

DURBAN UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

**INTEGRATIVE LEADERSHIP APPROACHES AND THEIR INFLUENCE ON
EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT: A CASE FOR UMKHANYAKUDE DISTRICT
MUNICIPALITY**

VUSUMUZI INNOCENT SIBIYA

AUGUST 2023



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EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT: A CASE FOR UMKHANYAKUDE DISTRICT
MUNICIPALITY**

SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS OF THE
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AUGUST 2023

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Date: 15 August 2023

DECLARATION

I, Vusumuzi Innocent Sibiya, declare that this dissertation is my own, unaided work. It is being submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) at Durban University of Technology, eThekweni. It has not been submitted before to any other university, either for degree or examination purposes.

Signed:

Date: 15 August 2023

DEDICATION

This academic body of work is dedicated to my late Father, Mgezeni Gida Sibiya, and my entire Ancestral lineage.

*Sibiya Ngenkomo Abafokazane Bebiya Ngamahlahla, Gumede KaNdaba, Ndaba Komkhulu,
Manyelela Okwentombi Iyesokeni, Mhlanga Olalizingwe Nezingonyama, Mbengo Osindabuse,
Nogwaza...*

Without your spiritual guidance and support, this achievement would not have been possible.
Ngiyabonga.

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this dissertation is to determine the role and influence that integrative leadership approaches have on employee engagement within the uMkhanyakude District Municipality in KwaZulu-Natal. Previous studies have investigated the causes and impacts of employee disengagement however, very few have attempted to investigate, in detail, whether disengagement is attributable to the leadership of an organisation.

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate the possible leadership consequences or outcomes across multiple leadership theories in terms of employee engagement (or disengagement) in uMkhanyakude District Municipality. The mixed method research methodology was used to investigate the phenomena as it increases the validity of the research findings due to the complementarity between the quantitative and qualitative research methods.

The findings from both the quantitative and qualitative approaches converged in that most employees were of the view that while leadership and administration are correlated and share a common view, issues such as lack of education, favouritism and other negative elements led to lack of employee engagement or disengagement within the district. Ultimately, leadership, dominant leadership styles and leadership style consequences were identified as having a direct impact on employee engagement and affected employee satisfaction in the municipality.

Based on the findings, the study recommends that qualified personnel whose academic prowess and knowledge be deployed in the appropriate positions to mitigate employee disengagement. Furthermore, it recommends that employees be made aware of recruitment processes so that the right talent is matched to the appropriate positions. Dispute resolution processes must be created to deal with issues of conflict at the top management level as this has contributed to the employee dissatisfaction. Ultimately, each employee needs to feel safe and uninhibited from carrying out their duties.

The study recommends further areas of research that can enhance this subject such as why some leaders are more effective than others, whether there is a connection between integrative leadership and productivity and whether it is possible to determine a universally accepted “predictor” of effective leadership.

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Chapter 1 :Introduction and Study Overview

1.1 Introduction

The focus of this research report is on the consequences of integrative leadership approaches on employee engagement (or disengagement) at Umkhanyakude District Municipality which is located in the far Northern region of KwaZulu Natal Province in South Africa. In an effort to investigate the consequences of integrative leadership approaches on employee engagement, the researcher sub-divided the whole research report into seven chapters: (1) Introduction and Study Overview, (2) The Nature of Municipal Leadership, (3) Theoretical Framework, (4) Extended Literature Review, (5) Research Design and Methodology, (6) Results and Analysis and the Discussion, (7) Conclusion and Recommendations. This chapter presents a skeleton of the whole report – background to study, problem statement, aims of the study, objectives, research questions, significance of the study, brief research design and the organisation of the study. The background to study unearthed the importance of municipalities in delivering services such as clean water supply, sewage collection & disposal, refuse removal, maintenance of municipal roads networks & storm water drainage etc. The main aim of the study was to find out if disengagement costs are a result of leadership mal practices at Umkhanyakude District Municipality. A mixed research design (where quantitative and qualitative data are collected at the same time) was used to successfully answer the four research questions in this research report. The results of the report were considered important because ways of transforming disengaged employees were put forward.

The ever-changing business environment dictates that organisations possess leadership that is capable of increasing the business resilience and ensuring a profitable survival of the organisation. This very essence of business survival is credited with giving leadership studies renewed prominence in recent years. Human resource experts are engaging more on the dynamics of the leaders-follower relationship and exploring how this can be nurtured to derive the best outcomes to organisations. (Naiqing, Jang, & Roberts, 2018) argue that the most important action required to enhance the levels of commitment is to satisfy the basic psychological needs of employees. Creating commitment among employees is important because without this it will become difficult

for an organisation to achieve its strategic goals (Coetzee, Schreuder, & Tladinyane, 2014). Commitment has been examined as a determinant of job performance. Employee motivation affects organisational productivity and is accepted as an important element in increasing performance (Khan, Lalitha, & Omonaiye, 2017). Therefore, it is imperative that highly motivated and committed employees contribute favourably to the organisational goals and objectives. Gould-Williams et al. (2013) agrees with the above researchers that it is possible that employees who are highly committed to the organisation are more likely to endorse its mission, goals and values.

1.2 Background to the study

Highly committed employees are easily seen by their greater support of the organisation in order to reinforce its global success. However, to retain the employees in any organisation, managers should provide a facilitative and pleasant work environment and support them. The study of leadership and its impact on employee engagement is becoming increasingly essential if organisations want to gain and sustain a competitive advantage in today's global economy (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Having an engaged workforce is vital as research indicates that engaged employees help organisations reap benefits such as increased efficiency, higher levels of customer satisfaction, higher productivity and lower turnover rates (Buhler, 2006).

Municipalities are a sphere of government and are responsible for offering essential services to residents. These services include the provision of clean water supply, sewage collection and disposal; refuse removal, electricity supply, municipal health services, maintenance of municipal road networks and storm water drainage, street lighting, municipal parks and recreation. Local Government is the service delivery mechanism for government, and this is achieved through the establishment of Municipalities. Municipalities have an obligation to ensure that people in their constituencies are provided with basic services in terms of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996). There are very comprehensive systems in place to ensure that Municipalities optimize their ability to render services to the communities. These include legislation, municipal policies and internal processes. Municipalities have an enormous task at hand to ensure the speed at which service delivery is implemented. The policies approved by municipal Councils should take into consideration the needs of the communities and implementation timeframes.

The municipalities are the most basic units of government, and they are tasked with providing basic services and fostering development in the regions they control. Local government in South Africa is largely understood in terms of service delivery, and the South African Constitution (Act No. 108 of 1996) assigns municipalities the role to mobilise economic resources towards the improvement of the lives of all citizens. Basic services are the fundamental building blocks of improved quality of life, and adequate supplies of safe water and adequate sanitation are necessary for life, well-being, and human dignity. The accessibility of basic services is closely related to social inclusion and social capital, and the failure of municipalities to deliver services can have a detrimental impact on social and economic development (IDASA, 2010).

There are, however, several factors that militate against organisational success, and employee disengagement ranks among these. Recognized as one of the major factors affecting productivity and overall financial stability of any business, low morale may lead to reduced concentration, which in turn can cause mistakes, poor customer service and missed deadlines. It also can contribute to a high turnover rate and absenteeism. Employee morale proves to be detrimental to the business in these respects. Morale can drive an organization forward or can lead to employee discontent, poor job performance, and absenteeism (Ewton, 2007). Disengaged employees uncouple themselves from work roles and withdraw cognitively and emotionally. Pech and Slade (2006), note that in the UK only 17% of employees are truly engaged, while 63% are not engaged and 20% are disengaged. Disengagement has negative consequences for any organisation. Allam (2017) avers that employee disengagement results in increased employee turnover, low morale amongst employees, reduced level of productivity, and lack of innovation and creativity.

According to Pech and Slade (2006), leadership expend more effort in focusing on symptoms and productivity measurement techniques at the expense of employee disengagement, its sources and remedies. Employee engagement is a variable that can be controlled. This research focuses on investigating the impact of leadership styles on employee engagement (or disengagement) in Umkhanyakude District Municipality. It takes a self-reflective approach on the leadership of Umkhanyakude District Municipality, to determine their leadership style(s) and the possible impact on employee disengagement.

1.3 Problem statement

Leadership has been singled out as a concept that has attracted the attention of many scholars over the past years. It is one of the most studied fields in the social sciences and carries weight in every walk of life related to business, politics, education and religion etc. According to Bass (1990), “there are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept.” Leadership is therefore a complex construct that cannot be defined in two or three lines. Despite various definitions, the theoretical basis of leadership is that it is a process whereby one individual has the ability to influence a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. Kouzes and Posner (2007) describe it as an interaction between two or more people that result in some kind of action leading to an output to satisfy a set agreement or criteria. The cost of employee disengagement in Africa alone, according to Maringe et al. (2015) ranges approximately from \$254 billion and \$363 billion per annum. Owusu et al. (2017) suggest that only 13% of employees across the globe are engaged. A disengagement cost is a waste to organisations in particular and should therefore be effectively managed and kept to a minimum. The growing leadership problem in as far as employee engagement is concerned is that more effort is expended on symptoms and measurement techniques and not employee disengagement and its causes and cures (Pech & Slade, 2006)

Pech and Slade (2006) opined that while disengagement may not surface immediately, the following signs of disengagement are red flags to an organisation; decreasing productivity, poor communication, vocal person in meetings is now quiet, lack of commitment, decline in work quality, lack of participation and rudeness. Umkhanyakude District municipality has not been spared by some of these disengagement costs. On the 3rd of November 2017, a Jozini municipality employee was accused of creating ghost employees, defrauding the employers of R250 000 (News24, 2017). According to Heikkeri (2010), fraud or corruption is another sign of employee disengagement. Heikkeri opined that if employees are not satisfied by their remuneration packages or the conditions of work; they are likely to be short-sighted hence their involvement in fraudulent activities. Umkhanyakude municipality has been beset by infighting between its employees which has negatively impacted service delivery (eNCA, 2020). Lack of unity among the employees of an organisation was cited as a symptom of employee disengagement (Allam, 2017).

Some of the previous researchers investigated the causes and effect of employee disengagement.

Table 1-1: Employee disengagement causes and effects

	Author	Title	Year
1.	Barker R, A	Understanding factors influencing employee engagement: A study of the financial sector of Malaysia	2013
2.	Patroc, S	The impact of employee engagement on organisational productivity	2013
3.	Agrawal, S	Factors influencing employee engagement: A study of diverse workforce.	2016
4.	Sharma, D	Factors affecting employee engagement: A brief review of literature.	2016
5.	Osborne, S and Hammoud, M.S	Effective engagement in the workplace.	2017
6.	Al-dalahmeh et al.	The effect of employee engagement on organisational performance via the mediating role of job satisfaction: The case of IT employees in Jordanian banking sector.	2018

Source: The Author

Nonetheless, very few have attempted to investigate in detail whether disengagement is attributable to leadership of an organisation. The researcher is of the view that this gap in research warrants further exploration.

1.4 Aims of the study

The aim of this research is to investigate the possible leadership consequences or outcomes across multiple leadership theories in terms of employee engagement (or disengagement) at Umkhanyakude District Municipality.

1.5 Objectives

The objectives of the study are to investigate:

- 1.5.1 The dominant leadership style(s) at Umkhanyakude District Municipality.**
- 1.5.2 The consequences, if any, of the various leadership styles on employee engagement (or disengagement).**
- 1.5.3 The leadership style(s) that best promote employee engagement.**
- 1.5.4 The interventions that can be used to transform disengaged employees.**

1.6 Questions

- 1.6.1 What are the current leadership styles at Umkhanyakude District Municipality?**
- 1.6.2 What are the typical consequences of leadership styles on employee engagement or disengagement?**
- 1.6.3 What leadership styles can get employees more engaged?**
- 1.6.4 What are the possible interventions to transmute disengaged employees?**

1.7 Significance of the study

Employee disengagement has serious repercussions for an organisation. Allam (2017) identifies that disengagement can result in negative attitudes towards jobs, absence of teamwork, rigidity to accept feedback, lack of trust, low morale, increased rate of employee turnover, workplace violence and bullying, higher conflicts among employees, reduced productivity, deviant behaviour as well as lack of innovation and creativity among employees. The consequences of employee disengagement translate to a patent cost to an organisation. Like any other costs, engagement costs have to be managed effectively so that its impact on the overall profitability of an organisation is minimal. The following reasons justify the significance of this report to the stakeholders below.

Importance to Umkhanyakude District municipality – Without feedback, it is difficult to take corrective action. Like any other cost, costs relating to employee disengagement have to be effectively managed so that their implications on the profitability of the organisation are kept to a minimal. Umkhanyakude municipality can benefit from the results of this study through incorporation of insightful suggestions from the community. The community which consumes the services that are provided is the chief source of ideas leading to improvement of the same services.

The municipality should not ignore suggestions or complaints from its disappointed stakeholders. However, this is not to say that all the ideas suggested are feasible, rather it means all ideas leading to positive change have to be taken into account so that the few resources available are channelled towards the cause.

Importance to employees – Employees provide increased motivation, loyalty, creativity and productivity to organisations that assist them to find meaning at work. Meaning at Work has the potential to be a valuable way of bringing employers and employees closer together to the benefit of both parties. Where employees experience a sense of community, the space to be themselves and the opportunity to make a contribution, they find meaning. And for many people, their job is so important it becomes a significant defining factor of their personal identity. More meaning to employees is provided by the results of this research report because the researcher encourages two-way communication. Employees have to be part of the decision-making body because they are the ones that have a closer contact with the dissatisfied customers. Services provided to the customers should reflect the needs of the community.

Importance to the community – The community represents the consumers of the services that are provided by Umkhanyakude District Municipality, this means incorporating their concerns in municipality planning results in the provision of tailor-made services. Planning for service delivery mandate has been strategically shifted from a centralised (national) to a more localised (municipal) sphere of government. That is, planning is no longer seen as a top-down but rather regarded as an inclusive process where communities are viewed as key stakeholders. In this sense, community participation is seen as having a major implication on democratising service delivery beyond just representative government but locating users and communities as central role players in the process. Community participation offers a greater control of the underprivileged over their own situation and ensures their full involvement in determining their own developmental needs. Therefore, municipalities must play a significant role in promoting democracy and ensuring that communities participate in decisions that affect them directly. The report argues that despite its complex structures, obstacles and severe managerial challenges, community participation remains paramount to the success of planning for service delivery. Community participation is a prerequisite for successful governance and service delivery in the local sphere of government.

Importance to the researcher - Involvement in research gave the researcher a hands-on experience in the field of leadership in general and municipal leadership in particular. A deeper

understanding of the research process was gained, that is, making sure that coherence could be traced from the formulated research questions up to the conclusions drawn from the results. Through the review of literature, the researcher understood that all the leadership styles are applicable, however of paramount importance is the situation in which they can be applied to yield positive results. Without research, advancements that have improved some lives and saved others may not have come to pass. The research component allows for a broader educational experience whereby researchers are able to explore the effects of applying new thought processes through study and testing. So, not only is research an invaluable tool for building on crucial knowledge, it is also the most reliable way we can begin to understand the complexities of various issues; and to maintain our integrity as we disprove lies and uphold important truths.

Importance to the field of academia (contribution to existing literature) – The researcher came across innumerable documents relating to the field of leadership. However, this piece of study attempted to discover more causal relationships between shared leadership (integrative leadership) and the rate of employee engagement. The researcher is unaware of any publication that supported the situational leadership model in municipal leadership; hence more gaps need to be identified in this area of study. The researcher argues that all leadership styles can be applied at Umkhanyakude District Municipality, however careful consideration must be placed on the situation at hand. Situational Leadership is an adaptive leadership style. This strategy encourages leaders to take stock of their team members, weigh the many variables in their workplace and choose the leadership style that best fits their goals and circumstances. Municipal leaders can no longer lead solely based on legitimate power.

1.8 Brief research strategy

1.8.1 Research methodology

This research uses the mixed method research methodology. The mixed method research integrates both quantitative and qualitative data within a single research study through mixing. According to Zhang and Creswell (2013), mixing is the procedure for interlinking qualitative and quantitative data elements in order to come up with a fuller account of the research process. The mixing occurs throughout the research pathway. There are several models for mixing the qualitative and quantitative research method. Halcomb and Hickman (2015) identify three models of mixing as: integration, connection and embedding.

In using the integration model of mixing, both quantitative and qualitative data are collected at the same time but analysed separately. Integration occurs during interpretation of the data. The connection model of integrating data is based on one approach building upon the findings of the other approach. In the embedded model, the analysis of one type of data is entrenched within the other. This involves nesting a small qualitative component within a quantitative study. This research uses the integration model of mixing.

1.8.2 The choice of mixed method research and benefits

The mixed method was chosen because it adds value. It takes the advantages of both the qualitative and quantitative research methods. McKim (2017) notes that the mixed method increases the validity of the findings through triangulation and aids the creation of knowledge. Another value derived from the mixed method is that it provides readers more assurance in the results and conclusions they extract from the study. The mixed method of research has the greatest value due to complementarity. Complementarity is derived from the ability of the qualitative research method to compensate for the weaknesses of the quantitative research method and vice versa.

1.8.3 Sampling strategy

The sample is a subset of the individuals in a population (Hanlon & Larget, 2011). A sample is chosen on the basis that it is representative of the population as a whole, that is, that the sample's main characteristics are similar or identical to the chosen of population (Gray D. , 2009). Brynard and Hanekom (2006) define sampling as an ideal technique used to select a small group of individuals or cases with a whole view to determine the characteristics of the entire population. The sampling techniques that are available in research are divided into two types namely: probability (or representative) sampling and non-probability sampling (Babbie, 2009). Both probability and non-probability samples are used in this research to obtain quantitative and qualitative data respectively. Mertens (2014) suggest that depending on the objective of the research, a random sampling needs to be selected by the researcher to allow collection of quantitative data from the respondents. In this research, for the quantitative aspect, simple random probability sampling is chosen.

The sample size for quantitative data was calculated using the De Vaus's formula:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Where, $n =$ Sample size to be estimated

$N =$ total number of elements in the population

$e =$ denote the level of precision(5% error point)

$1 =$ designate the probability of the event occurring

Quantification:

$$n = \frac{380}{1 + 380 (0.05)^2} \quad n = \frac{380}{1.95}$$

$$n = 194$$

A stratified random sampling method is used to determine the sample size for qualitative data collection. The population was divided by the sample size to determine the random sample interval, thus $380/196=1.94$. The 1st and every 2nd employee on the employee listing by cost centre was selected. This method of sampling was chosen because of its simplicity, and because each member of the population has an equal probability of selection thereby ensuring that the sample is representative of the population under study.

Radhakrishnan (2014) posits that there are no specific criteria for determining sample size in qualitative research, as this is dependent on the nature of the enquiry and quality of the informants. Taylor (2014) suggests a non-probable sampling strategy for qualitative data collection so as to obtain “information rich” insights on a particular research topic. Purposive sampling was therefore to be used. The sample size for the qualitative aspect of research is 5% of the sample for quantitative data, which is 10.

1.8.4 Data collection instruments

Data collection is the process by which data is collected so as to provide answers to the research questions, test hypothesis or evaluate outcomes. Two distinct data collection methods were used.

1.8.5 Quantitative data

Quantitative data was collected through a structured questionnaire. A survey questionnaire was used as the data collection instrument. The questionnaire had a set of predetermined responses for the research participants to choose from. The responses were based on the Likert scale. For quantitative data collection, the questionnaires were handed to each research participant to complete and returned to the researcher.

1.8.6 Qualitative data

Qualitative data was collected via individual face-to-face in-depth interviews with the research participants. Through individual interviews, the researcher was able to extract detailed information from the participant, including perceptions, personal feelings, experiences and opinions. The interviews were semi-structured to ensure comparability to the data from the quantitative aspect of the research. However, the interview questions were open ended so as to pursue responses in more detail. This allowed the discovery of more information regarding the research phenomenon.

1.8.7 Pilot study

A pilot study was conducted prior to the main study. This allowed in testing the questionnaires and identifying any probable issues that would have impacted negatively on the final survey result. Moreover, the pilot study also highlighted the areas, where participants were willing or unwilling to answer the questions regarding leadership styles in the organisation. The questionnaire was pretested before using it for the final data collection. Pretesting enabled the determination of the clarity of the questionnaire in terms of format, wording, and order. In addition, it revealed shortcomings of the questionnaire as a result of misinterpretations, ambiguity, inability to answer questions, and sensitive questions. The interview questions were also piloted on a sample of 3 participants.

The questionnaire was pretested on a small number of employees who are not part of the sample selected. Pretesting was done on a total of 30 participants in the sample. Perneger et al. (2015)

suggest that small samples of between 5 and 10 participants commonly used in pretesting of questionnaires may fail to uncover even ordinary problems. In view of this technical frailty, Perneger et al. (2015) advocate for a default sample size of 30 participants. Veal (2017) asserts that results of a pilot survey allow for the revision of survey questions and resolving of issues before the effective execution of the large-scale survey.

1.9 Organisation of the study

The study is presented in seven chapters as shown below:

1.9.1 Chapter 1 – Introduction and Study Overview

This chapter introduces the study. Sections covered by the chapter includes, Introduction, Background to Study, Problem Statement, Aims of the study, Objectives, Questions, Significance of the Study, and Brief Research Design and Chapter Summary.

1.9.2 Chapter 2 – The Nature of Municipal Leadership

This Chapter explores the nature of municipal leadership. Sections covered by the chapter include Introduction, The Global Context of Leadership in Municipalities, Municipal leadership in Africa, Municipal Leadership in the SADC Regions, Municipal leadership in Angola, Municipal leadership in Zambia, Municipal leadership in Mozambique, Municipal leadership in Zimbabwe, Municipal leadership in Botswana, Municipal Leadership in South Africa, Leadership in KwaZulu-Natal Municipalities, Auditor-General’s Report for the year 2017, Auditor-General’s report for the year 2018-19, Gaps Identified and Chapter Summary.

1.9.3 Chapter 3 – Theoretical Framework

This Chapter contains the Introduction, The Evolution of Leadership, Employee Engagement Theories, Theories of Motivation and Applicability to Employee Engagement, Conceptual Framework and Chapter Summary.

1.9.4 Chapter 4 - Extended Literature

This chapter reviews literature aligned to the study objectives. The main sections include the Introduction, Definition of Key Concept Underwriting the Literature, Are People Born Leaders or Leadership is Nurtured?, Dominant Leadership Styles, Leadership Styles and Employee Engagement, Leadership Styles that Promote Employee Engagement, Drivers of Employee Engagement, Benefits of Employee Engagement, Consequences of Employee Disengagement, Causes of Disengagement, Interventions that Can be Used to Transform Disengaged Employees, Chapter Summary.

1.9.5 Chapter 5 - Research Design and Methodology

This chapter explores the methods employed to administer data. The main sections contain Introduction, Research Design and Methodology, Research Philosophy, Research Philosophy, Research Approaches, Research Strategy, Research Choices and Time Horizon, Study Population, Sampling Techniques, Sample Size, Data Collection Instruments, The Pilot Study, Validity and Reliability, Elimination of Bias, Ethical Considerations and Chapter Summary.

1.9.6 Chapter 6 – Results and Analysis

This chapter provides an overview of the output of both the quantitative and qualitative research instruments used and analysis thereof.

1.9.7 Chapter 7 – Summary of Findings, Conclusion and Recommendations.

This chapter presents a summary of the findings of the study, conclusions and recommendations that can be applied as well as suggestions for future areas of research.

1.10 Chapter Summary

A municipality requires sufficient and efficient workers in order for it to provide services to households. This chapter outlined the significance of researching the influences of leadership on employee engagement because disengagement costs have serious consequences on an organisation including high levels of staff turnover. The mixed method of data collection was discussed briefly

where the researcher employs both qualitative and quantitative data collection instruments. The sample size of 194 respondents was calculated using De Vaus' formula for the collection of quantitative data. The sample size for the qualitative aspect of research is 5% of the sample for quantitative data, which is 10. Chapter 2 discusses the gaps that exist in global municipalities, African municipalities, SADC municipalities, South Africa's municipalities and KZN municipalities.

Chapter 2 :The Nature of Municipal Leadership

2.1 Introduction

The chapter focuses on the lessons that can be drawn from other municipalities in Africa and the rest of the world at large. Due to globalisation, the researcher felt that lessons from other municipalities can be applied in the South African context because trade activities have transformed the world into an integrated society. These lessons are a guiding post to leadership solutions at Umkhanyakude District Municipality; nevertheless, they must be incorporated selectively according to the prevailing situations. The search for these lessons was necessitated by the fact that problems facing municipalities remain insufficiently solved as it is complicated to perform control and supervision of strategic operating plan programmes and related budget allocations; and to assure funds usage efficiency due to leadership competencies and skills. For some of these problems to be solved leaders should not only use their legitimate powers but they should also try and implement shared or collective leadership strategies whereby fruitful inputs from other stakeholders are evaluated; and subsequently implemented if they are absolutely relevant and within budget parameters. As a result, the chapter identifies the gaps that exist in South African municipalities and the rest of the global municipalities. Valuable lessons are to be recommended to the municipality in the Conclusions & Recommendations chapter.

2.2 The Global context of Leadership in Municipalities

2.2.1 The European Union

According to the Journal of European Communities (2000), the EU is important for the functioning of local government, because it adheres to the principle of subsidiarity, the organizing principle of decentralisation, implying that decisions are to be taken as closely as possible to the citizens. This is laid down in Article 5 of the treaty of the European Union. The vast majority of European countries are members of the Council of Europe. Its Charter denotes the main principles of local governance in Europe that are expected to be respected by all signatories. Because of the importance of the contents of the Charter, which describe the agreed contextual values pertaining to local democracy in Europe, the researcher provides a short review of the core principles of the Charter. It first describes the principle of local self-government which should be recognized in domestic regulation, and where practicable in the constitution (Article 2). It also stipulates the right and the ability of local authorities, within the limits of the law, to regulate and manage a substantial

share of public affairs under their own responsibility and in the interests of the local population (Article 3). Furthermore, local governments should have full discretion to exercise their initiative with regard to any matter, which is not excluded from their competence nor assigned, to any other authority. The conditions of service of local government employees shall be such as to permit the recruitment of high-quality staff on the basis of merit and competence; to this end adequate training opportunities, remuneration and career prospects are provided (Article 6).

Despite the good governance principles that are laid down in the European charter, the report released by the Instrument for Pre-Accession Assistance (2014-2020) is an indicator that problems exist in some of the municipalities in the European Union. The report points out that financing of municipal activities and obligations along with the quality of the local services remain the most important challenges at the forefront of municipal governance. According to the 2018 World Bank diagnostics review, municipalities may have only minimal revenue autonomy, but they fail to maximize the autonomy they have.

With regards to waste management serious concerns exist pertaining to the quality of waste collection and processing systems. There are over 50 landfills used by municipalities for waste disposal, but hundreds of wild and uncontrolled dumpsites exist in parallel, creating an environmental and health hazard for the local population. The existing waste management systems suffer important common deficiencies –they are rarely open for competition and rarely combine private and public initiative, no control systems on waste disposal exist, wastes are not treated as a secondary raw material, which can be used in industry and production, no waste separation has been introduced effectively, communities are not involved in resolving problems etc. The management of water and wastewater networks is also among the key challenges for municipalities. The harmonisation with the EU legislation is progressing slowly which puts in danger the sustainability of all investments (including EU ones) in the water sector. In a context of a tight fiscal framework and an increasingly stringent regulatory environment, the municipalities and public utility companies need to address climate change related consequences, security threats, population mobility, urbanisation and road congestion, and infrastructure deterioration. They need to dramatically improve the income and outcome of the capital investments and the management standards and support pragmatic modern solutions for resource saving.

2.2.2 India

The Constitution (Seventy-fourth amendment) Act (1992) governs the structure, working, powers and jurisdiction of urban local government in India. A three - tiered structure of municipalities is constituted in every state. This includes Nagar Panchayat/Municipality for areas which are neither purely rural, nor urbanised, Municipal Council for a smaller urban area and Municipal Corporation for larger urban areas. Each urban local body is entrusted to prepare plans for economic development and social justice and implementation of 19 schemes and initiatives incorporated in twelfth schedule of the constitution. The Schedule includes urban planning, roads, bridges, public health, urban forestry, safeguarding the interests of weaker sections and urban poverty alleviation etc. The Constitution of Finance Commission is responsible for making the recommendations to govern the principles of determining taxes, duties, fees and grants in aid between states and municipalities (Siwach & Nillam, 2014).

According to Parashar (2003), the history and problems of municipal administration in India relates to non-inclusion of the people. It is believed that municipal institutions are described as town, city or borough or other local government bodies. Though the concept of city, civic, and local self-government is very old and also mentioned in ancient Greek, Roman, Persian, Chinese and Indian annals; the whole essence should denote citizens-oriented governance. On the other hand, Chopra (2004) has discussed about local self-government and Municipal administration. Citizens' participation is highlighted on the working of local self-government in the form of municipalities and district councils which have been working since long time in India. It further highlights the functioning and the problems of local-self-government and municipal administration. This also is in line with Dhaliwal (2002) views on the theoretical and practical aspects of the municipal administration, along with duties of the municipal employees and function of the municipal councillors. It is noted that various problems are being faced by the urban local bodies. The problems which are being faced by the employees from bureaucracy, politicians and citizens are analysed. Certain measures to help the municipal employees in giving a better administration and results and relating with the people were offered. This is also in line with Chahar (2006) views on governance at grassroots levels.

2.2.3 Papua New Guinea

Papua New Guinea is a federal constitutional monarchy with three spheres of government: national, provincial and local. Local government is enshrined in the constitution. There are 31 urban LLGs and 265 rural LLGs, making a total of 296 local governments. There is little difference in either the composition or the functions and responsibilities of the two types of government. Local governments may levy a variety of local taxes and charges. There are government transfers to cover staff salaries as well as for specific development projects. In 2019, local government expenditure was approximately 1.4% of total government expenditure. LLGs are responsible for water supply and have joint responsibility with provinces for roads, waste disposal, health and environmental protection, economic promotion and tourism (Country Profile, 2019).

The reasons for some of the municipal problems are well known (Reily, Brown, & Flower, 2014). In Papua New Guinea, MPs are seen as the key conduits to deliver services to their electorates because other systems of service delivery simply do not work. As a result, an MP's primary role is often seen as acting as an alternative form of service delivery rather than scrutinising bills or passing legislation. Similarly for the increasing trend towards executive dominance: politicians have an incentive to become part of government regardless of political differences they may have simply so they can gain better access to state resources and money, which they can then 're-distribute' to their local political supporters in their electorate. Thus, politicians have taken on the role of service providers rather than policymakers, with 'implementation' considered a task of handing out dollars rather than building sustainable bureaucratic structures. Budget formulation, for example, is often handled by the governors' support staff in Port Moresby, without input from public servants in the provinces. Much of this 'implementation' takes place via electoral development funds (EDFs) and other forms of 'slush funds' available to Papua New Guinea parliamentarians for pork-barrel politics. These putative development grants are distributed by individual electorate's MPs under various district improvement programs and have had a significant impact on electoral politics and governance in Papua New Guinea. Research suggests they are often invested in personal networks to secure support for a range of activities, not all of them related to service delivery or district improvement. Critics argue that EDFs promote corruption, nepotism and bad governance, while supporters argue that the EDF is the only effective mechanism for allocating development grants to remote parts of the country (Reily, Brown, & Flower, 2014).

2.2.4 Canada

Canada is a federal bicameral parliamentary democracy and a constitutional monarchy with a highly varied local government system. Legislation for local government is unique to each province and territory. Canada’s constitution divides powers between the federal government and the ten provincial governments, but municipalities are not recognised as a separate order of government. Provinces and territories have a number of legislative Acts that govern local government within their jurisdiction. Three provinces have a multi-tiered local government system, with a regional tier, while the other provinces and territories have a single-tier system. Provincial and territorial ministers with local government responsibilities oversee local government legislation. Under the ten provincial and three territorial governments are two supra-regional authorities (in Québec), 143 regional authorities and over 3,600 local governments. Property taxes are the main source of revenue for local governments, with individual municipalities determining their own property tax rate. Provincial, territorial and federal government transfers account for around one-fifth of total revenue and include both general and specific-purpose funds. Local governments are generally responsible for services within a city or region, including police and fire protection, water and sewage services, recreation services and local public transportation (Country profile, 2018).

Table 2-1: Distribution of Councils and Population in Canada

Province/Territory	Local	Regional	Supra-regional	Population (2011 census)	Population (2017 estimate)	%Rural (2011)
Alberta	338	-	-	4,067,175	4,286,100	17
British Columbia	186	27	-	4,648,055	4,817,200	14
Manitoba	137	-	-	1,278,365	1,338,100	28
New Brunswick	105	-	-	747,101	759,700	48
Newfoundland and Labrador	276	-	-	519,716	528,800	41
Northwest Territories	30	-	-	41,786	44,500	46
Nova Scotia	55	-	-	923,598	953,900	43
Nunavut	25	-	-	35,944	38,000	52
Ontario	444	30	-	13,448,494	14,193,400	14
Prince Edward Island	74	-	-	142,907	152,000	53
Québec	1,133	86	2	8,164,361	8,394,000	19
Saskatchewan	782	-	-	1,098,352	1,163,900	33
Yukon	13	-	-	35,874	38,500	39
TOTAL	3,598	143	2	35,151,728	36,708,100	19

Source: Local Government system in Canada, Country Profile (2017-2018)

Considering the views of Furlong and Bakker (2011) municipalities—traditionally charged with responsibility for water supply—have been expected to undertake significant programming changes in the pursuit of goals of financial and environmental sustainability. Water conservation, involving the use of a range of strategies to reduce both the demand for and production of water (low flow devices, water loss control, water use restrictions), has become a critical issue in many municipalities. This has occurred for a range of reasons, including limited local water availability (Waterloo and York regions in Ontario); increasing pressure on existing water sources due to population growth or changes in commercial and industrial use (e.g., the Okanagan Valley in BC); conflicts among uses (southern Alberta); insufficient infrastructural capacity (Toronto); or concerns with leakage (Halifax).

2.2.5 Venezuela

According to the Constitution of the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, published in the special edition of the Official Gazette No. 5,453 of March 24, 2000, which is the cornerstone and highest authority in the domestic juridical framework, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela is a democratic and social state of law and justice, with a government that is democratic, participatory, elective, decentralized, alternative, responsible, pluralist, with revocable mandates. The republic's political structure consists of the states, the capital district, the federal dependencies (islands) and the federal territories, with the territory organised into municipalities. Spatially and vertically, government is organized as follows: (a) National government (b) State government (c) Municipal government. The organs of government have specific powers that they exercise based on the principles of honesty, participation, effectiveness, efficiency, transparency, accountability, and responsibility, with full respect for the law, as established in Article 141 of the Constitution.

Despite clear successes in establishing local councils, Venezuela still faces real challenges in making them work effectively. The lack of a federal or national law that sets common fundamental principles and criteria for local councils throughout the country poses a particular challenge. Establishing an enabling legal framework is left up to the will of the provincial governments, leading to differences in implementation across the country, with some citizens not being offered the opportunity of a local council. The lack of a national regulatory framework is often explained as coming from a lack of political will from the different political parties. Some laws do not provide enough detailed information about the creation, administration and responsibilities of local

councils. This can result in vaguely defined councils that lack legitimacy in their origin, functioning, mandate and scope. In some cases, the local council law contradicts other legislation making it nearly impossible to create active local councils (ELLA, 2017).

2.3 Municipal Leadership in Africa

The continent of Africa comprises of a total of 54 countries located in five sub-regions. The sub-regions are North Africa, East Africa, Central Africa, Southern Africa and West Africa. One country has been selected from each sub-region, except Southern Africa because they are analysed in section 2.4 under SADC regions. The researcher is of the view that the characteristics from each of the representative countries can be partially applied in the other countries in the same region. The results of this cross-sectional study reveal that municipalities do have good governance principles on paper, but the delivery of services is something else. There is poor coordination between national, regional and local plans; and inadequate cooperation between these different levels of government which consequently impacts the satisfactory delivery of services to the community. Clean audit questions can also be raised when municipal officials have charges of corruption being levelled against them. Also, from this sample of African countries, the community's input is neglected.

2.3.1 Tunisia

The constitution provides that local governments have their own legal status as well as administrative and financial independence (Art.132, Chap. 7). It also provides that these local authorities are to be elected by the people in universal, free and fair elections (Art. 133). In order for local government to achieve the desired objectives, they need to enjoy a certain regulatory authority, be able to control some administrative assets such as facilities, equipment, and personnel, enjoy self-generated or allocated sources of revenues, recruit personnel from the local and regional levels, and provide citizens with adequate opportunities to take part in decision-making through elected councils. The constitution identifies three levels of local government; municipality, region, and district (Art. 131): (1) Municipality: this is the smallest level. Municipalities existed since the independence. (2) Regions: A new decentralized level of government. Regional council cover the same territory as governorates, which are a de-concentrated level of government that existed before the revolution and that are headed by appointed representatives of the central government. Governorates are divided into delegations

and sectors. (3) Districts: A new level of local government created by the new constitution, and each district groups together several governorates.

According to research by Abderrahim (2017), there is poor coordination between national, regional, and local plans, and inadequate cooperation between these different levels of government. The absence of an empowering legislative and institutional framework compounded the problem. Besides, municipalities covered only 60% of the Tunisian territory, and more than one-third of the population was not covered by the municipal distribution. As a result, these councils were not able to respond to local needs and play an instrumental role in local development. Adopting a participatory approach and fostering citizen involvement can be curtailed because of a “conservative-minded public service” that is more favourable of receiving orders from the centre under traditional procedures and through old channels of communication. Other studies about Tunisian municipalities reveal that weak local leadership and limited financial and human resources hinder active involvement of civil society. The relationship between municipalities and the regional administrations remains also very weak.

2.3.2 Tanzania

Local government was re-established by the government in 1982. The aim was, among other things, to give people the powers to determine their own development. Since the re-introduction of local governments in Tanzania, the structure of local government has slightly changed. The current configuration of local governments in Tanzania has the characteristics of devolution with specific areas of jurisdiction and functions to perform as well as their own sources of revenue. The current local government system in Tanzania is laid down in the Constitution which requires the establishment of local governments in every part of the country. Based on the articles of the Constitution, different laws were enacted to govern the administration and to establish local governments in Tanzania (Mustafa, 2009).

Research carried out by Kessy (2018) indicates that there are governance challenges in Tanzanian municipalities. According to the council staff interviewed, local authorities are only empowered at the local level in terms of the delivery of social services such as education, health, water, etc. Nevertheless, according to a senior council official, the central government still sets priorities for social services to be provided by the councils. Moreover, councillors and council employees reported that they have to follow central government’s wishes because they finance most of the

public services provided by their council. Both the devolution of the central power and the sharing of service delivery are important elements of local governance. However, there is a need to remove the current state arrangements that constrain local authorities to enhance democratic processes that will enable entrepreneurial performance. The Local Government Reform Programme has to some extent brought changes in the six case councils with respect to local autonomy. Some new forms of relationship between the central government and the local authorities have been established in terms of tax collection, human resources development and service delivery. However, local authorities still have limited powers to fully discharge their functions. Despite these limitations, there has been a substantial development in the process of decision making especially with the attempts made to include more citizens in the planning process.

