EFFECTS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES ON ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT IN TWO SELECTED HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN SOUTH AFRICA

BY

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ABSTRACT

The study investigated the relationship between leadership styles and organisational commitment in two selected higher education institutions in South Africa. Transformation is a topical issue in the South African higher education institutions. The slow progress in attempts to transform the sector can be attributed to leadership styles and commitment. The study employed a quantitative research design and made use of a self-administered questionnaire to gather data. The Multifactor-Leadership and Organisational Commitment questionnaires were used for data collection. The researcher used stratified sampling by grouping employees from each institution into academic and non-academic strata. In this study, descriptive statistics, Pearson correlation, multiple regression analysis were performed. The study indicated that transformational leadership and transactional leadership styles are significantly correlated with some of the organisational commitment constructs. The results further revealed that transformational leadership style explained the variance on organisational commitment better than transactional and laissez faire. Therefore, the study concludes that there is no one size fit all and recommended that each institution should diagnose its own situation for better pictorial view of what will work for that organisation. It is further recommended that leaders in higher education institutions should embrace more of transformational leadership as it has potential of transforming these institutions.

Key terms:

Organisational commitment, leadership styles, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, higher education institutions.
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Thank you all.

Ndlovu Wiseman
DECLARATION

I, Ndlovu Wiseman do hereby declare that this dissertation for Master of Commerce in Human Resource Management and Labour Relations done at the University of Venda is my own work. This work has not been submitted in any form for another degree or diploma at any university or other institution of higher education. Information derived from the published or unpublished work of others has been acknowledged in the text and a list of references is given below.

Date..............................................

Signature.............................................
ACRONYMS

UNIVEN UNIVERSITY OF VENDA
WITS UNIVERSITY OF WITSWATERSRAND
OC ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT
AC AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT
CC CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT
NC NORMATIVE COMMITMENT
IS INTELLECTUAL STIMULATION
II IDEALISED INFLUENCE
IM INSPIRATIONAL MOTIVATION
IC INDIVIDUALISED CONSIDERATION
MEP MANAGEMENT-BY-EXCEPTION PASSIVE
MEA MANAGEMENT-BY-EXCEPTION ACTIVE
LF LAISSEZ-FAIRE
CR CONTINGENT REWARDS
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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

This chapter gives a description of what leadership entails and organisational commitment means in this study. The chapter highlights the reasons for conducting the study, and how it was conducted (methodology). The unit of analysis were also discussed in this chapter. This is the most critical part of the research as it gives an overview of the structure of the whole study.

1.2 Background of the study

In an era of more dynamic and prompt change that is cultivated through technological advancements, market expansion, mass production and globalisation, human capital development has become the most important aspect of any organisation and government (Tremblay, Lalancette, & Roseveare, 2012). Governments and organisations have invested extensively on human capital development as part of their strategic move to address these hasty changes and to be ready to meet future human resource needs (Tremblay, et al., 2012). To achieve this, the South African government like other governments around the world has given this mandate to higher education institutions to develop and empower its employees with the necessary skills to meet the dynamic needs of the society (Othman, Mohammed, & D’Silva, 2012). The goals of higher education institutions are primarily teaching, workforce development, and research centred to solve community problems and assisting in the evolution and development of human species (Othman, et al., 2012; Tremblay, et al., 2012).

However, in South Africa, equitable empowerment and accomplishment of higher education objectives cannot be possible without addressing the past injustices and imbalances in the education sector which among others excluded the black majority from acquiring quality education (Tremblay, et al., 2012; Nel, et al., 2014). Therefore, since 1994 when South Africa attained democracy, the emphasis has been on redressing the inequalities of the past (Kruger & Ramdass, 2010). Thus, the government formulated programmes for restructuring and transforming the education system on principles of equity, human rights, democracy and sustainable development (Ministry of Education, 2002).
Inter alia, the government engaged in merging former white and black higher education institutions to improve their performance (Ministry of Education, 2002). Despite these efforts by the government to turn around higher education institutions in the country, little has been accomplished (Badat, 2010; Higher Education, 2015). Higher education institutions in South Africa, notably former “Bantu” higher education institutions, are still confronted by various challenges such as lower graduation rate and higher dropouts, especially for first year students (Kruger & Ramdass, 2010; Higher Education, 2015). Additionally, this is still visible and reflected among the racial lines, which have evoked wide debate on the ways to bring about social balance (Cloete & Kotze, 2015). This has seen the mushrooming of opportunistic radical idealists to transform the South African society (Higher Education, 2015). For this reason, there is a need to investigate factors that can channel the institutions of higher learning towards minimising these challenges and fast tracking the accomplishment of the transformation agenda and overall goals of higher education institutions.

Among many other factors, leadership has been found to be one of the most important ingredients in stimulating higher organisational commitment leading to improved performance and driving change in organisations both private and public (Riketta, 2002; Demir, Sahin, Teke, Ucar & Kursun, 2009; Ozsahin, Zehir, Acar, & Sudak 2013). Yukl (2010) states that leadership can drive employees to achieve the goals of any organisation. In support of the above, Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy (2006) suggest that there is an increasing need for inspired leadership in the dynamic context of employees, shareholders, politicians and academics to provide solutions to organisational problems. Thus, leadership is the driver of change for organisations (Chiang & Wang, 2012). Leadership is defined, as the process of an individual’s influence of a group or followers to attain a specific goal (Clark, 1997). Yukl (2010) defines leadership as the process of influencing others to identify and come to an agreement about what must be done and how it should be done, and the process of expediting individual and combined efforts to achieve shared objectives.

In the above definitions, there seem to be an agreement between ancient and modern leadership definitions that leadership is about influencing others towards a certain objective (Clark, 1997; Yukl, 2010; Nel, et al., 2014). Therefore, to influence the employees in higher education institutions to achieve institutional goals and overcome the future challenges, there is a need for management to adopt leadership styles that will facilitate the accomplishment of higher education institutions goals (Garcia-Morales, Jimenez-Barrionuev & Gutierrez-Gutierrez, 2012). Blickle
(2003) states that for an organisation to be effective, it is critical for managers to influence their subordinates, peers and superiors to achieve their best potential and overall organisation objectives. A study by Stup (2005) found that employees who felt fairly treated, respected and valued by management feel more attached to the organisation. Moreover, they contribute more to its survival, success and adaptation to the ever-changing environment hence transformation (Stup, 2005).

Leadership has generated much attention from scholars which has led to development of a variety of leadership dimensions, ideologies and styles. These include inter alia, directive, supportive, participative and results oriented (House & Mitchell, 1975); functional leadership (Adair, 1983) and transformational & transactional (Bass & Avolio, 1994). These leadership styles were a result of continued refinement of the leadership concept (Vecchio, 1995; Nel, et al., 2014). However, in this study, among the various leadership styles mentioned above, the focus will be on transformational, transactional leadership styles and laissez-faire as a holistic approach to leadership.

Transactional and transformational leadership styles are among the most researched styles in modern leadership studies (Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008; Othman et al., 2012; Nordin & Kasbion, 2013). Studies have focused mainly on these two leadership styles and they have gained much attention in the modern way of doing business (Xiaoxia, Jing, & Xiaoxia, 2006; Asgari, Silong, Ahmed & Abu Samah, 2008; Bushra, Usman, & Naveed, 2011; Othman et al., 2012). Hence, the selection of these two leadership styles was based on their modern applicability and their flexibility (Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008; Bagraim, Cunningham, Pieterse-Landman, Potgieter & Viedge 2011; Nel, et al., 2014).

Transformational leadership was said to be a new paradigm and leaders can use it to create an adaptive organisation (Bagraim, et al, 2011). Therefore, with the ever-changing environment it will be important that organisations, including higher education institutions, adopt a flexible and adaptive leadership style to pursue transformation in these institutions. Bagraim et al, (2011) further state that a transformational leader is a futurist who creates a compelling vision that inspires total commitment to, and acceptance of, change by followers. In addition, transformational leadership stimulates creativity, innovation and new ideas, which help the organisation to grow faster and adapt well to the dynamic environment (Bushra et al., 2011). Avolio (1999) further adds that transformational leaders develop the vision, communicate it to
employees and show consistence in the implementation of a vision thereby generating or
developing commitment from employees towards the organisation’s vision. Thus, the mission of
transforming higher education institutions in South Africa can be achieved through a shared vision
between higher education institutions employees and leadership (Avolio, 1999; Ozsahin, et al.,
2013).

On the other hand, transactional leadership style revolves around the leaders offering contingent
rewards to attain organisational goals (Bagaim et al., 2011; Mokgolo, Mokgolo, & Modiba, 2012).
Thus, transactional leadership represents those exchanges that the leader and the followers
engage in, which in turn influence the reciprocal relationship from employees of attaining
something of value (House & Antonakis, 2014). Leaders who use the transactional leadership
style give their followers what they want in exchange for what leaders want, thus the employees
and leaders engage in a mutual relationship in which each party reciprocates an action, or reward
advanced (House & Antonakis, 2014).

Among factors identified by various scholars as key to turning around organisations and directing
them towards attaining their goals, is organisational commitment (Riketta, 2002; Demir, et al.,
2009; House & Antonakis, 2014). Organisational commitment as defined by different authors
indicates the relationship between an individual employee and the organisation, attachment,
identifying with the organisation, the need to remain and the will to work hard to meet the
organisational goals (Huey Yiing & Bin Ahmad, 2009; Lo, Ramayah, Min & Songan, 2010; Acar,
2012; Benligray & Sonmez, 2012). Organisational commitment has been defined as an
employee’s strong desire to remain a member of a certain institution, his/her willingness to put up
more effort on behalf of the company to achieve more and acceptance of what the organisation
stands for (Ozsahin, et al., 2013).

In addition, Nel, et al., (2014) state that, organisational commitment is one of the key components
to the success of an organisation and it drives employees to willingly make sacrifices in pursuit of
organisational goals. Studies have shown that organisational commitment has other benefits for
the organisation like low turnover, organisational citizenship behaviour, increased satisfaction and
performance that can be used to transform higher education institutions in South Africa (Coyle-
Shapiro, Morrow, & Kessler, 2006). Literature has shown that to achieve higher performance and
transformation there is a need for leaders to accomplish organisational commitment from their
employees (Bushra, et al., 2011; Marry & Suzan, 2014).
1.2.1 Relationship between leadership styles and the organisational commitment

Various studies have been conducted to investigate the effects of either transactional or transformational leadership style or both on the organisational commitment and they have shown a strong relationship in almost all cases (Ali, Babar, & Bangash, 2011; Acar, 2012; Dun, Dastoor & Sims 2012; Igella, 2014). A study by Bushra, et al., (2011) indicates that transformational leadership enhance interpersonal relationships between supervisors and subordinates and it achieves high levels of organisational commitment.

A study by Othman, et al., (2012) investigated the relationship between leadership styles and organisational commitment in higher education institutions. The study confirmed that there is a positive relationship between transactional and transformational leadership and organisation commitment. In support of the above, Ali, Babar and Bangash (2011) found statistically significant, positive correlations between transactional and transformational leadership styles and organisational commitment. Several studies on the effects of transformational and transactional leadership styles on organisational commitment have found a significant relationship between these styles and organisational commitment (Acar, 2012; Clinebell et al., 2013; Igella, 2014).

Leadership styles plays a significant role in bringing about organisational commitment to an organisation (Lok & Crawford, 2004; Alkahtani, 2016). Studies have revealed that among other factors such as age, race, gender, policies, culture, attitudes, and job challenges, the main predictor of organisational commitment are leadership styles (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2005; Asgari, et al., 2008; Sušanj & Jakopec, 2012). Furthermore, Top, Oge, Atan and Gumus (2015) pointed out that inter alia, organisational commitment is largely dependent on the leadership style chosen by the leader or administrator. Literature has shown that leaders direct and guide their followers towards stated organisational goal(s) (Nel, et al., 2014). This in turn influences employees to remain with the organisation and helps it in attaining its objectives (Yukl, 2010). Hence, if employees are committed, they are willing to go beyond the call of duty in pursuit of organisational goals (Yiing & Bin Ahmad, 2009). Thus, leaders can enhance the performance and attainment of goals of these institutions through achieving higher employee organisational commitment (Riketta, 2002).

In addition, many studies have found a strong relationship between leadership styles and organisational commitment (Marjolein & Van Dierendonck, 2012; Munyeka & Ngirande, 2014).
However, literature on the effects of leadership styles on organisational commitment have confirmed leadership styles as the antecedent of organisational commitment (Sabir, Sohail, & Asif Khan, 2011; Marjolein & Van Dierendonck, 2012; Munyeka & Ngirande, 2014). Furthermore, these studies have established solid evidence that there is a positive relationship between leadership styles and organisational commitment (Ekaterini, 2010; Sabir, et al., 2011; Alkahtani, 2016).

