THE INTERRELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LEADERSHIP, EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR IN AN OPEN DISTANCE HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTION

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ABSTRACT

THE INTERRELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LEADERSHIP, EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR IN AN OPEN DISTANCE HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTION

The open distance higher education environment is constantly evolving in terms of technology and student needs. Open distance higher education institutions require staff willing to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) to ensure the institution's smooth functioning and student satisfaction. Leadership and employee empowerment will play a significant role in encouraging OCB in an open distance higher education institution. This research focused on the interrelationships among leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB within the context of the open-distance higher education environment. The study also investigated the mediating effects of employee empowerment in the relationship between leadership and OCB. A cross-sectional research approach was applied, and a quantitative survey was conducted on a probability sample of 452 (N=452) university staff in an open distance higher education institution in South Africa. The exploratory factor analysis identified a four-construct measurement model for leadership, a three-construct measurement model for employee empowerment and a four-construct measurement model for organisational citizenship behaviour. The results indicated that the research instrument was valid and reliable for measuring leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB. A correlational analysis confirmed a significant positive relationship between leadership, employee empowerment and organisational citizenship behaviour. Structural equation modelling was used to test the mediating effects of employee empowerment in the relationship between leadership and OCB. Tests for significant mean differences revealed differences between the biographical variables of gender, age qualification, and number of years at the organisation and job level groups and organisational citizenship behaviour. The study recommends introducing mentoring and coaching, along with a charismatic leadership style, to encourage

organisational citizenship behaviour in the institution. On a theoretical level, the study provides a deeper understanding of the concepts and contributes to the existing body of knowledge on leadership, employee empowerment, and organisational citizenship behaviour within the context of the open distance higher education environment. On a practical level, human resource practitioners and higher education institutions can use the results of this study to inform interventions that motivate staff to engage in OCB and boost workplace productivity.

Key terms

Leadership, employee empowerment, organisational citizenship behaviour, competence, task orientation, interpersonal relationship, vision orientation, goal orientation, autonomy, decision-making, management support, access to information and resources, altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship, sense of duty and consideration, open distance higher education institution.

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CHAPTER 1: ORIENTATION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The open distance higher education environment is constantly evolving in terms of technology and student needs. With staff support through their OCB efforts, open distance higher education institutions can function effectively and ensure student satisfaction. The focus of this study is to investigate the interrelationships among leadership, employee empowerment, and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) in an open-distance learning higher education environment in the South African context.

This chapter outlines the background to and motivation for the study; the problem statement and research questions; the general and specific theoretical and empirical objectives; the research paradigm; the research design and methodology; and a summary of the planned study.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

1.2.1 Background to the study

The context for this research is the influence of leadership and employee empowerment on OCB in an open distance learning higher education environment in South Africa. South Africa is facing significant challenges in education leadership. According to Frantz, Lawack, and Rhoda (2020), the appointment of academic staff to leadership positions with limited or no formal leadership training is a major challenge. Universities appoint academic leaders based on seniority, regardless of whether they have proven leadership competencies. Unless leaders possess the competencies specific to the institution's needs at a given time, it will be impossible to persuade academic and administrative staff to invest in organisational citizenship behaviour. Organisational citizenship behaviour is critical to an institution's performance and

effectiveness. According to Alshihabat and Atan (2020), OCB was recognised as an individual behaviour that effectively enhanced organisational performance. Ghavifekr and Adewale (2019) indicated that OCB enables staff to increase their effectiveness and productivity within the organisation. In the higher education sector, OCB is a key factor in a lecturer's efficiency and productivity, with a significant impact on the performance of colleges and universities (Dirican & Erdil, 2016).

It is imperative to explore the importance of OCB within higher education institutions. Since there were few studies focusing on OCB in the ODL context, attention will be placed on higher education institutions. OCB refers to an employee's voluntary work, performing behaviours and attitudes which can benefit the company (Ikinci, 2014). Academics should thus not be restricted to a specific job description (Mazen, Herman & Ornstein, 2008; Dipaola & Hoy, 2005). Whenever an academic is not restricted to a specific job description, OCB becomes an important part of an academic's job. Khalid et al. (2010) claim that lecturers' commitment to organisational citizenship behaviours will have a considerable impact on students' ability to achieve learning outcomes. OCB involves employees voluntarily engaging in additional work tasks without requesting pay or any type of rewards (Lian & Tui, 2012).

The findings of Munawir, Raharjo, Djalil, Syahputra, Muslim, and Adam (2019) reveal that the success of good university governance and performance is influenced by the effectiveness of OCB. It was emphasised that the strength of higher education depends on employees and their engagement in OCB, which plays an important role in shaping good university governance and performance. Khan, Khan, Khan Nawaz and Yar (2013) emphasised the importance of university staff, noting that they are the foundation of universities and valuable contributors to the institution's growth and advancement. OCB demonstrated by employees was recognised as a contributing factor in an institution's performance and the achievement of its mission.

Today's organisations can gain a competitive advantage when employees deliver outcomes beyond their required roles and responsibilities, through OCB. Similarly, OCB needs to be an essential part of an academic institution to ensure the achievement of teaching and learning outcomes, and the performance and

effectiveness of the institution. It can also be necessary in today's world, when competitiveness is vital. Past studies have shown that OCB was responsible for the efficient operations of universities (Ramalakshmi & Ravindran, 2021). According to Affandi, Patrisia and Abror (2019), universities that have a competitive advantage are more likely to survive. It was further stated that a competitive advantage depends on strong human resources that exhibit OCB. The study by Ramalakshmi and Ravindran (2022) found that OCB had a significant impact on organisational performance and that organisational competitiveness mediated this relationship.

OCB contributes to employee learning, which is essential to employee growth and the survival of organisations. Learning in an organisation can be enhanced through knowledge sharing and altruistic behaviour (Akram, Lei, Haider, & Hussain, 2020). Furthermore, it is anticipated that employees demonstrating OCB will exhibit more innovative behaviours than those who do not (Akturan & Gunduz, 2016). According to Ismail and Rodzala (2021), engagement in OCB can foster greater creativity and innovation in the workplace. OCB thus plays an important role in allowing staff to remain innovative and utilise the latest technology. OCB can enable university staff to be more creative in the design and delivery of teaching.

In a study conducted in the Malaysian higher education sector, it was noted that employees with positive attitudes and who incorporate OCB will drive organisations towards successful outcomes necessary in the global economy of the twenty-first century (Abdulrab, Zumrah, Alwaheeb, Al-Mamary and Al-Tahitah, 2020). It was further highlighted that staff who are expected to perform tasks beyond their normal duties are usually found to exhibit higher levels of citizenship behaviour (Idrus, Idris, Omar, Anuar & Ariffin, 2019). According to Hussin and Chin (2017), academics view themselves as organisational citizens and feel it is their moral obligation to contribute to an organisation's growth and sustainability.

Open distance learning (ODL) institutions need to establish a supportive learning environment for learners. New technology has changed the way support services are provided to distance education learners. With the use of the internet, communication

with tutors, administrative staff and academic advisors is made possible (Ling, Rashid & Hussain, 2017). According to Bozkurt (2019), ODL and distance education are constantly evolving and impacted by changes in information and technology. The rapid pace of technological change has led many distance education institutions to change how they deliver content and teach students.

The ODL institution in this study faces the challenge of supporting an increasing student population, including young students and those who received insufficient schooling. This has serious consequences for student pass rate and retention (Dhunpath & Dhunpath, 2015).

From the above, it is evident that open-distance higher education institutions face many challenges that affect the institution and its employees. With the commitment and diligence of institutional leaders and staff, the institution can successfully overcome the challenges and ensure its survival. OCB plays a vital role in assisting open and distance higher education institutions to achieve their goals and cope with challenges in their environments. The studies by Munawir et al. (2019), Ramalakshmi & Ravindran (2021), Akram et al. (2020), Ismail and Rodzala (2021), Idrus et al. (2019), and Hussin and Chin (2017) have shown that OCB plays a critical role in higher education institutions.

Although many factors contribute to OCB, this research focuses on only two important factors: leadership and employee empowerment.

Leadership is the process by which leaders enable employees and groups to achieve a shared goal. A leader can create a vision and influence individuals to contribute to organisational goals (Bikes & Yilmaz, 2020). There are many definitions of leadership; however, most emphasise that leadership involves influencing others toward a common goal.

Ingram (2015) states that leaders serve various functions in an organisation. Firstly, leaders are tasked with training and supervising employees to perform their tasks

effectively. Secondly, leaders must assist and inspire employees to perform extremely well in the organisation. Lastly, leaders must safeguard employees against internal and external threats. According to Powers and Diaz (2023), leaders should assist employees in dealing with uncertainty by providing the following: Information, Support, Communication, an appropriate leadership style, and Resources. Nebiyu and Kassahun (2021) also referred to the uncertain and dynamic challenges confronting institutions and recommended that leaders implement adaptive leadership at every level. An adaptive leadership approach will allow the institution to deal with ambiguity and complexity, as the leader is not at the centre of everything but rather mobilises and motivates staff to adapt to change.

According to Murari (2015), "*empowerment can be defined as the process of sharing power, information and benefits with employees in order to enable them to take initiatives and decisions to overcome problems and to provide better service and performance".* Employee empowerment builds employees' confidence and enables them to feel valued in the workplace. It increases organisational commitment, job satisfaction and contributes to organisational effectiveness (Ongori, 2009).

Since empowered employees can learn and grow individually, they can also transform an organisation into a learning organisation, thereby improving organisational capabilities and achieving organisational goals (Bagheri, Matin & Amighi, 2011). Employee empowerment is weakened, and the job tasks become meaningless when employees must strictly adhere to rules and procedures. Furthermore, job standardisation restricts an employee's job behaviour, thus reducing the employee's ability to make decisions or to exercise control in task completion. Formalisation in an organisation also hinders employee freedom and empowerment (Luoh, Tsuar, and Tang, 2014). There is no doubt that increasing employee empowerment efforts in an open and distance higher education institution will be highly beneficial to employees and the organisation.

Numerous studies have examined the relationships between leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB, which are discussed in the following paragraphs. These

studies have shown that leadership and employee empowerment are necessary to encourage OCB practices in an organisation.

The creation of organisational citizenship behaviour is possible with effective leadership. A leader's style can influence OCB in an organisation. Leadership characteristics such as goal setting, innovation, effective communication, attention to individuals, motivation, and problem-solving are necessary for a leader and will influence how OCB manifests in an organisation. These characteristics can impact an employee's psychology and the significance they assign to their jobs and profession (Avci, 2015). The study by Ahmad, Purwana and Saptono (2020) found a significant positive relationship between leadership and OCB among employees in the Research Agency and the Human Resource of Maritime and Fisheries. The researchers further stated that leadership with ability and skills can result in altruistic behaviour that is not easily seen and assessed through performance evaluation.

In a study investigating the relationships among OCB, social exchange variables (organisational leadership and transformational leadership), and individual values among Arab Israeli teachers, it was found that social exchange variables and individual values support participants' OCB and in-role performance (Abd El Majid and Cohen, 2015).

In a study investigating leadership styles and OCB, it was found that transformational leadership was positively associated with OCB, whereas transactional leadership was negatively associated with OCB. OCB is more likely to occur if transformational leaders motivate employees to go beyond their expected duties (Vadaei, 2018).

In a study conducted in higher education institutions in Malaysia, it was concluded that leaders who express vision, trust, and intellectual stimulation positively influence interactional justice, which, in turn, leads employees to exhibit positive work behaviours such as OCB (Abdulrab et al., 2020). It is important for leaders in higher education institutions to demonstrate leadership, such as vision and trust, and to ensure that employees view the interaction between leaders and faculty members as a fair one (Khan, Memon & Ramayah, 2018).

According to Hassan, Mansoor, and Ali (2021), significant results were obtained regarding the mediating role of psychological empowerment in the relationship between leadership and OCB. In another study, empowerment mediated the relationship between authentic leadership and OCB. High levels of empowerment in terms of meaningfulness, competence, and self-determination were associated with higher levels of OCB, specifically conscientiousness, sportsmanship, civic virtue, and courtesy. Furthermore, leaders who possessed authentic leadership characteristics such as self-awareness and transparency were able to influence an employee's engagement in OCB. To increase employees' psychological empowerment and OCB, Human Resource and Organisational Development professionals must establish favourable work environments. The scopes of job descriptions should therefore be flexible and broadly defined (Baek-Kyoo, Sung, 2017).

Academic institutions' management must give OCB in the workplace relevance. Programmes in institutions must be designed to develop employees' OCB skills. Management must recognise and reward employees for their OCB efforts. The fulfilment of OCB can also be achieved through institutional leaders who care about employees' physical, mental, and emotional well-being (Ramalakshmi & Ravindran, 2021).

Within the university context, policies and structures ought to be designed to enable employee empowerment (Hussin & Chin, 2014). A study conducted at a Pakistani university demonstrated that teachers should be encouraged to engage in decision-making, as empowerment is positively related to effective performance and serves as a tool to motivate teachers to achieve goals in the university's best interest. Such employee empowerment plays a vital role in enhancing commitment, which is closely correlated with OCB (Noor, 2009). In another study by Kasekende, Munene, Otengei, and Ntayi (2016), examining the mediating role of teacher empowerment between teacher competence and teacher OCB, it was found that empowerment was a mediating factor.

Saleem, Nisar, and Imran (2017) found that employees who experienced higher levels of empowerment showed more OCB. This study found that universities can be

successful when employees feel empowered. According to Aryani and Widodo (2020), empowerment is relevant within the context of OCB. From an empowerment perspective, leaders should be assisted in developing communication, relationships, and problem-solving skills. The importance of empowerment in influencing empowerment is also emphasised by Posadas, Priscila, Santos and Subia (2020). The author notes that empowerment's impact on OCB will also lead to changes within educational institutions. Teachers in higher education institutions should devote extra time to support the institution's growth and success. Higher education institutions should work to improve staff empowerment, as this will lead to OCB that can be valuable to students and the institution.

The study by Abdulrab et al. (2020) investigated the impact of transformational leadership and psychological empowerment on organisational citizenship behaviours in research universities in Malaysia. This study found that transformational leadership and psychological empowerment significantly influenced organisational citizenship behaviour. This suggests that leaders in Malaysian research universities influence academic staff to engage in citizenship behaviour. The positive relationship between psychological empowerment and organisational citizenship behaviour indicates that when employees have positive attitudes towards psychological empowerment, they are more likely to engage in OCB.

In the services sector, it was found that greater empowerment was associated with a positive relationship between transformational leadership and OCB. It was emphasised that an individual’s level of self-determination influenced an employee’s preparedness to engage in OCB. Transformational leaders should encourage employees not to limit their roles and responsibilities to what is defined in their job descriptions. Employees are motivated by their leaders' actions and conduct and may imitate similar behaviour when interacting with customers. Transformational leaders can change employees' behaviour, helping them become better people and encouraging them to engage in OCB. They influence people to make organisational goals a priority rather than being driven solely by personal goals (Jha, 2014).

In addition to leadership and employee empowerment, demographic variables can also impact OCB. According to Badawy, Reyes, and Magdy (2017), gender, age, years of service, and educational level had no effect on OCB. This contradicts the findings of other studies. The study by Huang, McDowell, and Vargas (2015) found differences across age groups in OCB. In their study, younger employees demonstrated greater OCB as impression management, whereas older employees engaged in OCB for prosocial motives. The study by LeBlanc (2014) reported significant differences between gender groups in OCB, with females more likely to engage in OCB than males. The study by Saleem, Nisar and Imran (2017) found relationships among different age, gender, qualification, job position, and experience groups regarding OCB. It was demonstrated that female teachers showed more concern for students; older teachers engaged more in OCB than younger teachers; teachers with higher qualifications engaged more in OCB; and the most experienced teachers displayed more OCB.

A few studies investigated the impact of race on OCB. The study by Joubert, van Tonder, and Grobler (2018) found differences between racial groups in OCB. Coloured and White groups differed significantly from Black respondents in perceived OCB, with Coloured and White employees engaging more in OCB. A study by Maharaj (2006) found no significant differences in OCB between racial groups.

The following section addresses the study's motivation.

1.2.2 Motivation for the study

The above literature review has shown that leadership and employee empowerment are among the important factors contributing to OCB. Leadership shapes employees' behaviour and can influence them to achieve organisational goals. Employees engaging in OCB are influenced by leadership characteristics such as goal setting, effective communication, transparency, innovation and motivation. It was also disclosed that higher levels of empowerment have led to increased participation in

OCB, which can result in organisational success and transformation. According to Van der Hoven, Mahembe and Hamman-Fisher (2021), when employees feel that leaders care for their development and growth, they feel empowered and are highly likely to engage in OCB. Examining the relationship between leadership and employees may thus help develop strategies to motivate OCB in an open-distance higher education institution.

According to the researcher's knowledge, no previous studies have examined the interrelationships among leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB within the ODL context in South Africa, which has prompted the need for the study. There is also no single study that investigates the mediating role of employee empowerment in the relationship between leadership and OCB within the ODL context in South Africa. Furthermore, the combination of factors identified in this study has not been investigated in a single study. An investigation into the relationships on the amalgamation of the factors of leadership: interpersonal relationships, task orientation, competence and vision and goal orientation, employee empowerment: management support, autonomy and decision and access to information and resources and OCB: civic virtue, altruism, sportsmanship, sense of duty and consideration are unique. The study will address the gaps in research in this regard. This study will also address the gaps in literature by delving deeper into the relationship between leadership and OCB. The study also proposes and tests a conceptual model that connects employee empowerment as a mediating variable in the relationship between leadership and OCB. This model will provide scholars with further insight into the relationship between the variables and promote theory development in the field of OCB.

The open distance higher education institution is constantly under pressure to keep up with changes in the external environment. This study will therefore provide the institution with a competitive advantage by motivating employees to engage in OCB through relevant leadership and employee empowerment strategies. Podsakoff et al. (2000) indicated that employee task characteristics and leadership were viewed as more significant than organisational characteristics. The study by de Geus, Ingrams, Tummers and Pandey (2020) in the public sector emphasised that the recognition of

different leadership and employee characteristics and their influence on OCB may therefore be a worthwhile investigation for public institutions. The interrelationships among leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB may lead to positive outcomes, such as job satisfaction and improved organisational performance. Evaluating the relationship between leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB within an open distance higher education institution will provide valuable insights into how to capitalise on leadership and employee empowerment efforts to improve OCB.

The limited research on the relationships between demographic variables and OCB within the South African context, especially in the higher education sector, also inspires the need for the study.

1.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM

In the preceding background, the concepts and relevance of leadership, employee empowerment and OCB were explored. The interrelationships between leadership, employee empowerment and OCB were described. This section describes the research problem that motivates the study.

Leaders in higher education institutions face challenges of declining student enrolment, constraints on public funding, and growing questions about whether the high costs of education are justified. These challenges make effective leadership in higher education more essential than ever before. Leaders are judged by the performance of the organisation, and the success or failure of an organisation is attributed to its leaders (Shayegan, Yavari & Bazrkar, 2022). While corporate leadership flows downward from boards of directors and CEOs through the various organisational structures, tertiary institutions follow a model of shared governance. These structural differences point to differences in what makes leadership effective at tertiary institutions versus in the corporate world. Multiple leadership approaches could be key to leadership in higher education, which must cope with the current, uncertain, and dynamic needs of a variety of stakeholders, including government, students, and administrative and academic employees (Nebiyu & Kassahun, 2021). Traditional

leadership centres on hierarchical patterns, which are ineffective in today's higher education scene. The current challenges require higher education institutions' leaders to adopt a leadership model appropriate to the nation's political, technological, and social contexts. According to Nebiyu and Kassahun (2021), adaptive leadership enables tertiary institutions to successfully and sustainably adapt to change by encouraging employees to remain dedicated to their work. Martins, Kashif, Dantas, Rafiq, and Lucas (2022) emphasise the importance of adaptive leadership and argue that the leadership style most appropriate to the given circumstances will determine whether a leader is successful. Shayegan et al. (2022) emphasise the importance of transformational leadership, which creates positive outcomes in the organisation by empowering and motivating employees to perform duties beyond their formal job expectations.

According to Bienkowska, Koszela, Ludwikowska, and Tworek (2022), a critical role of leaders is to serve employees through empowerment. Empowerment fosters a proactive attitude among employees and provides them with autonomy to make decisions and take responsibility for their decisions. Employees perceive empowerment as a sign of trust, which encourages them to voluntarily engage in organisational citizenship behaviours. According to Martins et al. (2022), employee attitudes and behaviours mirror their expectations and impressions of the organisation's treatment of them. A reciprocal relationship is thus key to persuading employees to engage in OCB.

In higher education, education leaders are individuals in positions such as department heads, directors, and deans. As educational leaders, they demonstrate teaching excellence but are also expected to be change advocates within educational institutions. According to Cheng and Zhu (2021), educational leaders should possess the following capacities: personal and interpersonal, teaching, leadership, and academic. All of these capacities were reported in need of development, with personal and interpersonal capacities being cited as the most important.

In the 21st century, institutions require leaders who demonstrate intelligence, innovation, problem-solving, and critical thinking skills. The leaders of higher education institutions need to be mindful that students require skills appropriate to the 21st-century world of work. As a result of the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic, the world has shifted to an online environment, and ODL institutions ought to strive to produce graduates who can perform well in work environments where technological skills are essential (Tarusikirwa, 2016). To adapt to this new virtual teaching environment, training sessions were arranged for both students and faculty members. These circumstances underscore the need to re-evaluate educational leadership during times of crisis (Yokus, 2022). This perspective is supported by Gurr and Drysdale (2020), who stress that leadership involves establishing direction and often necessitates the courage to take calculated strategic risks.

Leadership is necessary in ensuring employees engage in OCB. A study by Mahembe and Engelbrecht (2014) conducted at a school in the Western Cape suggested that value-based leadership styles can foster an environment that encourages positive work behaviours, such as OCB. The study further indicated that teachers would find it difficult to engage in OCB when dissatisfied with the principal's leadership style (Mahembe & Engelbrecht, 2014). An effective leader contributes to an employee's performance and also encourages OCB. If a leader maintains formalisation in the workplace and does not allow employees to take initiative, then OCB will not prevail (Ikinci, 2014).

The employees' potential to engage in OCB depends on the quality of the relationship between employees and their leaders (Byaruhanga & Othuma, 2014). Kanu, Ezeh, Ujoatuonu, Etom, and Ugwu (2022) support the importance of transformational leadership in creating a pathway for employees to become more engaged in their work and display OCB. Employees tend to consider effective leadership a signal of the organisation's commitment to their development and reciprocate by improving their behaviour. This reciprocity increases their overall job satisfaction and identification with the organisation (Kurniawati, Masyhuri & Izza, 2022). On the other hand, toxic

leadership, paternalism and hypocrisy all contribute to staff turnover, poor performance and a lack of commitment (Wongleedee, 2020; Yaghi & Yaghi, 2021). According to Shi, Yao-Chin and Ma (2023), leadership support positively affected OCB. Leadership support can be viewed as a form of approval that strengthens abilities. This encouragement inspires these employees to see themselves as essential contributors to the organisation, thereby prompting them to engage in actions that benefit the organisation, such as OCB (Shi et al., 2023). Hence, leaders ought to place greater emphasis on effective leadership and empowerment, as this could impact an organisation's survival and growth (Al-Sharafi & Rajiani, 2013). As employees demonstrate organisational citizenship behaviour, their dedication will be enhanced, thereby elevating the performance of higher education establishments. This, in turn, empowers these institutions to attain their intended objectives and enhance their service to the community. (Saheed-Adewale, Ghavifekr, & Megat, 2018).

There have been numerous studies on OCB, most of which are from a Western context (developed countries) (Al-sharafi & Rajiani, 2013). Recently, a number of studies have emerged in the Middle East. Various studies focused on the factors that affect OCB. Employee empowerment has also become a popular variable to study in relation to OCB. Although the areas of OCB and empowerment have become prevalent, there is still inadequate research on the role of employee empowerment as a mediator in the relationship between leadership and OCB among teachers in educational institutions. It will be vital to examine the dimensions of empowerment and how empowerment impacts OCB, which will help leaders in higher education institutions develop strategies to encourage academics to play a participative role in the organisation’s success (Posadas, Santos, & Subia, 2020). Recent studies by Abdulrab et al. (2020); Suriansyah, Aslamiah, Noorhapizah, Iwan & Dalle (2019); and Atatsi, Curşeu, Stoffers and Kil (2020) have also investigated the relationship among leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB. However, all these studies are from an international perspective. Recent South African studies by Coxen et al. (2017) investigated leadership and OCB in the Department of Health in South Africa. Bester, Stander and

Van Zyl (2015) focused on leader empowering behaviour, empowerment and OCB in the manufacturing sector. A recent study by Towsen, Stander and van der Vaart (2020) investigated leadership and empowerment in the mining industry.

In a study by Frantz, Lawack and Thoda (2020) on the perceptions of academic and professional leaders on leadership in a higher education institution, the results emphasised the need for higher education succession planning. Higher education institutions need leaders who focus on the collective rather than the individual. Traditionally, academic leaders have been appointed on the basis of seniority, regardless of whether candidates have demonstrated leadership competencies. One competency emphasised was the leader's ability to empower staff and foster a sense of ownership. This was especially important given that institutions are facing pressure to improve governance (Frantz et al., 2020).

The scarcity of studies on the interrelationships among leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB within the South African open distance higher education context widens the research gap. As the educational landscape adapts to global trends, including the surge in online education driven by the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic, it becomes imperative for education leaders to understand the mediating role of employee empowerment in shaping the relationship between leadership and OCB. By delving into these dimensions, this research aims to shed light on the mediating role of employee empowerment, thereby filling a critical gap in the existing literature and offering insights that can guide higher education leaders. Addressing this gap is crucial not only for enhancing leadership practices but also for sustaining higher education institutions' responsiveness to the 21st-century educational needs and challenges. An investigation into how the behaviours of leaders impact employees' work experiences and effectiveness, and OCB may lead to the development of recommendations and strategies to encourage employees to engage in OCB activities such as assisting colleagues, joining community engagement projects, serving on committees, participating in research projects and building a conducive work environment.

A review of literature on leadership, employee empowerment and OCB demonstrates the following:

- Theoretical models do not clarify the relationship between leadership and employee empowerment and OCB in open distance higher education institutions.
- The interrelationships between leadership and employee empowerment and OCB in the open distance higher environment in South Africa are not sufficiently recognised.
- There seems to be a scarcity of research on how demographic variables, such as race, gender, age, qualification, number of years at the organisation and job level influence employees' willingness to engage in OCB.

An investigation into the relationship between leadership and OCB and the mediating effects of employee empowerment on the relationship between leadership and OCB in a changing organisational context could make a valuable contribution to the discipline of human resource management. This could be of particular value in understanding the role played by OCB in open distance higher education institutions and to other organisations in general. Finally, the empirical results of this study could contribute to the development of leadership and employee empowerment strategies necessary for the improvement of OCB in an organisation.

The following research questions were developed from the problem statement:

1.3.1 Research questions with regards to the literature review

In terms of the literature review, the following research questions are addressed:

- How is leadership, employee empowerment and OCB conceptualised?
- Which factors define leadership, employee empowerment and OCB?

- What are the theoretical interrelationships between leadership, employee empowerment and OCB?

1.3.2 Empirical Research Questions

In terms of the empirical study, the following research questions are addressed:

- Which factors define leadership, employee empowerment and OCB?
- Does leadership influence OCB in an open distance higher education institution?
- Does employee empowerment mediate the relationship between leadership and OCB?
- Does the sample of respondents differ significantly regarding dimensions of OCB in terms of the following factors:
  - race
  - gender
  - age
  - qualification
  - number of years at the organisation
  - job level?

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

In terms of the literature review, the following research objectives are addressed in this study:

- to conceptualise leadership, employee empowerment and OCB;
- to determine which factors define leadership, employee empowerment and OCB; and
- to determine the theoretical interrelationships between leadership, employee empowerment and OCB.

In terms of the empirical study, the following research objectives are addressed:

- to determine the factors that define leadership, employee empowerment and OCB in an open distance higher education institution;
- to investigate the influence of leadership on OCB in an open distance higher education institution;
- to investigate the mediating role of employee empowerment on the relationship between leadership and OCB; and
- to determine whether the sample respondents differ significantly regarding the dimensions of OCB in terms of the following factors:
    - race
    - gender
    - age
    - qualification
    - number of years at the organisation; and
    - job level.

1.5 STATEMENT OF SIGNIFICANCE

This research investigates the interrelationships among leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB within the open-distance higher education environment in South Africa.

This research is important as it contributes to the field of human resource management and the higher education environment in the following ways:

- **Theoretical level**

The study is important for advancing theory in leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB in open-distance higher education institutions.

The study also goes beyond studying the relationship between leadership and OCB. It also investigates employee empowerment as a mediating variable between leadership and OCB and will therefore provide insight into the indirect effects of employee empowerment in this relationship.

This study looks at how the factors of leadership (interpersonal relationships, task orientation, competence and vision and goal orientation), employee empowerment (management support, autonomy and decision making and access to information and resources) are related to OCB (altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship and sense of duty and consideration). There is no single study that investigates this relationship with a combination of these factors.

The study also explores how biographical variables influence OCB in an open-distance higher education institution, which will be worthwhile for understanding OCB within a multicultural context.

- **Practical level**

The study's outcomes could help human resource practitioners understand the importance of leadership and empowerment in enhancing OCB. The recruitment, appointment and training of leaders can thus be improved to facilitate OCB. This will allow organisations to focus on leadership that produces positive results, especially greater engagement in OCB. From an employee empowerment perspective, attention can be placed on providing employees with more opportunities for empowerment, so they feel valued by the organisation and engage in OCB.

Future studies can further explore the interrelationships among leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB in the remote work environment. By studying how leadership adapts to remote environments and how employee empowerment and OCB manifest in this context, future research can provide valuable insights for organisations striving to cultivate a positive remote work culture.

This study is unique because no prior studies have examined the interrelationships among leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB in the South African open distance higher education context.

1.6 RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

The following central hypothesis was developed for this study.

- There is a significant positive relationship between the leadership dimensions: interpersonal relationships, task orientation, competence and vision and goal orientation and the OCB dimensions: altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship and sense of duty and consideration.
- Employee empowerment (management support, autonomy and decision making and access to information and resources) has a mediating effect on the relationship between leadership (interpersonal relationships, task orientation, competence and vision and goal orientation) and OCB (altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship and sense of duty and consideration).
- There are statistically significant differences between race, gender, age, qualification, number of years at the organisation and job level groups with regard to OCB.

1.7 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design describes the method and structure in which the researcher will follow to collect and analyse data for the study (Salkind, 2012). A survey research design is used in this study, and empirical data are collected via a self-developed questionnaire. The survey design allows for studies to be undertaken in large populations and geographically dispersed samples (Quinlan, 2011). The survey is a self-administered electronic questionnaire that was emailed to participants. Self-administered surveys are cost-effective, easy to administer, allow follow-up of non-responders, and simplify analysis due to an electronic format (Gill & Johnson, 2002).

This study is cross-sectional in nature. This study utilises quantitative research methods to achieve its empirical objectives. Quantitative research refers to numerical data, is deductive and objective, and falls within a positivist paradigm (Quinlan, 2011).

1.8 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

The following are key terms in this study:

- **Leadership**

"*Leadership is the art of influencing others to their maximum performance to accomplish any task, objective or project*" (Cohen, 2019).

- **Employee empowerment**

Employee empowerment refers to the manner in which employees are given resources, autonomy, authority, opportunities, responsibilities and training to be successful in their jobs (Wong, 2020).

- **Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB)**

OCB refers to positive acts performed by employees, voluntarily, to assist colleagues, which may be advantageous to the organisation (Thiruvenkadam & Durairaj, 2017).

- **Open and Distance Learning (ODL)**

According to Ghosh, Nath, Agarwal, Nath and Chaudhuri (2012), "*the concepts of open learning and distance education focus on open access to education and training, making learners free from the constraints of time and place, and on offering flexible learning opportunities to individuals and groups of learners"*.

- **Higher education institutions**

Beth (2005) regards higher education institutions as all accredited educational institutions, including public, for-profit, and proprietary institutions.

- **Competence**

Competence in leadership refers to the behaviours and skills a leader possesses to achieve excellent performance (Brownwell, 2006).

- **Interpersonal relationships**

Interpersonal relationships refer to the connections that employees possess when working together in the same organisation (Zender, 2017). Interpersonal leadership focuses on motivating others to work hard toward a meaningful and rewarding shared purpose (Bradt, 2022).

- **Task orientation**

Task orientation in leadership focuses on accomplishing tasks and on leaders ensuring that targets and goals are met (Johnson, 2022).

- **Vision and goal-orientation**

Vision and goal-oriented leaders develop and promote a shared vision (Sousa, 2018).

- **Management support**

Management support refers to the concern and openness expressed by supervisors (Chi, 2019).

- **Autonomy and decision making**

Autonomy refers to the extent to which the job allows employees freedom and liberty when planning and deciding on procedures for performing their jobs (Snell, Morris & Bohlander, 2016). Decision-making with regard to employee empowerment refers to the employee's participation in decision-making in order to ensure the swift resolution of organisational problems (Huq, 2015).

- **Access to information and resources**

Access to information refers to the availability of knowledge regarding organisational goals and strategies, whereas access to resources is the provision of materials, space, and funds that employees can use to perform their tasks (Spreitzer, 1996).

- **Altruism**

Altruism refers to an employee's concern for the welfare and rights of other individuals in the organisation (Khan, Feng, Tunku, Rahman, Chong & Zhen, 2017).

- **Civic virtue**

Civic virtue refers to an employee's involvement in organisational activities, such as answering work emails and attending work meetings (Littooij, 2020).

- **Sportsmanship**

Sportsmanship refers to an employee's tolerance of minor issues and inconveniences in the organisation (Wan, 2016).

- **Sense of duty and consideration**

Sense of duty refers to the individual's successful fulfilment of his or her duty to the organisation. Helpfulness refers to the employee's willingness to assist other colleagues in the institution and is related to the consideration dimension in the study (Avci, 2016).

1.9 CHAPTER LAYOUT

The study consists of the following chapters:

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

This chapter provides the background, research problem, and clearly describes the purpose of this research.

CHAPTER 2: LEADERSHIP

This chapter addresses the first literature research aim and conceptualises the construct of leadership. The discussion conceptualised the construct of leadership in the context of an open distance higher education environment. The theories, styles,

and traits of leadership are discussed. The factors that define leadership are also explained.

CHAPTER 3: EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT

This chapter focuses on employee empowerment. Employee empowerment is discussed in general terms, and then the focus shifts to an open-distance higher education environment. The dimensions of employee empowerment are also explained in this chapter. The factors that define employee empowerment are also discussed.

CHAPTER 4: ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

This chapter addresses the third literature research aim by conceptualising the construct OCB. OCB is discussed in general terms, followed by a focus on its role in an open-distance higher education environment. Furthermore, the discussion focuses on the theoretical relationship between leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB. The factors that define OCB are also explained. A section on theory and hypothesis development was also provided.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the research methodology and design used to obtain the empirical results. The sampling and data collection methods are also included in this chapter. The justification for selecting the research instrument is described, and the way in which the data was analysed is also explained.

CHAPTER 6: RESEARCH RESULTS

This chapter presents the statistical results of the research. The descriptive and inferential statistics are provided here by means of bar graphs, pie diagrams and tables. The results are interpreted, discussed and integrated with the literature review.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The final chapter summarises the findings and the conclusions drawn from them. Thereafter, based on the study's findings, suitable recommendations are made

relevant to the field of OCB and the open distance higher education environment, followed by a discussion of the study's limitations. Areas of further research are highlighted, and the chapter concludes with concluding remarks.