2.3.3 Democratic Republic of Congo

A study by Xu (2009) revealed that physical infrastructures and regional administrative structures for urban sanitation are still underdeveloped. Concerning wastewater, the few collective networks in big towns have not been maintained on a regular basis, and most of them are clogged, blocked and out of function. All the treatment plants are out of service or have disappeared. Sanitation for individual households is left to private initiative, which very largely dominates this sector. It however uses techniques that are not controlled, and most often very rudimentary, owing to users' lack of know-how (ADB, 2007). The drainage of septic tanks is a market shared between the private sector and the National Sanitation Program (PNA) in Kinshasa, the only town where PNA is operational. Operators discharge waste products in disregard of any rules, generally into nearby rivers flowing within the country. Concerning household refuse collection, only Kinshasa, Lubumbashi and, to a lesser extent, Kisangani and Bukavu, have a minimum collective service.

However, there are initiatives supported by NGOs to develop household refuse collection systems whereby the populations of the country can be self-reliant. Concerning storm water, the drainage networks are degraded all over the country. Although severe flood problems are relatively rare, those of erosion due to poor drainage are frequent and dramatic (ADB, 2007). The fundamental problem of urban sanitation is mainly institutional one, which involves the lack of sound management of urban space in terms of its use and generation of resources required for its operation (territorial organization, and overall and operational urban policy). The same applies to inadequate organization of disease vector control and health education.

2.3.4 Nigeria

In Nigeria, studies have established that rapid urban growth is characterised with inadequate, poorly maintained and deteriorating urban environmental services (Olowoporoku, 2017). The rate of waste generation and lack of capacity to properly dispose of that waste creates challenges for solid waste management. Also, lack of water supply and poor wastewater services are challenges in urban water management (Daramola & Olowoporoku, 2016). Thus, as put by Cities Alliance (2007), the unsanitary conditions created by these deficient environmental services are serious issues in urban environmental management. Nevertheless, despite the rising concern on the inadequate provision of environmental services in Nigeria, less attention has been paid to urban governance, a significant factor of urban environmental service delivery in the country. According to Ogu (2000), the provision of poor environmental services in Nigerian cities may be understood in the light of the administrative structure and financing arrangements. Nigeria operates federal system of government of three tiers: federal, state and local.

The local government is meant to operate at the city level. However, the determination of the administrative boundaries of local government area gives no recognition to municipal administration. This arrangement makes it some cities such as Lagos, Ibadan, Kano and many others as contain multiple independent local governments within their metropolitan areas. As such, coordinated city management becomes a difficult task with the presence of the constituent local government areas. In several cases, the state government takes over the city-wide administration of the urban centres. As a result, ensuring good urban governance remains a daunting challenge in Nigeria with several implications on the provision of environmental services. The delivery of environmental services in Nigerian cities is a reflection of the governance of the cities. Due to the disjointed local governance in Nigerian urban centres and the involvement of higher tiers of government in addressing the challenges of inadequate environmental services, several bodies are established at different levels of government for delivery of urban environmental services leading to duplication of functions in provision of environmental services (Daramola & Olowoporoku, 2016).

2.4 Municipal leadership in the SADC regions

The Southern African Development Coordinating Conference (SADCC) was formed to advance the cause of national political liberation in Southern Africa, and to reduce dependence particularly

on the then apartheid era South Africa, through effective coordination of utilisation of the specific characteristics and strengths of each country and its resources. SADCC objectives went beyond just dependence reduction to embrace basic development and regional integration. SADC Member States are Angola, Botswana, Union of Comoros, DR Congo, Eswatini, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe. For the purpose of obtaining a helicopter view of the governance of municipalities in SADC regions, five countries have been selected and these are Angola, Zambia, Mozambique, Zimbabwe and Botswana.

2.4.1 Municipal leadership in Angola

According to the findings of the survey of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in 2013, local governance in Angola lacks collective leadership and decentralisation. The overall objectives of the Decentralisation and Local Governance Project (DLG) was to strengthen democratic governance policies and practices and institutions at national, provincial and municipal levels and to increase the capacity of public service delivery in Angola by building capacities of local government and citizens to engage in identifying local priorities and planning for public service delivery.

Despite some progress, decentralisation and local governance concepts remain embryonic concepts and practices in the country, thus long-term perspective is required in approaching any support to the authorities. However, recent developments in various spheres of development in Angola, human development and capacity remains low, thus requiring long term capacity support and development. UNDP Angola also aspired to provide spaces and mechanisms that facilitate inter-sectoral coordination at both national and sub-national levels through the project board and municipal technical teams to support municipal development.

The report shows that local governance leaders needed training and as a result municipal finance trainings were held in Bie and Malange provinces for their municipal finance staff. The two training sessions brought together 64 municipal finance professionals.

Key outcomes of the training included increased awareness of the participants of using participatory budgeting perspective (that involves the needs and interests of communities) in the allocation of government funds to municipal programmes including those activities funded under and through the Municipal Poverty Programme. UNDP supported the training of more than 60

municipal finance staff increased their skills in the design, management and budgeting for social projects using more inclusive approaches. Furthermore, their knowledge of new financial legislation and rules (including revenue collection) was enhanced. At the end of the training the municipal authorities recommended extending training such as this to the totality of 23 municipalities in Malange and Bié benefiting over 100 municipal civil servants.

2.4.2 Municipal leadership in Zambia

Zambia is a democratic republic with two spheres of government, national and local. There is constitutional provision for local government and the main governing legislation includes the Local Government Act 1991 and the Local Government Elections Act 1992. The 103 local authorities are overseen by the Ministry of Local Government and Housing and consist of four city councils, 15 municipal councils and 84 district councils. There are also ten provinces, which are purely administrative. Local governments must establish and maintain roads, bridges, ferries, watercourses, street lighting and public transport, as well as provide firefighting and prevention, and environmental health services. Councils must also provide and maintain supplies of water; maintain drains, sewers and roads; and dispose of sewage and refuse. They must maintain cemeteries, crematoria and mortuaries, parks, zoos, gardens, pleasure grounds, camping grounds, caravan sites, art galleries, libraries, museums and film services (Country Profile, 2018).

One of the biggest criticisms of the 1980 Act was that under Section 15, the Chairman-cum-Governor of the District Council was given extensive powers, as the responsible for the overall administration of the Council and the supervisor of its day-to-day functions. However, similar functions were allocated to the District Secretariat which fell under the general supervision of the District Executive Secretary, formerly the Town Clerk in City or Municipal Councils. In Part III of the Schedule to the 1980 Act the District Secretariat was given the duty, inter alia, of carrying out the day-to-day administration of the Council. There was a potential ground of conflict between the Chairman and the District Executive Secretary in these provisions. The 1991 Act had not attempted to define the functions of Mayors in City or Municipal Councils and Chairman in District Councils except that of presiding over Council meetings under the provisions of section 24, nor has it attempted to define the functions of the Chief Executive Officer of the Council. This lack of role-definition has also created its own problems. It is important at this point in time to define as clearly as possible the roles of all the stakeholders in the administration of local

authorities. This is an absolute pre-requisite to any effective performance of the respective duties of Councillors and Council Officers (Chitembo, Zulu, & Mukwena, 2014).

2.4.3 Municipal leadership in Mozambique

According to Maschietto (2016), one of the main problems of decentralisation and local governance in Mozambique has to do with the fact that the main policy to promote bottom-up governance dynamics has come from the top-down, a problem that does not encourage local government performance. The dual system and the gradual approach reflected the only possible agreement at the time, an agreement that allowed some degree of change (in particular the creation of a limited number of municipalities), but which also prevented a more radical change from taking place, as it allowed the central government to retain a strong political influence at the local level.

In this context, the local councils represent a middle-ground solution that enables the government to claim that local participation is increasing in governance matters, but without compromising the actual power chain, as the role of these councils remains consultative and linked to the district administration (which is, by default, linked to the dominant party) and its ability and will to implement local demands. It is important to stress that studies on the local councils in Mozambique are still rare and very much needed.

Members of the community from the districts of Moma and Mogovolas pointed out that new local council members selected were relatives of local chiefs, not people chosen by the community. Some also mentioned that if they disagreed with the process there was little they could do because the local councils are linked to the government. In summation, the evidence available shows that the role of the local councils in Mozambique in representing the communities is still very limited (Maschietto, 2016).

2.4.4 Municipal leadership in Zimbabwe

The state of service delivery in municipal areas directly impacts on residents' lives. In Zimbabwe, there have been widespread complaints over municipal and local governance service delivery. Several stakeholders (among them municipal residents' associations and the non-governmental organisations) have also testified to the fact that there has been a general decline in municipal service delivery and capital development in local authority governed areas. In extreme cases like Harare, Chitungwiza, Bindura and Redcliff, the authorities were compelled at times to dismiss the

head of council, head of administration, or senior officials of council, or even all of them. In most such cases, allegations centred around poor service delivery, mal-administration, abuse of public funds, abuse of authority or office, fraudulent dealings and corrupt tendencies (Murimoga and Musingafi, 2014).

The mandated functions and responsibilities of local authorities in Zimbabwe can be captured as follows: levying and collecting of local taxes for themselves, regulation of business activities within their respective territorial jurisdictions, administration of garbage collection, providing and maintaining of public cemeteries, public markets and storehouses. Service provision among local authorities in Zimbabwe is a matter of trying to do something in a crisis situation. Local officials are of course well aware of the situation they face across a variety of service areas. The most important services provided by local authorities are water and sanitation, refuse collection, road maintenance and primary health care. The main constraints are the lack of financial resources to make improvement, short supply of functioning equipment and machinery and lack of availability of material stocks, pipes, tanks, lights, and other necessary supplies (Chakaipa, 2010).

Illegal dumping sites are a common feature in many places. Many of the cities have challenges relating to inadequate accommodation, inadequate schools, inadequate markets, inadequate home industries and dilapidated social services facilities. Residents complained of rampant corruption within housing departments. They claimed that residents on the housing waiting list had to pay bribes in order to be given preference in the allocation of houses. In cities, the shortage of vending markets results in vendors occupying undesignated spaces and this culminates in running battles with the council police as they try to evict them (Chinyama, 2015).

In most parts of the two cities potholes on roads remain unattended. Residents alleged that the municipalities' pothole patching programme is biased towards the low-density suburbs. In Harare, residents further complained that some traffic lights had gone for long periods without repairs. They pointed out those malfunctioning traffic lights result in traffic congestion thereby causing accidents. Sometimes the municipality simply cuts water supply without giving residents advance communication. This results in residents using contaminated water from open wells and streams which are very far from their residential areas but with high rates of pollution from the industrial areas, graveyards and the scattered dumping areas (Muchadenyika, 2017).

2.4.5 Municipal leadership in Botswana

Botswana is a democratic republic with a two-tier system of government: national government headed by the president and local government headed by a mayor in towns/cities and a council chairperson in rural districts. There is no constitutional provision for local government in Botswana, and the main legislation is the Local Government Act 2012. The Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development is charged with providing policy direction and guidance. Local government comprises 16 administrative districts (ten rural and six urban). Under these, there are 23 sub-districts including four administrative authorities. Governance at the local level is also based on a traditional system of villages headed by a kgosi (chief). This traditional system works cooperatively with other district institutions. Although councils have legitimate powers to collect certain taxes, levies and fees; national government provides up to 90% of their total recurrent revenue. Statutory council functions include provision of primary infrastructure, tertiary and access roads, health and sanitation, economic and physical development, collection and management of waste, and general maintenance of law and order. Local government uses a bottom-up planning approach whereby communities are consulted during the drafting of district/urban development plans. These plans take a long-term view (five to six years). The consultations are done with the participation of all institutions operating at the district level, coordinated by the Office of the District Commissioner. The village/ward development committees which were established by the Local Government Act 2012 are used to reach the community. Dikgosi (traditional leaders) play a critical role in mobilising communities for consultation on all government policies and programmes at the local level (Country Profile, 2018).

The Government of Botswana has and continues to promote local government as an instrument of decentralisation and public participation for local level governance and service delivery. Local authorities (LAs) are at the forefront of the provision of basic services to the local communities. The LAs are also a major channel for the use of public resources as exemplified by the significant budget allocations committed to them. It is, therefore, important that they conduct their business in the most effective and efficient manner. In order for public sector systems to deliver effective localized services, LAs in Botswana should be gradually transformed from bodies that are mainly concerned with pushing services but to proactively engage their citizens and represent their communities' interests. Considering the extent of responsibilities of the local government authorities, there is a need to set clear expectations and have structures to ensure that local bodies

respond to local needs by conducting local development in a timely, inclusive, open, honest and accountable manner (Madala & Phirinyane, 2016).

2.5 Municipal leadership in South Africa

South African local government has many challenges. The biggest challenge affecting public service delivery is the lack of effective leadership ethics. According to Modumo (2015), the government of South Africa has tried to lay more emphasis on local government economic development, despite the challenges. The progress made by democratic government is seldom noticed because of the many challenges facing local governments in South Africa. According to Sebola (2015), the dominant challenge across local governments in South Africa is mal-administration and corruption. Local governments in South Africa are struggling to change the dilemma that was created by the apartheid government because of the local government systems.

Wegner (2018) is of the view that the dominant party system in South Africa does not assist the poor people and do not address the issues of holding unethical leaders accountable. Leaders are not accountable to people because the general population does not participate in the political electoral processes. The community dilutes democracy in terms of the processes of electing preferred leaders. The ideal approach to elect leaders will be allowing everyone to participate in electing the leaders of political parties. The system of electing representatives at the local government level does not give power to the citizens to recall those who were misbehaving or failing to advance the interests of the people (De Kadt & Larreguy, 2018). Community members would always be compelled or forced to be represented by a person who is no longer needed by the community until his or term is finished. Municipalities in South Africa have different types of communities and the challenges are informed by the needs of the people and the attempt by the government to address those needs. Lack of proper consultations by the municipalities makes it difficult for municipalities to accept challenges faced by the citizenry.

The Conversation (2018) reported that South Africa's 257 municipalities are in a catastrophic financial position. At the centre of the challenges is unethical leadership. The South African Auditor General discovered that only 33 (13%) municipalities fully complied with the expected legalities in the financial year 2017/2018. The report further indicated that 31% of the municipalities in the country were not financially feasible (BUSINESSSTECH, 2018b). Most municipalities that obtained a qualified audit report did not apply relevant knowledge in the

management of finances. Political interference and political fights within the ruling party in the form of different groupings or factions affected the daily operations of municipalities. Political deployments to key positions in the municipalities played a major role in their failure. The lack of responsibility and accountability by those found to be contravening the policies of the municipalities have found to be another factor to obtaining the qualified audit. The Auditor General's report showed that the lack of leadership ethics and moral behaviour in local governments is still dominant in South African municipalities (Brand, 2018).

Many towns in South Africa were intended for a few people, particularly whites, but due to the democratic dispensation and the increase of the population, the government extended access to sanitation and water to more people. Therefore, the infrastructure is not coping. The Harry Gwala District Municipality is one of the municipalities that do not have a high number of people who received basic services such as water, electricity, and proper sanitation. Leaders in many municipalities in South Africa shifted the blame to the sins of the apartheid. A lack of leadership ethics in local government leadership is mostly found in municipalities that have illiterate communities. Local government leaders take advantage of the people and abuse their power. For example, in eThekweni Municipality, the mayor paid R 208 million to companies for services that were not rendered (Ntuli, 2019).

South Africa has good policies, but the process of implementing such policies is questionable and some policies are not implemented at all. The Municipal Systems Act (MSA) 32 of 2000 clearly stipulates the roles and responsibilities of councillors and the city manager. There is a clear contradiction between the MSA and the policies of the Independent Electoral Commission (IEC). The process of electing ward councillors facilitated by the IEC does not address the requirements of the MSA. The MSA gives effect to the formation of municipalities in line with the requirements relating to classifications and types of municipalities in South Africa. These include the determination of the criteria for deciding about the category of municipality to be established in a specific area and the description of the types of municipalities that may be established in each category. Others include the determination of relevant division of functions and authorities between different categories of municipality, provision, and constitution of the internal systems and political structures. In addition, political and government office-bearers of municipalities should emphasise on the appropriate electoral systems. The elected people to govern municipalities

were elected by community members who also do not understand the MSA and its requirements. The elected council members serve as the governing body for the municipalities, which has powers to hold public officials accountable and to appoint officials. The competency and ethics of those who contest political power are not taken into consideration. It is therefore difficult to have completely clean and ethical municipalities because of the system that is followed in electing the leadership (Govender & Reddy, 2015).

2.6 Leadership in KwaZulu Natal Municipalities

KwaZulu-Natal province, also known as KZN, is located on the south-east part of the country of South Africa. It covers an area of 94 361 square kilometres and has the second highest population of 11 531 638 people in the country. The outcomes of the audit results for two consecutive periods; 2017-18 and 2018-19 are an indication of poor leadership by the municipalities of KwaZulu-Natal province. The reports show that municipal leaders are not keen to correct their mistakes which are signified by poor service delivery to the citizenry. An unclean financial audit is a sign that municipal leaders need to be trained soon after election into office.

2.6.1 Auditor-General's report for the year 2017-18

According to the Auditor-General's audit report, the audit outcomes continued to deteriorate in the second year following the election and appointment of the new political and administrative leadership in the province. The outcomes indicate a net overall regression of nine municipalities since the previous year, comprising 14 regressions and five improvements. There was a substantial decrease in the number of municipalities with unqualified audit opinions without findings (clean audits) from six to one; and an increase in the number of municipalities with modified audit opinions (qualified, adverse and disclaimed) from 14 to 18.

The report identified and reported that the leadership along with management was slow to respond, or did not respond at all, to the early warning risk signals and recommendations that were regularly communicated during engagements. Vital internal controls were ignored. It is also worth noting that the levels of tension, intimidation and threats, as well as pushback and hostility, increased during the execution and reporting phases of the audits, as the leadership and management were under pressure to achieve better audit outcomes. These factors coupled with surges in service delivery protests made the audit landscape complex and challenging for our audit teams. "Many of the challenges across local government are vast and require attention and a long-term solution.

Equally, there are basic lapses that are sometimes overlooked, which can be fixed easily and quickly by addressing the building blocks of a sound system of internal control,” the Auditor-General advises.

2.6.2 Auditor-General’s report for the year 2018-19

The audit report released by the Auditor-general noted that, there was little change in the audit outcomes of the province, accountability was not adequately practised and enforced by leadership, and the failure of key controls continued. Most district municipalities continued to struggle with basic financial and performance management processes, displayed a lack of responsiveness to implement and monitor action plans, and had weak governance structures that did not enable effective accountability. Leadership did not always influence robust systems of internal control to drive good governance and discipline –more focus must be placed on exercising political oversight and addressing the aspirations of citizens.

The impact of this is evident in the increasing irregular expenditure, reported at R6,5 billion for the period under review, with eThekweni Metro incurring R2,34 billion of this amount. A further R17,2 million in irregular expenditure can be attributed to audits finalised after the cut-off date for this report. Consultants continued to be utilised in many instances to assist with the preparation of financial statements and financial reporting, with the province spending a total of R95million in this regard; while elected leaders were in place to execute these functions. Of this, R1 million was spent by municipalities whose audits had not been finalised by the cut-off date of the report.

2.7 Gaps identified

Relying on the findings from all the municipalities that have been studied in Africa and the rest of the world, the results indicate that municipal leadership is an area of concern for the successful delivery of services to take place. The areas of leadership to be addressed might vary greatly but each municipality faces leadership challenges. Problems range from poor training of municipal leaders, lack of role definition, election of prominent officials’ relatives and corrupt municipal leaders. Botswana promotes local government as an instrument of decentralisation and public participation; but community participation in decision making is minimal. There are instances where state government takes over municipal administration which affects the municipal’s line of authority and flexible decisions. Research also shows that the problem of urban sanitation is due to the lack of sound leadership. Proper functioning of municipalities is also inhibited by the

granting of limited powers to the local authorities and lack of citizen involvement. In some cases, reports point out that local council law contradicts other legislation making it nearly impossible to create active local councils. Electoral development funds have been reported to promote corruption after leaders divert public funds for their own personal benefits. Govender and Reddy (2015) postulated that the competency and ethics of those trusted with municipal leadership are not taken into consideration in South Africa; this came to light after discovering that audit outcomes deteriorate after the appointment of new administrative leadership.

2.8 Chapter Summary

To this end, this chapter has succeeded in exploring municipal service delivery through municipal governance and technical capacity lenses, including key challenges. Thus, it raised critical issues for consideration. Firstly, this chapter has argued that service delivery problems and challenges are a direct consequence or manifestation of weak governance, municipal capacity constraints and poor planning amongst others. Secondly, it has also demonstrated that the need for strong governance and technical skill capacity is essential to improve municipal service delivery. Lastly, the chapter has also pointed out that the prime objective of resolving municipal service delivery challenges is to place greater emphasis on professional expertise free from party politics as well as to effectively monitor and evaluate service delivery in order to leave nothing to chance. The next chapter reviews the theories of leadership and employee engagement.

Chapter 3 :Theoretical Framework

3.1 Introduction

Excessive application of traditional leadership theories (Great-Man theory or Trait theory) was condemned by Torres and Reeves (2014) as they cited general problems like leaders becoming less effective due to lack of confidence and lack of adaptive capacity skills. Leadership literature reveals that theories have been refined and modified with passage of time and none of the theory is completely irrelevant. Numerous explanations, classifications, theories and definitions about leadership, exist in the contemporary literature. Substantial effort has gone in to classify and clarify different dimensions of active leadership thus, generating considerable organisational and social research of leadership styles and behaviours. Many researchers and practitioners have developed a consensus that the progression of thinking over the years has developed a belief that leadership is a flexible developmental process, with each new piece of research building on and seldom completely disregarding that which was derived before it. Some of the theories that emerged include: the Great-Man theory, Trait theory, social exchange leadership theory, Behavioural theory, Transformational theory, transactional theory, responsible leadership theory, contingency theory, servant leadership theory, authentic leadership theory and the neo-charismatic leadership theory. This chapter also reviews employee engagement and motivation theories.

3.2 The evolution of leadership

Defining a leader and the qualities that demonstrate leadership have evolved over the past centuries. Researchers have explored leadership traits using various methodologies since the concept of the leader and leadership has arisen in the lexicon. However, a consistent methodology or even consensus of the nature of effective leadership has been the subject of great debate. Understanding the ideals of leadership that help identify great leaders requires a re-examination of the historical evolution of leadership theories and principles. The early ideas of leadership were born of an age of expansion and industrial revolution that identified a leader as that one, great individual. Through this tour of history, the theories surrounding leaders and leadership have evolved and changed with each era. Trait theory and behavioural models have given way to ideals such as authentic leadership and environmental influenced leadership (situational leadership). More modern theories invert the traditional paradigm of vertical leadership to a flattened form of dynamic leadership where leaders are interchangeable dependent upon the task. While the

intricacies of each theory cannot be completely and exhaustively examined in this text, the review and evolution of leadership principals is important in providing a framework to a better understanding as to the evolution of leadership theory from the early to modern age (Hunt, LaVonne, & Fedynich, 2019). Since the beginning of humanity, leadership has evolved through the ages, and although significant leadership research has been conducted and numerous theories developed, it has not produced a clearly universally defined and applicable theory that both researchers and leaders agree on (Allio, 2013; Bennis, 2013).

The formal study of leadership dates back to the 1930s and since that time, researchers have produced numerous leadership theories and styles (Allio, 2013; Bennett, 2009). A twentieth-century pioneer in the study of leadership, Warren Bennis, wrote in his 1985 book *On Becoming a Leader* about leaders transitioning from traditional leadership and focusing on gaining control, to a more non-traditional method of inspiring followers. The Bennis approach to leadership was a change from traditional thinking and presented the way toward more of a trait approach where leaders provided vision, passion, integrity and trust (Bennis, 2009). Bennis' approach to leadership inspired or enhanced similar research like that of Kouzes and Posner that emphasised credibility, morals, values, ethics, and interaction (Kouzes & Posner, 2017). The ability of leaders to build teams, recognize the contributions of others and celebrate the success of individuals and teams was an important dynamic required by leaders to be successful (Kouzes & Posner, 2017). The following table highlights the different theories of leadership and approximate years of their evolution:

Table 3-1: Leadership Theories

Leadership theories	Year
Great Man Theory	1920
Trait Theory	1930
Behavioural Theory	1950
Contingency Theory	1960
Transactional leadership Theory	1970
Transformational Leadership Theory	1970

Source: (Landis, Hill, & Harvey, 2014)

3.2.1 Great-Man Theory

A precursor to the formal study of leadership was the Great Man theory. The Great Man theory was not necessarily based on research but more on opinions and personal perspectives of the times. In the 1840s, Thomas Carlyle, a writer from Scotland, introduced the concept that leaders were born and not made, a concept that developed into theory and followed in principle into the twentieth century (Hoffman et al.,2011). The hypothesis of the Great Man Theory is that leaders are born and not made, trained, or developed, hence the saying “A born leader” (Allio, 2013; Cawthon, 1996). Reinforcing the Great Man theory was an 1869 study by Galton that claimed certain attributes of leaders are genetically passed on from one generation to another (Lee, 2011). Thomas Carlyle believed that individuals personal traits, predetermined characteristics, and inherent ability, produced heroes who rose to challenges and leadership roles (Hoffman et al.,2011).

The Great Man theory, in essence, was an assumption that only certain individuals possessed required characteristic and traits that would empower them to be leaders (Bass & Bass, 2008). The Great Man Theory maintained prominence through the 1940s in part due to its exclusion of women from leadership roles (Cawthon, 1996). The great man theory of leadership assumes that certain people are born with essential qualities that make them different from others, and it is these qualities that are responsible for their ascendancy to power and authority. This theory is thus premised on the belief that those in power are deserving of being there by virtue of their being specially endowed with special qualities. It has certain qualities like persuasiveness, charm, demanding personality, increase in the amount of perception, courage, intellect, aggressiveness and being action orientated.

Hunt, LaVonne and Fedynich (2019) criticises the Great-Man theory due to its biasness. This theory presupposes that leaders are born to lead (Malakyan, 2014). According to early adherents of this theory, certain men (women at the time were not part of the research due to the pervasive gender discrimination and views of the time) were born with innate characteristics that destined them to lead (Johns & Moser, 1989). Researchers examined ancient and past leaders such as Napoleon, Genghis Khan, Alexander the Great, and others (King, 1990). Their leadership assumed a certain born ability to lead (Johns & Moser, 1989). Individuals were counselled that to be a leader, one needs to emulate the historically great leaders of our ancient past (King, 1990).

3.2.2 Trait theory

Trait theory was born out of the early Great Man theory. Trait theory was an extension of the Great Man theory in an attempt to provide an early framework for leadership study (Malakyan, 2014). Trait theorists surmised that certain qualities were needed, such as: high energy, integrity, competence of their area of expertise, intelligence, and faith, among others (Johns & Moser, 1989). Trait theory was written in generalities of traits that were viewed to be common with great leaders. The theory is based on the notion that leaders are born, but they may also be cases where leaders may be made given that enough lessons are displayed. It is about qualities present in a leader that are either based on personal attributes or inherited or can be developed with time (Kinsler, 2014) that predispose them to success in leadership roles. The trait theory mirrors the great man theory by assuming that people inherit particular qualities that make them better suited to leadership. Amanchukwu et al. (2015) note that inconsistencies in the correlation between leadership traits and effectiveness led research scholars to shift paradigms in search of enlightenment for effectiveness leadership.

The Great Man theory and trait theorist both believed that individuals were born with certain leadership traits, however the trait theory jumped an inch further stating that these traits could be learned or gained through education or training (Northouse, 2013). The 1930s and 1940s brought a spinoff of the Great Man theory and transitioned towards a modified viewpoint of trait theory (Northouse, 2013). Individual attributes were the focus of the trait approach to leadership study, which suggested that there were distinctive characteristics and personality traits that made up an individual's ability to be a leader (Colbert, Judge, Choi, & Wang, 2012).

Stogdill (1948)	Mann (1959)	Stogdill (1974)	Lord, DeVader, and Alliger (1986)	Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991)
Intelligence	Intelligence	Achievement	Intelligence	Drive
Alertness	Masculinity	Persistence	Masculinity	Motivation
Insight	Adjustment	Insight	Dominance	Integrity
Responsibility	Dominance	Initiative		Confidence
Initiative	Extroversion	Self-confidence		Cognitive ability
Persistence	Conservatism	Responsibility		Task knowledge
Self-confidence		Cooperativeness		
Sociability		Tolerance		
		Influence		
		Sociability		

Figure 3-1: Studies on Leadership Traits

Source: Northouse (2013)

A significant difference with the new views of trait theory was that it presented the concept that individuals could be either be born or made if they could learn the traits of good leadership (Fleenor, 2011). Stogdill’s 1948 study identified alertness, insight, responsibility, initiative, persistence, self-confidence, and sociability as some of the dominant leadership traits (Northouse, 2013). In 1959 Mann’s study added adjustment, dominance, extroversion, conservatism and masculinity to the list of traits (Northouse, 2013). Stogdill produced another study in 1974 in which achievement, tolerance, influence, and cooperativeness were added as additional traits (Northouse, 2013). Further studies as noted in Figure 3-1 added masculinity, dominance, drive, motivation, confidence, cognitive ability and task knowledge to a list of leadership traits (Northouse, 2013).

Cherry (2019) objected to the sentiments by theorists that people can be described based on their personality traits. The argument was based on the that theorists continue to debate on the number of basic traits that make up human personality. The most common criticisms of trait theory centre on the fact that traits are often poor predictors of behaviour. While an individual may score high on assessments of a specific trait, he may not always behave that way in every situation. Another

problem is those trait theories do not address how or why individual differences in personality develop or emerge.

3.2.3 Contingency theory

The Contingency theory was developed in 1967 by Fiedler and theorized that specific situations would dictate which type of response and leadership was required to address the situation with a successful reaction (Fiedler, 1967; Prindle, 2012). Contingency theory was a departure from behavioural and trait leadership models and began an approach that suggested, based on organizational requirements, that leaders should use different leadership styles and approaches (Andibo, 2012). The Contingency theory is one of the more largely researched leadership theories and asserted that organizations should match a leader's skills with styles and psychological attitude (Northouse, 2013). The application of contingency theory was to identify organizational situations and place leaders possessing pre-determined leadership traits in the leadership positions (Gray, 2013; Northouse, 2013).

The contingency theory focuses on contextual parameters related to the environment that might influence which style of leadership will apply. This approach suggests that there is no single leadership style that can suit every circumstance (Kinsler, 2014). Landis, Hill & Harvey (2014) suggest that the contingency approach recognises that specific situations dictate specific actions and any crises that may arise provide an opportunity for leaders to emerge.

To recognize the role the environment played in the leader-subordinate dynamic, the contingency theory was added to the mix. There was finally recognition that certain environmental factors must be taken into consideration (King, 1990). For example, the tasks itself as well as social status of all parties and nature of the working environment were all considerations in the research (Bass, 1960). This theory recognized the possibility that the leader mattered less than the environment in which the leader-subordinate dynamic occurred (King, 1990). Leadership was becoming separated from the individual as a leader. Leadership was more a function or process by which the larger organization could accomplish its goals (Middlehurst, 2008).

There was also a branch of this contingency approach to address the social status of the leader and the subordinates (King, 1990). There was finally provable recognition that a leader had to adapt to the situation in which he or she found themselves (Johns & Moser, 1989). The ability to adapt

resulted in more successful leaders (Johns & Moser, 1989). The acknowledgement of adaptability as a trait led to a renaissance in the view of leadership. This area of study has been termed contingency (King, 1990). Successful leadership was viewed as hinging on factors such as personality, behaviour, influence and the situational environment. Leadership under a contingency approach is fluid and ever changing to the situation (Ronay & Vugt, 2014). The style of leadership was given great importance (Malakyan, 2014).

Path-Goal leadership is an offshoot of the contingency approach (King, 1990). The roles of leader and subordinate remain strictly delineated with the leader directing and the subordinate following (Malakyan, 2014). Under a path-goal model, the leader directs the subordinates in accomplishing the goals of the organization while working with subordinates to overcome obstacles to achieve that goal (Northouse, 2015). The normative approach was another off shoot of the contingency theory. Under this approach, a leader was viewed as most effective when he or she performed a differentiated diagnosis of the situation to determine the best course of action (King, 1990).

The theory further suggested that based on the maturity level of followers, the leader should match the appropriate decision-making style, either by delegating, participating, telling, or selling, to the followers' particular skill level (Northouse, 2013). Stogdill's 1948 study was instrumental in a beginning a shift from the trait approach to leadership toward situational leadership (Northouse, 2013). Stogdill continued his research and in 1974 produced a follow-up study that suggested that traits were not a determinant of a leader's effectiveness. The study suggested that while leaders may have shared common traits, it was their ability to adapt to situations and apply appropriate and different leadership styles in response to the situations, which in turn would produce desired results (Northouse, 2013).

3.2.4 Behavioural theory

The behavioural theory sharply contrasts the great man theory in the sense that the latter is grounded on the belief that great leaders are made not born. Proponents of the behavioural theory are of the view that anyone can acquire a leadership position through training and observation

(Uzohue, Yaya, & Akintayo, 2016). Nanjundeswaraswamy and Swamy (2014) suggest that the behaviour of leaders can influence the trust and satisfaction of the employees.

The behaviour theorists of leadership examined the actions of the leader as opposed to their personality traits (King, 1990). The initial view of behaviour theory is that while the leader focused on accomplishing the task, he or she had concern and an understanding of group cohesiveness as well as the individual members of the group (King, 1990). Studies in this early time of behaviour research focused on a factor analytic procedure for conducting research (Johns & Moser, 1989). This theory evolved into the well-known Theory X and Theory Y views of leadership. Theory X presupposed that (1) Individuals disliked their work; (2) They needed to be controlled or else they would not work; and (3) Most, if not all people wanted job security as opposed to responsibility (Northouse, 2015). Theory Y was in direct opposition to Theory X (King, 1990).

Theory Y proposed that (1) Individuals generally liked their work; (2) Individuals are self-motivated and do not require any coercion; and (3) Individuals crave responsibility and will readily accept it (Northouse, 2015). A large amount of research was conducted regarding behaviour theory. The results of such studies were not always consistent with these theories (King, 1990). The behaviour studies of leadership were a step forward in distancing researchers away from the unsupported earlier theories. There were copious amounts of data and studies in behaviour. Unfortunately, there were still elements that were not considered. First and foremost, these studies of leadership existed in a vacuum where there was no consideration for subordinates and their role (Malakyan, 2014). Furthermore, the behaviour studies ignored the situation and environment of the leader.

3.2.5 Social exchange theory

This theory is also known as the transactional theory, and it resides in the social interaction between a leader and a follower. Two characteristics are prevalent in transactional leadership: contingent reward and punishment. Pourbarkhordari, Zhou & Pourkarimi (2016) state that transactional leaders are capable of enticing subordinates in performing and achieve expected outcome by promising benefits for task accomplishment. In the event that the employees succeed, they are appropriately rewarded but when they fail, they are castigated. Paracha et al. (2012)

suggests that managers exhibiting transactional leadership behaviour positively correlates with organisational performance and innovation.

The theory of transactional leadership is credited to Max Weber who introduced it in 1947 (McCleskey, 2014). The transactional model contains management by exception, contingent reward, and goal achievement (Bass, 1997). Transactional leadership is identified as a method of exchanging behaviours by leaders and followers that generate rewards. A transactional leader gains performance of followers through contingent rewarding (Humphrey, 2013). Northouse (2013) defined transactional leadership as a simple exchange between leaders and followers for attaining goals, giving promotions, bonuses or other transactional exchanges for performance. Transactional leadership is an exchange process between followers and leaders (McCleskey, 2014; Rowold, 2014). Transactional leadership as a style is centred on authority and legitimacy established within organizations (Hargis, Watt, & Piotrowski, 2011).

The focus of transactional leadership style is centred on assignments, performance, task orientated goals and generally is focused on the day-to-day operations within organizations (Lord, Day, Zaccaro, Avolio & Eagly, 2017). Transactional leadership has also been defined as a method for taking action or reacting to problems and rewarding individuals who exceeded or achieved objectives (Holmberg et al., 2008). Ardichvili and Manderscheid (2008) asserted that transactional leadership is the predominant managerial practice between followers and their leaders and involves exchanges of mutual values and benefits. Bass (1999) suggested that transactional leaders assisted followers with fulfilling their own interest by rewarding the follower's expectations, clarifying their objectives and responsibilities.

Bass & Bass (2008) suggested that before the introduction of transformational leadership, leaders utilised contingent reward as their main tool to create effective follower performance. Bass (1985) and Burns (1978) stated that one task of transactional leadership is to gain job performance by followers, which is achieved through the use of contingent reward to fulfil the expectations and needs of the followers. Research conducted by Epitropaki and Martin (2013) suggested that in organizations where unpredictable events occurred, there was positive relationships between followers and transformational leaders, whereas in stable and predictable organizations,

transactional leaders and their followers experienced positive outcomes (Humphrey, 2013). Transactional leadership provides recognition for successful performance and a clear expectation of what the performance should be (Humphrey, 2013).

Martínez-Córcoles and Stephanou (2017) studied transactional leadership and how the transactional method impacted safety in military parachute operations. The study of 161 military parachutists suggested that transactional directed activities fulfilled positive safety standards and performance. The study suggested that the application of transactional tasks and rewards, when applied to safety procedures, was embraced by participants. Behavioural, contingency, and trait theories are associated with transactional leadership. Transactional leaders are reward and task focused and assists followers with obtaining their own gains and interest (Rowold, 2011). The transactional leader is aligned with the status quo, avoids taking chances, and utilizes a system of rewards and agreements to motivate followers (Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012).

3.2.6 Transformational theory

This theory focuses on the process executed by a leader that transforms subordinates in engaging in performances that is beyond expectation. It inspires, energises and stimulates followers (Carasco-Saul, Kim, & Kim, 2015). Transformational leadership generates treasured and positive changes in the followers, and according to Paracha (2012), the main focus of a transformational leader is to transmute followers to assist each other, watch out for each other, to inspire and be harmonious and pay attention to the organisation as a whole. Transformational leaders interact with followers based on shared values, beliefs, and goals. Nawaz and Khan (2016:1) suggest that this interaction produces a certain superior social dividend.