1.3 Problem statement

Transformation of higher education institutions in South Africa remains a challenge and in terms of overall output and equity of outcomes graduate production remains very low (Council for Higher Education, 2013; Higher Education, 2015; Cloete & Maasen, 2015). These challenges pose a great threat to both development and social cohesion in a small democracy like South Africa as it breeds high inequality rates (Soudien, 2013). Thus, less skilled people in the country feel left out by the rest of the world community who are perceived or seen as better off (Department of Higher Education, 2015). The South African government through the Ministry of Higher Education embarked on redressing the past. Furthermore, the Ministry of Higher Education aimed to improve the quality of education for all students, regardless of their origin, social, economic and cultural background, for them to have opportunities to obtain knowledge, grow skills and be productive (Ministry of Higher Education South Africa, 2002). In higher education institutions like other organisations, the responsibility for accomplishing the goal of quality respites with the leaders (Moman, 2012).

In response to the everchanging and growing lacuna between the poor and the rich, leaders need to spear head transformation in higher education institutions and this cannot be achieved by leaders alone without committed staff (Navickaitė, 2013; Aydin, Sarier, & Uysal, 2013). As studies, have shown that leadership style(s) chosen have great influence on the degree of organisational commitment of an organisation, therefore there is a need to explore the connection of leadership styles and organisational commitment in higher education institutions to achieve equality in the higher education institutions and attain government projection of having a transformed higher education institutions (Khasawneh, Omari, & Abu-Tineh, 2012; Moman, 2012). Transformation is an essential process of change that is designed to change the thinking, behaviours, attitudes, belief systems, ethos and policies governed by continued mirroring
and action (Besson, Huber, Mompoint-Gaillard, & Rohmann, 2014). Therefore, the study believes that if a leadership style that achieves employee organisational commitment is implemented, the goal of transforming higher education institutions will soon be realised.

1.4 Significance of the study

The study hopes to bring about a contemporary understanding of the effects of leadership styles on organisational commitment in relation to higher education institutions. It also explores and make recommendations on how organisational commitment can be used to achieve the pressing challenge of transformation facing South African higher education institutions.

Furthermore, the study form part of theoretical framework that show how leadership styles influence organisational commitment in higher education institutions. As stated by various scholars that for change to occur in an environment including higher education institutions leadership styles and organisational commitment are the key components (Goetsch & Davis, 2014; Nahavandi, 2016). It is also envisaged that this research can be used in numerous attempts to accelerate transformation in higher education institutions and beyond.

In addition, the study seeks to determine if there is a relationship between leadership styles and organisational commitment in South African higher education institutions. This will lead to an increase in knowledge of the concept of organisational commitment and leadership styles.

1.5 Aims of the research

The aim of this study was to investigate the effects of leadership styles (transformational, transactional, Laissez-faire) on the employee organisational commitment in the higher education institutions in South Africa.

1.6 Research objectives

The objectives of the study are as follows:

- To determine the relationship between leadership styles (laissez-faire, transactional and transformational) and organisational commitment (normative, affective and continuance) in higher education institutions.
- To determine if transformational and transactional leadership styles constructs have varied impact on organisational commitment facets in higher education institutions.
To determine which of the three leadership styles has more impact on organisational commitment in the higher education institutions.

1.7 Research question

Is there a relationship between leadership styles (transformational, laissez-faire and transactional) and the organisational commitment (affective, normative and continuance) in higher education institutions?

1.8 Research hypotheses

H1: There is a relationship between leadership styles (transactional and transformational) and affective commitment.

H2: There is a relationship between leadership styles (transactional and transformational) and normative commitment.

H3: There is a relationship between leadership styles (transactional and transformational) and continuance commitment.

H4: There is a relationship between Laissez-faire leadership style and organisational commitment (affective, normative and continuance commitment).

1.9 Outline of chapters

This section outlines the structure of the research and the study headings and sub-headings.

1.9.1 Chapter One: Introduction to the study

Chapter 1 covers the outline and the introduction of the study and the methodology to be used. In addition, the chapter acts as a guideline to the study.
1.9.2 Chapter Two: Literature review

Literature review outlines the empirical studies that have been conducted in the past by previous researchers. This chapter focuses on reviewing what other scholars and researchers have uncovered or discovered in relation to the topic.

1.9.3 Chapter Three: Research methodology

In this section, the researcher gives a detailed picture of how the study was conducted. The chapter states the methods, techniques and the instruments that were used in the study.

1.9.4 Chapter Four: Analysis and presentation of results

After the data collection from the participants in the study, it is of paramount importance that data be put in a logical and understandable manner. This logical reasoning around the collected information and putting it in a meaningful form is done in this chapter.

1.9.5 Chapter Five: Discussion of research results, conclusions and recommendations for future research.

When information has been interpreted, it therefore needs to be inferred to the population under study, thus using the findings to communicate back on what the study found about objects/subjects.

1.10 Chapter summary

The chapter outlined the background of the study and reviewed briefly what other scholars have done regarding the relationship between leadership styles and organisational commitment. In addition, the chapter went on to illustrate the reason why the study is being conducted and how the study will be presented. The chapter further gave the guidelines as to what needs to be achieved in this study.
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter gives a background on leadership, organisational commitment and problems of transformation in higher education institutions in South Africa. The chapter further shows the relations between these three concepts. In addition, theories and assumptions surrounding the concepts of leadership and organisational commitment are discussed in this chapter. Specifically, the chapter focuses on the effects of transactional and transformational leadership styles on organisational commitment.

2.2 Leadership

Leadership is among the most widely discussed concepts, as it is believed to form the basis for success of any structure, company, organisation, institution and nation (Nel, et al., 2014; Harper & Hall, 2015). Various studies have been conducted to conceptualise the idea of leadership hence different leadership theories have been brought forward on how leaders behave or should behave (Nahavandi, 2006; Mullins, 2010; Harper & Hall, 2015). These include among others, McGregor’s X and Y theory (McGregor, 1960), Path-Goal theory (Evans & House, 1970), Leadership grid (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982) and Hersey’s situational Leadership Model (Hersey, Blanchard, & Natemeyer, 1979).

Theories, styles and approaches on leadership have been developed overtime such as Evans and House (1970)' Path-Goal theory, directive, supportive, participative and results oriented (Mitchell, 1975); Employee and production orientation (Blake & Mouton, 1964); Multilevel Approaches (Lowe & Gardner, 2001) and laissez-faire, transactional and transformational (Bass & Avolio, 1994). The development of various leadership styles meant that leaders are viewed from different standpoints and leadership styles can be adjusted to meet the prevailing environmental conditions (Bryman, 2013). Therefore, leadership theories and concepts are discussed in detail below.

2.2.1 Definition of leadership

Chemers (2014) defined leadership as the process of influencing a group of followers to attain objectives and channel the organisation to the direction that it is more cohesive and coherent.
Similarly, Sušanj and Jakopec (2012), view leadership as the process whereby the leaders try to influence the followers to move towards achieving predetermined goal(s) through interaction. However, some leadership theories and definitions are ambiguous and are dependent on the organisation or context in which they are defined (Pfeiffer, 1977; Spitzberg, 1997). The study used the definition by Nel, et al., (2014) and Clark (1997) which states that leaders attempt to influence others to achieve specified goals.

A study by Walters (2001) identified modern characteristics of leaders such as, ability to create vision, ability to go through tough times, mental agility for fast decision-making, relinquish power and have emotional intelligence to influence others. Similarly, Nahavandi (2006) and Hlupic (2014) also pointed out that emotional intelligence is the ability to identify, understand and respond appropriately to one self’s emotions and those of others with the aim of influencing their behaviours. The characteristics identified above by Walters (2001) show that leadership involves the ability to direct, guide and adapt the organisation to the ever-changing environment. Moreover, leadership is considered as the most important factor in initiating and implementation of transformation in institutions or organisations (DePaul, 2015).

2.3 History of leadership

History has brought about evolution in the school of thought about leadership. This has generated different views and articulations on the subject and some opposing views have resulted and have been contested by various scholars (Walters, 2001; Nel, et al, 2014). There was and still is continued refinement of the leadership concept and how leaders should be behaving (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2013). This refinement led to the development of the transactional and transformational leadership styles (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Some of the leadership developments leading to the emergence of transactional and transformational leadership styles are discussed below.

2.3.1 Trait theory

Prior to the emergence of the transactional and transformational leadership styles, characteristics of leaders formed the foundation of what constitutes a leader (Avolio, 1999). The trait approach theory states that leadership is a skill that a person is born with as opposed to developing or learning to lead (Mullins, 2010; Lussier & Achua, 2015). Cervone and Pervin (2008, p. 8) defined
personality traits as “psychological qualities that contribute to an individual's enduring and distinctive patterns of feeling, thinking, and behaving”. According to Mullins (2010), a person is born with certain characteristics, qualities and attributes that make him/her a leader and these traits separate the leader from the followers. The theory also makes a comparison of characteristics for successful and unsuccessful leaders. This comparison helps in determining traits required for a leader to be successful. The trait theory identified the following traits for a successful leader; self-confidence, knowledge possession, motivational skills, reasoning skills, reliability and morality, charismatic and creativity (Mullins, 2010; Lussier & Achua, 2015).

Scholars such as Stogdill (1948), Mann (1959) as well as Colbert, Judge, Choi and Wang (2012) voiced scepticism in relation to the trait theory and thus, researchers fell out of favour with it. Bass (1990) as well as Van Wart (2014) pointed out that 43 traits of this theory make it difficult to compare results with other studies. House and Aditya (1997, p. 410) revealed that, “one problem with early trait research was that there was little empirically substantiated personality theory to guide the search for leadership traits”. Furthermore, among the scepticism expressed, was that the trait theory fails to take into consideration different situations, the most important attributes of effective leadership and the ability to learn to lead (Lussier & Achua, 2015). Mullins (2010) further states that trait theory cannot be used in the selection of leaders, however, it can be used for benchmarking purposes against which traits can be assessed for a potential leader.

2.3.2 Functional approach

This approach avoids focusing on what leaders are and pays attention to what is important for a leader to be effective and efficient hence the term functional leadership approach (Mullins, 2007; Northouse, 2015). Adair (1983) identified three characteristics of functional leadership which are those concerned with building the team, those concerned with developing individuals within the team and those directed at the achievement of the task. The functional approach strongly argues that leadership skills can be acquired as opposed to being born with (Adair, 1983). In a different view, the functional approach is strongly against the trait theory which is based on the arguments that leaders are born with certain traits for leadership as opposed to learning to lead (Van Wart, 2014). This approach however, assumes that individuals can develop and learn throughout their occupation.
In addition, the functional leadership approach emphasises on the training and self-development of employees. Rayner and Adam-Smith (2009) classified the functional leadership approach as self-selection into management positions or roles. This approach has been commended and viewed as a success especially to middle managers and line managers (Rayner & Adam-Smith, 2009).

Like any other model, the functional approach has its pitfalls. This approach fails to recognise the significance of other attributes such as tacit knowledge regarding effective performance and the relationship between the individual and the organisational context, which comes from the general experience (Yukl, 2012).

2.3.3 Behavioural theory

Behavioural theory is referred to as leadership approach that emerged in the late 1940s and late 1960s by scholars such as Blake and Moutons (1964). The major focus of the theory is on the leadership effectiveness and it must do with how a leader behaves (Bryman, 2013). The approach brought a shift from the former common view that leaders with the right abilities/attributes must be selected and changed to believe that effective leadership lies in certain behaviours (Bryman, 1992; Avolio & Yammarino, 2013).

When Blake and Moutons (1964) introduced the concept, they identified two types of leaders: the leaders who are concerned with the production and the leaders who are people-centred. Production concerned leaders always put more emphasis on the production, and they closely monitor their subordinates. On the other hand, people-centred leaders put more emphasis and consideration on the handling of employees and they believe that if employees are well taken care of, they will eventually become productive.

The behavioural school of leadership goes further than the trait theory by examining the effect the leader has on the performance of the followers. Thus, a leaders behaviour is examined in relation to the outcomes of the group that he/she is leading. Mullins (2010) summarises these leadership behaviours into task functions and maintenance functions. The leaders who are concerned with task functions focus on the structure dimensions and production. However, the leaders concerned with maintenance functions put more emphasis on employee/follower consideration, thus they exhibit employee centred behaviours.
The assumptions of production orientation are strongly related to the theory proposed by McGregor (1960). McGregor’s Theory X and Y assumes that Theory X managers believe that employees are lazy and they need to be punished if they fail to meet the expectations. This is a clear indication of the concern for production as propounded by Mullins (2007). Similarly, this assumption is closely linked with the transactional leadership in which the leaders go to the extent of giving subordinates what they want to attain the high levels of production. On the other hand, Theory Y assumes that employees can self-manage themselves and perform well if left alone, thus Theory Y has the concern for the followers and it is people-centred as stipulated in the Ohio State leadership studies by Mullins (2007). Theory Y also contributed to the fundamentals of transformational leadership which advocates that leaders have a concern for their subordinates and these leaders support their subordinates to achieve their best ability (Wilson, 2016).