1.10 SUMMARY

This chapter describes the background and motivation for the research, the problem statement, the objectives of the study, the meta-theoretical framework, the research design, and the research methodology. The rationale for this research is based on the role that leadership and employee empowerment can play in encouraging OCB amongst staff in an open distance higher education institution.

The next chapter provides the literature review on leadership.

CHAPTER 2: LEADERSHIP

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Effective leadership is essential in any organisation. Leaders are the driving force in the organisation, as they are responsible for influencing followers toward goal achievement. Good leadership traits and skills are necessary when motivating staff, implementing organisational changes, and providing and implementing a vision. Leaders of today must have the knowledge and abilities to deal with the ever-changing workforce and the challenges the external environment may present. This chapter considers relevant literature and theory relating to the field of leadership. The concept of leadership is included in this chapter to provide an understanding of the field, where a distinction is made between leadership and management, and a brief explanation is given of leadership as a management function. Descriptions of pertinent leadership theories and approaches, along with their relevance to the study's factors, are provided. Furthermore, leadership styles, leadership skills, personality traits and effective leadership also form part of the study. Leadership will also be discussed within the context of Open Distance Higher Education Institutions.

2.2 THE CONCEPT OF LEADERSHIP

According to Oberer and Erkollar (2018), leadership is a complicated subject that can be researched in many ways. Northouse (2018) states that leadership refers to a single person influencing others to achieve mutual goals.

Gibson, Ivancevich, Donnelly and Konopaske (2012) have categorised the definition of leadership into three elements. Firstly, influence is important in the interpersonal relationship between leaders and followers. Secondly, change is relevant, and leaders need to be change agents, capable of impacting their followers' performance. Lastly, goal accomplishment is necessary, and leaders ought to focus on achieving individual, group, and organisational goals.

To sum up, leadership in the organisational context refers to a specific individual who has the ability to direct employees towards organisational goals and motivate them to facilitate change in the organisation. The open distance higher education institution is constantly faced with changes in the external environment. Leaders in the institution must influence university staff to embrace change and work towards achieving the institution's goals.

The differences and similarities regarding the characteristics of leadership and management are often misunderstood. The following section discusses leadership versus management.

2.3 LEADERSHIP AS A MANAGEMENT FUNCTION

The research by Azad, Anderson, Brooks, Garza, O' Neil, Stutz and Sobotka (2017) claimed that the roles of leaders and managers are interlinked. The research further stated that effective leadership is possible through a blend of leadership and management, and that managers and leaders must possess both leadership and management skills.

Schermerhorn (1996) asserts that leading is an integral function of the management process. Planning establishes the direction, organising ensures that the resources come together to implement the plan, leading motivates individuals to achieve the plan, and controlling ensures that things are accomplished in the right way. Leadership as a management function comprises the following elements (Schermerhorn, 1996):

- Vision – effective leaders should have a vision, which is a well-defined image of the future. Leaders with a vision communicate it to followers and encourage them to achieve it in their day-to-day activities.

- Empowerment – empowerment is giving people the opportunity and freedom to make appropriate decisions. Top management empowers employees by

supporting and encouraging them, valuing their talents and efforts, and allocating power at all levels in the organisation.

- Vision and empowerment in practice – Vision and empowerment may sound easy, but in practice, they are, in fact, difficult to achieve. Effective management compels managers to excel and to ensure that others excel in all areas of leadership. Leaders need to appreciate their followers' talents and skills and provide them with opportunities to influence the organisation.

The leader develops a purpose and vision and ensures direction in the organisation. The key role of leaders is to establish a culture that allows individuals to jointly achieve organisational goals. Leaders must be able to listen and communicate effectively to influence the organisation's direction. Leaders should be able to motivate followers and help them discover meaning in their work. Leaders must interact with various stakeholders and ensure stability between economic and non-economic goals (Allio, 2012).

Both management and leadership are highly relevant to the academic environment. This is supported by Azad et al. (2017), who state that a leader’s vision is fruitless if he or she cannot utilise management skills to allocate resources to achieve it. On the contrary, managers should have a vision for how the resources should be allocated.

To further understand leadership, the following section presents a review of leadership theories and their relationship to the factors identified in this study.

2.4 LEADERSHIP THEORIES

Leadership theories are essential in understanding and analysing the complex nature of leadership within organisations. Over the years, numerous scholars and researchers have developed various theories to explain leadership styles and their impact on organisations and employees. Leadership theories offer valuable insights into the factors identified in this study, including interpersonal relationships, task orientation, competence, vision, and goal orientation. Leadership theories are significant because they provide insight into the approaches leaders use. These

theories provide insight into the leader and the relationship they have with followers, and it also focuses on leadership at the organisational level. Furthermore, the theories also elaborate on the traits and characteristics of leaders (Oberer & Erkollar, 2018).

This section discusses leadership theories linked to empowerment and organisational citizenship behaviour.

2.4.1 Trait theory

There is a popular belief that leaders are born and not made, and that certain people have inborn traits that make them effective leaders (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2012). Early research on leadership examined the characteristics that distinguish leaders from non-leaders, a trait-based approach. These early studies identified characteristics, such as intelligence, alertness, initiative, self-confidence, and dominance, to distinguish leaders from non-leaders (Yves & Nils-Torge, 2011). Further studies identify a longer list of additional traits, but this list lacks practical value, and the findings of many studies that considered these traits prove unreliable. The trait approach also could not verify how the traits were related to leadership specifically (Moorhead & Griffin, 2014).

However, perceptions of leadership traits have improved since the early twentieth century, and it is now believed that these traits can be nurtured or developed. Modern researchers have suggested that the essential leadership traits can be categorised as follows (Hitt, Miller, Colella & Triana, 2017):

Drive: Leaders must possess ambition, persistence, tenacity and initiative. These characteristics enable leaders to articulate a vision and work towards achieving it:

- *Leadership motivation*: This refers to the individual's aspiration to lead, influence, take responsibility, and acquire power.
- *Integrity*: Leaders should be honest and maintain consistency in all their actions.
- *Self-confidence*: Leaders must have faith in themselves and pass on such confidence to others.

- *Cognitive ability*: Leaders must have the intelligence to comprehend complicated information, solve problems and adapt to a changing environment.
- *Knowledge of the domain*: Leaders must be familiar with the area in which they operate so that they can make good choices, predict future problems and understand the consequences of their actions.
- *Openness to new experiences*: Leaders must be flexible to new ideas, which is essential in today's environment.
- *Extraversion*: Leaders must be energetic, appreciate being around other people and be proactive in dealing with problems and opportunities.

Some of the traits mentioned above relate to the factors of the current study. A leader's drive is essential for goal and vision orientation. Integrity, cognitive ability, and knowledge of the domain are relevant to competence, and extraversion is necessary in interpersonal relationships.

Various studies have established that traits identified in the trait approach are relevant and necessary for an individual to be an excellent leader, but success depends on the leader taking appropriate action (Hitt et al., 2017).

However, the Trait theory was criticised for being unpredictable and for failing to account for context. The Trait theory has difficulty identifying which traits are necessary for effective leadership and the extent to which certain traits are required in different situations. Despite this shortfall, the Trait theory can be helpful in uncovering information about expertise. Through personality tests, strengths and weaknesses in individuals are identified. These tests can assist managers in establishing whether they possess the necessary traits for leadership positions in the organisation (Germain, 2012). According to Swan (2016), a problem with the trait theory is that it is difficult to determine which traits are inborn and which are gained from a person's rising status. A classification of the traits that individuals are born with and those gained by status became necessary.

2.4.2 Behavioural theories of leadership

While the great man and trait theories focus on traits that leaders inherit, behavioural theories are concerned with the behaviours and actions of leaders. The University of Michigan Studies and the Ohio State Studies were among the theories classified as behavioural theories of leadership.

In an analysis of leadership theories, the University of Michigan studies concentrated on employee-centred leadership, which was regarded as the most effective leadership approach. The Ohio State studies, on the other hand, implied that high initiating structures were the most effective leadership behaviours. Behavioural theories have been criticised for discrepancies in research, although they do account for situational factors when describing leadership (Uslu, 2019).

Despite the criticism, behavioural theories have their advantages. According to Salihu (2019), behavioural theories provide opportunities for leadership development by helping leaders become better and more effective. The behavioural theories of leadership foster openness to others' views, inspire, and promote encouragement and support.

The University of Michigan Studies makes a significant contribution to the field of leadership research that has explored leadership behaviour. The studies have examined leadership styles in relation to a leader's vision and goal orientation, competence, task orientation, and interpersonal relationships and their impact on various organisational outcomes. More insight into the University of Michigan Studies is presented in the section below.

- **The University of Michigan Studies**

The purpose of the University of Michigan studies was to identify the pattern of leadership behaviours associated with effective group performance. The researchers examined how effective leaders differed from ineffective ones. The study identified two distinct leadership behaviours, namely job-centred and employee-centred leadership. Job-centred leadership focuses on work performance, the employee's tasks, and explaining work processes to employees. Employee-centred leadership focuses on

high performance while considering the human aspect. The Michigan researchers concluded that leaders could display either job-centred or employee-centred leadership, but not at the same time. It was also found that leaders demonstrating employee-centred leadership were more likely to achieve high performance in groups than those demonstrating job-centred leadership (Moorhead & Griffin, 2014).

The University of Michigan's studies on behavioural leadership link job-centred leader behaviour to the task-orientation factor identified in this study. The focus is on the leader's ability to describe work processes and task accomplishment to employees. Jabeen and Isakovic (2018) indicated that a task-oriented leader's goal fulfilment, openness and accessibility contribute to job satisfaction in the workplace. A task-oriented leader supports employees in achieving their work goals and shares important knowledge and information with subordinates.

Leadership theories expanded beyond the scope of traits and behaviours to include the context or situation within which leaders operate. This gave rise to the situational or contingency theories of leadership as addressed in the next section.

2.4.3 Situational or contingency theories of leadership

Contingency or situational theories emerged in response to the inconsistencies in the findings of the trait and behavioural style theories. Situational leadership theories suggest that effective leadership behaviour depends on the situation (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2012). Fiedler's Contingency Theory of Leadership Effectiveness, the Path-Goal Model, Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Theory, the Tannenbaum and Schmidt Continuum, and the Vroom and Yetton Contingency Model were among the theories that formed part of the situational or contingency theories of leadership.

Research has found that leader supportiveness and directiveness are the most important drivers of leadership effectiveness (Piccolo, Bono, Heinitz, Rowold, Duehr & Judge, 2012). The review by Dehswal and Ali (2020) supplements these findings by indicating that no single leadership style is appropriate in every situation. Leaders should therefore apply a style suited to the specific situation. The advantage of this

theory is that it provides managers with opportunities to acquire different leadership styles and to apply the style that aligns with employees' readiness or the complexity of the situation or task (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 2013). Fiedler's Contingency Theory of Leadership Effectiveness and Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Theory are discussed as they are linked to this study's results.

- **Fiedler's Contingency Theory of Leadership Effectiveness**

Fiedler's theory has become a valid and reliable measure of leadership effectiveness (Waters, 2013). The theory focuses on a particular leadership position and the relationship between leaders and subordinates (Popp & Hadwich, 2018). Leadership style and behaviour may be adapted to the situation (Bitner, 1990; Bowen, 1990). Shala, Prebreza, and Ramosaj (2021) indicated that the theory is useful because it highlights the leadership style most effective within a given context. The authors further highlight that this theory is important for developing leadership profiles suitable for the organisation.

Fred Fiedler, the originator of one of the most popular approaches to leadership, found that there are two important aspects to understanding leadership behaviour. He devised a way to assess why one leader is more effective than another in a given situation, even when they have the same qualifications. Fiedler focused on leaders' styles and how individuals handle leadership tasks. Fiedler proposed that leaders can be characterised as either relationship-oriented or task-oriented. Leaders who rely on relationship-oriented styles regard good working relationships as their first priority and task accomplishment as their second priority. Leaders who rely on task-oriented styles prioritise task accomplishment and good relationships with employees. The most effective leadership style depends on the (George & Jones, 2012).

The following are situational characteristics that define a leader's level of power over employees:

- Leader-member relations are the personal relationship that prevails between the leaders and employees. This type of relationship is built on trust, confidence and respect between leaders and employees.

- Task structure is another important situational characteristic. A structured task involves routine, clear, and simple tasks, whereas an unstructured task involves the opposite. Fiedler states that unstructured tasks are often not advantageous because the leader must guide and direct subordinates' actions.
- The position of the leader determines their power. If leaders are given authority to allocate tasks, reward and reprimand employees and motivate for employees to be promoted, then a leader's position and power is high (Moorhead & Griffin, 2014).

The study by Popp and Hadwich (2018) demonstrated that the effectiveness of employee behaviour is based on the situation. In this study, relationship-oriented leadership proved to be more successful than task-oriented leadership.

Fiedler's contingency theory is relevant to the current study, as it focuses on interpersonal relationships and task orientation. The theory posits that leaders can adopt either a relationship-oriented or a task-oriented style. The study by Fayyaz, Naheed and Hasan (2014) found a strong, positive and significant association between a supervisor's communication competence, task and relational leadership styles, and employee performance. The regression results indicated that task and relational leadership styles, as well as communication competence, positively and significantly affect employee performance.

- **Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Theory**

According to Raza and Sikander (2018), the Hersey and Blanchard model indicates that there is more than one way to lead, and that the leader needs to choose a style most applicable to a specific situation. The model depends on followers' ability, readiness and enthusiasm to perform organisational tasks. This view supports Schermerhorn, Osborn, Uhl-Bien, and Hunt (2012), who stated that effective leadership depends on selecting a leadership style that corresponds to the follower's readiness. Leaders rely on followers' skills and abilities; if followers lack the necessary skills, the leader is expected to adjust their leadership style to provide guidance and monitor followers' performance. According to these authors, readiness is

demonstrated by a follower's enthusiasm to achieve a specific task. Hersey and Blanchard identified specific leadership behaviours, and the most valuable behaviour is determined by followers' capability and enthusiasm. A leader needs to provide well-defined directions to followers who are unable to carry out tasks.

Researchers emphasised that a situational leadership approach enables leaders to become familiar with subordinates' behaviours and characteristics and to develop an understanding of the situation before adopting any leadership style (Nurhalida et al., 2021).

According to Luthans (2011), Hersey and Blanchard recognised two main styles of leadership:

- *Task style* – the leader arranges and outlines responsibilities to members of a group and also describes how, when and where these tasks must be carried out.
- *Relationship style* – the leader establishes a friendly relationship with group members. In this relationship, members interact openly and offer emotional support.

The task and relationship styles align with the factors of interpersonal relationships and task orientation in the current study. These factors reflect the leader's ability to rely on relationships to get the job done or to structure the task to guide and monitor less able employees.

According to Hersey and Blanchard's model of situational leadership, the focus is also on four leadership styles, namely delegating, participating, selling, and telling, which highlight different blends of task and relationship behaviours demonstrated by leaders. The four styles are described as follows (Schermerhorn et al., 2012):

- A 'telling' style (S1) is more suitable for followers with low readiness. These followers are characterised as individuals who are incapable of taking charge and therefore require guidance.

- A ‘selling’ style (S2) enables followers to take charge even though they are not capable of doing so. The followers are willing to take responsibility provided that they have support and guidance from the leaders.
- A ‘participating’ style (S3) is recommended for followers who have the ability to take on responsibility but are unwilling to do so. These followers require motivation from leaders, which can be provided by encouraging them to be part of the decision-making process.
- A ‘delegating’ style (S4) is suited to followers who are ready and capable of taking on responsibility. Leaders provide minimal guidance to these followers.

According to this theory, the ‘participating style’ is significant to this study. Leaders who can establish interpersonal relationships should also motivate employees and ensure their involvement in the organisation’s decision-making process.

2.5 EMERGING APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP

Charismatic, value-based, strategic, team, and cross-cultural leadership were among the emerging approaches in leadership.

2.5.1 Charismatic Leadership

Charismatic leaders possess appeal and can influence their followers, making them feel valued (Gibson et al., 2012).

There are three core behavioural components of charismatic leadership, namely envisioning, empathy, and empowerment. Firstly, envisioning involves developing an image of the preferred future state that people can feel enthusiastic about. A charismatic leader is more valued when they have a vision for the future. These leaders are dedicated to the vision and inspire their followers when communicating it. Secondly, empathy refers to the leader’s ability to understand and be sensitive to the follower’s feelings and motives. Leaders who show empathy can instil a sense of unanimity among their followers. Furthermore, when striving to achieve objectives,

leaders consider the follower's input in the decision-making process. Lastly, empowerment entails not only assigning power to followers but also allowing them to feel a sense of choice in controlling their actions, influencing strategy, and shaping operational outcomes at work (Choi, 2006). There are various types of charismatic leaders. The first type of charismatic leader is the socialised charismatic. This type of leader limits the use of power, aligns group members' values with their own, and devises and achieves goals that benefit the group. The second type of charismatic leader is the personalised charismatic. These leaders exercise few restraints and are interested in serving their own goals. These types of leaders offer support to group members only if it fulfils their own goals. Officeholder charismatic leaders, personal charismatic leaders, divine charismatic leaders, and celebrity charismatic leaders are also types of charismatic leaders. Charismatic officeholders are more interested in the office or role they occupy than in their personal characteristics. Personal charismatic leaders achieve high status through others' beliefs. Divine charismatic leaders are a historical type, gifted with the power to lead people through a crisis. The celebrity charismatic leader can coincide with the socialised and personal charismatic leadership types. This charismatic leadership style is evident among political leaders, entertainers, and organisational leaders (Dubrin, 2015).

Gibson et al. (2012) identified charismatic leaders who are visionary and crisis-based. Visionary, charismatic leaders are concerned with the long term and engage with their followers to ensure that their needs align with the organisation's objectives. Crisis-based charismatic leaders are concerned with short-term goals and can respond to a crisis by communicating the measures to be applied and explaining their consequences.

Studies reveal that charismatic leadership is associated with followers' self-concept, identification with and trust in the leader, positive self-sacrifice, identification with the work group, and work group motivation. Charismatic leadership is also linked to employee safety consciousness, individual performance, and satisfaction with the leader. Research further indicates that the greatest leaders are both charismatic and transactional. Charismatic leadership, however, does not apply to all organisational

settings. It is most successful when there is an opportunity for ‘moral’ involvement; performance goals are immeasurable; there is no clear relationship between individual performance and rewards; there are few restrictions guiding behaviour; and determination, behaviour, sacrifice, and performance are required from both parties. Research also suggests that developing charisma in individuals is difficult and that charismatic leaders can make job promises that cannot be fulfilled (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2012).

Leaders in open distance higher education institutions face many challenges related to curriculum transformation, technological change, and diverse student needs. Institutional leaders need to develop a vision and motivate employees towards it. This will be possible if leaders are charismatic and able to inspire employees to pursue the organisation’s goals.

2.5.2 Strategic Leadership

Strategic leadership is instrumental in the continuous development of higher education institutions. In the face of sudden changes in the external environment, there is a need for strategic leaders who can execute a strategic vision to respond to these changes. The ability to adapt to environmental change depends on a leader’s creative capabilities in strategic leadership (Alayoubi, Shobaki, Abu-Naser, 2020).

Strategic leaders work towards a vision or purpose, and they develop and implement a strategy. Strategic leadership comprises the following processes (Gill, 2011):

- Strategic thinking – leaders must engage in analytical thinking to create a vision.
- Strategic definition – leaders must be able to recognise and improve on the service offering made to customers. They need to ensure that the offerings are unique and attractive.
- Strategic alignment – leaders need to ensure the business model is developed in such a way that it is aligned with the service and product offerings of the business.

- Strategic enactment – leaders must take the relevant steps to apply the business model, to produce the products or services and to accomplish the vision of the organisation.

According to Rahman, Othman, Yajid, Rahman, Yaakob, Masri, Ramli and Ibrahim (2018), strategic leadership is necessary for organisations to survive in an unstable business environment. In this study, a positive relationship was found between strategic leadership, operational excellence, strategic orientation, and business performance. An organisation faces many threats and opportunities, and strategic leadership can enable it to function in an uncertain environment.

Strategic leadership is vital in an educational environment. According to Van der Linde and Van Braak (2010), strategic leadership is necessary because it enables teachers to implement policies and translate them into goals in their day-to-day activities. These authors further indicate that strategic leaders need to be digitally capable in structuring and allocating resources, and in influencing employees to be competent in the same way.

Strategic leadership is relevant to this study, as it highlights leadership competence and a leader's ability to create a vision and achieve it.

2.6 OTHER APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP

The following are other approaches to leadership:

2.6.1 Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership refers to leaders who identify and assist followers in achieving desired results and attaining performance levels that enable them to secure rewards (Gibson et al., 2012). The leader considers the person's self-concept and esteem needs when attempting to assist them in realising their work goals (Ivancevich, Konopaske and Matteson, 2013). According to Gill (2011), transactional leaders use

rewards to motivate employees to perform and to achieve organisational goals. This approach can lead to short-term goal achievement but prevent employees from growing, which may result in a loss of competitive advantage.

According to Schermerhorn et al. (2012), in transactional leadership, the leader-follower exchange comprises four dimensions:

- Contingent rewards - these can be in different forms, which can only be attained if leaders and followers conform to the achievement of a common goal.
- Active management by exception – leaders need to be aware of divergences from usual norms and regulations, and the necessary steps need to be taken to remedy the situation.
- Passive management by exception – this occurs when a leader only reacts when certain standards are not maintained in the organisation.
- Laissez-faire – this refers to leaders abandoning their duties and not engaging in decision-making.

Transactional leadership is a common practice in business. For example, members are rewarded for success and reprimanded for failing to complete tasks. Rules and standards are central to transactional leadership, and followers are discouraged from developing innovative strategies to solve problems. This leadership style is only effective when dealing with simple problems and stifles the growth of both leaders and followers (Malos, 2012).

Transactional leadership has positive outcomes in an organisation. A study by Shaaban and Shehata (2019) found positive correlations between transactional leadership and employees' resilience and performance. The study noted that positive contingent rewards in transactional leadership can motivate employees to achieve task objectives and engage in problem-solving. One of the key factors of leadership identified in this study is task competence and orientation. A transactional leader focuses on the successful completion of tasks, thereby supporting the value of this leadership style.

2.6.2 Transformational Leadership

Transformational leaders can persuade employees to pursue goals that go beyond their self-interest. Transformational leaders encourage followers to work diligently to achieve the leaders' vision, and followers are steered toward self-actualisation rather than security (Gibson et al., 2012). Transformational leaders will drive massive change in the business to realise their vision by adjusting organisational goals, direction, and mission (Ivancevich et al., 2013). According to Mullins (2016), transformational leaders inspire followers by:

- creating an awareness of the relevance of organisational and job objectives;
- encouraging employees to exceed their own self-interest for the good of the organisation; and
- stimulating employees to aim for higher-order motivational needs.

Schermerhorn et al. (2012) indicated that transformational leadership comprises of four dimensions, which are as follows:

- charisma - leaders have a vision and high self-esteem, and they gain the respect of their followers.
- inspiration - leaders share greater expectations and communicate their intentions in simplistic terms.
- intellectual stimulation - leaders stimulate intelligence, good judgement and sensible problem-solving skills by urging employees to have a different perspective on problems facing the organisation or their job; and
- individualised consideration - leaders provide followers with individual attention and act as coaches and advisors to their followers.

Ivancevich et al. (2013) emphasise that charisma is the most essential quality of a transformational leader, but charisma may be insufficient to initiate transformation within an organisation. Therefore, needs-assessment skills, effective communication, and compassion towards others are also important qualities. Leaders must be able to communicate their vision and recognise employees' skill gaps.

Transformational leadership is considered more successful than transactional leadership. It is positively correlated with trust in management. According to Robbins et al. (2016), transformational leaders invest time in managing employees, reward performance, show individual consideration, stimulate employees intellectually, and inspire them. Furthermore, transformational leadership is associated with lower turnover, greater productivity, and job satisfaction (Robbins et al., 2016).

In a study by Colbert, Barrick, and Bradley (2014), transformational leadership was found to be significantly associated with organisational commitment. The study also found that transformational leadership had a greater impact on lower-level employees' commitment, indicating that top management plays a significant role in nurturing relationships with employees in the organisation. The findings imply that the organisation should implement formal techniques to develop leaders' transformational leadership skills. Transformational leaders can interact effectively with one another and build relationships with lower-level employees to ensure the organisation's success.

According to the study by Mclaggan, Bezuidenhout and Botha (2013), employees appeared to be more committed and loyal when led by transformational leadership. However, the study also found an association between commitment and contingent reward, a sub-scale of transactional leadership. Employees feel valued when they are rewarded for performing their jobs effectively. This, in turn, affects their commitment and productivity. It is suggested that managers should develop their skills in both transactional and transformational leadership approaches. Financial rewards should also be provided to employees to make them feel appreciated in the organisation.

A study by Shafi, Zoya, Lei, Song and Sarker (2020), demonstrated that employee creativity is also encouraged through transformational leadership. Leaders who possess a transformational style can motivate employees to be innovative and creative on the job. Transformational leaders should also serve as role models by being creative and innovative in their roles.

Transformational leadership is associated with the interpersonal relationships factor identified in this study. Leaders need to build interpersonal relationships to inspire employees, communicate effectively, and guide followers towards a vision. Transformational leadership is particularly relevant in higher education because the sector requires leaders who focus on the needs of the institution rather than those of the individual (Frantz et al., 2020). A study by Khan, Ismail, Hussain, and Alghazali (2020) found that transformational leadership encourages academic leaders to enhance their ability to motivate employees to be creative at work.

Earlier research has shown that transformational leaders exhibit behaviours that foster positive and supportive relationships with their followers, such as individualised consideration, intellectual stimulation, and inspirational motivation. An empirical study by Judge and Bono (2001) investigated the relationship between transformational leadership and follower outcomes. The findings indicated that transformational leadership positively correlated with follower job satisfaction, motivation, and commitment. These results highlight the importance of interpersonal relationships in leadership effectiveness.

Transformational leadership is also linked to vision and goal orientation, with the establishment of guidelines for restructuring and realigning an organisation being vital. Transformational leaders motivate employees and ensure commitment to the organisation. Vision-linked transformational leadership is the most appropriate form of leadership to bring about change in an institution (Gellis, 2001; Bryant, 2003; Judge & Ronald, 2004; Howell & Avolio, 1993). A study conducted in Greece indicated that leading digital institutions use transformational leadership (Antonopoulou, Halkiopoulos, Barlou & Beligiannis, 2021). Transformational leadership is important for goal orientation, as it realigns employees' goals and beliefs with organisational goals (Korejan & Shahbazi, 2016).

2.6.3 Leader-Member Exchange Theory

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory focuses on dyadic relationships. In these dyadic relationships, one party has the privilege of exerting power over the other.

Leaders in these relationships react differently to different subordinates, establishing an in-group and an out-group. Individuals in the in-group receive special treatment and are considered more trustworthy than those in the out-group. This approach to leadership is based on an effective, mutual relationship between leaders and followers (Martin & Fellenz, 2017). Leaders are more inclined to select groups that share attitudes and personality characteristics similar to their own. According to this theory, the leader's decisions are based on the followers' characteristics. There is evidence that in-group leaders are associated with high performance, low turnover intentions, and greater overall satisfaction. Leaders invest their resources in highly competent, top-performing employees (Robbins et al., 2016).

Gills (2011) reported that the leader-member exchange theory is only relevant for emphasising relationships between leaders and followers within an organisation's elite groups. Furthermore, the approach does not describe the leadership behaviours that are important for developing high-quality relationships; however, it does adopt the concept of 'individualised consideration', which is an integral part of transformational leadership: taking individuals' needs into account and acknowledging their individuality.

A study by Atitumpong and Badhir (2018) found a positive correlation between leader-member exchange leadership and innovative work behaviour. The quality of the work relationship between leaders and employees is important, as it can enable employees to be creative and feel empowered. Selvarajan, Singh, and Solansky (2018) found positive relationships between the leader-member exchange leadership and motivation to improve performance. A supportive work climate should thus contribute to improved employee performance, and hence organisations should invest in developing and maintaining a healthy leader-member exchange relationship.

The Leader-member exchange theory is related to the interpersonal relationship factor as identified in this study. A study by Alo and Arslan (2022) found that employees who have positive interpersonal relationships with their leaders are more committed and experience greater job satisfaction.

2.7 LEADERSHIP SKILLS

Luthans (2011) identified the following leadership skills that are needed for leaders to become successful and to perform effectively in an organisation:

- *Cultural flexibility*: Leaders must be able to recognise the diverse cultures in an organisation. They are required to be understanding of other people's cultures.
- *Communication skills*: A good leader possesses excellent communication skills and can communicate effectively through verbal, written and non-verbal forms.
- *Human Resource Development skills (HRD)*: Human resources is an essential element in leadership effectiveness therefore leaders must possess HRD skills to create an atmosphere of learning, developing, and delivering training programmes, communicating information, evaluating outcomes, providing advice on an employees' future, bringing about change for the benefit of the organisation, and altering training manuals.
- *Creativity*: To compete in today's global market, leaders need to be innovative and have excellent problem-solving skills. These leaders need to create and maintain a work environment that motivates employees to be creative in their work.
- *Self-management of learning*: Leaders need to be self-learners and need to engage in ongoing learning of new skills and wisdom, as these skills are extremely important during times of change and global competitiveness.

Technical skills, also referred to as business skills, entail the systems and processes that are needed to carry out a particular job. Interpersonal skills, also known as people skills, are important when interacting and communicating with other people, and also necessary in establishing relationship with others. It was found that technical and interpersonal skills are important for first level managers. Decision-making skills, also known as conceptual skills, refer to the conceptual ability of an individual and leaders finding new ways to deal with problems. Decision-making skills are necessary for leaders to be successful in an organisation. It was reported that interpersonal and

decision-making skills are important for top management, whereas middle managers strive towards obtaining all three skills (Lussier & Achua, 2013).

The technical and interpersonal skills required from leaders are linked to the factors of task orientation and interpersonal relationship identified in the current study. Leaders in higher education institutions need to have knowledge of the systems and processes of the business but interpersonal skills are equally important as leaders are constantly interacting with employees.

Although various skills have been explored, the reality is that leaders are required to lead an organisation into the future, and for this they require new leadership skills. Traditional leadership capacities are not sufficient to lead an organisation into the future. The future world seems more volatile and uncertain as before, and therefore, strong leadership skills, such as the following, are important to ensure that organisations can survive (Johansen, 2012):

- Maker Instinct – leaders require this instinct to build and rebuild an organisation. They should take advantage of their inner drive to develop an organisation while at the same time engage with people in the process.
- Clarity – leaders ought to ensure that their intentions are clear, but also be flexible when developing the organisation.
- Dilemma flipping – leaders ought to have the ability to turn dilemmas into strengths and opportunities that will benefit the organisation.
- Bio-empathy – leaders need to understand nature and appreciate how nature works.
- Constructive depolarising – leaders need to bring peace during conflicts and assist people from different cultures to communicate and relate to one another.
- Quite transparency – leaders should be genuine and honest with others without publicising themselves too much.
- Rapid Prototyping – leaders need to be proactive and prepared in innovative ways to deal with failures that might arise sooner than expected.

- Smart-mob organising – the leaders must be able to establish, communicate and maintain meaningful business through electronic and other social media.
- Commons creating – this is the most relevant leadership skill for the future as it refers to a leader's capability of growing and developing all resources collectively, that will be advantageous for everyone and will acknowledge competition at a higher level.

Cheng and Zhu (2021), educational leaders are expected to possess good morals, charisma, human relations, personal communication, and conflict resolution skills. The author also added that empathy and open-mindedness is also important. It was emphasised that academic credibility, community services and institutional reputation enhancement are necessary in educational leadership.

Digital skills are also vital in the higher education environment. Leaders are required to develop a combination of digital skills, mainly related to the ability to communicate effectively in a digital context, take the initiative and adapt immediately to new situations. Digital transformation can be successful in the long run, if the organisation can adopt new digital tools. Leaders are responsible to guide this strategic alignment with the digital culture (Antonopoulou et al., 2021).

2.8 PERSONALITY TRAITS AND EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP

Yukl (2020) discussed and integrated the findings of various studies, and came up with the following personality traits for effective leadership in organisations:

- Energy level and stress tolerance – leaders are required to possess high energy levels and stress tolerance so that they are able handle the pressure of a demanding work environment. Effective problem-solving and decision-making require a leader that is calm, confident, and strongminded so as to enable them to take responsibility, resolve conflict, and provide direction to followers.
- Self-confidence – leaders demonstrating self-confidence are more likely to be effective leaders and are able to successfully influence followers. These leaders are optimistic and are on the quest to achieve difficult goals, no matter what

setbacks they might encounter. Leaders are action-oriented, as they aim to solve problems and bring about desirable changes in the organisation.

- Internal locus of control – leaders with internal locus of control believe that they are responsible for their own actions, rather than believing in fate having a hand in the events that occur in their lives. Leaders with internal locus of control have plans for the future and work proactively to achieve their goals. They are flexible and inventive when dealing with problems and learn from failures rather than blaming fate for the difficulties facing an organisation. The research has suggested that internal locus of control in leaders was positively related to managerial effectiveness, increased profitability and sales.
- Emotional stability and maturity – leaders need to be emotional stable and mature, meaning that they need to be mentally secure without any psychological problems. Individuals that are emotionally mature are conscious about their strengths and weaknesses and believe in finding ways to improve on their flaws. These people are considerate about others; demonstrate self-control and accept criticism from others. Leaders with high emotional stability and maturity develop and sustain good relationships with others in the workplace.
- Power motivation - individuals that have a desire for power and influence pursue careers that allow them to exert power and authority in the organisation. Managerial positions are usually associated with power and authority. Research has shown that socialised power orientations are expected to result in effective leadership. Leaders that have a need for socialised power are emotionally stable, use power for the interest of others as well as the development of the organisation, are not selfish or defensive, and consider the opinions of other people.
- Personal integrity – individuals with integrity have values of honesty and trustworthiness and behave ethically. These individuals win the support and loyalty of followers and other members in the organisation. People appreciate leaders that are not self-serving, manipulative, or exploitative. They associate with leaders that keep their promises and satisfy their responsibilities. Leaders

are weak if they fail to take responsibility for their actions, which results in unfavourable consequences.

- Narcissism – the need for esteem, prestige, status, admiration, strong personalised power, lack of emotional maturity, and little integrity are characteristics of narcissism. This type of leader associates with subordinates that are loyal and accepting towards them. They do not analyse the environment, take on projects that are risky, or ignore negative feedback, which leads to them not rectifying adverse situations. They do not take responsibility for their actions and tend to blame others for problems that might occur. Although narcissism is viewed as a negative trait, there are some positive characteristics that can be associated with this trait. The high self-confidence of narcissistic leaders will be able to persuade followers to take on risky and innovative purposes. These leaders are sometimes successful in running an organisation during turbulent times.
- Achievement orientation – achievement orientation entails a desire for achievement, performance orientation, readiness to take on responsibility, as well as focus on performance and task objectives. Research indicates that moderate achievement orientation is positively related to leadership effectiveness. Achievement motivation can only increase leadership effectiveness if there is a desire for socialised power as this ensures that the manager concentrates on building a successful team. However, when coupled with a personalised need for power, the leader becomes self-centred; they focus on their personal reputation and find ways to get to the top. These leaders care about their career advancement and fail to co-operate with their peers.
- Need for affiliation – leaders with a great need for affiliation are admired and accepted by others, and they appreciate the company of people who are approachable and supportive. Leaders with a high need for affiliation may experience managerial ineffectiveness. These managers are concerned with interpersonal relationships; they avoid conflicts, show favouritism, and reward individuals to gain approval. While a high need for affiliation may be negative, a very low need for affiliation is also undesirable. These individuals are not

interested in socialising, fail to develop interpersonal relations with their peers, and are usually demotivated. It is therefore essential for leaders to have a moderately low need for affiliation, rather than a high or very low one.