Transformational leadership is considered to be the most researched, studied, and possibly most practiced leadership theory of the past forty years (Dionne et al., 2014). The initial concept of transformational leadership is said to have been developed by James MacGregor Burns in the 1970s and later developed by Bass in 1985 (Deschamps et al., 2016; Lord et al., 2017). Transformational leadership is defined as a method where the leaders in a sense transformed themselves, and through changes in their own behaviours and actions connected and interacted with their followers creating higher levels of motivation, morality and ultimately performance

outcomes (Lord et al., 2017). Transformational leadership has also been defined as employing a dual dynamic between leaders and followers with a goal to attain organizational results (Alsaeedi & Male, 2013). Northouse (2013) asserted that the principal theory of transformational leadership is the role that leadership is concerned with the transformation of organizations.

The ability of leaders to envision the need for and to implement change within organizational structure is critical to successful performance and outcomes (Northouse, 2013). Leadership development has utilized a shared vision approach to transformational leadership, a sharp contrast compared to other leadership theories like transactional theory where focus is strictly focused on single exchanges or concepts (Balyer, 2012). The style of transformational leadership is aligned on legitimacy and authority established within organizations (Hargis, Watt, & Piotrowski, 2011). In contrast, the style of transactional leadership is focused on assignments, performance, task orientated goals and generally is focused with the day-to-day operations within organizations (Aga, 2016). The effect of transformational and transactional leadership styles practiced within organizations was studied by Ejene and Abasilim (2013). Their research of a 2006 study in Chile suggested that the behaviour of transformational leaders had a compelling and decisive effect on organizational success. The study focused on how leadership style influenced employee performance at small sized organizations. Results showed that transformational leaders produced positive employee performance, whereas laissez-faire and transactional leadership created negative employee impact within organizational performance (Ejene & Abasilim, 2013). Transformational leaders possess a distinguishing characteristic setting them apart from other leadership theories. Transformational leaders focus on traditional and hierarchical positions of power best suited for their operating environment (Schuh, Zhang, & Tian, 2013).

Transformational leaders are engaged in self-focused concepts such as self-esteem, self-confidence, and self-efficacy (Calik et al., 2012). Transformational leaders are individuals who enable an environment of continual learning (Balyer, 2012). Transformational leaders are characterized by engaging in the recruitment and grooming of followers and providing environments that promote a shared vision (Chism & Pang, 2014). Transformational leadership impacts organizational effectiveness via the applications of strategic human resource management (Pongpearchan, 2016). The transformational leader employs intellectual stimulation of followers

to engage them in the organisations mission and completion of goals (Pongpearchan, 2016). Leaders who demonstrate transformational characteristics are developers of groups of connected followers engaged in shared vision and organizational success (Drago-Severson, 2012). A transformational leader has an awareness of how to motivate followers through fulfilling their needs (Drago-Severson, 2012). Transformational leaders possess abilities to decrease concern and worry in their followers (Ishikawa, 2012).

Transformational leaders have higher expectation for themselves and their followers and have a skill at motivating and engaging followers to exceed their own perceived capabilities (Hauserman, Ivankova, & Stick, 2013; Whitenack & Swanson, 2013). Transformational leadership has been identified as possessing four elements or sub-components: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Deschamps et al., 2016). Idealised influence addresses transformational leaders possessing charisma and who are seen by followers as role models (Deinert et al., 2015). Idealised influence by a leader demonstrates core values, principles, convictions, and willing to take risk, which in turn influences followers to develop trust in the leader (Deinert et al., 2015). Idealised influence can be an approach to negative workplace situations where a leader's positive role and optimism inspires followers (Zdaniuk & Bobocel, 2015) Inspirational motivation addresses the ability of a leader to motivate and inspire confidence in followers (Deinert et al., 2015). A transformational leader should be skilled at projecting enthusiasm and optimism (Deinert et al., 2015).

A Transformational leader should be capable of demonstrating vision, expectations, and communication skills to influence and inspire followers to succeed in goal achievement (Deinert et al., 2015). Intellectual stimulation is demonstrated by the transformational leader through involving followers in the planning and decision process. The leader provides vision to followers and includes them in the organizational mission and goals (Deinert et al., 2015). The leader allows independence and creativity and solicits innovation from followers to identify and solve problems. Individualised consideration is the demonstrated effort by the leader to address follower's concerns. The concerns of followers can be financial, job satisfaction, work environment, or any numbers concerning the follower's well-being. The skill required of a leader is the ability to

recognise follower’s concerns, both real and perceived by the followers, and the ability to communicate on a personal level with followers (Deinert et al., 2015).

In 1987, Kouzes and Posner (2012) developed a transformational leadership model that identified five practices. The five practices in the Kouzes and Posner model are: Model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart (Posner, Crawford & Denniston-Stewart, 2015). Kouzes and Posner contend that these five practices are essential elements and practices that leaders should develop and use to ensure success (Kouzes & Posner, 2012; Kouzes & Posner, 2016).

3.2.7 Servant leadership theory

This conceptualisation of leadership replicates a philosophy that leaders should be servants first. Servant leadership is branded by a selfless mission in serving others and an empathic sensitivity to their needs. Leaders should therefore take into account the interests of the followers ahead of their own. Laub (1999) characterised what servant leaders do in order to put the interest of followers ahead of theirs; the leaders should, value people, develop people, build community, exhibit authenticity, provide leadership and share leadership. Sajjadi (2014) opined that influences intermediate outcomes like action orientation, openness and long-term orientation depending on role of a leader.

Table 3-2: Practices and Commitments of exemplary leadership

The Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership	Ten Commitments
Model the Way	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clarify values by finding your voice and affirming shared ideals. • Set the example by aligning actions with shared values.
Inspire a Shared Vision	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Envision the future by imagining exciting and ennobling possibilities. • Enlist others in a common vision by appealing to shared aspirations.
Challenge the Process	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Search for opportunities by seizing the initiative and by looking outward for innovative ways to improve.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Experiment and take risks by constantly generating small wins and learning from experience.
Enable Others to Act	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Foster collaboration by building trust and facilitating relationships. • Strengthen others by increasing self-determination and developing competence.
Encourage the Heart	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recognize contributions by showing appreciation for individual excellence. • Celebrate the values and victories by creating a spirit of community.

Source: Kouzes and Posner (2012)

Like charismatic leadership, servant leadership is focused more on traits and characteristics than on a defined and accepted leadership theory (Focht & Ponton, 2015). Servant leadership has not been widely accepted nor has there been a unified and agreed upon definition of servant leadership (Neubert, Hunter & Tolentino, 2016). Developed and introduced by Robert Greenleaf in the 1970s, servant leadership was identified by Greenleaf as leaders wanting to help others, a belief that “the servant-leader is servant first” and that the leader serves in a manner that enables followers to be freer, wiser, healthier, more autonomous, and attracts the followers to be servants (Greenleaf, 1970; Liden et al., 2014).

3.2.8 Responsible leadership theory

Responsible leadership draws on the discourse ethics theory and portrays leadership as stakeholder-leader interaction. Moreover, leadership effectiveness is not viewed by this theory in terms of financial performance. Rather it emphasises on legitimate solutions for affected stakeholders (Sajjadi, 2014). A common understanding among researchers in the field indicates that responsible leadership responds to both existing gaps in leadership theory and the practical challenges facing leadership. First, it centres attention firmly on matters of responsibility, including accountability, appropriate moral decision-making, and trust. In other words, responsible leadership seeks to define what “responsible” means in the context of leadership. Second, being accountable for actions, answerable for decisions, and reliable and trusted are not just semantic variations on the term “responsibility” but rather constitute inherently relational concepts. By definition then, responsible leadership is geared towards the concerns of others

and asks for what and to whom leaders are responsible. This comment may seem to be stating the obvious, but it is arguably one of the most under researched concepts in this field, as well as one of the most relevant.

At its core, this discussion seeks to clarify who the “others” are and what responding to their concerns entails. Maak and Pless (2006), in one of the journal publications on this topic, define responsible leadership as “a relational and ethical phenomenon, which occurs in social processes of interaction with those who affect or are affected by leadership and have a stake in the purpose and vision of the leadership relationship,” thereby broadening the view from a traditional leader–subordinate relationship to leader–stakeholder relationships. They shift the focus to the responsibilities that leaders have in relation to various stakeholder groups and accordingly contend that relationships are the centre of leadership, such that building and cultivating ethically sound relations toward different stakeholders is an important responsibility of leaders in an interconnected stakeholder society.

3.2.9 Authentic leadership theory

This type of leadership promotes a trusting relationship with followers by incorporating dimensions of relational transparency, self-awareness, moral perspective as well as a balanced processing. Sajjadi (2014) posits that authentic leadership is positively related to the intermediate outcomes within an organisation. Appropriately named, authentic leadership focuses on the authenticity of the person in charge as well as their actual leadership (Northouse, 2015). Still in the early phases of development, this leadership style has many accepted definitions concentrating on the diverse aspects it embodies. Authentic leadership draws from psychological positivism (Duignan, 2014). In other words, leaders and followers should focus on positive traits as opposed to negative traits. Authentic leadership requires and necessitates an organizational structure that is highly developed (Miska & Mendenhall, 2018). An authentic leader is one who treats his followers with respect and shows reliability and consistency in thoughts, words and actions (Duignan, 2014). Furthermore, leadership under authentic principles is far different from where this research journey began. The theories are moving towards leadership being a social construct that integrates all aspects of group dynamic and the environment and other non-tangible factors (Middlehurst, 2008).

3.2.10 Neo-charismatic leadership theory

Neo-Charismatic leadership emphasise on the ways by which the followers look upon to their leaders. Sajjadi (2014) demonstrated that neo-charismatic leadership is based on charisma of a leader in a form of interpersonal attraction allowing acceptance and support from followers. Inderyas et al. (2015) are of the view that charismatic leaders are endowed with three characteristics viz: confidence, a dominant personality and passion in thinking. Charismatic leadership is through charm, communication abilities and persuasiveness. Charismatic leaders are driven by their conviction and commitment to a cause. There are similarities with transformational leadership but for audience and focus. Charismatic leaders often try to make the status quo better sometimes exhibiting elements of self-sacrifice and heroism while transformational leaders focus on transforming organizations into the leader's vision (Spahr, 2016). As earlier noted in the transformational theory, the use of coercive power by charismatic leaders can pose significant risks for psychological damage in organizations (Camm 2016).

Charismatic leadership is considered to be one of the most successful leadership styles, where the charismatic leaders develop a vision, and the followers are asked to follow and execute the vision. The charismatic leadership invites innovation and creativity and is considered to be motivational for the employees. But the major drawback of this style of leadership is that the followers are totally dependent on the leader and once the leader leaves the organization, they become directionless. The problem worsens as charismatic leaders do not train their subordinates to act as their replacements in the future. This leadership style results in "happy followers, but few future leaders". Thus, it can have a long -term negative effect on the organizational performance (Germano, 2010).

This type of leadership is centred on the ability of leaders to inspire followers to achieve organisational goals. Charismatic leaders are by their nature heroic, distant from ordinary people and own an extraordinary character and facade, and according to Inderyas et al. (2015), they exude confidence, a dominant personality and passionate thinking. Wajdi (2017) suggests that leaders who are endowed with charisma find it simple to attract people to their cause. Proponents of this leadership style laud it for generating excitement and commitment from teams, which is an impetus for high productivity.

3.3 Employee engagement theories

Imandin, Bisschoff and Botha (2014) are of the view that even with the popularity of the term “employee engagement” in the workplace, a specific definition of the term remains vague as a result of continual research and redefinition shrouding the topic. This view enlists the backing of Macey and Schneider (2008), who posit that engagement is a concept with a sparse and diverse theoretical and empirically demonstrated nomological net, whose definition can be derived from practice and research driven literatures and folk theory. Kulkalyuenyong (2016) defines employee engagement as “the level of commitment that an employee has towards the organisation and its values”.

Engagement is a psychological state, which reflects in an employee’s attachment or enthusiasm. According to Gallup (2006), there are three types of employees; the engaged employee, not engaged employee and the actively disengaged employee. An engaged employee is passionate and committed to the extent that he disburses discretionary efforts to assist the organisation to succeed. Saunders and Tiwari (2014) posit that engaged employees orchestrate the innovation drive and move the organisation forward. The employees who are not engaged put in the time for work but lack the energy and passion in their work.

The disengaged employees are not happy, and they vent out their unhappiness by destabilising the achievements of their engaged co-workers. Gutermann (2017) aver that engaged employees perform well. However, Owusu et al. (2017) suggest that growing complexities as well as unpredictability of socio-economic conditions and frequent organisational changes coupled with the lack of effective leadership induce employee disengagement. A number of engagement models have been developed by various scholars in employee engagement. This section will make an analysis of Kahn’s Model (1990), IES Model (2003), Robinson Model (2004), Schmidt Model (2004), Pennas Model (2007), Zingers Model (2009) and Blessing White engagement model.

3.3.1 Kahn’s model

Kahn’s model of engagement examines the psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. The theory states that safety, meaningfulness, and availability are the three psychological conditions that are linked to employee engagement and disengagement (Eldor & Vigoda-Gadot, 2017).

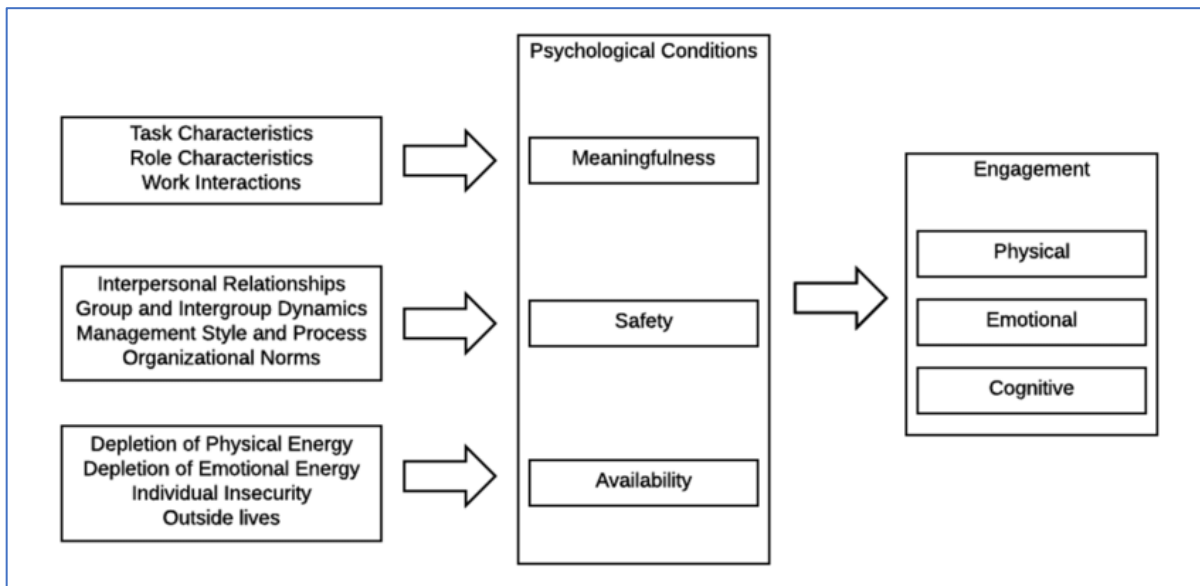


Figure 3-2: Analytical Framework of Kahn's Model of Engagement

Source: Albrecht et al. (2015)

Rothmann and Rothmann (2010) suggest that from Kahn’s perspective, employee engagement encompasses three dimensions, that is: the physical component (being physically involved in a task and exhibiting vigour and a positive state), a cognitive component (being alert at work and in a state of immersion), and an emotional component (showing enthusiasm and commitment in one’s job). Kahn also discovered that engagement is not static since an employee’s experiences of the workplace at different times can cause variations in engagement levels. The non-static nature of engagement affords the employer prospects to create an environment that is conducive for engagement to flourish.

3.3.2 IES model of engagement

Karanges (2015) suggest that internal communication is a pivotal factor influencing employee engagement. Along with enhancements in internal communication, employee engagement increases, and that has the effect of raising employee and organisational productivity. Employees feel comfortable in communicating with their leaders and managers that provides them a clearer comprehension regarding work culture and organisational goals. Emphasising on the IES Model of Engagement, Karanges (2015) argue that the feeling of being valued and involved in an organisation, encourages an employee to be engaged. The feeling of being valued is proffered by

equal opportunities at workplace, fair treatment as well as training and development which enhance individual performance and subsequently productivity in an organisation.



Figure 3-3: IES Model of Engagement

Source: Blomme, Kodden and Beasley-Suffolk (2015)

3.3.3 Robinson model of engagement

The Robinson model of employee engagement places emphasis on the feeling of being valued and involved. This model identifies the most influential inputs to employee engagement. According to Phadi and Panda (2015) the Robinson model characterises an engaged employee as one who is cognisant of the business framework and works with colleagues to increase performance and add value to the organisation. The Robinson model suggest that the organisation can canvass the commitment of employees if it remains engrossed on nurturing and developing its employees.

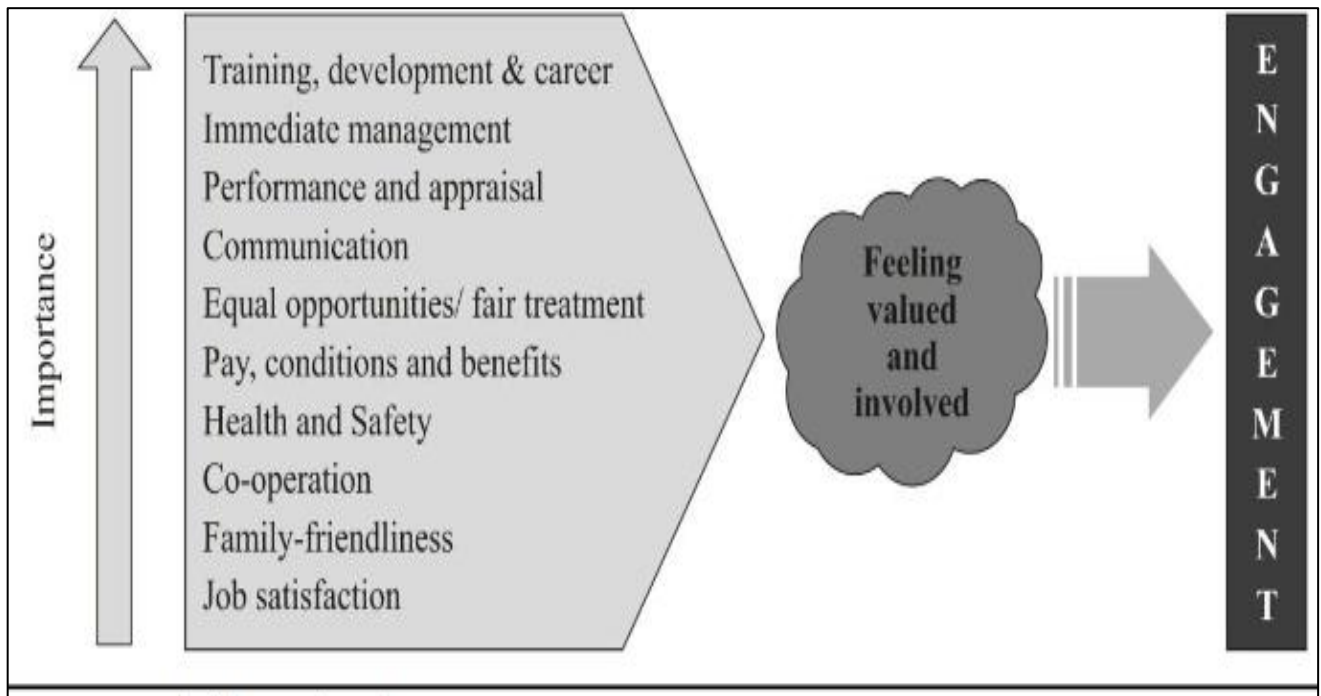


Figure 3-4:Robinson's (2004) Model

Source: Imandin, Bisschoff & Botha (2014)

The feeling of being valued stems from organisational policies, such as training and development, communication, and co-operation. The feeling of being involved with an organisation is driven by job satisfaction, immediate management and family-friendliness. An interesting observation in the model is that the engagement factors comprise of both fundamental requirements for the organisation i.e., the ‘hygiene’ factors, such as pay and benefits and health and safety, and nonfundamental requirements, where the organisation must strive to ensure effective communication, management and cooperation. Mehta and Mehta (2013) posit that Robinson echoed the sentiment that there is substantial evidence suggesting that many employees are seriously underutilised in the workplace as a result of the absence of participation in work-based decisions. Vinod and Gladstone (2018) postulate that the Robinson model is particularly pertinent in industry and allied business activity where there are large numbers of employees.

3.3.4 Schmidt model of employee engagement

Schmidt frames engagement within the framework of organisational health and well-being.



Figure 3-5: Schmidt Model of Employee Engagement

Source: Schmidt (2004)

The Schmidt model of employee engagement suggest that enlisting and retaining the right workforce in terms of specific competency, knowledge and experience is the base of employee engagement.

3.3.5 Penna’s model of employee engagement

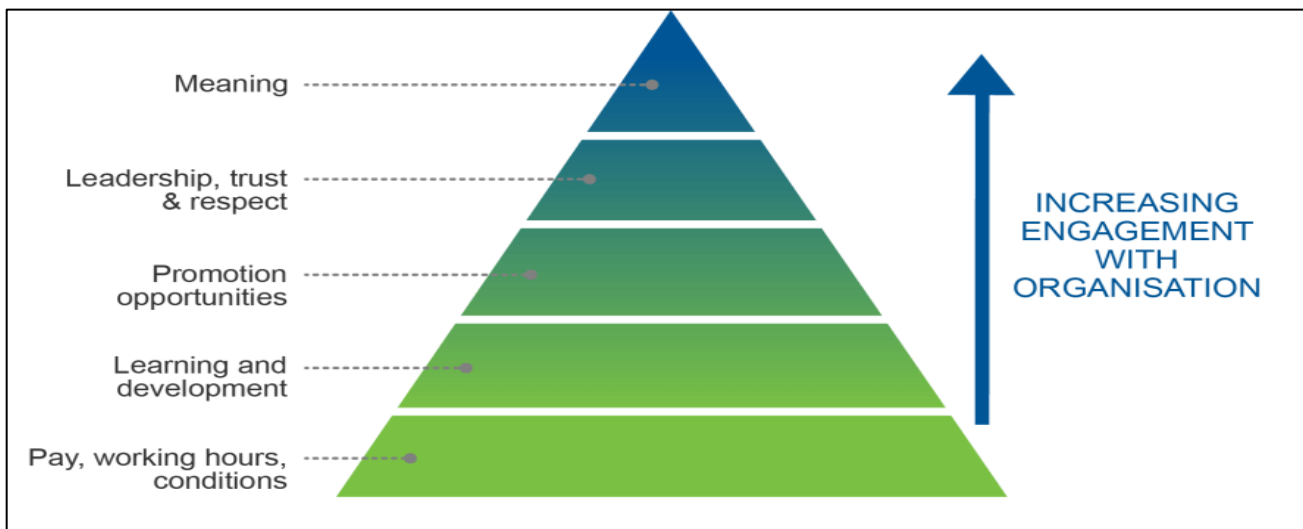


Figure 3-6: Penna's Model of Engagement

Source: Penna (2007)

The Penna’s model of employee engagement has a hierarchical view of engagement factors which demonstrate the influence each level will have on the engagement and retention of talent in an organisation. This model suggests that the staff is looking for “meaning” at work, and Penna defines “meaning” as fulfilment from the job. Fulfilment arises when employees are being valued and appreciated and have a sense of belonging to the organisation. Employees also have a sense of fulfilment if they make a contribution to their organisation.

Penna proposes that once “meaning” at work is achieved, employees will be engaged. Interestingly the “hygiene” factors (pay, working hours and conditions) appear at the footing of the model signifying the nature of these factors as essential. In this model, as the hierarchy goes up and the organisation effectively meets each of these engagement factors, the organisation turns to be more attractive to potential employees and becomes more engaging to its current employees.

3.3.6 Job demand resources model

Shuck and Reio Jr (2014) illustrated another model related to employee engagement termed the Job Demand-Resources model.

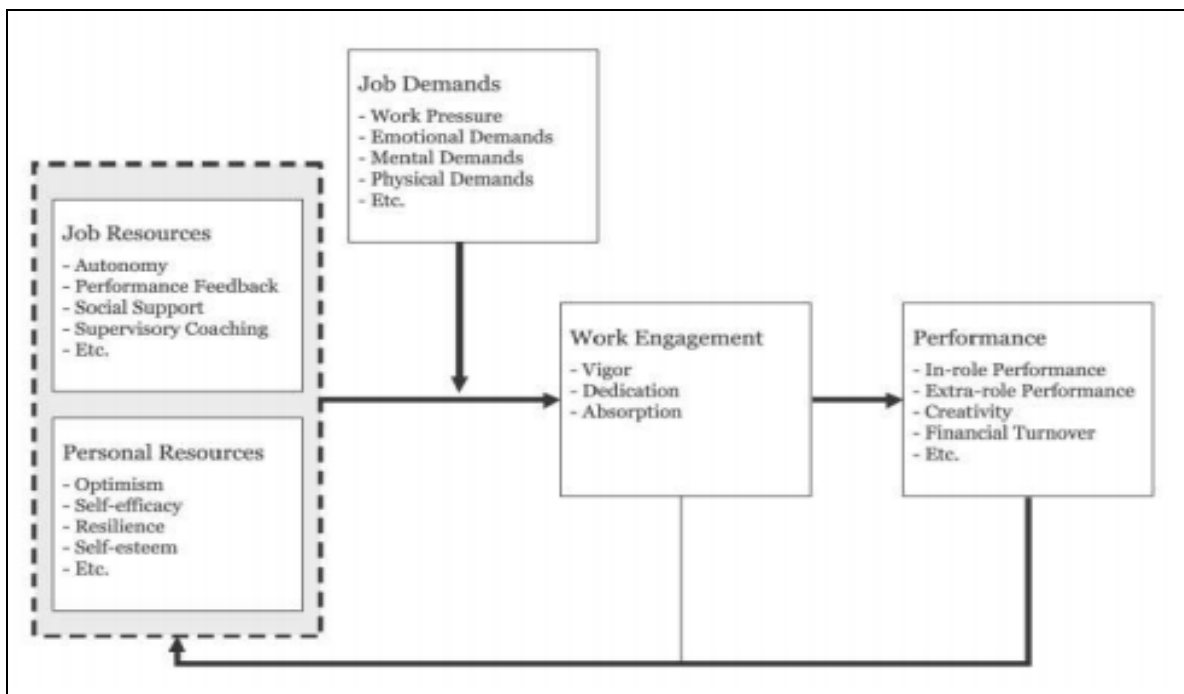


Figure 3-7: Job Demand Resources Model

Source: Shuck & Reio Jr (2014)

This model highlights that main predictors of employee engagement are job resources such as performance feedback, autonomy and coaching and personal resources such as self-efficacy and self-esteem. When there is high job demands, resources have an affirmative impact on employee engagement. This in turn positively influences organisational productivity. Demerouti and Barker (2011) suggest that studies on the Job demand-resources model have steadily exhibited that employees demonstrate the greatest job performance in challenging and resourceful work situations because such settings facilitate work engagement. This situation therefore provides organisations with an impetus to provide their employees with job resources that are adequate, including social support and feedback and skill variability.

3.3.7 Zinga’s model of engagement

Choudhury and Mohanty (2018) assert that the Zinga’s model of engagement sheds lights on several characteristics of employee engagement, devotion and engrossment, and offers twelve diverse drivers for improving employee engagement levels. This model of engagement attempts to balance individual inputs, organisational inputs and leadership inputs in developing and maintaining employee engagement.

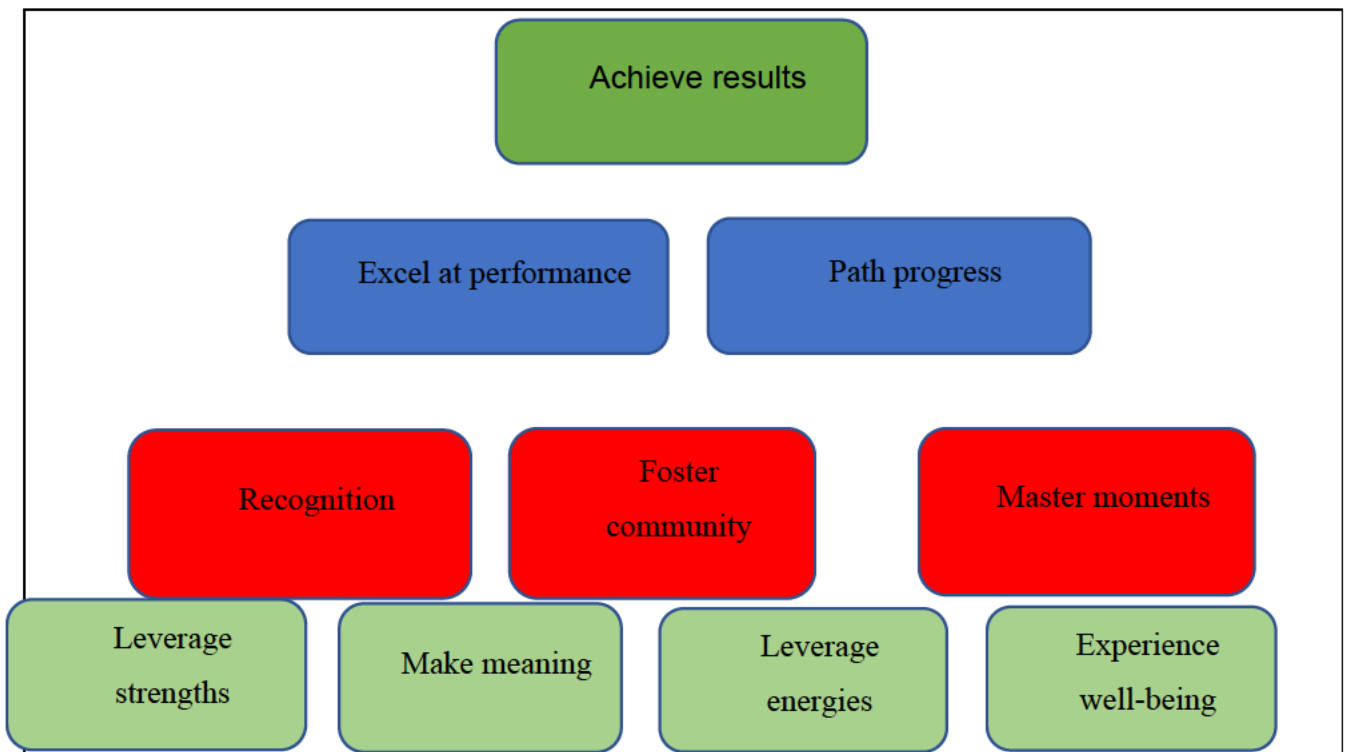


Figure 3-8: Zinga's Model of Engagement

Source: Zinger (2014)

An organisation contributes to employee engagement by recognising and appreciating its employees, and nurturing a culture where employee engagement is valued, conversed and shared. Organisational leadership demonstrate their commitment to employee engagement by investing resources into engagement initiatives as well as educating management on how to cultivate employee engagement. The leadership can only engage others if they are engaged themselves. The leadership is duty bound to pay attention to employees, strengthen them by motivating them to consolidate their strengths and work on their weaknesses. The individual employees should clothe themselves with positivity, exude exuberance and channel their energy in the right direction and take ownership of their work.

Ten building blocks are suggested in Zinga's model. The blocks are the means for generating, nourishing and heightening employee engagement. The block for achieving results suggests that the employee should set clear objectives about what he wants to accomplish, and the time frames within which to do so. In excelling at performance, Zinga suggests that engaged employees exhibit high levels of performance. In terms of path progress, it is suggested that employees should be assisted in crafting their career and making decisions pertaining to their career paths.

At the centre of the third layer of building blocks is recognition. High potential employees invariably require powerful recognition. This means that the organisation has to put in place policies for the recognition of high potential employees in order to keep them engaged. At this third level of building blocks, the model also places emphasis on fostering community and mastering moments. The former suggest that management should get the work done, not through the employees but along with the employees. Relationships and relationship building form the rudimentary underpinning of employee engagement. Mastering moments involves situations whereby employees are not to rush to do more but get deeper into the moments. It is suggested that employees who live the moments concentrate on their work and give the best.

The bottom of the model is anchored on four building blocks: leverage strengths, making meaning, leverage energies, and experience well-being. Leveraging strengths involves appreciating the strengths that employees are endowed with and assisting the employees to work on their weaknesses. In making meaning, it is suggested that in order for work to sustain and enrich

employees, it has to be meaningful. This places a responsibility on the organisation, leaders and employees alike to learn how to co-produce a meaningful workplace. Leveraging energy takes the view that there should be a proper consumption of human energy. This involves mastery of mental, physical and emotional and organisational energy. In due course, work should always contribute to the well-being of the employees.

3.3.8 Blessing White engagement model

The ‘X’ model of employee engagement is concerned with maximisation of both employee satisfaction and their contribution to the success of the organisation. The name ‘X’ is derived from the connection of the two axes. The model propositions five rudimentary employee engagement levels which relatively obeys to the strength of satisfaction and contribution.

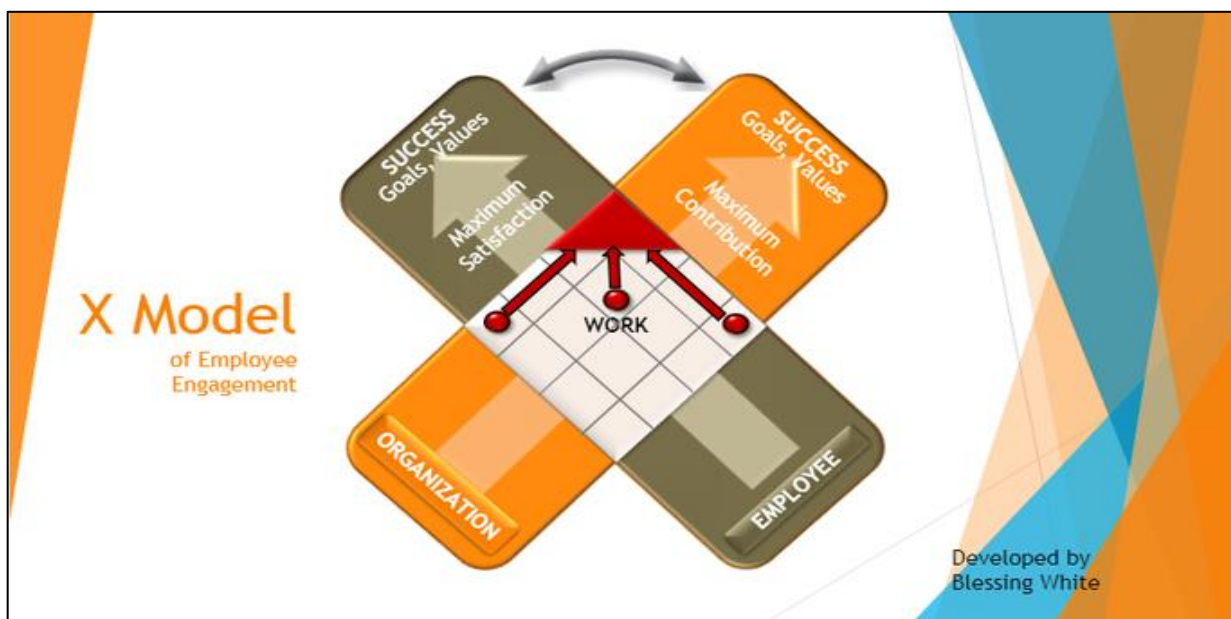


Figure 3-9: Blessing White X Model of Employee Engagement

Source: Choudhury and Mohanty (2018)

Choudhury and Mohanty (2018), suggest that the complete level of engagement occurs at the intersection of maximum job satisfaction and contribution as indicated by the red arrow. This point is the apex in the model, where employees will be fully engaged. The employees are giving and getting at the highest level. On the left-hand corner of the model are employees who are engaged but not contributing fully to the success of the organisation. Across the right-hand of the model are employees who are contributing to the success of the organisation but are not satisfied. These

employees have two options out of their predicament. Firstly, they have the option of leaving the organisation or they stay in the organisation join those on the bottom part of the model, the disengaged. On the centre of the model are the large part of the workforce and these are employees who are “almost engaged”. The “almost engaged” employees have a reasonable degree of satisfaction in their job, and they do a decent job. However, the work of this class of employees is unpredictable. The “almost engaged” employees have the propensity to consider new employment opportunities and evolve into fully engaged employees.

The X model outlines the role of the three parties to the engagement equation, that is, the role of the individual employee, the managers and the organisation. Employees need to establish what they want, and communicate this to the organisation, and be resolved to fulfil their own needs. Managers are placed under an obligation to care for, and develop employees, identify and appreciate effort, as well as engage themselves and those employees under their management. The organisational executives need to proffer a case of engagement, by encouraging a sense of community and authenticity, and generating a sense of excitement.

3.4 Theories of motivation and applicability to employee engagement

Motivation is what generally drives a person to act in a certain manner. It is that energy that pushes an individual to work hard towards the attainment of goals even in the face of adversity. It is imperative for management to recognise why employees act inversely at the workplace and understand how to manipulate their behaviours so that they apply their greatest efforts to realise organisational goals (Haque, Haque and Islam, 2014).

There are two types of motivation theories: the content theories and the process theories. Content theories look for the factors inside people that triggers, sustains and halts behaviour. Content theories focus on the essential needs that motivate people. Process theories explore the psychological processes which affect motivation. Employee motivation and employee engagement are two distinct constructs with some degree of complementarity. Extrinsic motivation does not foster employee engagement. On the other hand, intrinsic motivators such as clearly defined goals, encouragement and recognition cultivate employee engagement. This research will analyse two content theories: McGregor’s X-Y theory and Herzberg’s two-factor theory. Motivation is very

important for the managers and officers to know and understand why people behave differently at workplace and how to manipulate their behaviour so that they exert their best efforts to achieve organizational goals. It is the goal of managers at every stratum to have employees motivated so that work can progress at desired rate, pace and time. Motivation is very important for the managers and officers to know and understand why people behave differently at workplace.

3.4.1 McGregor’s X-Y Theory

Theory X and theory Y of McGregor is a framework which addresses assumptions that managers make regarding their employees.



Figure 3-10: McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

Source: Lawter, Kopelman and Prottas (2015)

Lawter, Kopelman and Prottas, (2015) suggest that according to theory X employees have a negative attitude towards their work and they need to be coerced into performing allocated tasks. This theory demonstrates autocratic leadership style since workers must be persuaded and pushed to achieve performance.

Theory Y, on the other hand, provides opportunities and appropriate conditions for managers for motivating their employees and build positive work relationships. This approach underlines co-operation between management and employees. Theory Y assumes that the individual and

organisational goals do not have conflict. Theory Y is primarily concerned with the fulfilment of the psychological needs of the employee. Eldor and Harpaz (2016) contradicted this fact stating that consensus regarding the theory is undeveloped and lacks comprehensive findings for improving employee performance and productivity.