2.3.4 Path-Goal leadership theory and leadership styles

One of the most prominent contingency approaches to leadership theories is the one developed by Evans and House (1970s) called “The Path-Goal leadership theory”. This theory takes into consideration the way the leader appeals to the followers, the way followers perceive goals and how these goals are to be achieved (House, 1971). House further pointed out that, motivation, satisfaction and work performance of employees or workers is largely dependent on the style chosen by the leader or administrator. House (1971) examined various dimensions of leadership such as consideration, degree of closeness and hierarchical influence and subsequently arrived at four distinct leadership behaviours for different situations and these are the supportive, directive, participative and achievement oriented leadership behaviours. The supportive, participative leadership orientation also formed the basis for Burns (1978)’s theory of transformational leadership. The theory assumes that the leaders have concern for people, support and sometimes participate in their activities to inspire them.

On the other hand, transactional leadership exhibits the features of directive and achievement orientation. This implies that leaders will offer something for the goals to be met and they go further to direct the subordinates on how to perform certain tasks (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

Leadership styles are concerned with the leader’s attitude towards the followers and the behaviours exhibited on a day-to-day basis through interaction with the followers (Naseer, Raja, Syed, Donia, & Darr, 2016). Thus, this creates a range of possibilities and therefore different
leadership styles (Naseer, et al., 2016). These styles are mainly focused on the powers of both managers and non-managers when making decisions. This approach scrutinises the skills and requirements for leading the group and no specific attributes are said to be recommended for a specific situation therefore, there is room for analysing and identifying a range of successful leadership styles. In addition, the model shades light on the importance of flexibility in leaders in management styles, thus leaders should approach every situation differently depending on its merits and the environment.

2.4 Synthesis of transactional and transformational leadership styles

The above-mentioned leadership theories and approaches can be summed into three modernised approaches and theories which are laissez-faire, transactional and transformational leadership styles. These three leadership styles sum up the different approaches/theories proposed by different scholars and researchers (McGregor's Theory X and Y, 1960; Evans and House' Path-Goal Theory, 1970; Blake and Mouton's Behavioural approach, 1964; & Adair's Functional approach, 1983). Inter alia, the leadership approaches mentioned above exhibit two basic features which are transactional and transformational leadership approaches and the non-leadership component laissez-faire.

Judge and Piccolo (1978) pioneered the concept of transactional, transformational and laissez-faire leadership. This concept was further developed by Bass and Avolio (1994) into what they called the full range of leadership. Scholars such as Bass and Avolio (1994) were more interested in identifying the “full range of leadership”. In their attempts to conceptualise the full range of leadership, they discovered that every leader shows a frequency of transactional and transformational behaviours, as well as non-leadership behaviours (laissez-faire). Burns (1978) distinguished between transactional and transformational leadership, the assumption was that the one prohibits the other and there is a feeling that these leadership styles are at opposite ends of the range of leadership (Gellis, 2001; Judge & Piccolo, 1978).

Nevertheless, great leaders exhibit the traits of both transactional and transformational leadership features and non-leadership components (Judge & Piccolo, 1978). Thus, the call for marrying the three styles as they complement and enhance each other (Rolfe, 2011). Hence, among the many leadership styles put forward by various scholars such as directive, supportive, coaching, and delegating, full range leadership (laissez-faire, transactional and transformational) were chosen for the purposes of this study as they sum-up various styles together. These two have been found
to show a great deal of levels of employee organisational commitment (Sušanj & Jakopec, 2012; Dunn, et al., 2012; Joo, Yoon & Jeung, 2012; Leow & Khong, 2015). However, both styles exhibit different levels of employee commitment in different situations/circumstances (Leow & Khong, 2015).

This two-dimensional leadership styles notion has contributed significantly to the field of leadership (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985; Roueche, Baker III, & Robert, 2014). After the emergence of two-dimensional leadership styles, interests have shifted to, amongst others, to transformational and transactional or charismatic leadership styles (Fisher, Weir, & Phillips, 2014; Leow & Khong, 2015). The full range leadership approaches were chosen in this study based on their modern applicability and that they are future focused as opposed to the traditional and other leadership styles (Bagaim, et al., 2011). Transactional and transformational leadership styles are therefore discussed as follows.

2.4.1 Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership is the process of changing employee attitudes and perceptions about the organisation in preparation of changes in company strategies and objectives (Yukl & Fleet, 1992). This leadership style generates or stimulates employee morale and it encourages employees to use their abilities (Cleveland-Innes & Sangra., 2010). Furthermore, transformational leadership motivates employees to arrive at performances that are beyond expectation through believing in organisational values and norms (Bass, 1985). According to Roueche, Baker III and Robert (2014), transformational leadership style ignites a positive change in employees’ attitudes towards the strategies and goals of the organisation. Transformational leaders develop the vision, communicate it to employees and show consistence in the implementation of the vision thereby generating or developing commitment from employees towards the vision (Somboonpakom & Kantabutra, 2014). Covey (2007) stated that transformational leaders encourage their followers by raising the bar through appealing for higher ideals and values from their followers. In this, they influence values and use enigmatic methods to entice followers to the values and to themselves (Covey, 2007).

According to Susan (2014), transformational leaders have four features that enable them to motivate others and these are; idealised influence, inspirational motivation, individualised
consideration and intellectual stimulation. A transformational leader helps individuals to go beyond their self-interest for the sake of the greater dream of the institution (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1995). Transformational leaders believe in people, and are driven by a strong set of standards such as faithfulness, trust, and personal attention to employees, which could positively influence employee organisational commitment in the end. These key features give leaders the ability to analyse the situation (intellectual stimulation), take into consideration followers’ different circumstances (individualised consideration), incorporate objectives and goals to one vision shared by him and the followers (idealised influence) and drive the followers to attaining the unexpected outcomes (inspirational motivation) (Somboonpakom & Kantabutra, 2014). These features of transformational leadership are discussed as per Dubinsky et al., (1995) and Bass (1985) below:

2.4.1.1 Charisma or idealised influence (II)

This is the extent to which the leader acts in a pleasant way that stimulates employees or followers to develop attachment with the leader. Idealised leaders exhibit views, believe in their followers and appeal to their employees (Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Thus, leaders set clear values and live up to them on a day-to-day basis and being a role model to their employees. Building genuine rapport between the leaders and the followers is the key in this kind of leadership style and trust should be built on strong grounds of morality and ethics. Hence, this characteristic can be used effectively in bringing about employees in higher educational institutions to have a shared vision of the institution (Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013; Roueche, Baker III, & Robert, 2014).

2.4.1.2 Inspirational motivation (IM)

According to Bally (2007), the leader inspires and appeals to his followers through articulating the vision in a charismatic manner. Inspirational leaders challenge their employees by setting high standards, communicating about the future goals and giving the meaning to the job at hand (Bally, 2007; Ndunge, 2014). The belief by inspirational leaders is that followers should have a solid sense of purpose for them to be committed to achieving the goals of the organisation. Inspirational motivation raises enthusiasm and optimism, intellectual stimulation inspires rationality and reasoning, individualised consideration focuses on the personal attention and idealised influences gives visions and drive to accomplish a set goal or mission (Dubinsky, Jolson & Spangler, 1995). Lastly, communication is used as the basis for inspiring followers hence; this implies that
inspirational leaders must have robust communication skills (Hackman & Craig, 2013; Ndunge, 2014).

2.4.1.3 Intellectual stimulation (IS)

Intellectual stimulation refers to the extent to which the leader challenges perceptions, lobbies followers’ ideology and takes risks. These leaders arouse and encourage creativity from their subordinates. The main goal from this leadership feature is to provide a structure to the followers on how they connect to the leader, the company, objectives and one another. It is believed that with this structure, followers will be able to overcome obstacles (Northouse, 2010; Northouse, 2015).

2.4.1.4 Individualised consideration (IC)

Individualised consideration refers to the extent to which the leaders attend to the individual needs of employees and guide employees in overcoming or dealing with these concerns. The leader respects and shows appreciation of the contributions made by each member of the team in the organisation (Northouse, 2010; Northouse, 2015). This approach also gives leaders the opportunity to propel greater achievement and growth in the organisation. For this reason, higher education institution leaders can achieve greatness through appreciating the contributions made by individuals hence, greater commitment and achievement for the institutions (John & Taylor, 2014).

2.4.2 Transactional leadership

Transactional leadership represents those exchanges that the leader and the followers engage in, in turn influences a reciprocal relationship from employees of attaining something of value (Hunter, et al., 2013). Transactional leaders give their followers what they want in exchange of what they leaders want, thus the employees and leaders in this case engage in a mutual relationship in which each part reciprocate an action, or reward advanced (Hall, 2013). This implies that transactional leaders should continuously fulfil the expectations of their subordinates to ensure continued commitment from them (Mokgolo, Mokgolo & Modiba, 2012). In addition, Jansen (2015) suggested that transactional leadership is crucial to effective management, as the effectiveness eventually leads to the success of an institution.
House and Antonakis (2014) distinguished between levels of transactional leadership style ranging from what he called “obvious (jobs, subsidies for campaign contributions) to the less obvious (trust, commitment and respect)”. Burns (1978) identified another form of transactional leadership which involves the promises that are grounded on the exchangeable values that comprise of respect and trust. These values create a bond between leaders and followers in an endeavour to realise the needs of both parties. In support of this, Bass (1985) identified three dimensions of transactional leadership, which are management-by-exception, laissez-faire and contingent rewards and these are discussed below.

2.4.2.1 Management-by-exception (ME)

It entails that leaders monitor followers’ performance or behaviour and take corrective action should there be any deviation from the predetermined standards. This was classified as active management-by-exception (Bass, 1985). LePine, Zhang, Crawford and Rich (2013) further state that there is also passive management-by-exception whereby the leader fails to intervene until a problem gets serious. This kind of management-by-exception gives followers the freedom to conduct their business without leadership interference. However, things usually get out of control when the mistake made has a detrimental effect to the business (LePine, et al, 2013).

2.4.2.2 Contingent rewards (CR)

Leaders engage in a constructive path goal transaction of reward for the effort put by an employee. Moreover, expectations, exchange promises and resources for support of the leaders are clarified (Bernerth, Walker, & Harris, 2016). Leaders and employees also arrange mutually satisfactory agreements, negotiate for resources, exchange assistance for effort and provide commendations for successful follower performance (Bass, 1985; House & Antonakis, 2014).

2.4.3 Laissez-faire leadership style (LF)

Laissez-faire leadership is a non-leadership component that is exhibited by leaders. Leaders here tend to avoid their responsibilities and they are usually absent whenever needed (Breevaart, et al., 2014). Laissez-faire leaders also resist expressing their views on critical matters and they do not follow up on requests for assistance (Wrong & Giessner, 2015). Thus, managers avoid at all costs interfering with employees at doing their job (Bass, 1996; Skogstad, Hetland, Einarsen, & Glaso, 2014).
2.5 Contrast between transactional and transformational leadership styles

Burns (1978) discusses various types of leadership styles, especially contrasting transactional and transformational leadership. Transactional leadership style largely appeals to self-interested motivations of followers, with transformational leadership, which attempts to raise followers’ consciousness to reform and improve the institutions (Van Wart, 2005; Rotberg, 2014). According to Sorenson (2016) transactional leadership takes place when a person initiates contact with others for the purposes of an exchange of valued items. This type of leadership is also thought of as the politics of exchange (Chemers, 2014).

On the other hand, transformational leadership, has a moral height. It occurs when two or more persons engage each other in a way that they raise each other's levels of morality and motivation. Burns (1978) views transformational leadership as an active and a two-way relationship between a leader and his followers. In this case leaders are said to connect the needs and wants of their followers to establish motivation (Chemers, 2014). In addition, this enables the realisation of shared organisational goals that meet the expectations of both the leader and the followers. Mutual need and empathy are key characteristics of transformational leadership (Vigoda-Gadot & Beeri, 2012). Hooijberg and Lane (2014) also believe that every person is engaged in the leadership process in one way or another at different times and in different situations.

Unlike transformational leadership, transactional leadership builds a leader-employee relationship based on contingent positive and negative reinforcement in the sense of the exchange theory (Chemers, 2014). Hence, transactional leadership takes place when a leader rewards or disciplines a follower, based on how the follower behaved or performed (Jian & Gail, 2016).

2.6 Organisational commitment

Organisational commitment is one of the key components to the success of an organisation (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). It is important to explore organisational commitment in detail. Employee organisational commitment can be described as the psychological state which an employee has regarding his/her relationship with the organisation. Therefore, it determines employees’ willingness to remain in the organisation (Acar, 2012). Some scholars have defined organisational commitment as an employee’s strong desire to remain a member of a certain institution, his/her willingness to put up more effort on the behalf of the company to achieve more and acceptance of what the organisation stands for (Ozsahin, Zehir, Acar & Sudak, 2013).
According to Nel, et al., (2014) commitment does not necessarily mean employees are strongly drawn to the organisation or have positive feelings about the organisation but it becomes apparent only when employees are willing to make sacrifices to achieve employers’ goals. With this definition, one can argue that organisational commitment plays a vital role in influencing employees to accomplish the goals of the company. This assertion is strongly supported by Chew and Chan (2008) who stated that organisational commitment is one of the strong determinants of success and performance of the organization. Organisational commitment also increases creativity within employees (Sousa & Coelho, 2011). Therefore, it will enhance the way in which staff in higher education institutions deal with the challenges of teaching and learning in higher education institutions.

