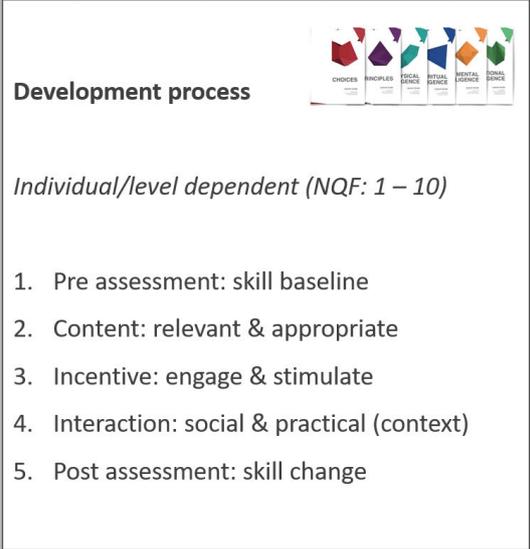
Super-Cube®: Leadership Skills Development Model	Leadership		Skills	Development				
	Constructs	Operational Definition	Level dependent (NQF 1-10)	1. Pre assessment	2. Content	3. Incentive	4. Interaction	5. Post assessment
	1. Choices	The ability to make decisions based on a set of principles	Decision-making skills	 <p>Development process</p> <p><i>Individual/level dependent (NQF: 1 – 10)</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Pre assessment: skill baseline 2. Content: relevant & appropriate 3. Incentive: engage & stimulate 4. Interaction: social & practical (context) 5. Post assessment: skill change 				
	2. Principles	The ability to understand the rules and standards of social, economic, and environmental	Social, economic and environment knowledge/skills					
	3. Mental	The ability to think, learn, teach, and self-awareness	Thinking, learning, teaching, and self-awareness skills					
	4. Emotional	The ability to perceive, use, understand and manage emotions	Self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills					
	5. Physical	The ability to manage stress, nutrition, and cardiovascular well-being	Stress management, nutrition, and cardiovascular skills					
	6. Spiritual	The ability to act according to principles	Progress on humanitarian related initiatives (requires all skills)					

Figure 7.1 Leadership skills development model for an individual

Source: Researcher

The leadership skills development model (see Figure 7.1) includes leadership, skills, and the development (learning) process.

The **leadership** section comprises of the six leadership constructs discussed in this study. The **skill** section concerns the leadership knowledge, skills and ability that can be developed.

The **development** section follows the leadership development (learning) process. The development section is enhanced to include a pre- skills assessment to determine a person's baseline skill before the development process begins. After that, the learning content, learning incentive, and learning interaction follow at the appropriate skill level e.g., a National Qualification Framework (NQF) level 1-10 offered as a structured leadership skills development programme. At the end of the programme (period to be determined) a post- skills assessment follows to establish developmental changes.

Feedback throughout the development phase should assist in the continual improvement of the development process. The notion is that people use the model to continually develop their leadership skills and progress from the NQF level 1 programme to the NQF level 10 programme. To address the research objective of a leadership skills development model for the Kwaden Group, it seems reasonable to suggest that everyone in the business has a personal leadership skills development plan. The following section describes how each person in a Kwaden business might use the leadership skills development model.

7.4.3.2. Kwaden business

Figure 7.2 Illustrates the leadership skills development for a Kwaden business.