3.4.2 Herzberg's two factor theory

Herzberg's two-factor theory opposes McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y. Motivator factors are emphasised towards improvement of employee motivation, whereas hygiene factors are emphasised towards enhancing employee satisfaction. The impact of these factors is observed on job satisfaction and employee performance depending on a variety of circumstances.

This theory was formulated in 1959 after a research study on two hundred engineers and accountants (Yusoff, Kian, and Idris, 2013), to test his hypothesis that the factors that motivated employees were different than those that dissatisfied them. Herzberg's theory is based on two pillars: motivators and hygiene factors. Motivators are those factors that cause one to feel motivated, and hygiene factors are those variables that demotivate employees. Motivators challenge a person to develop their talents and realise their potential. These include added work responsibilities, the provision of learning opportunities, recognition, achievement, advancement and growth opportunities. Haque (2014) suggest that the absence of these factors does not dissatisfy, but their presence enhances the level of employee satisfaction.

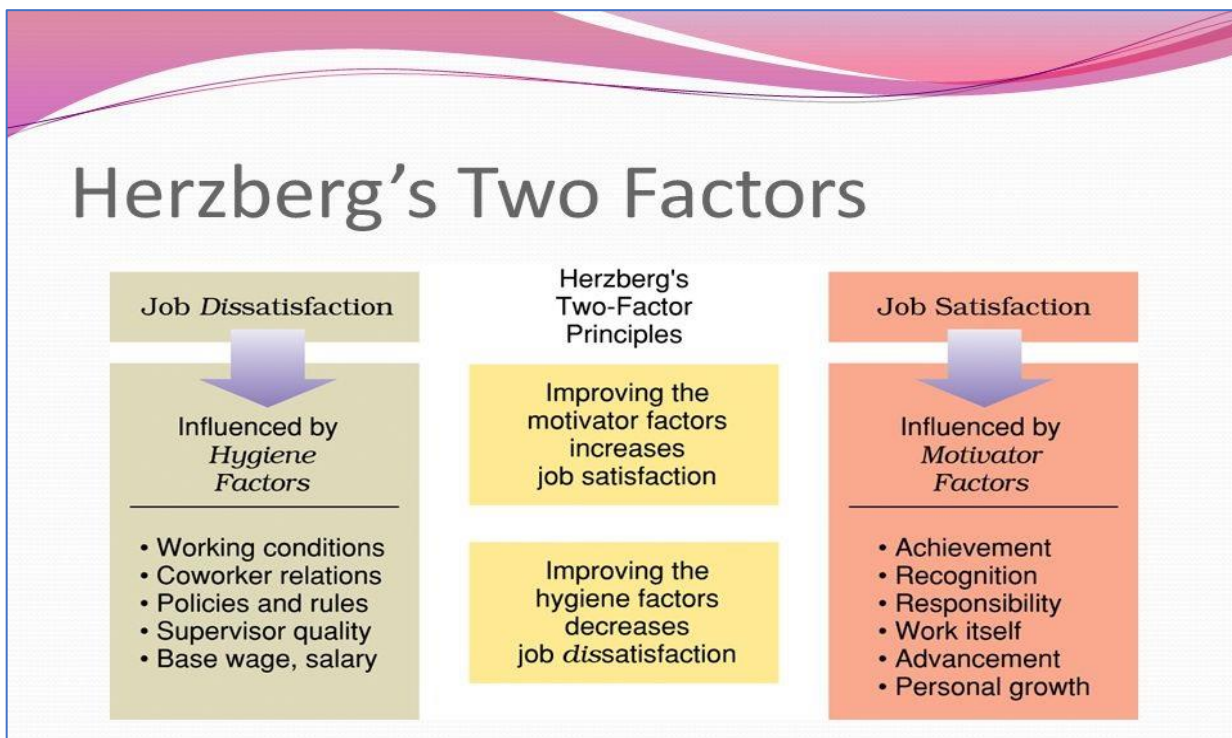


Figure 3-11: Herzberg's Motivator-Hygiene Factors

Source: Haque (2014)

Hygiene factors, or dissatisfiers, are those variables which do not cause satisfaction but if they are missing, they result in job dissatisfaction. Hygiene factors include job security, good working conditions, fringe benefits and equitable pay and compensation (Haque, 2014). Motivation factors determine how employees perform at work. When employees are motivated, they expend optional effort and become emotionally ensconced in their work. The two-factor theory holds that there are four possible scenarios.

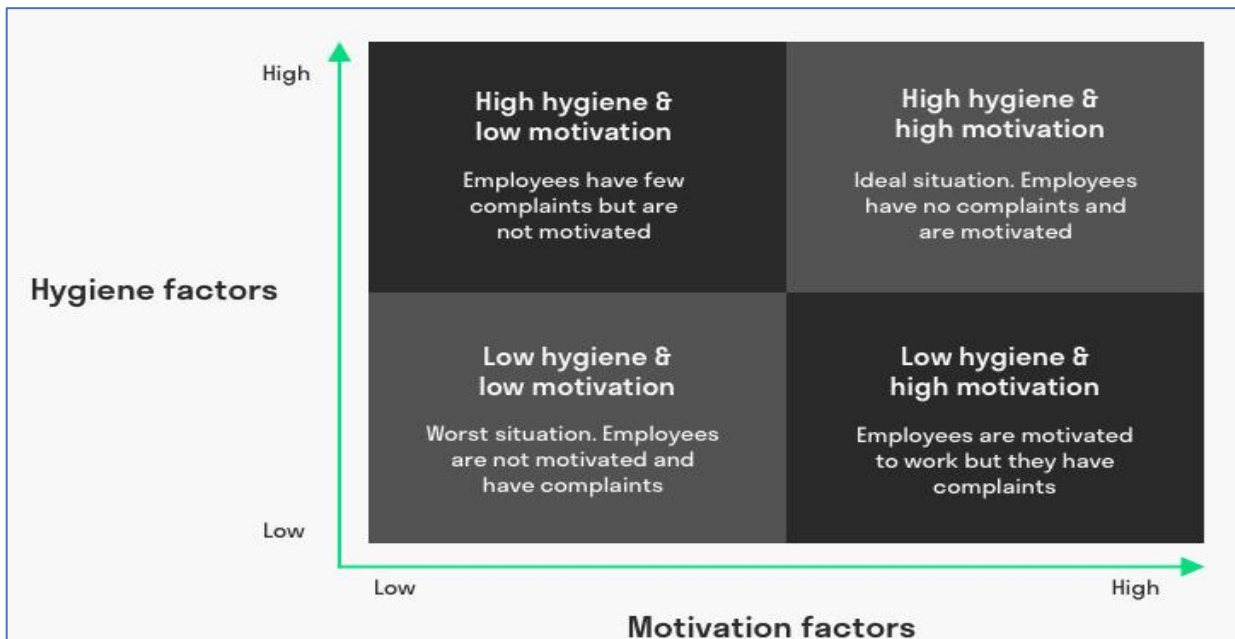


Figure 3-12: Matrix for Hygiene vs Motivation Factors

Source: Mathis & Jackson (2004)

High hygiene and high motivation arise when employees are highly motivated and have no complains. This is the ideal situation which is perfect for employee engagement. High hygiene and low motivation arise when employees have few complaints but are not motivated. They only do the minimum to keep them in employment. The third scenario involves low hygiene and high motivation. In this situation the employees are motivated to work but have complaints. The employees are in the mood to engage but baseline working conditions makes this untenable. The worst scenario is when there is low hygiene and low motivation. Employees are not motivated and have complaints. Employees are at this juncture disengaged and employee turnover is expected.

The utility of Herzberg’s two-factor theory is derived from its inclination to amplify employee engagement. If correctly applied Herzberg’s two-factor theory can enhance employee engagement. This is made possible by the fact that the theory addresses diverse types of motivation that are affected by factors that are motivational and de-motivational.

3.5 Conceptual framework

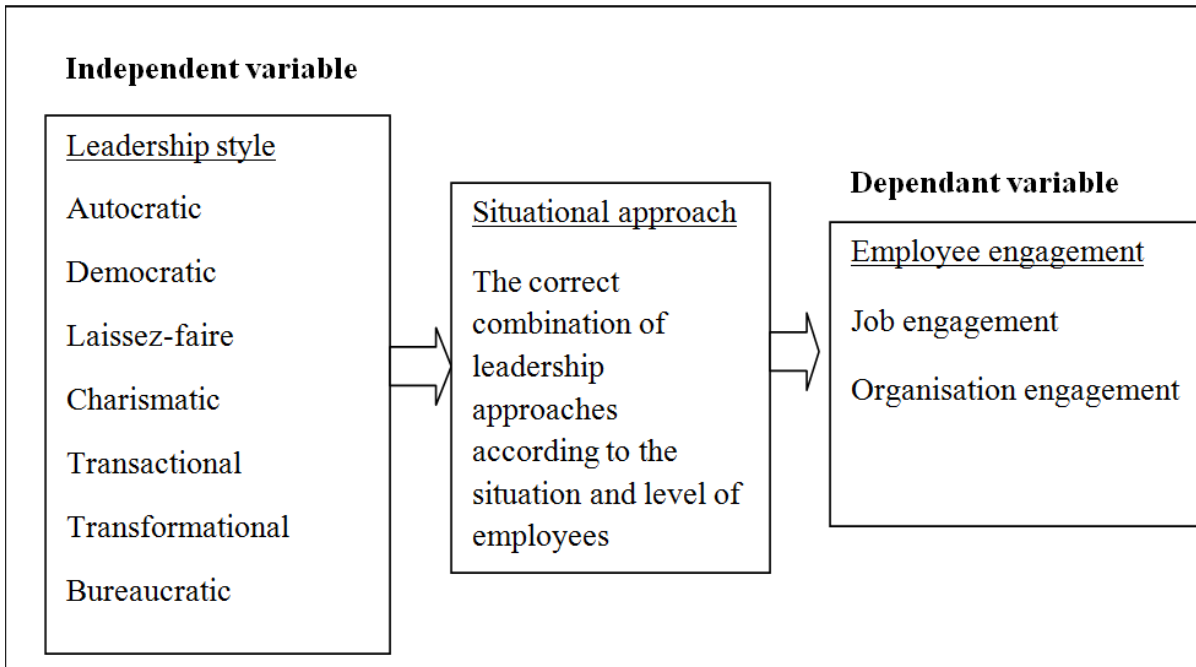


Figure 3-13: Conceptual Framework

Source: The Researcher

3.5.1 Description of the conceptual framework

The leadership style is the manner of providing direction, implementing strategies and motivating individuals towards the attainment of the desired objectives. Leadership styles are replicated in attitudes and behaviours but these in turn are the outcome of complex interactions between the way individuals think and feel. Leadership plays a crucial role in creating an enthusiastic atmosphere and culture in an organization (Alghazo & Al-Anazi, 2016). Hurduzue (2015) proclaimed that effective leadership style could promote excellence in the development of the members of the organisation.

Situational Leadership is an adaptive leadership style. This strategy encourages leaders to take stock of their team members, weigh the many variables in their workplace and choose the leadership style that best fits their goals and circumstances. Situational leadership is a leadership theory that merges both directive and supportive dimensions, and each of these dimensions is to be applied correctly in each situation. Leaders operating under the Situational Leadership theory must assess their employees through evaluating their commitment to accomplish a certain task.

Situational leadership means that leaders must change the degree of supportiveness and directness to their employee according to the given situation of subordinates and their level of motivation. This type of leadership demands that leaders vary their behaviour and leadership style according to their subordinate's commitment. (Kindle, 2009) Situational leadership is the mixture task behaviour, worker commitment and relation behaviour. Studies show that the success of situational leadership style is related to the combination of these three components must happen; it allows openness between leaders and members in addition to ensure an independence and competence in employee's decision. A situational leader tries to discover the characteristics of his/her follower in order to know which leadership style to use with him/her (Farmer, 2012). Moreover, situational leaders are known for giving appropriate guidance and task support for their subordinates in order to accomplish the desired goals successfully. This type of leader must also handle problems innovatively and quickly in order to overcome them. This, according to studies, is highly correlated with the improvement of employee's productivity (Cnaff & Wright, 2013).

The author is of the view that situational leadership can transform disengaged workers in organisations because the prevailing situation dictates the best leadership style to be adopted. Employee engagement therefore depends on the correct choice of a leadership approach. Situational leadership stresses that leadership is composed of both a directive and supportive dimension, and each must be applied appropriately in each situation (Northouse, 2004). The directive dimension is similar to "task behaviours" and the supportive dimension is similar to "relationship behaviours". Situational leadership stresses that leaders need to find out about their subordinates' needs and then adapt their style accordingly (Northouse, 2004). For example, if subordinates are lacking confidence, then the situational approach suggests that the leader should lead with a supporting style for optimum outcomes. Although many theories of leadership are descriptive in nature, the situational approach is prescriptive. It tells you what you should and should not do in various contexts. The three core competencies of a situational leader are: diagnosing, flexibility, and partnering. It seems that flexibility in leadership style is a necessity if a high level of leadership effectiveness is desired and required by the situation.

3.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter discusses leadership and employee engagement theories. The key terms that have been explained are leadership, integrative leadership, employee engagement and employee

disengagement. The chapter explains seven leadership styles that can be used to transform disengaged employees, and these are autocratic leadership, democratic leadership, laissez-faire leadership, charismatic leadership, transactional leadership, transformational and bureaucratic leadership. Despite the many leadership theories and employee engagement models put forward by theorists, the nexus between the two is that management expect to get the most out of employees; ways used by organisations to motivate employees are subject to debate that is the reason why evolution and modification of theories is in progress. A conceptual framework was developed based on the literature on leadership and employee engagement theories; the main thrust of this theoretical framework is to show that all leadership theories are relevant, it's only that leaders should decide carefully when to apply each of them. The next chapter discusses the literature that is aligned to the objectives of the study.

Chapter 4 : Extended Literature Review

4.1 Introduction

Chapter 3 provided an in-depth discussion on the various leadership and engagement theories. This then led into the development of a conceptual framework whose purpose was to demonstrate that all leadership theories are relevant and that leaders should decide carefully when to apply each one. The purpose of Chapter 4 is to unearth the significance of integrative leadership responsibilities as organizations are shifting from an instructive to a constructive approach in an effort to promote successful teamwork. Strategies that leaders can use to transform their disengaged followers will be discussed. The Chapter focuses on the literature aligned to the dominant leadership styles, the consequences of leadership styles on employee engagement (or disengagement), leadership styles that promote an engaged workforce and the various strategies that can be employed to transform disengaged subordinates.

4.1.1 Leadership

There are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept (Stodgill, 1974). Dubrin (2000) estimates there are 35,000 definitions of leadership in academic literature. Leadership is a common term, but it has many diverse meanings, it has been said that, like beauty, you will know leadership when you see it. This, however, means that leaders and leadership are defined in the eye of the beholder. If this is the case, then there is a multitude of definitions and understandings of what it means to be a leader or to witness leadership. Barnard (1991) identified that 'lead' is both a noun and a verb and therefore has a double meaning. The noun could mean 'to guide others, to be the head of an organization', while the verb could mean 'to excel and to be in advance'. Likewise, leadership is used to describe a certain type of social interaction between people and the term leader is used to denote a person who has influence over others (Yukl, 2002; Northouse, 2004).

The term leadership is also used to describe personality traits, behaviours and also to denote the roles of individuals and collectives. Leadership is inherently complex and is not easily definable; in fact, it is unlikely that any consensus on the term will be found (Grint, 1997). However, leadership does have shared meanings, depending on the social group you are discussing it with. Most commonly, the term leadership refers to an individual's role or their traits and behaviours. As a result, leadership in business may be viewed as the capacity of a company's management to

set and achieve challenging goals, take fast and decisive action when needed, [outperform](#) the competition, and inspire others to perform at the highest level they can.

4.1.2 Integrative leadership

Chemers (2000) stated that functional integration emphasizes on developing and adopting effective leadership characteristics and skills to influence followers to achieve the goals. Fernandez, Cho and Perry (2010) indicated in their research that leadership is characterized by different groups of theories, approaches, and models for each group. The leadership literature elaborates that from time-to-time, different theories, models and leadership styles have been developed. These indications show that leadership is not a destination but a journey or a continuous process which needs to be developed over time. Therefore, leadership scholars have emphasized that leadership should be further developed with integrative models and frameworks.

Scholars have given different definitions of integrative leadership. Alban-Metcalf and Alimo-Metcalf (2010) defined integrative leadership as shared and collective leadership, in which the person succeeds by collaboratively working with one another. Crosby and Bryson (2010) conceptualized the integrative leadership as “bringing together diverse groups and organization in semi-permanent ways and - typically across sector boundaries – to remedy complex public problems and achieve the common good”. Fernandez, Cho and Perry (2010) stated that integrated leadership is known as a combination of certain leadership roles, performed by combining the efforts of employees and managers at different levels of hierarchy, such as tasks, relations, change diversity and integrity. The model and framework of integrative leadership includes leadership skills, behaviours, traits, and styles, situational and moderating factors in joint form that explain the leadership effectiveness (Fernandez, 2004; Yukl, 2002).

Integrative leadership is not only bounded by partnership working but it has greater applicability (Huxman & Vangen, 2005). Some scholars have synthesized leadership knowledge for leadership effectiveness and developed models. They have also tested the integrated leadership models with workplace outcomes (Soria, Snyder & Reinhard, 2015). There are two well-known measurement tools to measure integrative leadership. According to Alimo-Metcalf and Beasley (2010),

integrative leadership can be measured in dimensions. These eight dimensions are: engaging as effective teams, constructive challenges, ensuring a shared vision, promoting quality and improvement, connecting and influencing effective performance and risk-taking, clarity and accountability, personal qualities and values.

4.1.3 Employee engagement

There are different definitions of employee engagement among different scholars, organizations and different countries. The concept of employee engagement was first proposed by Kahn (1990) as the harnessing of organization members' selves to their work roles, self-employment, and self-expression of people physically, cognitively, and emotionally in their work lives. May et al. (2004) stated that employee engagement included not only cognition, but also the flexible application of emotions and behaviours. Wellins and Concelman (2005) stated that engagement is a mixture of commitment, loyalty, productivity, and ownership. Saks (2006) defined employee engagement as a different and unique concept which is composed of knowledge, emotion, and behaviour. Cha (2007) defined employee engagement as the employee's active involvement in work and the state of full physiology, cognition, and emotion that accompanies the work engagement, including three dimensions: work engagement, organizational recognition, and sense of work value. Bakker (2011) summed the engagement as a positive, highly awakened emotional state with two features: energy, and involvement. Soane et al. (2012) developed a model of employee engagement that has three requirements: a work-role focus, activation, and positive affect.

Xu et al. (2013) divided employee engagement into four dimensions: organizational identity, work attitude, mental state, responsibility effectiveness. Xiao and Duan (2014) stated that employee engagement was a conceptualization including five dimensions: initiative, loyalty, effectiveness, identity and commitment. Liu (2016) stated that employee engagement of knowledge worker was composed of five dimensions: organizational identity, dedication, absorption, vigour and pleasant harmony. Hewitt Organization (2001) referred to employee engagement as the extent employees are willing to stay in the company and work hard for the company, reflected in three aspects: 1) Say: employees use a positive language to describe their company, colleagues, and their jobs. 2) Stay: employees strongly hope to be a member of the company, want to stay in the company for a

long time, instead of using existing jobs as a temporary transition. 3) Strive: employees are willing to devote extra effort to work for the success of the company.

Towers organization (2001) defined employee engagement as the degree of willingness and ability of employees to help companies succeed, dividing it into rational engagement and sensuous engagement. Rational engagement generally involves the relationship between individuals and companies, such as the degree of employees' understanding of their roles and departmental roles. When work can bring money, professional skills or personal development and other benefits, employees will generate the sense of rational engagement. Sensuous engagement depends on employee satisfaction, and the sense of self-achievement from job as a member of the organization (Fang et al., 2010). Xie (2006) pointed out that employee engagement is employee' dedication to a profession, including hard work, dedicated to the company, loyal to the boss, and self-confidence.

Schaufeli et al. (2002) defined engagement as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication, and absorption, and a more persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state that is not focused on any specific object, event, individual, or behaviour. Harter et al. (2002) defined employee engagement as the individual's involvement and satisfaction with as well as enthusiasm for work. Zeng and Han (2005) referred to employee engagement as having a long-lasting, positive emotional and motivational state of awakening their work, ready to devote themselves to work at any time, and are accompanied by pleasant, proud, and encouraging experiences during work.

4.1.4 Employee disengagement

Saks (2006) observed that disengaged employees most of the time showed no commitment, dissatisfaction and intent to leave the organization. The absence of teamwork shows little cooperation and collaboration to get things done together as team members. Disengaged workers don't show courage to listen to the truth about their performance and not accepting the criticism given by others. They are also capable of hiding information and not sharing ideas, opinions, views and information with anyone due to lack of trust. Allam and Harish (2010) suggested that trust is

correlated to job satisfaction. Disengaged employees show less confidence, spirit, discipline and energy to perform in the organization.

4.1.5 Leadership style

Leadership style is viewed as a combination of different characteristics, traits and behaviours that are used by leaders for interacting with their subordinates (Mitonga-Monga & Coetzee, 2012). Mitonga-Monga and Coetzee (2012) consider leadership as the pattern associated with managerial behaviour, which is designed to integrate the organizational or personal interest and effects for achieving particular objectives. Harris et al. (2007) also postulated that leadership style can be defined as the kind of relationship that is used by an individual to make people work together for a common goal or objective.

4.2 Are people born leaders or leadership is nurtured?

According to Kinsler (2014) leaders are not born with extraordinary or supernatural powers to become “leaders” as they get matured. The Trait and Great Man theories suggest that individuals who become leaders inherit specific traits and qualities that make them best suited to be a leader at a later age. However, Datche and Mukulu (2015) disagree and propose that a significant difference is prevalent between “learning a skill” and “mastering a skill”, and therefore leaders are not born with an extraordinary endowment and possess equal abilities like others. These people excel naturally in areas of work, whereas the others need to struggle hard to achieve the same level.

4.2.1 The divide between leadership and management

Leadership and management are two completely different dimensions in terms of roles and responsibilities. Although they are distinct activities, leadership and management tend to overlap, and are characterised by a certain degree of complementarity. Bresnen et al. (2015) assert that managerial duties are a formal part of a specific job description entitled to the functions of management such as organising, planning, controlling and leading. Leadership on the other hand involves the personal investment in projects and tasks that demonstrates a high passion level towards work. Wadji (2017) suggest that whilst management and leadership differ, both involve dissimilar types of outlooks, behaviour and skills set and good managers should endeavour to be good leaders and in order to be effective, good leaders require management skills. Bresnen et al. (2015) aver that managers cannot be leaders; however, leaders are efficient in management.

Although both managers and leaders have certain powers to influence others, there are prominent differences in the two. Wadji (2017) posit that managers maintain the status quo and leadership test the current positions and inspire new functions. This position lends credence to the belief that for an organisation to attain optimal success it requires both effective leadership and effective management. Wadji (2017), however contends that leaders and managers have different contributions.

The focus of leadership is motivation and inspiring. Leaders excite passion to follow their vision through and attain long term goals. They have a risk appetite and challenge existing state of affairs. Leaders should possess critical qualities such as vision, decisiveness, trust, commitment and visibility. Wadji (2017) suggest that leaders should be endowed with charisma and a sense of mission, aptitude for problem solving and the ability to influence people. Leadership influence is multi-directional, and management is a unidirectional authority relationship.

Leaders are exponents for change, and they promote new approaches, and they attempt to understand the thinking of people in order to gain their trust and commitment. Leadership extends past repetitive tasks to deal with change. Managers on the other hand encourage stability, exercise authority and work towards seeing things accomplished. They translate leadership strategy into action. Management is an unvarying prescribed responsibility to deal with routine complexity. Managers are usually risk averse. Managers maintain the status quo by acting as custodians of organisational structures and systems. Managers are said to do things right. Leaders concentrate on motivation at a strategic level, strategic communication and shared goals. Leaders do the right things.

4.2.2 Duties of the leader

The leadership of an organisation has the ultimate responsibility of modelling the way. They attain this by setting the trend in terms of integrity, personal commitment and trustworthiness. This acts as a stimulus for employees to share with leadership, the organisational vision. Leadership is also responsible for inspiring this shared vision. Leadership looks forward to future opportunities and unites employees regarding shared aspirations. Leaders challenge the process; they are duty bound to improve the organisational architecture. Leadership of an organisation is responsible for shaping

the organisational culture with a view to establishing a culture of high performance. Employee engagement is critical in establishing high performance cultures. Organisational leadership act as a catalyst to encourage participation and engagement.

4.3 Dominant leadership styles

According to the business dictionary, leadership is characterised by a clear line of authority that gives the leader the power of delegation, and the power to control the subordinates' level of participation in decision making process. Pawar (2014) suggest that market dynamics are solely responsible for the variation of different styles of leadership that is best suited for an organisation based on the prevalent market scenario. The leadership styles that will be analysed in this research are autocratic leadership, democratic leadership, laissez-faire leadership, charismatic leadership, transactional leadership, transformational leadership and bureaucratic leadership.

4.3.1 Autocratic leadership style

Autocratic leaders are classic and bossy in nature. The autocratic leaders want their subordinates to work according to them. Typically, autocratic leaders retain the decision-making rights with them (Obiwuru et al., 2011). The autocratic leaders force their followers to execute the services and strategies according to the narrow way. Iqbal, Anwar, and Haider (2015) conducted a study to determine the impact of leadership styles on the organizational performance. The study stated that autocratic leadership is also known as the authoritarian leadership style. The autocratic leaders are less creative and only promote one-sided conversation. This severely affects the motivation and satisfaction level of the employees. The autocratic leadership style is however, known to be effective in the short term. Autocratic leadership restricts the workplace socialization and communication which is cordial for effective organizational performance. The autocratic leadership also leads to organizational conflicts which negatively affect the overall performance (Iqbal et al., 2015).

This is a dictatorial or tyranny form of leadership. An autocratic leader is clothed with adequate authority to enforce his will on subordinates. Inderyas et al. (2015) posit that autocratic leadership is characterised by centralised authority and decision making. An autocratic leader exerts tremendous authority on employees and does not allow them to express their views or made decisions. This type of leadership impacts negatively on employee and organisational

performance. However, Amanchukwu et al. (2015) are of the view that autocratic leadership could best be applied in crisis situations where decisions have to be made speedily without dissent.

4.3.2 Democratic leadership style

Tannenbanum and Schmidt (2012) have defined democratic leadership as the leadership in which the decision- making is decentralized and is shared by all the subordinates. In the democratic leadership style, the potential for weak execution and poor decision- making is high. However, the democratic leadership is also known to motivate the employees to perform better, as their views and opinions are valued. Another big problem associated with democratic leadership is the assumption that everyone involved has an equal stake in the decision-making with a shared level of expertise (Rukmani et al., 2010). The study by Elenkov (2002) indicated that the democratic leadership has a positive impact on organizational performance.

The democratic leadership allows the employees to make decisions along with sharing them with the group and the manager. A democratic leader cares for his subordinates. Although the ultimate responsibility of making the final decision resides with the leader, a democratic leader includes subordinates in the decision-making process. This leadership approach has major benefits, which includes high levels of employee engagement and productivity. Basit, Sebastian and Hassan (2017) suggest that democratic leadership facilitate the leadership development. The leadership style is however without its own frailties. Santrock (2009), cited in Amanchukwu et al. (2015) suggest that the democratic leadership style is ineffective in teams and organisations which place reliance on flexibility, creativity, or innovation. The downside for this leadership style is that it can fail in instances where speed and efficiency is of essence.

4.3.3 Laissez-faire leadership style

Under this leadership style, the leader abdicates responsibility and refrains from making decisions. The leader provides resources and advice and allows subordinates to work on their own and make decisions about their work. It is essentially an absence of leadership. (Alkhasawneh, 2018) assert that Laissez-fair leadership is the least effective leadership style owing to the leaders' inability to make decision. This view is supported by Inderyas et al. (2015) who suggest that this leadership style is fraught with confusion and ineffectiveness and has negative outcomes leading to low performance. However, this conclusion is replete with disagreements. Amanchukwu et al. (2015)

suggest that by virtue of the autonomy engrained in laissez-faire leadership, high job satisfaction and productivity is attained. This proclamation resonates with the two-pronged thinking of Goodnight (2011), who argues that this type of leadership can be the best or worst style.

4.3.4 Charismatic leadership style

Charismatic leadership is considered to be one of the most successful leadership styles, where the charismatic leaders develop a vision, and the followers are asked to follow and execute the vision. The charismatic leadership invites innovation and creativity and is considered to be motivational for the employees. But the major drawback of this style of leadership is that the followers are totally dependent on the leader and once the leader leaves the organization, they become directionless. The problem worsens as charismatic leaders do not train their subordinates to act as their replacements in the future. This leadership style results in “happy followers, but few future leaders”. Thus, it can have a long-term negative effect on the organizational performance (Germano, 2010).

This type of leadership is centred on the ability of leaders to inspire followers to achieve organisational goals. Charismatic leaders are by their nature heroic, distant from ordinary people and own an extraordinary character and facade, and according to Inderyas et al. (2015), they exude confidence, a dominant personality and passionate thinking. Wajdi (2017) suggests that leaders who are endowed with charisma find it simple to attract people to their cause. Proponents of this leadership style laud it for generating excitement and commitment from teams, which is an impetus for high productivity.

4.3.5 Transactional leadership style

Nawaz and Khan (2016) suggest that three components make up transactional leadership, that is: contingent reward, management-by-exception (passive) and management-by-exception (active). The crux of transactional leadership is the exchange between the leaders and subordinates. The leader creates structures that make it clear what is expected of the followers and the consequences of meeting or failing to meet the expectations. Effective transactional leaders accommodate the interest of their followers by means of conditional incentives and honouring promises for those who propitiously excel in accomplishing leadership or organisation commitments. Transactional leaders utilise management by exception both in the passive and active sense. Elenkov (2002)

detected that managers who espouse transactional leadership behaviour made a positive contribution to organisational performance and innovation.

4.3.6 Transformational leadership style

Transformational leadership style focuses on developing the followers and considering their needs. The managers that focus on transformational leadership focus particularly on developing the overall value system of the employees, development of moralities, skills and their motivation level. The transformational leadership acts as a strong bridge between the followers and leaders, to develop clear understanding associated with the motivational level, values and interests. Bass and Avolio (1994) stated that transformational leadership demonstrates the superior leadership performance.

The transformational leadership, according to Bass and Avolio (1994), occurs when the leaders broaden or elevate the interest of the employees. The transformational leaders are the ones who encourage the employees to look beyond their self-interest. The transformational leaders are effective because of several reasons such as the leaders may be charismatic in terms of inspiring the employees, the transformational leaders may meet the emotional need of the employees, or they may stimulate the employees intellectually (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Wang et al. (2011) found out that the transformational leadership and individual level performance have a positive relationship.

4.3.7 Bureaucratic leadership style

Bureaucratic leaders influence the people under them to follow the policies and procedures designed by them. The leaders are strongly committed to their processes and procedures but not to their people. This is the reason why they appear to be aloof. This method is not very effective as it does not lead to the development and motivation of the employees. These leaders just focus on their tasks being completed in a systematic manner (Germano, 2010). Ojukuku et al. (2012) also stated that bureaucratic leadership has a negative impact on the organizational performance. According to them, bureaucratic leaders do not induce the employees of their organization to work in the expected manner which can lead to improved organizational performance (Ojukuku et al., 2012). Sougui et al. (2015) also presented similar results which stated that the bureaucratic leadership style does not impact the employee as well as organizational performance significantly.

Sougui et al. (2005) posited that this leadership style is beneficial if the tasks are to be done in a longer time following a mentioned procedure.

4.4 Leadership styles and employee engagement

The competitive global markets are causing organizations to look past their products and move beyond just employee motivation and towards having an engaged workforce. Due to globalization, companies are changing their structure and competing in a bigger arena. Most of these organisations used to think of capital simply as shares, cash, investments, or some sort of wealth. Over the years, these organisations have changed their views and have added employee development and performance management as a strategic business priority to set them apart from their competition. With this shift, organizations are adding more value to their employees and their employees' skill sets (Heger, 2007). Talent management has emerged as an area in which organisations can spend time and resources to develop a workforce that gives them a competitive and strategic advantage.

There is a considerable impact of the leadership styles on employee engagement. The leadership style influences the culture of the organization which, in turn, influences the employee engagement. Klien et al. (2013) proved this fact by using four factor theory of leadership along with the data collected from 2,662 employees working in 311 organizations. The organizational culture and performance are related to the type of leadership style (Klein et al., 2013).

4.4.1 Autocratic leadership and employee engagement

Autocratic leaders like to force, manipulate and threaten their employees to achieve organisation objectives. Although it usually leads to high efficiency in completing tasks, most of the employees are unsatisfied. As a result of a stressful working environment and low participation in the decision-making process, this style of leadership is associated with high absenteeism, poor morale and high turnover rates (Goethals et al., 2004).

Autocratic leadership represents all those leaders who makes decision without the consent of team members and is usually applied when quick decision is taken and team agreement is not important for acquisition of successful results (Boehm et al., 2015). Little opportunities are given to staff and

team members to make suggestions, even if it is in the best interest of the team or organization (Amanchukwu et al., 2015). An autocratic leader mostly makes selection on the basis of their own judgments and ideas that rarely include follower's advice and these leaders have absolute control over the group (Zareen et al., 2015). According to Iqbal et al. (2015), autocratic leaders give orders without explaining the reasons or future intentions.

4.4.2 Democratic leadership and employee engagement

Democratic leaders like to invite employees to participate in the decision-making process (Skogan, 2008). They do not only give an order and concern on the result of work, but they are prepared to listen to the feelings and suggestions brought by the employees (Suharti & Suliyanto, 2012). Employees under the democratic leadership style usually feel more participative, motivated and responsible to the organisation (Bhatti et al., 2012). This type of leadership is suitable in a project which involves teamwork and focuses on the quality of the results rather than speed only.

This leadership encourages innovation, teamwork, creativity and people are often being engaged in projects that lead to increased performance, job satisfaction and increased productivity (Verba, 2015). Iqbal et al. (2015) stated that democratic leaders make no suggestions, however they enquire the opinions of others. This leadership promotes all team members to participate to make final decision and develop entire process to reach their goals (Trivisonno & Barling, 2016). One of the major benefits of democratic leadership style is that the process facilitates in development of some additional leaders who can majorly serve the organization and have active involvement on the part of everyone in the team (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). Democratic leaders encourage and invite team members to play a significant role in the final decision-making process, but the ultimate power relies in the hands of leaders and they guide the team on what to do, how to do, and the employees communicate their suggestions experience and recommendations (Skogstad, 2015).

4.4.3 Laissez-faire leadership and employee engagement

According to the findings of Webb (2007), the laissez-faire leadership style seldom offers any direction and advice to their employees. They assume employees know everything and can handle the challenges that may be encountered while operating. Leaders using this type of leadership end up failing to coordinate or lead employees (Van Eeden et al., 2008). Hence employees may become

apathetic, low motivated and resentful towards the organisation and the leader which in turn may result in absenteeism, low morale and low productivity. Times et al. (2011) discovered that, despite the high levels of freedom contained in their work, employees are not motivated to invest additional effort.

In this style the performance of workforce entirely relies on team member's ability, skills and capabilities (Adler & Reid, 2008). Team members are free to take decision in their own way and leaders provide complete freedom to subordinates to work as per their own way and take major decisions (Coyle-Shapiro, 2013). Some renowned researchers have stated that Laissez-Faire style had led to increased job satisfaction and better performance of employees but could be damaging if team does not manage their time well or if they are not self-motivated to do their work efficiently (Martin, 2013). Laissez-Faire leadership style usually leads to increased chaos in the organization as every individual believe him or her as own leader (Monzani, 2015).

4.4.4 Charismatic leadership and employee engagement

Saks (2006) stated that an employee's engagement demonstrates their feelings, attachment and relationship at the workplace, including their relationship with their leaders. Sarwar and Abugre (2013) also stated that when people feel that they were treated with dignity, respect, and value for their contributions, they will develop pride from their interactions. In relation to this, Truffle (2012) stated that charisma is useful for persuading people to accept leader's ideas, and highly effective and engaged groups, who usually work for their leader who has got shared vision and clear envisioned future. There are antecedents of employee engagement both from intrinsic and extrinsic factors (Clark, 2012). In this regard, Babcock-Roberson and Strickland (2010) reported that there is a positive relationship between charismatic leadership and employee engagement, and the influence can be direct, or indirect influence via the mediating variable such as ethical climate (Zehir, 2014). Shamir et al. (1993) in their research also reported that charismatic leadership had a positive impact on their followers, especially in engaging with the mission articulated by the leader.

4.4.5 Transactional leadership and employee engagement

Transactional leadership style is a reward-based leadership style in which the followers get rewarded reliant to their level of performance. The transactional leadership style is similar as the autocratic leadership style in which the power and authority belong to leaders (Samad et al., 2015). Transactional leaders are results oriented and focus on getting best possible outcomes (Bass, 1985). According to (Burns, 1978), transactional leadership style is a tool in which leaders motivate employees and direct them towards goal attainment. The transactional leadership style follows the concept of management by exception (active or passive) and is based on contingent reward system.

In Management by exception (active), the leaders make corrective criticism and monitor the employee's mistakes and errors. These leaders carefully focus on the solutions and enforce those rules that can lessen the employee's mistakes (Hussein, 2015). In management by exception (passive) leaders focus on the problematic areas of business and never get involved until any serious or uncertain situation arises (Laura et al., 2009). In Contingent rewarding system, the subordinates are rewarded on the basis of their hard work and performance. Consequently, if the leaders believe subordinates are not working at their full potential, no reward will be provided to them (Northouse, 2004). Bass (1998) highlights that in transactional leadership style there is a rigid relationship between the leaders and employees and this leadership is dependent the leader's incentives and authority over the competence of follower's performance and hard work.

Transactional leadership has been found to have a significant relationship with employee engagement, but the relationship is weak (Alqudah, 2011). Transaction leadership styles that consist of contingent reward, management by exception (active) and management by exception (passive) are weakly related to employee engagement because employees tend to avoid those leaders who just get involved when problems arise (Ali Hussein, 2015).

4.4.6 Transformational leadership and employee engagement

The transformational leadership style is the charismatic leadership style in which the leader leads employees by giving them a clear vision. The transformational leaders inspire employees by their strong vision and charisma. They have the strong ability of getting things done with their

employees and through them. Transformational leaders change the old and traditional beliefs of employees, motivate them and bring out the best in them with the help of their appealing and inspiring personalities (Burns, 1978). Furthermore, the transformational leaders have the capability of influencing employees by encouraging their creativity, loyalty, devotion and by involving them in decision making process, resulting in higher level of employee commitment (Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003).