The strong need for affiliation is relevant to leaders who care about interpersonal relationships. They are interested in getting to know others and gaining approval. At the same time, achievement orientation aligns with task orientation, as the leader tends to focus on performance and task objectives.

2.8.1 The Big Five Personality Dimensions

Although several personality traits have been investigated over the years, five main personality dimensions have been distilled, overlapping with the trait theory of leadership. These are termed the *Big Five personality dimensions,* which define an individual's extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness to experience. These dimensions are discussed below (Draft, 2015):

- Extraversion – This dimension describes an individual that is outgoing, sociable, outspoken and enjoys meeting other people. This person is highly dominating and enjoys controlling and influencing other people. They are self-assured, competitive, and eager to attain titles of authority. Extraversion can be an ideal characteristic for a successful leader, but it is not necessary to be an effective leader. High levels of dominance can be undesirable if they are not accompanied by other qualities such as agreeableness and emotional stability.
- Agreeableness – This dimension describes a person who is compassionate, caring and understanding. Agreeableness is an appropriate characteristic for leaders of today and many leaders are attempting to come across as a friendly person in front of the public and shareholders. Leaders can enhance their likeability by ensuring that they are friendly, helpful, empathetic, and trying to make other people feel good about themselves.
- Conscientiousness – A conscientious person is responsible, dependable, and concentrates on a few goals, which they aim to achieve in a meaningful way.

These individuals are more interested in work than in establishing bonds with their peers and followers.

- Emotional stability – As discussed in the section above, emotional stability refers to someone who is emotionally secure. These individuals can deal with criticism and stress. Emotionally stable leaders establish and maintain relationships with other people.
- Openness to experience – Individuals who are open to experience are inventive, resourceful and appreciate new ideas. They express curiosity in an intelligent manner and interested in exploring new things. Open-minded leaders focus on bringing about changes in the organisation.

Previous research indicated that CEO conscientiousness, emotional stability, openness to experience, extraversion, and agreeableness were positively associated with the effectiveness of top management teams, and ultimately organisational performance (Peterson, Smith, Martorana & Owens, 2003). A study by Colbert et al. (2014) found that the dimension of conscientiousness among chief executive officers and top management teams was directly associated with organisational performance, whereas emotional stability and openness to experience were indirectly linked to organisational effectiveness through transformational leadership. This study implies that organisations should aim to hire individuals who demonstrate higher levels of conscientiousness, as this is important for achieving higher organisational performance. A study conducted by Cavazotte, Moreno, and Hickmann (2012) found that emotional intelligence and conscientiousness had an indirect relationship with organisational effectiveness and the achievement of organisational goals.

A study examining personality and leadership found that agreeableness was associated with reduced relationship-oriented leadership, openness to experience with relationship-oriented leadership, and conscientiousness with task-oriented leadership (Emery, Calvard, & Pierce, 2013). Another study of the Big Five leadership traits and team entrepreneurship found that openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism positively influenced team

entrepreneurship and organisational performance, as evidenced by increases in sales, product innovation, and expansion of the existing customer base (Jawabri, 2020).

2.9 FACTORS THAT DEFINE LEADERSHIP

This section discusses the factors that define leaders in this study.

2.9.1 Interpersonal Relationships

Interpersonal relationships are important when motivating employees towards organisational goals. Organisations therefore require interpersonal leadership to develop and maintain these relationships in the workplace. According to Bradt (2020), interpersonal leadership is about encouraging followers to strive for their best in achieving a common goal. It is an inside-out approach to people, meaning that it motivates individuals to utilise their inner strength to advance their progress.

A study by Suryadi, Mayliza and Yusnelly (2020) indicated a positive association between interpersonal relationships and performance. It was further stated that strong interpersonal relationships between leaders and employees will lead to improved organisational performance.

A leader's relationship-oriented behaviour entails supporting and developing individuals (Yukl, Mahsud, Prussia & Hassan, 2019). Borgmann, Rowold, and Bormann (2016) found that relationship-oriented behaviours had a significant effect on job satisfaction. In a study that investigated the leadership behaviours of school principals and job satisfaction, it was emphasised that participation and open and healthy communication encouraged higher quality of work and happiness in the workplace (Cansoy, 2019).

Interpersonal relationships are an important component of transformational leadership. Transformational leaders are valuable when interacting with people, instilling confidence in members, inciting co-operation among group members, and encouraging their cooperation with others. Transformational leaders have a major

influence on the development and implementation of business processes (Strukan, Nikolić, & Sefić, 2017).

In the higher education context, interpersonal relationships aim to provide effective leadership in addressing challenges. Interpersonal relationships are necessary when dealing with internal and external constituencies, communicating with colleagues, driving change, building effective teams, cultivating teamwork, encouraging innovation, and predicting and managing effectively when faced with crisis and conflict (Gigliotti, Agnew, Goldthwaite, Sahay, Dwyer & Ruben, 2016; Ruben & Gigliotti, 2017).

2.9.2 Vision and Goal Orientation

Effective leadership directs employees toward achieving predetermined goals. An organisation's leadership should align with its goals and mission (Suryadi, Mayliza & Yusnelly, 2020). Leaders with goal-oriented behaviours strive to explain organisational goals and encourage employees to achieve them (Jensen, Andersen & Jacobsen, 2019).

The characteristics of vision and goal-oriented leaders are similar to those of transformational and entrepreneurial leaders as they develop and promote a shared vision (Sousa, 2018). Change-oriented leader behaviours are associated with vision and goals for change (Gifford, Graham, Ehrhart, Davies and Aarons, 2017). Strukan et al. (2017) also emphasised the importance of vision in transformational leadership. Leaders must be enthusiastic about initiating change, developing a vision, and being committed to the organisation's long-term goals.

The creation and sharing of a vision are key to moving forward in a changing organisational environment. Leaders who have a strong vision can increase an employee's commitment and job satisfaction, which can lead to a culture of creativity and innovation (Jantz, 2017). A study by Cansoy (2019) investigated leadership behaviours and job satisfaction among school principals and found that creating a strong vision around a common goal was an important leadership behaviour.

Charisma and inspirational motivation are important leadership characteristics. They offer a vision and create a sense of purpose for employees. They hold followers in high esteem and motivate them to be committed to the organisation's shared goals (Strukan et al., 2017).

2.9.3 Competence

Leadership competence refers to the knowledge, skills, and abilities intended to prepare leaders to guide employees towards the attainment of organisational objectives (Fowler, 2018). Competent leaders are essential in a turbulent business environment and crucial to organisational success. Some of the main elements of leadership competencies may include honesty, subject knowledge, business awareness, the ability to interact with others, strategic thinking, and goal delivery (Andriukaitienė, Voronkova, Kyvliuk, Maksimenyuk & Sakun, 2017). Intelligence is one of the traits leaders need to possess, and according to Mann’s theory, it is a predictor of leadership ability (Basrie & Jatmikof, 2020).

In a study conducted by Kina, Kareema, Nordin, and Bing (2017) on principals' change leadership competencies, it was demonstrated that principals require competencies to analyse change and communicate best practices among employees. Leaders need an array of skills to manage change in the organisation, such as goal setting, conflict resolution, institutionalising best practices and capacity building.

A leadership competency model developed by the University of Wollongong, Australia, highlighted the following characteristics for organisational success: management of the organisational vision and mission, political knowledge, strategic agility, business acumen and negotiation skills (Jantti & Greenhaigh, 2012). According to Mau (2017), a public competency model implemented by several governments underscored the importance of strategic thinking, which entails competencies such as showing judgment, intelligence, and common sense; channelling information, opportunities, and innovation through the analysis of ideas.

Effective leadership and competence are extremely important during times of crisis. The COVID-19 pandemic has presented new challenges for leaders globally. An organisation's success or failure during a crisis depends on its leader. A crisis provides leaders with the opportunity to revamp the organisation and to take control of challenges, which can eventually lead to a competitive advantage. Authentic leaders can develop systems, help employees deal with fear and motivate employees to perform. Leaders should also consider how a crisis can affect employees and their work and personal lives; therefore, effective communication is essential to eliminating the fear and anxiety experienced by employees (Dirani, Abadi, Alizadeh, Barhate, Garza, Gunasekara, Ibrahim and Majzun, 2020).

2.9.4 Task Orientation

According to Dartey-Baah (2015), transactional leadership is task-oriented and concerned with completing work tasks (Wahyuni, Purwandari & Syah, 2019). Task-oriented behaviours include planning, defining responsibilities, managing performance, and effectively utilising resources (Gifford et al., 2017).

Hersey and Blanchard’s leadership theory captures task-oriented behaviour within the leadership model's categories. Leaders with high task orientation provide explanations on job functions and responsibilities in terms of what, how, when and where the task is performed. They can support and direct employees. According to a study by Michigan University, unlike employee-oriented leaders who focus on interpersonal relationships, task-oriented leaders are concerned with the technical aspects of the job (Laras et al., 2020). Goksoy (2016) indicates that technical skills entail the following: information management, innovation, providing others with technical equipment, on-time task performance, punctuality, industriousness, good organisation, technical knowledge, control, and planning.

The study by Kurniawan and Syakur (2017) suggested that effective leadership considers both human relations and task orientation. A school’s leader must be able to effectively describe tasks, monitor teachers’ performance, and provide support and

motivation for staff. Demonstrations of both human-related and task-oriented behaviours are necessary for the successful achievement of educational goals.

As stated earlier, transactional leadership emphasises task orientation. According to Wahyun et al. (2019), transactional leadership had a positive impact on employee motivation, and employee motivation in turn positively influenced employee performance. In a study investigating leadership styles and team members' commitment, a positive relationship was found between the task-oriented style and normative commitment. It was emphasised that this type of commitment considers employees' obligations to tasks and their loyalty to excellent performance, which warrants task orientation. The results of the research also revealed that managers employed task-oriented leadership styles, strongly focusing on deadlines and task accomplishment (Silva, Nunes & Andrade, 2019).

2.10 SUMMARY

The literature review makes it clear that leaders play an important role in an organisation. This provided evidence that leaders possess many traits, personalities, styles and skills, and these may vary from leader to leader. It also shows which leadership traits are necessary in certain circumstances, and that leadership styles may change depending on the situation. This chapter examined the concept of leadership, the distinction between leadership and management, leadership as a management function, the various approaches to leadership, leadership styles, and the skills and personality traits effective in leadership. Leadership within the context of Open Distance Higher Education Institutions was also discussed in this chapter.

This chapter fulfils research objective 1 by conceptualising leadership within the open distance higher education context. The next chapter aims to provide relevant theory relating to employee empowerment.

CHAPTER 3: EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Under pressure from a competitive external environment, many organisations are striving to ensure their products and services meet high standards. They are now focusing on providing employees with autonomy in the workplace and allowing them to be involved in decision-making, so that they can meet the demands in the external environment. Empowerment ensures that employees are given the consent to use their skills and abilities to make important decisions in the organisation, for example, regarding finances, customers, production processes, and employee selection. There are many ways empowerment is applied in the organisation, such as job redesign, shifting from an individual to a team-based approach, and changes in organisational structure. Many organisations have benefited from employee empowerment. There have been significant improvements in production efficiencies and the standard of products and services. However, empowerment programmes also face many challenges, such as fear among both managers and employees. Managers are not keen on delegating their power and responsibilities to their employees, as they fear their authority will be lost; employees, on the other hand, are afraid of taking on additional responsibilities. Nonetheless, empowerment can yield satisfactory results in the organisation if managers eliminate the obstacles that prevent it from flourishing (Gibson et al., 2012). This chapter provides a detailed literature review on employee empowerment. It covers relevant sections, including the concept of empowerment and its forms, dimensions, and themes. The empowerment process, its benefits, ways to develop empowerment, employee empowerment programmes, and applications of empowerment are also addressed. The importance of power, the role of leadership, and employee training and development are also discussed in relation to empowerment. The barriers to empowerment and the problems associated with empowerment are provided. Finally, employee empowerment within the context of open-distance higher education institutions is considered.

3.2 CONCEPT OF EMPOWERMENT

Abuhashesh, Al-Dmour, and Ed Masa'deh (2019) and Selvi and Maheswari (2020) indicate that employee empowerment involves granting authority, power, obligations, resources, and liberty to company workers to make decisions and solve job-related problems. It also involves giving employees control and facilitates the distribution of responsibilities and authority in the workplace. George and Jones (2012:482) define empowerment as "the process of giving employees throughout an organisation the authority to make decisions and be responsible for their outcomes". Empowerment refers to ensuring that employees have the necessary training, resources, and opportunities to be effective in the organisation. Empowerment can be achieved through continuous information sharing, enabling employees to participate in decision-making and fostering an autonomous workforce. Leaders inspire employees to take calculated risks, find new solutions, and view failures as a learning opportunity. According to McShane and Von Glinow (2015), empowerment is not a characteristic of an individual's personality; however, a leader's personality can influence the extent to which a person feels empowered. Empowerment can also depend on the work environment in which the individual operates. Empowerment will grow in an environment that allows employees to exercise their freedom in the workplace.

According to Locke and Allison (2013:66), "empowerment means delegation of authority to people at lower levels". The author further indicates that empowerment can be achieved by providing employees with goals and allowing them to decide how to achieve them. Earlier views on empowerment held that it is about involving other people in the organisation to achieve business success, respecting and treating employees fairly, and giving recognition for their efforts. Empowerment is viewed as a comprehensive approach to improve operational effectiveness, quality management, customer care, and continuous improvement (Johnson & Redmond, 1998).

Johnson and Redmond (1998) discussed the following essentials of empowerment:

- *Achieving organisational goals* – Employees play a vital role in ensuring the organisational goals are met. This means that achieving organisational goals

depends on employees' knowledge, experience, and commitment. This can therefore be achieved by empowering and involving employees in the decision-making process. Empowerment requires management's commitment, clear goals, and strong leadership. Management needs to consider the role of empowerment when setting organisational goals.

- *Empowerment values* – There must be trust between management and employees, and vice versa. Management must possess honesty, integrity, and openness. Empowerment requires these values to be developed gradually in the organisation, and thereafter, they should become part of the organisational culture. Blame should not become one of the organisation's values. An empowered organisation does not allow individuals to blame one another when something goes wrong. However, in very serious situations, an investigation is launched, and disciplinary action is taken to rectify the mistake. In certain cases, where the circumstances are not extreme, the problem is usually rectified by everyone working together to ensure that the wrong is corrected.

- *Extent of employee involvement* – Employees need to become involved in the organisation, whether through decision-making, information sharing, provision of feedback, or consultation. The extent of involvement will depend on whether the manager is ready to give employees more responsibility. The level of involvement should be discussed between management and employees. According to Lim and Lau (2017), employees involved in job decisions are more likely to experience increased feelings of autonomy and control in the workplace.

In summary, employee empowerment is about giving employees autonomy over their job tasks and involving them in decision-making. It also entails managers delegating their power and responsibilities to their employees.

3.3 THE DIMENSIONS OF EMPOWERMENT

According to Spreitzer, Kizilos and Nason (as cited in Quick and Nelson, 2011), empowerment entails the following dimensions:

- *Meaning* refers to the match between the employee's values and beliefs and the job itself. Meaning plays a vital role in motivating employees in their jobs, and if they do not find meaning in their work, it is impossible for them to feel empowered.

- *Competence* refers to the employees' beliefs that they can effectively perform their job. Employees will feel dissatisfied and disempowered if they are incompetent.
- *Self-determination* refers to a person's ability to have control over the way he or she carries out his or her tasks. Employee will not feel empowered if they are merely carrying out instructions from their superiors.
- *Impact* refers to the feeling one experiences when they have achieved the organisational goals. An employee can feel empowered if they believe that they have made an impact in the organisation.

When it comes to empowerment, employees must have a sense of meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. These are the dimensions that ensure the success of employee empowerment. According to McShane and Von Glinow (2015), to foster a sense of self-determination, employees need to work in an environment that offers a high degree of freedom. Meaningfulness can be created when employees feel a great deal of significance in their job tasks. Employees must receive appropriate feedback to ensure they are confident enough to carry out their tasks. Kumar and Kumar (2017) add that feedback is necessary for effective empowerment. Feedback can help one detect performance shortcomings and identify areas that need training. Training can enhance an employee's feeling of empowerment.

According to a study conducted by Hossein, Saleh, Iman, and Jaafar (2012), competence was identified as a favourable dimension for enhancing employee empowerment. Competent, skilled employees demonstrated greater confidence in

their performance. Independence was also viewed positively in terms of empowerment. Employees demonstrated independence and freedom when carrying out their tasks. Favourable results were also obtained for impact and meaningfulness. Employees believed they could influence the strategic outcomes of their jobs. In terms of meaningfulness, employees believed they gained value from their jobs and demonstrated motivation to perform their tasks.

In a study by Murray and Holmes (2021), it was found that the meaning dimension increased employee commitment, whereas the competence dimension decreased commitment regarding obligation. Furthermore, the dimensions of self-determination had no significance on commitment levels.

3.4 THEMES OF EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT

Huq's Model A (Figure 3.1) highlights the key themes of employee empowerment.

Figure 3.1: Huq's Model A - Themes of employee empowerment emanating from management literature

Source: Huq, R.A. (2015). *The Psychology of Employee Empowerment: Concepts, critical themes and a framework for implementation*. England: Gower Publishing Company, p. 10.

Huq (2015) reported on the following themes of employee empowerment:

- **Power sharing**

  Power is an important element of employee empowerment, and in order for empowerment to take place, it needs to be shared with other employees further down the organisational ladder. Power sharing will ensure the organisation gains the greatest return on investment by utilising employees' skills and abilities, resulting in employees feeling appreciated and boosting their self-confidence. However, there are many concerns about power-sharing. There is no prescribed information indicating how power should be shared amongst employees without managers diminishing their own power. Managers or leaders who hold all the power often fear they may lose control if they share it with employees. Consequently, managers' reluctance to share power will result in employees feeling disempowered and demotivated.

- **Participative decision-making**

  Employees ought to be allowed to participate in decision-making, as this will lead to problems being solved quickly and contribute to organisational effectiveness. Employees will no longer need their managers' approval if they can make their own decisions. Although participative decision-making is an important dimension of employee empowerment, employees are often afraid they might make the wrong decision, which could result in reprimand.

- **Devolution of responsibility**

  Devolution of responsibility is also another important element of employee empowerment. If employees are encouraged to take responsibility for decision-making at the operational level, then they will feel motivated and employ their responsibilities at the strategic level. These motivated and confident individuals will

also be able to handle additional work responsibilities. Devolution of responsibility will make employees more involved and make their work more meaningful. However, there are concerns about the devolution of responsibility. Employees are given more responsibilities without any reward, and they may feel that managers are merely passing their work off to them. Providing employees with additional responsibilities without the authority to back them up is futile. Employees should have the necessary authority to implement the decisions they have made.

- **People-oriented leadership style**

  Leadership plays a vital role in the employee empowerment process. An empowering leader should motivate employees to engage in decision-making, share power, and possess a people-oriented leadership style. Leaders who engage and collaborate with employees are needed in an empowered organisation. Therefore, leaders who desire power and control will find it challenging to lead an empowered organisation successfully.

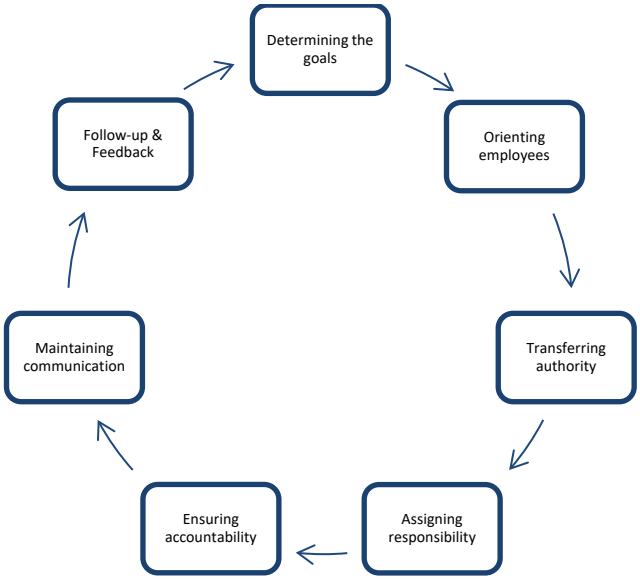
There is no doubt that the themes presented by Huq (2015) are necessary for employee empowerment to prevail.

3.5 THE EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT PROCESS

Maughan (2014) states that the organisation's empowerment process is more of a human relations approach. The process allows employees to achieve the organisational goals. Many authors have explored the empowerment process (Konger and Kanungo, 1998, in Wood, Zefane, Fromholtz, Weisner, Morrison, Factor, McKeown, Schermerhorn, Hunt, & Osborn, 2016; Durai, 2016).

Figure 3.2 represents the steps in the employee empowerment process.

Figure 3.2: Steps in the Employee Empowerment Process



Source: Durai, P. (2010) *Human Resource Management*. India: Pearson Education, p. 434.

- Determining the goals – Goals are an important part of the empowerment process, as these provide guidelines as to what needs to be accomplished. According to Kinlaw (1995), goal setting in an empowered organisation does not follow the traditional management style of directing and reporting, but usually includes the input from everyone and allows individuals to manage their own feedback.
- Orienting employees – Employees ought to be provided with the relevant information about the task that needs to be done, and how it should be done. Mentoring can also assist the employee when orienting employees in empowerment. Mentoring provides employees with support and information for their new roles (Sanders & Kleiner, 2002).
- Transferring authority – this refers to the delegation of responsibilities to the employee. Delegation does not mean that the individual has control to change

the entire organisation, it merely indicates that the empowered individual acts on behalf of the manager or superior (Lee & Koh, 2001).

- Assigning Responsibility – delegation of authority must be complemented with responsibility, as authority alone can be risky. There should be clear rules regarding job tasks, the scope of authority, responsibilities, and the reporting line. According to Gill (2011), delegation has its benefits. Firstly, it improves an employee's understanding, enhances growth and development, and increases motivation in employees. Secondly, it provides managers with more time to focus on important tasks.
- Ensuring Accountability – whilst employees are given autonomy, they should also be accountable for their actions. Organisations need to control the autonomy given to employees by reviewing their performance. This ensures that the power given to employees is not abused and that their outcomes are achieved.
- Maintaining Communication – communication is the key to effective employee empowerment. Organisations need to interact with employees continuously to foster a trusting relationship between employees and managers.
- Following up and Feedback – the organisation needs to evaluate the employee empowerment system in order to make improvements if necessary. The information can be obtained through surveys and employee performance reports. This will establish whether employee empowerment has been successful and also identify any flaws in the empowerment process. This feedback from the evaluation must be shared with all concerned parties so that changes can be made to the way empowerment is undertaken in the organisation.

3.6 BENEFITS OF EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT

Empowered employees are provided with the necessary training to become competent in their jobs and are therefore successful in their jobs and less likely to leave an organisation. These employees demonstrate productivity and efficiency, and are more

skilled and flexible than disempowered employees. An empowered employee is an important asset to an organisation because they require minimal supervision when performing their tasks. Furthermore, they can improve processes within the organisation through appropriate training, increased access to information, and the respect they gain from superiors (Marciano, 2010).

Andika and Darmanto (2020) indicated that employee empowerment can result in the development of trust, motivation, and involvement in decision-making, and in the elimination of barriers between top management and employees. Locke and Allison (2013) note that empowerment helps employees take ownership of their jobs and utilise their knowledge and skills to the fullest. Empowerment can also reduce an employee's resistance to change by enabling them to become involved in the change process, participate in decision-making, and change their work procedures. Empowerment is responsible for quality improvement and performance, as it is the duty of all members of the organisation to contribute to improving quality and performance (George & Jones, 2012).

Research by Fernandez and Moldogaziev (2013) indicates that employee empowerment practices, such as sharing information, resources, rewards, and authority, have both direct and significant impacts on employee performance. The study also found that employee empowerment tremendously affected job satisfaction and innovativeness. Yildirim and Naktiyok (2017) stated that employee empowerment enables employees to be more responsible and thorough in their tasks.

Empowerment can shift an organisation towards a culture that encourages creativity, innovation and accountability. It was also responsible for increasing customer satisfaction, as customers were more satisfied when employees understood the organisational purpose, felt empowered, and had a manager willing to accept suggestions for change. Furthermore, empowerment was found to increase organisational performance, as sales returns were enhanced when employees were given greater responsibility and authority over their jobs (Champy, 1997; Hambrick & Frederickson, 2001; Bartlett, 2000, in Gill, 2011). Armache (2013) indicated that empowered employees can efficiently solve customer problems, leading to new sales,

as they can address customer concerns more effectively and enhance the organisation's reputation through the service they provide.

Empowerment also increases an employee's commitment to the organisation, as organisations that allow employees to engage in decision-making become committed to the workplace (Sahoo & Das, 2011). The research by Alkahtani, Iqbal, Sohail, Sheraz, Jahan, Anwar, and Haider (2021) demonstrates that employee empowerment has a positive impact on organisational commitment, and the mediating role of job satisfaction increases employees' commitment towards the organisation. The researchers also indicate that employee empowerment is valuable for achieving organisational success and retaining employees by increasing job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Empowerment enables them to put more effort into their work, thereby finding meaning in the workplace. Employees may experience alienation and detachment from their work if there is a lack of ownership and engagement, which may result in the following (Martin, 2010):

- Powerlessness – limited power over methods and working conditions;
- Meaninglessness – a sense that employees' inputs in the workplace are not valued;
- Isolation – a sense of not being included in a team; and
- Self-estrangement – a sense of being as if merely a 'faceless number' in an organisation.

There are immense benefits to employee empowerment, such as increased employee and organisational performance, improved quality, increased sales, and greater customer satisfaction. Many studies have shown the benefits of employee empowerment. According to Sahoo and Das (2011), empowerment at the individual level builds self-esteem and maturity, increases job interest by making work tasks more challenging, and enhances competence. Empowerment through delegation of authority, job autonomy, and involvement in decision-making can improve employee retention, organisational citizenship behaviour, job satisfaction, and performance

(Dahou & Hacini, 2018). A study by Bose (2018) found a correlation between employee empowerment and performance, with autonomy having the greatest impact on empowerment. This finding is supported by Kim, Lee and Jang (2017), who indicated that empowerment is a determinant of employee performance. It was demonstrated that the greater employees' feelings of empowerment, the higher their performance levels.

3.7 WAYS TO DEVELOP EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT

Snell, Morris and Bohlander (2016) explained that in order for employee empowerment to flourish in the organisation, the following must be encouraged:

- Employees must be inspired to manage their own tasks and must strive towards improving their work processes and relationships with co-workers.

- The organisation must be responsive to employees who are willing to be creative and innovative in the workplace. They must encourage employees to search for new ways of doing things and to take rational risks affordably.
- Organisations must make information widely available to their employees so that they can use it to perform their jobs more effectively. Providing accurate information eliminates doubts and increases employees' knowledge, enabling informed decisions. The necessary information enables employees to make decisions aligned with organisational objectives. A lack of or irregularities in information may result in the team or employees making a poor decision or one that serves their own interests rather than the organisation's. These irregularities will lead to management taking over the decision-making process, which can result in poor decisions due to a lack of information (Kennedy & Scleifer, 2015).
- Empowerment does not give freedom to employees to do as they please; they must also be accountable for their actions. They must adopt a positive approach, be reliable, and yield results reached through consensus.

- The organisational culture also plays a role in encouraging empowerment in the organisation. This organisational culture must be open and responsive to change for employee empowerment to grow. Quick and Nelson (2011) further add that employees favour work environments that empower them. Empowerment requires a culture of trust, as it enables employees to perform better. This view is supported by Lim and Lau (2017), who stated that interpersonal trust can lead to greater organisational empowerment. The element of trust makes employees value the power and responsibilities bestowed upon them.
- According to Beck and Kleiner (2015), introducing a proper reward system can motivate employees to accomplish goals in the organisation and lead to empowerment. This can be done by establishing well-defined goals and providing employees with feedback. This is necessary for individuals who are driven by rewards and promotions. Roberts (2014) further mentions that a performance management support system is necessary for empowerment. This system will enable organisations to evaluate work processes, outcomes, and teamwork and interaction skills. In this way, managers can recognise and reward employees involved in employee empowerment programmes. According to Lei (2014), employees participating in empowerment programmes depend on their manager's behaviour and actions, and organisations need to ensure that tools are in place to assess a manager's empowering behaviour. Furthermore, creating a reward structure that motivates managers to engage in empowerment will positively impact organisational performance.
- According to Kumar and Kumar (2017), urging employee participation in meetings is also another way to encourage empowerment. This will increase employee morale and address potential workplace issues. However, the employee's innovative ideas and solutions must be taken into consideration for successful empowerment.
- According to Roozitalab and Majidi (2017), managers ought to adopt a leadership style that motivates and inspires employees to be creative on the

job. Employees should also be reminded of the organisational goals and mission that they are working towards.

- According to Tampi, Nabella and Sari (2022), employee empowerment can be improved by providing opportunities for employees to expand their knowledge and skills in their jobs. Therefore, efforts must be made to increase employee empowerment through job-related technical training. The authors further state that, for employee empowerment to occur, the educational backgrounds and competencies of individual employees should be considered when filling structural positions.

To initiate employee empowerment, organisations should encourage employees to be responsible and accountable for their actions. Employees should be inspired to be creative and be able to solve problems in the workplace. An appropriate leadership style, an effective organisational culture, and an effective reward system can facilitate empowerment in an organisation.

3.8 EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT PROGRAMMES

Yukl (2020) suggests that empowerment can be enhanced in an organisation through leadership behaviour and empowerment programmes, which can be described as follows:

- Leader selection and assessment – empowerment can be increased when members elect their leaders for a restricted period, such as in voluntary organisations and professional associations. In private organisations, leaders are appointed using a variety of selection methods. Even though leaders are carefully selected, employees should be allowed to assess their performance and replace a leader if their performance is unsatisfactory.
- Democratic decision procedures – empowerment can be enhanced if formal procedures allow employees to participate and vote in the decision-making process. For large organisations, there should be representatives from different

sub-units, or opportunities should be given to low-level employees to vote for a representative to serve on the board of directors.

- Shared leadership responsibilities – leadership responsibilities should not be given to one individual but should rather be distributed to all members of a team. Shared leadership is possible when decisions are made collaboratively and when daily leadership operations rotate regularly. This type of empowerment is typically found in small, employee-owned companies.
- Information sharing – employees should have access to reliable company information about business objectives, plans and performance so that they can be actively involved in the decision-making process. Open-book programmes can empower employees to engage in decision-making. It will provide employees with information on the business's financial performance, including revenues, profits, and costs. However, employees should be trained to understand and use the information to increase business performance.

A study conducted at the Abu Dhabi University recommended that information sharing, effective communication, and collaboration among colleagues are necessary to facilitate empowerment at the university. It was also suggested that empowerment can be supported through the development of a reward system that recognises employees' performance on the job (Lassoued, Awad & Guirat, 2020).

Dahou and Hacini (2018) found that providing employees with information and keeping them updated on what is happening within the organisation will not only equip them with the knowledge to carry out their tasks but also support employee empowerment initiatives.

3.9 APPLICATIONS OF EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT

Organisations should have plans that will encourage employee empowerment in the workplace. Employee empowerment can be applied in the following ways in the organisation.

3.9.1 Quality Circles

Quality circles encourage employees to find solutions, and they are more likely to stay on as members of the circle and solve additional problems in the future (Kalyan & Kumar, 2019).

According to Quick and Nelson (2011), quality circles are groups of volunteers who address issues related to production and quality. These groups usually meet during working hours to discuss issues. Quality circles are usually provided with training so that they can address problems in their jobs. The recommendations made by quality circles are usually considered when appropriate, but in other circumstances, they are not vital to making a final decision. Management may suggest problems of concern, but the group is empowered to decide which ones to select. The selection of the problem is usually reached by consensus, whereby everyone agrees on the problem to be resolved.

3.9.2 Team Briefings

Team briefings refer to meetings between managers and employees to discuss operational problems. Team briefings can be seen as a tool for information sharing and as a way for employees to put forward their recommendations. Team briefings empower employees through communication and suggestion-making (Lashley, 2001). In other words, these allow for a top-down flow of information to the team level, and the teams, in turn, provide feedback upwards to managers. This is an ideal way to share information and allow employees to participate in organisational decision-making (Elearn Limited, 2009).

According to Verma (2014), team briefings allow teams to discuss common problems. It enables employees to understand the important issues they face and gives them the opportunity to provide appropriate feedback. This creates a platform for sharing ideas and opinions. It enables employees to set their own work goals and organise how their work will be carried out.

3.9.2 Job Design

Job design can enable employee empowerment by altering fundamental job tasks to create space for autonomy and empowerment. Job design entails organising jobs in ways that satisfy higher-order needs and enhance an employee's desire to achieve organisational goals (Draft, 2015).

Research has demonstrated that work design characteristics are significantly and positively associated with empowerment. The way in which teams structured their activities positively influenced shared responsibility and power (Maynard, Gilson & Mathieu, 2012). A study conducted by Roozitalab and Majidi (2017) found a significant relationship between job design and employee empowerment. This study suggested that job design must be continuously improved to achieve success in employee empowerment initiatives.

3.9.3 Job Enrichment

Job enrichment refers to the expansion of an employee's job, resulting in the employee having more control over the organisation, the completion, and the assessment of their work (Robbins, Judge, Millet and Boyle, 2014).

Job enrichment allows employees to achieve individual growth and achievement. It eliminates control in a job but still allows the individual to be accountable for their actions. This is a good opportunity for individuals to gain experience in new tasks. Employees are also given appropriate feedback on their performance. Job enrichment motivates through responsibility, recognition, and achievement (Furnham, 2012). Job enrichment is not just viewed as a way to increase employees' tasks, but also as a means to motivate them and to allow them to exercise greater discretion and freedom in their jobs (Jex & Britt, 2014).

According to DuBrin (2016), job enrichment appeals to employees by making tasks more challenging and creating a sense of ownership and accountability. It makes the job more rewarding and increases job satisfaction. Job enrichment involves job

characteristics that make the job interesting and satisfying for an employee. Job characteristics are discussed in the section below.

It is believed that job characteristics can also affect employee empowerment. Job characteristics comprise the following elements (Snell et al., 2016):

- Skill variety – the extent to which a job entails a variety of activities that allow employees to make use of the skills and talents they possess.
- Task identity – this refers to an identifiable job that must be completed to achieve a specific outcome.
- Task significance – this refers to the importance of a job and its influence on the organisation, other people and the external environment.
- Autonomy – this refers to the extent to which the job allows employees freedom and liberty when planning and deciding on procedures for performing their jobs.
- Feedback – this refers to the response given to employees on their job performance for carrying out their job activities.

Gagner, Senegal, and Koestner (1997) conducted a study on the link between job characteristics and empowerment. In this study, it was revealed that job characteristics played an important role in an employee's beliefs about empowerment, and the relationship between job characteristics and empowerment varied. For example, it was also found that the dimension of empowerment (feelings of meaningfulness) was positively associated with task significance and feedback and the feeling of impact was positively related to feedback. It was found that while an autonomous work environment empowered employees, it also created doubts about their competence.