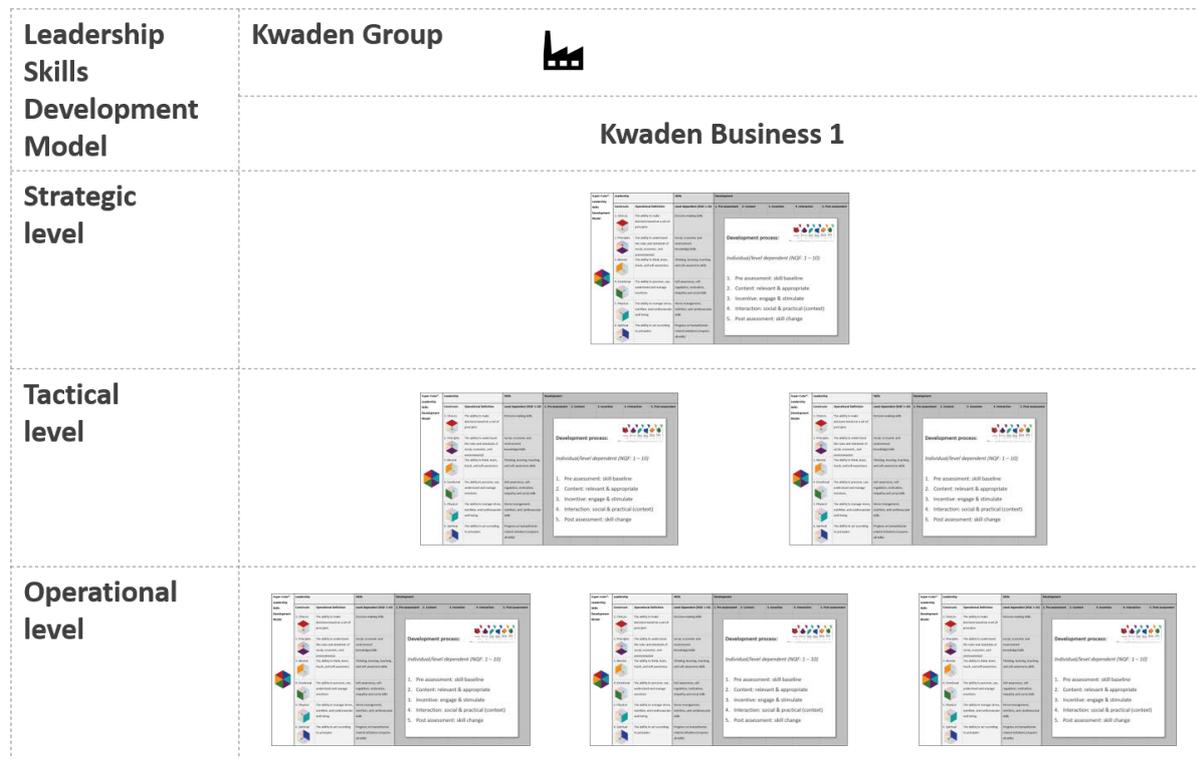


Figure 7.2 Leadership skills development model for a Kwaden business

Source: Researcher

Wassenaar and Pearce (2018) suggest progress in the knowledge era requires models of leadership to evolve and embrace paradigmatic shifts from leadership as a hierarchical role to leadership as an unfolding social process in a shared leadership type perspective. Figure 7.5 provides a schema of a unified, coherent, and multilevel approach to leadership skills development in a Kwaden Group business.

An individual's role and/or position, e.g., strategic, tactical, or operational level in a Kwaden Group business would determine the leadership development intervention (as structured programmes at certain NQF levels) requirements. While developing collective leadership is challenging, Pearce (2010) suggests that shared leadership is an organisational imperative. Furthermore, the notion is that people continue their leadership skills development journey throughout their career.

7.4.3.3. Kwaden Group

Figure 7.3 Illustrates the leadership skills development for the Kwaden Group.