Transformational leadership is the relationship of mutual trust and respect between both leaders and followers. This relationship is so strong that employees work beyond rewards just for their leaders. These leaders motivate and encourage employees in such a way that employees develop emotional attachment towards their leaders (Barbuto, 1997). The transformational leadership style is more open, flexible and supportive for the employees, making them more committed and engaged towards their organization (Ashfaq Ahmad et al., 2015). The transformational leadership style is based on four factors, firstly the transformational leaders are idealised influence leaders and by their charismatic personalities they become role model for their employees (Sharon Clinebell, 2013).

Secondly, these leaders show the characteristics of individualised consideration and support the needs of every individual they are leading. Thirdly, the transformational leaders are the inspirational motivational leaders and they tend to motivate and inspire the employees by showing them a clear direction and goal. Lastly, they are the intellect stimulator and are inclined to excite the creativity, intellect, innovativeness and problem-solving qualities by believing in their opinions and beliefs (Ali Hussein, 2015).

Ali Hussein (2015) explained that transformational leadership style has positive influence on employee commitment and employees tend to be loyal to their organisations if the leaders are supportive, inspiring and charismatic. Lee (2008) found out that transformational leadership significantly correlates with employees' commitment.

4.4.7 Bureaucratic leadership and employee engagement

Bureaucratic leaders influence the people under them to follow the policies and procedures designed by them. The leaders are strongly committed to their processes and procedures but not to their people. This is the reason why they appear to be remote in manner. This method is not very effective as it does not lead to the development and motivation of the employees. These leaders just focus on their tasks being completed in a systematic manner (Germano, 2010). Ojukuku et al. (2012) also stated that bureaucratic leadership has a negative impact on the organizational performance. According to them, bureaucratic leaders do not induce the employees of their organization to work in the expected manner which can lead to improved organizational performance (Ojukuku et al., 2012).

Sougui et al. (2015) also presented similar results which stated that the bureaucratic leadership style does not impact the employee as well as organizational performance significantly. This method is beneficial only when the tasks are to be done in longer time following a mentioned procedure (Sougui et al., 2015). Bureaucratic leaders thrive in an environment where predictability is present. They create rules which are intended to help their teams so as to create consistent results. Everyone is expected to follow the regulations which govern the work in the same way. Although this does place a limit on how creativity can sometimes be applied, it allows an organization to have confidence in the results that a leader may promise.

4.5 Leadership styles that promote employee engagement

According to Hershey and Blanchard (1996), the type of leadership style chosen should be linked to the maturity level of the employees. A good leader, whether conscious or not, should be able to select a leadership style that is suited to their personality and the nature of their audience. Grint (2011) further emphasised that instead of applying just one leadership style, successful leaders should change the leadership style based on the details of tasks and the maturity of their followers as well as having a rational understanding of the situation at hand. Hence all leadership styles can be applied after careful examination of the circumstances.

Authoritarian leaders, also called autocratic leaders, take a clear and well-defined position of authority over their subordinates. An authoritative leader makes decisions independently with little to no input from his reports and calls the shots from the top down. While it may sound unappealing and a bit dictator-like to modern organisations, the authoritarian leadership style has been the style for the majority of America’s corporate history as it is not without its benefits. In an authoritarian organization, there’s little question about what’s expected of each team member. The relationship between actions and consequences is clearly defined, and there’s little room for uncertainty. The authoritarian leadership style should be used sparingly and only when necessary (<http://blog.ignitespot.com>).

Much like in a democratic government, a democratic leader shares decision-making responsibilities with everyone in the organization while providing structure and guidance. As described by researcher Nadeem Bhatti in [his study comparing democratic and autocratic leadership](#), though a “democratic leader will make the final decision, he/she invites other members of the team to contribute to the decision-making process.” According to Bhatti’s findings, this style pays off in the form of more engaged employees. He observed that employees found more satisfaction when working in an atmosphere where they were free to share and exchange their views, which is encouraged under a democratic leader. If the goal of the leader is to motivate their followers, the democratic leadership style can be more fruitful.

According to Yusra Kaleem (2016), charismatic leaders are the driving force behind their group. They create eagerness in their group by inspiring employees and helping them to stay persuaded at work. The risk with this style is an excess of inspiration without activity. Charming leaders might have over-confidence as opposed to investigating the realistic capacity of their group to take a venture to finishing.

The French term *laissez-faire* translates roughly to “let it be.” A laissez faire leadership follows suit, with the leader allowing operations to unfold largely in the hands of his employees. In practice, this means lots of delegation, with decision-making abilities being passed from the leader

to his subordinates. The leaders can hire people better and smarter than themselves and get out of their way while they do their jobs. Just because you are a laissez faire leader does not mean you do any work. For this style of leadership to be effective, the leader must be actively engaged in providing consistent feedback, analysis and recommendations for improvements. The laissez-faire style should be used when dealing with highly skilled, trustworthy employees who have a clear understanding of a project's overall goal (<http://blog.ignitespot.com>).

A transactional leadership style is highly performance based, with the leader motivating his team using a system of rewards and punishments. According to a [University of Florida study](#) by researchers Timothy Judge and Ronald Piccolo, a transactional leader “clarifies expectations and establishes the rewards for meeting these expectations.” Much like in a business contract, a transactional leader offers his followers X in exchange for Y and puts stipulations in place in case the terms of the agreement are not met. In their research, Judge and Piccolo found that a transactional leadership style had a positive correlation with both follower job satisfaction and follower satisfaction with their leader. The transactional leadership style is highly effective when you're working with a team of goal-oriented employees and there is a clear and achievable goal at hand. The promised reward will motivate the team to achieve the goal in place. Selling is a great field for transactional leaders. If the leader is in a situation where they need to boost productivity fast for example to meet a deadline or come up with a creative solution to a problem, they can employ some transactional leadership principles to get the job done (<http://blog.ignitespot.com>).

While the transactional leader motivates followers with the promise of a tangible reward, the transformational leader focuses on intrinsic motivation, that is, a sense of purpose and excitement about getting the job done. Transformational leaders have a clear vision and are skilled at conveying this vision to their followers. Leaders must possess high energy and charisma and be willing to take risks. Leaders have to be passionate about what they do and have the ability to spread that passion to their followers so as to use the transformational leadership style in their favour.

Bureaucratic leaders monitor guidelines thoroughly and guarantee that their subordinates take after methodology absolutely. This is suitable for work including genuine dangers, or with huge benefits being reaped. Bureaucratic authority is likewise helpful for overseeing representatives who perform routine assignments. This style is less successful in groups and associations that depend on adaptability, imagination, or advancement. It might not be the best style for building up another item or encouraging innovation (Kaleem, 2016).

4.6 Drivers of employee engagement

The Society for Human Resource Management (2017) suggests that there are organisational and managerial drivers to employee engagement. From an organisational perspective, employee engagement (or disengagement) is dependent on how effectively senior leaders in the organisation set the direction, focuses on employees, compensate based on performance, and communicate the corporate strategy and goals with clarity. Management drivers of engagement are as a result of the employees' daily experiences and positive relationships with direct managers. These positive experiences include: a good relationship with superiors, the provision of necessary equipment to do the job, and the latitude granted to employees to make work decisions. The table below illustrates some of the key drivers of employee engagement.

4.6.1 Organisational culture

The standard of an organisation's ethics contributes to the engagement of employees. Chandani, Mehta, Mall and Khokhar (2016) suggest that employees are ready to support the goods and services of an organisation if they perceive that they are quality products. If the culture of the organisation is wherein respect is valued, and there is fair treatment of employees, this results in enhanced engagement.

4.6.2 Leadership style

The style of organisational leadership has a bearing on the level of engagement in the organisation. There is a strong perception that leaders who stimulate confidence in individuals and give them clear goals and accountability and the independence to make decisions are engaging. The integrity of organisational leadership is an enabler of engagement.

4.6.3 Communication

Quality and clear communication within the organisation promotes a sense of belonging and allows scope for organisational engagement (Kulkalyuenyong, 2016). Transparent communication helps to build a trust relationship between the employees and organisational management. Employees need to understand how their roles fit into the organisational values and goals. Consultation with employees in managerial decision-making and improvement initiatives empowers them with a sense of proprietorship over the end-result. This assertion is supported by Bin-Shmailan (2016) who suggest that engaged employees are those who are involved in the creation and application of workplace processes and change.

4.6.4 Career development

Employees have a higher likelihood of engaging with the organisation if they perceive that there are equal opportunities and access to training and development as well as career growth and promotion prospects. Two critical reasons dictate on organisations to pay attention to career development. Firstly, it allows the employees and the organisation to realise their full potential and secondly career development allows employees and the organisation to effectively manage change in the structure of employment opportunities (Kulkalyuenyong, 2016).

4.6.5 Meaningful work

The nature of work an employee is involved in influences the extent of their engagement. Work that is considered exciting, creative and important by the employee is likely to have a positive influence on the level of engagement of that particular employee. An employer can use a number of interventions to stimulate a challenging work environment. Such interventions include encouraging employees to take initiative, developing peoples' skills, and holding people accountable for their performance.

4.6.6 Reward system and recognition

The employees require having that feeling of being valued and appreciated. One strategic tool used by management to recognise and reward employees is reward management. Recognition and rewards can take many forms, and include salary increases, promotions, employee benefits, special recognition on an individual basis and team rewarding. The recognition and reward extended to employees has to be timely. Kulkayuenyong (2016) suggest that rewards and recognition can

fortify the relationship among the team members and reinforce the behaviours desirable for success.

4.6.7 Effective relationships

Employees are more engaged in an environment where there are sound relationships between workers as well as between workers and management. It is critical that the relationships are reciprocal. Trust and mutual respect are enablers of employee engagement to the organisation.

4.6.8 Work-life balance

The work life-balance is the satisfactory level of fit between the multiple roles in a person’s life. Work-life balance is also considered a major driver of employee engagement. An employee’s performance in the workplace is influenced by his ability to divide his time between his work and family. An organisation can put in place a variety of initiatives to improve the work-life balance of its employees. The initiatives can take the form of support for dependent care, flexible work options and family or personal leave (Bedarkar & Pandita, 2014).

Table 4-1: Key Drivers of Employee Engagement: Aon Hewitt Survey 2011

Engagement Driver	Global	Asia-Pacific	Europe	Latin America	North America
Career opportunities	61%	62%	60%	60%	64%
Brand alignment	44%	41%	48%	36%	42%
Recognition	40%	37%	40%	56%	34%
HR policies	34%	30%	49%	-	-
Organisation reputation	34%	-	-	-	46%
Managing performance	-	-	-	-	60%
Pay	-	31%	41%	33%	-
Valuing people/people focus	-	-	-	27%	-

Source: (Bedarkar & Pandita, 2014)

4.7 Benefits of employee engagement

Engagement has numerous outcomes for both the employee and the organisation. High levels of employee engagement translate to a competitive advantage (Macey & Schneider, 2008) and low levels of engagement are a strategic risk to the organisation.

4.7.1 Benefits to the organisation

There is a positive correlation between engaged employees and engaged customers. The more the employees are happy with their work, the higher the likelihood of creating loyal customers. Engaged employees have the propensity to assist their organisation increase its intimacy with its customers. This will create loyal customers. An investment in employee engagement interventions is likely to enhance employee retention. There is a positive correlation between employee engagement and staff retention. Engaged employees stay for longer periods in the organisation. This translates to cost savings in terms of recruitment costs (Saunders & Tiwari, 2014). Engaged employees are more productive, and they drive the profits of the company as well as innovation. Parent and Lovelace (2015) aver that at Standard Chartered Bank, it was found out that branches that had high levels of engagement produced 20% higher returns than branches with lower engagement scores. The Institute of Employment Studies (2009) suggests that engaged employees have twice the likelihood of becoming top performers than are other employees. Disengaged employees rarely push themselves to attain organisational goals or to drive innovation and are prone to evading responsibility.

Engaged employees act as ambassadors for the organisations. They take pride in talking about the organisation as a place to work for, and they vigorously promote the goods and services of the organisation. To the contrary disengaged employees have the propensity to discouraging others from joining the organisation. An organisation with highly engaged employees, and which continue to create an environment that is conducive to employee engagement substantially increases the prospect of business success.

Organisations with engaged employees are capable of posting good operating results than those with disengaged employees. Schaufenbuel (2013) avers that a Gallup study revealed that

organisations with engaged employees had earnings per share (EPS) which were 147 percent higher than that of competitors. Good operating results are as a result of higher productivity, innovation, customer-orientation and employee retention. Shifts in the operating environment often dictate on the company to change in order to enable organisational agility and resilience. An engaged workforce maximises an organisation's chances of success in change initiatives.

4.7.2 Benefits to the employees

Employers are now offering employees higher salaries and employability to garner for employee efforts. Engagement increases the employees' health and well-being and is also credited with inculcating positive feelings towards work and the organisation. Higher productivity also brings more profit to the company. This profit can be used to provide better facilities and working conditions to the employees. So, it results in welfare of the employees.

As a way of retaining top talent in the organisation, certain organisations offer their employees a bonus, signifying appreciation of achieving or surpassing set targets by top management. Generally, a bonus is a form of pay outside of an employee's base pay. It's usually given after the fact to reward specific behaviour or for a specific purpose. Bonuses can play a role in the attraction, motivation and retention of employees. Bonus programmes should - among other factors – focus employees on common business goals, reward and retain top performers, promote desired employee behaviour, increase organisational commitment to goals and link rewards to organisational success. In such a case, engaged employees tend to reap various benefits.

4.8 Consequences of employee disengagement

Engaged employees believe that they can positively contribute to the growth of the company, and disengaged employees believe to the contrary. This negative attitude of disengaged employees generates a negative helix that affects work, other employees, customers and productivity. Allam (2017) posit that employee disengagement is considered as an epidemic in an organisation. Job insecurity is one of the major factors behind employee disengagement. Huang et al. (2017) suggest job insecurity is directly related with employee turnover and deviant behaviour of employees. Moreover, contextual circumstances such as competitive environment of the company or strategic actions adopted by the organisation can also encourage employee disengagement.

Wellins and Concelman (2005) indicates that disengaged employees are not enthusiastic; they do not want to expend extra effort and support teamwork. They adopt a “wait-and-see attitude” and behave in a similar way requiring a push to join in. It is indicated that the employees with a low level of engagement are not interested and not inquisitive about their firm and their own role in it. Further, they frequently have deprived affairs with their supervisors and workmates. According to Branham (2005) disengaged workers can negatively influence morale and revenues of the organization; they often make trouble, complain, and have accidents.

They can harm the organization in the way they speak to customers; their negative behaviour affects client satisfaction and can lead to loss of them (Vajda & SpiritHeart, 2008). Disengaged employees are usually unhappy at work and actively express this feeling. The undesirable influence of such employees continuously affects other persons in the team and destroys accomplishments of engaged workmates (Gallup, 2006). Detached workers are disengaged from their jobs, tend to be suggestively less competent and less dedicated to their firms; they are less happy with their personal lives, experience more stress and uncertainty about their work than their co-workers (Gallup, 2001). The following table summarises some of the consequences of employee disengagement.

Table 4-2: Consequences of Employee Disengagement in an organisation

Serial No.	Consequences
1	Negative attitude towards job
2	Absence of teamwork
3	Rigidness to accept feedback
4	Lack of trust among employees
5	Low morale among employees
6	Increased rate of turnover
7	Workplace violence and bullying
8	Higher conflict among employees
9	Reduced level of productivity
10	Deviant behaviour at workplace
11	Loss of cultural values
12	Lack of innovation and creativity among employees
13	Lack of interpersonal relations between employees and managers

Source: Allam (2017)

4.8.1 Influence of leadership style on engagement

Leadership has a significant impact on employee engagement. Berdarkar and Pandita (2014) posit that leadership is a key precursor to engagement. The utility of transactional leadership is illustrated by Strom, Sears & Kelly (2014) who highlight that the energy and passion this type of leadership has in motivating and empowering the followers. However, Pourbarkhordari, Zhou & Pourkarimi (2016) suggest that the use of transactional leadership is restricted in achieving higher performance from employees. Transformational leadership is an approach that is credited with driving employee engagement in an organisation. Leaders who assist in cascading the vision and inspiring others to extraordinary performance are a vital part of ensuring engagement evolves in teams, departments, and company (Brunone, 2013).

4.8.2 The impact of employee engagement on organisational productivity

Saunders and Tiwari (2014) and Priyadarshni (2016) suggest that engaged employees have the propensity to be more productive. Patro (2013) avers that empirical evidence support a solid relationship between employee engagement and productivity. This is as a result of the fact that engaged employees are immensely connected with their tasks at work. They expend extra effort on their jobs than is ordinarily required. Engaged employees are innovative, and their eminence of being collaborative and passionate towards work, allows them to accomplish their workplace goals effectively and this translate to increased workplace productivity.

4.9 Causes of disengagement

Pech and Slade (2006) believed that it is possible to determine the potential sources or causes of employee disengagement and to divide them into several groups: External environment causes, which can become challenges for employees, for example, instability and insecurity arising from government, unions or shareholders, or possible opportunities, such as sudden wealth to buy independence, an unanticipated outside job offer, and others. Psychological causes and sources, more specifically: lack of psychological meaningfulness and psychological safety at work, lack of identification with an organisation, lack of trust, a sense of being undervalued, perceived inequities in pay and performance, unrealized ambitions, stress and anxiety or disinterest.

Organizational causes, such as restructuring of the company and connected to it, transformational changes, company's culture with inadequate norms, traditions, policies and practices (unethical actions, sexual harassment, racial discrimination, unreasonable enforcement of authority, etc.), bad working conditions, poor management and leadership, overgrown bureaucracy, lack of resources, low standards and acceptance of poor performance, work complexity, etc.; Other sources, for example, employee's substance abuse and unacceptable behaviour, illness, laziness, competency issues, poor interpersonal relationships leading to conflicts, and so on.

Initiators of employees' disengagement at work are aligned with reasons of final decisions to quit the organization. Employees leave the organization because of unsatisfactory leadership characteristics, firm environment, and job characteristics. Branham (2005) postulated that negative comments about leadership included grievances about the lack of boss respect for employees, inattentiveness, absence of support, deprived leadership skills, partiality, inability, insensitivity, and discrepancy. Poor sides of organizational environment included inadequate career growth, inadequate compensation and benefits, excessive workloads, lack of recognition, bad working conditions, poor quality or lack of training, unethical behaviours inside the organization, and lack of collaboration. People were not satisfied with the job itself, if tasks were boring or not challenging (Branham, 2005).

4.10 Interventions that can be used to transform disengaged employees

The survival of corporate industries is dependent on maximizing profits from existing capabilities, while recognizing and adjusting to the fact that what may work today may not necessarily work in the future (Kortmann et al., 2014). To make or maintain their companies' profitability, leaders of companies must work hard to engage employees (Kortmann et al., 2014). However, leaders may sometimes struggle to adapt their organization in response to change if they limit their focus to existing products and processes (Hill & Birkinshaw, 2012). Understanding how to manage the balance between employee relations, adopting innovation, and maximizing short-term profits is critical to business leaders ensuring a viable future for their corporations (Hill & Birkinshaw, 2012). According to the findings of Osborne and Hammoud (2017), disengaged employees typically cost U.S. corporations \$350 billion annually. The purpose of this section of study is to explore strategies that leaders may use to engage their employees.

Employee engagement is critical to any organization. Deci and Ryan conducted the most influential study on employee engagement in 1985 (Berens, 2013). Deci and Ryan (1985) expanded on early work by differentiating between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Competence, autonomy, and psychological relatedness which are psychological needs, motivate the individual to initiate behaviour essential for psychological health and well-being of an individual and if satisfied may lead to optimal function and growth (Deci & Ryan, 1985). The basic needs of satisfaction have been found to directly relate to dedication of employees (Vandenabeele, 2014).

Dedicated and meaningful work enables employees to realise how valuable they are within the organization and makes them engaged. This influence transcends to the benefits of intrinsic rewards. Meaningful work will allow for an increase in employees' participation; however, it does not guarantee that the employee will be engaged. The need for autonomy, intrinsic rewards, and influence are required to achieve employee engagement (Bolman & Deal, 2014). La Guardia (2009) suggested that psychological needs form a sense of development of identity by intrinsic motivation, which results in the outcomes of interest and engagement. Using potentials and commitment can influence an individual's value, behaviour, and goals, which are healthy factors for an individual's identity (La Guardia, 2009).

Fullagar and Mills (2008) found a significant relationship between intrinsic motivation and flow experiences. Flow is the holistic sensation that employees feel when they are totally engaged within their work (Fullagar & Mills, 2008). The relationship between intrinsic motivation and flow supports considering engagement as the psychological need of autonomy. Assessing demographic characteristics as they relate to employee engagement provides knowledge of demographic trends within the labour force (Buttner, Lowe, & Billings-Harris, 2012). Business leaders can engage younger workers by monetary compensation. Younger workers leave their organizations for lack of monetary compensation even when the occupation is consistent with their needs and desires (Butler et al., 2014). Business leaders can engage their employee by ensuring a long-term contract and a process-oriented organization (Saber, 2013). Some of the employees are more likely to turnover when they feel there is no opportunity for promotion or increases in pay within the

organization and this requires careful examination in the creation of retention policies (Hayes, 2015).

4.11 Chapter Summary

The chapter discusses the literature that is related to the objectives of the study. Hence the literature is aligned to the dominant leadership styles, the consequences of leadership styles on employee engagement (or disengagement), leadership styles that promote an engaged workforce and the various strategies that can be employed to transform disengaged subordinates. The next chapter explores the methods that are used to collect primary data which are used in addressing the objectives of the study.

Chapter 5 : Research Design and Methodology

5.1 Introduction

Whilst the previous chapter gave insights on various scholars' views on the subject of integrative leadership and employee engagement, this chapter explores the methods employed in gathering data which was used to answer the proposed research questions. Both primary and secondary data were adopted and were explained in detail. The research discussed the research design through a descriptive and explanatory survey research. As such, the target population, sampling of respondents, data collection methods, research instruments as well as their benefits and problems was the focus in this chapter.

This research used the mixed method. The mixed method research integrates both quantitative and qualitative data within a single research study. According to Zhang & Creswell (2013), mixing is the procedure for interlinking qualitative and quantitative data elements in order to come up with a fuller account of the research process. The mixing occurs throughout the research pathway. There are a number of models for mixing the qualitative and quantitative research method. Halcomb & Hickman (2015) identified three models of mixing as: integration, connection and embedding. In using the integration model of mixing, both quantitative and qualitative data are collected at the same time but analysed separately. Integration occurred during interpretation of the data. The main purpose of researching is to answer the research questions, therefore there is no standard methodology that applies to all research cases, and rather it depends on the nature and scope of the topic and the type of data available (Bell, 2005).

The researcher supports the view by Ragab and Arisha (2018) that there are numerous conflicts and debates concerning the correct philosophy to be adopted into a research process. In this end, the researcher has decided to explain the selected methodologies using the Research Onion diagram by (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009) As explained by the latter, research methods are understood better if researchers start by acknowledging their beliefs about how they understand the real world. This research considered the pragmatist approach, and this is explained further in section 5.3 of this chapter.

5.2 Research design

This can be taken as the starting point to understand the research onion by Saunders et al. (2009). The research onion was chosen because of its precision in unearthing the different philosophies that are inherent in studies nowadays. The various layers in an onion have been taken to resemble the stages that can be adopted by the researcher in order for them to have a helicopter view of the whole process. In line with the objectives and key questions underpinning the study, the researcher adopted a proper research design which assisted in reaching solid conclusions towards a model for improving municipal service delivery to the local citizens in Umkhanyakude District Municipality. For the sake of coherence and eliminating confusion associated with terms that are used interchangeably in research methodology; the researcher defined the research design as a phrase which combines the research strategy, the research choices and time horizon (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). The figure below is an attempt to bring unity among the different views that are thrown on the table by the various researchers.

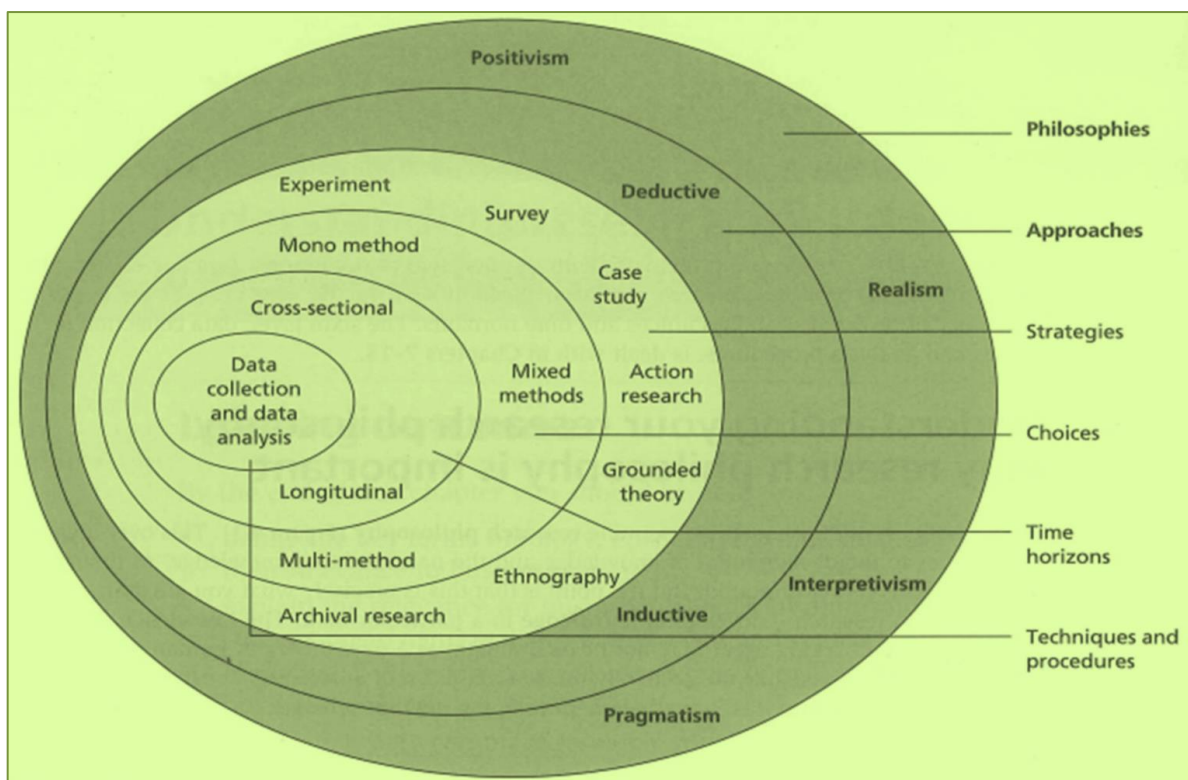


Figure 5-1: Research Onion

Source: Adapted from Saunders et al. (2009)

5.3 Research philosophy

In an endeavour to paint a clearer picture on the subject of research philosophy, the researcher decided to paraphrase a moral story that he came across at one point in time. *“Blind people were asked to touch a part of an elephant and then describe their experiences to each other. One of the blind people had a feel of the elephant’s huge stomach and later described the elephant as a big wall. The next blind person was allowed to have a feel of the trunk and they opined that it looked like a snake. The other blind person reached for the tail and they were convinced that an elephant was like a rope. The last of the interviewed blind person got hold of the elephant’s leg and they happily departed with the view that an elephant was like a tree.”* Before the researcher gave a conclusion to the above moral story, three authors who once averred their views on the best research philosophy were reviewed.

According to the sentiments by Holden and Lynch (2004), reality is a concrete structure that exists out there external to humans and that it will continue to exist regardless of people’s actions. In other words, we can extrapolate this statement to mean that humans have little or no say to what happens in their societies. This view can be referred to as objective reality. Examples relating to objective reality are of a scientific nature, in the natural sciences. As a result, the philosophers associated with this view tend to believe in universal laws that may be used to understand the behaviour of individuals.

Rowlands (2005) opposed the views by Holden and Lynch (2004). Rowlands described the truth as subjective. They argued that social phenomena are unique because they are created by individuals therefore, they are too complex to be reduced to generalized rules and formulae. Subjective research is obtained by entering the social world of research subjects to understand the problem being studied from their point of view. The outcome of this type of research is to offer an understanding of the social phenomenon and not the absolute truth; hence cannot be generalized to other societies.

On the other hand, Bell (2005) dismissed the possibility of coming up with a standard methodology that is applicable to all research cases. They contended that solutions to research problems depend on the nature and scope of the topic and the type of data available. The use of appropriate methodology is underpinned by assumptions, and these are necessary to ensure credibility of the research findings. This view was supported by the Oxford dictionary (2010) when they stated that the purpose of research is to establish facts and reach new conclusions. Researchers should be able to take an imaginative leap beyond the accepted scientific achievements so that we can reach the solution to the problem at hand.

Guided by the moral story paraphrased in the first paragraph and the various views postulated by scholars, the researcher supported the pragmatist approach. This approach's main focus is on problem solving. Scholars supporting this assumption argue that the combination of the objectivist approach and subjectivist approach may be necessary if it answers research questions better. The main thrust of this philosophy is on fact finding. As indicated in the moral story of the differing views by the blind people, conflicting beliefs are an essential ingredient in coming up with a better understanding of the problem. This means that the outcome of a research process is not always applicable in all contexts because sometimes leaders should take into account the marginalised views from voiceless employees.

5.4 Research approaches

The development of new theory can be addressed by deduction or induction. Deduction begins by suggesting a theory and designs a research method to test this theory (Trochim & Donnelly, 2008). The deduction approach is mainly associated with the quantitative method of approach. The purpose of quantitative research designs is to confirm the significance level of a theory being tested. According to the research onion Saunders et al. (2009), the development of new theory can also be addressed by induction. Douglas (2003) pointed out that induction is less concerned with generalization but rather gaining a close understanding of the research phenomenon. The process of induction begins by specific observations in which patterns and relationships are identified to form theory. The researcher employed both induction and deduction because the effectiveness of leadership and employee engagement theories need to be tested; and induction was used to gather

rich insights which assisted in recommending the best leadership style to be adopted by Umkhanyakude District Municipality.

5.5 Research strategy

Check and Schutt (2012) described the research strategy as the means used to carry out the work. The strategies include experiments, surveys, case studies, action research, grounded theory, ethnography and archival research. An experiment establishes the cause-effect relationship between two or more variables. The independent variable (causal agent) is changed and changes in the dependant variable are noted. Surveys are used to collect information from a sample of individuals through responding to questions, which can be quantitative, qualitative or both. Case studies are empirical enquiries about an individual case or organisation. It is used to answer “how” and “why” questions which are too complex for a survey or experiment. Action research is used to face real world problems in a participatory and collaborative way between the researcher and members of an organisation. The aim is to gain knowledge and solve organisational problems. The grounded theory strategy is used for conducting qualitative research aimed towards theory development. Ethnography is used to explore cultures and societies as part of the human experience. The last strategy that can be used is archival research which is based on primary sources to extract evidence.

The researcher employed the survey and action research strategies. According to Igbokwe (2009), action research goes a step further than case studies; hence they are treated as subsets of the action research strategy. Action research is a form of applied research where the researcher attempts to develop solutions that are of practical value to the people with whom the research is working. On the other hand, surveys enabled the researcher to obtain data about practices or views through structured and semi-structured questionnaires. The key weakness of a survey is that it is very difficult to realise insights relating to the causes involved in the phenomena measured. This problem was overcome by adding the action research strategy.

5.6 Research choices and time horizon

O’Gorman and MacIntosh (2015) opined that the assumptions about reality determine the choices and the time horizon. Research choices that can be applied to processes include the mono method,

mixed methods and the multi-method. If the researcher chooses to collect quantitative or qualitative data only; the research choice applied is the mono method. The multi-method of research uses two research strategies to collect the same type of data, for example, questionnaires and interviews to collect quantitative data. The other choice that can be applied is the mixed method and it encompasses two research strategies to collect both quantitative and qualitative data. For the purposes of this research, the mixed method research choice was adopted. Structured questionnaires were used to collect quantitative data and additional in-depth interviews were used to collect qualitative data which was mainly used to recommend the best leadership style to Umkhanyakude District Municipality. Due to the constraints relating to time and resources, a cross-sectional study was opted for. A representative sample was carefully chosen to ensure credibility and validity of the findings.

5.7 Study population

A research population is a well-defined collection of individuals or objects known to have similar characteristics. All individuals within a certain population usually have a common binding characteristic or trait. In this proposed study, the objects of the study are all 385 employees making up the staff of Umkhanyakude District Municipality. For the purposes of this research managers at all levels are categorised as employees.

5.8 Sampling techniques

The sample is a subset of the individuals in a population that there is typically data available for individuals in sample (Hanlon & Larget, 2011). A sample is chosen on the basis that it is a representative sample of the population as a whole, that is, that the sample's main characteristics are similar or identical to the chosen of population (Gray, 2009). Brynard and Hanekom (2006) define sampling as an ideal technique used to select a small group of individuals or cases with a whole view to determine the characteristics of the entire population. The sampling techniques that are available in a research study are divided into two types namely: probability (or representative) sampling and non-probability sampling (Babbie, 2009).

5.8.1 Probability (representative) Sampling

Probability (representative) sampling is associated most commonly with survey research strategies where inferences about the population are used to answer research questions and meet research

objectives (Saunders et al., 2016). Saunders et al. (2012) stated that utilising the likelihood inspecting procedure, the probability or prospect of each unit to be chosen is known and liable to be uniform for all items. Marees (2011) asserted this as objective mechanism in a research selection procedure which prevents biasness and enable representability of the population. There are three commonly used types of random sampling design (or methods): simple random sampling, stratified random sampling and cluster random sampling (Kumar, 2014). Maree (2011) added up one more probability sampling method, which is systematic sampling.

Simple Random Sampling - Simple random sampling is a commonly used method of selecting a probability sample and the best method for quantitative research. Based on the strict definition of randomisation, each element in the population is given equal and fair chances of selection (Kumar, 2014). Strydom (2010) agrees that in this situation each individual case in the population has an equal chance to be selected. Babbie (2009) concurs that in simple random sampling each member in the population has the same probability to be included in the sample.

Stratified Sampling - Kumar (2014) alluded that in stratified sampling the researcher attempts to stratify the population in such a way that the population within a stratum is homogeneous with respect to the characteristics chosen as the basis of stratification are clearly identifiable in the study population. Maree (2011) agrees that in this sampling technique, population is randomly or systematically subdivided into small groups based on homogeneity.

Cluster Sampling - Cluster sampling refers on the ability of the researcher to divide the sampling population into groups (based upon visible or easily identifiable characteristics), called clusters, and then to select elements within each cluster, using the Simple Random Sampling (SRS) technique (Kumar, 2014). Cluster sampling is almost the same as stratified sampling in the name of subdividing the target population into groups, cluster and or strata (Saunders et al., 2016). Maree (2011) delineate on what differs this sampling method from stratified sampling is that the cluster itself is a sample unit instead within.

Systematic Sampling - This type of sampling is mostly effective in an unknown population size since it sets the sampling interval and chooses the sampling based on that regular interval (Maree, 2011). Strydom (2010) agrees that it is within the researcher audacity to set the counting parameters as in the case of an alphabetical list (5, 10, 15, 20 and so on).

5.8.2 Non-Probability Sampling

Kumar (2014) state that non-probability (or non-random) sampling designs do not follow the theory of probability in the choice of elements from the sampling population and these designs are used when either the number of elements in the population is known or elements cannot be individually identified. Non-random sampling provides a range of alternative techniques to select sample (Saunders et al., 2016). Sekaran and Bougie (2016) assert that in non-probability sampling designs, it becomes difficult to assure that elements in the population have equal probabilities associated to their being included in the sample. This translates that the overall findings from the study cannot be confidently generalized to the entire population. Kumar (2014) state that there are six commonly used non-random sampling designs in qualitative research. These include:

Quota Sampling - Sekaran and Bougie (2016) state that quota sampling can be regarded a form of proportionate stratified sampling, in which a sample can be chosen on certain proportion of people from different groups. Du Plooy (2009) argues that quota sampling is similar to accidental sampling; the only difference is that ensuring diverse elements of the population are included in the sample subject take steps. Generalisation of the overall findings is limited due to lack of totality in sample representatives of the population (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016).

Accidental Sampling - Du Plooy (2009) state that the sampling method refers to simply select elements of the population that are at hand until they reach the designated size. This means that the sampling techniques adopted first come first serve approach. Generalisability is doubtful to the entire population based on the lack of reasonable representativeness.

Convenience Sampling - Convenience sampling refers to data collection from predetermined members of the population who are conveniently wishing to volunteer it (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). The findings from this sampling technique cannot be confidently generalised at all since it heavily recognises the imminent information obtained from volunteered opinion poll about the feel of any phenomenon of interest (Sekaran, 2007). This type of sampling technique is often used and most appropriate in short term study or projects.

Judgemental or Purposive Sampling - This sampling technique is limited to the homogenous elements of the populations who are predetermined to provide the most desired information and the main criterion is knowledge base (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). Leedy and Ormrod (2010) state

that judgmental sampling is often used in qualitative research where the sample and population are very small. Kumar (2014) argue that this sampling strategy is often used in qualitative research but when it is chosen to be used in quantitative research selection of predetermined elements in the population to provide best information required about the phenomenon of the study is fundamental. Generalisability is questionable since the findings cannot be generalised to the entire population.

Expert Sampling - In expert sampling, participants must be selected based on the degree of knowledge or experts in the research field of interest (Kumar, 2014). This type of sampling technique is often used in qualitative research.

Snowball Sampling - This type of sampling method is mostly used in qualitative study. Greens (2008) state that pre-defining population can be very difficult mainly because of the nature of the study. The elements of the population can be referral from one group of people to another on convenience basis (Saunders et al., 2007). Due to lack of reliability and validity (interchangeably called credibility and trustworthiness) which emanates from an important drawback, researchers are advised to limit the use of non-probability sample as far as possible (Maree, 2011).

5.8.3 Rationale on the Sampling Strategy

The study adopted simple random sampling and convenience sampling. The researcher supported the view by Sekaran (2007) stating that since representativeness of sampling is critical for the study; simple random sampling is highly recommended to be used in testing the variables that affect the entire company. The main reason for the decision is that representatives have to be generalised to the entire population and in this case the company. Based on Sekaran (2007) the study used simple random sampling as it is relevant in answering research questions and achieving research objectives in an unbiased, indiscriminatory way and instead gives the employees of Umkhanyakude District Municipality an equal chance to be selected. The participants were taken from each of the cost centres of Umkhanyakude District Municipality. The cost centres are Managerial (29 employees), Community and Social Services (34 employees), Finance and Administration (95 employees), Water positions (211 employees), and other positions (11 employees).