In addition, McAllister and Ferris (2016) pointed out that organisational commitment is a multidimensional construct, which indicates employees’ attachment and contribution to the organisation. Furthermore, organisational commitment was viewed as a two-dimensional concept, consisting of affective and continuance commitment (Eisenberger, et al., 1990). Furthermore, Meyer and Allen (1984) defined affective commitment as a positive feeling of identification, attachment and involvement by an employee to the organisation or work that he/she is involved with. In addition, (Mignonac, Vandenberghhe, Perrigot, El Akremi, & Herrbach, 2015) refer affective commitment as a strong intent or will to remain with the organisation. Continuance commitment is the extent to which the employee or an individual is willing to remain in the organisation in relation to the costs of leaving the organisation (Dhar, 2014). Allen and Meyer (1990) identified the third dimension of organisational commitment, which is normative commitment. This construct refers to the obligation to remain with the organisation.

These three dimensions are discussed in detail below.

2.6.1 Affective commitment

Affective commitment (AC) refers to an employee's emotional attachment to, engagement and identification with the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990). This attachment and involvement make an employee to become part of the organisation and feel at easy to accept the goals and objective of the business. In addition, Conklin, Dahling and Garcia (2013) describe affective commitment as the strength of individual's identification with the group, organisation or emotional bond that exist between an individual and group organisation. Moreover, affective attachment refers to
affective orientation to the group; it is the strength of individual identification with the group or organisation (Vakola & Nikolau, 2005; Lam & Liu, 2014). This type of commitment is also thought of as the state at which individuals identify with the organisation combined with desire and will to remain members and achieve its goals (Vakola & Nikolau, 2005; Lam & Liu, 2014).

Morrow (1993) as well as Sheldon (1971) added that affective commitment refers to the positive feelings or attitudes that an employee has towards the organisation. Furthermore, this type of an attitude is an orientation towards the institution, thus attachment germinates between that individual and the organisation (Lam & Liu, 2014). This type of commitment is influenced by the way in which the organisation matches one’s expectation from the organisation. Thus, the more the expectations are met the higher the affective commitment (Storey, 1995; Kim, 2014). Meyer and Allen (1990) conclude that this type of commitment is generally the extent to which an employee identifies with the organisation.

2.6.2 Continuance commitment

Continuance commitment (CC), according to Allen and Meyer (1990) refers to the employees’ evaluation of the costs of leaving the organisation versus those of staying. Those employees who see that the cost of leaving the organisation is greater than the cost of staying will remain with the organisation as they feel they must. Moreover, any factor that increases the cost of leaving the organisation will result in the reinforcement of continuance commitment. Under continuance commitment, employees consider factors such as the time and energy spent on the development of the organisation when making the decision to leave or stay with the organisation (Ranaweera & Menon, 2013). Investments in the provident fund and opportunities for promotion based on tenure are considered important as they cannot be transferred to new companies where the person might be moving to (Hartman & Bambacas, 2000).

Beck and Wilson (2000) as well as Lin and Hwang (2014) described continuance commitment as an instrumental attachment to the institution where the employee evaluates the cost of leaving, thus it is based on economic benefits gained by remaining with one’s organisation. There is a strong link between rewards obtained and continuance commitment. Unlike affective commitment, employees with continuance commitment may remain with the organisation without identifying with the values and objectives of the very organisation (Beck & Wilson, 2000). This indicates that
if employees are offered better salaries and benefits by other organisations, they will leave their organisation as this type of commitment is more attached to rewards (Best, 1994; Keskes, 2014).

2.6.3 Normative commitment

Normative commitment (NC) is the feeling of obligation by an employee to stay with the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Allen and Meyer further stipulated that an employee with this feeling would remain with the organisation if they feel obliged. Furthermore, Benligray and Sonmez (2012) pointed out that employees with normative commitment tend to be adaptive and flexible with the organisational changes. Employee adaptation and flexibility are enhanced by two principles of pre-entry and post-entry. Pre-entry allows an employee to be cultured into the organisation. Post entry, allows employees to become attached to the organisation through socialisation (Wiener, 1982). In support, Allen and Meyer (1990) stated that socialisation and exchange play a critical role in the development of normative commitment.

A study by Scholl (1981) as well as Yucel, McMillan and Richard (2014) identified another mechanism referred to as “the principle of exchange” which relates to moral obligation by employees coming from the rewards paid to them by the institution. Suliman and Iles (2000) added that these rewards give employees a feeling to reciprocate the company’s commitments to them; hence, they feel obliged to pay back to the organisation through working hard. In a similar view, McDonald and Makin (2000) indicate that employees feel the need to remain with the organisation because of morale or reciprocal obligation based on what the organisation has done for that employees.

2.7 Factors affecting the organisational commitment

Various factors shape up organisational commitment. These factors have both positive and negative effects to organisational commitment. Thus, it is of paramount importance that organisations manage and monitor these factors to maintain and improve employee organisational commitment. Among others, these factors include, organisational structure, personal characteristics, positive relationships and management and leadership styles.

A study by Igella (2014) on factors influencing organisational commitment, revealed that organisational factors such as organisational structure if not closely monitored are the greatest
contributors of loss of morale amongst employees. This will result in employees intending on leaving the organisation (Igella, 2014). These organisational factors are discussed below

2.7.1 Organisational structure

Organisational structure refers to the way in which the organisation’s decision-making processes are designed. This further depicts the competence, leadership, functional relations and talent of the organisation (Verma, Bhat, Rangnekar, & Barua, 2015). The structure shows the hierarchical levels, span of control, responsibility, roles and mechanism for integration and problem solving (Fauziah & Nordin, 2010). According to Mwangi (2015) the removal of bureaucratic organisational structure boosts the commitment of the employees of any organisation both in terms of loyalty and attachment to the institution. Hassan, Wright and Yukl (2014) further add that leaders can improve employee organisational commitment through showing them direction and influence as opposed to orders.

2.7.2 Job related factors and work environment

Job related factors refer to working conditions or work environment. Unpleasant working conditions have a negative impact on the employee’s organisational commitment (Fauziah & Nordin, 2010). Thus, if these factors are not properly addressed they have the ability to affect employees' organisational commitment which in turn affects the company’s productivity.

Ambiguous job tasks have a negative impact on the commitment and the lack of promotional opportunities within one’s job negatively affects employee organisational commitment (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). Other job related factors that have a direct impact on employee organisational commitment include autonomy, level of responsibility, communication, decision-making and task arrangement (McDonald, 2011). Bosman, Buttendach and Laba (2008) and (Mohammed, Lai, Daskalaki and Saridakis (2016) further pointed out that job security also plays a crucial role in minimising employees’ turnover or keeping employees within the organisation. (Bosman, et al, 2008). This suggest that if employees feel secure in their jobs they are more likely to remain with the organisation and contribute to its growth.
2.7.3 Personal characteristics

Age, gender, seniority, generational gap and number of years at work among others, are personal attributes that contribute to an employee’s willingness to remain with the organisation (Zheng, Sharan, & Wei, 2010; Jafr, 2011). Baron and Greenberg (1990) report that older employees who have been with the organisation for a long time and are satisfied with their work tend to commit more to the organisation as opposed to the younger generations. Noordin (2011) further supports this by stating that older employees commit to the organisation for several reasons such as greater satisfaction with their jobs, gaining promotion and having cognitively justified their remaining in an organisation.

Meyer and Allen (1997) as well as Bernal, Castel, Navarro and Torres (2005) argue that gender has an important role when it comes to employee organisational commitment. This can be reflected in that males tend to be flexible and can easily move when they are no longer satisfied with their jobs, unlike females who generate emotional attachment to the organisation and they fear starting over again, thereby committing to the organisation (Bernal, et al., 2005).

2.7.4 Leadership styles

Studies have strongly shown that employee organisational commitment strongly relies on the leadership styles adopted by those in authority (Acar, 2012; Top, et al., 2015). Furthermore, leadership style has the potential to motivate and demotivate employees (Chemers, 2014). In support of the above, other factors (personal characteristics, work environment, job security) contribute to commitment but not as significant as leadership styles. Moreover, job characteristics (primarily role ambiguity and role conflict) have a significant but lesser role in predicting employee organisational commitment (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014).

Armstrong and Taylor (2014) argue that leadership styles that encourage staff participation are the drivers to employees’ commitment to organisational goals. Belias and Koustelios (2014) agree with this, by stating that leadership styles that are flexible and participatory can strongly and positively influence employee’s commitment to the organisation. Thus, organisational leaders should ensure that their leadership styles focus on attaining employee organisational commitment to facilitate change and transformation in organisations and institutions (William & Anderson, 1997; Cummings & Worley, 2014).
2.8 Relationship between leadership styles (transactional and transformational) and the organisational commitment

This is the core of the study, which shows what literature has revealed about the effects of leadership styles on employee organisational commitment in higher education sector. As it has been stated earlier that leadership refers to the influence a person has on his followers to achieve a specified mission (Clark, 1997) and employee organisational commitment is the psychological state which an employee has regarding the relationship with the organisation and it determines the employee’s willingness to remain with the organisation (Lo, et al., 2010).

Studies have been conducted in the past to investigate the relationship between the transactional and transformational leadership style together with employee organisational commitment (Bushra, et al., 2011; Sušanj & Jakopic, 2012; Clinebell, et al., 2013; Top, et al., 2015). These studies revealed a strong link between these concepts hence prompting the need to conduct this study in higher education institution. A study among higher education institutions lecturers in Nigeria reported that transformational and transactional leadership styles are positively related to employee organisational commitment (Othman, et al., 2012). Similarly, a study in higher education institutions in Ethiopia found that there is a relationship between transformational, transactional and organisational commitment (Gorfie, 2017). A study done by Abdo Saeed, Gelaidan and Ahmad (2013) in the higher educational institutions in Yemen however found varied relationships between leadership styles constructs and organisational commitment facets.

Correspondingly, Emery and Barker (2007) found a moderate positive relationship between facets of transformational leadership style and employee affective commitment. This was also similar with contingent rewards of "transactional" leadership style. In support of this, Limsila and Ogunlana (2008) reported that transformational leadership style positively correlated to employee affective commitment and on the other hand, there were no significant correlations between transactional, laissez faire leadership styles and employee affective commitment. Unlike the contingent rewards, management by exception had negative relationship with affective commitment. Dun, Dastoor and Sims (2012) established a confirmatory relationship between transformational leadership style and employee affective and normative commitment. However, the same study by Dun, Dastoor and Sims (2012) found no significant relationship between transformational and employee continuance commitment.
A study conducted by Acar (2012) about employee organisational commitment and leadership styles in Turkish logistics industry indicated that inspirational motivation and individualised consideration behaviours had positive effects on the employee affective commitment and that these dimensions of transformational leadership give employees strength to face future challenges. Likewise, Judge and Bono (2000) discovered that leaders seen as being transformational were highly likely to be allied with employees that show commitment to the organisation. Similarly, vision articulation, group goal promotion, and intellectual stimulation are said to be significant predictors of employee organisational commitment (Joo, Yoon, & Jeung, 2012).

The study in the Turkish logistics industry reported that transactional leadership (contingent rewards and management by exception) positively affect the continuance commitment with contingent rewards having the most positive relationship (Acar, 2012). Transactional and transformational leadership styles both have an impact on employee organisational commitment; transformational leadership has a greater contribution to the levels of organisational commitment (Bučiūnienė & Škudienė, 2008; Rehman, Shareef, & Mahmood, 2012).

Yiing and Bin Ahmad (2009) studied the relationships between employee affective commitment and leadership behaviours such as directive, supportive and participative, to find moderating effects of employee organisational commitment. In this study, they found that all the above-mentioned leadership behaviours had a positive and a significant relationship to employee affective commitment.

According to a study by Stun (2001), employee organisational commitment is strongly influenced by the job environment brought about by the leader. The study further revealed that this environment combined with employees’ ability would eventually determine the employees’ performance. In addition, Stun (2001) pointed that employee organisational commitment signifies the quality of leadership in that institution or organisation. An early study on this relationship by Mottaz (1988) on the influence of leadership style on employee organisational commitment showed that employees from different occupations who perceived their leaders as supportive and friendly showed more and strong commitment to their respective organisations. Mottaz (1988) and as well as Chemers (2014) added that considerate leaders generate strong organisational commitment from their subordinates as opposed to less considerate ones. Employees tend to interpret this concern from leaders as a sign of care and commitment to them therefore; they
return the favour by committing to the organisation (Mottaz, 1988; Tremblay & Landreville, 2014). In a similar vein, employees who are committed to their managers, supervisors and workgroups are most committed to the organisation (Becker, 1992; Leow & Khong, 2015).

Furthermore, Yousef (2000) pointed out employees who perceive their leaders as democratic or participative in their leadership behaviour are more likely to be committed to their organisation. On the other hand, Yousef (2000) discovered that superiors who provide more accurate timely communication enhance employee organisational commitment.