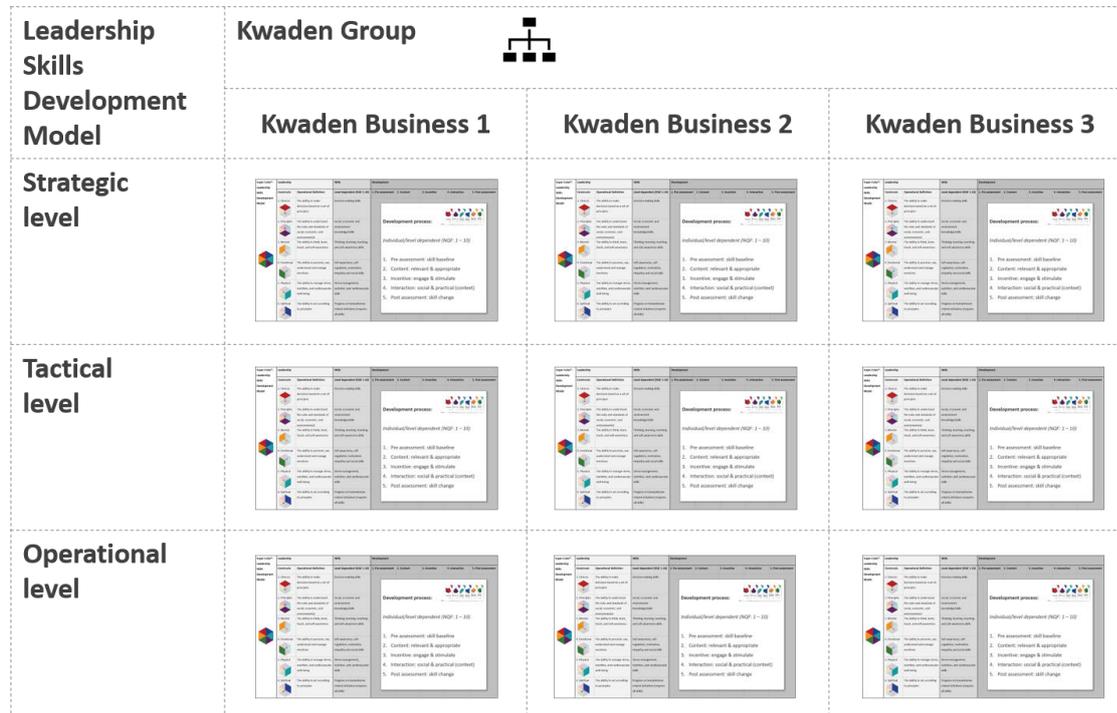


Figure 7.3 Leadership skills development model for the Kwaden Group

Source: Researcher

McCauley et al. (2010) suggest that leadership development is the expansion of an organisation's capacity to perform basic leadership tasks required to accomplish shared and collective work. The Kwaden Group is a collection of Kwaden-businesses which suggests an taking the same approach as the Kwaden business approach, i.e., offering structured leadership skills development programmes at different levels for each business in the Group e.g., Kwaden business 1, Kwaden business 2, and Kwaden business 3 etcetera.

7.4.3.4. Kwaden Alliance

Figure 7.4 Illustrates the leadership skills development in the Kwaden Alliance.

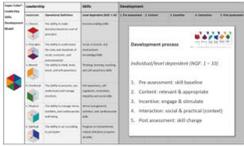
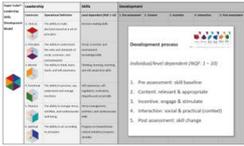
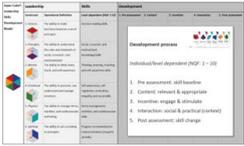
Leadership Skills Development Model	Kwaden Alliance 		
	Kwaden Suppliers	Kwaden Group	Kwaden Customers
Strategic level			
Tactical level			
Operational level			

Figure 7.4 Leadership skills development model for the Kwaden Alliance

Source: Researcher

Expanding on the Kwaden Group level, developing the value chain, and in this case, the Kwaden Alliance is considered a key strategic role (Chironga et al., 2019).

Identical to the Kwaden business and Kwaden Group approach, taking a Kwaden Alliance approach would require leadership skill development programmes at different levels for businesses in the Kwaden Alliance, e.g., at the strategic, tactical, and operational levels in Kwaden supplier and Kwaden customer businesses.

For the Kwaden Group to succeed in Africa it must invest in talent, and that investment will produce rewards for them as they grow. Developing talent is a strategic role which should be considered part of the supply chain, and not merely outsourced to the national university system (Chironga et al., 2019; Leke et al., 2018; Swaniker, 2018).

7.4.3.5. African FMCG Industry

Figure 7.5 Illustrates the leadership skills development for Africa.

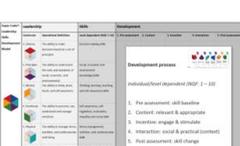
Leadership Skills Development Model	Africa 		
	Country 1	Country 2	Country 3
Strategic level			
Tactical level			
Operational level			

Figure 7.5 Leadership skills development model for Africa

Source: Researcher

Africa has an abundance of talent and converting Africa’s talent might require only a short training programme that could be enough to unlock the skills businesses require (Chironga et al., 2019; Leke et al., 2018; Swaniker, 2018).

Expanding on the leadership skills development approach at the Kwaden Alliance level, developing leadership capacity in the African FMCG supply chain would require programmes at different levels for businesses in the African FMCG industry, e.g., at the strategic, tactical and operational levels in FMCG businesses throughout the African continent.

7.5. Resume

This chapter discussed the results and findings from this study.

A summary of the quantitative data was provided, highlighting the empirically validated conceptual model for leadership skills development. The qualitative data results and findings from the inductive thematic interpretation were also discussed.