The participants selected were used for both the quantitative and the qualitative data collection. However qualitative data was collected from a much smaller sample. Convenience sampling was used to collect qualitative data. Participants' selection was based on their ability to supply responses that would assist to make an inference about the subject being explored; hence some degree of expert judgement had to be exercised.

5.9 Sample size

The sample is a subset of the individuals in a population (Hanlon & Larget, 2011). A sample is chosen on the basis that it is representative of the population, that is, that the sample's main characteristics are similar or identical to the chosen of population (Gray, 2009). Brynard and Hanekom (2006) define sampling as an ideal technique used to select a small group of individuals or cases with a whole view to determine the characteristics of the entire population. The sampling techniques that are available in research are divided in two types namely: probability (or representative) sampling and non-probability sampling (Babbie, 2009). Both probability and non-probability samples were used in this research to obtain quantitative and qualitative data respectively. Mertens (2014) suggest that depending on the objective of the research, a random sampling needs to be selected by the researcher to allow collection of quantitative data from the respondents. In this research, for the quantitative aspect, simple random probability sampling was chosen.

The sample size for quantitative data was calculated using the De Vaus's formula:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Where, n = *Sample size to be estimated*

N = *total number of elements in the population*

e = *denote the level of precision(5% error point)*

1 = *designate the probability of the event occurring*

Quantification:

$$n = \frac{385}{1 + 385 (0.05)^2}$$

$$n = \frac{385}{1.95}$$

$$n = 196$$

A convenience sampling method was used to determine the sample size for qualitative data collection. Ten participants were chosen on the basis of accessibility. This method of sampling was chosen because of its simplicity as well as to make sure that the respondents chosen had the capacity to complete the semi-structured questionnaires with little or no assistance from the researcher.

Radhakrishnan (2014) posits that there are no specific criteria for determining sample size in qualitative research, as this is dependent on the nature of the enquiry and quality of the informants. Taylor (2014) suggests a non-probable sampling strategy for qualitative data collection so as to obtain “information rich” insights on a particular research topic. The sample size for the qualitative aspect of research was calculated as 5% of the sample for quantitative data, which was 10.

5.10 Data collection instruments

Data collection is the process by which data is collected so as to provide answers to the research questions, test hypothesis or evaluate outcomes (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). Two distinct data collection methods were used. Quantitative data was collected through a structured questionnaire. A survey questionnaire was used as the data collection instrument. The questionnaire had a set of predetermined responses for the research participants to choose from. The responses were based on the Likert scale. For quantitative data collection, the questionnaire was handed to each research participant to complete and return to the researcher after completion.

Qualitative data was collected via semi-structured questionnaires and research participants had the opportunity to write as much detail which they deemed sufficient; large gaps were left between successive question and rich insights were gathered. The researcher was able to extract detailed information from the participants, including perceptions, personal feelings, experiences and opinions. The interviews were semi-structured to ensure comparability to the data from the quantitative aspect of the research. However, the interview questions were open ended so as to

pursue responses in more detail. This allowed for discovery of more information regarding the research phenomenon.

5.11 The pilot study

The researcher conducted a pilot study prior to the planned study; and distributed 30 quantitative instruments and 2 qualitative instruments. These allowed the testing of questionnaires and identify any probable issues that might impact negatively on the final survey result. Moreover, the pilot study also highlighted the areas, where participants were willing and not willing to answer the questions regarding leadership styles in the organisation. The questionnaire was pretested before using it for the final data collection. Pretesting enabled the researcher to determine the clarity of the questionnaire in terms of format, wording, and order. Pretesting revealed shortcomings of the questionnaire as a result of misinterpretations, ambiguity, inability to answer questions, and sensitive questions. The questionnaire was pretested on a small number of employees who were not part of the sample selected. The questionnaire was pretested on a total of 30 participants who are not part of the sample selected. Some of the questions which had confusing jargon words were adjusted to simpler terms.

Perneger et al. (2015) suggested that small samples of between 5 and 10 participants commonly used in pretesting of questionnaires may fail to uncover even ordinary problems. In view of this technical frailty, Perneger et al. (2015) advocate for a default sample size of 30 participants. Veal (2017) asserts that results of a pilot survey allow for the revision of survey questions and resolving of issues before the effective execution of the large-scale survey.

5.12 Validity and reliability

Validity refers to how well a test measures what it purports to measure. Validity measurements include content validity, criterion validity, and construct validity. Validity is critical because it measures the accuracy of results within a study and the extent to which assumptions, correlations and relationships from data could be made. Evidence can therefore not be reliable if it has poor validity. The researcher ensured validity by selecting an appropriate time scale for the study, choosing an appropriate research methodology and suitable sample, as well as taking into account ethical considerations during the research. Additional strategies that ensured validity included respondent validation, keeping a proper audit trail of documents used in the research and

triangulation. Kumar (2014) asserts validity as models that are used to measure how able the research instrument to measure what it sought to measure. Saunders et al. (2016) state that the first criterion to measure the validity of the research instrument is through the appreciations of four concepts includes construct validity, content validity and criterion-related validity.

Face Validity - The study measured face validity by ensuring that there is a logical link and alignment with research objectives and literature review (Bordens & Abbott, 2011). The research confirmed face validity on the research instrument by seeking relevancy to other leadership researchers and through pre-testing the instrument.

Construct Validity - Refers to the extent to which a set of questions (known individually as scale items) actually measures the presence of the construct intended to measure (Saunders et al., 2016). Babbie (2009) agrees that the research instrument must measure the variables which sought to measure. In this study construct validity was ensured by aligning all questions with objectives and measurement error avoided by testing the instrument through conducting pilot study.

Content Validity - Refers to the scope of questions contained by the instrument that cover the entire investigation of the study. (Saunders et al., 2016). The study judged the adequate coverage through careful definition of the research through the literature review and the expert suggestions about the instrument content were highly appreciated to confirm validity.

Criterion-related Validity - The term interchangeably called predictive validity, is concerned with the ability of the measures (questions) to make accurate predictions (Saunders et al., 2016). The research confirmed predictive validity by analysing the pre-testing responses.

Internal Validity - The internal validity is accomplished when the investigation believably demonstrates the relationship between variables (Saunders et al., 2016). In relation to questionnaires refers to the ability of the questionnaire to measure what it intends to measure. Internal validity is interchangeably called measurement validity (Saunders et al., 2016). The research optimised internal validity by using understandable language in the instrument, covering the characteristics and casual relationship between variables which guaranteed the relevancy in researching what the study intended to measure.

External Validity - Refers to the philosophical model and/or approach employed in the investigation of the phenomenon which is relevant and does not violate the principle in achieving what it intends to achieve (Saunders et al., 2012). The research confirmed the external validity

through screening preliminary data, sampled above the sampling size (the bigger the better) to establish the believability of generalisation to the entire population.

The researcher upheld the highest standards of scientific research to ensure that the research results are valid. Reliability is the degree to which an assessment tool produces stable and consistent results if measurement is repeatedly performed under the same conditions and variables. The importance of reliability stems from the fact that, in the absence of reliability within a research study and without the methods of testing reliability, it can therefore not be determined whether the research that was carried out constitutes evidence to suggest hypothesis of experiments have been found significant. This is because with different results of data, it is impossible to find trends, correlations, and patterns in the research to suggest that findings are scientific evidence. The researcher ensured reliability by pre-testing the research instrument and using Cronbach's Alpha coefficient test, as well as providing a consistent environment for research participants (qualitative aspect).

Reliability refers to consistency and repeatability over time (Greener, 2008). A reliable study should have the same results if someone else repeats what has been done (Holbert & Speece, 1993). The questionnaire was tested before it was distributed to the rest of the respondents. A sample of questionnaires was given out to the respondents, and they were interviewed about the clarity of the questions as well as the ambiguity in order to refine the questionnaires. This exercise provided assurances of reliable responses because questionnaires were then refined to be as clear as possible on the perspective of respondents.

Saunders (2000) defines validity as the degree to which measurement measures what it is supposed to measure whilst reliability is the degree to which measures are free from random error and therefore provide consistent data. It is the assurance that the instruments used in the study tested what the researcher claimed they were going to test. The collected information would be useless if not accurate, relevant and did not pertain to the topic that is being studied. Hence the questionnaires were designed beyond any reasonable doubt to show the correlation between integrative leadership and the level of employee engagement.

5.13 Elimination of bias

Krishna et al. (2010) defines bias as a systematic error that causes incorrect inference and deform the precise process. Biasness threatens the reliability of the study findings and evidence collected. Kothari (2007) mentioned two types of bias: systematic bias and random bias. The study mitigated these errors through the following:

Questionnaire instrument - Personally administered questionnaire was used to reduce respondents' biasness since all the elements in the population have equal probabilities to be included in the sample subject.

Random sampling - The quantitative aspect of this research used probability sampling to ensure that representativeness can be generalised to the entire population which is contrary to biasness. The study used statistical analysis to determine and address random errors, for example, the calculation of the study sample using De Vaus' formula.

Pilot study - This pragmatism research conducted a pre-testing (or pilot) study to the population that have similar characteristics of the actual study population (sample subject) to eliminate clarification and interpretation of questionnaire biasness.

Triangulation - The study adopted multiple approaches in testing the theories, critically arguing and criticising the previous authors to eliminate leading questions and biasness.

5.14 Analysis of data

Data analysis is the process of examining, categorising and tabulating or otherwise recombining the collected data (Yin, 2003). For the purpose of this study, data was analysed by using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Science) and nVivo 11. The process of data analysis is composed of data reduction, data display and drawing and lastly, verifying conclusions. Data reduction includes summarising and simplifying the data collected whereas data display involves organising and assembling selected data into diagrammatic or visual displays. Primary qualitative and quantitative data analysis was conducted by the researcher based on the statistical data obtained from the Likert Scale and interview transcripts respectively. Quantitative data was analysed using the SPSS (Version 26) and the necessary statistical tests were conducted. Qualitative data was analysed using nVivo (Version 11).

5.15 Ethical considerations

A number of ethical issues were considered. The researcher obtained permission to carry out the study from higher management of Umkhanyakude District Municipality.

The researcher ensured that there was informed consent. This entailed explaining to the research participants what was expected of them to do before they take part in the research. The participants were requested to sign a consent form. No pressure was exerted on individuals to participate. Participation was done voluntarily, and as a consequence no incentives were provided for such participation. The individual autonomy was respected. The participants were informed that they were free to withdraw from the study at any given time without giving any reasons for doing so. The researcher avoided causing harm to the research participants. This was ensured by distributing self-administered questionnaires to the participants. Anonymity and confidentiality were preserved throughout the research process.

Anonymity for research participants is an integral part of an ethical research. Since the introduction of the Protection of Personal Information (PoPI) Act 2013 (Protection of Personal Information Act 4 of 2013, 2013), anonymity ceased to be just a matter of professional ethics, but a matter fraught with legal consequences. The researcher observed the dictates of the Act in terms of participant consent to research, use of information, safeguarding of information obtained, and safeguarding the identity of the participants. The anonymity of the research participants was expressly guaranteed in writing. The individual responses were not linked to participant identities. Confidentiality relates to the protection of the data collected. Confidentiality proved important in cultivating trust and rapport with research participants.

It was also important to maintain confidentiality so as to uphold ethical standards and the integrity of the research process (Baez, 2007). The researcher necessitated confidentiality by ensuring that the identity of the research participants was not revealed throughout the research process. Only the researcher was able to identify the responses of individual research subjects. Confidentiality of research data was also preserved through physical and technical safeguards. All hard copies of research data were locked away in a cabinet to restrict unauthorised access. Digital data on the researcher's computer had to be protected by passwords to protect the data from unauthorised

access. Research design safeguards included anonymisation of data, timeous transcription and coding of data.

In this study, an oath of secrecy was signed by both the researcher and Umkhanyakude District Municipality as a binding tool for ethical code practice. The ethics code partly placed a duty to the researcher to ensure that the right of selected participants is protected, process be conducted in a dignified manner and individual data source not be locatable. Such concerns included no harm befalling the participants, respecting their privacy, treating participants as individuals, and not subjecting participants to unnecessary research (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). Sekaran (2007) posits that since primary data was obtained through distributing the research instrument to the randomly selected respondents, the cognitive access, individual consent, right of protection and constitutional right are fundamentally mandatory. The researcher prioritised the adherence to the ethical principles and the following ethical rational were ensured to all participants who took part to the study.

Respecting Privacy - Driscoll and Brizee (2012) state that maintaining privacy of all volunteered information is fundamental to adhere to ethical principle. The study used consent in assuring privacy to the participants. Therefore, the adherence to the supreme code of ethics was extremely guaranteed.

Anonymity and Confidentiality – the biographical data section in the research instrument was designed in a form that guarantees anonymity and the source of response is not locatable or identifiable (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). The study guaranteed the safe keeping of primary data and post processing data paper shredder was used to destroy all research instrument collected. The exercise guaranteed non-violation of anonymity and confidentiality.

Informed Consent - The study used informed consent document to disclose all sufficient information to all participants to the study to wage reliability and enabling reasonability in deciding to participate or not (Saunders et al., 2016; Saunders & Tiwari, 2014). The study guaranteed the adherence to the supreme law of the land, the constitution, by ensuring that consent document be interpreted at no cost in the language that participant understand better (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). The study utilised informed consent as a strategy to mitigate limitation by means of waging cognitive access to selected participants.

Fair Treatment - Strydom et al. (2015) explains that participating in the study is voluntarily and must be maintained. In the present study, coercive act was not committed as it is not only violating the ethics but also harms the reliability of the study. The rights of the employees of Umkhanyakude District Municipality (participants of this study) included honesty, respect, non-discrimination (on the basis of race, gender, colour, and so on) and procedurally fair conduct was upheld (Gray et al., 2017).

Obtain Permission - The research formally applied to conduct the study of evaluating the effects of leadership style on employee engagement in Umkhanyakude District Municipality. The permission was then obtained from the higher level of the company as the gate keeping letter. The study further adhered to the agreement that upon completion of the research project, a copy be made available to the organisation.

5.16 Chapter Summary

This chapter developed the basis upon which the research problem was evaluated. It addressed the aspects of research design, population sampling and data sources for both primary and secondary data. Due to the numerous debates associated with the assumptions on research methodology, the researcher used the research onion model by Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) so as to enable discussion of different assumptions in terms of layers. The researcher supported the pragmatist view that a study should employ any method that guarantees the solving of the problem at hand. The purpose of the study was descriptive and explanatory, and the survey and action research strategies were employed. A cross-sectional study was opted for because of time and resource constraints. The study population of 196 participants was calculated using De Vaus' formulae and the participants were selected using simple random sampling from the sampling frame of 385 employees. The managers at different levels of authority were treated as employees, hence were interviewed. The next chapter focuses on the findings and analysis of the research that was conducted with the employees at Umkhanyakude District Municipality, and these were randomly chosen.

Chapter 6 : Results And Analysis

This section presents the results of both the quantitative and qualitative studies.

6.1 Quantitative Results

The quantitative results consist of the demographics, the findings of the dominant leadership styles, the levels of employee engagement as well as the consequences of the leadership styles on the employee engagement. A total of 194 participants contributed their responses to the quantitative study.

6.1.1 Demographics

Figure 6-1 shows the demographic profile of the participants. Most participants, 37.6% (n=73) of them, were aged between 30-39 years old, followed by those in the 20-29 years age group at 33.5% (n=65). Majority of them, 54.6% (n=106), were males and almost all the participants 99.5% (n=193) were African. The results also showed that 50% (n=96) of the participants had a diploma as their highest level of education. This was followed by a considerable proportion 27.3% (n=53) with a degree. It turned out that a significant proportion 80.9% (n=157) was employed as general staff workers. The second most occupational group consisted of first-line supervisors who had a share of 17.0% (n=33) among the participants. The results further revealed that 55.2% (n=107) of the participants have been working for 1-5 years and a third (n=57) have 6-10 years of working experience.

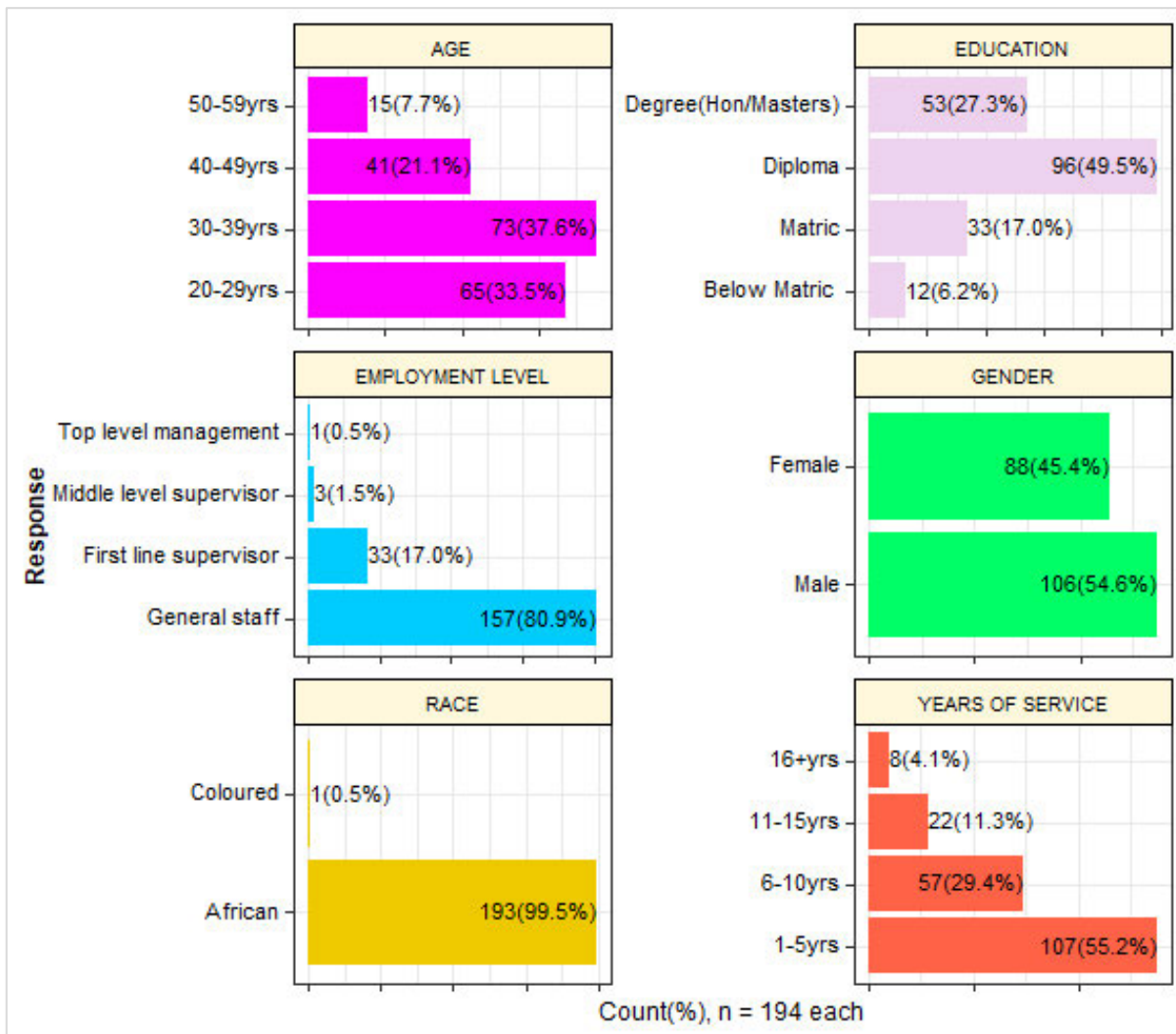


Figure 6-1: Demographic profile of the participants

6.1.2 The dominant leadership styles

Of the eight metrics used for assessing the dominant leadership styles, the most dominant one was pertaining to the decision making where 67.0% of the participants indicated that their leaders were making all the decisions (refer to Figure 6-2). This was followed by the metric that refers to participants being given the opportunity to make all the decisions with little guidance (54.6%). Half of the participants were of the view that their bosses were welcoming of new ideas. About 40-49% of the participants indicated that their supervisors were humble and considerate (49.0%) and that they were being punished for unexpected results (49.0%). Although there was about a third that observed that their supervisors involved them in the decision-making (29.9%), trusted

and encouraged them to bring new ideas (27.8%) and having the desire to be like their bosses (22.7%), there was a considerable proportion (30%-45%) that were neutral on these metrics.

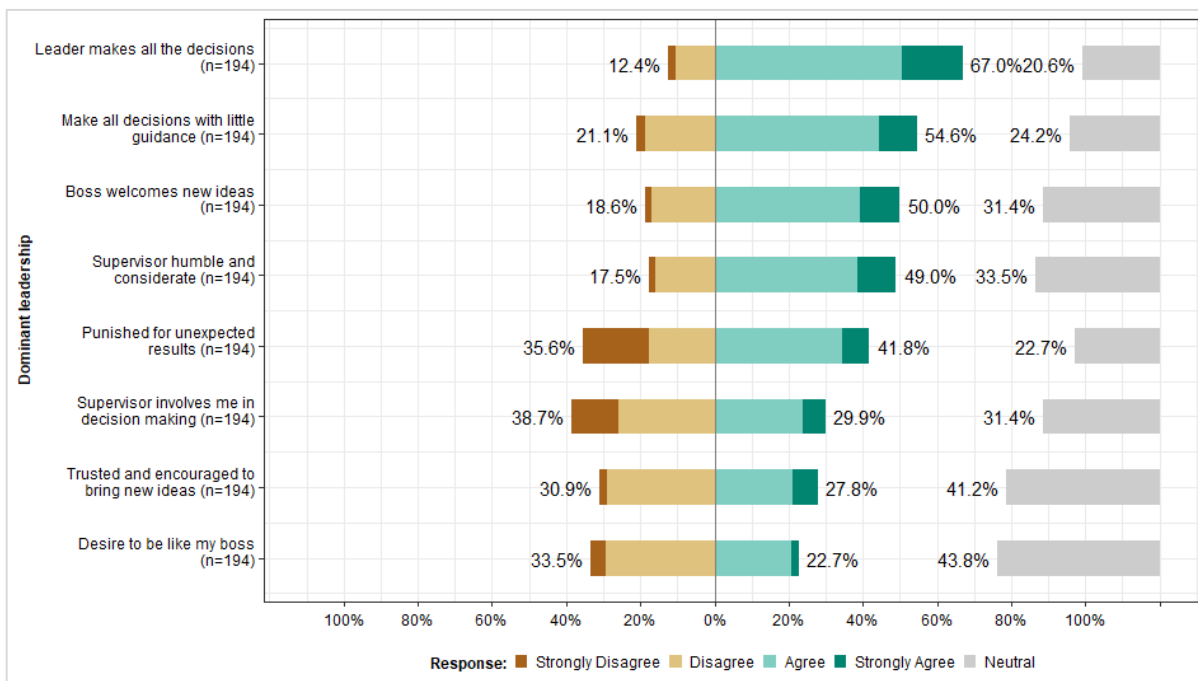


Figure 6-2: Likert plot of dominant leadership styles

The results were also presented in the form a heatmap (refer to Figure 6-3) that helps to identify the responses where most of the participants were concentrated. These areas of concentration can also be interpreted as hotspots of which there were four noticeable ones. The first hotspot consisted of 50.5% of the participants agreeing on the fact that their leaders were making all the decisions. The second largest hotspot had 44.3% of the participants in which they were also in agreement in the idea that they were able to make all the decisions with little guidance. On the contrary, the other two hotspot responses were characterized by participants who were neutral about the desire to be like their bosses (43.8%) and the belief that they were trusted and encouraged to bring new ideas (41.2%). However, the overall responses for all the leadership items suggested that the participants were neutral in general. That is, the mean scores were on average 3.0 which corresponds to the “Neutral” response category.

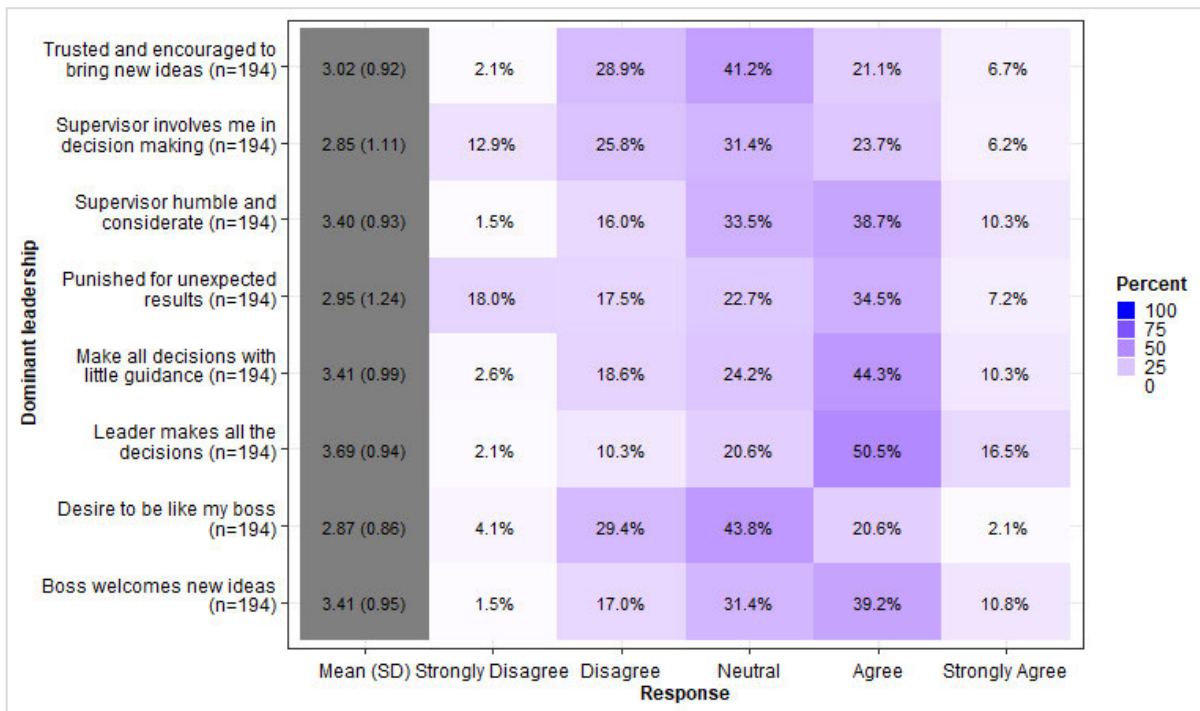


Figure 6-3: Heatmap of dominant leadership styles

The eight metrics were further investigated for their consistence in measuring the leadership styles based on the Cronbach alpha coefficient. It was revealed that only seven were reliably providing information about the internal consistency of the items on the leadership style as shown in Table 6-1. The question formulation also plays a role in the way in which the metrics are assessed for the internal consistency. In the case of negatively constructed questions or having the scale in the opposite direction, the scale is reversed prior to the reliability analysis. Hence, the metrics “Punished for unexpected results” and “Leader makes all the decisions” had their scales reversed to improve the reliability. Despite the scale reversal, the metric “Punished for unexpected results” was found to be incongruent with rest of the metrics and was consequently dropped. A generally acceptable Cronbach alpha should be at least 0.7 and a few of the remaining metrics had individual Cronbach alpha values at a threshold alpha of 0.7 with an overall Cronbach alpha of 0.745 which is above the generally acceptable 0.7. How each metric correlated with rest of the other metrics is represented by the item-rest correlation and a correlation coefficient of at least 0.3 is generally acceptable. The results showed that although the metric “Leader makes all the decisions” had an acceptable Cronbach alpha of 0.797, the item-rest correlation of 0.049 was weak.

Table 6-1: Reliability analysis of items of dominant leadership styles

Items	Item-rest correlation	Alpha
Leader makes all the decisions	0.049	0.797
Supervisor involves me in decision making	0.561	0.689
Make all decisions with little guidance	0.558	0.691
Supervisor humble and considerate	0.631	0.676
Boss welcomes new ideas	0.669	0.666
Trusted and encouraged to bring new ideas	0.407	0.726
Desire to be like my boss	0.396	0.728
Overall	-	0.745
ITEMS DROPPED	ItemsMaxAlpha	OverallAlpha
Punished for unexpected results	0.745202	0.672770
ITEMS SCALE REVERSED	-	-
Leader makes all the decisions		
Punished for unexpected results		

It also became necessary to understand the contribution of the metrics in explaining the variation in the leadership styles. Principal component analysis is one such technique that creates new uncorrelated variables that successively maximize the variance. In general, the principal component analysis aims to reduce the number of variables to a few that can easily help to interpret the information in the observed variables. The items were also assessed using the Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) for their potential to have their variance caused by underlying factors. High values (close to 1.0 and >0.6 are usually acceptable) generally indicate or confirm that the variables are suitable for the variable reduction. As shown in Table 6-2, it was clear that the leadership styles were likely to be explained by fewer variables as evidenced by the MSA values

that were almost 0.6. Most of the variation in the leadership styles was explained by the characteristics of a supervisor as a role model (Component 1). That is, supervisor humbleness, being considerate, employee trust and being desired by subordinates were the major attributes in the explanation of the leadership styles and contributed to 23.42%. The results further revealed that the second most contributing dimension to the leadership styles was about making all the decisions either by the supervisor or the employees and this amounted to 18.09% (Component 2). The employee involvement (Component 3) in the decision-making process captured 14.42% of the information about the leadership styles. Overall, the supervisor role model, making all decisions and employee involvement were the major underlying factors in explaining the dominant leadership styles with a total proportion of variation of 55.94%.

Table 6-2: Principal Component Analysis of the items for dominant leadership styles

	Component 1	Component 2	Component 3	<i>MSA</i>
	(Role model)	(Making all decisions)	(Involvement)	
Leader makes all the decisions	-0.11	-0.67	-0.17	0.56
Supervisor involves me in decision making	-0.05	-0.28	-0.72	0.57
Make all decisions with little guidance	0.07	-0.73	0.04	0.58
Supervisor humble and considerate	0.60	-0.43	0.01	0.61
Boss welcomes new ideas	0.19	0.12	-0.78	0.62

Trusted and encouraged to bring new ideas	0.73	0.05	-0.08	0.60
Desire to be like my boss	0.72	0.10	-0.07	0.61
<i>Proportion of Variance</i>	23.42 %	18.09 %	14.42 %	
<i>Cumulative Proportion</i>	23.42 %	41.52 %	55.94 %	
<i>Cronbach's α</i>	0.47	0.25	0.30	
<i>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin</i>				0.60

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6.1.3 Employee engagement

Figure 6-4 shows that the participants were not satisfied in all the seven metrics used for the assessment of the employee engagement. Only two items were somehow showing a lower proportion of participants expressing disgruntlement. That is, 58.2% of the employees indicated that they were not involved in the decision-making process, followed by the metric about the employees being punished for not achieving the agreed target (57.2%). The other five metrics indicated that the participants vehemently (>85%) showed discontent in the way they were engaged by the leadership. The results revealed that 86.6% of the employees indicated that the leaders were not rewarding them for their performance, not providing resources to the employees (88.1%), not consulting the employees (90.7%), not humble (88.7%) and also not encouraging employees to bring in new ideas (85.6%). The highest proportion of 20.6% was observed for neutral responses regarding the idea of punishment for not achieving the agreed target.

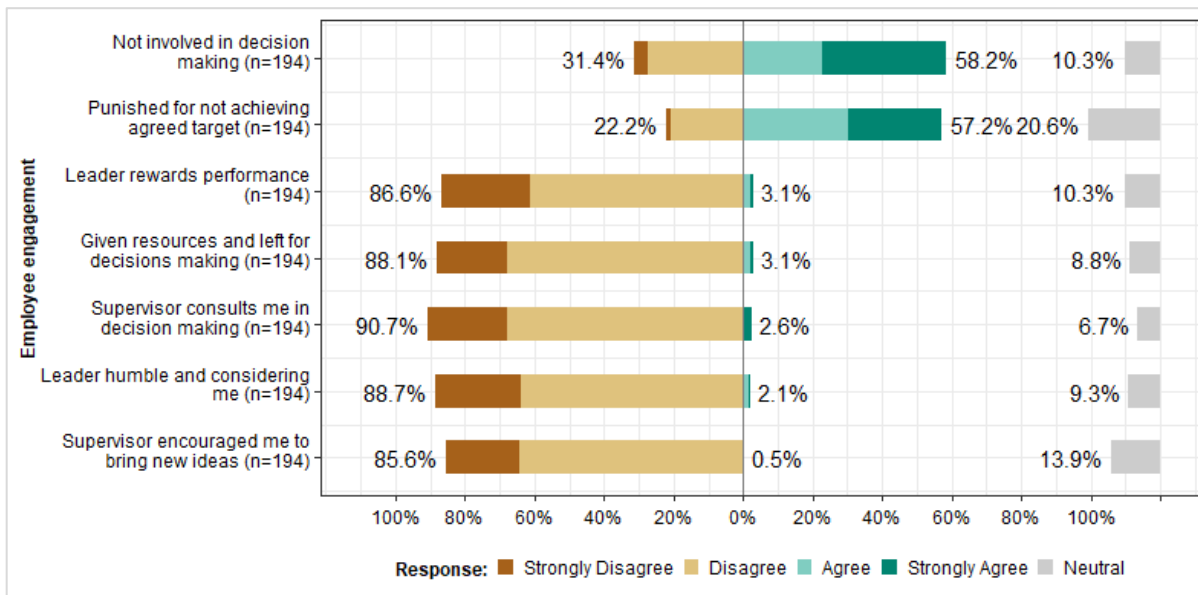


Figure 6-4: Likert plot of employee engagement

The hotspots responses were characterized by strong impressions of at least 60% participants disagreeing in employee engagement (refer to Figure 6-5). The highest concentrations were each 68.04% on the response “Disagree” for the metrics “Supervisor consults me in decision-making” and “Given resources and left for decision-making”. These were followed by also “Disagree” hotspots of sizes 64.43% and 63.92% on “Supervisor encouraged me to bring new ideas” and “Leader humble and considering me”, respectively. It may also suffice to highlight that the statement “Not involved in decision-making” had the largest hotspot “Strongly” when compared to all the other statements that indicated either strong agreement or disagreement. That is, there were 35.57% participants who strongly disagreed about being involved in the decision-making process.

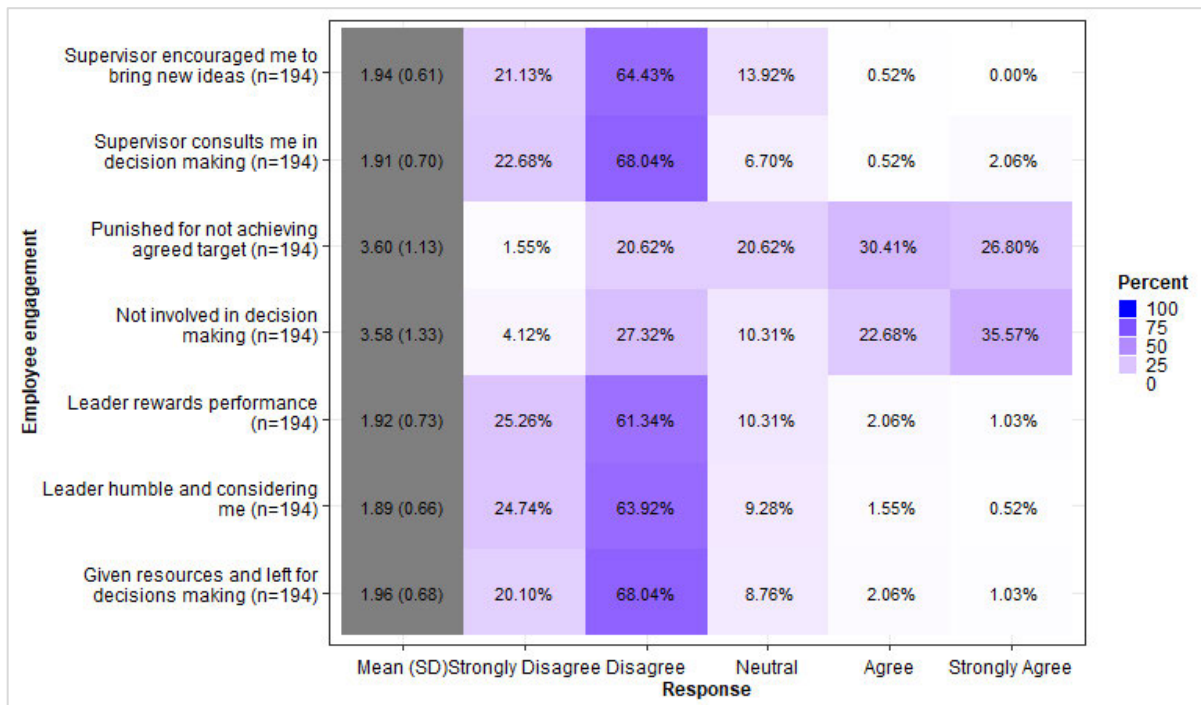


Figure 6-5: Heatmap of employee engagement

The reliability analysis results also echoed that the statement “Not involved in decision-making” was negatively constructed when compared to the rest of the other statements. Table 6-3 shows that the scale was reversed in order to improve the results in the reliability assessment. Despite the scale reversal, the statement “Not involved in decision making” was dropped together with “Punished for not achieving agreed target”. Both were found not to be consistently measuring the same construct, that is, the employee engagement. The remaining five statements had individual Cronbach alpha values of either just above the acceptable 0.7 or being on almost on the threshold 0.7 with the overall coefficient of 0.761. The item-rest correlations were all above 0.3 suggesting that the remaining statements were all highly correlated as expected.

Table 6-3: Reliability analysis of items of employee engagement

Items	Item-rest correlation	Alpha
Supervisor consults me in decision making	0.495	0.731
Given resources and left for decisions making	0.509	0.726
Leader humble and considering me	0.621	0.686
Leader rewards performance	0.583	0.699
Supervisor encouraged me to bring new ideas	0.445	0.746
Overall	-	0.761
ITEMS DROPPED		
	ItemsMaxAlpha	OverallAlpha
Not involved in decision-making	0.682717	0.654237
Punished for not achieving agreed target	0.761477	0.682717
ITEMS SCALE REVERSED		
Not involved in decision making	-	-

An attempt to understand the underlying dimensions on the employee engagement revealed two major factors, that is, the supervisor considerateness and encouragement. It is important to note that the naming of the factors was based on the most influential statement for the factor. For example, Factor 1 (Considerateness) had the statement “Leader humble and considerate of me” with the highest loading of 0.92. Similarly, the factor “Supervisor encouraged me to bring new ideas” had the highest loading of 0.62 for Factor 2 (Encouraging). The reported communality is a measure of an item’s variance that is shared among a set of items and ranges between 0 and 1. The higher the communality of an item, the more it suggests that the factor’s variation is explained by the other items in that factor. This further cements the naming of the dimensions with the statement “Leader humble and considering me” having the highest communality of 0.88 in Factor 1 (Considerateness) and 0.39 for “Supervisor encouraged me to bring new ideas” statement as the highest in Factor 2 (Encouraging).