3.9.4 Teamwork and self-managed teams

Teamwork ought to be encouraged to facilitate effective empowerment in the organisation (Sahoo & Das, 2011). A team is considered to be more effective than an empowered individual. They share a common goal and can work together in an organised manner. Teamwork is essential to empowerment, as it allows different ideas to be explored. The diverse ideas are extremely relevant in today's competitive

environment. Team members must have strong communication and planning skills and be accountable for their actions. Training is necessary for team members to make necessary decisions (Blanchard, Carlos & Randolph, 1999).

Self-managed teams are a way of ensuring employee empowerment in the organisation. Self-managed teams consist of employees who perform all tasks within a specific section without direct supervision. Self-management ensures the transfer of responsibility and control to employees lower down the organisational hierarchy. Team members share leadership responsibilities and are equally accountable for performance goals. Self-managed teams are involved in problem-solving, planning, performance reviews, assessing the whole process of their project, training and conflict resolution (Lussier & Achua, 2016).

Self-managed teams are usually involved in a major part of the production of goods or services. They are responsible for establishing their own goals and are given the freedom to make decisions regarding the job tasks that concern them. Self-managed teams require fewer rules and regulations and must allow for flexibility. Individuals can exercise control over technical changes in the production process. Employees are given the freedom and authority to manage the resources at their disposal, and they have the privilege to schedule their job activities and the methods to be used. These teams are responsible for ensuring that their work goals are effectively achieved (Cummings & Worley, 2009).

The above approaches facilitate idea sharing, problem-solving, goal achievement, accountability, improved employee performance, and personal growth.

3.10 THE IMPORTANCE OF POWER IN EMPOWERMENT

For empowerment to take place, employees need to be taught how to use and expand their newfound power. This is often a challenge for managers and employees, as it alters the relationship between managers and employees. It is therefore necessary to make employees and managers see power as a means of ensuring that the work gets done in the organisation, rather than as a tool for retaining control over others.

Empowerment requires managers to be cooperative, and employees must be encouraged to become assertive. Employees need assurance and support to develop their own power. Empowerment also requires changes in positional power. Employees in the organisation must be equipped to make important operational decisions, whilst top management engages in strategic decision-making. In this way, there is no loss of power for top management; rather, everyone is allowed to have some power in the organisation (Wood et al., 2016).

In an empowering organisation, power is not about one person having all the authority and responsibilities; it is about individuals' self-competence to create, develop, and distribute power to accomplish goals. Managers should not be burdened with all the decision-making power; this should rather be shared with employees, so that effective decisions can be made and solutions reached (Murrell & Meredith, 2000).

Huq (2015) reported on literature by Parsloe (1996), Peters (1994), Pearlstein (1991), Braye and Preston-Shoot (1995) and Bystydzienski (1992) that power is important in employee empowerment, noting that it can only be enhanced if organisations eliminate barriers such as irrelevant rules and regulations, and limited employee involvement. It has been found that in bureaucratic organisations, employees feel powerless because they require approval from top management for even the most routine tasks. Empowerment is important to ensure that power is shared with those who actually lack it in the organisation. Empowerment is therefore used to address the power imbalances and allows powerless people to have some control in the development of activities.

3.11 THE ROLE OF LEADERSHIP IN EMPOWERMENT

According to Ahearne et al. (2005) and Zhang and Bartol (2010), empowering leadership refers to the degree to which managers believe in their employees' competencies, appreciate their roles in the workplace, and provide them with opportunities to participate in decision-making. The various leadership styles may have different effects on employee empowerment. One particular leadership style might be empowering, whilst another may have a negative effect. Therefore,

leadership effectiveness plays a vital role in motivating and empowering employees. Empowering leadership is therefore essential in an organisation. Empowering leaders aim to foster commitment to a goal and encourage followers to achieve it. Leaders who favour empowerment believe that certain goals can only be achieved through human effort (Murari, 2015). Empowering leaders are responsible for establishing an environment that motivates and empowers employees. Empowering leadership behaviours, such as trust, respect, and the provision of a supportive work environment, can lead to positive attitudes among employees and increased job performance. Leaders must satisfy an employee's need for autonomy and a sense of competence. These behaviours are likely to raise an employee's motivation on the job (Kim, 2018). Similarly, transformational leaders empower employees to work towards a common vision to achieve organisational goals. Research has shown that transformational leadership positively impacts employee empowerment. Studies also indicate that transformational leadership resulted in innovative behaviour, which was only possible when employees were highly empowered. A study by Dahou and Hacini (2018) found a positive association between transformational leadership and employee empowerment. The transformational leadership style was considered a suitable approach to encourage employee empowerment in the organisation. Yildirim and Naktiyok (2017) also obtained a positive relationship between transformational leadership and employee empowerment. Transformational leadership behaviours ought to be encouraged in the organisation. Supervisors should be vision-oriented, motivate employees, encourage co-operation between staff, and recognise employee efforts.

Other studies found that the leader-member exchange and employee empowerment were also positively related, resulting in significant behavioural and performance outcomes (Bass & Avolio; Avolio, Zhu, Koh & Bhatia, 2004; Harris, Wheeler & Kacmar, 2009; Schippers & Stam, cited in Maynard et al., 2012). A people-oriented leadership style is an essential part of the employee empowerment process. A leader who engages with and works alongside employees is needed in an empowered organisation. Leaders must foster positive work relationships with employees by developing their skills, mentoring and coaching them, and providing rewards.

Empowerment cannot occur merely by telling employees they are empowered; leaders must become part of the process (Huq, 2015). A study by Hossein et al. (2012) found a positive relationship between empowerment and reward systems. It is believed that rewards will empower an employee within the organisation.

Leaders who exhibit leader empowering behaviours encourage skill development and ensure that employees recognise problems in their job tasks and take appropriate action. Leader empowering behaviours, such as mentoring, coaching, consulting, and recognition, resulted in higher employee empowerment. Coaching was seen as an ideal way to encourage creativity and risk-taking amongst employees. Furthermore, employees who receive high levels of social interaction with their managers are more likely show greater levels of empowerment. This indicates a positive relationship between leadership empowering behaviours and empowerment (Wellins et al., 1991; Konczak et al., 2000; Spreitzer, 1996 and Menon, cited in Lei, 2014).

Maynard et al. (2012) reported that the relationship between leaders and employees is vital in promoting employee empowerment in organisations. It was revealed that trust and communication were important for enhancing employee empowerment, and these two elements were associated with meaningfulness, self-determination, and competence. Furthermore, a study by Fong and Snape (2015) indicates that urging managers to demonstrate empowering leadership behaviours will lead employees to adopt a positive attitude towards their jobs, thereby positively impacting customer service. This study also identified positive associations between empowering leadership and empowerment at the individual and group levels.

According to Bavik, Tang, Shao and Lam (2018); Javed; Rawwas, Shahid and Tayyeb, (2017), empowering employees through leadership, especially ethical leadership direct employees toward the acceptance of responsibility and independence in decision-making, implying that employees who are empowered by their leaders' support have higher levels of control over job requirements, and more ability to invest information and resources at individual levels. The study by Khan and Ullah (2021) indicated that ethical leaders can contribute to the development of employees' creative capabilities by empowering and encouraging them to solve problems.

3.12 THE IMPORTANCE OF EMPLOYEE TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT IN EMPOWERMENT

Before employee empowerment takes place, employees must be developed. In the workplace, employees must make the right decisions and behave appropriately. An employee's motivation and willingness may not be sufficient to make correct decisions; they also need the knowledge and skills to improve the organisation. Therefore, employee development programmes are necessary to cultivate empowerment in an organisation. Employees require training that inspires thinking and helps them bring about significant changes in their behaviour, attitudes, and how they perform their tasks (Speegle, 2010).

It is important to provide customised training to empowered employees so that they are equipped with the relevant skills and competencies to perform their duties. Training must be targeted at building both operative and people skills. In many organisations, employees lack people skills and are unable to interact effectively in group environments. Training should therefore focus on building these skills, as dyadic relationships are prevalent in empowered environments (Ghosh, 2013).

The dimension of meaningfulness can be enhanced through appropriate training programmes, which will help employees envision how their work contributes to organisational goals. Training that provides information about the organisation, including its background, vision, and objectives, can be useful (Aryee, Walumbwa, Seidu & Otaye, 2012). Training can equip them with new skills to solve problems when required. It can foster self-determination among employees, thereby increasing their autonomy, as they will be well-equipped with the skills and knowledge to adopt new ways of doing their jobs (Mathieu, Gibson & Ruddy, 2006; Donovan, 2001). Employees who have benefited from training will develop a positive attitude towards their jobs, and they will also have positive feelings towards empowerment. Employees will begin demonstrating greater empowerment by exercising greater job autonomy. Members of the group who attend training may also develop new ways of doing things that will benefit the entire group. Although training is important for encouraging empowerment, it is also necessary for supervisors to become involved in the training-empowerment

relationship. Supervisors need to participate in training programmes to influence training effectiveness, which can lead to employees changing their behaviour and perceptions of empowerment. The involvement of supervisors will increase job autonomy and meaningfulness of their jobs (Voegtlin, Boehm & Bruch, 2015). Kumar and Kumar (2017) also mentioned the importance of education and training in improving employee empowerment efforts. Training and development should focus on improving Individual factors (competence, maturity and self-esteem), as these factors are responsible for successful employee empowerment. Training on the latest technology, personal development, and encouraging employees to further their education can result in increased performance, greater learning, and greater employee empowerment.

According to Serrat (2010), coaching and mentoring play an effective role in empowering employees and helping them reach their full potential. Coaching and mentoring provide the guidance and inspiration to employees. It increases self-direction and boosts an employee's self-esteem.

Empowerment needs to be part of a coaching effort for it to be successful. In this way, employees will have the appropriate skills and abilities to participate in empowerment programmes. Training and development are important aspects of coaching. Employees need to be trained for the empowerment opportunity, so they have the knowledge and skills required for the task. This will also ensure that employees are confident when they are empowered. The manager coaching the employee for empowerment needs to trust that the employee will make the right decisions. The employee also needs to be motivated, so it is important that the coach praises their strengths, encourages them to implement their ideas, and helps them believe in their capabilities. A coach needs to help employees view their mistakes as a learning opportunity and redesign jobs so that employees can utilise their skills and abilities to their full potential (Stone, 2007).

3.13 BARRIERS TO EMPOWERMENT AND PROBLEMS ASSOCIATED WITH EMPOWERMENT

Leaders often prevent empowerment from taking place. Many leaders fear that they may lose their jobs if they empower employees. These weak leaders feel that they will become dispensable if they develop employees to take on their responsibilities. Resistance to change is another fear leaders share, as they do not accept change as a means of improving the organisation. Furthermore, many leaders lack a sense of self-worth and are self-conscious about what others think of them. These leaders are unable to empower others because they believe they lack power or control over themselves. Leaders who demonstrate security and self-confidence and act as change agents are most likely to empower employees in the workplace (Maxwell, 2007). Apart from resistance, employees often misunderstand empowerment as a way to exercise discretionary authority. Due to the manager's lack of cooperation in training, employees with the necessary skills to be empowered tend to make decisions unilaterally, which creates problems between managers and employees. Empowerment should not be seen as a way to exercise personal discretion, but rather as a means to benefit the entire organisation (Wood et al., 2016). In addition, managers often fear that empowered employees will not perform as expected and that they will be blamed for their lack of performance. They are afraid that employees may lack experience and decision-making ability or be uncommitted to achieving organisational goals (Johnson & Redmond, 1998).

According to Ford, Sturman, and Heaton (2012), many organisations talk about empowerment but do not give employees genuine decision-making power. Empowerment enables employees or work teams to make meaningful decisions about their jobs.

Employees cannot be empowered unless they demonstrate readiness. It is risky to empower an employee who lacks the necessary knowledge, skills, attitudes, and willingness to accept empowerment. Organisations should therefore ensure that employees are equipped with the necessary skills and training if they wish to empower employees (Fleurmons, 2013).

Managers often do not delegate duties to support individual development. Delegation is merely seen as a means to avoid boring tasks or to dump their work on others because they have no time for it (Gill, 2011). The unwillingness of managers to remain accountable for employee development and the lack of training to equip employees with the necessary skills pose serious challenges to employee empowerment. Organisations' policies may also restrain an employee from being empowered (Roberts, 2014).

Ghosh (2013) also highlighted the following drawbacks when organisations attempt to empower employees:

- The ego state of managers often makes employee empowerment impossible. This state of mind prevents managers from delegating authority and responsibility to their subordinates.
- Some employees do not have any desire for power and are not willing to take on any additional responsibility. Furthermore, employees lack the knowledge and skills to assume management responsibilities. Employee empowerment may not be successful if employees lack interest or do not have the capabilities to take on the task.
- Employee empowerment is ineffective in organisations that have an autocratic style of management. In these organisations, employees are under constant supervision and control, making it difficult to implement employee empowerment.
- Some managers prefer to hold all the power for themselves and are not prepared to share their power with their subordinates.
- Employee empowerment programmes require a lot of planning, effort and financial investment. Some organisations are unwilling to undertake such cumbersome tasks to ensure empowerment.
- Lack of support from top management can make employee empowerment ineffective. Top management often fails to prioritise empowerment, and therefore, employee empowerment programmes do not operate efficiently in the organisation.

- Negative situations created during industrial action may affect the development of employee empowerment programmes as managers form a negative opinion about employees' behaviour and attitudes.
- An organisation that is filled with negative beliefs and practices will prevent empowerment from succeeding in an organisation. An organisation requires a strong organisational culture and a positive belief system to drive employee empowerment programmes and make them work.

3.14 FACTORS THAT DEFINE EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT

3.14.1 Management Support

Management support in terms of empowerment can entail many elements, such as motivation, recognition, sharing relevant information, showing concern, and ensuring that employees have the training to perform their tasks. Kanter (1989) identified support and opportunities for growth as sources of structural empowerment that influence employees' attitudes in the workplace. Researchers have associated practices that involve distributing power through information, skill development, support and accountability with empowerment (Dahou & Hacini, 2018).

Employee empowerment depends on support from management; therefore, it is anticipated that supervisors will regularly observe an employee's performance, consult with employees about their performance, and provide support for improving performance (Baird, Tung & Su, 2020).

According to Schaufeli & Salanova (2010), leaders should recognise outstanding work performance, provide support through continuous feedback and create a climate of support and trust in the organisation. Teckchandani and Pichler (2015) claim that trust in the supervisor-employee relationship can be developed when supervisors understand their employees and engage in acts of reciprocity. Roozitalab and Majidi (2017) found that knowledge management and organisational support both increase employees' empowerment.

The study by Njoroge (2018) on employee empowerment and employee commitment among academic staff found that academics who received support from the university found this support to be empowering. The support they received also made their work tasks straightforward. The study further indicated that perceived support was associated with greater employee commitment.

Valuable training opportunities are the foundation for empowerment efforts in an organisation because they can increase motivation, allow flexibility in the workplace, and enable employees to work independently (Dahou & Hacini, 2018). Praise and recognition are also elements to consider in employee empowerment. Alias, Nokman, Ismail, Koe, and Othman (2018) state that employees must not only be rewarded financially but must be recognised for their hard work (Alias, Nokman, Ismail, Koe, & Othman, 2018).

3.14.2 Autonomy and decision-making

George and Brief (1992) identified self-determination as a cognitive element of empowerment that relates to the distribution of powers in the workplace. Autonomy is an essential component of empowering leadership. Empowering leaders eliminates bureaucratic restraints that limit employees and ensures greater autonomy in the workplace (Ahearne, Mathieu & Rapp, 2005). Hemming and Kay (2015) describe autonomy as the extent to which teachers have the trust and freedom to engage in their duties without any stringent regulations.

According to Baird, Tung and Su (2020), the distribution of decision-making powers and autonomy may be supported by the trust that is present between the supervisor and the employee, communication and fairness in the relationship. This aligns with social exchange theory, which examines the supervisor-employee relationship and the reciprocity of trust. It is recommended that employees improve employee empowerment through collaboration and increase employees' participation in decision-making.

Studies by Albrecht and Andreetta (2011); Baird, Su and Munir (2018) have revealed that leaders empower employees through reallocation of decision-making powers significantly influenced employee engagement and led to reduced turnover intentions. The study by Zhang, Ke, Wang and Liu (2018) suggested that leaders should emphasise the importance of tasks, encourage workplace participation, and trust their employees' abilities. This behaviour will lead to positive self-evaluation and greater creativity in the workplace.

A study by Sherehiy and Karwowski (2014) found that autonomy was an important contributor to workforce agility. This is important for open distance higher education institutions that are constantly faced with environmental changes. According to Muduli (2017), managers should establish a work environment that empowers by encouraging autonomy, accountability, and flexibility.

The study by Suriansyah, Aslamiah, Noorhapizah, Winardi, and Dalle (2019) found significant positive correlations between OCB and participative decision-making, a dimension of lecturer empowerment in higher education. It was also indicated that teachers demonstrated professionalism in their jobs when they experienced greater autonomy in the workplace. It was recommended that lecturer empowerment be encouraged, as it is important for the growth of higher education institutions.

Research by Dahou and Hacini (2018) showed that allowing employees to make their own decisions would lead to an effective application of an empowerment initiative.

3.14.3 Access to information and resources

Access to information and resources is relevant in an empowerment context. Access to information refers to the availability of knowledge about an organisation's goals and strategies. Access to resources is the provision of materials, space, and funds that employees can use to perform their tasks (Spreitzer, 1996).

Information sharing is an important element in the definition of empowerment. Bowen and Lawler’s (2006) definition of empowerment entailed the sharing of information about organisational performance, rewards, and knowledge that would contribute to

employees' understanding of the organisation. This will enable employees to achieve organisational objectives and contribute to its performance. Baird, Tung, and Su (2020) add that when autonomy is provided, supervisors must also provide employees with the necessary information and expectations regarding performance. Information sharing is the main contribution to overall job satisfaction when employees are empowered (Ntwiga, Muchara, & Kiriri, 2021).

Kanter (1989) also recognised access to information and resources as sources of structural empowerment. The author argued that employees' behaviours are motivated by organisational structures rather than individual characteristics.

According to Roozitalab and Majidi (2017), important information should be easily accessible to employees. Employees must be urged to use relevant information about the organisation.

Providing feedback and relevant information is essential to an employee's job. According to Fernandez & Rainey (2006), employees can improve their jobs if they are provided with relevant information about the organisation's performance. In this way, employees can also determine whether they are on the right track towards achieving the goal. Furthermore, Demircioglu (2017) states that if managers observe that improvements in employees' job satisfaction and performance are due to the provision of information, they may continue to ensure that employees have the relevant information. The author also suggests that information about employees' performance can help them identify ways to implement innovative practices in their jobs. Furthermore, Dahou and Hacini (2018) state that an employee's growth depends on the organisation's support and access to information and resources.

3.15 EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT IN OPEN DISTANCE HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

Changes in the educational landscape and continuous technological advancements can lead distance education institutions to work hard to keep up with these changes and meet student needs. To meet students' needs, leaders in distance education

institutions need to empower university staff to advance the institution's mission and goals. Institutions should invest in staff development to improve distance education programmes (Arenas, Grey & Hamner, 2009). Hamilton (2007, cited in Ahadi, 2011) further states that changes in higher education institutions can be implemented through the assistance of academics and administrators. This group of staff need more autonomy and empowerment in the workplace to respond to changes in the environment.

In a study conducted in public universities, it was found that employee empowerment was a significant predictor of employee productivity, which can ultimately lead to organisational effectiveness. Empowerment can foster a sound organisational culture and help an organisation survive. It can also enable an organisation to compete successfully and address difficulties that may affect it (Hanaysha, 2016).

In another study conducted in higher education institutions, it was mentioned that employee empowerment can be enhanced through informal relationships, greater delegation of power, increased job autonomy and access to information. Managers must motivate employees to believe in themselves and their capabilities (Hasani & Sheikhesmaeili, 2016).

Sharma, Gupta and Sharma (2018) investigated employee empowerment and retention in higher education. The study found that autonomy in employee empowerment had the strongest impact on employee retention. Institutions should leverage their employees' potential through empowerment initiatives. Suriansyah Aslamiah, Noorhapizah, Iwan and Dalle (2019) reported that lecturers are likely to display professionalism when they are involved in decision-making and provided with status and autonomy that are beneficial to the organisation. These findings are supported by Amzat and Idris (2012), who reported that academics should be given the freedom to be involved in how the organisation operates and in achieving organisational goals.

Higher education institutions require academics who are committed to the organisation. They also require academic staff who are innovative in curriculum design

and teaching and learning. Staff need to collaborate with other colleagues and become part of the decision-making process. An academic's sense of involvement in decision-making can foster innovative thinking in higher education institutions (Ahadi, 2011).

Fiez, Soltani and Farsizadeh (2019) investigated knowledge sharing and employee empowerment in higher education institutions. This study found that knowledge sharing was a key factor in empowering university staff. It was recommended that a system be put in place to make information easily accessible to staff, so organisational problems can be resolved. University staff should also be encouraged to share knowledge with other colleagues and a culture of knowledge sharing should be created in the institution. Empowerment among colleagues can increase trust, competence and productivity. Higher education institutions need to foster a culture of knowledge sharing to empower staff.

In a study on the empowerment of non-academic personnel in higher education, it was found that perceived organisational support for innovation was associated with empowerment among non-academic staff. Empowerment enables staff to be creative and perform to the best of their ability, ultimately improving quality at the higher education institution. This study concluded that empowerment can be achieved when employees feel appreciated in the organisation. A climate that supports innovation can also lead to successful empowerment (Lau, 2010). In a study investigating the unravelling of quality culture in higher education institutions, empowerment was viewed as a mechanism to leverage staff expertise to improve the quality of education. In this study, it was suggested that a culture promoting quality be developed, with autonomy and professionalism encouraged among staff. A culture of quality also entails participation, where employees are involved in the institution's decision-making process (Bendermacher, Oude Egbrink, Wolfhagen & Dolmans, 2017).

With the transformation of the open-distance higher education environment, university staff need to be equipped to address the changes underway. University staff should be empowered with information and resources, opportunities to be involved in decision making and appropriate training to facilitate transformation in the open distance learning environment. Empowering academics will enable confidence and

professionalism in open distance learning institutions. Empowerment through mentoring can improve personal growth and improve employee performance (Braimoh et al., 2005). Furthermore, training and development initiatives is also effective tool to empower ODL staff with the knowledge and skills to enable to function effectively in the ODL environment (Pulist, 2017).

3.16 SUMMARY

Empowerment offers many benefits for both employees and the organisation. It is not merely about giving employees power and additional responsibilities; many organisations use it to achieve organisational goals and compete in the external environment. Empowerment takes different forms, as many authors have noted, ranging from self-initiated to manager-initiated. The literature review also discussed the components, dimensions and themes of empowerment, as well as the employee empowerment process. Various ways to develop and apply empowerment in the workplace were examined, including quality circles, team briefings, job design and characteristics. Power, leadership (with reference to McGregor's Theory X and Y), and the importance of employee training and development in relation to empowerment were also integral to this chapter. It is clear from this literature review that empowerment is not a smooth process, as problems and barriers may interfere with its implementation or arise as a result of empowerment. The integration of employee empowerment within the open distance higher education institution and the factors that define it were also covered in this chapter.

This chapter achieved Research Objective 2: to conceptualise employee empowerment in an open-distance higher education institution. The next chapter provides a comprehensive discussion on the variable of organisational citizenship behaviour.

CHAPTER 4: ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) is essential in any organisation. It can improve employee performance and productivity and ultimately lead to organisational effectiveness and efficiency. Organisations cannot succeed without the assistance of employees that are able to put in the extra effort for the good of the organisation. This chapter starts with the emergence and definitions of OCB. The actions that make up OCB are described. The predictors or antecedents, benefits, theories, and criticisms of OCB are also covered in this chapter. Since the study focuses on the influence of leadership and employee empowerment on OCB, it was necessary to include a section that examines these relationships. OCB within the context of the open distance higher education institution and the factors that define OCB are also presented in this chapter. Theoretical background and hypothesis development are also discussed.

4.2 DEFINITIONS OF OCB

OCB is behaviour that arises at an employee's discretion, is done at the employee's free will and without coercion (Soelton, Visano, Noermijati, Ramli, Syah and Sari, 2020). OCB is behaviour that does not form part of an employee's job description, but leads to organisational success (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ & Near, 1983; Organ, 1998; Organ & Kovovsky, 1989; Shapiro, Jacqueline, Kessler & Purcel, cited in Akinbode, 2011).

OCB may also refer to an employee's ability to recognise and comply with the organisation's values and morals. Therefore, OCB will occur when employees embrace the organisation's values (Joubert, Crafford & Schepers, 2004).

OCB refers to going beyond job requirements (Furnham & Taylor, 2011). Organ, Posakoff and MacKenzie (2006:3) define OCB as follows: "Individual Behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system, and in

the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organisation". These authors focused on the following elements of the OCB definition:

- *Discretionary*: This refers to behaviours that do not form part of the employee's job contract but is merely the choice of the employee.
- *Not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system*: Employees assist others or go beyond the call of duty although there are no tangible returns. However, it is believed that employees who have exhibited OCB may influence a manager's decision regarding pay increase and promotion. These rewards must not form part of any organisation's policies and procedures. It must be viewed as a discretionary increment for the employee's significant contribution to assist in the organisation's progress.
- *In the aggregate, promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organisation*: This refers to the collective impact that OCB has on financial performance, customer satisfaction, and the efficient operation of the organisation.

There are many examples of OCB and this goes beyond assisting and supporting other employees with their work as it can also mean recommending ways to improve the job or the organisation, improving one's skills and abilities, and safeguarding the organisation from harm such as preventing theft and fire. Although the employees are not obligated to perform these acts, they are extremely relevant for organisational survival. For instance, an employee may not be required to provide suggestions to improve the performance of the organisation, but their suggestions may be valuable in bringing about effectiveness in the organisation (George & Jones, 2012).

Kumaran and Sivasubramanian (2013) view OCB as a positive concept that assist employees and is of value to the organisation. This author further indicates that employees displaying OCB may not always refer to employees that perform well in the organisation but are individuals that are willing to do more than is expected. The

concept is intangible, making elements such as “showing concern” and “being kind to others” difficult to measure.

Extant literature also suggests that OCB is seen as the opposite of counterproductive work behaviour. Whilst OCB involves helping and supporting others at work and going the extra mile on the job, counterproductive work behaviour may relate to late coming, absenteeism, workplace bullying, aggression, violence, theft and all negative behaviours that are harmful to the organisation (Furnham & Taylor, 2011). OCB is the opposite of counterproductive work behaviour.

The above definitions merely indicate that OCB is a positive behaviour in which employees voluntarily engage in work activities not specified in the job description and are not formally rewarded for the additional work they perform in the organisation.

4.3 DIMENSIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

There are various dimensions that make up OCB. These dimensions are actions that constitute OCB. Organ (1994) in Jex and Britt (2014) and Podsakof, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990) identified the following types of OCB:

(a) Altruism

This refers to employees assisting their colleagues in performing their jobs. For example, it may entail taking on colleagues’ duties when they are sick or helping employees with problems at work. Altruism is the most relevant OCB trait. Helping others or providing support to new employees are signs of an employee who shows concern and respect for the workplace, indicating a positive bond between employees and encouraging teamwork. Altruism is also known to foster an efficient workplace, as employees who are less busy can assist those with a demanding workload (Pare and Tremblay, 2000; Yen & Niehof, 2004, in Akinbode, 2011).

(b) Courtesy

This refers to employees showing concern for others in the workplace by asking how others are doing with their work. Courtesy involves assisting other employees, which may safeguard them from future problems. This could include simple activities to help others. Courtesy can also imply showing empathy towards others in any circumstances. According to Organ, Podsakoff and Mackenzie (2006), courtesy aims to help others with their workload, thereby preventing them from working harder.

(c) Sportsmanship

This reflects behaviour that does not involve employees complaining about minor issues. Sportsmanship involves having a positive outlook and being tolerant of minor issues and inconveniences in the organisation (Wan, 2016).

Sportsmanship can also include not complaining about other individuals in the organisation. Individuals can demonstrate sportsmanship by resolving organisational problems and conflicts among colleagues (Soumendu, 2015; Hong et al., 2014; Jafari et al., cited in Siang, 2017).

(d) Conscientiousness

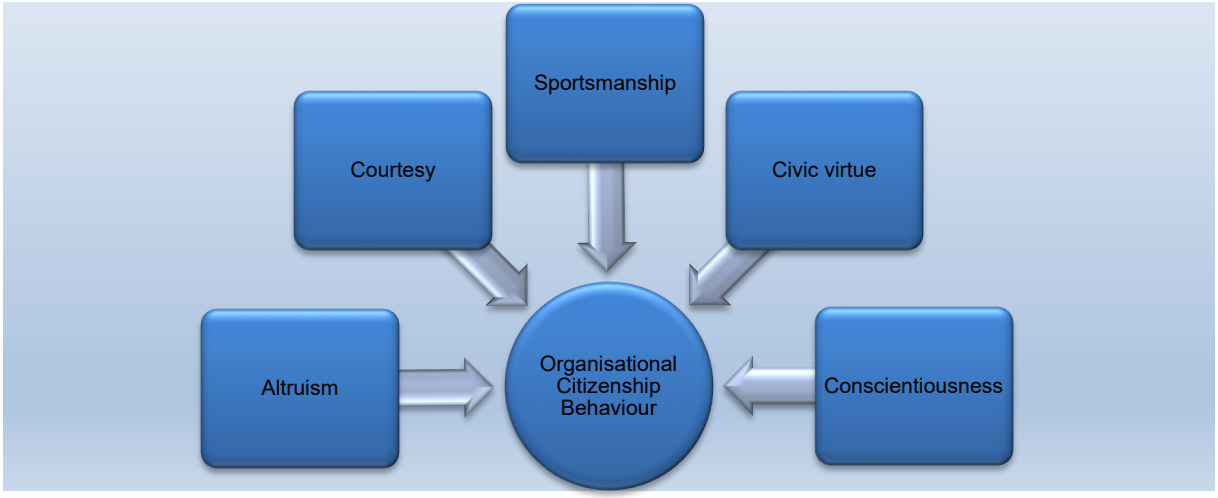
Conscientiousness refers to being a good employee who always adheres to workplace rules. Punctuality, a high attendance record, and working after hours to finish a work assignment are all indicators of conscientiousness. Conscientious employees are likely to abide by the rules even when they are not being watched. These employees continually improve their knowledge by staying informed about the latest trends and developments within the organisation. Individuals who are extremely conscientious tend to be more determined in their jobs than those with low conscientiousness. Conscientiousness focuses on loyalty, responsibility, and acting in the best interests of the organisation. It is also significant in the workplace,

as it provides direction to the organisation and contributes to the achievement of desirable work behaviour (King, 2005; Yen & Niehof, 2004; Sanson, Wiebe & Morgan, 1999 in Akinbode, 2011).

(e) Civic virtue

These are behaviours related to the organisation's political aspect. This involves supporting the organisation, such as making appearances at functions arranged by the organisation, representing the organisation when required, attending meetings, and contributing to organisational policies. According to Jahangir, Akbar and Haq (2004), civic virtue also entails upholding the organisation's name.

Figure 4.1: Five-Dimension Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Model



Source: Adapted from Organ, D. W. (1990), “The Motivational Basis of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour”, in Staw, B.M and Cumming, L.L. (Eds), Research in Organisational Behaviour, 12, p. 43-72.

The above types of OCB are relevant to employee performance and organisational success. While the above were shown to be the dimensions of OCB, other research has shown different dimensions of OCB. Smith, Organ and Near (1983) identified altruism and generalised compliance as the main dimensions of OCB, whereas Graham (1991) identified organisational obedience (acceptance of organisational rules

and regulations), organisational commitment, and organisational participation as the dimensions of OCB. Another researcher examined OCB in depth and identified dimensions such as helping behaviours, sportsmanship, organisational loyalty, organisational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue, and self-development (Oplatka, 2006).

Many other researchers did not confine their studies to only the five dimensions of OCB: altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, sense of civic duty, and virtue. In a study conducted by Avci (2016) on the effects of principal leadership styles on OCB, the following nine dimensions in OCB were measured:

- Institutional Identification: the employee's commitment to the organisation's vision and mission. The employees' connection to the organisation was also taken into consideration.
- Administrative contribution: employees contribute to the management process by providing their input. The employee maintains harmony and contributes to a positive work environment.
- Sacrifice: employees sacrifice their personal time for the good of the organisation by working extra hours.
- Being thoughtful and compatible: being considerate and in sync with the organisational goals. These employees avoid negative behaviours that will destroy the work environment.
- Team spirit: employees work with each other in a unified manner. They work in partnership with other members.
- Positive communication and interaction: the employee interacts positively with others in the workplace. They avoid situations that could lead to conflict.
- Personal and institutional development: the employee attends training that will benefit the organisation and themselves.

Johnson (2016) also noted that adopting a stewardship mindset is an important component of OCB. Stewardship entails performing duties on behalf of others, with

the organisation's interests at heart, by conducting duties for the sake of the organisation rather than for one's own selfish needs. Individuals with a stewardship mindset pursue intangible rewards, such as personal development, realising their goals, and self-actualisation, rather than tangible rewards like bonuses and incentives. These individuals recognise the organisation's vision and objectives and take responsibility for their actions. They are concerned with the organisation's performance, customers, employees, and all relevant stakeholders. Stewardship leads to greater organisational commitment and productivity, reduces unethical behaviour such as selfishly pursuing excessive executive compensation, and fosters support for others. Stewardship can be encouraged through empowerment, developing mutual relationships, focusing on a common purpose, enabling employee growth and development, and providing employees with leadership tasks.

Pradhan and Mishra (2019) identified work involvement and organisational ambassador in addition to civic virtue and conscientiousness as dimensions of OCB. Organisational ambassador explains that employees portray a positive image of the organisation. Work involvement represents an employee's strong commitment to organisational activities.

Pattanayak, Mishra, and Niranjana (2003) identified three dimensions of OCB: sharing and involvement, organisational ownership, and professional commitment. Sharing and involvement focus on working together with colleagues to find innovative solutions to organisational problems. Organisational ownership refers to an employee's ability to use organisational resources to achieve work goals. Professional commitment entails adhering to work due dates and positively representing the organisation. Furthermore, Ummah and Athambawa (2018) indicate that caring for and assisting others, cooperativeness, reliability, and dutifulness are among the traits of OCB.

Although there are various approaches to the dimensions of OCB, a common thread across them is employees' willingness to participate in OCB for the sake of the organisation. These actions may include helping other employees achieve work

objectives, going beyond what is prescribed in job descriptions, participating in organisational activities, establishing and maintaining a positive image of the organisation, and abiding by the organisation's rules and regulations, among other acts. OCB practices depict an employee's sacrifice and commitment to the organisation, which will ensure organisational effectiveness and efficiency.

4.4 PREDICTORS OR ANTECEDENTS OF OCB

The following are the predictors or antecedents that motivate OCB in an organisation:

- ***Transformational leadership***

Transformational leadership is known to have a significant impact on influencing and motivating followers to go the extra mile to achieve organisational goals (Robbins et al., 2016). A discussion on transformational leadership was already provided in Chapter 2.

The efforts and behaviours demonstrated by transformational leaders motivate employees to engage in OCB. Transformational leadership enables employees to excel in the workplace and perform beyond what is expected of them (Ehrhart, 2004; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Vega-Vazquez, Cossio & Martin-Ruiz, cited in Mafini, 2015). Other studies that found a positive association between transformational leadership and OCB are discussed in section 4.9.1.