Through the assessment and interpretation of the quantitative and the qualitative data, the leadership skills development model for the Kwaden Group was discussed. The leadership skills development model aggregates from an individual level to a business level, a Group level, an alliance level, and finally at an African FMCG level.

Based on the results and finding in this chapter, it seems reasonable to suggest that the conceptual model for leadership skills development has been critically discussed, and could develop leadership skills in the Kwaden Group, as a case in the African FMCG sector.

The following chapter discusses the research conclusion, contributions, and recommendations.

8. RESEARCH CONCLUSIONS, CONTRIBUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1. Introduction

Africa is huge with an abundance of space to build scalable business-networks. Given the continent's rapidly growing population and GDP, Africa is likely to become the most compelling territory for the FMCG industry. The vast unmet needs of Africa and unfulfilled demand make it a continent ripe for entrepreneurship and innovation at scale (Leke et al., 2018).

A smart approach to expand into Africa requires an innovative business model, operational solutions to improve business resilience, and an original approach to unleash Africa's talent at scale to cultivate a new nature of business leader's for the century ahead. Jacobs and Mafini (2019) note that African FMCG businesses require urgent leadership interventions to improve performance. Importantly, businesses that want to grow in Africa should have a plan for doing good, while doing well (Chironga et al., 2019; Leke et al., 2018; Swaniker, 2018).

This study, therefore, addressed the following two research gaps:

1. The need for the unification of traditional and contemporary leadership theories into a more coherent approach; and
2. The need for African FMCG businesses to improve leadership capacity to realise potential.

The study aimed to create a leadership skills development model for the Kwaden Group, a case in an African FMCG business-network, to contribute toward developing talent to improve business potential in the African FMCG sector.

This chapter provides a summary of the study objectives and recommendations for leadership skills development in the Kwaden Group, as a case in the African FMCG sector.

8.2. Summary of research questions, objectives, and outcomes

Table 8.1 presents a brief revision of the research questions, objectives, and outcomes of this study.

Table 8.1 Summary of research questions, objectives, and outcomes

No.	Research questions	Research objectives	Research outcomes
1	What leadership knowledge, skills and abilities are important?	Determine theoretically relevant leadership constructs.	Table 2.16 presents the leadership dimension and attributes.
2	How is leadership developed?	Determine theoretically relevant approaches to leadership skills development.	Table 3.1 presents the leadership skills development.
3	How could leadership skills be developed?	Conceptualise a model for leadership skills development.	Table 3.2 presents a conceptual model for leadership skills development.
4	How important are the dimensions and attributes of conceptual model for leadership skills to the Kwaden Group?	Perform a quantitative assessment of the appropriateness of the leadership constructs within a conceptual model for leadership skills development in the Kwaden Group, as a case in the African FMCG sector.	Table 5.2 depicts the standardised regression weight results. Table 5.3 depicts the construct-to-construct correlation results. Table 5.8 depicts a summary of the conceptual model-fit results.

No.	Research questions	Research objectives	Research outcomes
5	What leadership skills does the Kwaden Group require, and how are they best developed?	Perform a qualitative assessment on the leadership skills and leadership skills development requirements in the Kwaden Group, as a case in the African FMCG sector.	<p>Figure 6.7 depicts the construct distribution results</p> <p>Leadership development: multilevel (inclusivity)</p> <p>Leadership skills development: strategic, theoretical, and practical.</p>
6	How could leadership skills be developed in the Kwaden Group?	Critically explore how the conceptual model for leadership skills development could develop leadership skills in the Kwaden Group, as a case in the African FMCG sector.	<p>Figure 7.1 Individual;</p> <p>Figure 7.2 Kwaden business;</p> <p>Figure 7.3 Kwaden Group;</p> <p>Figure 7.4 Kwaden Alliance; and</p> <p>Figure 7.5 African FMCG Industry.</p>

Source: Researcher

The first three research questions and objective aimed to address the research gap concerning the unification of traditional and contemporary leadership theories into a more coherent approach.

The last three questions aimed to address the research gap concerning the need for businesses in the African FMCG sector to improve leadership capacity to realise potential.