Table 6-4: Factor analysis of employee engagement

	Factor 1 (Considerateness)	Factor 2 (Encouraging)	<i>Communality</i>
Supervisor consults me in decision making	0.31	0.31	0.19
Provided resources and left for decision-making	0.50	0.20	0.29
Leader humble and considering me	0.92	0.20	0.88
Leader rewards performance	0.22	0.40	0.21
Supervisor encouraged me to bring new ideas	0.11	0.62	0.39
<i>Total Communalities</i>			1.96
<i>Cronbach's α</i>	0.67	0.47	

6.1.4 Employee satisfaction

Ten statements were used to assess the level of employee satisfaction. It is also important to note that the statements were all constructed in a positive manner such that any response in agreement would suggest satisfaction. Table 6-6 shows top-down the statements in which most of the participants agreed. The results showed that the highest proportion 46.4% of the participants were rarely thinking about looking for another company. This was followed by 41.2% that were likely to be working at their companies in the next 2 years. About 25-35% would recommend their company as a great place to work (34.5%), received appropriate recognition for good work

(30.4%), observed their managers role models (28.9%) and that they were proud to work for their company (26.3%). There were four statements in which there were barely 2-20% of the participants that showed elements of satisfaction. That is, only 2.6% of the participants indicated that they always come early to work. This was followed by 9.8% who believed that there are good career opportunities at their firms, 10.8% had access to resources that would enable them to perform their jobs well and about 18% were motivated by the company to increase their effort.

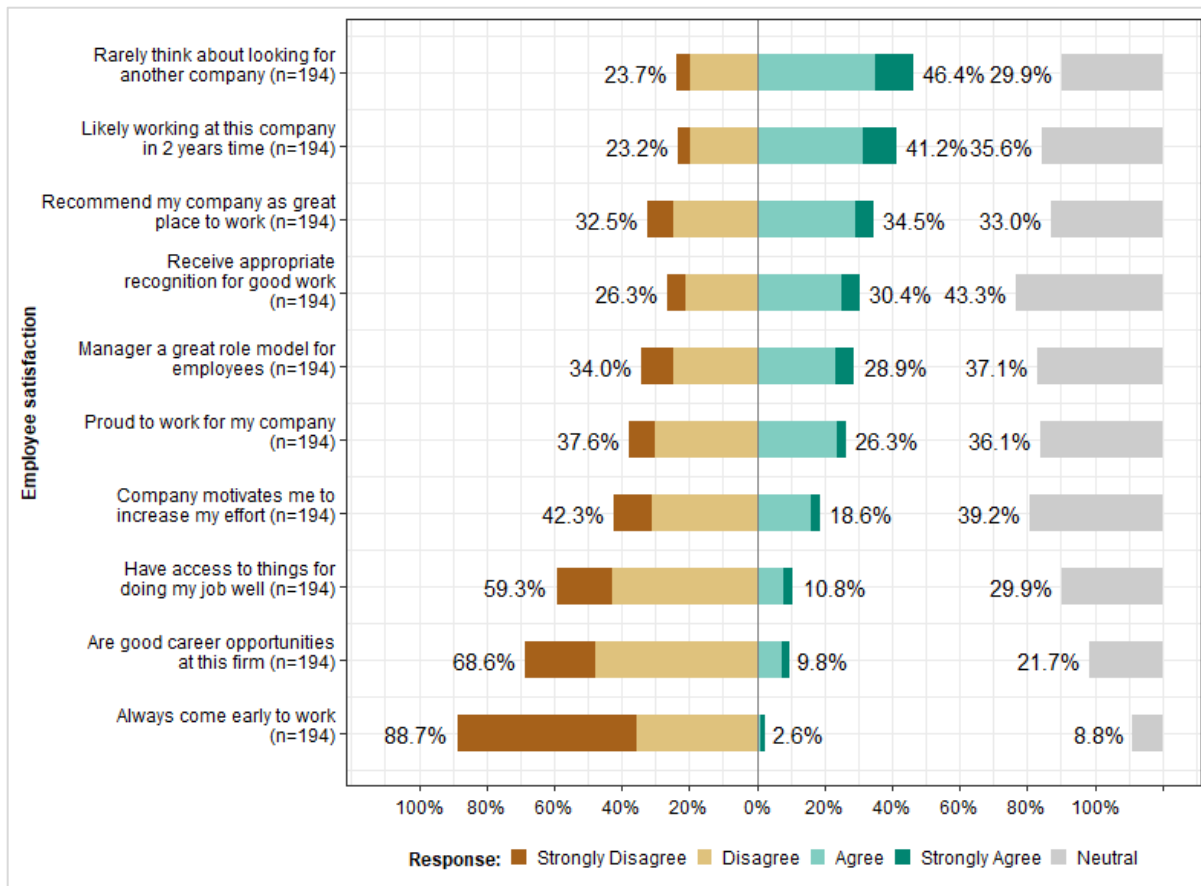


Figure 6-6: Likert plot of items on employee satisfaction

Recalling that the employee satisfaction statements were positively constructed and any agreement to the statements would be as expected, Figure 6-7 showed that most of the hotspots were on the unexpected side. The most noticeable hotspot which constitutes 53.1% was for the statement “Always come early to work” in which the participants responded with a “Strongly Disagree”. The second largest hotspot was 47.9% in which the response “Disagree” dominated on the statement “Are good career opportunities at this firm”. Majority (43.3%) were neutral about the receiving of appropriate recognition for good work. Another concentration of the participants was on the

“Disagree” response in which 42.8% were not happy about being given access to resources that would enable to perform their job well. In general, the participants were neutral in 7 of the 10 employee satisfaction statements. On average, they disagreed on always coming to work early (mean = 1.62), good career opportunities (mean = 2.23) and having access to things for doing their job well (mean = 2.38).

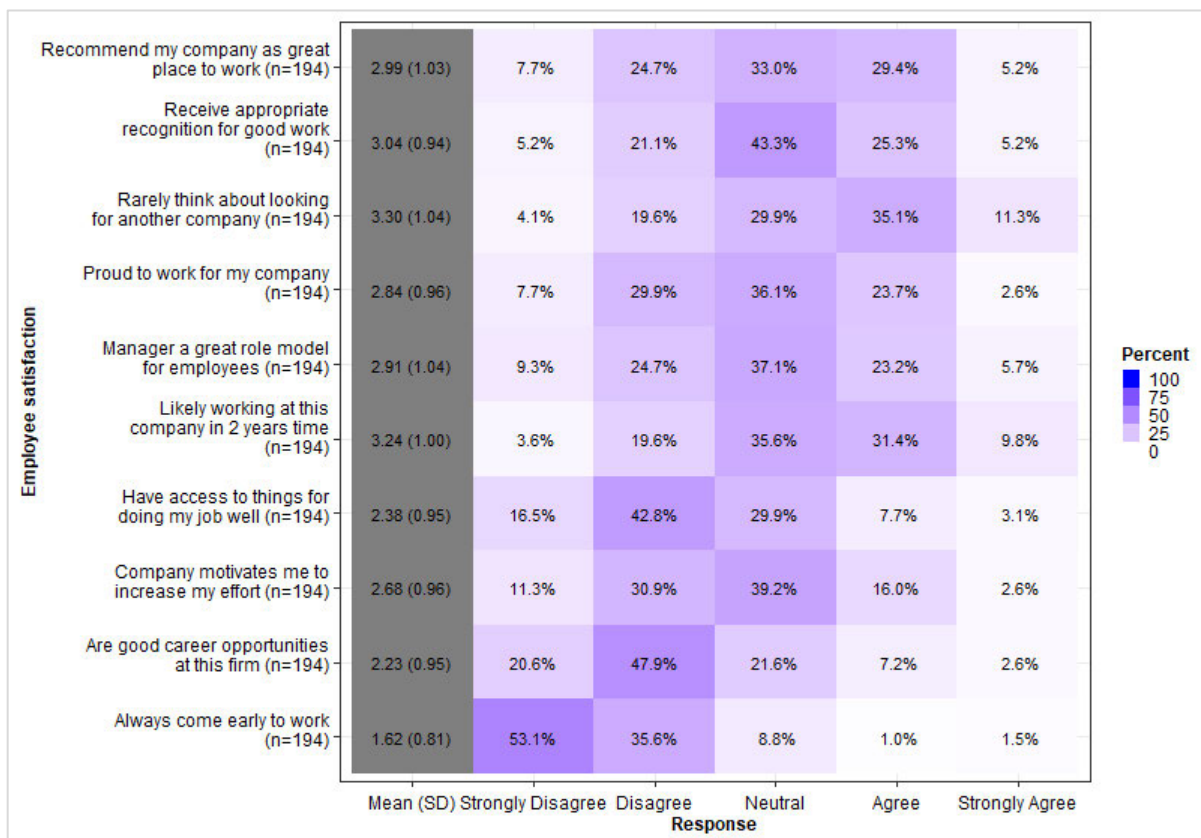


Figure 6-7: Heatmap of items on employee satisfaction

The reliability analysis results echoed the positively constructed questions since there was no factor that was scale reversed. Neither was there any statement that was dropped for showing inconsistency as indicated by the Cronbach alpha values that were almost all 0.7 and the overall of 0.709 (refer to Table 6-5). The statement “Likely working at this company in 2 years’ time” was the only one found not to be highly correlated with the rest of the factors (r=0.151) but, the individual Cronbach alpha was 0.723 and acceptable. The results further revealed that the 10 factors were just one dimension, and no underlying dimensions were realized. Hence, there are no results of either the principal component analysis or factor analysis.

Table 6-5: Reliability analysis of items on employee satisfaction

Items	Item-rest correlation	Alpha
Proud to work for my company	0.337	0.692
Recommend my company as great place to work	0.364	0.688
Rarely think about looking for another company	0.355	0.690
Likely working at this company in 2 years' time	0.151	0.723
Company motivates me to increase my effort	0.435	0.676
Always come early to work	0.223	0.708
Manager a great role model for employees	0.438	0.674
Have access to things for doing my job well	0.517	0.661
Receive appropriate recognition for good work	0.383	0.685
Are good career opportunities at this firm	0.487	0.667
Overall	-	0.709

6.1.5 The consequences of leadership styles on employee engagement

In order to understand the consequences of leadership styles on the employee engagement, the first approach was to understand the correlation among the individual factors from the different constructs (leadership styles, employee engagement and satisfaction). Secondly, the correlation was assessed at the construct level. Lastly, the analysis provided an insight into the effects of both leadership style and employee engagement on the employee satisfaction.

Figure 6-8 is a correlation plot of all the factors that were found to have internal consistency from the three constructs. The green indicates positive correlations whilst the red are negative correlations and the darker the colour the stronger is the correlation. The results showed that there was a strong positive correlation ($r=0.61$) between having access to resources that enable you to perform the job well and the belief that there are good career opportunities. Another strong positive correlation ($r=0.67$) was observed between humble and considerate supervisors with management

welcoming new ideas. The most noticeable negative correlation ($r=-0.51$) was observed between employees making all decisions with little guidance and having access to resources that enable you to perform the job well. This is likely to suggest that working independently requires adequate resources.

weak positive correlation ($r = 0.10$) with the employee engagement. The latent constructs also showed that the leadership styles were mostly influenced by the management welcoming of new ideas (loading = 0.83) and humbleness (loading = 0.76). On the other hand, the employee engagement was dominated by humbleness (loading = 0.74) and the availability of resources (loading = 0.61). Having good career opportunities and access to resources that enable positive work performance were the most common determinants for employee satisfaction, the loadings were 0.69 and 0.68 respectively.

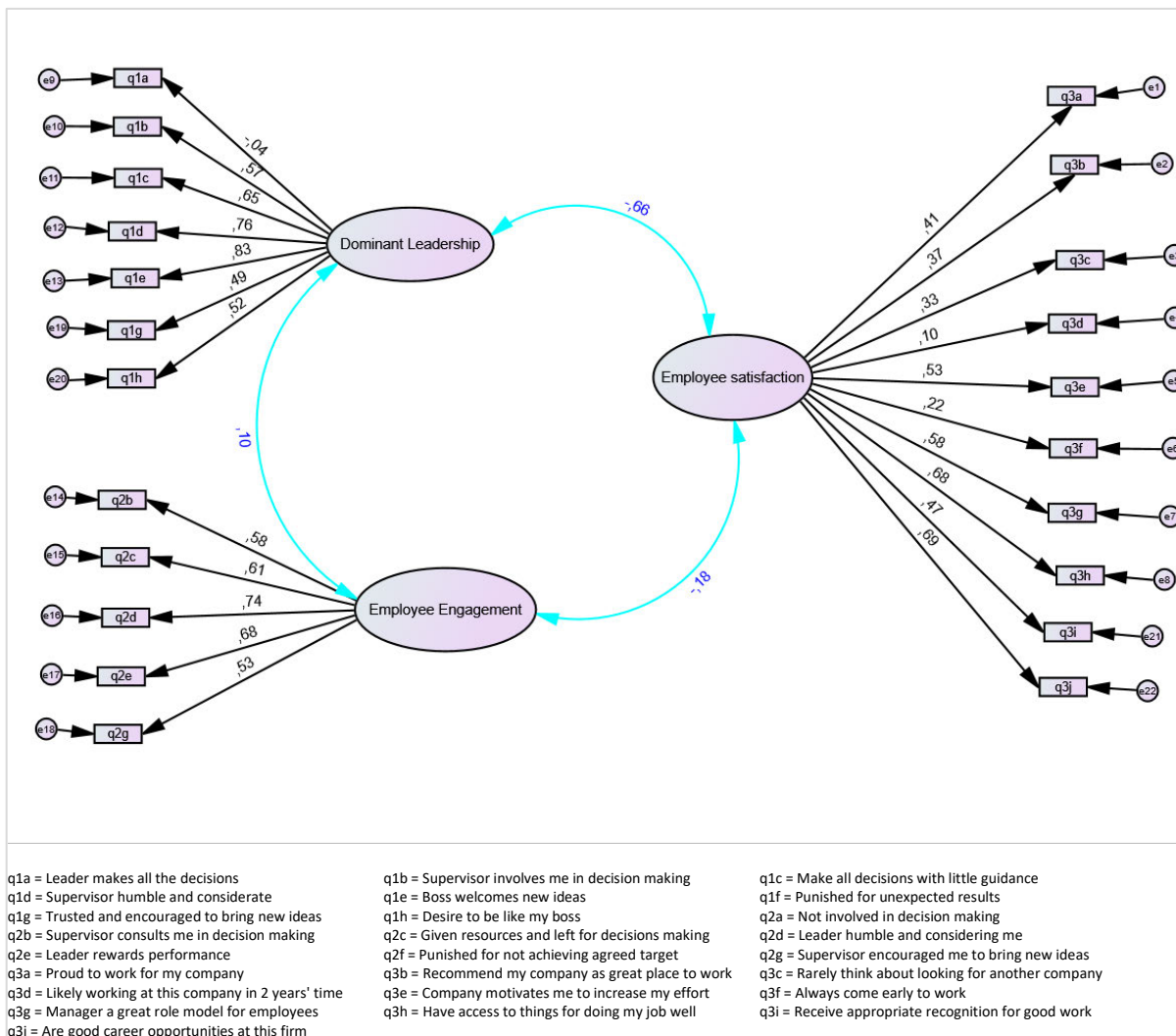


Figure 6-9: The correlation of the leadership dimensions

Composite reliability (CR) is a measure of internal consistency of the constructs and all the three constructs demonstrated the acceptable levels of at least 0.7 (refer to Table 6-6). Convergent validity, coined Average Variance Explained (AVE) determines whether the indicators or items for a particular latent or construct are close to each other as expected. AVE values greater than 0.5 generally shows the existence of the convergent validity. The results showed the employee engagement indicators were much closer to each other (AVE = 0.4), when compared to the dominant leadership (AVE = 0.361) and those of the employee engagement (AVE = 0.225). On the contrary, discriminant validity measures how well the constructs are distinct. That is, discriminant validity attempts to show that measures that should not be related are unrelated. This is determined by comparing the discriminant validity coefficient to the absolute correlations. Higher discriminant validity coefficients than each of the absolute correlations indicates the that the measures that should not be related are not related. On that note, the leadership items were related to the employee satisfaction ones. The selection of the items into the employee satisfaction and engagement was proved to have shown distinct groups as expected (0.474 and 0.632 were above $|-0.180|$). Similarly, the leadership items were distinct from those of the employee engagement ($0.601 > 0.10$).

Table 6-6: Convergent and discriminant validity

	Dominant leadership	Employee satisfaction	Employee engagement
Dominant leadership	-	-	-
Employee satisfaction	-0.660	-	-
Employee engagement	0.100	-0.180	-
CR	0.762	0.712	0.767
Convergent validity	0.361	0.225	0.400
Discriminant validity	0.601	0.474	0.632

Table 6-7 shows the summary statistics of the fitting of the structural equation model. The key model fit indicator is the Root Mean Square Error of approximation (RMSEA) where values below 0.08 are generally good. The results of the model fit were in the acceptable range with the RMSEA ≈ 0.08 as expected.

Table 6-7: The structural equation model fit diagnostics

Parameter	Value
CMIN	487.970
DF	215.000
CMIN/DF	2.270
CFI	0.9725
RMSEA	0.081
AIC	607.970

The influential effects of the leadership and employee engagement are shown in Figure 6-10. It is important to note that the relationships in a structural equation model are complex and that correlation does not imply causality. One more thing to note is that these effects are standardized and usually range between -1 and +1. The closer the weight it is to ± 1 , the higher the magnitude or the more the effect realized with negative values showing negative influence and vice versa. For example, if $X \rightarrow Y$ relationship is explained by $\lambda = 1.0$, it means all the changes in Y are explained by X whilst $\lambda = 0.8$ would mean that the other 0.2 is explained by some other variables, probably not included in the investigation. Hence, the dominant leadership styles were found to have a direct (positive) effect on the employee satisfaction. Recall that in the structural equation model, the constructs are newly created variables, and in this case, a unit increase in the leadership score was found to also result in an increase in the employee satisfaction score by 0.53 units. Similarly, a unit increase in the leadership score corresponded to a 0.7 increase in the employee engagement. In turn, a unit increase in the employee engagement score would result in a 0.76 unit increase in the employee satisfaction. For instance, the results showed that the employee satisfaction was more as a result of their engagement ($\lambda = 0.76$) than due to the leadership style ($\lambda = 0.53$). In addition, the leadership excelled in the employee engagement ($\lambda = 0.7$) rather than directly satisfying them ($\lambda = 0.53$).

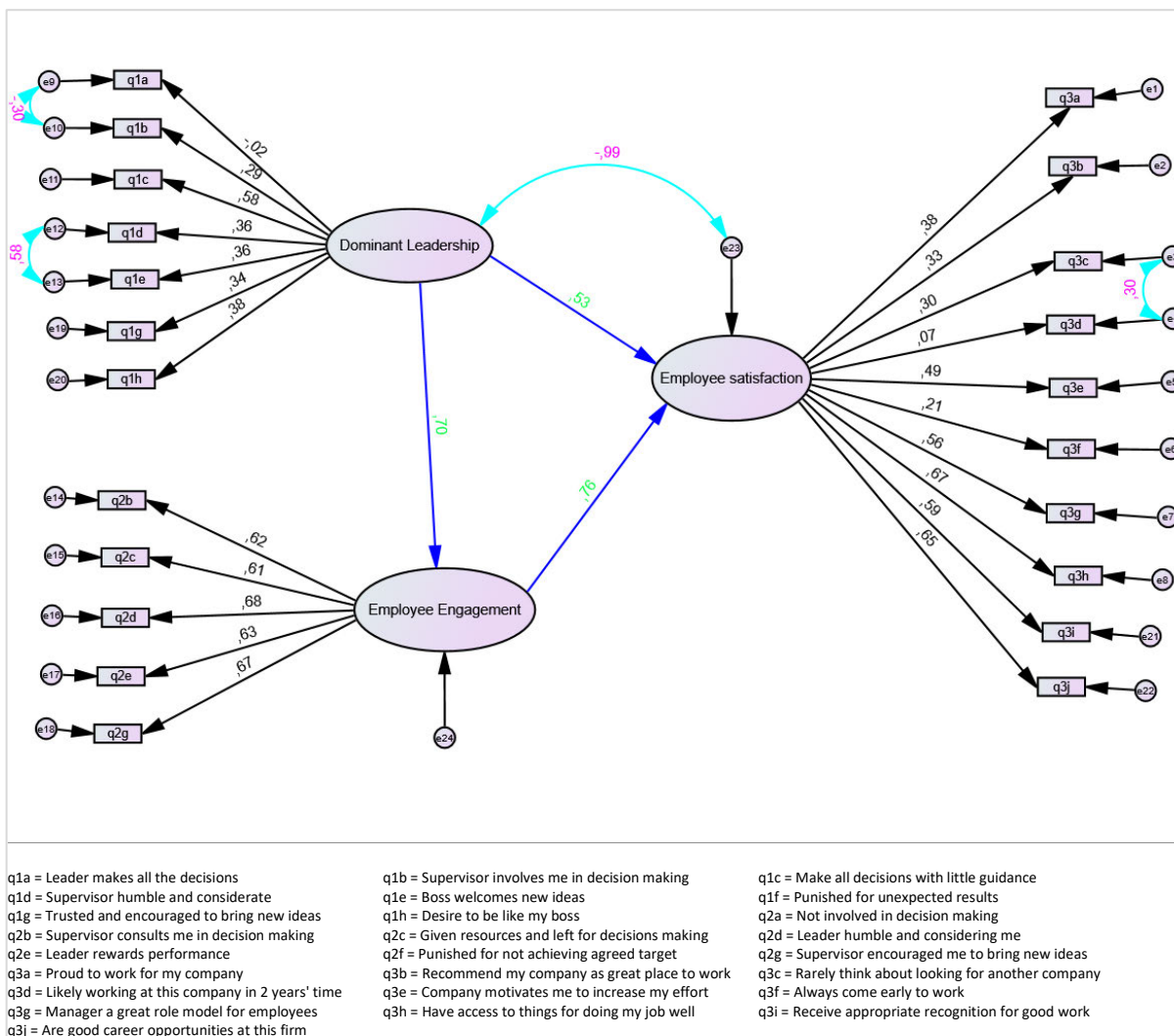


Figure 6-10: The fitted structural equation model

6.2 Qualitative results

This section presents the findings from open-ended questions where the participants were given the opportunity to air their views on the leadership within the municipality.

6.2.1 Please elaborate on the level of satisfaction you have on the leadership style in your organisation?

The satisfaction levels were attributed to the administration, the leadership style and services provided by the municipality. The leadership is said to have failed to deliver basic services and some municipal managers have left. Cited were issues related to the non-cooperation of the

administration as it has been reported that they do not follow rules, regulations and policies. On the other hand, the leadership itself believed that it was putting all the energy, but the efforts were interrupted by politics. In addition, the leadership was realized to be involved in infighting with the leadership styles themselves being questionable and considered ineffective.

Administrative

“At Political Level – Leadership has failed dismally to deliver basic services

Administrative Level – The entire administration is in tatters, more than 15 Municipal Managers leaving the municipality.”

“I will rate the level of satisfaction at 1 because there is no way that they do listen or they do take advices or they do things according to the administrative rules, regulation, policies and everything.”

Leadership

“You apply maybe the five leadership styles, you attach its theories, but you know as life changes every now and then, more especially with the influence of technology, you always feel that I can even do more.”

“In leadership there's always, when you know what are the theories, what are the styles and then you combine that with a common sense because leadership does need a common sense because the employees they keep on changing every now and then but I can say now as I have started to apply what I have been researching in my Master's degree, little by little, I'm becoming satisfied because you could see that, you know, at times we are highly influenced by politics (this is a municipality) whereby the politics sometimes become the order of the day and you just feel that if you do not apply and meet and integrate these leadership styles you may end up not achieving what you intend achieving at the end of the day.”

“Why am I saying it's 65 because all what we do we have to give it to the PMS guys who have to sit down and rate us every now and then then you find that as we carry on implementing these leadership styles, leadership theories, there are also political disturbances every now and then whereby we just have to pause and see as to where is the institution, is the organisation driving to and then you apply some of the styles in a way maybe to curb what the negativity that is occurring.”

“It's an autocratic leadership ...”

Municipal

“And lastly, it's because you know at the municipality level you find that most of the time people were just employed not actually qualifying for their position then that is why the municipal manager...”

Services

Level 3

“Reason: The environment is intolerable and unexplainable, affecting service delivery, notable infighting on both administrative and political components.”

Styles

“...you apply maybe the five leadership styles, you attach its theories, but you know as life changes every now and then, more especially with the influence of technology, you always feel that I can even do more.”

“In leadership there's always, when you know what are the theories, what are the styles and then you combine that with a common sense because leadership does need a common sense because the employees they keep on changing every now and then but I can say now as I have started to apply what I have been researching in my Master's degree, little by little, I'm becoming satisfied because you could see that, you know, at times we are highly influenced by politics (this is a municipality) whereby the politics sometimes become the order of the day and you just feel that if you do not apply and meet and integrate these leadership styles you may end up not achieving what you intend achieving at the end of the day./

6.2.2 How would leadership styles impact employee engagement?

The leadership style and administration were found to be correlated since they are believed to share a common ground. The poor performance has been believed to be attributed to the lack of strategic direction and unacceptable educational levels. This incapability is said to have a negative impact on the staff engagement and was reported to have been also infiltrating down to the employees. The leadership styles were found to be marred by infighting at the top management resulting in the dissatisfaction among the workers. As a result, this has led to the turnover and lack of oversight which consequently affected service delivery. Among other things, favouritism and bias from the leaders was affecting the staff morale. Some elements of bullying were also reported such that the employees were left with no option for personal contribution but rather simply conform to whatever they are instructed to do. On the other hand, this was believed to pave the way for corruption. Some employees were deciding not to be involved in certain positions like Section 56 for the fear of the leadership styles involved.

Administrative

“We need to find each other and find common ground, there is a very strong correlation between appropriate leadership styles and administrative leadership.”

“And I have learned that the best option is to settle for administrator position to the senior manager position, but I would never opt for a section 56 post.”

Direction

“In short, lack of strategic direction from MM and Departmental Heads, poor reporting, the question of educational level of recruits is also notable due to poor performance.”

“In short, there is a direct impact between the leadership style and employee engagement.”

Engagement

“It as total negative impact on staff engagement, the Head (council) seems incapable.”

“In short, there is a direct impact between the leadership style and employee engagement.”

Impact

“The negative impact filters through the employees as well as on their views and perceptions.”

“In short, there is a direct impact between the leadership style and employee engagement.”

“It seriously has a bad impact as a result, right now, most of the workers are dissatisfied about the way things are being runned.”

Leadership

“The type of leadership styles that we experience from the MM to HODs has a negative impact when it comes to the performance of the Municipality.”

“All the package of leadership must be the result of the organisation doing well and unfortunately we are in shambles especially in the area of auditing, the political leadership has questionable oversight, we hope that the next leadership will partner with administration within the organisation.”

“There is an impact on engagement in the sense that when top leadership fights, it negatively affects the rest of staff, leading to turnover, lack of line of sight, affecting service delivery, increases favouritism and bias, leads to more infightings, affects staff morale, affects direction.”

Leadership styles

“The type of leadership styles that we experience from the MM to HODs has a negative impact when it comes to the performance of the Municipality.”

“In short, there is a direct impact between the leadership style and employee engagement.”

“The bullying style leads to employees conforming to what they are told i.e issues of corruption may emanate.”

Management

“Note: infighting on top management impacts staff”

“And I have learned that the best option is to settle for administrator position to the senior manager position, but I would never opt for a section 56 post.”

Position

“And I have learned that the best option is to settle for administrator position to the senior manager position, but I would never opt for a section 56 post.”

Reports

“The type of employees that are recruited are not competent, they struggle to compute simple reports.”

“In short, lack of strategic direction from MM and Departmental Heads, poor reporting, the question of educational level of recruits is also notable due to poor performance.”

Staff

“There is an impact on engagement in the sense that when top leadership fights, it negatively affects the rest of staff, leading to turnover, lack of line of sight, affecting service delivery, increases favouritism and bias, leads to more infightings, affects staff morale, affects direction.”

“Note: infighting on top management impacts staff”

“It as total negative impact on staff engagement, the Head (council) seems incapable.”

6.2.3 In your view, to what extent does leadership increase the level of engagement in the organisation?

The level of engagement was found to increase in the organization if more than one leadership style is applied. The use of the democratic style was cited as the first choice and to some extent the autocratic style. The type of leadership was realized to have a bearing the employee self-esteem which consequently affected their engagement. Political affiliation also emerged to be another contender since those employees supporting certain political organizations were the only ones given the opportunity to engage in certain activities. Despite this, there were reports of either positive or negative effects of the leadership styles involved. However, others were of the view that uprooting politics and replacing it with administrative work was to the benefit of the organization.

Democratic style

“When you are a leader, at times, employing a marginalised autocratic leadership style and blend it with democratic style it may bear fruits.”

“The best choice would be a democratic style with a slight view of autocratic style.”

Esteem

“It affects the quality of work that workers has to do and it also affects the personal esteem of, the self-esteem of workers even thinking that they're in a wrong place where they are not supposed to be which surmount to issues of political organisation.”

“If you are affiliated to a certain political organisation, you are not in favour hence you are not going to be engaged properly in the level of technocrats and also be able to work.”

Side

“I will take it on the negative side then take it on the positive side.”

“On the negative side, as there is no level of engagement, the level of engagement affects the working environment.”

“On the better side or on the positive side, if the engagement was done properly, we have got people that have got a long service here who has got better qualities of work and who has got the knowledge of the work that they are doing.”

Style

“The reports on audit committees are reflecting poor leadership to such an extent that the municipality may fall apart.”

“An effective leadership style can have a positive impact, but the type of employees in place will have to be attended to, examine their potential and skills.”

“When you are a leader, at times, employing a marginalised autocratic leadership style and blend it with democratic style it may bear fruits.”

“The best choice would be a democratic style with a slight view of autocratic style.”

“I pray for democratic leadership style – allows continuity in vision and direction.”

“If there was proper engagement and proper leadership interaction in terms of categorising that politics is out of the workers terrain and workers are there to do the administrative work...”

6.2.4 Please describe your satisfaction regarding the level of engagement in your organisation.

Some level of satisfaction was reported but the participants highlighted the need for capacity building. On the other hand, an army style of leadership was being observed resulting in not much employee engagement. Some put it so clearly that they were not satisfied and were of the view that HR involvement would potentially help to address the issues related to the staff engagement.

Nevertheless, it has been reported that there was room for improvement. Some of the reasons that were found to be linked to the dissatisfaction include poor financial management, meetings not held as frequently as they should be, and suggested solutions not taken into consideration. Although others were new to the organization, and not having been able to rate the level of employee engagement, they could still observe the negative impact of COVID-19 in the employee engagement.

Capacity building

“But we still need capacity building even employees need sharpening.”

“Capacity building, monitoring and evaluation of responsibilities.”

“Meaning: encourage capacity building, monitor deployment, service charter being achieved in line with SDBIP”

Engagement

“There is not much engagement, its operating in an army style.”

“Not satisfied with the level of engagement, I believe the involvement of HR would be critical to address the issue of staff engagement.”

Management

“There is still more room for improvement – the entire organisation is unstable due to e.g poor financial management.”

“Level 2, When Top Management takes decisions, it affects employees.”

“Scenario: We have two municipal managers one acting and one suspended.”

Meetings

“The municipality is under administration, things are not operating as normal, i.e meetings are not held as frequent as possible.”

“I’ll take an example of when we are having team meetings... If one has an idea or solution to a problem or strategy that they want to suggest you will find that it is not taken into consideration.”

Organisation

“As a result, community has lost trust in the whole organisation, seen as failures.”

Staff

“Unfortunately, I’m new in the organisation, COVID too has a negative impact resulting to staff rotation and attendance control – the pandemic is affecting the level of engagement.”

6.2.5 Please describe your satisfaction regarding the role the leaders play in your organisation.

In general, the participants were not satisfied with the roles played by their leadership citing poor governance, non-compliance, and lack of oversight. On this note, they were of the view that bringing skilled councillors would add value. In addition, there were reports of the administration being mixed with politics and the municipality was described as hell under those circumstances. Others looked at both the political and administration separately with the administration performance rated as satisfactory whilst not happy with the political situation. The unhappiness among the employees resulted from the leadership infighting which is also believed to have affected its capability to meet deadlines. Hence, there are many gaps in terms of compliance.

Council

“Not satisfied due to poor governance, council meetings not seating for the past 12 months – attracting non-compliance, lack of oversight.”

“Having skilled councillors may potentially add value (capacity building).”

Leader

“Not satisfied because the moment leaders fail to differentiate between politics and administration roles; if this arrangement is not clearly understood, the municipality becomes hell”

Leadership

“At the same time employees are expected to take sides “you are a sell-out”

Image of the organisation tarnished, divisions sown, dictatorship on decisions, total disengagement between the top leadership and employees.”

“Strong will to eliminate the current leadership and prays for new leadership.”

Political leadership

“In short, I’m not satisfied with the political leadership, administratively yes I am satisfied”

“Administratively, I was happy, but the political leadership leaves a lot to be desired.”

Structure

“In a municipality, your ultimate leader is a political structure (oversight).”

“The municipality went into administration due to the dysfunctional structure, the disagreements led to the malfunction of the organisation.”

Whole institution

“So, if you don't meet your deadlines for the compliance it impacts on the whole institution hence, we have so many gaps when it comes to compliance.”

“You find that the leadership themselves are unable to meet the deadlines because they have their own political in-fighting and cabals which affects the whole institution.”

6.2.6 What do you consider to be the dominant leadership style in your organisation?

The participants revealed different views on the dominant leadership styles with the mentioned ones including the autocratic, transactional, transformational and Laissez faire. Of those that could not pinpoint a dominant leadership style, they were of the view that the Laissez faire, autocratic and democratic should not be separated. In contrast, other employees suggested that the democratic leadership was more common and influenced by the Laissez faire instead.

Autocratic leadership

“Currently - I have witnessed Autocratic Leadership in this organisation by council leadership, not by Administrative.”

Transactional

“Both Senior leadership and council leadership displayed the traits of Transactional Leadership.”

Transformational

“Transformational Leadership was evident from our MM until he was suspended, its not evident currently.”

Mixed

“The situation reflects a type of Laissez Faire type of leadership, there are also characteristics of autocratic and democratic type of leadership styles.”

Laissez Faire

“The situation reflects a type of Laissez Faire type of leadership, there are also characteristics of autocratic and democratic type of leadership styles.”

“There is notable democratic style influenced by Laissez Faire style”

6.2.7 Were there any instances of employee disengagement in your organisation that you can think of?

The mentioned evidence related to the instances of employee engagement include the non-payment of salaries due to council delays, refusal to sign fraudulent documents, community protests and boycotting of meeting attendance. In addition, there were instances of employee unhappiness due to some implementation processes that they felt that they were not done properly.

Council

“Yes, when we were informed of non-payment of salaries due to the delays on council sittings”

“Yes, (example) one of the GMs refused to sign some documents which were somehow fraudulent and after that all the council items from that Department were not discussed for a long time.”

Management

“Yes, at one instance during training, we were at a management workshop and there was a community protest.”

“Yes, Mr Nkosi (Suspended MM) once called a meeting (MANCO) and there were certain Managers refused to attend due to the call made by the Acting MM alerting the invitees that they are advised not to attend the meeting given that Mr Nkosi is suspended.”

Placement process

“Yes, for example, we have a placement process that is taking place, the MM has been democratic but when the actual process commenced – employees felt disengaged due to the nature of implementation.”

“Yes, there was a placement process (Task Grading), employees disengaged because they were disgruntled as a of the said process.”

Demotivated

“From commencement employees were demotivated and the whole process was reversed by the administrator”

Staff members

“Notably some of the staff members joined the protest.”

“I will take for instance the issue of people picketing outside the offices which are staff members.”

6.2.8 Do you think leadership has taken any steps to increase the level of engagement in your organisation? Please substantiate your response.

In general, the reports from the participants suggested that there was no change in the level agreement with others being of the view that the situation was getting worse. Some challenges

mentioned were that people were doing their own things, no oversight, high turnover, low morale, absenteeism, and self-interest activities. Some traits that have been observed to be the contributing factors include authoritarian leadership, own agendas and employees being used as tools for money making. Moreover, there were major concerns about non-payment and no meetings involving the staff.

“No, things remain the same. Hopefully when the organisation moves to normality. At the moment, the organisation is quite authoritarian, more central approach. Comes from the top and filters down”

“No, people are doing their own things. There is no oversight from leadership and the institution is in tatters.”

“Yes, as much as we are all leaders, the whole administration depends on the capacity of the accounting officer. We have moved towards better administration due to our capable MM”

“No, whatever the leadership implements it’s about self-interests, we have had situations where we had to mayors but that has been resolved. We have issue of high turnover, high rate of absenteeism, low staff morale, communications manager resigned, town planner resigned, non-conducive working environment. It’s about fame and money, this is not a listening leadership, employees are being made as tools to make money.”

“I don’t see the increase in engagement, there are no meetings with the staff which is not evident from top to the lowest level of the municipality”

“Not yet, the issue of non-payment - remuneration is of major concern, there is no communication, there are rumours of MM being suspended yet there is no internal circular.”

“No, instead it has gone worse. Hence, being under COGTA Administration”

“No because the status quo still remains. We haven't seen any changes instead, whoever comes in, comes in with their own agenda.”

6.2.9 How engaged would you say you are in your job? Please elaborate.

To a certain extent, some participants were engaged with their jobs, but in others this was constantly affected by the manipulation of the system by the leadership. The employees were complaining about the lack of freedom to be creative, no job satisfaction, political interference, no recognition, and underutilization. The constant reshuffling of the workers was believed to be demoralizing because they believed that it requires one to keep on learning new things for the new

role. On that note, a suggestion was made that employees be skilled in their respective roles and allow those experienced to retain their roles and perform even better.

“At the moment there is no normality to attest to since I’m new. All I’ve seen is that imbalance, yes, I’m engaged but there is no freedom to run, challenging to exercise functions”

“I am fully engaged, the work that I do is heavily legislated, but the big question would be “for what purpose?” I am very committed to my work, and it is well schedule but unfortunately, nothing gets done due to the challenges in this municipality”

“I am fully engaged, because I am in charge of the special programmes unit, and I also decided to craft a policy to guide my services. The reason for this was to create direction even for those who will take over after me. I am fully engaged, challenging myself and quality driven.”

“There is no job satisfaction, I have never been happy about being here, the only thing that satisfies me is the salary. My services do not match up with my salary, there is too much interference, this place is not a healthy environment for anyone. We are being underutilised but instead there are infightings. No recognition, no balanced scorecards”

“I am engaged on my current position, consistently. There is an engagement between us the CFO”

“There is no direction yet, the municipality is unstable, and I feel it is time for new leadership.”