- ***Motivation***

Motivation refers to the internal state that directs an individual's behaviour. It can be viewed as the individual's arousal, direction, and persistence that guide their behaviour. A high level of motivation leads to increased effort and performance at work. Motivated individuals are eager to go to work, keen to help others, and willing to

put in additional effort towards organisational activities (Bagraim, 2016). This definition indicates that motivation drives employees to engage in OCB.

Theorists such as McClelland have argued that OCB can be understood from a motivational perspective. The theory holds that individuals are motivated by power, a sense of accomplishment, and the need for affiliation. The power motive drives people towards status and control. The sense of accomplishment motivates people to thrive on competition and to achieve high-quality outcomes. Affiliation encourages employees to develop and sustain relationships with colleagues (McClelland, 1961). OCB therefore stems from an individual's motivation, though this motivation may differ from person to person. An employee being courteous may be driven by the need to look good, while another individual is genuinely interested in making a significant contribution to the workplace. Other individuals are motivated by the multiple benefits of OCB, such as promotional opportunities, improved quality of work, and creating a good impression in the organisation (Pickford & Joy, 2016).

- ***Trust in co-workers and supervisors***

Trust is defined as having confidence in another individual or allowing oneself to be vulnerable to another person's actions (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman, 1995; Gideon, 1990, in Birdie & Jain, 2016). Higher levels of trust are known to increase performance and productivity, and to foster healthy working relationships. Research has found that employees with trusting relationships in the organisation are more likely to be innovative at work and to display OCB. They are also less likely to exhibit negative behaviours in the workplace, such as absenteeism and a lack of commitment to their work tasks (Neck, Houghton & Murray, 2020).

While some studies have shown a link between high levels of trust in co-workers and OCB, others have proven that OCB still occurs where organisational members have little trust in each other (Singh & Srivastava, 2009; Menges, Walter, Vogel & Bruch, 2011).

The element of trust also forms part of the social exchange theory, which is discussed later in this chapter.

- ***Job Satisfaction***

Job satisfaction refers to the extent to which an employee is content with his or her job. Job satisfaction can also be seen as an employee's motivation to complete work activities to the best of their ability (Hoffman-Miller, 2019).

Job satisfaction was found to be a significant predictor of OCB. Research has revealed a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and OCB within a university setting. It was established that there was a positive correlation between job satisfaction and social behaviours (Batman & Organ, 1983; Mack nili and Mag nilo, 1994, as cited in Ebrahimpour, Zahed, Khaleghkhah & Sepehri, 2011).

In a study conducted by Diedericks and Rothman (2014), it was indicated that job satisfaction had a slight impact on OCB through organisational commitment, where individuals who experienced high levels of job satisfaction were highly committed to the organisation, and as a result, these individuals were helpful to others and were keen to undertake additional activities in the organisation.

In another study in the hospitality industry, Tahernjad, Ghorban, Arrifin & Babaei (2015) found that job satisfaction and commitment were vital in enhancing citizenship behaviour among middle managers. The research showed that the more satisfied and committed the employees were, the higher the citizenship behaviour. The citizenship behaviours included efforts to assist other employees, taking on additional responsibilities, and providing input that was advantageous to the organisation.

Recent studies have also shown that job satisfaction influences OCB. Bathena (2018) indicates that a satisfied employee is more inclined to represent the organisation

internally and externally and to protect its reputation. Job satisfaction can also lead to greater organisational commitment and to employees going beyond the call of duty to ensure organisational goals are met. In another study conducted by Oparinde, Abdulsalam and Oparinde (2019), it was revealed that job dissatisfaction resulted in employees not engaging in OCB, particularly by not working extra hours.

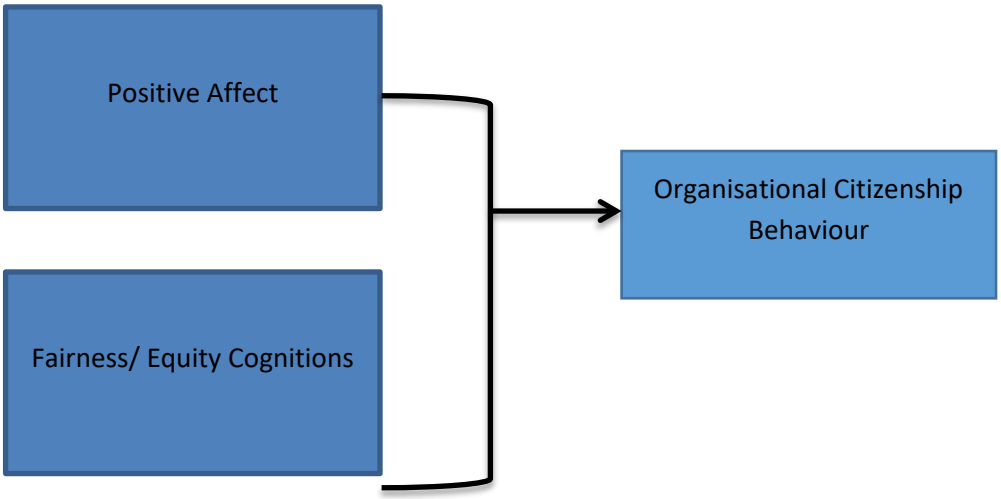
- ***Treatment received from the organisation***

An employee's perception of fair treatment from the organisation will determine whether they will engage in OCB. Employees who are treated fairly in the workplace will demonstrate extra-role behaviour and obey the organisation's rules (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

Diedericks and Rothman (2014) reported on research by Shapiro & Kessler (2002), which found that employees who receive positive treatment from the organisation are more likely to exhibit organisational citizenship behaviour, as they feel it is necessary to engage in such behaviour. In another study, it was shown that fair reward systems and the processes that lead to the distribution of such rewards are perceived as objectives, and that employees are more likely to participate in extra-role behaviour (Ajala, 2016).

Jex and Britt (2014) identified the following positive affect and fairness/ equity cognition that encouraged employees to engage in OCB (Figure 4.2):

Figure 4.2: Antecedent of organisational citizenship behaviour



Source: Jex, S.M. and Britt, T.W. (2014) *Organisational Psychology: A scientist-practitioner approach*. New York. 3rd edition. New York: John Wiley & Sons, p. 106.

- Positive affect: This refers to job satisfaction and whether an employee gains a positive feeling from the workplace, which leads to employees helping others. According to Quick & Nelson (2011), the more satisfied an employee is, the more likely they are to engage in OCB, such as assisting others and speaking positively about the organisation. These individuals tend to go the extra mile in the organisation because they feel satisfaction in the workplace.
- Fairness/ Equity cognitions: This refers to the extent to which employees feel that they are treated fairly in the organisation. It is believed that employees will exhibit OCB if they feel that the organisation is fair to them.

Justice at work is an effective tool that can foster happiness and contribute to an employee's well-being. Employees appreciate the organisation treating them fairly and they also expect their co-workers to be treated with respect and fairness. The following are the various types of justice (Furnham & Taylor, 2011).

- *Organisational justice*

Organisational justice refers to the way employees perceive the organisation's policies and procedures. The way justice is applied within the organisation will depend on the organisation's culture (Furnham & Taylor, 2011).

- *Distributive justice*

The focus is on employees' perceptions of the fairness of decisions concerning their remuneration in comparison with the remuneration received by others. It also encompasses perceptions of the fairness of rewards relative to costs and investments, job standards, and length of employment (Furnham & Taylor, 2011).

- *Procedural justice*

Procedural justice refers to the processes rather than the goals. Employees are more likely to be satisfied with organisational decisions if these are based on fair procedures. In other words, the procedures leading to a decision must be reliable, impartial, and honest (Furnham & Taylor, 2011).

In a study investigating organisational justice and OCB among teachers in a developing country, it was concluded that a significant positive relationship exists between organisational justice and OCB. When teachers were treated equally, they were more likely to respond with OCB. A teacher's OCB can enhance the school's effectiveness. It is therefore necessary for principals to understand the importance of fairness and justice in the workplace as one of the factors that influence OCB (Selamat, 2017).

Wallace, De Chernatony and Bui (2013) and Zeinabadi (2010), as cited in Mitonga-Monga and Cilliers (2016), indicate that employees become loyal to an organisation if their leaders are fair towards them, and this can also result in employees engaging in OCB.

The equity theory, which addresses fairness, is discussed later in this chapter.

- **Commitment**

Organisational commitment refers to an individual's inclination to be part of an organisation. An individual who remains in an organisation due to an emotional connection is said to have affective commitment. An individual who feels a moral obligation to be a loyal member of the organisation is said to have normative commitment. On the other hand, continuance commitment describes the individual's willingness to stay in the organisation for monetary reasons, for example, higher pay (Robbins et al., 2016).

Studies have found a link between organisational commitment and OCB. According to Zeinabadi (2010), a correlation between organisational commitment and OCB is understandable. The author states that an employee who is highly committed is more likely to perform discretionary behaviours that contribute to the effectiveness of the organisation.

Affective organisational commitment is known to predict OCB. Affective commitment refers to an individual's conviction and recognition of organisational goals. It also refers to an individual's obligation to maintain membership in the organisation. Affective commitment encourages employees to participate in extra-role behaviour without the expectation of reward (Van Dyne et al., 1995; Allen & Meyer, 1996 in Jahangi et al., 2004)

- **Psychological contract**

The psychological contract refers to the trust relationship between the employee and the organisation. An organisation that ensures workplace stability will strengthen the employee-organisation relationship. Employees form an emotional bond with the organisation when they receive fair treatment, promotions, rewards, and care. It is

important for an organisation to meet employees' needs by ensuring a conducive work environment. A psychological contract can positively influence an employee's commitment to the organisation. Employees are dedicated to improving productivity and ensuring organisational growth. They strive to uphold the organisation's image by always contributing new and creative ideas to enhance it (Anggraeni, Dwiatmadja & Yuniawan, 2017).

Coyle-Shapiro (2002) highlights the importance of the psychological contract in predicting OCB, noting that the strength and quality of the employer-employee relationship determine whether the employee will engage in OCB activities. Another study by Ahmad and Zafar (2018) shows a significant positive relationship between psychological contract fulfilment and OCB. The study suggested that employees will go beyond the call of duty if they feel that the organisation is fulfilling its promises in the psychological contract.

- **Supervisor Support**

Supervisor support refers to the care supervisors provide to employees. It can also refer to employees feeling valued by their supervisors. Supervisor support entails encouraging employees to express their views and apply creativity on the job. Friendliness, openness, and showing concern for employees' problems can also be considered forms of support from supervisors (Chi, 2019).

Supervisor support is essential for promoting OCB in organisations. Supervisor support, such as encouraging work-life balance, enabling telecommuting, and being empathetic when employees experience family conflicts, results in employees returning the favour by being more committed to the organisation and exhibiting OCB (Banwo & Du, 2018). A study conducted within an open distance learning institution found a positive relationship between supervisory support and OCB (Munir & Shah, 2013).

- **Organisational support**

Organisational support refers to employees' feelings of being valued and acknowledged for their efforts. It also describes the extent to which employees feel that the organisation cares about their wellbeing (Krishnan & Mary, 2012, in Adebayo, 2019).

Organisations with a supportive culture are more likely to motivate employees to engage in OCB, which in turn results in organisational effectiveness. Organisational support also inspires individuals to be creative in their work. Supportive practices such as work-life balance, attractive incentives and healthy work relationships are necessary to develop positive attitudes and behaviours among employees (Onyishi & Ogbodo, 2012).

Organisational support theory indicates that employees who feel the organisation cares about them are more likely to engage in OCB activities. They show concern for the organisation and contribute to organisational goals. Employees who desire organisational support are motivated not by monetary benefits but by the small, significant actions provided by the organisation. These actions result in employees demonstrating OCB (Gupta, 2019).

Research indicates that employees with high organisational support perceptions are more likely to engage in OCB activities (Chen, Aryee & Lee, 2005 in Robbins, Judge, Odendaal & Roodt, 2016).

- **Emotional Intelligence**

Over the years, emotional intelligence has been identified as an important concept in organisational contexts. Employees bring their emotions into the workplace, which alters their thoughts and behaviours in the organisation and impacts performance (Jena & Pradhan, 2018). Emotional intelligence refers to the self-awareness of

emotions and the ability to recognise how one's emotions affect their own beliefs, performance and others. Emotional intelligence encompasses the recognition of emotions, management of emotions, understanding emotions in relationship, and using emotional information to enhance cognitive thinking (Mangal & Mangal, 2015).

In a study on the influence of emotional intelligence on OCB and counterproductive work behaviour, it was found that there were significant positive correlations between emotional intelligence. This study highlights the importance of emotional intelligence in bringing about an increase in OCB. Emotional intelligent individuals are conscious of their own emotions and the emotions of others in the organisation. These individuals are able to resolve emotional problems in a creative way. Emotional intelligent employees have good brainstorming and presentation skills and are able to understand the emotions of other employees and relate to them. An emotionally intelligent workforce can lead to organisational effectiveness, less workplace anxiety, and positive work attitudes (Dixit & Singh, 2019).

Emotions need to be effectively managed in an organisation, as this can foster innovation and co-operation among workers. Emotional intelligence can influence behaviour and performance that is guided in the right direction (Fatima, Irfan, Salah-Ud-Din, 2014). The emotional understanding and relationship that an employee has toward other employees and the organisation can accelerate performance in OCB activities. Employees with high emotional intelligence will display strong discretionary behaviour and employees with low emotional intelligence will be less effective in OCB. It is necessary for emotional intelligence to be incorporated into organisational efforts to achieve OCB. Appropriate training should be introduced to develop and maintain emotional intelligence in the organisation (Sharma & Mahajan, 2017).

4.5 BENEFITS OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

There are many benefits of OCB and one such benefit is that it increases performance ratings for employees. These employees are always helping others and provide innovative ideas (Quick & Nelson, 2011). According to Somech and Oplatka (2015),

organisational goals are not attainable by tasks set out in a prescribed job description, it also requires individuals engaging in OCB. The author adds that OCB is necessary for organisational effectiveness. OCB is responsible for generating social capital, improving efficiency and productivity, better co-ordination of job tasks and makes it easier for employees to adjust to changes in the environment. According to Joubert, Crafford and Schepers (2004), OCB together with ethics, social responsibility and a commitment to excellence can lead to the success of any organisation. OCB is also said to be valuable when organisations are facing difficult times. Employees dedicate extra time beyond their normal work hours to assist the organisation to meet their goals. This ensures cost saving as the employee does not expect any financial reward for their efforts (Cheung & Wong, 2014).

According to Podsakoff and Mackenzie (1997) and Jain et al., cited in Rose (2016), OCB has the following effects in the organisation:

- it increases worker and managerial productivity;
- it enables employees to utilise organisational resources effectively and leads to better coordination of work activities;
- it increases and maintains organisational performance;
- it makes an organisation flexible to change; and
- It builds a work environment that enables social interaction between employees, which encourages employees to perform better in the workplace as they can gain the support of their colleagues.

OCB is known to improve employee performance because managers tend to focus heavily on OCB practices when appraising employees. This is due to OCB being an extra-role behaviour that exceeds expectations outlined in an employee's job description (Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2018). The study by Ridwan, Mulyani, and Ali (2020) indicated that organisational citizenship behaviour influenced employees' performance in Private Universities in West Sumatra. The OCB dimension of conscientiousness greatly affected employee performance, as measured by

indicators of job completion. This implies that employees completed their work ahead of schedule or above standard, which is necessary to improve employee performance.

Yadav and Punia (2013) reported that OCB played a significant role in reducing workplace disputes and anxiety. OCB practices, such as helping others and conscientiousness, minimised workplace disagreements and stress, which were vital for boosting employees' self-esteem and job involvement, promoting ethical behaviour, and reducing employee turnover.

Affiliative citizenship behaviour, such as support for existing work processes and relationships, may benefit the organisation by helping individuals maintain stability within it. This behaviour also creates a positive image of the organisation. Furthermore, employees genuinely exhibit OCB because they care about the organisation, and these individuals will go beyond the call of duty to ensure the organisation's progress. These individuals also help protect the organisation's image (DuBrin, 2011).

According to Pickford and Joy (2016), OCB can result in many positive outcomes for organisations. Table 4.1 highlights the OCB dimensions, description of behaviour, and outcomes:

Table 4.1: OCB and Organisational Outcomes

OCB Type	**Description**	**Outcome for Organisation**
Altruism	Helping co-workers	Reduced need for supervision, training and crisis management costs
Conscientiousness	Compliance	
Courtesy	Gestures that prevent employees from facing problems	

Sportsmanship	Willingness to tolerate minor inconveniences without appeal or protest	Fewer minor complaints – allows managers to focus on important job functions.
Civic virtue	Constructive involvement in issues of governance	Employees provide constructive suggestions that may save costs

Source: Adapted from Smith, Organ and Near (1983), Organ (1988) in Pickford, H.C. and Joy, G. (2016) Organisational Citizenship Behaviours: Definitions and Dimensions*, SAID Business School, Research Papers*, UK: University of Oxford, p. 4.

4.6 THEORIES EXPLAINING THE MOTIVATORS OF OCB

The social exchange theory and equity theory explained the motivators of OCB.

4.6.1 Social Exchange Theory

The propositions of social exchange theory were established by Homans in 1958. The theory proposes that relationships between individuals are usually formed through social contact. This theory holds that if another rewards an individual during a social exchange, they are obligated to provide something in return to maintain the relationship. The social exchange theory explains that, for example, the principle of fairness could have a trickle-down effect on social exchange between individuals. If supervisors feel they are treated fairly by their managers, they, in turn, will apply the same fair treatment to their employees (Wo & Ambrose, 2015).

The social exchange theory focuses on the relationship between the leader and the employee. This social interaction is based on mutual trust between the two parties. A stable relationship usually develops between both parties if they are satisfied with the social exchange. It can also have negative outcomes if the parties are unhappy with

the social interaction. The social exchange theory suggests that organisational citizenship behaviour is strengthened through the leader-member relationship. This behaviour is based on the trust and respect that develops between the parties (Wan, 2016). Fuchs (2012) reports on a study by Shores et al. (2009), which found a positive relationship between social exchange relationships and altruistic behaviour. Wan (2016) and Wo and Ambrose (2015) further state that the social exchange theory is based on trust and argue that individuals should return the favour if someone helps them.

Social theorists argue that an employee's commitment depends on the support they receive from their managers, which is part of the social exchange process. This social exchange relationship leads employees to engage in OCB. The extent to which employees perform OCB is highly dependent on the quality of the social exchange relationship (Eisneberger et al., 1986; Eisneberger et al., 1990; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Organ, 1990; Chan & Mak, 2012, in Tan, Zawai & Aziz, 2016).

According to Tran and Choi (2019), social exchange theory is one of the most powerful frameworks for explaining how leaders' behaviour conveys employees' values, attitudes, and behaviours to OCB. The authors further state that social exchange theory provides theoretical insight into leaders' behaviours and their contribution to their followers' desired outcomes; this view lends support to the link between inclusive leadership and OCB.

Social exchange is responsible for job satisfaction, building trust and healthy relationships, and improved communication. This, in turn, leads to OCB practices, as satisfied workers are motivated to engage in OCB activities that benefit the organisation. This behaviour indicates that social exchange promotes OCB (Lai & Chan, 2017).

The social exchange theory was recognised as the motivator of OCB. The social exchange theory implies that positive behaviour results from the social exchange

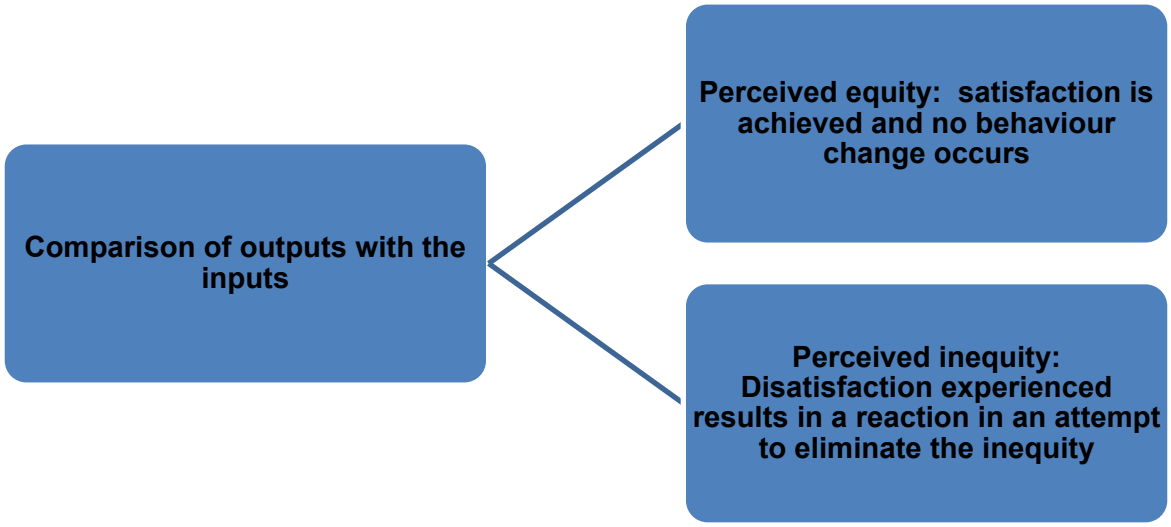
relationship; that is, the stronger the relationship, the greater the likelihood of employees engaging in OCB (Salas-Vallina, Alegre & Fernandez, 2015).

4.6.2 Equity Theory

Equity theory (Figure 4.3), developed by Adams in 1963, focuses on fairness and justice in the workplace. The theory is based on the construct of distributive justice, which refers to fairness in processes and decisions. Equity theory is also grounded in the exchange relationship discussed in social exchange theory. It explains the investments in the relationship, that is, one individual will provide something and the other will give something back to return the favour. Fairness and justice are important parts of the social exchange process. The theory also considers equity in the input-output ratio, namely that there must be a balance between what is put in and what is returned in the input-output process. An unequal balance in the relationship may result in negative outcomes, for example, theft. Employees may feel that they deserve what they steal for the work that they perform (Miner, 2007).

Msoroko (2010) also explains the positive and negative consequences of the exchange relationship. The input-output ratio is said to be equal when the employee experiences job satisfaction. Equity theory is based on the principle that the output must be compatible with the effort (input) provided by the employee. Stueart, Moran and Morner (2013) concur with Miner (2007) and Msoroko (2010) regarding the input-output ratio proposed by the equity theory of motivation, as shown in Figure 4.3. The author adds that working hours, qualification levels, and the amount of effort put into a job constitute examples of inputs, while outputs can take the form of pay and recognition. The model demonstrates that employees compare the effort they put into the job with the rewards they receive. If they feel that other employees holding similar positions are performing at a lower rate, the employee will react by also putting less effort into the job in an attempt to decrease the perceived inequity.

Figure 4.3: The Equity Theory of Motivation



Source: Adapted from: Stueart, R.D., Moran, B.B. & Morner, C.J. (2013) *Library and Information Center Management*. 8th ed. USA: Libraries Unlimited.

The Equity Theory also states that employees are highly responsive to equity issues, and that any unfair treatment in the workplace can lead to conflict within the organisation and affect employees' performance. Studies have shown that employees who are treated fairly in the organisation are most likely to engage in OCB activities, and that fair compensation and promotion opportunities are positively related to the altruism dimension of OCB (Eskew, 1993; Organ & Ryan, 1995, in Mohan, 2018).

According to a study by Chinomona and Dhurup (2016), there was a strong correlation between equity and OCB in SMEs. In a recent study conducted in a university setting, employees who experienced fair treatment in the organisation and trusted their supervisors engaged in OCB that benefited the organisation. Employee behaviours and attitudes were linked to the fair treatment provided by the organisation. This study demonstrated that organisational justice and OCB were positively correlated (Ismail, Iqbal & Adeel, 2018).

4.7 CRITICISMS OF OCB

While OCB may be viewed positively, it also attracts criticism. Some are concerned that individuals may use OCB to create a better image of themselves rather than to assist others with their jobs. Employees may see OCB as a way to display their potential and capabilities. These employees are motivated only by self-interest and a desire to be viewed in a positive light. They may also use OCB to give the impression that their co-workers are less dedicated than they are. OCB may also lead a person to take on too much work, resulting in high levels of stress that can affect the quality of the work produced. This may also impact employees' work-life balance (DuBrin, 2011). This view is supported by Cummings and McLean Parks (1995) and Bolino (as cited in Alabak, Peker, and Booth, 2016), who note that employees view OCB as a means to a social end. This means that employees help others or show concern for their colleagues only to leave a good impression.

OCB can also affect employees' work-life balance and cause extreme stress. Employees performing their own job tasks while also engaging in OCB can become overburdened, which can be detrimental to their health (Organ, 2018). This view aligns with other authors, who state that employees engaged in OCB can become fatigued and experience work-family conflict. They also note that those not engaging in OCB may be labelled as lazy by employees carrying out OCB. Some employees may also feel guilty that others are engaging in OCB, which may lead them to feel obligated to take on additional activities. This can result in employees feeling stressed and determined to leave their jobs. This phenomenon is referred to as citizen pressure (Banwo & Du, 2018).

Bolino, Turnley and Niehoff (2004) pointed out that OCB can be detrimental to an organisation. Employees engaging in OCB may expect something in return from the employer. It is also possible that employees who assist others are doing so to prove that they are more capable than their co-workers. Employees help others in their jobs

so that they can abandon their own job responsibilities. There is also the possibility that these employees are trying to escape from their personal problems.

Ummah and Athambawa (2018) point out that although employees engage in OCB, reward systems often overlook it. This can be discouraging for an employee.

4.8 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE VARIABLES OF LEADERSHIP, EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT AND OCB

Since this study concerns the influence of leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB, it is necessary to examine other studies and literature on the relationships among these variables.

4.8.1. Leadership and OCB

Leadership plays an essential role in shaping the organisational climate and culture. Leaders can positively influence employees' behaviour, thereby encouraging them to engage in OCB. A supportive organisational environment that encourages employees to help others is more likely to facilitate the performance of extra-role behaviour. Leaders who show support and concern for employees will motivate employees to help others and perform extra-role behaviour, as they feel valued in the organisation (Baek-Kyoo & Sung, 2017).

A study revealed a significant positive relationship between democratic leadership and OCB. Democratic leaders were responsible for individuals' growth within the organisation. Employees exposed to autocratic leadership styles were reluctant to engage in extra-role behaviours (Ndubueze & Akanni, 2015).

In a study conducted within the school context, it was concluded that OCB will occur when principals show support and trust for teachers, recognise their efforts, and provide a caring work environment. This will lead to teachers working harmoniously

with each other, expressing creativity on the job, and becoming more involved in school events (Mahembe & Engelbrecht, 2014).

A leader's trust in employees is also instrumental in fostering OCB. This is evident in a study by Lester and Brower (2003), which found that a subordinate's perception of their leader's demonstration of trust was significantly associated with OCB. This trust, expressed by leaders, can motivate employees to perform better and go the extra mile in the workplace. In another study of authentic leadership and OCB in the public healthcare sector, an indirect relationship between authentic leadership and OCB was found through the trust between employer and employee. It was demonstrated that authentic leadership affected trust, which in turn influenced the extent to which employees displayed OCB (Coxen, Van der Vaart & Stander, 2016).

Hendriks (2017) found positive relationships between transformational leadership and OCB. Hackett, Wang, Chen, Cheng and Farh (2018) explain that leadership influences OCB within the organisation. In particular, leadership behaviours such as consideration, initiating structure, contingent rewards, and transformational leadership were related to OCB. According to Alsheikh and Sobihah (2019), transformational leadership is a process that a leader can use to inspire employees to engage in OCB. The study by Novianti (2021) revealed that transformational leadership significantly affected OCB. The results implied that leaders play a significant role in improving employees' willingness to perform additional work for the organisation.

Paternalistic leadership has also been shown to influence extra-role behaviours and encourage employees to assist others in the workplace. This leadership style is known to instil a culture of motivation, significance and ambition, which inspires employees to engage in OCB activities. Paternalistic leadership is associated with greater participation in OCB, particularly in altruism, courtesy, and sportsmanship, whereas an authoritarian leadership style reportedly decreases performance in OCB activities (Afsar, 2014, in Veloen, 2016).

Supervisors with strong leadership qualities are also said to increase OCB among individuals. Employees guided by excellent leaders are most likely to participate in OCB activities. Strong leadership qualities must be applied within organisations, as they can encourage OCB and enhance competitiveness. These positive characteristics result in OCB through altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship (Sandada & Zungu, 2016). These characteristics are associated with transformational leadership, where leaders inspire and motivate employees towards a particular vision. They stimulate the intellectual capacity of individuals. Lian and Tui (2012) found a significant positive association between transformational leadership and OCB.

The relationship between employee empowerment and OCB are explored in the next section of this chapter.

4.8.2 Employee empowerment and OCB

Employee empowerment is essential for changing employees' mindsets and attitudes, and how they respond to their work. Empowered employees have high self-esteem and put in more effort than is required of them (Greasly et al., 2005, cited in Fasanmi, 2018). Empowerment is said to awaken a sense of power in employees and motivate them to participate in OCB activities (Jeong, Kim, Kim, Minhong & Zhang, 2019).

OCB performance depends on the extent to which employees are empowered and feel a sense of belonging within the organisation. Employees become more involved in their roles when they participate in organisational decision-making (Yusof, Yaacob & Rahman, 2019). Many studies have found a positive relationship between employee empowerment and OCB. Highly empowered employees are more likely to engage in extra-role behaviours and support organisational effectiveness without expecting financial returns from the organisation (Baek-Kyoo & Sung, 2017). Empowerment dimensions such as meaningfulness, competency, self-determination, and impact were positively related to OCB dimensions, including altruism, civic virtue, and

courtesy (Arefin et al., 2015; Garg & Suri, 2013; Garg & Dhar, 2016, in Yusof et al., 2019).

Many researchers (Jha, 2014; Zhong et al., 2011; Lin, 2013) found a strong relationship between employee empowerment and altruism, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, courtesy, and civic virtue. These studies revealed that employee empowerment is necessary to bring about OCB. Employees perceived empowerment as increasing their participation in voluntary work, keeping them updated with information, and reducing complaints. Furthermore, employees felt that empowerment enhanced problem-solving in their jobs and enabled them to take initiative when completing tasks. Employees also promoted a positive image of the organisation and focused on increasing their knowledge that would benefit the organisation (Noranee, Abdullah, Mohd, Khamis, Aziz, Som, & Ammirul, 2018).

Kosar's (2017) findings are consistent with those of other researchers, who found positive correlations between empowerment and OCB. The researcher found that when employees felt empowered and satisfied at work, their commitment also increased. This also resulted in greater support for their colleagues. They also collaborated with other employees and were committed to additional organisational activities.

A study conducted in Indonesian universities revealed significant correlations between specific dimensions of lecturer empowerment and OCB. These included: professional growth; competitive urgency to excel; participatory decision-making and competence; compliance and status; individual resilience; and participatory decision-making. The researchers emphasised that academics working in closely managed environments can create a climate of doubt and insecurity (Suriansyah, Aslamiah, Noorhapizah, Iwan & Dalle, 2019). Employee management is required to a certain degree, but academics should be allowed autonomy and empowerment that will positively enhance employee performance and job satisfaction. Universities should exemplify OCB, shared goals

and values, and compliance and trust (Mohammad, Habib & Zakaria, 2010; Abraiz, Tabassum, Raja & Jawad, 2012).

The study by Newman, Schwarz, Cooper, and Sendjaya (2017) found contradictory results regarding the relationship between empowerment and OCB. The study revealed that empowerment did not lead to employees performing discretionary behaviour. However, it was found that there was a relationship between leader-member exchange and empowerment and between leader-member exchange and OCB.

4.9 OCB WITHIN OPEN DISTANCE HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

There are limited studies on OCB within the context of open distance higher education, although many researchers have focused their studies on higher learning institutions, the tertiary environment, or the university setting. This section also presents research findings from open distance higher education institutions, higher learning institutions, the tertiary environment, or the university setting.

OCB can be demonstrated in many forms in higher education institutions. Kagaari and Munene (2007) viewed the following key competencies that unveil OCB amongst lecturers:

- Designing and implementing the curriculum, which should take into consideration the cost, benefits, and the institution's reputation. The lecturer must be able to find solutions and make improvements.
- Reviewing and updating courses to meet the obligations of the profession and society. This will entail abiding by the rules and regulations within the teaching environment.
- Planning and supervising projects, which requires lecturers to act as a role model for students.

- Providing knowledge and skills to students that will result in competent graduates. Lecturers must demonstrate creativity and innovativeness on the job.
- Assessing and evaluating student performance must be fair and valid. This activity will require the lecturer's constant availability and engagement in OCB, which will involve sacrificing their holiday leave.

A study by Mohammad, Habib and Alias (2011) found that employees who perceived the organisation to be concerned with their personal development were happy, and that this led them to return the favour by engaging in OCB that benefited higher education institutions. The study implied that higher education institutions must support and nurture OCB, as it creates a positive work climate, improves work performance, and promotes organisational sustainability.

Munir and Shah (2013) conducted a study in distance learning institutions in Pakistan. The study focused specifically on determinants such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and supervisory support in relation to OCB. The study found a positive correlation among these variables. It was also reported that faculty members in distance learning institutions engaged in OCB practices, including helping others, going beyond job requirements, showing sportsmanship, obeying rules and regulations, defending the institution, and sacrificing personal time and resources to ensure that the universities' goals are reached. The study concluded by emphasising the importance of OCB for employee and organisational performance. It also noted that OCB helps save time and resources in universities. Universities should create a work environment that ensures job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and supervisory support, thereby enhancing overall university performance.

According to a study by Pradhan and Mishra (2019), OCB is more valuable in academic institutions than in other institutions. In the academic environment, altruistic behaviour is necessary to shape students' futures. It was also found that university staff demonstrated OCB towards colleagues, the organisation and students.

In a study by Oparinde et al. (2019) on job satisfaction and OCB in a state-owned tertiary institution, it was found that there was high engagement in OCB, particularly compliance with rules and regulations, and less involvement in voluntary behaviour beyond the stipulated working hours. This behaviour was based on their level of job satisfaction.

OCB is necessary for higher education institutions to ensure their continued existence amid ongoing technological advancements. All staff, including administrators and professors, are required to adapt to the changes in higher education. Staff commitment to OCB activities can contribute to the survival of higher education institutions during times of change (Dermawan & Handayani, 2019).

A study investigating leadership and OCB in higher education institutions found that leadership self-efficacy and change-oriented behaviour significantly influenced OCB. The importance of leadership in increasing OCB and its contribution to task accomplishment in the institution was recognised in this study. Furthermore, the significance of leaders' change-oriented behaviour in encouraging OCB in a changing educational landscape is necessary. Leaders must encourage employees to be positive, and to accept change that is valuable to the progress of the higher education institution (Adewale, Ghavifekr, Ahmad & Daud, 2018).

Atatsi, Curşeu, Stoffers, and Kil (2020) investigated the relationships among leader-member exchange, OCB, and performance among university lecturers in Ghana. The findings revealed a positive relationship between leader-member exchange and OCB, and between OCB and lecturers' performance. The study implied that lecturers' engagement in OCB depends on the quality of work relationships between supervisors and employees. Lecturers' performance also increased as a result of their engagement in OCB.

In another study conducted at a higher education institution, a culture of sharing and collaboration with colleagues was regarded as altruistic behaviour. This altruistic

behaviour was evident in staff providing feedback to colleagues on their work and asking for assistance in return. Other extra-role behaviours displayed by staff included participation in administrative committees. This type of OCB was regarded as altruism, as an employee's involvement and contribution in committees was to share their issues with colleagues and to obtain advice from the committee (Ozaslan, 2019).