8.3. Body of knowledge contribution

This study set out to develop a leadership skills development model for the Kwaden Group, as a case in the African FMCG sector – a study which has not been undertaken to date. A comprehensive literature review concerning leadership and leadership development contributed to the conceptualisation and operationalisation of a six-construct conceptual model for leadership skills development. The key contribution of the conceptual model for leadership skills development was that it effectively incorporates traditional and contemporary leadership theories into a holistic, integrated, coherent and universal approach to leadership skills development.

The leadership skills development model, if embraced by an organisation, should result in a leadership skills development initiative being built on theoretically relevant and empirically validated constructs. This approach should help organisations build the necessary leadership skills to improve leadership capacity and ultimately improve business potential. This perspective should also challenge FMCG (and other) organisations and learning institutions to look toward a new approach to leadership skills development.

This study not only presented a leadership skills development model but also provides various suggestions on how leadership skills could be developed at an individual, business, group, alliance, and African continent perspective in the FMCG industry. This study should also broaden the debate concerning the evolving concept of leadership and leadership skills development throughout the African FMCG industry. Furthermore, this study should allow leadership skills development institutions to enhance leadership skills development interventions, incrementally and in a coherent way. On a closing remark, FMCG businesses in Africa need to work towards developing Africa's talent at scale to unlock the skills that businesses require to promote local economies and create ecosystems throughout the supply chain. This study provides a model for leadership skills development in the context of an African FMCG business-network, addressing the research gaps and problem mentioned in

chapter 1. As such, it seems reasonable to argue that this study contributes toward to the body of knowledge in the field of leadership and leadership skills development in the context of an African FMCG business-network.

8.4. Recommendations for leadership skills development

With the information gathered from the quantitative and qualitative strands, a leadership skills development model is now available for the Kwaden Group, as a case in the African FMCG sector. The necessary role players in the Kwaden Group should work towards the implementation of the model.

The following points are broad recommendations regarding achieving these objectives.

8.4.1. Leadership company

The Kwaden Group is known for creating and acquiring new businesses based on internal capability and business opportunities. Following this approach, a recommendation is to determine the feasibility of establishing a leadership skills development company. The rationale is the ability to leverage the Kwaden Group network which includes leveraging cost, as well as deploying the capability to new ventures.

8.4.2. Kwaden implementation

The new business should lead the design and development of Sector Education and Training Authority (SETA) accredited leadership skills development programmes, catering for all levels of the Kwaden-businesses, e.g., NQF level 1-10. The programmes should be empirically validated throughout the Kwaden Group, making the necessary adjustments to ensure the programmes are developing the required leadership skills. Once successfully embedded in the Kwaden Group, the objective is to offer the programmes to the Kwaden alliance.

8.4.3. Kwaden alliance implementation

Following the learnings from the Kwaden Group interventions, the new business could market the SETA accredited programmes to Kwaden alliance partners, i.e. Kwaden

suppliers and Kwaden customers. As discussed in the previous chapter, developing the supply chain is considered a strategic imperative. This implies that developing leadership capability in the supply chain is of utmost importance. Not only does it strengthen the supply chain, but more so, strengthens the community and society at large. Once successfully established in the Kwaden alliance, the next objective would be to offer leadership skills development programmes to multiple stakeholders.

8.4.4. Africa implementation

Offering the SETA accredited programmes beyond the Kwaden alliance is a fundamental objective. The end-goal is to offer leadership skills development programmes to everyone, that is, from early childhood development, general education, further education, and higher education, i.e., throughout a person's lifecycle, and across the African continent. The Kwaden Group's purpose is to create 'hope and opportunity' in people's lives and developing leadership skills is central to realising that objective.

8.5. Study limitations

Various concepts of leadership and leadership skills development were discovered in the examination of the literature. While the researcher is confident that this study contributed to the creation of a leadership skills development model; the study was completed on a case study basis only in the Kwaden Group of companies and results cannot be generalised to other organisations.

8.6. Future research

The opportunity for future research is vast. As leadership is a complex and evolving concept with many variables, opportunities for future research exist, particularly in evaluating the effectiveness of leadership interventions. Based on this study, future research, for example, could include research at an individual level, business level, Kwaden Group level, Kwaden Alliance level, and an industry and African continent level. Research opportunities exist for longitudinal studies, where subjects are assessed over a period. Opportunities also exist to assess subjects in the various

contexts in which they operate, for example, at home, and with their family in the contexts in which people live.