“Engagement is not even a talking point; it is beside the point due to abnormality of the institution from Top to bottom. There is no separation between political roles to that of administration. It is therefore a confusing situation. It is an environment where no one wants to take accountability”

“I can say that ‘yes, I am engaged’ but the challenge we face with is today you are given another portfolio to add, another day you are taken to head another portfolio then you find yourself having to learn new things each and every day. Next day you are being reversed to the first position that you are given then that alone makes you not fully engaged on the work you are doing, and it tends to make workers lose interest, lose confidence and also lose ethics of getting to the work. You find that workers come to work at 9 o’ clock because there are these being reshuffled from one area, maybe the area you’ve been working in for 9 or 10 years, then you are being shifted to another one. There is nothing that you are given to say that as a particular person you are not capable of doing the job that you are doing. That makes you disengaged and you are not even being given, if they feel that you are not properly skilled, they should give the workers more skilling in terms of the job that they are doing. That makes the workers to disengage and even lose interest in the new place they are being put in. Back in the old job that you have been doing you find that you know the work, experience is the best teacher and if you lose touch with the work that you are doing you come back and you find yourself wanting.”

6.2.10 What five things affect your level of engagement most?

According to the study findings, the level of engagement was mostly affected by the management itself. That is, the presence of political interference, in-fighting, biasness, and the lack of leadership styles. Also, the leadership was reported as not being committed to the call with some describing it as underperforming in several areas. Overall, the demotivation among the employees attests to their disengagement.

Leadership

“Political Interference at work, Biasness, not being involved in decisions as junior staff, infightings among S56, lack of leadership Styles in organisations”

Morale

“Instability in management - It is very difficult to execute plans (staff turnover impact, low passion and low morale).”

“Instability of current leadership, instability on Snr Management (retention not constant), Employees Demotivated (Morale issues), Administrator should have been offered support by the Department (i.e Management), Negative image to the community members.”

Trade

“Lack of commitment from leadership on matters such as decision making, tools of trade challenges (laptop not being replaced on time), lack of support from leadership (in the case of delegation of responsibility), Poor delegation and support, unequal/unfair treatment, and favouritism.”

“Political Interference, lack of funds, inconsideration for People with disabilities (discrimination), Tools of trade shortage, travelling allowances trimming”

6.2.11 What five things would make you engaged the most?

There were quite a few constructive points raised by the participants regarding the possible solutions to employee engagement. These included the need for proper meetings, performance recognition, capacity building, timeous execution of plans and competitive remuneration. The Section 56¹ was also considered to be playing a huge role in the turnaround of the employee engagement with the need for it to be inclusive in the decision-making. On that note, employees were pleading for fair practices that do away with threatening of staff and biasness. Moreover,

¹ A Manager reporting directly to the Municipal Manager i.e. The Heads of Department.

there was need for council leadership and employee engagement including the involvement of COGTA and streamlining the recruitment process.

Capacity building

“Proper sittings of meeting (all structures), recognition of performance, training on skills gaps identified, capacity building i.e., workshops inclusive of building teams, stakeholder engagement processes between Council leadership and employees, timeous execution of plans.”

“COGTA should be involved more (clarification of roles), Council should hasten the process of placement and recruitment, prioritise staff morale, capacity building, notable competitive remuneration.”

“Team building exercises.”

Staff

“Employee involvement in decision-making, S56 recognising staff members, managers leading and influencing staff morale and happiness, being recognised by supervisors without being threatened – without unfair labour practices, avoiding biasness on decision-making i.e., if employees are well deserving on allowances – it should be implemented without bias.”

6.2.12 How engaged do you believe you would be under the leadership styles?

The findings revealed that the management was likely to have a good engagement with the employees if it was to apply either a democratic or transformational leadership style. It is important to highlight that the transformational leadership had the strongest recommendations whilst the other leadership styles had poor reception.

Certain extent

“Laissez faire – I would be engaged to a certain extent.”

“Transactional – I would be engaged to a certain extent.”

“Laissez faire – I would be engaged to a certain extent.”

Table 6-8: Participant Response Summary

Leadership Style	Participant 1	Participant 2	Participant 3	Participant 4	Participant 5	Participant 6	Participant 7
Autocratic	Red	Red	Red	Red	Red	Red	Red
Democratic	Green	Green	Green	Green	Green	Green	Green
Transformational	Green	Green	Green	Green	Green	Green	Green
Laissez Faire	Red	Red	Red	Green	Red	Red	Red
Transactional	Red	Green	Green	Yellow	Red	Green	Red

Strongly Engage	Green
Engage	Green
Neutral	Yellow
Disengage	Red

Source: The Author

6.2.13 Do you feel that leadership in your organisation contributes to a positive work culture? Please elaborate.

Apparently, the current state of leadership was found to be creating a negative work culture. Some of the reasons include the ineffective implementation of the political leadership roles for they were found to be lacking the oversight component. This has also been attributed to the deployment of senior management resulting in dysfunctional leadership. The other factors realized to be contributing to the negative work culture are bullying, corruption, politics and the lack of monitoring and evaluation.

Leadership

“The issue of deployment contributes negatively, political appointments of senior managers is a negative factor, dysfunctional leadership”

Political

“No, the main role of political leadership is oversight and its not implemented effectively.”

“No, there is bullying, autocracy, corruption, cheap politics, no Monitoring &Evaluation”

6.2.14 If you were to quit your job tomorrow, what would be your reason of doing so?

The cited reasons for wanting to quit the job included an unhealthy working environment, no career growth and oppressive leadership characterized by dictatorship. The other poignant factor was political interference where affiliation to a different organization was reported to subject one to mistreatment.

Environment

“Unhealthy working environment, career growth, which is not evident in this organisation, our views are not attended to (high level of oppression).”

“The dictatorship and treatment that one gets in terms of saying if you are affiliated with a certain organisation, you are better off than the other organisation even if how smart you are, the whole environment and the whole system frustrates.”

Growth

“Limited growth opportunities.”

6.2.15 Would you welcome a leadership overhaul in your organisation? Please elaborate.

The idea of overhauling the current leadership was well received by the participants. One of the reasons for that overwhelming response for the need of new blood was that the leadership was enriching itself. Basically, the participants were interested in a leadership team that is committed, has integrity, and is community-focused with a positive leadership style.

“Yes, the political direction in the country is leading towards local government election – which may influence leadership overhaul.”

“Leadership overhaul will augur well for the organisation.”

“Yes, I would welcome new leadership, one that would raise the flag of the district, leadership without self-enrichment, leadership with integrity, community-focused leadership.”

“To get new blood that will consider the leadership styles that I have just spoken about.”

Chapter 7 :Discussion, Conclusion And Recommendations

This chapter constitutes the discussion of the findings, recommendations, and conclusions of the study at Umkhanyakude District Municipality which is in the far Northern region of KwaZulu Natal Province in South Africa. Using findings from the two methods which are quantitative and qualitative, the chapter will link the findings from both methods that were used in the research.

7.1 Discussion of Findings

Positionality

This study identified a total 194 participants who contributed to the quantitative study. The quantitative results consist of the demographics of the findings of the dominant leadership styles, the levels of employee engagement as well as the consequences of the leadership styles on the employee engagement within the municipality. While dwelling on the subjectivity of placing groupings in bracket terms, it can be ascertained that the reality of those participants having first-hand information on dominant leadership styles plays a crucial role. It can reveal not only perception but also day-to-day issues which dominate how management styles are applied.

The use of employee engagement as an approach also speaks to how numbers can determine an outcome which in this study remains a crucial factor as a tool of analysis that then informs discussion. The employees being part of the value chain of management styles are also in a position to respond to key questions posed taking note of the fact that they are active participants in day-to-day processes. This however raises an important point of discussion, that of positionality. According to Savin-Baden and Major (2013), "Positionality reflects the position that the researcher has chosen to adopt within a given research study." It influences both how research is conducted, its outcomes, and results as argued by Rowe (2014). This concept also influences what a researcher has chosen to investigate in *prima instantiapertractis* (Malterud, 2001). Positionality is normally identified by locating the researcher on three areas: (1) the subject under investigation, (2) the research participants, and (3) the research context and process (ibid.). Some aspects of positionality are culturally ascribed or generally regarded as being fixed, for example, gender, race, skin-color, nationality. Others, such as political views, personal life-history, and experiences, are more fluid, subjective, and contextual (Chiseri-Strater ,1996).

Dominant leadership style

An important aspect to take note of is the admission where eight metrics used for assessing the dominant leadership styles, the most dominant one at Umkhanyakude District Municipality was pertaining to the decision-making where 67.0% of the participants indicated that their leaders were making all the decisions as indicated in Figure 6-2, in dealing with percentages as representations of majority views, this informs an important discussion where the larger population speaks to a particular view. A dominant reading of a situation serves to inform an overall view thus may be qualified as an important matter to be brought forth as a discussion and rallying point of argument.

As the argument is further enhanced by the metric where about 55.4% of the participants alluded that they were not given the opportunity to make all the decisions with little guidance. In addition, half of the participants were of the view that their bosses were welcoming of new ideas. This then informs the other view that, not all perceptions may run along the same course and thought patterns can never be homogenous. It is therefore not surprising that about 40-49% of the participants indicated that their supervisors were humble and considerate and that they were being punished for unexpected results. Views that run parallel in a study are also an indicator that there will always be varying opinions on a given subject. However, what then informs the discussion of findings is the majority view while the minority informs gaps that might be important to raise new discussions in future. It should then be noted that there are varying issues that drive perception. Steyart (2010) cites "Irritation" as one of the major drivers of perception arguing that, "it could have a greater influence than actual cost as an individual's sense of hassle or irritation may have a larger impact on their overall perception of regulation than its measurable costs." In seeking to appreciate the consequences of integrative leadership approaches on employee engagement (or disengagement) at Umkhanyakude District Municipality this should also be taken into consideration.

Furthermore, there were interesting findings at the municipality where about a third of the participants responded that their supervisors involved them in the decision-making (29.9%), trusted and encouraged them to bring new ideas (27.8%) and had the desire to be like their bosses (22.7%), there was a considerable proportion (30%-45%) that were neutral on these metrics. The neutral responses are also an important factor in seeking to answer questions that go beyond the quantitative as they are an important gateway to addressing questions of, "why and how," to ensure

the study is not confined to narrow straitjacketed findings. In essence, they are an important constituency where the researcher many want to quiz the aspect of oppositional appreciation of the different management styles.

While the study used a heatmap (Figure 6-3) to help identify the responses where most of the participants were concentrated, these areas of concentration were interpreted as hotspots. They were summed up as the first hotspot which consisted of 50.5% of the participants agreeing on the fact that their leaders were making all the decisions. The second largest hotspot had 44.3% of the participants in agreement with the idea that they were able to make all the decisions with little guidance. The two contending hotspots were characterized by participants who were neutral about the desire to be like their bosses (43.8%) and the belief that they were trusted and encouraged to bring new ideas (41.2%). An arising point of discussion would be what informs the responses where the researcher in digging deeper would be interested in motive. While generally, perception may be informed by freewill and appreciation of the real situation, some loyalties may also be driven by fear, assumed intimidation and lack of knowledge on the subject matter, thus the issue of understanding how management styles operate may be informed by all such factors within the municipality.

According to Trierweiler and Stricker (1998), “Quantifications are central to many fields of research and applied settings because numerical data allow to analyse information using the power of mathematics.” While investigating the consequences of integrative leadership approaches on employee engagement within the Umkhanyakude District Municipality, there were specific eight items which were further investigated for their consistence in measuring the leadership style. The result according to the Cronbach alpha coefficient revealed that only seven were reliable in providing information about the internal consistency of the items on the leadership style. This speaks directly to the issue of question formulation and its importance in the search for internal consistency. In that regard, where negatively constructed questions or resulted in the reversed scale reversed prior to the reliability analysis, it may be posited that items such as “Punished for unexpected results” and “Leader makes all the decisions” had their scales reversed to improve the reliability. However, even though their usage, the item “Punished for unexpected results” was found to disagree with rest of the metrics and was consequently dropped. The search for how

consequences of integrative leadership approaches on employee engagement finally pan out is, therefore, achieved in the recognition of the findings which the researcher deduced to be factual within the context of the municipality. For results that rely on the quantitative aspect, it is also assumed that due to their rigidity, their leaning towards accuracy is driven by the statistical rather than the emotional tools. It should however be noted that emotion will always arise especially in subjects such as the one under study within the municipality of Umkhanyakude. According to Bechara et al. (1997), scientific research sometimes prompts strong emotional reactions, as seen in vitriolic debates over climate change and vaccines. In some cases, those reactions have direct practical implications (e.g., whether a child will be vaccinated or not). In other cases, the reaction reflects existential questions about the nature of our world (e.g., evolution, the Big Bang). Although emotions are known to be integral to decision-making (Kahneman, 2011), their role in judgments of scientific research has been studied little, with research focused instead on the role of cognitive competencies, such as scientific knowledge (Miller, 2004; Shi et al., 2016), numeracy (Hart, 2013), and reasoning skills (Drummond & Fischhoff, 2017; Rhodes et al., 2014).

Precisely where the researcher was asking for employee responses, it was very natural that emotions would obviously shape the conversation on the consequences of integrative leadership approaches on employee engagement (or disengagement) at Umkhanyakude District Municipality. In studying the identified phenomena using these quantitative techniques the researcher relied on the power of this approach to arrive at findings. Advocates argue that the greatest strength of quantitative research is the clear grounding in theory as hypotheses are developed to test variants on established theories to refine them based on those identified variables. Skinner (2010) notes that this does not prove the established theories but rather improves them with additional datasets that support or align with the original results. Using a sample population that may be much larger than for a qualitative study, data can be collected quickly using survey tools. The potential for research bias is limited to the design of the study, design of the survey tool, and interpretation of data, as opposed to the broader risk of observer bias in a qualitative study. In the Umkhanyakude District Municipality, the findings reflected this phenomenon considerably.

In the qualitative approach the researcher used the findings from open-ended questions where the participants were given the opportunity to air their views on the leadership within the municipality.

It was noted that the leadership style and administration were found to be correlated since they are believed to share a common ground. The poor performance has been believed to be attributed to the lack of strategic direction and unacceptable educational levels. This incapability is said to have a negative impact on the staff engagement and was reported to have been also cascading down to the employees. The leadership styles were found to be marred by infighting at the top management resulting in the dissatisfaction among the workers. As a result, this has led to the turnover and lack of oversight which consequently affected service delivery. Among other things, favouritism and bias from the leaders was affecting the staff morale.

Some elements of bullying were also reported such that the employees were left with no option for personal contribution but rather simply conform to whatever they are instructed to do. On the other hand, this was believed to pave the way for corruption. Some employees were choosing to not be involved in certain positions for the fear of the leadership styles at play. Hacker (2018) argues that “open-ended questions provide greater insight and connection.” The researcher fielded these open-ended questions to establish rapport and solicit the best responses without any inhibition from the respondents. The following extract best illustrates that hypothesis:

Question: Please elaborate on the level of satisfaction you have on the leadership style in your organisation?

“The satisfaction levels were attributed to the administration, the leadership style and services provided by the municipality. The leadership is said to have failed to deliver basic services and some municipal managers have left. Cited were issues related to the non-cooperation of the administration as it has been reported that they do not follow rules, regulations, and policies. On the other hand, the leadership itself believed that it was putting all the energy, but the efforts were interrupted by politics. In addition, the leadership was realized to be involved in infighting with the leadership styles themselves questionable and considered not effective.”

Administrative

“At Political Level – Leadership has failed dismally to deliver basic services

Administrative Level – The entire administration is in tatters, more than 15 Municipal Managers leaving the municipality.”

“I will rate the level of satisfaction at 1 because there is no way that they do listen or they do take advices or they do things according to the administrative rules, regulation, policies and everything.”

Leadership

“You apply maybe the five leadership styles, you attach its theories, but you know as life changes every now and then, more especially with the influence of technology, you always feel that I can even do more.”

“In leadership there's always, when you know what are the theories, what are the styles and then you combine that with a common sense because leadership does need a common sense because the employees they keep on changing every now and then but I can say now as I have started to apply what I have been researching in my Masters degree, little by little, I'm becoming satisfied because you could see that, you know, at times we are highly influenced by politics (this is a municipality) whereby the politics sometimes become the order of the day and you just feel that if you do not apply and meet and integrate these leadership styles you may end up not achieving what you intend achieving at the end of the day.”

“Why am I saying it's 65 because all what we do we have to give it to the PMS guys who have to sit down and rate us every now and then you find that as we carry on implementing these leadership styles, leadership theories, there are also political disturbances every now and then whereby we just have to pause and see as to where is the institution, is the organisation driving to and then you apply some of the styles in a way maybe to curb what the negativity that is occurring.”

“It's an autocratic leadership ...”

.....

Essentially, the findings from both the quantitative and qualitative approaches in the research converged on the fact that at Umkhanyakude District Municipality, a majority of employees are of the view that while leadership and administration are correlated and share a common view, issues such as lack of education, favouritism and other negative elements led to lack of employee engagement or disengagement within the district.

7.2 Recommendations of the study

- The research recommends that in the light of the findings, **qualified personnel whose academic prowess and knowledge be deployed in the appropriate positions.** Properly qualified personnel are the engine of service delivery, and this is critical when considering any issues of staffing at Umkhanyakude District Municipality. Sourcing proper skills should therefore be a diligent process that emphasizes and recognises that office bearers are an important extension of ratepayers' expectations. There is no reason whatsoever to have non-qualified office holders and the practice must cease forthwith. A skills audit process is therefore the first port of call, and it should be accompanied by sound municipal resolutions that any hiring of non-qualified personnel in future should actually be treated as an offence that attracts stiff penalties and sanctions to the accomplices.
- It is also recommended that **employees of the municipality be made aware of the recruitment processes.** Not only should they be made aware, but they should be consulted especially where issues of experience and educational qualifications matter. Before advertising for positions externally, the municipality must ensure that there is no similarly qualified person within the organisation who can fill the post. If the municipality does not have a recruitment policy, the document must be drafted, and its input should be derived from both management and the employees.
- Furthermore, it is recommended that **a dispute resolution committee be set up to deal with issues of infighting at the top management which has resulted in the dissatisfaction among the workers.** Most conflicts arise out of office bearers not understanding their mandate or seeking to overstep it. A code of conduct must be drafted, and it should spell out with clarity the consequences of such unprofessional behaviour within the workplace. It is further recommended that favouritism and allegations of bias be

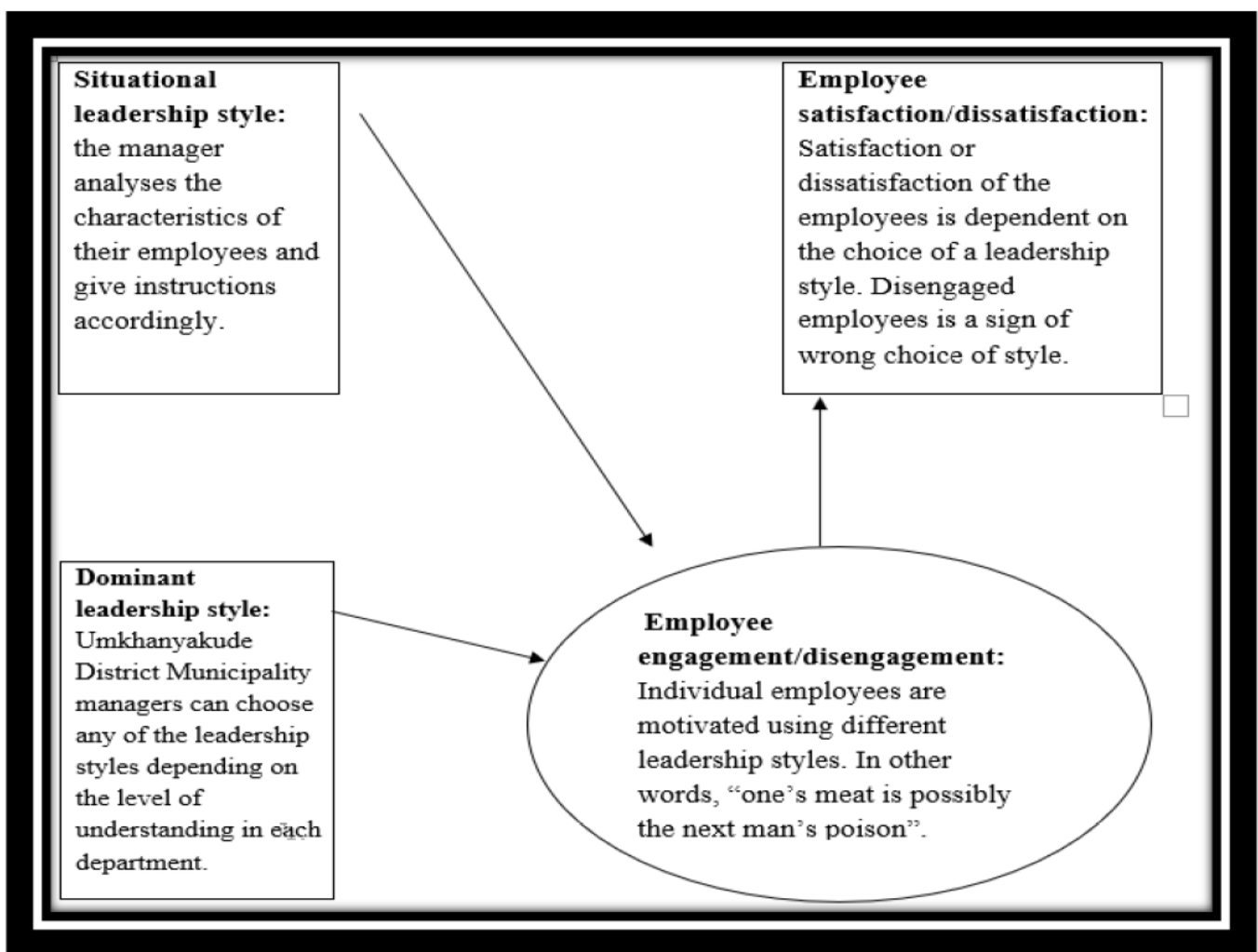
investigated and dealt with decisively. No organisation can successfully serve its constituencies with such malpractices and there is therefore a need to have a permanent office to handle such issues as and when they arise.

- In addition, **every employee must feel safe and uninhibited in carrying out their duties.** Bullying and intimidation should therefore never be tolerated. Any leader seeking to assert authority using these tactics must be investigated and be reminded that engagement not disengagement is the norm within the Umkhanyakude District Municipality.
- Finally, **professionalisation of local government** will prove to be fruitful towards the successful delivery of services by Umkhanyakude District Municipality. Local government duties should be insulated from political overreach because it often erodes the provision of service delivery. To fix local government, which has consistently been flagged by the Auditor-General as a sphere of government lacking in basic financial and performance management, and to improve service delivery, there must be a separation of political and administrative sides within municipal councils.

It should, however, be noted that at the beginning of the study, the research dwelt on the consequences of integrative leadership approaches on employee engagement (or disengagement) at Umkhanyakude District Municipality. The recommendations should therefore include a contribution to new knowledge to the existing body of knowledge. After obtaining evidence from both qualitative and quantitative research, the following graphical presentation is a necessity. According to the study, leadership, dominant leadership styles and leadership style consequences were identified as having a direct impact on employee engagement, thus, ultimately affecting employee satisfaction at Umkhanyakude District Municipality. Therefore, it is prudent to present these findings in the recommendations section for further brainstorming on impacts of integrative leadership approaches on employee engagement (or disengagement) at Umkhanyakude District Municipality. The generation of new knowledge in research is essential to cover gaps previously not identified in the study. According to Wisker (2018), projects and dissertations are high-level intellectual activities and products, and they are evidence of systematic approaches, a lot of hard work organizing process, practice, literature, methodology and methods, data, explanations and understanding. They are a unique mix of enthusiasm and hard work, systematic focus and planning and management and flights of fancy brought to fruition, new ideas and new slants, new comments,

linking ideas and approaches to established work and creating new interpretations. It is therefore critical to raise these issues such as in the following illustration to emphasize that aspect in a study. As the study sought to portray the poor leadership consequences, its compass led to the fact that it directly impacts on employee engagement/disengagement and employee satisfaction/dissatisfaction.

INTERGRATIVE LEADERSHIP APPROACHES ON EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT FRAMEWORK AT UMKHANYAKUDE DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY



Source: Author

7.3 Summary of the findings

This section is meant to measure whether the objectives presented at the beginning of the study were achieved or not, using the results presented in Chapter 6. Research objectives describe what the research is trying to achieve and explains why this is being pursued. Objectives summarise the approach and purpose of the project and help to focus the research. Objectives have been stated in the Introduction chapter of this research paper, after the problem statement was defined.

(i) Objective 1.5.1: The dominant leadership style(s) at Umkhanyakude District Municipality

The participants revealed different views on the dominant leadership styles with the mentioned ones including the autocratic, transactional, transformational and Laissez faire. Of those that could not pinpoint a dominant leadership style, they were of the view that the Laissez faire, autocratic and democratic should not be separated. In contrast, other employees suggested that the democratic leadership was more common and influenced by the Laissez faire instead. A crucial aspect to take note of is the admission where eight metrics used for assessing the dominant leadership styles, the most dominant one at Umkhanyakude District Municipality was pertaining to the decision-making where 67.0% of the participants indicated that their leaders were making all the decisions as indicated in (Figure 6-2), in dealing with percentages as representations of majority views, this informs an important discussion where the larger population speaks to a particular view.

(ii) Objective 1.5.2: The consequences, if any, of the various leadership styles on employee engagement (or disengagement)

To understand the consequences of leadership styles on employee engagement, the first approach was to understand the correlation among the individual metrics from the different constructs (leaderships styles, employee engagement and satisfaction). Secondly, the correlation was assessed at the construct level. Lastly, the analysis provided an insight into the effects of both leadership style and employee engagement on the employee satisfaction. The results showed that there was a strong positive correlation ($r=0.61$) between having access to resources that enable positive work performance and the belief that there are good career opportunities. Another strong positive correlation ($r=0.67$) was observed between humble and considerate supervisors with the bosses welcoming new ideas. The most noticeable negative correlation ($r=-0.51$) was observed

between employee making all decisions with little guidance and having access to resources that enable positive work performance. The correlations above are showing that there is a possibility of a positive or negative relationship between a particular leadership style and the level of employee engagement.

(iii) Objective 1.5.3: The leadership style(s) that best promote employee engagement

The best leadership style that promotes employee engagement was deduced to be “transformational leadership”. This proposition has been suggested based on the results from the qualitative study. Respondents from the qualitative survey gave in-depth responses concerning their respective feelings towards each leadership style. All the respondents indicated that they will be “engaged” if an example is set before them first. In other words, leaders should demonstrate their working methods before delegating tasks to their subordinates, this translates to leading by example.

(iv) Objective 1.5.4: The interventions that can be used to transform disengaged employees

There were quite a few constructive points raised by the participants regarding the possible solutions to the employee engagement. These included the need for proper meetings, performance recognition, capacity building, timeous execution of plans and competitive remuneration. However, the list suggested above may not be exhaustive since employees are unique.

7.4 Suggested focus of future research

This research paper attempted to establish the nexus between a particular leadership style and the resultant level of engagement. However, the researcher feels that this study is not exhaustive, hence the need to complement this piece of work with the following suggested future research programmes:

- Why are some leaders more effective than others?
- Both academics and practitioners are interested in effective leadership. Why then do we have little convergence in conceptualisations of effective leadership?

- Is there a connection between integrative leadership and productivity?
- Is it possible to come up with a universally accepted “predictor” of effective leadership?

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APPENDIX A: LETTER OF INFORMATION AND CONSENT

Appendix B



LETTER OF INFORMATION

Dear: Participant

I do hope that you are holding well during this trying moments

My name is Vusumuzi Sibiya who is under the supervision of Dr Emmanuel Mutambara conducting this research project in partial fulfilment of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in Management Science: Business Administration in Durban University of Technology (DUT). This academic piece titled "Integrative leadership approaches and their influence on employee engagement: A case of uMkhanyakude District Municipality".

A disengagement cost is a waste to organisations in particular and should therefore be effectively managed and kept to a minimum. This research therefore seeks to explore if the leadership style has any bearing on the level of employee engagement (or disengagement). The research will explore leadership styles which promote employee engagement, so as to effectively manage disengagement costs which apparently are a waste to organisations.

You are humbly requested to partake in this research project. The research questions will be answered by employing both quantitative and qualitative approach by obtaining primary data through the use of closed and open-ended questions. Data administration will take place at a venue and time convenient to you. The process will take approximately 45 minutes of your time including the appreciation of ethical considerations. Audio recording will also be used to capture your feedback during the interview. The nature of this investigation bears no imminent harm and the minimal risk will be avoided at all means by ensuring no compromise on anonymity, private, confidentiality and consent before partaking.

The voluntarily nature of partaking to this research paper will be maintained and again the withdrawal to participate at any stage will carry no harm, cost and victimization what so ever. The empirical findings will be made available to you and to your organization for explicit knowledge purposes and may be published as original contribution to the body of knowledge.

You are notified that no pressure will be exerted on you to participate and your participation is made voluntarily, and as a consequence no incentives will be provided for such participation. At no stage where you will be asked to pay anything associated or for participating to the study. Anonymity and confidentiality will be preserved throughout the research process. I will observe the dictates of Protection of Personal Information Act 2013 in terms of participant consent to research, use of information, safeguarding of information obtained, and your identity.

You are assured that your participation will cause no harm and your safety will remain guaranteed for the entire duration of this investigation. This is ensured by providing a safe place to conduct the research interviews. I commit to safely store the data collected from you as part of identity protection. Again, will use digital cloud data storage terminal to store all recording so as to guarantee maximum security which can only be accessed through mobile application via password. Data will be stored for the minimum period suggested by the University before being permanently deleted.

Should you wish to contact me I can be reached on (cell no: 063 963 8748.), or my supervisor (cell/tel no: 074 561 5083/ 031 2608 104) or the Institutional Research Ethics Administrator on 031 373 2375. Complaints can be reported to the Director: Research and Postgraduate Support Prof Motaung on 031 373 2577 or researchdirector@dut.ac.za.

I thank you for partaking in this research project
6 August 2020



CONSENT

Statement of Agreement to Participate in the Research Study:

- I hereby confirm that I have been informed by the researcher, (Vusumuzi Innocent Sibiya), about the nature, conduct, benefits and risks of this study - Research Ethics Clearance Number: **IREC 206/22**.
- I have also received, read and understood the above written information (Participant Letter of Information) regarding the study.
- I am aware that the results of the study, including personal details regarding my sex, age, date of birth, initials and diagnosis will be anonymously processed into a study report.
- In view of the requirements of research, I agree that the data collected during this study can be processed in a computerised system by the researcher.
- I may, at any stage, without prejudice, withdraw my consent and participation in the study.
- I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and (of my own free will) declare myself prepared to participate in the study.
- I understand that significant new findings developed during the course of this research which may relate to my participation will be made available to me.

Full Name of Participant Thumbprint	Date	Time	Signature / Right

I, (Vusumuzi Sibiya) herewith confirm that the above participant has been fully informed about the nature, conduct and risks of the above study.

Full Name of Researcher	Date	Signature
Full Name of Witness (If applicable)	Date	Signature
Full Name of Legal Guardian (If applicable)	Date	Signature

APPENDIX B: GATEKEEPING LETTER



OFFICE OF THE MUNICIPAL MANAGER

P. O. Box 449
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Tel : 035 573 8608
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Dear Mr. V.I Sibiya

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT THE STUDY

This has a reference to the letter received on the 16 September 2022 by the institution requesting to use uMkhanyakude District Municipality to be the research site in your endeavor to fulfil the requirement of Doctoral Degree (PhD) at Durban University of Technology (DUT).

This serves to inform you that authority has been granted by this Municipality to conduct the study titled *"An integrative leadership approaches and their influence on employee engagement: A case of uMkhanyakude District Municipality"*. The rationale to consider your request favorably inter alia, include your commitment to provide statistically significance and scientifically tested findings. More importantly, the rigorous recommendations that improves human capitals engagement and performance which equates to service delivery improvements to this municipality.

The Municipality guarantees its employees cooperations through out the entire process until the study is complete. Lastly, you are urged to fully adhere to ethics codes that guides the conduct of the researcher when conducting this study.

Wishing you all the best of luck in your research paper

YOURS FAITHFULLY

MR M.A NKOSI
MUNICIPAL MANAGER

DATE: 22 SEPTEMBER 2022

APPENDIX C: FULL APPROVAL LETTER



Institutional Research Ethics Committee
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28 October 2022

Mr V I Sibiya
P.O Box 1919
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3170

Dear Mr Sibiya

Integrative leadership approaches and their influence on employee engagement: A case of uMkhanyakude District Municipality
Ethical Clearance number IREC 206/22

The Institutional Research Ethics Committee acknowledges receipt of your final data collection tool for review.

We are pleased to inform you that the data collection tool has been approved. Kindly ensure that participants used for the pilot study are not part of the main study.

In addition, the DUT-IREC acknowledges receipt of your gatekeeper permission letter.

Please note that **FULL APPROVAL** is granted to your research proposal. You may proceed with data collection.

Any adverse events [serious or minor] which occur in connection with this study and/or which may alter its ethical consideration must be reported to the DUT-IREC according to the DUT-IREC Standard Operating Procedures (SOP's).

Please note that any deviations from the approved proposal require the approval of the DUT-IREC as outlined in the DUT-IREC SOP's.

Yours Sincerely

Prof J K Adam
Chairperson: DUT-IREC

APPENDIX D: QUALITATIVE INSTRUMENT

QUALITATIVE INSTRUMENT

Age	
Sex	
Race	

1. Please elaborate on the level of satisfaction you have on the leadership style in your organisation?

2. How would leadership styles impact employee engagement?

3. In your view, to what extent do leadership increase the level of engagement in the organisation?

4. Please describe your satisfaction regarding the level of engagement in your organisation?

5. Please describe your satisfaction regarding the role the leaders play in your organisation?

6. What do you consider to be the dominant leadership style in your organisation?

7. Were there any instances of employee disengagement in your organisation that you can think of?

8. Do you think leadership has leadership taken any steps to increase the level of engagement in your organisation? Please substantiate your response.

9. How engaged would you say you are in your job? Please elaborate.

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10. What five things affect your level of engagement most?

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11. What five things would make you engaged the most?

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12. Please consider the following leadership characteristics for the next question:

Autocratic leader [A typical dictator. Retains all powers and does not delegate. Distrusts ability of subordinates. Uses threat and punishment to be obeyed. Does not consult with followers]

Democratic leader [Empowers followers. Distribute responsibility. Allows for shared decision making. Encourages and rewards creativity]

Laissez-faire leader [Adopts a hand off approach. Allows followers to make decisions. Expects followers to solve problems on their own. Offers tools and resources needed but very little guidance. Takes full responsibility for decisions and actions of followers]

Transformational leader [Is highly motivated. Takes risks. Makes difficult decisions. Is attuned to the feeling of the followers. Is inspirational, Entertains new ideas. Is proactive and adaptable. Leads with vision. Keeps own ego on check]

Transactional leader [Focuses on the results. Motivates workers through rewards and punishments. Closely monitors subordinates to ensure expectations are met. Interested in maintaining current state of affairs. Instructs followers on what to do and when to do. Rewards success and punishes followers]

How engaged do you believe you would be under the following leadership styles?

- a) Autocratic.....
- b) Democratic.....
- c) Transformational.....
- d) Laissez faire.....
- e) Transactional.....

13. Do you feel that leadership in your organisation contributes to a positive work culture? Please elaborate.

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14. If you were to quit your job tomorrow, what would be your reason of doing so?

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15. Would you welcome a leadership overhaul in your organisation? Please elaborate.

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APPENDIX E: QUANTITATIVE INSTRUMENT

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

QUANTITATIVE INSTRUMENT

In the following questions, kindly **put a tick** where appropriate or **specify as indicated**.

Gender	Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female <input type="checkbox"/>
Age (in years)	20-29 <input type="checkbox"/> 30-39 <input type="checkbox"/> 40-49 <input type="checkbox"/> 50-59 <input type="checkbox"/> 60+ <input type="checkbox"/>
Racial Group	African <input type="checkbox"/> Coloured <input type="checkbox"/> White <input type="checkbox"/> Indian <input type="checkbox"/> Other <input type="checkbox"/>
Years of Service	1-5 years <input type="checkbox"/> 6-10 years <input type="checkbox"/> 11-15 years <input type="checkbox"/> 16 + years <input type="checkbox"/>
Educational Qualification	PhD <input type="checkbox"/> Degree (Hon/Masters) <input type="checkbox"/> Diploma <input type="checkbox"/> Matric <input type="checkbox"/> Below Matric <input type="checkbox"/>
Current employment level	General staff <input type="checkbox"/> First line Supervisor <input type="checkbox"/> Middle level supervisor <input type="checkbox"/> Top level management <input type="checkbox"/>

1.	The dominant Leadership style(s) currently employed in uMkhanyakude Municipality.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1(a)	My leader makes all the decisions					
(b)	My supervisor involves me before making decisions					
(c)	I am allowed to make all the decisions with little guidance from my leader					
(d)	My supervisor is humble and considerate					
(e)	My boss welcomes new ideas					
(f)	My leader punishes me if I do not produce the expected results					
(g)	My supervisor trusts me and encourages me to bring new ideas					
(h)	I desire to be like my boss					

2.	The nexus between leadership styles and employee engagement	Strongly Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Strongly Satisfied
2(a)	How satisfied or dissatisfied would you be if your boss makes all the decisions and does not take what you say?					
(b)	How satisfied or dissatisfied would you be if your supervisor consult you before making a decision?					
(c)	How satisfied or dissatisfied would you be if your leader gives you the necessary resources and leaves you to make the decisions?					
(d)	How satisfied or dissatisfied would you be if your leader is humble and considers what you say?					
(e)	How satisfied or dissatisfied would you be if your leader rewards performance?					
(f)	How satisfied or dissatisfied would you be if your boss punishes you for not achieving the agreed target?					
(g)	How satisfied or dissatisfied would you be if your supervisor encourages you to bring new ideas?					

How far do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements? (Please tick one option per question)

	The uMkhanyakude Municipality employee satisfaction levels	Strongly Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Strongly Satisfied
3.	I am proud to work for my company					
4.	I would recommend my company as a great place to work					
5.	I rarely think about looking for a job at another company					

6.	I see myself still working at this company in 2 years' time.					
7.	This company motivates me to increase my effort					
8.	I always come early to work.					
9.	My manager is a great role model for employees					
10.	I have access to things I need to do my job well					
11.	I receive appropriate recognition when I do good work					
12.	I believe there are good career opportunities for me at this firm					

Thank you for your invaluable cooperation.