In addition, Nordin (2012) in assessing leadership behaviour and organisational commitment in a higher learning institution showed that transactional leadership behaviour had contributed the strongest unique influence to employee organisational commitment. Transactional leadership literature has revealed that the transaction is not always equivalent or balanced (LePine, Zhang, Crawford, & Rich, 2013). Thus, if the followers feel the lack of balance between their efforts and rewards they might withdraw their commitment. An earlier study by Graen, Liden and Hoel (1962) show that employees engaged in these types of contractual relationships stipulating the hours of work (8 hours a day) and rewards were more likely to leave the organisation if their expectations or rewards are not met. In contrast, the study by Graen, et al., (1962) also further revealed that employees who are involved in exchange that included support and emotional resources had less chances of leaving the organisation.

In contrast, a study done in the university librarians results revealed no statistically significant relationship between leadership styles and organisational commitment. This meant that leadership styles had no effect on the commitment of employees in the organisation regardless of change in leadership styles. In the most recent study in Malaysia on plantation companies, the results revealed that there is a significant strong relationship between leadership behaviour and employee organisational commitment. The study further concluded that the improvement of leadership behaviour might result in the improvement in employee organisational commitment (Mahdi et al, 2014).

Given the above previous debates and findings, it can be concluded that leadership (transformational and transactional) styles have strong influence on the organisational commitment of employees. However, transformational and transformational leadership styles have varied effects on employee normative, affective and continuance commitment. This is
dependent on the type of the organisation, subordinates, environment and place (Dunn, et al., 2012; Rehman, et al., 2012).

2.9 Conceptual framework

The study proposes a conceptual framework illustrated below. The researcher believes that if leadership styles affect or influence employees' organisational commitment, it will be accurate to categorically state that the attainment of organisational commitment facilitates the attainment of organisational goals and most importantly, institutional transformational (Adler, Zoogah, & Beugre, 2013). Literature, has pointed out that for every organisation to prosper there is a need for committed organisational members (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 2013). These members can transform and realise institutional goals. Thus, the conceptual frame for this study is informed above literature as depicted in Figure 2.1.

![Figure 2.1: Conceptual framework of the study.](image)

2.10 Chapter summary

In this chapter, leadership styles and organisational commitment and its various facets were discussed. The chapter further considered previous studies that have been done in relation to the relationship between transactional and transformational leadership on organisational commitment.
CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the research methodology, which includes research procedure, population, and sampling technique, sources of data, data collection methods and instruments. The chapter further explains how the data was analysed.

3.2 Research method

This study used a quantitative research method. To obtain reliable results in a large population, one must use a bigger sample size (Mertens, 2014). Thus, the study used quantitative approach because of the large population sizes in these two higher education institutions. Mertens (2014) further indicated that quantitative method is quicker and cheaper compared to the qualitative approach that uses observation and interviews. Hence, this makes quantitative approach suitable for collecting data from larger populations.

Under quantitative method, the study used a survey research technique, which provided a numeric description of perceptions, attitudes and feelings of the population under study (Martela, 2015). Descriptive method’s major purpose was to provide more information about a phenomenon (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). Thus, in this study the aim was to gather information about the effects of leadership styles on organisational commitment. Forthwith, the descriptive method was used to enable the researcher to describe and explain the effects of leadership styles on organisational commitment in the two higher education institutions.

Lampard and Pole (2015) added that the survey research technique uses questionnaires or structured interviews for data collection and the findings from the sample population are then generalised to apply to the whole population.

The target population for this study were employees from the two selected higher education institutions in South Africa. The participants comprised of academic and non-academic staff members. The total population is where the sample or participants were drawn (Flick, 2015).

3.3 Sampling technique

In this study, the researcher used the probability-sampling method, which employed stratified sampling by grouping employees from both universities into stratum of academic and non-
academic employees from both institutions. In these strata, a simple random sampling technique was then applied which gave every employee each stratum equal chance of being selected thus reducing biasness. Stratified sampling ensured that employees from both academic and non-academic sides are represented in the sample.

3.3.1 Sample size

To determine the sample size from each stratum, the researcher used a Raosoft sample size calculator, which calculates sample based on 95% confidence interval, 5% margin of error and with the assumption of 50% response rate. Based on the Raosoft sample calculator, the recommended sample size for the University of Venda is 260 and 292 for the University of Witwatersrand. Thus, the total sample size was (n=552).

3.4 Data collection instrument

To gather information from the sample, a self-administered questionnaire was used which comprised of three sections. The first section (Section A) consists of demographic information, Section B (commitment questionnaire) and Section C (leadership questionnaire).

A Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass & Avolio, 1993) and revised by Avolio et al (1995) was used to measure leadership styles at the two institutions. This is a 24-item questionnaire which measures transformational and transactional leadership and is scored on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). It has subscales under transformational leadership, which are charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration. Transactional sub-scales are contingent reward, management by exception and laissez-faire. It has a reliability Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of between 0.893 and 0.895 for sub-scales dimensions for transformational and of between 0.894 and 0.923 transactional sub-scales (Acar, 2012). This instrument has been used in previous studies. These previous studies proved it applicable and valid (Covey, 2007; Acar, 2012; Munyeka & Ngirande, 2014).

Organisational commitment questionnaire (OCQ) (Meyer & Allen, 1990) was used to assess organisational commitment. This 15-item questionnaire measure three dimensions of organisational commitment, which are Normative, Affective, and Continuance commitment. Affective commitment measures the willingness of employees to remain with the organisation,
Normative commitment assesses if the organisation is worth giving loyalty to and Continuance commitment checks if the employees are with the organisation as a matter of necessity as much as desire to remain with the company. It is 5 point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). This questionnaire has reliability of 0.977 using a strict test (Top, et al. 2015). This is a valid and reliable instrument, which has been used by many scholars in testing and checking organisational commitment (Munyeka & Ngirande, 2014; Top, et al., 2015).

3.5 Research procedure

The researcher first asked for permission to conduct the research study. Letters were issued to the Research and Ethics Committee requesting permission to conduct a study at two higher education institutions. After permission was granted the researcher sought consent from the randomly selected participants in the different strata of academic and non-academic staff members. Consented individuals were then handed questionnaires and informed of their rights which include, to participate at will, the right not to complete the questionnaire if they are not happy with the content or feel that the questions asked are of prejudice to them and that they are not obliged to answer all questions. Lastly, collection of the questionnaires was done which paved the way for data analysis, interpretation and findings.

3.6 Data analysis

When the data had been collected from the population then the analysis and data processing began. Boeje (2010) pointed out that, data should be sorted, categorised, combined and then interpreted. Bell and Water (2014) mentioned that data analysis includes a stream of activities from separating data, and regrouping it. Separating and regrouping data enabled the researcher to interpret the data collected. Correlation analysis allowed the researcher to accept or reject the hypothesis that there is a relationship between leadership styles and organisational commitment.

To analyse and draw meaning from the data collected, Statistical Package for Social Sciences Programme (SPSS) version 23 was used. The SPSS uses different tools to analyse data such as correlation analysis, regression analysis, ANOVA, T-test and MANOVA (IBM-SPSS Institute, 2013). Pearson correlational analysis was used to check the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership styles and different dimensions of organisational commitment (normative, affective and continuance). Regression analysis was used to TEST if transactional and transformational leadership styles can predict different facets of organisational
commitment (affective, continuance and normative). Furthermore, ANOVA was used to check if there are significant differences in transactional and transformational leadership styles and organisational commitment in higher education institutions.

3.7 Ethical considerations

Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2012, p.680) define research ethics as, “the standards of the researcher’s behaviour in relation to the rights of those who become the subject of a research project, or who are affected by it”. These ethical standards considered are outlined below.

3.7.1 Informed consent

Kumar (2014, p.243) states that, “informed consent is the right of participants to know what the research is all about, how it will affect them, the risks and the benefits of participation, and the fact that they have the right to decline to participate if they choose to do so”. Participants were explicitly informed about the intent of the study and what their participation meant. Also, participants were notified of their rights of participating in the study and were given an opportunity to give their consent. All the respondents who responded participated in the study voluntarily. Thus, the respondents were told of their right not to participate in the study and that they are at liberty to pull-out of the study at any time should they feel that their rights are infringed upon or for any other reason without stating it to the researcher.

3.7.2 Ensuring no harm comes to participants

This notion is strongly linked to confidentiality. Harm to respondents might come as result of the researchers breaching of confidentiality which might result in shame, worry and uneasiness (Saunders, et al., 2012, p.232). The author therefore established a relationship with the participants and gave assurance that their information would not be shared with anyone without their knowledge.

3.7.3 Confidentiality and anonymity

Confidentiality is the guarantee given to respondents that their data will not be shared or attributed back to them. Moreover, to ensure confidentiality and anonymity, the researcher ensured that
respondents do not fill in their names in the questionnaire administered to them. Lastly, the collection of the questionnaires did not follow any sequence and the collected questionnaires were randomised before they were stored and numbered.

3.8 Chapter summary

The chapter dealt with the methods that were employed in gathering data. The chapter further illustrated how the collected information was organised and analysed using what tools. Above all, the section outlined the processes taken or followed to arrive at a scientific conclusion about the effects of leadership styles on organisational commitment in the two selected higher education institutions. Lastly, the chapter touched on the ethical protocols that were followed in this study.
CHAPTER FOUR: ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the empirical findings of this study. The response rate relating to the present study was presented, followed by the descriptive statistics regarding the biographical information of the participants. The assessment of the reliability of measuring instruments was also established using Cronbach’s Alpha coefficients. Subsequently, the effects of leadership styles on employee organisational commitment was identified for both institutions by means of the Pearson correlation and multiple regression analysis. Thus, linear relationships between the leadership styles (transformational and transactional) and organisational commitment were evaluated using Pearson’s correlation coefficient. The relationships between leadership styles and organisational commitment in both universities follows.

4.2 Reliability of the variables

The reliability of different constructs of transactional leadership, transformational leadership style and organisational commitment was tested using Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient and the results are shown in Table 4.1. The strength of the reliability was also shown in the table under the interpretation category, in a scale ranging from poor to excellent. Tavakol and Dennick (2011) pointed out that a Cronbach’s alpha score of more than 0.70 is considered reliable and applicable. In the Table 4.1 it can be seen that the majority of the constructs of leadership styles were reliable in the study with continuance commitment having the highest alpha value (0.921). Laissez-faire leadership style had the lowest reliability with alpha value of (0.551).
Table 4.1: Reliability of the leadership styles and organisational commitment constructs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Cronbach’s alpha (r)</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Transformational leadership</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualised Influence</td>
<td>0.698</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Acceptable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspirational Motivation</td>
<td>0.715</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellectual Stimulation</td>
<td>0.854</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualised Consideration</td>
<td>0.832</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Transactional leadership</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management by Exception Active</td>
<td>0.591</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Acceptable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management by Exception Passive</td>
<td>0.877</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contingent Rewards</td>
<td>0.788</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Laissez-faire leadership</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laissez-Faire</td>
<td>0.551</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Acceptable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organisational commitment</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normative Commitment (NC)</td>
<td>0.732</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuance Commitment (CC)</td>
<td>0.921</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective Commitment (AC)</td>
<td>0.759</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3 Descriptive statistics

4.3.1 Response rate

Table 4.2 demonstrates response rate attained for this study. The total sample size for this study was five hundred and fifty-two (552) participants from two chosen higher education institutions. The sample size comprised of employees that were randomly selected. Five hundred and fifty-two questionnaires were distributed and 354 were collected. Out of 354 returned questionnaires, 353 were correctly completed and analysed. One questionnaire was incorrectly completed and was therefore un-useable for the purposes of this study. The response rate (total responses / total questionnaires distributed) was 64.1%.

Table 4.2: Response rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>University of Venda</th>
<th>University of Witwatersrand</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sample</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>552</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usable responses</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>353</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total responses</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>354</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A response rate lower than 50% represents minority of the sample population, which indicates that incorrect generalisations about the population may be obtained (Welman, Kruger, & Mitchell, 2015). According to Bryman and Bell (2015), as well as Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2015) a response rate of 59.2% or more is large enough for meaningful statistical analysis and acceptable interpretation. Therefore, in this study a response rate of 64.1% is more acceptable for the attainment of the objectives of this study.

4.3.2 Demographic variables

The overall demographic composition of both institutions is depicted in Table 4.3. The majority of the participants in the study were males, compromising of 184 (52.1%) of the sample and females were 167 (47, 3%). Most participants in the study were in the age category of 40 to 49 years.
(35.7%) and the minority number were in the age category of 60 years and above age 28(7.9%).
Most of the participants were general employees 110(31.2%), followed closely by lecturers 108(30.6%). The minority of the participants were the deans 10(2.8%). Missing values indicate the number of respondents who did not complete the question in that category. For instance, under the characteristics of respondents on positions, the participants who did not complete that specific question 23(6.5%).