4.10 Factors that define OCB in the current study

The following factors were explored in the current study:

- **Altruism**

The study by Piatak and Holt (2020) revealed that employees who demonstrate good citizenship behaviour are driven by a desire to help others. Altruism not only focuses on helping colleagues but may also entail helping the organisation, which is an OCB practice. Employees are motivated by the need to assist the organisation rather than by self-interest. These employees do not expect any financial rewards, as they believe they are being good citizens to the organisation (Cheung & Wong, 2014).

- **Sense of duty and consideration**

In the current study, sense of duty and consideration are associated with the OCB dimension of courtesy. This entails helping the organisation and other employees. According to Organ (1988), courtesy can take the form of assisting the organisation by sharing information about organisational events with others or participating in organisational activities. Employees who exhibit high courtesy will avoid creating problems for others and taking actions that will affect their co-workers (Romaiha, Maulud, Ismail, Jahya, Fahana, & Harun, 2019).

Avci (2016) defined employees' sense of duty and responsibility as the individual's attempt to fulfil his or her duty to the organisation efficiently and effectively. The author further indicated that helpfulness referred to an employee's willingness to assist other colleagues in the institution, which is related to the consideration dimension.

- **Sportsmanship**

According to Littooij (2020), an employee with sportsmanship in mind would consider not only their own problems but also those of others and the organisation, and would look for the positive aspects while accepting some of the negative sides. Sportsmanship relates to an employee's interest in both organisational and personal issues. These individuals can accommodate both the negative and positive sides of the organisation.

- **Civic virtue**

Civic virtue entails an individual's involvement in organisational activities, such as answering work emails and attending work meetings (Littooij, 2020). Employees who demonstrate civic virtue tend to be productive and contribute to decision-making. Civic virtue involves caring for the organisation's welfare and displaying positive behaviours. Employees with civic virtue adhere to policies and regulations and participate in activities that contribute to organisational success (Organ, 1988; Ozahin & Sudak, 2015; Hiroaki, 2015, in Siang, 2017). Pradhan and Mishra (2019) add that civic virtue also involves employees feeling like important members of the organisation.

Many studies have investigated the dimensions of OCB. Qawasmeh's (2018) study measured the level of OCB in Jordanian universities and found that the courtesy dimension had the highest mean score (4.34), while sportsmanship had the lowest mean score (4.34).

The study by Niroula and Chamlagai (2020) found that OCB (altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship) is favourably perceived among employees in the banking sector. Altruism had the highest mean score, followed by conscientiousness.

Research indicates that employees are motivated by various factors to engage in OCB. Firstly, employees are motivated by prosocial values, which refer to the need to help others. This type of behaviour is related to altruism and civic virtue. Secondly,

employees also feel the need to be fully involved in their organisation. This type of behaviour is linked to conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship (Takeuchi, Bolino, & Lin, 2015; Lucey, 2017).

A study measuring OCB among teachers in Indonesia found that the OCB dimensions (altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship) were valid and reliable. Civic virtue was the strongest dimension, supported by valid statements showing that teachers assisted their co-workers who were absent from class and provided their learners with projects. Courtesy appeared to be the weakest dimension. The study indicated that teachers assisted others but encountered challenges with the curriculum (Meilani, Tentama & Sari, 2020).

The study by Romaiha, Maulud, Ismail, Jahya, Fahana, and Harun (2019) found positive, significant relationships between altruism, sportsmanship, and courtesy and OCBs. Courtesy was the strongest predictor of OCB. The study recommended that the organisation give particular focus to the variables of altruism, sportsmanship, and courtesy. These variables can contribute to improvements in employee performance, the accomplishment of organisational goals, and the prevention of conflicts.

4.11 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

4.11.1 Leadership and OCB dimensions

- **Interpersonal relationships and the OCB dimensions**

Many studies have shown that interpersonal relationships at work have a positive impact on OCB, such as altruistic behaviour. These relationships also foster positive mood at work, which encourages employees to show concern for their friends and to engage in prosocial behaviour (George, 1990; Ilies et al., 2009; Dachner, 2011). The link between interpersonal relationships and OCB is explained by social exchange theory. Positive relationships at work may lead to reciprocal behaviour. Employees may be more likely to engage in OCB if they feel they have strong interpersonal

relationships within the organisation (Blau, 1996; Bowler & Brass, 2006; Dachner, 2011).

The study by Dierdorff, Rubin and Ellington (2021) found an indirect relationship between interpersonal skills and OCB. The study implied that individuals with greater interaction in the workplace were more likely to engage in OCB practices within the organisation.

The study by Tillsman, Lawrence and Daspit (2014) categorised interpersonal relationships into trust, respect and loyalty. In this study, it was found that OCB (helping behaviour, sportsmanship, and civic virtue) have a positive influence on interpersonal relationships (trust, loyalty, and respect).

Podsakoff et al. (2000) indicated that managers include OCB in their performance appraisals of employees. Altruism, sportsmanship, and civic virtue can likely affect the employee-manager relationship (Tillsman et al., 2014). Other studies have shown that interpersonal relationships can significantly predict positive job performance (Wrzesniewski, Dutton and Debebe, 2003); increase motivation (Adler & Kwon, 2002), and influence altruism (Grant, 2007).

The following hypotheses are formulated for the leadership dimension (interpersonal relationships) and the OCB dimensions (altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship, sense of duty, and consideration).

Hypotheses

H1a: There is a significant positive relationship between interpersonal relationships and altruism.

H1b: There is a significant positive relationship between interpersonal relationships and civic virtue.

H1c: There is a significant positive relationship between interpersonal relationships and sportsmanship.

H1d: There is a significant positive relationship between interpersonal relationships and sense of duty and consideration.

- **Task orientation and the OCB dimensions**

The study by Euwema, Eendt and van Emmerik (2007) described task-oriented leadership as directive leadership, characterised by meeting targets and close supervision. This study found a negative relationship between directive leadership and group OCB. It was implied that this behaviour makes employees reliant on leaders and less likely to engage in additional activities in the organisation. Furthermore, Podsakoff et al. (2000) found that directive leadership, or leaders specifying procedures, does not result in employees engaging in OCB, thereby limiting helping behaviours.

A study found that task-oriented work characteristics positively influenced self-efficacy, which in turn led to service-oriented OCB. Organisations should use the organisational, environmental, and interpersonal context to strengthen task-oriented work characteristics and motivate employees to engage in service-oriented OCB (Kao, 2016).

The following hypotheses are formulated for the leadership dimension (task orientation) and the OCB dimensions (altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship, sense of duty, and consideration).

Hypotheses

H2a: There is a significant positive relationship between task orientation and altruism.

H2b: There is a significant positive relationship between task orientation and civic virtue.

H2c: There is a significant positive relationship between task orientation and sportsmanship.

H2d: There is a significant positive relationship between task orientation and sense of duty and consideration.

- **Competence and the OCB dimensions**

The study by Rahmawati, Haerani, Taba and Hamid (2016) examined the relationship between good leadership and OCB. It examined intellectual stimulation in terms of promoting new ideas, providing resourceful solutions to problems, and influencing employees to adopt new ways of carrying out organisational tasks. The results indicated positive and significant relationships between leadership and OCB, and that OCB was best demonstrated through civic virtue. The findings implied that leadership competency must encourage employees to act in the organisation's best interests and to exhibit OCB. Yaffe and Kark (2011) suggested that OCB can be encouraged if organisations advance leaders' competency through leadership development programmes.

Deluga (1994) stated that competent supervisors who achieve organisational success will influence employees' OCB performance, as they will feel obligated to exhibit OCB traits, such as conscientiousness and altruism. However, the study demonstrated that acts of conscientiousness and altruism diminished in the presence of supervisor competence.

The study by Wei, Li, Zhang, and Liu (2016) revealed that leadership competency moderated the relationship between authentic leadership and OCB. It was indicated that positive relationships between authentic leadership and OCB are stronger when leadership competence is high.

The following hypotheses are formulated for the leadership dimension: competence and the OCB dimensions: altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship, sense of duty and consideration.

Hypotheses

H3a: There is a significant positive relationship between competence and altruism.

H3b: There is a significant positive relationship between competence and civic virtue.

H3c: There is a significant positive relationship between competence and sportsmanship.

H3d: There is a significant positive relationship between competence and sense of duty and consideration.

- **Vision and goal orientation and the OCB dimensions**

A study by Choi (2007) illustrated that a strong vision had a greater impact on change-oriented OCB.

Transformational leaders are known for communicating a vision for the future (Bass, 1999). Zacher and Jimmieson (2013) found positive relationships between transformational leadership and OCB. Goal achievement was also included as an item of transformational leadership in the study by Lofquist and Matthiesen (2018). In this study, a positive relationship between transformational leadership and OCB was reported.

The following hypotheses are formulated for the leadership dimension (vision and goal orientation) and the OCB dimensions (altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship, sense of duty, and consideration).

Hypothesis

H4a: There is a significant positive relationship between vision, goal orientation, and altruism.

H4b: There is a significant positive relationship between vision and goal orientation and civic virtue.

H5c: There is a significant positive relationship between vision and goal orientation and sportsmanship.

H5d: There is a significant positive relationship between vision and goal orientation, and sense of duty and consideration.

4.11.2 Mediating effects of employee empowerment

Many studies investigating the mediating effect of empowerment on the relationship between leadership and OCB have reported positive findings. Jha (2014) found a significant positive relationship between transformational leadership and OCB that increased with higher levels of empowerment. This is supported by Saira, Mansoor and Ali (2020), who reported that transformational leaders motivate employees to engage in OCB through psychological empowerment. Another study also found significant positive relationships between leadership and OCB, with psychological empowerment acting as a mediator (Ghalavi & Nastiezaie, 2020).

The study by Sahab, Sobari & Udin (2018) found that psychological empowerment mediated the relationship between empowering leadership and OCB. The study by Khusanova, Choi and Kang (2019) indicated that employees influenced by transformational leaders are highly empowered. Furthermore, the study revealed that employees are likely to participate in OCB if transformational leaders are empowered. Another study claimed that servant leadership demonstrated by school principals is mainly responsible for teachers' psychological empowerment and OCB (van der Hoven, Mahembe & Hamman-Fisher, 2021). According to Hassan, Mansoor and Ali (2021), empowerment mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and OCB. Lan and Chong (2015) stated that when employees are empowered, they have positive feelings towards the organisation and will display responsibility towards their work, which can result in positive consequences for the organisation.

Amabile et al. (2004) suggest that leadership support encompasses both task-oriented and relationship-oriented assistance, addressing employees' job performance and emotional needs. Leadership fosters trust and empowerment among employees (Metwally et al., 2019). This empowerment encourages employees to view themselves as vital stakeholders in the organisation (Jiao et al., 2011), prompting them to take actions that benefit the organisation, leading to higher instances of OCB for the organisation and OCB for the individual. Autonomy, an element of empowerment, is regarded as a contributing factor to OCB. Autonomy signifies a level of trust in employees' abilities, enabling them to carry out tasks in their preferred manner (Shobe,

2018). This empowerment positively influences employees' engagement in OCB (Shi et al., 2022). Work autonomy has been linked to positive outcomes such as organisational commitment and job satisfaction (Jain & Duggal, 2018; Naqvi et al., 2013).

Employees with job autonomy enjoy greater decision-making authority over their tasks, which fosters innovative ideas by cultivating a sense of responsibility and ownership (Alpkan et al., 2010). Providing employees with job autonomy signals that leaders recognise their value and contribution to the organisation's goals (Park & Searcy, 2012). In return, employees engage in voluntary behaviours that exceed their job descriptions, namely OCB (Gong et al., 2010). However, creating conditions that enable employees to perceive job autonomy may require transformational leadership. Through individualised consideration, leaders treat their followers not only as group members but also as distinct individuals, attending to their specific needs (Dionne et al., 2004) and granting them the autonomy to exhibit behaviours beyond their job roles (Pattnaik & Sahoo, 2021).

A study revealed that empowerment partially mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and OCB. The study further confirmed that leaders who provide employees with greater autonomy can foster greater employee empowerment (Jayarathna, 2019). This is supported by Yang and Zhu (2016), who found that empowerment partially mediated the relationship between charismatic leadership and OCB. The study recommended that leaders should trust their employees, give them a sense of freedom, and involve them in decision-making, as this will lead to greater empowerment. A study investigating servant leadership, empowerment, and OCB (altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness) also found a significant relationship between servant leadership and OCB, with empowerment playing a mediating role (Ghalavi & Nastiezaie, 2020).

A study by Shobe (2018) found that employees given greater autonomy in the workplace are more likely to perform their jobs in ways that suit them, as they feel management has confidence in their abilities. According to Park (2016), autonomy provides employees with the freedom to use organisational resources, enabling them

to support the organisation and colleagues. Pattnaik and Shahoo (2021) found that autonomy and supportive management partially mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and OCB. A study among nurses indicated that autonomy had a significant impact on the level of OCB-civic virtue (Pohl, Santo & Battistelli, 2012). Huang, Iun, Liu, and Gong (2010) found that empowerment mediated the relationship between participative leadership and OCB among managerial staff granted job autonomy.

Research by Hunter and Cushenbery (2011) indicates that supportive management encourages employees to engage in proactive, voluntary behaviours. Management support is a crucial precursor for fostering a positive relationship between leaders and employees (Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003). When employees perceive that leaders are invested in their well-being, signalling an interest in a reciprocal social exchange, they are inclined to reciprocate through behaviours beyond job requirements and voluntary. Therefore, perceptions of transformational leadership foster a sense of supportive management, which, in turn, encourages OCB (Pattnaik & Sahoo, 2021).

According to Chen and Chiu (2008), many studies have shown the influence of supervisory support on OCB, yet this relationship remains poorly understood. A study by Tan and Lee (2020) indicated that the support provided by transformational leaders can motivate employees to perform beyond their job expectations. Another study found a positive and significant relationship between supervisory support and OCB. It was also stated that employees view support as an additional resource that will motivate them to perform extra duties in the organisation (Abdullah & Marican, 2020). The researchers also indicated that supervisory support enables employees to feel valued, leading them to view the workplace as a support unit, which will encourage them to take on additional roles in the organisation.

Structural empowerment, such as access to information and resources, motivates employees to improve their job performance and leads them to engage in OCB that benefits the organisation, such as punctuality, attendance, and finding ways to improve the organisation (Podsakoff, Ahearne & MacKenzie, 1997; Wat & Shaffer, 2005;

Jaffery & Farooq, 2015). Empowerment and empowering leadership behaviours are related to OCBO. The study by Jaffery and Farooq (2015) concluded that structural empowerment establishes a stable working climate by providing employees with access to information, support, and resources, thereby creating a strong relationship with OCBO.

Another study indicated that academics with access to information and resources can make prompt decisions and support fellow academics in excelling in their work (Ahadi & Suandi, 2014; Kanter, 1979). Narzary and Palo (2015) found a noteworthy positive correlation between access to information and OCB. Inanc (2018) reported that employees with strong, high-quality supervisor-subordinate relationships can gain access to valuable information and resources and foster an empowering dynamic with their supervisors. These empowering relationships have the potential to augment OCB.

Based on these arguments, it is posited that employee empowerment serves as a mediating factor in the relationship between leadership and OCB. Thus, the hypotheses were formulated as follows:

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were developed concerning the mediating effects of management support on leadership and OCB:

H5a: Management support mediates the relationship between interpersonal relationships and altruism.

H5b: Management support has a mediating effect on the relationship between interpersonal relationships and civic virtue

H5c: Management support has a mediating effect on the relationship between interpersonal relationships and sportsmanship.

H5d: Management support has a mediating effect on the relationship between interpersonal relationships and sense of duty and consideration.

The following hypotheses were developed regarding the mediating effects of management support on task orientation and OCB.

H6a: Management support has a mediating effect on the relationship between task orientation and altruism.

H6b: Management support has a mediating effect on the relationship between task orientation and civic virtue.

H6c: Management support has a mediating effect on the relationship between task orientation and sportsmanship.

H6d: Management support has a mediating effect on the relationship between task orientation and sense of duty and consideration.

The following hypotheses were developed with regard to the mediating effects of management support on task orientation and OCB:

H7a: Management support mediates the relationship between competence and altruism.

H7b: Management support has a mediating effect on the relationship between competence and civic virtue.

H7c: Management support has a mediating effect on the relationship between competence and sportsmanship.

H7d: Management support has a mediating effect on the relationship between competence and sense of duty and consideration.

The following hypotheses were developed regarding the mediating effects of management support on vision, goal orientation, and OCB.

H8a: Management support mediates the relationships between vision, goal orientation, and altruism.

H8b: Management support has a mediating effect on the relationship between vision and goal orientation and civic virtue.

H8c: Management support has a mediating effect on the relationship between vision and goal orientation and sportsmanship.

H8d: Management support has a mediating effect on the relationship between vision and goal orientation and sense of duty and consideration.

The following hypotheses were developed with regard to the mediating effects of autonomy and decision making on interpersonal relationships and OCB:

H9a: Autonomy and decision-making have a mediating effect on the relationship between interpersonal relationships and altruism.

H9b: Autonomy and decision-making have a mediating effect on the relationship between interpersonal relationships and civic virtue.

H9c: Autonomy and decision-making have a mediating effect on the relationship between interpersonal relationships and sportsmanship.

H9d: Autonomy and decision-making have a mediating effect on the relationship between interpersonal sense of duty and consideration.

The following hypotheses were developed regarding the mediating effects of autonomy and decision making on task orientation and OCB:

H10a: Autonomy and decision-making have a mediating effect on the relationship between task orientation and altruism.

H10b: Autonomy and decision-making have a mediating effect on the relationship between task orientation and civic virtue.

H10c: Autonomy and decision-making have a mediating effect on the relationship between task orientation and sportsmanship.

H10d: Autonomy and decision-making have a mediating effect on the relationship between task orientation and sense of duty and consideration.

The following hypotheses were developed regarding the mediating effects of autonomy and decision-making on competence and OCB.

H11a: Autonomy and decision-making have a mediating effect on the relationship between competence and altruism.

H11b: Autonomy and decision-making have a mediating effect on the relationship between competence and civic virtue.

H11c: Autonomy and decision-making have a mediating effect on the relationship between competence and sportsmanship.

H11d: Autonomy and decision-making have a mediating effect on the relationship between competence and sense of duty and consideration.

The following hypotheses were developed regarding the mediating effects of autonomy and decision on vision, goal orientation, and OCB.

H12a: Autonomy and decision making has a mediating effect on the relationship between vision and goal orientation and altruism.

H12b: Autonomy and decision-making have a mediating effect on the relationship between vision and goal orientation and civic virtue.

H12c: Autonomy and decision-making have a mediating effect on the relationship between vision and goal orientation and sportsmanship.

H12d: Autonomy and decision-making have a mediating effect on the relationship between vision and goal orientation and sense of duty and consideration.

The following hypotheses were developed with regards to the mediating effects of access to information and resources on interpersonal relationships and OCB:

H13a: Access to information and resources has a mediating effect on the relationship between interpersonal relationships and altruism.

H13b: Access to information and resources has a mediating effect on the relationship between interpersonal relationships and civic virtue.

H13c: Access to information and resources has a mediating effect on the relationship between interpersonal relationships and sportsmanship.

H13d: Access to information and resources mediates the relationship between interpersonal relationships and sense of duty and consideration.

The following hypotheses were developed regarding the mediating effects of access to information and resources on task orientation and OCB.

H14a: Access to information and resources has a mediating effect on the relationship between task orientation and altruism.

H14b: Access to information and resources has a mediating effect on the relationship between task orientation and civic virtue.

H14c: Access to information and resources has a mediating effect on the relationship between task orientation and sportsmanship.

H14d: Access to information and resources has a mediating effect on the relationship between task orientation and sense of duty and consideration.

The following hypotheses were developed regarding the mediating effects of access to information and resources on competence and OCB.

H15a: Access to information and resources has a mediating effect on the relationship between competence and altruism.

H18b: Access to information and resources has a mediating effect on the relationship between competence and civic virtue.

H15c: Access to information and resources has a mediating effect on the relationship between competence and sportsmanship.

H15d: Access to information and resources has a mediating effect on the relationship between competence and sense of duty and consideration.

The following hypotheses were developed with regards to the mediating effects of access to information and resources on vision and goal orientation and OCB:

H16a: Access to information and resources has a mediating effect on the relationship between vision and goal orientation and altruism.

H16b: Access to information and resources has a mediating effect on the relationship between vision and goal orientation and civic virtue.

H16c: Access to information and resources has a mediating effect on the relationship between vision and goal orientation and sportsmanship.

H16d: Access to information and resources has a mediating effect on the relationship between vision and goal orientation and sense of duty and consideration.

4.11.3 Significant differences between demographic dimensions and OCB

- **Gender**

The study by Qawasmeh (2018) indicated statistical differences between gender groups and OCB, with males more likely to engage in OCB. Another study by Mirković and Cizmic (2019) found statistical differences between gender groups and employees' OCB, with women demonstrating higher levels of OCB. The study by Niroula and Chamlagai (2020) found differences between male and female employees and OCB with regard to courtesy and altruism. A study by Ajlouni, Kaur and Alomari (2021) indicated differences between gender groups and OCB, with males more engaged in OCB than females.

However, the study by Abdullah and Mohd Kamil (2020) found no significant difference in OCB between genders. The study by Saerah, Wulandari, Palupi and Purnomo

(2020) also found no significant differences in OCB between genders (altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue). The study noted that both males and females are treated equally, creating a sense of harmony that results in similar OCB tendencies.

The study by Pradhan and Mishra (2019) found no significant differences between gender and OCB; however, a closer examination of the mean scores indicated that men engaged more in OCB with regard to civic virtue.

- **Race**

The study by Lambert and Hogan (2013) found no significant differences in OCB across racial groups, suggesting that race was not a predictor of OCB among employees in the organisation. Moon (2016) found no significant relationship between racial groups and OCB. Cohen (2006) found that OCB was strongly affected by ethnicity; however, altruism was not affected by ethnic groups. These findings were consistent with those of Mahnaz, Mehdi, Jafar, and Abbolghasem (2013), who found no significant differences between ethnicity and OCB.

However, the study by Garcia, DiDona, Santos, Gonzalez, and Garcia (2017) showed differences in culture and OCB. This study suggested that understanding and embracing different cultures can benefit an organisation. Another study by Hsiao, Auld, and Ma (2015) showed that high levels of ethnic diversity were associated with stronger job performance and OCB.

- **Age**

The study by Qawasmeh (2018) found that there were statistical differences between age groups and OCB, with employees over 50 more likely to engage in OCB.

However, the study by Abdullah and Mohd Kamil (2020) found no significant difference in OCB between age groups. These findings are consistent with the study by Rosle, Idrus, Jamil, and Manan (2021), which found no significant differences in age group or OCB among employees at an academic institution in Malaysia.

The study by Pradhan and Mishra (2019) found significant differences across age groups and the OCB dimension of civic virtue. The study indicated that the older employees showed an increase in civic virtue.

Another study also found no significant differences in OCB between age groups. It was stated that the distribution of work and promotional opportunities was equal among older and younger employees. This could be why there were no differences between age groups in OCB (Saerah, Wulandari, Palupi & Purnomo, 2020).

- **Qualifications**

The study by Abdullah and Mohd Kamil (2020) found no significant difference in OCB across education level groups. These findings are consistent with those of Rosle et al. (2021), who reported no significant differences in OCB across education level groups among employees at an academic institution in Malaysia.

The study by Niroula and Chamlagai (2020) found differences between education groups and OCB with regard to courtesy and altruism. It was suggested that education should be nurtured within the organisation to promote courtesy and altruistic behaviour among employees.

- **Number of years at the organisation**

The study by Saerah et al. (2020) found no significant difference between work group length and OCB. It was further noted that, regardless of length of service, employees still have the same inclination to engage in OCB, such as being helpful, showing sportsmanship, and being courteous.

The study by Ajlouni et al. (2019) indicated significant differences between length-of-service groups and the OCB dimensions (altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, and conscientiousness). Employees with 6 to 10 years of service exhibited more OCB than others. Another study indicated that job experience groups influence OCB. Employees who are starting their career are more likely to engage in OCB than the more experienced employees in the Bangladeshi job sector (Al Ahad & Khan, 2020).

In another study, it was found that tenure groups influence the relationship between OCB and employee performance. Employees who have served longer in an organisation may prefer socially related tasks, such as helping others, rather than technical tasks (Huei, Mansor & Tat, 2014).

- **Job Level**

The study by Qawasmeh (2018) found no statistical differences between job categories and OCB. The study by Rosle et al. also found that participation in OCB is not dependent on an employee's job category. The study by Pradhan and Mishra (2019) found no significant differences between academic and non-academic employees within the university context. Mitonga-Monga et al. (2017) found significant differences among tenure, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. The more experienced employees displayed higher levels of OCB than the less experienced employees. The study also found no significant differences between tenure and altruism. A study by Pradhan and Mishra (2019) also showed significant differences between tenure and civic virtue. The study inferred that as the employees' tenure increased, civic virtue improved.

Vu, Vo-Thanh, Nguyen, Nguyen and Chia (2022) found that job position strongly influences OCB, and that employees in higher positions were highly committed to the organisation. Aras and Jufri (2021) reported significant differences in OCB across job positions, with employees in supervisory positions exhibiting higher levels of OCB.

A study by Mahnaz et al. (2013) found a correlation between job position groups and OCB, with those in higher positions showing the strongest correlation. Another study found relationships between job position groups and the OCB dimension: sportsmanship (Dargahi, Alirezaie & Shaham, 2012).

The following hypotheses and conceptual framework were developed concerning the differences between demographic variables and the OCB dimensions:

H17: There are statistically significant differences between the gender groups about the OCB dimensions: altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship and sense of duty and consideration.

H18: There are statistically significant differences between race groups about the OCB dimensions: altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship and sense of duty and consideration.

H19: There are statistically significant differences between age groups about the OCB dimensions: altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship and sense of duty and consideration.

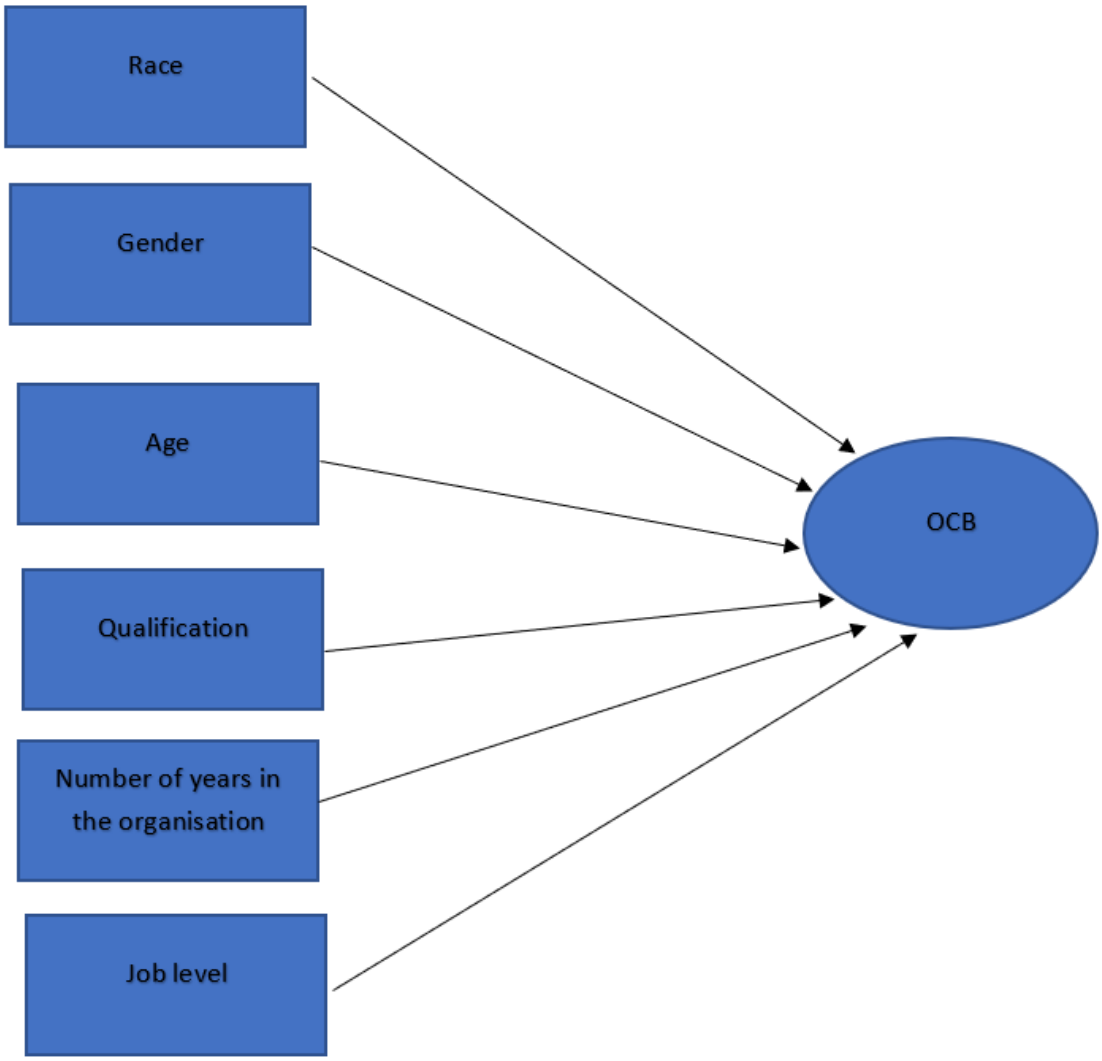
H20: There are statistically significant differences between qualification groups about the OCB dimensions: altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship and sense of duty and consideration.

H21: There are statistically significant differences in the number of years at the organisation between the groups for the OCB dimensions: altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship, and sense of duty and consideration.

H22: There are statistically significant differences between job level groups about the OCB dimensions: altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship and sense of duty and consideration.

Figure 4.4 depicts the conceptual framework for the demographic variables and OCB

Figure 4.4 Conceptual framework: Demographics and OCB



4.12 SUMMARY

The chapter provided an understanding of the concept of OCB—the many dimensions of OCB as described by various authors—and explored them. The predictors or antecedents that motivate OCB were discussed in this chapter. The benefits, theories and criticisms of OCB were also covered. It was also important to discuss the relationship among leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB. The chapter examined OCB within the context of the open-distance higher education environment.

Finally, the chapter addressed the theoretical background and the development of hypotheses.

This chapter achieved research objective 3, one of the literature review objectives: to conceptualise OCB in an open-distance higher education institution. The next chapter focuses on the research methodology and design used to achieve the study's empirical objectives.

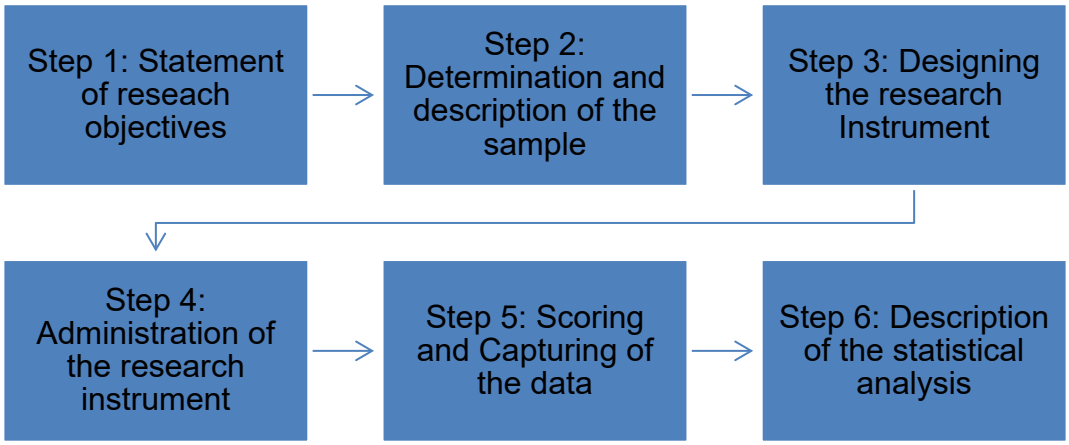
CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter outlines the research methodology and statistical analysis used to examine the relationship between leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB. It first states the research objectives, followed by the sampling strategy and sample characteristics. A quantitative survey design was used to collect data for this study. The questionnaire design and administration are therefore described in this chapter. The scoring and data capture are also clearly explained, and the statistical analysis used to achieve the study's empirical objectives is defined. The proposed conceptual model for this study is also presented. Ethical considerations are described, followed by a summary of the chapter.

This chapter clearly explains the procedures that were followed during the empirical research phase to achieve the study's objectives. Figure 5.1 below depicts the procedures that were followed during the empirical research phase of the study.

Figure 5.1: The Research Procedure



Source: Author's own construction

5.2 STATEMENT OF RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

In terms of the empirical study, the following research objectives were addressed:

Research objective 1: To determine the factors that define leadership, employee empowerment and OCB in an open distance higher education institution.

Research objective 2: To investigate the empirical relationship between leadership, and OCB in an open distance higher education institution.

Research objective 3: To investigate the mediating role of employee empowerment on the relationship between leadership and OCB.

Research objective 4: To determine whether the sample respondents differ significantly regarding dimensions of OCB in terms of the following:

- Gender
- Race
- Qualification
- Number of years at the organisation
- Job Level

5.3 THE RESEARCH DESIGN

In this study, cross-sectional research was used to collect data from respondents on the study variables. Cross-sectional research is an observational study that allows the researcher to collect data from participants at a single point in time (Setia, 2016; Bryman Bell, Hirschsoh, dos Santos & Du Toit, 2014). This type of research design is easy to use and cost-effective. .

Correlational research is used to determine the statistical significance of relationships between variables and to test the strength of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Saunders et al., 2016). This type of research utilises the

correlation coefficient to determine the strength of a relationship (Salkind, 2018). Correlational research refers to an empirical relationship that exists between variables (Babbie, 2007). The correlational research design was also chosen for this study. Correlational research was used to discover the relationships between the variables of the study, namely leadership, employee empowerment and OCB.

5.3.1 Research Approach

This study used a quantitative research method. Quantitative research refers to numeric data, and the description and differences in a phenomenon are highly quantifiable (Andrew, Pederson and McEvoy, 2011). In quantitative descriptive studies, importance is placed on accuracy, objectivity, and the significance of the level of generalisation (Rubin & Babbie, 2017). For this reason, the quantitative method was considered the most appropriate research method for this study. It enabled the quantification of individuals' perceptions and allowed for the generalisation of the findings.

5.4 STEP 2: DETERMINATION AND DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

The sections below describe the sampling strategy and the sample representation.

5.4.1 Sampling Strategy

The empirical study was conducted at an open distance higher education institution in South Africa. During the administration of the questionnaire, the total population at the institution was N = 5471. Data collection took place between November 2018 and March 2019. Asiamah, Mensah and Oteng-Abayie (2017) define the target population as the whole group of people to whom the researcher aims to generalise the research findings. The population included all employees at the open distance higher education institution, comprising academic, administrative, professional and managerial staff of different ages, genders, races, educational levels, job levels, and

years of experience in the organisation. Given the large population size, a sampling process was used in this study.

A sample is a small, representative subset of individuals selected to participate in a research study (Alvi, 2016). According to Till and Matei (2016:311), “sampling consists of selecting a subset of units or elements from a finite population for the purpose of extrapolating the results obtained on this subset to the entire population.”