The researcher hopes to continue research in the field of leadership, particularly relating to the effectiveness of leadership interventions.

8.7. Conclusion

In conclusion, the Kwaden Group should seek to implement the leadership skills development model in its group of companies. However, the Kwaden Group should pursue partners and create alliances to ensure that, collectively, the appropriate leadership skills development interventions are delivered to help build leadership capacity.

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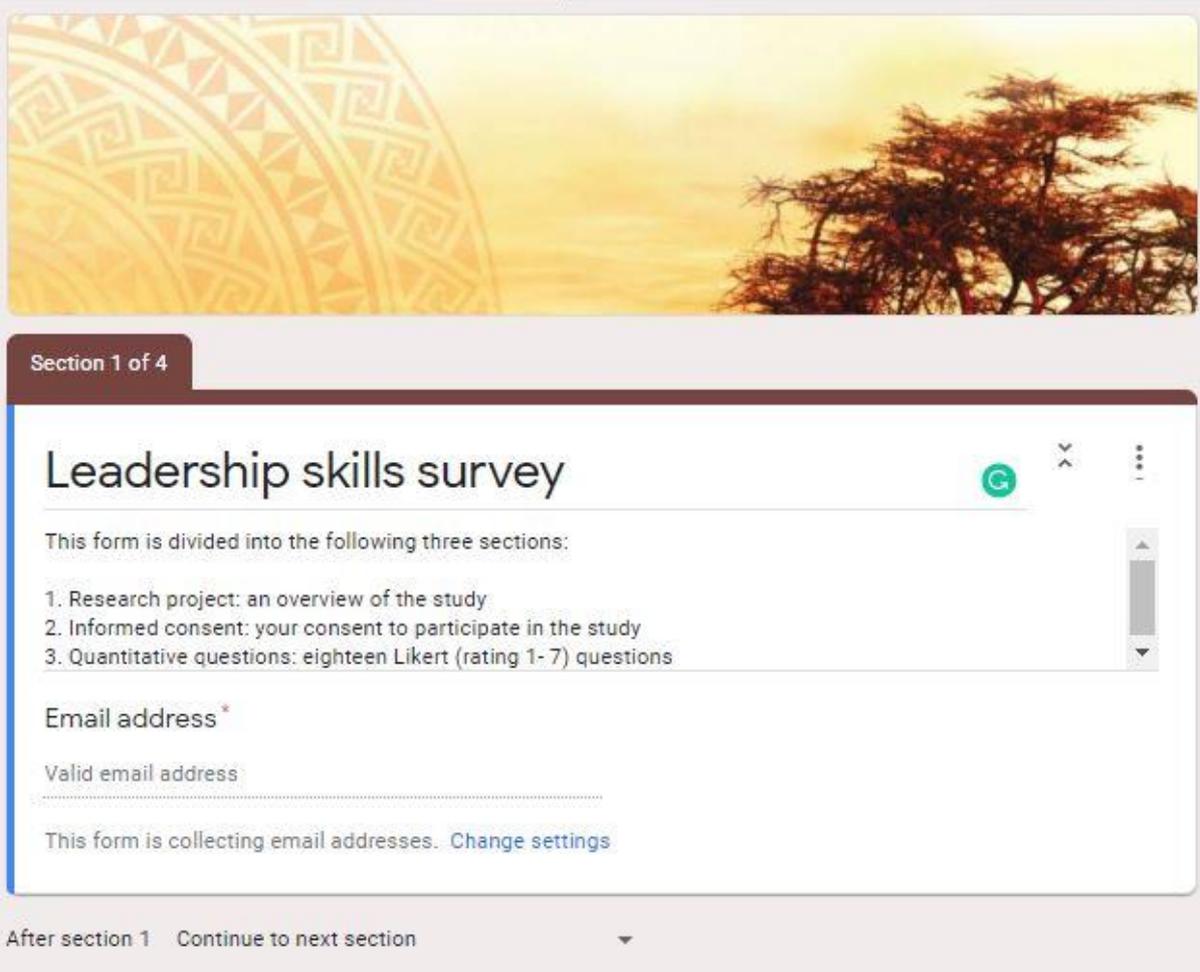
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ANNEXURE A – SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE



The image shows a screenshot of a Google Forms survey titled "Leadership skills survey". The survey is currently on "Section 1 of 4". The header features a decorative background with a golden geometric pattern on the left and a sunset scene with trees on the right. The main content area is white with a blue border on the left. It contains the following text and elements:

- Section 1 of 4** (in a dark red box)
- Leadership skills survey** (title)
- A green "G" logo and navigation icons (back, forward, and menu).
- Text: "This form is divided into the following three sections:"
- A list of three sections:
 1. Research project: an overview of the study
 2. Informed consent: your consent to participate in the study
 3. Quantitative questions: eighteen Likert (rating 1- 7) questions
- A text input field labeled "Email address*" with a validation message "Valid email address" below it.
- A note: "This form is collecting email addresses. [Change settings](#)"
- At the bottom, a navigation bar shows "After section 1" and "Continue to next section" with a dropdown arrow.

1. Research project



I, Craig Ross Muller a DBA student at the Graduate School of Business and Leadership, of the University of KwaZulu Natal. You are invited to participate in a research project entitled: A leadership skills development model for the Kwaden Group: A case study of an African FMCG business-network. The aim of this study is to: research what leadership skills are required by the Kwaden Group, in order to develop a leadership skills development model.

Through your participation, I hope to understand what leadership skills are important to the Kwaden Group.

Your participation in this project is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw from the project at any time with no negative consequence. There will be no monetary gain from participating in this survey/focus group. Confidentiality and anonymity of records identifying you as a participant will be maintained by the Graduate School of Business and Leadership, UKZN.

If you have any questions or concerns about completing the questionnaire or about participating in this study, you may contact me or my supervisor at the numbers listed below.

The survey should take you about five minutes to complete. I hope you will take the time to complete this survey.

Sincerely,
Craig

Contact details:
Researcher: Craig Muller (+27 82 581 4215)
Supervisor: Prof. Theuns Pelsler (+27 31 260 7172)
Research Office: Ms P Ximba (+27 31-2603587)



2. Informed consent



I (participants full name to be provided below), hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in the research project. I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire.

Participants full name? *

Short-answer text

Participants consent (do you agree to participate in this study)? *

1. Yes

2. No

After section 3 Continue to next section



3. Leadership questions



Description (optional)

1. How important is it for a leader to act morally? *

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not important	<input type="radio"/>	Very important						

2. How important is it for a leader to manage risks? *

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not important	<input type="radio"/>	Very important						

3. How important is it for a leader to make moral decisions? *

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not important	<input type="radio"/>	Very important						

4. How important is it for a leader to communicate and instill company values in the team? *

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not important	<input type="radio"/>	Very important						

5. How important is it for a leader to work ethically? *

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not important	<input type="radio"/>	Very important						

6. How important is it for a leader to ensure the company operates ethically? *

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not important	<input type="radio"/>	Very important						

7. How important is it for a leader to have good thinking skills? *

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not important	<input type="radio"/>	Very important						

8. How important is it for a leader to have personal reflection? *

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not important	<input type="radio"/>	Very important						

9. How important is it for a leader to learn something new and teach and/or demonstrate what they have learnt? *

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not important	<input type="radio"/>	Very important						

10. How important is it for a leader to work with the team, and involve the right people at the right time? *

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not important	<input type="radio"/>	Very important						

11. How important is it for a leader to be motivated and disciplined to achieve an important goal? *

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not important	<input type="radio"/>	Very important						

12. How important is it for a leader to communicate effectively with the team? *

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not important	<input type="radio"/>	Very important						

13. How important is it for a leader to consume healthy foods? *

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not important	<input type="radio"/>	Very important						

14. How important is it for a leader to manage personal and team stress? *

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not important	<input type="radio"/>	Very important						

15. How important is it for a leader to do some exercise? *

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not important	<input type="radio"/>	Very important						

16. How important is it for a leader to work toward achieving meaning, purpose and fulfillment in their life? *

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not important	<input type="radio"/>	Very important						

17. How important is it for a leader to lead and serve a team to achieve company objectives? *

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not important	<input type="radio"/>	Very important						

18. How important is it for a leader to lead a company to achieve the organisational dream (vision)? *

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not important	<input type="radio"/>	Very important						

ANNEXURE C – STATISTICAL ANALYSIS



Private Bag X8001, Potchefstroom
South Africa 2520

Tel: 018 299-1111/2222

Statistical Consultation Services

Tel: +27 18 285 2018

Fax: +27 0 87 231 5294

Email: suria.ellis@nwu.ac.za

25 February 2020

Re: Dissertation, Mnr Craig Muller

We hereby confirm that the Statistical Consultation Services of the North-West University analysed the data of the above-mentioned student and assisted with the interpretation of the results. However, any opinion, findings or recommendations contained in this document are those of the author, and the Statistical Consultation Services of the NWU (Potchefstroom Campus) do not accept responsibility for the statistical correctness of the data reported.