Table 4.3: Characteristics of the Participants (N=353)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequencies</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>47.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>52.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30 years and below</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>31 to 39 years</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>19.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>40 to 49 years</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>50 to 59 years</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>25.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>60 and above</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Position</td>
<td>Lecturer</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>30.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>19.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Head of Department</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>General employee</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>31.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dean</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4 Results of the correlation analysis

The relationship between leadership styles and organisational commitment was tested using a two-tailed Pearson correlation analysis. Correlation is a technique used to analyse the degree of the relationship between two variables. The correlation entry yields statistical data or values that range from -1 to +1 (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2013). Furthermore, the data shows the strength and direction of the relationship, and positive (+) figure means there is a positive
correlation and the opposite is equally true (Cohen, et al., 2013). A positive (+) means that as one variable increases the other one also increases and negative (-) means that as one variable increases the other decreases (Andrew, Arora, Bilmes, & Livescu, 2013). If the value (r) is 0 it means, there is no relationship and (r = 1) means absolute relationship. The analysis provided correlation coefficients (r) which showed the direction and strength of the linear relationship and p-value indicated the statistical significance of the relationship (Andrew, et al., 2013). The measure for p-value is based on the confidence of 95% interval, therefore p-value less than 0.05 (p < 0.05) is considered significant (Luo, Tao, Ramamohanarao, Xu, & Wen, 2016).

In this study, correlational analysis was used to determine the relationships between transformational and transactional leadership styles and organisational commitment facets as seen on Table 4.5. Furthermore, the analysis was used to establish relationships with between transactional and transformational leadership styles sub-scales and organisational commitment sub-scales (Table 4.6).

4.4.1 Correlation analysis by objective

This section presents the results of the study findings according to objectives of the study. The strength of the correlation coefficient is determined by the r –value which ranges from -1.0 to 1.0. The closer the r-value to 0, the lower the strength of the reliability. Thus, the closer the r-value to 1, the higher the strength of the relationship between the variables of interest. According to Benoit (2010), the strength of the correlation can be summarised in Table 4.4. The correlation results were presented according to the objective of this study. The strength correlation results were interpreted based on Table 4.4 as put forth by Benoit (2010).
Table 4.4: Interpretation of correlation scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R value</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-1.00</td>
<td>perfect negative correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-0.60</td>
<td>strong negative correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-0.30</td>
<td>moderate negative correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-0.10</td>
<td>weak negative correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>no correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+0.10</td>
<td>weak positive correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+0.30</td>
<td>moderate positive correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+0.60</td>
<td>strong positive correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+1.00</td>
<td>perfect positive correlation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Objective 1: To determine the relationship between leadership styles (transactional, laissez-faire and transformational) and organisational commitment (normative, affective and continuance) in higher education institutions.
Table 4.5: Summary of overall correlation results between transactional, transformational and laissez-faire leadership styles and organisational commitment constructs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Transformational</th>
<th>Transactional</th>
<th>Laissez-faire leadership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Affective commitment</strong></td>
<td>R-value</td>
<td>0.521**</td>
<td>0.113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p-value</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>0.623</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Normative commitment</strong></td>
<td>R-value</td>
<td>0.165</td>
<td>0.633*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p-value</td>
<td>0.072</td>
<td>0.022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Continuance commitment</strong></td>
<td>R-value</td>
<td>0.472**</td>
<td>0.163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p-value</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>0.784</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The correlation results in Table 4.5 show the summary of correlation results between transactional, transformational and laissez-faire leadership styles and organisational commitment constructs. The results show that transformational leadership style is positively, significantly and moderately related to affective commitment (r = 0.521**; p = 0.004) and continuance commitment (r = 0.472**; p = 0.003) respectively. However, transformational leadership style was not significantly related to normative commitment (r = 0.165; p = 0.072).

In addition, the results showed that transactional leadership style is positively and significantly related to normative commitment (r = 0.633*; p = 0.022) and not significantly related to affective commitment (r = 0.113; p = 0.623) and continuance commitment (r = 0.163; p = 0.784) as depicted in Table 4.5.

Moreover, the correlation results between laissez-faire leadership style and organisational commitment showed that there is no relationship between laissez-faire leadership and continuance commitment (r = 0.007; p = 0.893). Furthermore, Table 4.5 shows that laissez-faire
has a significant relationship with affective commitment \((r = 0.695^{**}; p = 0.000)\) and normative commitment \((r = 0.051^{*}; p = 0.037)\).

**Objective 2: To determine if transformational and transactional leadership styles constructs have varied impact on organisational commitment facets in higher education institutions.**

Table 4.6 shows the correlation results between laissez-faire, transformational and transactional leadership styles constructs with organisational commitment facets. The correlational analysis between affective commitment (AC) and transformational leadership style constructs show that affective commitment has a strong positive significant relationship with intellectual stimulation (IS) \((r = 0.844^{**}; p = 0.007)\) and moderate positive relationship with individualised consideration (IC) \((r = 0.451; p = 0.005)\). Moreover, affective commitment has no significant relationship with idealised influence \((r = 0.570; p = 0.088)\) and inspirational motivation \((r = -0.728; p = 0.001)\). Furthermore, correlation results showed that normative and continuance commitment was significantly related to intellectual stimulation \((r = 0.563^{**}; p = 0.002)\), \((r = 0.232^{**}; p = 0.000)\) respectively.

Moreover, transactional leadership style constructs management by exception passive, management by exception active and contingent rewards were correlated with organisational commitment facets as shown Table 4.6. The results showed that affective commitment was positively related to management by exception passive \((r = 206^{**}; p = 0.000)\) and not related to management by exception active \((r = -0.042; p = 0.432)\) and contingent rewards \((r = 0.057; p = 0.288)\). Also, the results show that management by exception active is strongly and positively related to continuance commitment \((r = 0.664^{**}; p = 0.002)\) and normative commitment is also strongly and significantly related to contingent rewards \((r = 0.880^{**}; p = 0.003)\) as seen in Table 4.6.
### Table 4.6: Correlational results between leadership styles constructs and organisational commitment facets

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>II</th>
<th>IS</th>
<th>IM</th>
<th>IC</th>
<th>LF</th>
<th>CR</th>
<th>MEP</th>
<th>MEA</th>
<th>AC</th>
<th>NC</th>
<th>CC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>II</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>IS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>.116’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>IM</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.113’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.034</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>IC</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-.041</td>
<td>.092</td>
<td>.049</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
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<td>.354</td>
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<td><strong>LF</strong></td>
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<td>-.017</td>
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<td>.189**</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
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<td>.062</td>
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<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>CR</strong></td>
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<td>-.041</td>
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<td>.352**</td>
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<td>.000</td>
<td>.005</td>
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<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
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<td><strong>MEP</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-.035</td>
<td>.154**</td>
<td>.142**</td>
<td>.166**</td>
<td>.148**</td>
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<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td>.050</td>
<td>.022</td>
<td>.278**</td>
<td>-.052</td>
<td>-.051</td>
<td>.179**</td>
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<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
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<td>.328</td>
<td>.336</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.739</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>AC</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-.088</td>
<td>.563**</td>
<td>-.024</td>
<td>.051*</td>
<td>.860**</td>
<td>-.002</td>
<td>-.035</td>
<td>.453**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.096</td>
<td>.232**</td>
<td>.739</td>
<td>.649</td>
<td>.037</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.969</td>
<td>.512</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>NC</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.563**</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>-.024</td>
<td>.051*</td>
<td>.860**</td>
<td>-.002</td>
<td>-.035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.993</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.739</td>
<td>.649</td>
<td>.037</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.969</td>
<td>.512</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CC</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.096</td>
<td>.232**</td>
<td>-.033</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>.031</td>
<td>.664**</td>
<td>-.052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.072</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.531</td>
<td>.907</td>
<td>.892</td>
<td>.565</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.331</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**KEY:** II = Idealised Influence, IS = Intellectual Stimulation, IM = Inspirational Motivation, IC = Individualised Consideration, LF = Laissez faire, CR = Contingent Rewards, MEP = Management by Exception passive, MEA = Management by Exception active, CC = Continuance Commitment, NC = Normative Commitment, AC = Affective Commitment.
4.5 Results of the multiple regression analysis

Correlational results helped the study to determine the relationship between different transactional and transformational leadership styles constructs with facets of organisational commitment as illustrated in Table 4.6 above. After the relationships, had been established, multiple regression analysis was carried out to determine if transactional and transformational leadership styles constructs can predict organisational commitment (normative, continuance and affective commitment). Furthermore, the regression analysis in this study was used to determine which of the three leadership styles predicts organisational commitment most.

Multiple regression is a tool that uses two or more independent variables to predict a depended variable (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). Multiple regression explains or predicts variation in the dependent variable which occurs as a result of an independent variable. It is assessed using R square and the higher the R square value, the higher the prediction or determination. The R square ranges from 0.000 to 1.000 with 1.000 showing the absolute fit or prediction (Carver & Nash, 2009). The researcher used Beta Standardized Coefficients to compare which of the transformational and transactional leadership style facets predicts organisational commitment constructs better. Also, Beta Standardized Coefficients were used to determine which of the three leadership styles have more impact on organisational commitment as whole. The results are shown below.

4.5.1 Transformational leadership style and Affective commitment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable: Affective</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>Std.err.</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Idealised influence</td>
<td>0.066</td>
<td>0.074</td>
<td>0.214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellectual stimulation</td>
<td>0.129</td>
<td>0.064</td>
<td>0.016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualized consideration</td>
<td>0.144</td>
<td>0.063</td>
<td>0.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspirational motivation</td>
<td>-0.055</td>
<td>0.039</td>
<td>0.297</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2</td>
<td>0.496</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>4.238</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.7 shows the multiple regression results for transformational leadership style constructs and affective commitment. The results indicate that transformational leadership significantly predicts affective commitment ($F = 4.238$, sig = 0.002, $R^2 = 0.496$). Table 4.7 further shows that individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation significantly predict affective commitment ($\beta = 0.144$; sig = 0.007), ($\beta = 0.129$; sig = 0.016) respectively. This is shown by the comparison of Beta Standardized Coefficients values. From the results, it can be seen that Inspirational motivation and idealised influence do not predict affective commitment ($\beta = 0.066$; sig = 0.214 and $\beta = -0.055$; sig = 0.297).

4.5.2 Transformational leadership style and Normative commitment

Table 4.8: Summary results for transformational leadership style constructs and normative commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable: Normative commitment</th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
<th>Std.err.</th>
<th>$p$-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Idealised influence</td>
<td>-0.022</td>
<td>0.082</td>
<td>0.682</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellectual stimulation</td>
<td>0.169</td>
<td>0.072</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualized consideration</td>
<td>-0.041</td>
<td>0.071</td>
<td>0.443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspirational motivation</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>0.043</td>
<td>0.961</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.009</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$F$</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.563</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.8 shows that transformational leadership style significantly predicts normative commitment ($F = 2.563$, sig = 0.038, $R^2 = 0.009$). One variable of transformational leadership style is statistically significant to the regression model: Intellectual stimulation ($\beta = 0.169$; sig = 0.002).

4.5.3 Transformational leadership style and Continuance commitment

As shown in Table 4.9, transformational leadership style significantly predicted continuance commitment in higher education institutions ($F = 5.853$; sig = 0.000, $R^2 = 0.463$) and only intellectual stimulation contributed to the significance of the regression model ($\beta = 0.232$; sig =
Individualized consideration, individualized influence and inspirational motivation show that they do not predict continuance commitment ($\beta = -0.009; \text{sig} = 0.866$, $\beta = 0.074; \text{sig} = 0.158$ and $\beta = -0.066; \text{sig} = 0.212$) respectively.

**Table 4.9:** Summary results for transformational leadership style constructs and continuance commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable: Continuance commitment</th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
<th>Std.err.</th>
<th>$p$-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Idealised influence</td>
<td>0.074</td>
<td>0.066</td>
<td>0.158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellectual stimulation</td>
<td>0.232</td>
<td>0.058</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualized consideration</td>
<td>-0.066</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>0.212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspirational motivation</td>
<td>-0.009</td>
<td>0.057</td>
<td>0.866</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.463</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$F$</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.853</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5.4 Transactional leadership style and Affective commitment

**Table 4.10:** Summary results for transactional leadership style constructs and affective commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable: Affective commitment</th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
<th>Std.err.</th>
<th>$p$-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contingent rewards</td>
<td>0.053</td>
<td>0.023</td>
<td>0.314</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management by exception passive</td>
<td>0.182</td>
<td>0.064</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management by exception active</td>
<td>-0.046</td>
<td>0.040</td>
<td>0.378</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.074</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$F$</td>
<td></td>
<td>6.938</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regression results indicate that transactional leadership style significantly predicts affective commitment ($F = 6.938$, $\text{sig} = 0.000$, $R^2 = 0.074$). and only management by exception contributes to the validity and significance of the regression model (($\beta = 0.182; \text{sig} = 0.001$). Other variables of transactional leadership style can cannot predict affective commitment as they lack statistical significance as seen in Table 4.10.
4.5.5 Transactional leadership style and Normative commitment

**Table 4.11:** Summary results for transactional leadership style constructs and normative commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>Normative</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>Std.err.</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contingent rewards</td>
<td>0.169</td>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management by exception passive</td>
<td>-0.007</td>
<td>0.072</td>
<td>0.901</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management by exception active</td>
<td>-0.063</td>
<td>-0.045</td>
<td>0.241</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results in Table 4.11 indicate that the model is statistically fit and significant for regression ($F = 2.787$, sig = 0.026, $R^2 = 0.431$) and transactional leadership predicts normative commitment. Contingent reward is the only transactional leadership style construct that contributed to the significance of the regression model ($\beta = 0.169$; sig = 0.002).