There are two types of sampling, namely probability and non-probability sampling. In probability sampling, the chance of an individual being selected from the population to participate in the study is known. With non-probability sampling, the likelihood of selection is indefinite and unknown (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2016). Sekaran and Bougie (2016) add that, with a non-probability sample, there is no definite generalisation of the research findings to the whole population.

For the purpose of this study, a census survey was used. The significance of a suitable sampling technique is that it ensures every member has an equal opportunity to participate in the study. A census survey refers to the collection of data from all members of a population (Fowler, 2009). The census survey usually yields sufficient respondents, resulting in higher statistical confidence (Gasto, 2021).

This study used the census approach, which allowed every member of the population to participate (N=5471).

A response of 452 completed questionnaires was obtained for this study. The margin of error was 4% according to the margin error calculator. A small margin of error indicates more confidence in the results (SurveyMonkey, 2022). The margin of error achieved for a response rate of 452 increases the confidence level and the accuracy of the results. This number was therefore reasonable, confident, and suitable for data analysis and interpretation.

5.4.2 Sampling Frame

After ethical clearance was granted for this research, the database of all employees of the institution was obtained from the institution's Human Resource Information Systems department. The results are based on a sample of employees of the institution. The sample was categorised by race, gender, age, qualification, number of years at the organisation and job level at the institution.

The tables below present the frequencies and percentages for the demographic information obtained in this study. The aim is to provide a brief description of the sample and not to make detailed interpretations or assumptions about the results.

- **Sample composition by race**

Table 5.1: Race

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
African	192	42.5	42.7	42.7
Coloured	20	4.4	4.4	47.1
Indian	32	7.1	7.1	54.2
White	203	44.9	45.1	99.3
Other Specified: Asian	2	0.4	0.4	99.8
Other	1	0.2	0.2	100.0
Total	450	99.6	100.0	
Missing	2	0.4		
Total	452	100.0		

Table 5.1 shows that 42,7% of the participants were African, 4,4% were coloured, 7,1% were Indian, 45,1% were white, and 0,6% were from the other category; only 0,4% specified Asian, and the remaining 0,2% did not specify their race. The questionnaire allowed the participant to select “other” and specify their race.

The sample composition shows a slightly higher percentage of white participants than of black participants. The lower percentage of Indians and coloureds can be attributed to fewer of them being employed in the organisation. The lower number of Indians and coloured participants is a fair representation of the overall population.

- **Sample composition by gender**

Table 5.2: Gender

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	169	37.4	38.3	38.3
Female	272	60.2	61.7	100.0
Total	441	97.6	100.0	
Missing	11	2.4		
Total	452	100.0		

Table 5.2 illustrates the sample's gender composition. The results indicate that there were 38,3% males and 61,7% females. It is evident that there were more female than male participants in the study. This may be because the institution consists mostly of female employees.

- **Sample composition by age**

Table 5.3: Age

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
25 years and younger	1	0.2	0.2	0.2
26 - 35	84	18.6	18.6	18.8
36 - 45	111	24.6	24.6	43.4
46 - 55	161	35.6	35.6	79.0
56 - 65	95	21.0	21.0	100.0
Total	452	100.0	100.00	

Table 5.3 illustrates the age composition of the sample. The results indicate that the highest percentage of the participants (35,6%) were from the 46-55 years' age group, followed by the 36-45 years' age group (24,6%), the 50-65 years' age group (21,0%), the 26-35 years' age group (18,6%), and the 25 years and younger age group (0,2%), respectively.

The sample population shows a small concentration of participants aged 35 and younger. There was a large percentage of mature participants, with most falling in the 46 years and over category. This could be attributed to the institution's emphasis on experience.

- **Sample composition by qualification**

Table 5.4: Qualification

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Matric	24	5.3	5.3	5.8
Certificate/ Diploma	46	10.2	10.2	16.0
Bachelor's Degree	60	13.3	13.4	29.4
Honours degree	74	16.4	16.5	45.9
Master's degree	123	27.2	27.4	73.3
Doctoral degree/ PhD	118	26.1	26.3	99.6
Other Specified: Below Matric	2	0.4	0.4	0.4
Other	2	0.4	0.4	100.0
Total	449	99.3	100.00	
Missing	3	0.7		
Total	452	452	100.0	

Table 5.5 illustrates the sample composition by qualifications. The results indicate that 5,3% have matric, 10,2% have a certificate or diploma, 13,4% have a bachelor's degree, 16,5% have an honours degree, 27,4% have a Master's degree, 26,3% have

a doctoral/PHD degree, and 0,8% have indicated other. Only 0.4% specified the other category, indicating “below matric”. The other 0.4% did not specify their qualification.

Most of the participants in the institution are highly qualified, with 27,39% holding a Master’s degree and 26,28% holding a doctoral degree (PhD). This simply means that having a Master’s, doctoral or PhD degree is certainly normal for an academic institution and a true reflection of the population.

- **Sample composition by number of years at the organisation**

Table 5.5: Number of years at the organisation

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Less than one year	7	1.5	1.6	1.6
1 – 5 years	91	20.1	20.4	56.1
6 – 10 years	152	33.6	34.1	100.0
11 + years	196	43.4	43.9	
Total	446	98.7	100.0	
Missing	6	1.3		
Total	452	100.0		

Table 5.5 illustrates the sample composition by number of years employed in the organisation. The results show that 1,57% of employees were employed at the organisation for less than one year, 20,40% were employed for 1-5 years, 34,08% were employed for 6-10 years, and 43,95% were employed for more than 11 years. It is evident that the majority of employees have been in the organisation for six years or more. These results could reveal the participants’ loyalty and commitment towards the organisation.

- **Sample composition by job level**

Table 5.6: Job Level

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Administrative staff (P8 – P12)	146	32.3	32.3	32.3
Academic staff (P5 – P9)	208	46.0	46.0	79.2
Managerial Staff (P1 – P7)	81	17.9	17.9	97.1
Other specified: Professional	12	2.7	2.7	99.8
Other specified: Administrative staff (P6 – P7)	4	0.9	0.9	0.9
Other: Not specified	1	0.2	0.2	100.0
Total	452	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.6 illustrates the sample composition by job level in the organisation. The results show that 32,3 % of employees are administrative staff (P8 - P12), 46,0% are academic staff (P5 – P9), and 17,9% are managers (P1 – P7). As indicated earlier, the questionnaire allowed employees to select the “other” option and specify their job level. Some employees (3,75%) selected the " other " option, of whom 2.7% specified that they were on a professional level, 0.9% indicated administrative at the P6 – P7 level, and 0,2% did not specify their job level.

The majority of the respondents were academics, which is a true representation of the composition of staff at an academic institution, and it is necessary for staff to progress in their qualifications.

5.4.3 Missing Data

Some demographic information, such as age, race, gender, qualification, years in the organisation, and job level, was missing. Regarding the six demographic variables, the number of missing values ranges from 1 to 11, indicating a maximum of 2.5% missing values. Therefore, the missing values will not impact the analyses by introducing bias with regard to a specific demographic variable. Thus, the inferential analyses for research objective 04 were done on the cases with valid data for each demographic variable.

5.5 STEP 3: DESIGNING THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

5.5.2 Choosing the Research Instrument: The Questionnaire

The questionnaire served as the measurement instrument for this study. A survey is the systematic collection of information from a sample (Wolf, Joye, Smith & Fu, 2017). Surveys are ideal for collecting information on people's preferences, traits, and perceptions and for collecting data from large populations (Bhattacherjee, 2012). The advantages of the questionnaire are that it is cost-effective and convenient; it allows for statistical analysis that provides valid results, and it enables the researcher to collect information from a large population in an efficient manner (Neuman, 2015). It is for this reason that the questionnaire was used as a data collection method: it made collecting information from the population convenient and economical and enabled statistical analysis of the data. The survey research method also allowed for the collection of information on employees' perceptions of leaders, employee empowerment, organisational citizenship behaviour, and relevant biographical details.

An email survey was particularly used for this research. Sue and Ritter (2012) indicate that an email survey is generated on a software platform, in which a hyperlink is then created and emailed to the sample. The author further explains that speed, convenience, simplicity, and low costs are the advantages of using this type of survey. In this study, the survey was created in Lime Survey, and participants were invited to

the survey via a clickable link that provided access to the questionnaire. This method was found to be easy and convenient to use.

5.5.3 Design and development of the questionnaire

According to Adams, Khan, Raeside and White (2007), the design of a survey must be well planned and be related to the dependent and independent variables of the study. Furthermore, questions must be in line with the aim and objectives of the research and must be based on the literature review. The literature review aids with the wording and selection of items which is usually necessary in the field of Human Resource Management.

In this study, the questionnaire was developed by the researcher to specifically address the study's objectives. It was designed to ensure that the study objectives were met and to contribute to the field of study. According to Korb (2012), the construction of a good research instrument is essential when conducting high-quality research. The questionnaire also took into consideration the study's dependent and independent variables. The Leadership/Employee Empowerment/ Organisational Citizenship Behaviour questionnaire (Appendix A) was constructed for this research.

The questionnaire was designed to gain employees' perceptions of leadership, employee empowerment and organisational citizenship behaviour. The questionnaire items were based on the research questions and developed in line with the literature review. The items were developed so that respondents could easily answer them. The researcher avoided leading, complex, ambiguous and double-barrelled questions. The six-point Likert scale was used, with 1 representing 'totally disagree' and 6 representing 'totally agree'.

- **Scaling of the Questions**

Based on the literature review, a structured questionnaire was developed. According to Ekinci (2015), a structured questionnaire contains closed-response items, making it

easier for respondents to answer. Closed-ended responses are referred to as pre-determined and standardised items in a questionnaire (Dalati & Gomez, 2018). The questionnaire for this study contained closed-ended responses.

When developing the questionnaire, it is important to consider the scaling of the questions. The Likert scale was chosen for this study. This type of scale is common, straightforward to create, and saves time (Likert, 1932, in Salkind, 2018). Kumar (2008) adds that Likert scales produce more reliable data and offer a wide range of agreement and disagreement options from which to select. For this research, the six-point Likert-type scale was chosen rather than the five-point Likert scale. The five-point Likert scale usually includes a “neutral” or “not sure” choice, which may encourage participants to select this option without giving serious thought to their response. This makes it difficult to determine respondents’ true feelings about the item, so a six-point Likert-type scale is a more suitable option (Dornyei, 2003; Lin, 2018). For this reason, the six-point Likert-type scale was chosen for this research, in which participants had to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the items. In the questionnaire administered to the participants, the options on the six-point Likert scale were clearly described to the respondents so that they were aware of the choice being selected. The six-point Likert scale used in this research is depicted in Table 5.7 below:

Table 5.7: The six-point Likert scale

Totally disagree	Disagree	Slightly d0isagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Totally agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

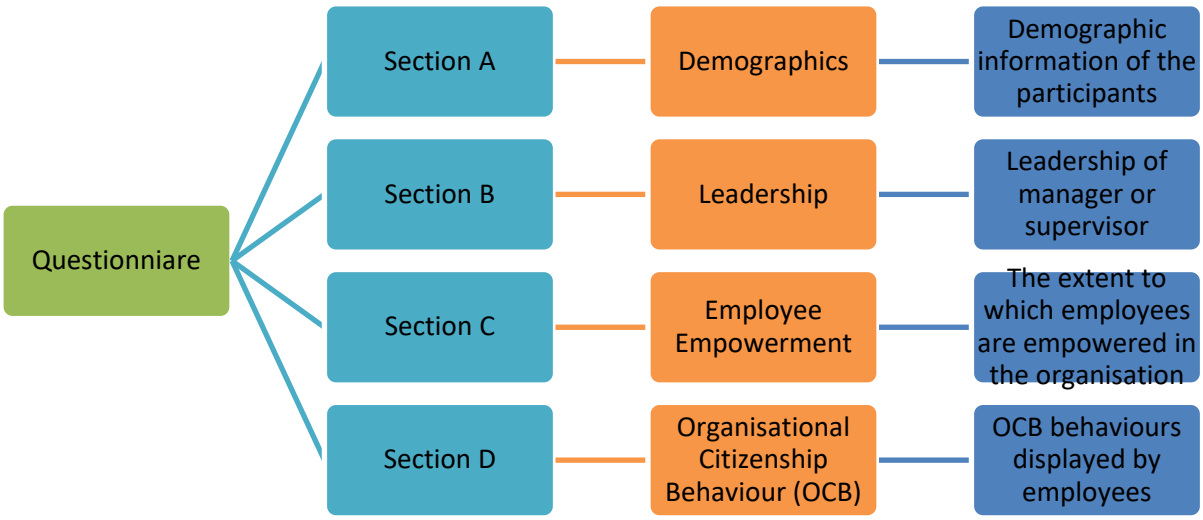
- **Layout of the questionnaire**

The Leadership/Employee Empowerment/ Organisational Citizenship Behaviour scale was developed for this research. The items were constructed with the research

objectives in mind, as it is extremely important that the research instrument address the study's objectives.

The questionnaire consisted of four sections, as shown in Figure 5.2 below:

Figure 5.2: Layout of the Questionnaire



- Biographical Details

The biographical details of the respondents included the following elements:

- race;
- gender;
- age;
- qualification;
- number of years employed at the organisation; and
- job level.

The reason for including biographical details was to determine whether sample respondents differ significantly across the dimensions of OCB by gender, race, qualification, number of years in the organisation, and job level.

- Leadership

Section B of the questionnaire comprised items on the leadership variable. The items were developed from the many leadership theories, styles and characteristics presented in the literature review in Chapter 2. The purpose of this section was to examine participants' perceptions of the leadership behaviour and styles displayed by the manager or supervisor at the institution. This section consisted of 28 items relating to the leadership variable. The items related to interpersonal relationships, competence, task orientation, and vision and goal orientation.

- Employee Empowerment:

Section C of the questionnaire comprised items that represented opportunities for employee empowerment. The items were developed from the literature review provided in Chapter 3. The purpose of this section was to examine participants' perceptions of the extent to which their managers or supervisors empower employees at the institution. This section consisted of 28 items measuring the employee empowerment variable. The items related to management support, autonomy and decision-making, and access to information and resources.

- Organisational Citizenship Behaviour:

  Section D of the questionnaire included items related to OCB. The items were developed from the literature review that was presented in Chapter 4. This section gave the participants the opportunity to indicate the extent to which they engage in OCB in the institution. There were 27 items that related to the OCB variable. The items related to altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship, and a sense of duty and consideration.

- **Pretesting the Questionnaire**

Before administering the questionnaire to the actual sample, it is important to conduct a pilot run. A pilot study, or pre-test, is a small study that serves as a guide for the full study. The participants in the pilot study are similar to the participants in the actual study. Pilot studies are useful because they enable researchers to make significant improvements to the research instrument (Zikmund, Babin, Carr & Griffin, 2013). According to Bryman, Bell and Harley (2019), the pilot test enables the researcher to identify the following problems in the research instrument: items that are irrelevant to the variables of the study; items that make the participants feel uneasy; poorly constructed items that may confuse the participants; and insufficient instructions on how to answer the questionnaire.

As soon as the items in the questionnaire were developed, an informal pre-test was conducted. The questionnaire was pre-tested on a small group of 20 individuals in the Department of Human Resource Management at the Open Distance Higher Education institution, as they were considered the most suitable to provide advice on the questionnaire. These individuals are knowledgeable in the areas of leadership, employee empowerment and OCB, and were able to provide their expert opinion on the survey items. The pre-test was conducted to determine whether the items and instructions on the research instrument were clear and understandable. The researcher was also able to determine the suitability of the items and whether the questionnaire met the expectations of the study. The pilot study allowed the researcher

to remove items that were confusing; amend items to make them reader-friendly for the participants; and correct errors and flaws in the questionnaire.

The pilot test findings indicated that the allocated time for completing the questionnaire was sufficient. Most respondents found the questionnaire easy to understand, while some suggested minor changes to the wording of certain items. The following amendments were suggested:

- Item 7 of the leadership scale was originally phrased as “My supervisor is ambitious and tenacious. The respondent indicated that the supervisor can be ambitious and not tenacious. It was advised to be either ambitious or tenacious. The item was rephrased as follows: “My supervisor is tenacious”.
- Item 4 of the employee empowerment scale was phrased as “My supervisor provides me with training opportunities”. It was suggested to rephrase as follows: “My supervisor alerts me to training opportunities”.
- Item 25 of the leadership scale was phrased as: “My supervisor allows very little room for discretion on the job”. My supervisor allows me to use my discretion on the job.

The advice of a statistician was also sought to ascertain the reliability of the research instrument. The reliability scores for the pilot test were above the norm of 0.7 set for this study. The instrument was considered reliable.

Based on the participants' advice for the pilot study, the final questionnaire was amended and distributed.

5.5.4 Reliability and Validity of the Questionnaire

Exploratory Factor Analysis was conducted to establish the validity of the Leadership/Employee Empowerment and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour questionnaire. It aimed to verify the content, construct and factorial validity of the questionnaire. The results of the Exploratory Factor Analysis are presented in Chapter 6. Exploratory Factor Analysis is a statistical technique used to identify the number of factors in a set of variables and to determine the number and nature of constructs (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2014). The measurement model was tested using Structural Equation Modelling. Structural Equation Modelling assesses the interrelationships between observed and latent variables (Lee & Song, 2010). The measurement model was constructed to determine the convergent and discriminant validity of the factors identified in the EFA. The validity of the measurement model depends on acceptable goodness-of-fit (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2019).

Reliability refers to the stability and consistency of a measuring instrument. It indicates whether the same instrument yields different results when administered again (Dudovskiy, 2018). Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to assess the internal reliability of the Leadership/Employee Empowerment/Organisational Citizenship Behaviour questionnaire. This test was applied in this study to determine the degree of relationship between items within a group. In the research instrument for this study, one can expect the scores to be similar across items within each concept. Fair similarity in scores will contribute to the reliability of the research instrument. Cronbach's alpha coefficient is further explained in section 5.8.2.

5.6 STEP 4: ADMINISTRATION OF THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

After receiving ethical clearance for this study, the institution's Department of Human Resource Information Systems provided the email addresses of permanent employees. Once the list was obtained, an email was sent to the sample inviting them to participate in the research. The email contained a brief introduction to the research and a link to the survey. Participants were required to click the link to access the online survey platform, Lime Survey. The first page of the survey further explained the

research purpose and the instructions for completing the questionnaire. Participants gave their permission to participate in this study by indicating whether they “agree” or “disagree” to participate. They were required to click one of these options, and if they agreed, they were directed to the next survey page.

The respondents were assured that the questionnaire should not take more than 20 minutes. The questionnaire was easy to understand and did not require further explanations or clarification from the researcher. Once the respondents clicked the “submit” button, their responses were captured on Lime Survey.

The questionnaire was distributed towards the end of November 2018, and the final reminder to participate was sent towards the end of February 2019. The final collection of questionnaires was obtained on 5 March 2019. A suitable number of responses were received at this stage, and the survey was closed. The 452 responses were deemed suitable for data analysis. No harm or danger was imposed on participants during data collection, and participants were assured of confidentiality and protection of their privacy.

The details of the process for questionnaire administration and collection are depicted in the table below:

Table 5.8: Data Collection Process

Steps	Description
Step 1: Ethical Considerations	Permission to conduct the research was granted by the Research Permission Sub-Committee (RSPC) of Unisa. An ethical certificate was awarded to the researcher to proceed with the study. Confidentiality and protection of the privacy of the participants were assured.

Step 2: Pretesting of the questionnaire	A paper-based questionnaire was pretested on a small group of individuals. The changes and suggestions were implemented on the questionnaire, and the final questionnaire was ready to be captured on Lime Survey.
Step 3: Cover letter and introductory message	The email served as the questionnaire's cover letter. This message contained a description of the study, the aim of the research, possible benefits, voluntary participation, and the opportunity to withdraw at any time. The researcher's and supervisor's contact details were also included, and participants were encouraged to use them if they needed further clarification about the research. A similar introductory message was also prepared for the online survey. Participants were informed that by clicking on the "agree" button, they were giving their consent to take part in this research.
Step 4: Uploading questionnaire onto the online platform	The entire questionnaire was captured and uploaded onto Lime Survey. The survey consisted of demographic information and individual items pertaining to the main variables of the study. Codes were also assigned to each item to facilitate statistical analysis. Instructions for participants were included for each section of the questionnaire. The online survey was designed so participants could complete the questionnaire only once.
Step 5: Invitation to participate in survey sent out to sample	An invitation to participate in the research study was sent out to the sample, together with the message shown in Step 3 of this process. Two email reminders were sent out in January and February 2019. A reminder was not sent in December 2019 because most employees were on vacation during that time. The researcher waited a reasonable amount of time for staff to return from leave before sending the first reminder. The second reminder was sent out in February 2020.
Step 6: Waiting for responses	A waiting period was required to achieve the desired response rate. The data collection phase was concluded once a sufficient number of questionnaires had been received to allow for data analysis.

5.7 STEP 5: SCORING AND CAPTURING OF DATA

The survey was closed once a sufficient number of questionnaires had been received and captured. Responses were coded according to the assigned codes. Lime Survey automatically captured the responses on the online platform and allowed the data to be downloaded into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet for statistical analysis. The data were then entered into Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 22.0 to produce the relevant statistical information and tests.

5.8 STEP 6: DESCRIPTION OF THE STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

After the questionnaires have been collected and recorded, it is important to analyse the data using statistical tests. Quantitative research is undertaken to draw statistical conclusions from the data collected from the sample. The researcher is also required to analyse the tests and relate them to the research context (Albers, 2017).

This section explains the statistical process applied in this study. For quantitative analysis, it is important to clean, code, organise and enter data into a software programme that enables statistical tests to be conducted. The statistical software SPSS provides the researcher with techniques and tools to understand the research study and to run tests to investigate relationships between variables (Martin & Bridgmon, 2012). The assistance of a statistician was obtained to perform the statistical tests required for this research. It is necessary to describe the data to make sense of the information. Tables and graphs can be used to organise and display data, providing a clear description of the results. In this study, the results were presented using graphs and tables.

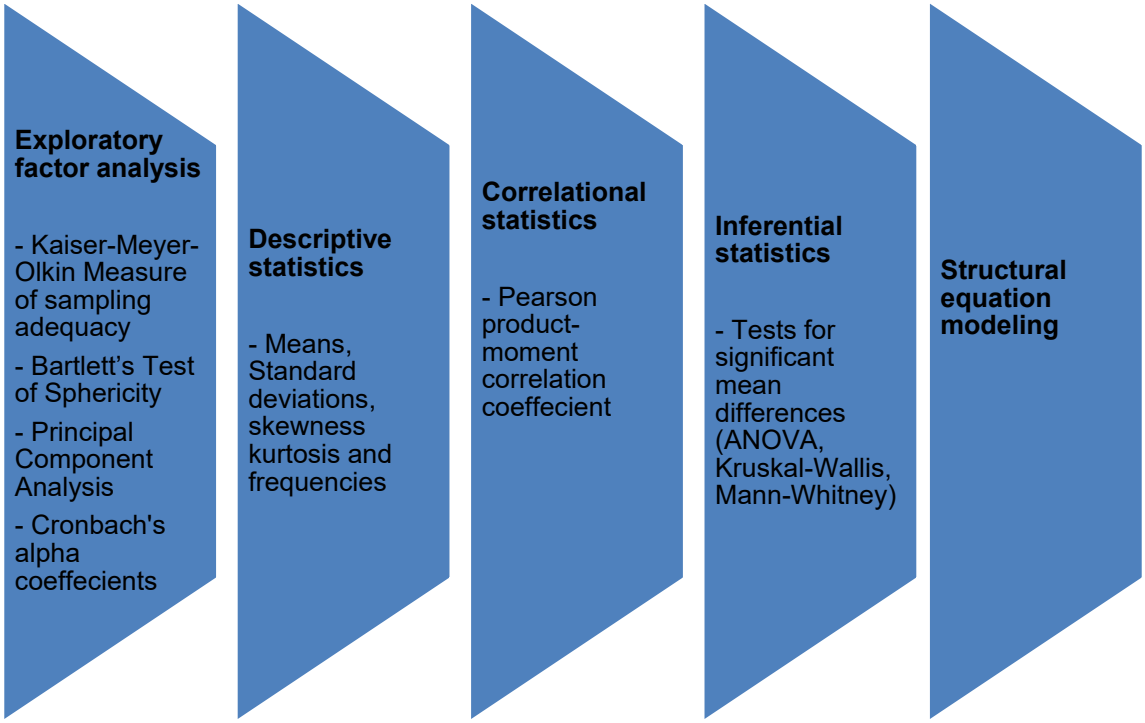
The statistical data analysis process enabled the researcher to investigate the study's objectives, thereby allowing suitable conclusions and recommendations to be drawn. Table 5.9 below indicates the statistical tests used to achieve the study's objectives.

Table 5.9: Research Objectives and Statistical Tests Applied

Empirical research objective	Statistical procedure
Research Objective 1: To determine the factors that define leadership, employee empowerment and OCB in an open distance higher education institution.	Exploratory factor analysis Cronbach alpha Descriptive statistics Confirmatory factor analysis
Research Objective 2: To investigate the empirical relationship between leadership, employee empowerment and OCB in an open distance higher education institution.	Correlations
Research Objective 3: To investigate the mediating role of employee empowerment on the relationship between leadership and OCB	SEM
Research Objective 4: To determine whether the sample respondents differ significantly regarding dimensions of OCB in terms of the following: • Gender • Race • Qualification • Number of years in the organisation • Job Level	Tests for significant mean differences ANOVA Kruskal-Wallis test

In this research, data were analysed using descriptive statistics, exploratory factor analysis and inferential statistics relevant to this study. The empirical research process and the statistical tests are illustrated in Figure 5.3 below:

Figure 5.3: Description of the Statistical Process



5.8.1 Factor Analysis

Factor analysis enables one to run statistical tests on a newly developed research instrument or to assess the reliability of existing instruments. It also allows the researcher to conduct a structural analysis of the study (Pett, Lackey & Sullivan, 2003). Factor analysis uses a numerical system to break down a study's variables into multiple factors. Factor analysis is also applied when the researcher wants to determine whether there are hidden dimensions within the survey items (Ghauri, Gronhauge & Strange, 2020).

There are two types of factor analysis that can be applied in research: exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis.

- **Exploratory factor analysis**

Exploratory factor analysis is a descriptive and exploratory tool used to determine the number of factors in a set of variables. With this type of factor analysis, the number of factors and relationship patterns that occur within the factor are indefinite. Exploratory factor analysis is conducted in the initial stages of scale development.

Exploratory factor analysis was used in this study to determine the primary factors underlying the Leadership/Employee Empowerment/Organisational Citizenship behaviour questionnaire. Exploratory factor analysis was considered as the research instrument, which was self-developed.

KMO and Bartlett's Test, comprising the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy (Kaiser, 1970, 1974) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954), was conducted to assess the suitability of the data for factor analysis. The KMO assesses sample adequacy by evaluating the extent of inter-item correlations. A KMO value above 0.50 is generally considered acceptable for factor analysis. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity measures the strength of relationships between variables (Mpanza, 2018). It is important for Bartlett's Test of Sphericity to be significant before proceeding with factor analysis. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity must be significant at $p < .05$ for factor analysis to proceed (Pett, Lakey & Sullivan, 2003).

Factor extraction occurs when factors are derived from variable loadings, identifying the variance within each factor and the commonality among variables. Principal component analysis is usually conducted to extract the factors (Hartas, 2010). Principal component analysis determines the variances between variables and reduces larger measures into minor composite variables (Brown, 2015). The principal component analysis produces factor loading estimates and establishes relationships between variables and factors (Feinberg et al., 2013).

The factor pattern matrix was used. It comprises the regression coefficients for each factor (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991). A factor loading threshold should be set for this

study. Field (2013) suggests retaining loadings greater than 0.3. Therefore, the factor loading threshold applied in this study was ≥ .30.

The results of the factor analysis are presented in Chapter 6.

5.8.2. Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients

According to Hair, Celsi, Money, Samouel and Page (2015:480), "Cronbach's alpha is a measure of scale reliability that helps researchers assess how well several items together measure a construct." Cronbach's alpha is used to assess the internal consistency of multiple items. It estimates the mean of split-half reliability coefficients. A coefficient alpha value can range from 1 to 0. A coefficient alpha of 0.6 or less is considered unacceptable (Bajpai, 2011; Bryman & Bell, 2015). A higher Cronbach's alpha is achieved when there is greater correlation between the items in a survey. A coefficient alpha of 0.7 or higher is satisfactory, and values above 0.9 may imply that the scales are too restricted in their focus (Andrew, Pederson & McEvoy, 2011).

This study used Cronbach's alpha coefficient to measure the reliability of the constructs. It was used to assess the internal consistency of the items in the Leadership/Employee Empowerment/Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Questionnaire. A Cronbach's alpha value of more than 0.7 was considered desirable for this study.

5.8.3 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive Statistics aim to categorise and summarise data obtained from the sample (Holcomb, 2017). Salkind (2018) indicates that descriptive statistics are used to describe scores and indicate how scores are distributed. In this study, descriptive statistics were used to present an overview of the data. The following descriptive statistics were applied to this study:

- Cronbach's alpha coefficient;
- frequencies and percentages;
- means;
- standard deviations; and
- skewness and kurtosis.

- **Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness, Kurtosis, Frequencies and Percentages**

The mean is the simple calculation of the average score obtained from the data. It is one of the widely used measures of central tendency (Garner, 2015). According to McEvoy (2018), the mean is a valuable measure of central tendency, as it uses all of the data and represents a balance of the data. In this study, the mean was calculated to provide the average scores for the dimensions in the measuring instrument (Leadership/Employee Empowerment/ Organisational Citizenship Behaviour questionnaire).

The standard deviation measures the distance between the scores and the mean. In other words, it quantifies the dispersion of scores around the mean. A higher standard deviation indicates that the scores are widely scattered, whereas a lower standard deviation indicates that the scores are closer to the mean (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2017). According to Ruane (2016), the standard deviation is the square root of the variance and indicates the average amount of variability in a series of scores. The standard deviations were also used to describe the results obtained in this study.

Kurtosis indicates whether the distribution of scores from a study differs from a normal bell-shaped curve. It describes the rate at which frequencies decline in a distribution relative to a normal bell-shaped curve. A rapid decline indicates positive kurtosis, while a slight decline indicates negative kurtosis (Hanneman, Kposowa & Riddle, 2012). Skewness describes the extent to which the distribution of scores deviates from perfect symmetry. A skew value of 0 indicates a perfectly symmetrical distribution. Distributions may be negatively or positively skewed. A positively skewed distribution

is slanted towards the right, with most scores clustered at the low end and a few at the high end. In a negatively skewed distribution, the scores slope towards the left, with most at the high end and a few at the low end (Lomax & Hahs-Vaughn, 2020; Acock, 2018). Cohen et al. (2017) state that skewness and kurtosis values within the -1 to +1 range are suitable for the administration of parametric tests.

Frequency refers to the count of each category within a variable (Adams et al., 2007). Frequencies depict the rate at which subcategories occur in a given context, from which percentages are computed. They are usually presented in tables, pie charts, bar charts, and histograms (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). Frequency distributions usually describe biographical information. Biographical questions are considered categorical data, and it is necessary to present the data using a frequency distribution (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2017). Frequencies and percentages were used in this study to describe the biographical data. This research made use of tables and bar charts to represent the biographical data.

5.8.4 Correlation Statistics

The correlation coefficient is used to measure the relationship between variables. A statistical value is typically used to show the correlation between two variables. The most popular statistical test for measuring correlation is the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation (Salkind, 2018). This test reveals the strength, direction, and significance of the relationship between the two variables. A correlation coefficient ranges from -1.0 to +1.0. An ideal positive correlation is obtained when the coefficient is 1.0, and the ideal negative correlation between variables is -1.0 (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). If there is no linear relationship between variables, the correlation coefficient will be 0. It is also important to know the significance levels of the correlation between variables, and the tests must therefore report on the significance levels of the correlation coefficients. The significance levels for correlation can be set at a specific level, for example, $p \leq .05$ (Liu, 2016).

The Pearson product-moment correlation was employed in this study to assess the relationship, strength, and direction of the correlation between leadership and OCB, and between employee empowerment and OCB. In this study, the significance level was set at p ≤.05, which means that the findings from the correlation tests can be generalised to the study population at the 95% confidence level.

In correlation statistics, the researcher needs to look out for the p value and the r value. The p value represents the significance level and is highly dependent on the sample size. The r value is used to determine the size of the correlation (Peat, Barton & Elliot, 2008).

Cohen (1992) recommends the following guidelines when interpreting the *r* value in Pearson product-moment correlation:

- An *r* value between 0.1 and 0.3 implies a very minor correlation
- An *r* value between 0.3 and 0.5 signifies moderate correlation
- An *r* value between 0.5 and beyond expresses a strong correlation

The researcher maintained the above guidelines when interpreting the *r* value.

5.8.5 Inferential Statistics

The researcher also applied appropriate inferential statistics to further investigate the relationships among the variables of leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB. Reid (2014) indicates that inferential statistics is a set of procedures that allow the researcher to determine whether a relationship identified within a sample can be generalised to the rest of the population. Sharma (2014) also explains that inferential statistics is a technique used to make inferences about the population based on results obtained from the sample. In other words, it assists the researcher to make inferences about the population from the sample findings. For this reason, the researcher applied

inferential statistics to this research. The various inferential statistics applied to this study are discussed in the following sub-sections:

- **Test for Significant Mean Differences**

As indicated in section 5.7.4, inferential statistics is a statistical technique that enables the researcher to use sample results to make generalisations about the population. Testing for statistical significance using parametric and non-parametric tests can be used to make inferences about the population. In this study, the researcher tested for statistical mean differences between respondents' gender, race, age, qualification, number of years in the organisation, and job level, in terms of their perceptions of leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB, using parametric and non-parametric tests. The Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), Kruskal-Wallis, and Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted to assess statistical mean differences between the demographic variables and the study variables.

ANOVA is a statistical test used to determine whether there are significant differences in mean scores across three or more groups (Berman & Wang, 2018). ANOVA utilises sampling error to estimate differences between samples. The mean is the measure of central tendency used in ANOVA (Bless, Sithole & Higson-Smith, 2013). The test allows the researcher to compare differences in means within each group (McDonald, 2014). ANOVA was conducted for the following demographic categories and the variables of the research:

- race
- age
- qualification
- number of years in the organisation

The Kruskal-Wallis test is an extension of the Mann-Whitney U test and a non-parametric alternative to one-way ANOVA. It evaluates differences between three or more independent samples (McKight & Najab, 2010). The Kruskal-Wallis test does not

assume normality and can be applied to any number of groups (Weaver, Morales, Dunn, Godde & Weaver, 2017). It is used when there is one nominal variable and one measurement variable. Although the samples do not need to be normally distributed, it assumes that the groups have the same distribution (McDonald, 2014). The Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted for the following demographic categories and the research variables.

- Job level

The T-test assesses the differences among sample groups. It determines the variations in the relationships between the two variables (Weaver et al., 2017). The T-test was conducted for the following demographic categories and the variables of the research:

- Gender

- **Structural Equation Modelling**

Structural equation modelling is a statistical technique that represents causal relationships among variables in a study (Morris, Elston & Stein, 2010). Researchers using structural equation modelling are usually interested in the relationships between theoretical constructs and latent variables (Hox & Bechger, 1999). Many theoretical models can be tested using structural equation modelling by defining the variables and identifying the relationships between them. The advantages of structural equation modelling are as follows:

- It enables the testing of multiple variables. Structural equation modelling allows for testing of sophisticated theoretical models to better comprehend a scientific investigation.
- The technique takes into consideration measurement error during statistical analysis; and

- Analysis of complex and advanced theoretical models is possible, for example, group differences in a study can be measured at many levels (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

Structural equation modelling was used firstly used to test the measurement model. The measurement model was tested using the dimensions of leadership (interpersonal relationship, task orientation, competence, and vision and goal orientation), employee empowerment (management support, autonomy, and decision-making), and OCB (altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship, and sense of duty and consideration).