Kind regards



Prof SM Ellis (Pr. Sci. Nat)

Associate Professor: Statistical Consultation Services

ANNEXURE D – GATEKEEPER PERMISSION

Kwaden Investments (Pty) Ltd

Registration Number 1993/06605/07

Mutual Gardens, Surprise Road, Maxmead, 3608 • Private Bag X815, New Germany, South Africa, 3620
Tel: 27-(0)31-719 0400 • Fax: 27-(0)31-719 0500



Kwaden Investments

11 September 2018

To whom it may concern

Craig Muller is a Doctorate student at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. He has proposed a research project towards his doctorate thesis project on a **leadership skills development model for the Kwaden Group: a mixed-methods case study of an African FMCG business-network.**

I am aware that the study will take place within KWADEN INVESTMENTS (PTY) LTD., 'KWADEN GROUP', for which he will be collecting data through a quantitative survey and a qualitative interview process with staff.

I understand that this project involves accessing personnel information from current employees within the KWADEN GROUP, and that all such data will be provided to the researcher in a manner which ensures confidentiality of the participants.

I support the conduct of this research in this organization.

Sincerely



Mr. Paul Alcock

Chief Executive Officer

Kwaden Investments (Pty) Ltd.

ANNEXURE E – INFORMED CONSENT

Informed Consent Letter 3C

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS AND LEADERSHIP

Dear Respondent,

DBA Research Project
Researcher: Craig Muller (+
Supervisor: Prof. Theuns Pelser (+27 31 260 7172)
Research Office: Ms P Ximba 031-2603587

I, **Craig Ross Muller** a DBA student, at the Graduate School of Business and Leadership, of the University of KwaZulu Natal. You are invited to participate in a research project entitled: **A leadership skills development model for the Kwaden Group: A case study of an African FMCG business-network**. The aim of this study is to: **research what leadership skills are required by the Kwaden Group in order to develop a leadership skills development model**.

Through your participation I hope to understand what **leadership skills are important to the Kwaden Group**.

Your participation in this project is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw from the project at any time with no negative consequence. There will be no monetary gain from participating in this survey/focus group. Confidentiality and anonymity of records identifying you as a participant will be maintained by the Graduate School of Business and Leadership, UKZN.

If you have any questions or concerns about completing the questionnaire or about participating in this study, you may contact me or my supervisor at the numbers listed above.

The survey should take you about **fifteen** minutes to complete. I hope you will take the time to complete this survey.

Sincerely

Investigator's signature _____



Date 2018/06/13

This page is to be retained by participant

ANNEXURE F – PARTICIPANT CONSENT

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS AND LEADERSHIP

DBA Research Project
Researcher: Craig Muller (+ [REDACTED])
Supervisor: Prof. Theuns Pelsler (+27 31 260 7172)
Research Office: Ms P Ximba 031-2603587

CONSENT

I.....(full names of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in the research project.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire.

SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT

DATE

.....

This page is to be retained by researcher

ANNEXURE G – ETHICAL CLEARANCE



15 November 2018

Mr Craig Ross Muller (201511834)
Graduate School of Business & Leadership
Westville Campus

Dear Mr Muller,

Protocol reference number: HSS/1893/018D

Project title: A leadership skills development model for the Kwaden Group: A case study of an African FMCG business-network

Approval Notification – Expedited Application

In response to your application received 11 October 2018, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol has been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment /modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully



.....
Professor Shenuka Singh (Chair)

/ms

Cc Supervisor: Professor Theuns Pelsler, Professor Steve Edwards and Dr Dave Edwards
Cc Academic Leader Research: Professor Muhammad Hoque
Cc School Administrator: Ms Zarina Bullyraj

ANNEXURE H – TURNITIN REPORT

Document Viewer

Turnitin Originality Report

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A leadership skills development model for the... By Craig Muller

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<1% match (Internet from 16-Sep-2018)						