4.5.6 Transactional leadership style and Continuance commitment

**Table 4.12:** Summary results for transactional leadership style constructs and normative commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>Continuance</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>Std.err.</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contingent rewards</td>
<td>0.044</td>
<td>0.021</td>
<td>0.417</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management by exception passive</td>
<td>0.169</td>
<td>0.060</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management by exception active</td>
<td>-0.064</td>
<td>-0.037</td>
<td>0.235</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.12 shows that the regression results were significant in this case ($F = 2.890$, sig = 0.022, $R^2 = 0.032$) and transactional leadership significantly predicts continuance commitment. Furthermore, the results depict that management by exception passive is the only variable that contributed to the validity and significance of the regression model ($\beta = 0.169$; sig = 0.002).
Objective 3: To determine which of the three leadership styles has more impact on organisational commitment in the higher education institutions.

The aim of the study was investigating the effects of leadership styles on organisational commitment. Different constructs of transformational and transactional leadership style were checked to see if they affect different facets of organisational commitment. The results were varied with all presenting a unique set of outcomes as shown above. Then the transactional leadership style constructs were computed together to represent transactional leadership style as variable on its own and the same was done for transformational leadership style and organisational commitment constructs. Thus, the new set of data (computed data) was regressed to test the ability of the three leadership styles to predict organisational commitment. The results are shown in Table 4.13.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable: Normative commitment</th>
<th>Β</th>
<th>Std.err.</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transformational leadership</td>
<td>0.281</td>
<td>0.089</td>
<td>0.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transactional leadership</td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>0.059</td>
<td>0.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laissez-faire leadership</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>0.014</td>
<td>0.235</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.13 show that the total score of laissez-faire, transactional and transformational leadership styles as predictors of organisational commitment were statistically significant (F = 10.186, sig = 0.003, R² = 0.423). Two variables contributed to statistical significance of the regression model: Transactional leadership (β = 0.281; p = 0.011) and transformational leadership (β = 0.091; p = 0.015) and on the other hand, laissez-faire did not contribute to the significance of the model (β = 0.012; p = 0.235).

4.9 Chapter summary

The study’s main reason for conducting the study was to investigate the effects of leadership styles on organisational commitment. The data collected in two institutions was tested using regression and correlation analysis to achieve the objectives of the study. The results of the analysis showed varied outcomes between relationships between leadership styles constructs.
and organisational commitment facets. Furthermore, the results from the regression test indicated that transformational leadership style has more impact on organisational commitment as compared to transactional leadership style. Lastly, these findings were presented in the form of tables and figures above.
CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH RESULTS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

5.1 Introduction

This chapter follows the presentation of the results in the previous chapter. The chapter will also relate the study findings to other previous similar studies to verify if there are differences or similarities. After the detailed discussion of the study outcomes, conclusions and recommendations are made based on the findings of the study.

5.2 Discussion of the results

The reliability, correlation and regression analysis are discussed below.

5.2.1 Reliability analysis

The reliability analysis was performed to determine the internal consistency of the items and also to eliminate the items that have negative effect or reduce the reliability of the variables under study. Using SPSS for reliability analysis, all items that had total-correlation value below 0.30 were deleted. Each of the organisational commitment constructs had 5 items and one item was deleted in each construct to improve reliability scores therefore the items were reduced to 4 per construct as indicated in Table 4.1. The items were firstly computed to reverse the direction and the reliability checked, those items that failed the computation and reduced the reliability of a construct were deleted and the remaining number of items per constructed were recorded in Table 4.1. Results show that all the constructs were reliable as they surpassed the 0.70 which is recommended except laissez-faire (α = 0.551) and management by exception passive (α = 0.591). Continuance commitment had the highest alpha coefficient value (α = 0.921), followed by individualized consideration (α = 0.877) and Laissez-faire was the least reliable (α = 0.551). The reliability analysis paved the way for further correlation and regression analysis. Pallant (2010) pointed out that Cronbach’s alpha of α = 0.70 is the acceptable value (Andrew, Arora, Bilmes, & Livescu, 2013). The reliability scores were generally acceptable (α = 0.70).
5.2.2 Discussion of correlation results by hypothesis

Objective 1: To determine the relationship between leadership styles (transactional, laissez-faire and transformational) and organisational commitment (normative, affective and continuance) in higher education institutions.

**H1: There is a relationship between leadership styles (Transaction and Transformational) and Affective commitment.**

The results in Table 4.5 show that transformational leadership style has positive and significant relation with affective commitment ($r = 0.521^{**}; p = 0.004$). We therefore, reject the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between transformational leadership style and affective commitment. Thus, the results indicate that leaders who stimulate employee morale can boost the emotional attachment to the organisation (Roueche, Baker III, & Robert, 2014). This helps the organisation in preparation for adoption of new strategies or plan (Roueche, Baker III, & Robert, 2014). Therefore, higher education institutions in South Africa can capitalise on this by stimulating morale to prepare their staff for higher education transformation. The findings of this study are similar to the study done by Abdo Saeed, Gelaidan and Ahmad (2013) in the higher educational institutions in Yemen. The study by Abdo Saeed, et al., (2013) found that transformational leadership style was positively related to affective commitment ($r = 0.389^{**}$).

Moreover, the results showed that there was no relationship between affective commitment and transactional leadership style as shown in Table 4.4 ($r = 0.113; p = 0.623$). Hence, we accept the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between transactional leadership style and affective commitment. However, given the results in Table 4.5 for constructs correlation, it can be noticed that affective commitment is weakly related to management by exception passive ($r = 0.206^{**}; p = 0.000$) and not related to management by exception active and contingents’ rewards. Similarly, a study by Munyeka and Ngirande (2014) also found that there is no relationship between transactional leadership style and affective commitment in higher education institutions in South Africa.

**H2: There is a relationship between leadership styles (Transaction and Transformational) and Normative commitment.**

The overall correlation analysis in Table 4.5 showed that there was no relationship between transformational leadership style and normative commitment ($r = 0.165; p = 0.752$). Therefore,
we accept the null hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between transformational leadership style and normative commitment. The findings of this study are in contrast of the findings by Dillen (2012) who found a weak and positive relationship between transformational leadership style and normative commitment in the nuclear energy cooperation. This exhibits the differences on how leadership styles in different industries influence organisational commitment.

Transactional leadership style and normative commitment showed a significant positive and strong relationship ($r = 0.633^*; p = 0.022$) as shown in Table 4.5. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis that these two variables are related and concluded that there is a relationship between transactional leadership and normative commitment. The results indicate that employees in higher education institutions feel obliged to remain with the organisation because of the exchanges that they engage in with their leaders. Therefore, leaders can enhance this sense of obligation on their employees through continuously fulfil their employees’ exchange expectations (Anitha & Begum, 2016). These findings are similar to the recent study done in the Ethiopian public higher education institutions by Sudarsana Rao and Gorfie (2017) which reported that transactional leadership was related to normative commitment.

**H3: There is a relationship between leadership styles (Transactional and Transformational) and Continuance commitment**

The overall analysis showed that there is moderate and significant relationship between transformational leadership style and continuance commitment ($r = 0.472^{**}; p = 0.003$). Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between transformational leadership style and continuance commitment in higher education institutions. The results tell us that employees who have long stayed or invested a lot in the development of the organisation are more likely to stay or remain with the organisation (Ranaweera & Menon, 2013). Thus, if employees are encouraged to be involved in higher education institutions, they are more likely to contribute more and remain with the organisation in the long run. The findings of this study agree with a study in South African higher education institutions by Munyeka and Ngirande (2014) as well as another study done in Addis Ababa’s private higher education institutions by Teshome (2012). Furthermore, the construct correlation result shows that continuance commitment is positively related to intellectual stimulation ($r = 0.232^{**}; p = 0.000$).

The null hypothesis assumed that there is no relationship between continuance commitment and transactional leadership style. From the analysis in Table 4.5 we can conclude that there is no
significant relationship between the two variables \( r = 0.163; p = 0.784 \) and accept the null hypothesis. A study in higher education institutions in Nigeria found contradictory results (Othman, et al., 2012). Their findings found that transactional leadership has weak relationship with continuance commitment. The findings of this study tell us that leader and follower mutual exchanges in higher education institutions influence employees to remain with the organisation as the cost of leaving will be considered higher (Hunter, et al., 2013).

\textbf{H4: There is a relationship between Laissez-faire leadership style and Organisational commitment (Affective, Normative and Continuance commitment)}

The correlational results showed that laissez-faire has strong, positive and significant relationship with affective commitment \( r = 0.695^{**}; p = 0.000 \). We reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is a relationship between laissez-faire and affective commitment. The results indicate that if leaders in higher education give room to the employees and allow them to do their jobs without much interference, they will increase the emotional attachment of employees to the organisation. Similarly, a study by Teshome (2012) in higher education private institutions found that laissez-faire had a relationship with affective commitment, however, weak and negative \( r = -0.349 \). In the Ethiopian higher education institutions, it means when employees are left to do things on their own they are more likely to detach from the organisation emotionally unlike in the case of South Africa.

In addition, laissez-faire showed that it has negative and weak significant relationship with normative commitment \( r = -0.051^*; p = 0.037 \). Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is a relationship between laissez-faire and normative commitment. This means that employees in higher education institutions in South Africa when left alone to go about their task in the organisation, the feeling of obligation to remain with the institution decreases.

\textbf{Objective 2: To determine if transformational and transactional leadership styles constructs have varied impact on organisational commitment facets in higher education institutions.}

The findings of the study revealed varied results on the relationship between leadership subscales and organisational commitment facets. Firstly, the correlation results for sub-scales showed that affective commitment has significant relationship with intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration \( r = 0.844^{**}; p = 0.007 \) and \( r = 0.451^{**}; p = 0.005 \) respectively as shown in Table 4.6. This means that there is direct relationship between intellectual stimulation and individualised
consideration. Thus, if these two transformational leadership facets increase affective commitment also increases. Also, results showed that affective commitment is not related to idealised influence and inspirational motivation \((r = 0.570; p = 0.007)\) and \((r = -0.728; p = 0.005)\). This means that leaders who challenge their followers’ perception and attend to their employees’ needs, have a greater chance to increase emotional attachment of their employees to the organisation (Conklin, et al., 2013).

Secondly, the analysis between transformational leadership styles and normative commitment showed contradictory results to the study by Alkahtani (2016) which showed strong positive relationship between all facets of organisational commitment and transformational leadership subscales. In this study, only intellectual stimulation was found to be moderately related to normative commitment \((r = 0.563**; p = 0.002)\) and with no meaningful relationship with other transformational leadership sub-scale as depicted in Table 4.6. The positive relationship between intellectual stimulation and normative, tells us that, when leaders challenge the perception of their followers and encourage creativity they at the same time increase the feeling of obligation by the employees to remain with the organisation (Benligray & Sonmez, 2012; Northouse, 2015). Thus, to stimulate the feeling to stay with the organisation from employees, leaders need to consistently give challenging tasks and duties their subordinates.

Moreover, the transactional leadership style construct showed a strong, positive and significant relationship between normative commitment and contingent rewards \((r = 0.860**; p = 0.003)\). Similarly, a study by Lo, et al., (2010) found similar results. The findings are contrary to the study by Alkahtani (2016) which found a weak relationship between normative commitment and contingent rewards.

Lastly, results in the correlation analysis for transactional leadership style and continuance commitment showed that continuance commitment is strongly related to management-by exception passive \((r = 0.664**; p = 0.002)\). This means that if leaders let their followers get to business without significant monitoring they will eventually invest more into the organisation in terms of time and contribution. This in turn, gives followers the view that leaving the organisation will be costlier than staying (LePine, et al., 2013).

5.2.3 Regression results

The regression analysis was carried out to determine which of the leadership styles predicts organisational commitment constructs. This analysis helped the researcher to attain the objective
of the study on which of the two leadership styles has more impact on organisational commitment. Additionally, to realise the last objective of the study which aimed to determine whether transactional and transformational leadership style constructs have varied impacts on organisational commitment facets in higher education institutions. The discussions of the regression output are as outlined below.

5.2.3.1 Transformational leadership style and Affective commitment

The results in Table 4.7 show that 49.6% of affective commitment can be explained by transformational leadership style (R square = 0.496). Also, in the same analysis, Beta standardized coefficients beta show that intellectual stimulation is the only transformational leadership style construct which predicts affective commitment. R square value of 0.496 shows that a significant amount of affective commitment can be attributed to affective commitment. Therefore, we can conclude that leaders who continuously challenge their employees with perceptions can influence the emotional attachment of their employees.

5.2.3.2 Transformational leadership style and Normative commitment

Intellectual stimulation showed that it is the only sub-scale of transformational leadership style that predicts normative commitment (β = 0.169; p = 0.002). Idealised influence, individualised consideration and inspirational motivation according to the regression results cannot predict normative commitment as shown in Table 4.8 with no significant predictions. It should also be noted that overall, transformational leadership has the least predicational power to normative commitment (R square = 0.029).

5.2.3.3 Transformational leadership style and Continuance commitment

As the results show in Table 4.9, transformational leadership style has moderate predicational power to continuance commitment (R square = 0.463). Thus, 46.3% of continuance commitment can be explained by transformational leadership. Results, further show that intellectual stimulation predicts continuance commitment (β = 0.232; p = 0.000) unlike other subscales.

5.2.3.4 Transactional leadership style and Affective commitment

The regression analysis revealed that management by exception passive predicts affective commitment (β = 0.182; p = 0.001). Other constructs of transactional leadership do not predict affective commitment as shown in Table 4.10. Therefore, the study concludes that the employees in higher education institutions in South Africa prefer to be left alone to conduct their duties and this in turn brings about emotional attachment to the organisation.
5.2.3.5 Transactional leadership style and Normative commitment

Table 4.12 shows that contingent reward is the only transactional leadership style sub-scale that predicts normative commitment ($\beta = 0.169; p = 0.002$). Generally, transactional leadership style has 43.1% prediction to normative commitment ($R^2 = 0.431$). Given the results above, one can conclude that management by exception passive and active do not predict normative commitment and only contingent rewards does.

5.2.3.6 Transactional leadership style and Continuance commitment

Transactional leadership style has less predicational power to continuance commitment ($R^2 = 0.032$). Furthermore, management by exception passive predicts continuance commitment in transactional leadership style, however, other constructs cannot predict continuance commitment. It can be concluded that only management by exception passive is the only facet of transactional leadership that predicts and brings about continuance commitment in higher education institutions.

Objective 3: To determine which of the three leadership styles has more impact on organisational commitment in the higher education institutions.

5.2.3.7 Leadership styles and Organisational commitment.

Regression analysis in Table 4.13 shows that transformational leadership style has a higher beta value ($\beta = 0.281; p = 0.011$) than transactional leadership style ($\beta = 0.091; p = 0.15$). The results indicate that transformational leadership style predicts organisational commitment better than transactional leadership style. This is shown through the comparison of standardised coefficient beta values. These findings are in agreement with a recent study in Ethiopian public universities by Sudarsana Rao and Gorifie (2017) in which they found that transformational leadership style explained the variance of organisational commitment better than transactional commitment. Thus, the findings of the study are not unique to South Africa but also occur in other higher education institutions.

5.3 Conclusions

The dynamic nature of higher education recommends the need for effective leadership and committed employees to keep up with the demand put upon higher education institutions. In consideration of the various changes and reforms in higher education in several nations, it is crucial for higher education institutions to investigate the effectiveness of leadership as well as
the level of commitment among employees. The plethora of literature on transaction and transformational leadership styles and organisational commitment addresses the issues in developed countries. Very few studies on this topic have been conducted in the developing countries, particularly in South Africa. Correlation and regression analysis was used to determine the relationship between leadership styles and organisational commitment in higher education institutions. The results revealed varied results in the overall analysis. Based on the study’s outcomes, it is difficult to outwardly conclude that there is a relationship between leadership styles sub-scales and organisational commitment constructs. However, it is safe to say that leadership style constructs are variedly related to organisational commitment facets. Regression analysis revealed that to a greater extent transformational leadership style predicts organisational commitment compared to transactional leadership style. Therefore, from the results, one can conclude that each institution should do its own institutional diagnosis to establish which of the leadership styles or sub-scales contribute to what facet of organisational commitment.

5.4 Recommendations to future researches

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations can be made:

As the results are varied from one institution to the other, one would recommend that each organisation do its own diagnosis as to how leadership styles affect organisational commitment. Literature has shown that different results and studies continue to bring about organisational unique results, therefore this recommendation.

Also, for further research one would recommend that a study on the effects of leadership styles on the preferred organisational culture be done to ascertain the behaviours subordinates would prefer to commit to the agenda of the organisation.

Lastly, the study pushes us to recommend that the study be conducted with one homogeneous group such as academics only/service staff only to verify the differences among these two divisions in higher education institutions.

5.5 Limitations of the study

The study was affected by the limited financial resources and period needed to complete the study and to opt for a larger sample size at the University of Witwatersrand. A larger sample would have given the study more strength in terms of statistical power and significance. Statistical significant
correlations would give results that are more precise on the relationships between variables under investigation.

Furthermore, the "Fees Must Fall Movement" which affected the number of respondents interrupted the collection of data. The number of respondents could have been much higher if the study had enough time and without interruptions from the movement. However, this hiccup was overcome by persistent visitations and using other alternative means to collect data such as using emails. At the end of it all, the response rate was pegged at 63 per cent, which is highly recommended for data analysis (Bryman & Bell, 2015).

Also, another limitation was that the study was done in two institutions which might affect the comparison and inference of results to other higher education institutions.

A further limitation is that the study could not manage to sort all the demographic information and correlate it to organisational commitment. It would have been more informative if the study had investigated the varied differences among these groups for instance gender differences on the effects of leadership styles on organisational commitment.

Moreover, the questionnaire for one of the subscales of the transactional leadership style and Laissez-faire leadership were not reliable, therefore the results in that regard cannot be generalised.

Lastly, collecting data a single point in time compromised the quality of the results as this might have influence on the responses of the participants.

5.6 Chapter summary

The chapter discussed in detail the findings of this study and the relation they have with other studies. In addition, after the discussion was done the implications and conclusions were made. Lastly, the problems or hiccups encountered during the study were highlighted together with what could be possibly done considering the results of this study.
References


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Yiing, H. L., & Bin Ahmad, K. Z. (2009). The moderating effects of organisational culture on the relationships between leadership behaviour and organisational commitment and between organisational commitment and job satisfaction and performance. Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 23(12), 53-86


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ANNEXURE A: BUDGET FOR THE RESEARCH STUDY

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# ANNEXURE B: WORK PLAN FOR THE STUDY

## EXPECTED DATE OF COMPLETION

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INTRODUCTION

My name is Wiseman Ndlovu, a student at the University of Venda registered for Master’s Degree in Human Resource Management (MCOM). I am carrying out research on: Effects of leadership styles on organizational commitment in two selected higher education institutions in South Africa.

I kindly request for your participation in this research by expressing your views on the topic. The purpose of this study is to understand the effects of leadership styles on the commitment of employees in two selected higher education institutions. That is University of Venda and Witwatersrand. The study was aimed at identifying the best leadership styles that will help in the transformation of higher education institutions in South Africa.

Your participation is voluntary, and you will be asked to respond to questions related to the research topic. Should you feel that questions are not proper, you can choose not to answer and you have the right to withdraw from the study even after you have started. The questionnaire will take about 10-15 minutes to complete. The questions do not require you to provide your details such as your name and contact details. Thus, your confidentiality will be protected and the information provided will not be shared with third parties without your consent. Therefore, you are kindly asked to give your honest opinion to this effect as to assist the policy makers or leaders in these institutions to identify the preferred leadership styles to advance the goals of higher education institutions in the country.
INFORMED CONSENT FORM

In terms of the ethical requirements of the University of Venda, you are invited you to complete this form as an indication of your permission to voluntarily participate in this study.

I ________________________________ hereby confirm that I have been fully informed about the purpose, procedures, and activities of the study. The rights and risks of learners’ participation have also been fully explained to me. I was given full opportunity to ask any questions and I understand that participants can withdraw from the study at any stage and time, without giving any reasons.

I therefore hereby freely **Give/Do not give** my consent for the staff and any relevant member to voluntarily take part in the study as outlined (**Delete the inapplicable**).

**Signature: __________________________  Date: ______________________**

**Researcher signature: __________________  Date: _________________**
ANNEXURE D: RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

My name is Wiseman Ndlovu, a student at the University of Venda registered for Masters’ Degree in Human Resource Management (MCOM). I am carrying out a study on; effects of leadership styles on organisational commitment in two selected higher education institutions in South Africa.

Your participation is voluntary, and you will be asked to respond to the questions related to the research topic above. Thus, your confidentiality will be protected and the information asked will not be shared with the third parties without your consent.

Thank you very much for the time off your busy schedule. In addition, please do not hesitate to contact me if you have any questions.

Ndlovu Wiseman- Cell: 073 600 0807
Email: wiseman.ndlovu@outlook.com

SECTION A: BACKGROUND INFORMATION
For each of the following items below, please indicate the option that best suits your case with an (X) or supply the required detail.

Gender
Female     Male

2. Age in years
30 and Below   31 – 39   40 – 49   50 – 59   60 and Above

3. Your position in the university
Lecturer     Manager/Director     HOD     General employee     Dean

4. How many employees do you supervise if you are manager
0     1-3     4-7   8-12   13 and Above

SECTION B: LEADERSHIP STYLES
Use the key provided below to show the case that best suits your preferences or situation

1 = Strongly Disagree(SD)  2 = Disagree(D)  3 = Neutral(N)  4 = Agree(A)  5 = Strongly Agree(SA)

Choose your answer based on what you believe leaders should do or behave;
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Leaders should make followers feel at work and comfortable around them.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Leaders should encourage followers to make the most of their real skills and capacities to do their jobs.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Leaders should enable others to think about old problems in new ways.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Leaders should let others know how they think they are doing at work.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Leaders should make risky decisions alone.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Leaders should tell their followers what to do if they want to be rewarded for their work.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Leaders should be satisfied when others meet agreed upon standards.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Leaders should be content to let others continue working in the same way as always.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Followers should be proud to be associated with the leader.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Leaders should help others find meaning of their work.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Leaders should provide others with new ways of looking at challenging tasks.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Leaders should give personal attention to followers who seem rejected.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Leaders should allow their instincts to guide them in making decisions.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Leaders should provide recognition/rewards when followers reach their goals.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. As long as things are working, Leaders should not try to change anything.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Leaders should allow followers to do whatever they want to do if necessary.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Leaders should talk about their most important values and beliefs to their followers.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Leaders should share a clear persuasive vision for the future of the organisation.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Leaders should get followers to rethink ideas that they had never questioned before.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Leaders should clearly clarify the responsibility for achieving targets.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Leaders should share with followers the standards they have to know to carry out their work/tasks.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Leaders should not care much about what followers want do unless it is essential.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
SECTION C: ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Use the key provided below to show the case that best suits your preferences or situation

ANNEXURE E: CLEARANCE LETTER

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME OF RESEARCHER/INVESTIGATOR:</th>
<th>Mr W Ndlovu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student No:</td>
<td>11613058</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PROJECT TITLE:** Effects of Leadership style on organizational commitment in higher education institutions in South Africa.

**PROJECT NO:** SMS/16/HRM/02/1205

**SUPERVISORS/ CO-RESEARCHERS/ CO-INVESTIGATORS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME</th>
<th>INSTITUTION &amp; DEPARTMENT</th>
<th>ROLE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dr S Setati</td>
<td>University of Venda</td>
<td>Supervisor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr H Nglimande</td>
<td>University of Venda</td>
<td>Co-Supervisor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr W Ndlovu</td>
<td>University of Venda</td>
<td>Investigator - Student</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ISSUED BY:**

UNIVERSITY OF VENDA, RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

Date Considered: May 2016
Decision by Ethical Clearance Committee Granted
Signature of Chairperson of the Committee: ........................................
Name of the Chairperson of the Committee: Prof. G.E. Ekosse

University of Venda
PRIVATE BAG X5050, THOKOYANDOU, 0550, LIMPOPO PROVINCE, SOUTH AFRICA
TELEPHONE: (015) 752 6900 FAX (015) 752 6500

"A quality driven financially sustainable, rural-based Comprehensive University"
ANNEXURE F: PERMISSION LETTER

UNIVERSITY OF THE
WITWATERSRAND,
JOHANNESBURG

3 November 2016

Mr. Wiseman Ndlovu
Department of Human Resource Management and Labour Relations University of Venda

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

"The effects of leadership styles on organisational commitment in higher Education institutions in South Africa"

This letter serves to confirm that the above project has received permission to be conducted on University premises, and/or involving staff and/or students of the University as research participants. In undertaking this research, you agree to abide by all University regulations for conducting research on campus and to respect participants’ rights to withdraw from participation at any time.

If you are conducting research on certain student cohorts, year groups or courses within specific Schools and within the teaching term, permission must be sought from Heads of School or individual academics.

Please note that Dr Manamela Matshabaphala has agreed to participate in your survey.

Ethical clearance has been obtained.

Nicoleen Potgieter