The structural equation model was used to differentiate between direct and indirect relationships among the study's variables. It allowed the researcher to determine the mediating effect of employee empowerment on the relationship between leadership and OCB, as evidenced in the sample of respondents at an Open Distance Higher Education Institution. The proposed model is depicted in the following section.

Structural equation modelling requires the use of AMOS. AMOS means analysis of moment structures, which is linked to SPSS. The software provides a graphical representation of concepts and an evaluation of the model (Collier, 2020). The AMOS software was used to evaluate the structural model for this study and to conceptualise the model in a graphical format.

Once the model was developed, it was necessary to assess its goodness of fit. Goodness-of-fit measures are required to assess the adequacy of a model (Garson, 2008). According to Bentler (1990), Bollen (1990), Browne and Cudeck (1993), Marsh and Grayson (1995), Schumacker and Lomax (1996), and Hu and Bentler (1995), the following fit indices are used to measure the adequacy of a model:

- The goodness-of-fit index (GFI) values range from 0 to 1. A bigger value indicates a better fit. The general rule is that a value of 0.90 is considered a good fit. A value greater than 0.85 may be considered an acceptable fit.

- The normed fit index (NFI) values range from 0 to 1. A value of 0.90 indicates an adequate fit, whereas values greater than 0.95 may be considered excellent.
- The comparative fit index (CFI) ranges from zero to one, with higher values indicating a better fit. In this index, a value of 0.90 indicates an adequate fit, while values greater than 0.95 may be considered an excellent fit.
- Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) values less than or equal to 0.05 indicate a close fit. Values between .05 and .08 indicate a reasonable, adequate fit, and values between 0.08 and 0.10 indicate an average fit. Values larger than 10 are not an appropriate fit.
- Discriminant validity refers to the extent to which a construct is distinct from other constructs. Constructs with high discriminant validity indicate that the construct is unique and captures phenomena that other measures do not capture (Hair et al., 2019).
- Average Variance Extracted (AVE): AVE is used to determine the amount of variance that is obtained by a construct in relation to the amount of variance due to measurement error (Dos Santo & Cirillo, 2021). The thresholds for convergent validity were 0.5 for AVE and 0.7 for composite reliability (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).
- Heterotrait-montrait ratio (HTMT): An HTMT of below 0.85 is needed to judge for discriminant validity (Henseler, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2015). A HTMT value of 0.90 is considered a more lenient threshold (Hair et al., 2014).

A summary of the fit indices is provided in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10: Model fit indices

Fit Index	Threshold
χ 2	Low χ 2 and an insignificant p-value
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	Value ≤ 0.03 represents an excellent fit, value ≤ 0.05 represents a good fit, and value ≤ 0.08 represents an adequate fit
GFI	0 to 1. Higher values indicate a better fit
AGFI	≥ 0.90
RMR	Lower RMR indicates a good fit
SRMR	≤ 0.08
NFI	Values ≥ 0.90 indicate a better fit
NNFI	Values range from 0 to 1. Values ≥ 0.95 indicate a strong fit
CFI	Values range from 0 to 1. Values ≥ 0.90 indicate a strong fit
IFI	≥ 0.90

Adapted from: Sezhiyan, D.M., Page, T. and Iskanius, P. (2011). The impact of supply effort management, logistics capability, and supply chain management strategies on firm performance, *Int. J. Electronic Transport*, (1), p. 38.

In this study, the goodness-of-fit indices served as a guideline to assess the adequacy of the model.

The postulated conceptual models for this study are depicted in Figure 5.4 a, b, c, and d encapsulates empirical research objective 3 of the study:

- to investigate the mediating role of employee empowerment in the relationship between leadership and OCB.

Three models based on the variables' factors were constructed to achieve this objective.

Figure 5.4 a: Conceptual model for the mediating effect of management support in the relationship between leadership and OCB

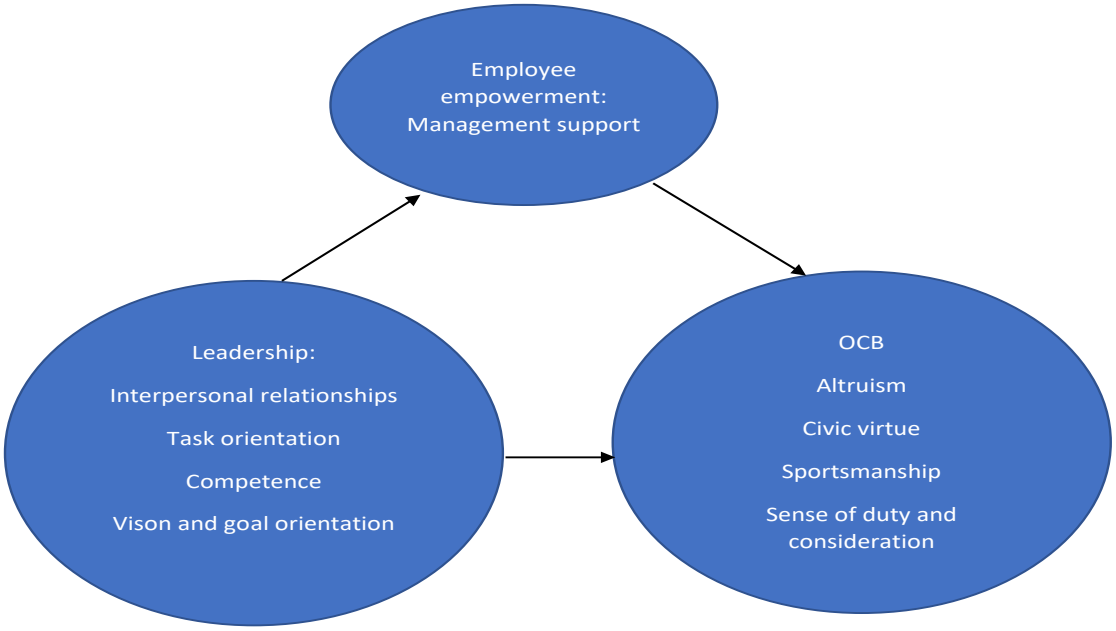


Figure 5.4b: Conceptual model for the mediating effect of autonomy and decision making in the relationship between leadership and OCB

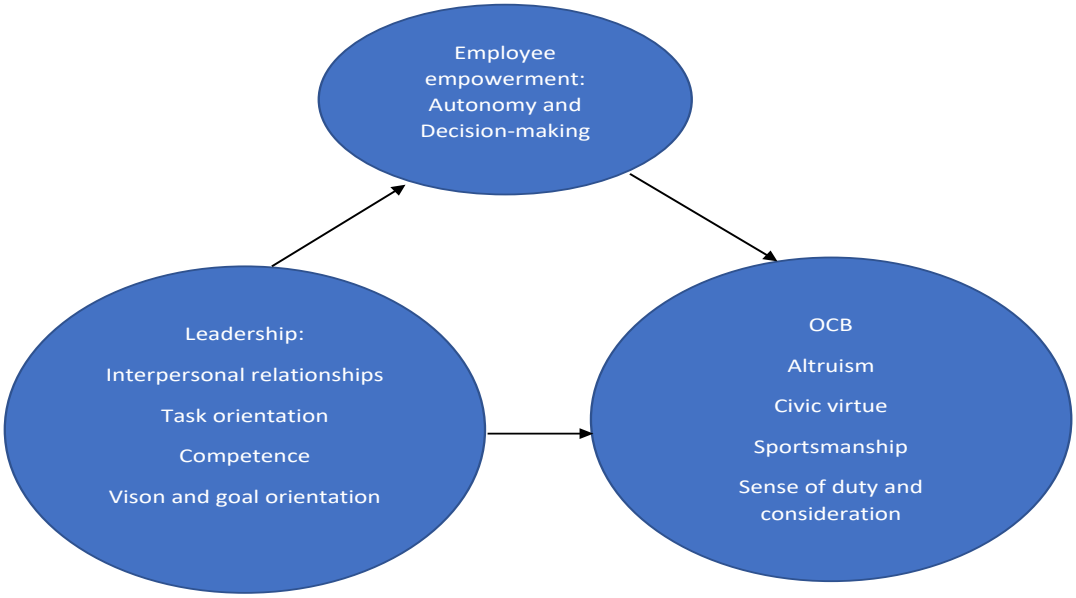


Figure 5.4c: Conceptual model for the mediating effect of access to information and resources in the relationship between leadership and OCB

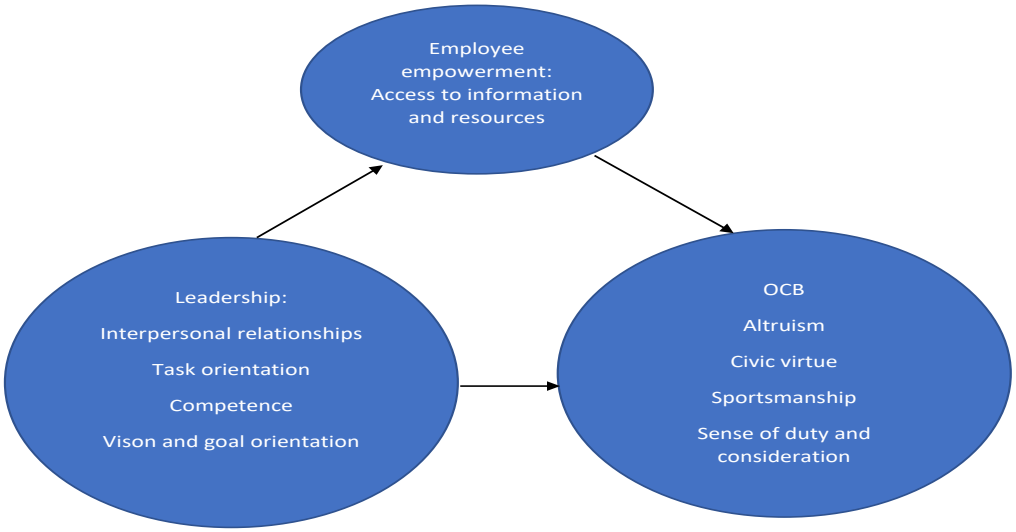
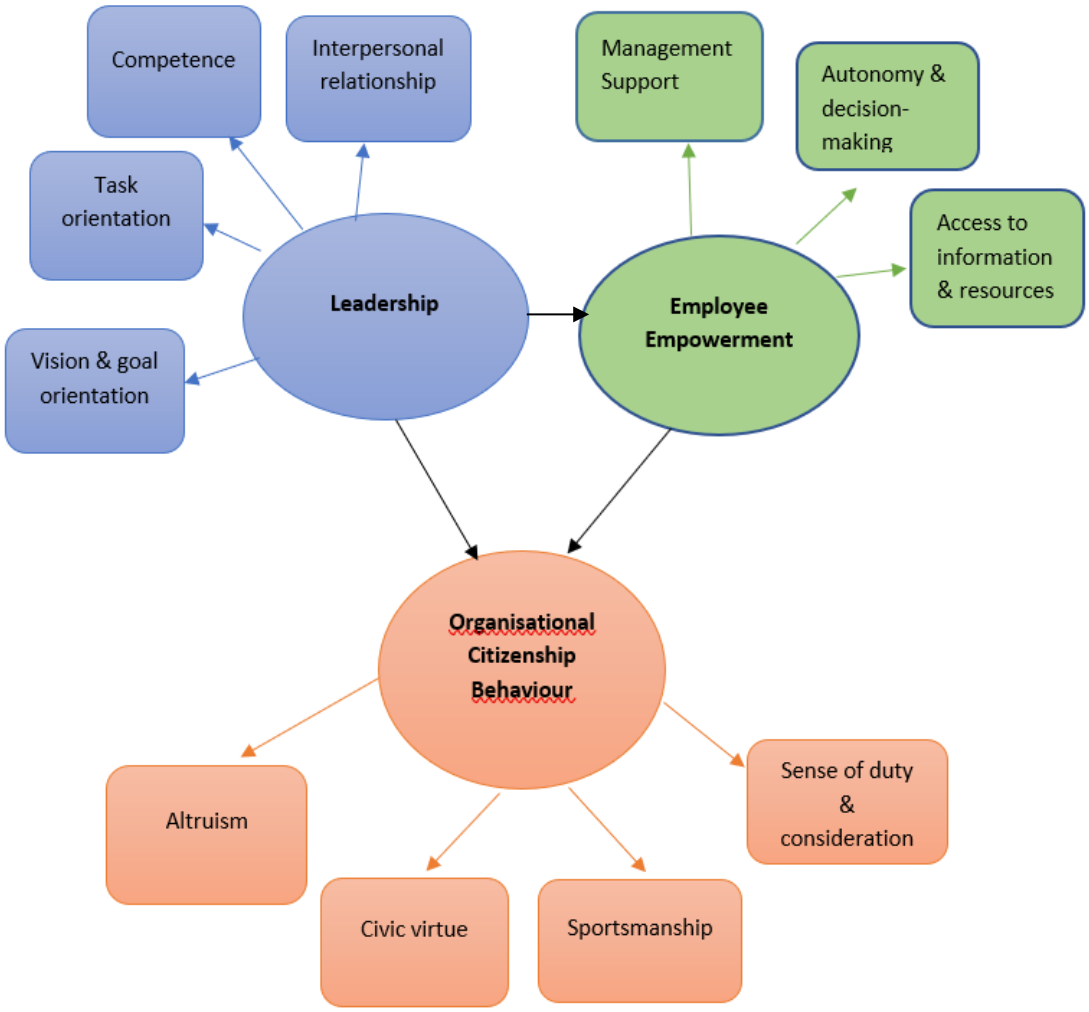


Figure 5.4d: Integrated conceptual model for the mediating effect of employee empowerment in the relationship between leadership and OCB



The conceptual models depicted above were tested using the structural equation model, and the graphical representation of the concepts and results are presented and interpreted in Chapter 6.

- **Process Macro**

According to Hayes (2022), process macros tests observed variable mediation, moderation and conditional process analysis. The process macro in SPSS is used to assess mediation in this study and is presented after the SEM results. Further discussion on process macro is presented in Chapter 6.

5.8.6 Level of Significance

The level of significance refers to the risk the researcher is willing to accept in assuming that the results obtained in the sample are generalisable to the population. It is referred to as the probability level. In business research, 0.05 is the acceptable level of significance. This means there is a 5% chance that the relationship in the sample does not reflect that in the population (Bryman et al., 2014).

Gardner and Altman (2013) add that the level of significance, or p-value, determines whether a study is statistically significant. However, researchers can also commit errors in terms of the level of significance, which are as follows:

- Type I error refers to a false positive. The researcher indicates that there is a relationship in the population, even though there is none. The researcher rejects the null hypothesis when it was supposed to be accepted.
- Type II error refers to a false negative. The researcher accepts that there is no relationship where, in fact, one exists. The researcher accepts the null hypothesis when it was supposed to be rejected (Lieber, 1990; Bryman et al., 2014).

There are different levels of statistical significance which are indicated on Table 5.11.

Table 5.11: Different levels of statistical significance

P-value	Significance
0.10	Less significant
0.01 to 0.05	Significant
0.001 to 0.01	Very significant
0.0001	Extremely significant

Source: Adapted from Tredoux and Durrheim (2002)

In this study, $p \leq .05$ level of significance was applied, which indicates a significant difference in the results at the 95% confidence level.

5.9 INTRODUCTION OF BIAS

Because the census survey approach was used, participants in the pilot study may also have participated in the main study. Including pilot participants in the main study may introduce bias. According to van Teijlingen and Hundley (2001), individuals who have already been exposed to the pilot study may respond differently to an intervention than those who have not. For instance, this may be positive if participants become more proficient in using a new procedure, but negative if they show a decline in adherence to protocol. The author also noted that excluding pilot participants may result in a small sample size. In the current study, the risk of bias in the results was minimal, as the pilot study included only 20 participants.

5.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

In research, it is important to conduct it with the utmost integrity to protect and respect participants' participation and privacy. Research ethics refers to a code of conduct that

must be followed throughout the research process to uphold the values and principles of research.

Privacy, confidentiality, informed consent, voluntary participation, and ensuring that no harm comes to participants are among the ethical issues that the researcher must consider (Collis & Hussey, 2014).

The following ethical principles were applied to this study:

- The researcher sought permission from the institution before proceeding with data collection. Ethical permission was obtained from the Department of Human Resource Management and the Research Permission Sub-Committee of the University of South Africa.
- The researcher ensured that participants gave informed consent to participate in the study. Since the survey was conducted online, respondents had to indicate their willingness/non-willingness to participate by clicking the “agree” or “disagree” buttons.
- The researcher explained the nature of the study and the aim of carrying out the research. Information about the study, the researcher, and the supervisor was provided in the covering letter.
- Respondents were reminded that their participation is voluntary and that they can withdraw at any point in the research. This was made clear in the email and the questionnaire's covering letter.
- Privacy and anonymity of the participants were protected. No names or information that will expose their identity were requested for this research. They were assured that all information provided for this research will be kept confidential at all times.
- The researcher ensured that no potential harm would arise from this research. To reiterate, participation in this research was voluntary, confidential, and anonymous, and participants had the opportunity to withdraw.

- The researcher recognised and acknowledged the work of other authors by referencing, expressing the information in the researcher's own words and providing quotes when necessary.
- The researcher ensured that the data obtained from this research were presented in an objective and accurate manner.

The following was done to ensure the protection of the data:

- the data was stored on an external hard drive, which was password protected; and
- the data will be stored for five years, and thereafter it will be deleted.

5.11 SUMMARY

This chapter explained the procedures that were followed during the empirical phase of the research. The chapter provided a recap of the empirical research's research objectives. A description of sampling, design and administration of the research instrument was also provided. The scoring, capturing, and statistical analysis were clearly described. The ethical considerations applied in the research also formed part of this research methodology chapter.

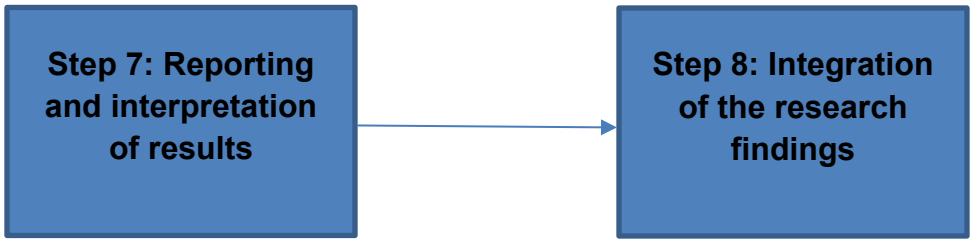
The next chapter focuses on the reporting and interpretation of results.

CHAPTER 6: RESEARCH RESULTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the statistical results based on the research objectives are presented and interpreted. The link between the empirical results and the literature review is also established in this chapter.

This chapter focuses on the following steps in the research process:



The following statistical results are presented in this chapter:

- Exploratory factor analysis
- Factor descriptive statistics
- Correlational analysis
- Structural Equation Modelling
- Inferential statistics for differences

6.2 EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

As the statements measuring leadership, employee empowerment, and organisational citizenship behaviour were not drawn from previous instruments and were self-constructed, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using principal axis factoring with promax rotation was conducted rather than a CFA. Because the instrument was self-developed, an EFA was necessary in this study. However, before the factors for each key research construct could be identified using principal axis factoring, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and

Bartlett's test were conducted to assess the suitability of the data for factor analysis. KMO values between 0.5 and 0.7 were regarded as mediocre, between 0.7 and 0.8 as good, between 0.8 and 0.9 as very good, and above 0.9 as superb (Kline, 1994; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Hair et al., 1998; George & Mallery, 2001). The relationships among the variables were evaluated using Bartlett's test of sphericity. The null hypothesis of the test is that the variables are uncorrelated. A p-value of < 0.05 indicates that the null hypothesis can be rejected, i.e., there is a correlation between the variables. Therefore, a KMO value above 0.5 and a significance value of less than 0.05 for Bartlett's test of sphericity are required to indicate that it is appropriate to conduct the exploratory factor analyses.

Table 6.1 displays the results of the KMO and Bartlett's test for the questionnaire's categories B (leadership), C (employee empowerment), and D (OCB).

Table 6.1: KMO and Bartlett's test – Leadership/Employee Empowerment/ Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Constructs

		B: Leadership	C: Employee Empowerment	D: OCB
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy		.978	.936	.960
Bartlett's test of sphericity	Approx. Chi-square	15337.140	3167.021	5224.207
	Df	378	210	450
	Sig.	.000	.000	.000

The Kaiser-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was well above the .50 threshold (0.978 for section B: leadership, 0.926 for section C: employee empowerment and 0.960 for section D: OCB). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were statistically significant for all three key constructs ($p<0.001$). The results of the Kaiser-Olkin Measure of

Sampling Adequacy as well as Bartlett's Test of Sphericity indicated that the factor analyses were appropriate to conduct.

6.2.1 Diagnostic statistics for factor analysis

Once the KMO and Bartlett's test values were determined, the analysis identified the number of factors to be extracted using eigenvalues. The Kaiser criterion, of eigenvalues greater than 1, was used to determine factor extraction in the study.

a) Leadership (section B)

The principal axis factor analyses revealed four factors with eigenvalues above 1, which cumulatively explained 51.63% of the variance. Factor loadings above the 0.32 threshold (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001) were considered suitable for inclusion in this factor. Items 2, 9 and 19 were below the threshold and were therefore excluded from further analysis. The factor loadings in the pattern matrix were analysed in line with the theory and labelled as follows:

Factor 1: Interpersonal Relationships
Factor 2: Task orientation
Factor 3: Competence
Factor 4: Vision and goal orientation

The factor loadings are shown in Table 6.2 below:

Table 6.2: Leadership: Pattern Matrix

		Factor			
B	**Item description**	**1 Interpersonal relationships**	**2 Task orientation**	**3 Competence**	**4 Vision & goal orientation**
15	My supervisor understands my needs in the workplace.	.844			
12	My supervisor provides me with sufficient support to achieve goals.	.787			
11	My supervisor motivates me toward goal achievement.	.756			
14	My supervisor shows concern for others by offering emotional support when needed.	.843			
13	My supervisor offers me the opportunity to participate in decision-making.	.806			
16	My supervisor establishes a friendly relationship with employees.	.801			
28	My supervisor has empathy for employees having personal and family-related problems.	.824			
26	My supervisor has the ability to influence me to apply his/her suggestion.	.627			
21	My supervisor provides well-defined directions to employees.		.685		
20	My supervisor makes task accomplishment a priority.		.756		
22	My supervisor describes how, when and where tasks must be carried out.		.636		
27	My supervisor encourages me to carry out my day-to-day activities.		.689		
18	My supervisor is knowledgeable about the organisation's systems and processes.		.637		
23	My supervisor is concerned with meeting deadlines.		.773		
4	My supervisor displays maturity when dealing with problems.			.768	
25	My supervisor responds in a crisis by communicating measures that need to be followed.			.665	
8	My supervisor is intelligent in comprehending complicated information.			.652	

		Factor			
B	**Item description**	**1 Interpersonal relationships**	**2 Task orientation**	**3 Competence**	**4 Vision & goal orientation**
17	My supervisor possesses the required business skills to do his/her job.			.571	
24	My supervisor is able to take control of a situation.			.618	
5	My supervisor is open to exploring new ideas.			.519	
1	My supervisor upholds integrity when performing his/her job.			.728	
6	My supervisor expresses assertiveness when communicating a vision.				.713
3	My supervisor demonstrates confidence towards goal achievement				.631
10	My supervisor communicates his/her vision for the department/organisation.				.581
7	My supervisor is ambitious.				.775

b) Employee Empowerment (section C)

Regarding employee empowerment, the principal axis factor analyses revealed three factors with eigenvalues exceeding 1.0, which cumulatively explained 61.49% of the variance. The factor loadings were above 0.32, except for item 17, and were considered suitable for inclusion in this factor. The factor loadings in the pattern matrix were analysed in line with the theory and labelled as follows:

Factor 1: Autonomy and decision-making
Factor 2: Access to information and resources
Factor 3: Management support

Table 6.3 depicts the items that loaded onto each factor and the names given to the factors for section C. Item 17 did not load onto any of the factors and was therefore eliminated from further analyses, as it was below the threshold of 0.32. Item 9 cross-

loaded on both Factor 1 (.758) and Factor 3 (.420), and because of the higher loading on Factor 1, it was included in Factor 1. Item 8 loaded on both Factor 1 (.752) and Factor 3 (.420), and because of its high loading on Factor 1, it was included in that factor.

Items 2,3 and 23 were also eliminated because they did not meet the reliability criteria. The issue of reliability and the items deleted are addressed in section 6.3.

Table 6.2: Employee Empowerment – Pattern Matrix

		Factor		
C	**Item description**	**1 Autonomy & decision-making**	**2 Management support**	**3 Access to information & resources**
1	My supervisor trusts my judgement	.818		
25	My supervisor allows me to use my discretion on the job	.850		
8	My supervisor gives me control over the outcome of my tasks.	.752		
9	My supervisor allows me to make decisions within certain limits.	.758		
10	My supervisor allows me to be creative in performing my task.	.830		
19	My supervisor allows me to set my own goals in line with organisational goals.	.702		
22	My supervisor supports decisions that I take on his/her behalf.	.731		
14	My supervisor involves me in discussions about job-related matters.	.606		
21	My supervisor has an open mind and is willing to consider suggestions.	.736	.	
26	My supervisor implements my suggestions in the department.	.704		
18	My supervisor actively promotes cooperation between group members.		.612	
20	My supervisor recognises and praises me for my achievements.		.610	

		Factor		
C	Item description	1 Autonomy & decision-making	2 Management support	3 Access to information & resources
24	My supervisor makes me believe in myself.		.647	
27	My supervisor sees me as an important member of the department.		.510	
7	My supervisor gives me adequate feedback on my job performance.		.660	
11	My supervisor looks after my interests.		.642	
12	My supervisor is willing to mentor me.		.766	
13	My supervisor consults me on issues that concern my job.		.634	
15	My supervisor views my job as being important.		.564	
16	My supervisor actively assists me with challenging tasks.		.758	
4	My supervisor alerts me to training opportunities.			.805
5	My supervisor provides me with resources to perform my job.			.672
6	My supervisor provides me with general information about my organisation on a regular basis.			.808
28	My supervisor shares relevant information with me.			.556

c) OCB (section D)

Regarding OCB, the principal-axis factor analysis yielded four factors with eigenvalues exceeding 1.0, accounting for 64.44% of the variance. The factor loadings were above 0.32 and were considered suitable for inclusion in this factor. The factor loadings in the pattern matrix were analysed in line with the theory and labelled as follows:

Factor 1: Altruism

Factor 2: Civic virtue

Factor 3: Sense of duty and consideration

Factor 4: Sportsmanship

Table 6.4 depicts the items which loaded under each factor and the names given to the factors for section D. Item number 22 cross-loaded on both Factor 3 (.406) and, because of the higher loading on Factor 2, was included in Factor 2. Item 27 cross-loaded on both Factor 1 (.408) and Factor 3 (.478), and because of the higher loading on Factor 3, was included in Factor 3.

Once again, items 8, 15, 16, 17, and 22 were also eliminated from the OCB construct because they did not meet the reliability criteria. The issue of reliability and the items deleted are addressed in section 6.3.

Table 6.3: OCB – Pattern Matrix

		Factor			
D	**Item description**	**1 Altruism**	**2 Civic virtue**	**3 Sense of duty and consideration**	**4 Sportsmanship**
1	I assist my co-workers to perform their tasks.	.653			
5	I stand in for colleagues when they are on leave.	.722			
3	I am willing to assist my supervisor voluntarily whenever he/she needs assistance.	.529			
7	I provide suggestions to improve the performance of the department/organisation.	.739			
10	I share information with colleagues.	.690			
9	I assist others so that they do not encounter problems in their job.	.799			
4	I have the organisation's interest at heart when conducting my duties.	.520			

		Factor			
D	**Item description**	**1 Altruism**	**2 Civic virtue**	**3 Sense of duty and consideration**	**4 Sportsmanship**
18	I see it as my duty to attend voluntary functions organised by the organisation.		.439		
21	I regularly attend work meetings to keep abreast with changes in the organisation.		.502		
25	I make an effort to acquire skills that will benefit myself and the organisation.		.598		
23	I will report irregularities to ensure good governance of my organisation.		.754		
24	I aim to protect my organisation from threats.		.789		
22	I speak highly of my organisation outside of the work environment.		.634		
19	I respond to messages or emails promptly.			.749	
20	I keep myself updated with information concerning my work.			.741	
11	I am polite to my co-workers.			.606	
27	I look out for the interest of others.			.478	
6	I go beyond the call of duty to ensure the completion of a project/task.			.749	
12	I seldom complain about minor issues in the workplace.				.697
13	I maintain a positive attitude when confronted with difficulties.				.740
14	I am able to bear the inconveniences that may arise in the organisation.				.732
2	We work as one big family at work.				.584

6.3 RELIABILITY

Cronbach's alpha coefficients were used to assess the scale's reliability. The factors identified in the exploratory factor analysis were assessed for reliability. Factors that did not meet the reliability criteria for this study (0.70) were excluded from the scale and were not suitable for further analysis.

The internal consistency reliability for the leadership, Employee Empowerment and OCB questionnaires is displayed in Tables 6.5 - 6.7.

Table 6.5: Internal consistency reliability of the Leadership Questionnaire

	Dimension name	Cronbach's Alpha	No of items
Section B: Leadership			
Factor 1	Interpersonal relationship	0.97	8
Factor 2	Task orientation	0.95	6
Factor 3	Competence	0.96	7
Factor 4	Vision and goal orientation	0.90	4
	Total number of items:		25

Table 6.5 provides the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the leadership questionnaire. In the leadership questionnaire, Cronbach's alpha ranged from 0.9 across all factors and was more than satisfactory, exceeding the desirable threshold (0.70) set for this study. All factors of the leadership questionnaire were deemed suitable for further analysis.

Table 6.6: Internal consistency reliability of the Employee Empowerment Questionnaire

	Dimension name	Cronbach's Alpha	No of items
Section C: Employee Empowerment			
Factor 1	Autonomy & decision-making	0.97	10
Factor 2	Management Support	0.97	10
Factor 3	Access to information and resources	0.92	4
	Total number of items after exclusion:		24

Factor excluded			
	Power and control	0.52	3

Table 6.6 provides the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the employee empowerment questionnaire. In the employee empowerment questionnaire, the Cronbach's alphas for factors 1 to 3 were above the threshold of 0.70 and were more than satisfactory.

Three items relating to power and control (2, 3 and 23) did not meet the reliability criteria for this study and were deleted from the scale. These items and the factor no longer formed part of the analysis of this study.

Table 6.7: Internal consistency reliability of the OCB Questionnaire

	Dimension name	**Cronbach's Alpha**	**No of items**
Section C: OCB			
Factor 1	Altruism	0.88	7
Factor 2	Civic virtue	0.80	6
Factor 3	Sense of duty and consideration	0.72 * item 8 deleted	5
Factor 4	Sportsmanship	0.72 * item 26 deleted	4
	Total number of items after exclusion:		22
Factor excluded			
	Conscientiousness	0.58 * items 15, 16, 17 deleted	3

Table 6.8 reflects the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the OCB questionnaire. In the OCB questionnaire, the Cronbach's alpha was in the range of 0.72 to 0.88. Factors 1 to 4 were above the predetermined threshold (0.70) for this study. The conscientiousness factor did not meet the reliability criteria for this study, was deleted from this scale, and was no longer part of the analysis. Items had to be deleted from

Factors 3 and 4 so that the required Cronbach's alpha value of 0.70 was achieved. Item 8 for Factor 3 and item 26 for Factor 4 were deleted from the scale.

Table 6.8: Summary of exploratory factor analysis and reliability

	Dimension name	Dimension description	Items per dimension
Leadership			
Factor 1	**Interpersonal relationship**	The interaction between leaders and employees. Refers to elements of influence, empathy, level of understanding and support, motivation towards work goals, creation of opportunities in decision-making, friendliness, working jointly with employees and serving as a role model.	11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 26, 28 Total = 8
Factor 2	**Task orientation**	Refers to the element of prioritising tasks, meeting deadlines, the manner in which tasks should be carried out, the ability to describe work processes, knowledge of work systems and giving direction to others.	18, 20, 21, 22, 23, 27 Total = 6
Factor 3	**Competence**	The leader's ability to be competent and skilled in different sets of situations. Refers to a set of elements relating to maturity, intelligence, business skills, taking control, response to a crisis, openness to new ideas, and ability to uphold integrity.	1, 4, 5, 8, 25, 17, 24 Total = 7
Factor 4	**Vision and goal orientation**	Refers to elements of a leader's ambition, confidence, assertiveness towards goal achievement, and communication of vision.	3, 6, 10, 7 Total = 4
Total number of items:			25
Employee Empowerment			
Factor 1	**Autonomy and decision making**	The supervisor allows employees to be independent on the job and gives employee the authority to take decisions. Refers to the extent to which supervisors enables employees to be creative, exercise discretion and control and set their own goals. It refers to trust and open-mindedness demonstrated by supervisors to implement suggestions proposed by employees.	1, 8, 9, 10, 14, 21, 22, 19, 25,26 Total = 10

	Dimension name	Dimension description	Items per dimension
Factor 2	**Management support**	The supervisor provides all the necessary support that enables employees to conduct their duties. Refers to different elements which consists of belief in employees, recognition, mentoring, consultation, promoting cooperation and providing assistance to employees. It also refers to the importance of employees and their jobs.	7, 11, 12, 13, 15, 16, 18, 20, 24, 27 Total = 10
Factor 3	**Access to information and resources**	The supervisor provides the necessary resources and information concerning their work or to benefit the employee. Refers to elements of information sharing and alertness to training opportunities.	4, 5, 6, 28 Total = 4
Total number of items:			24
OCB			
Factor 1	**Altruism**	Voluntary behaviour that help other employees and the organisation. Refers to elements of standing in for colleagues, sharing information, avoiding problems and looking out for the interest of the organisation.	1, 4, 5, 3, 7, 9, 10 Total = 7
Factor 2	**Civic virtue**	Showing support and upholding the reputation of the organisation. Refers to elements of attending work functions, meetings, acquiring skills, reporting irregularities, protecting the organisation and acquiring skills that will benefit the organisation.	18, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25 Total = 6
Factor 3	**Sense of duty and consideration**	Refers to showing dutifulness and showing concern for others. Entails elements of responding to emails, being updated, politeness and taking care of other colleagues.	6, 11, 19, 20, 27 Total = 5
Factor 4	**Sportsmanship**	Bearing inconveniences in the organisation without complaints. Refers to maintaining a positive attitude, working together and avoiding complaints.	2, 12, 13,14 Total = 4
Total number of items:			22

6.4 FACTOR DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The descriptive analysis was conducted after establishing the internal consistency and reliability of the Leadership, Employee Empowerment and OCB questionnaires. The descriptive statistics of this study included the calculation of means (M), standard deviations (SD), skewness and kurtosis. Table 6.9 presents the descriptive statistics for each factor of the Leadership, Employee Empowerment and OCB key research constructs. A description of the scales is necessary to facilitate the interpretation of the results. According to the key research constructs, the highest scale option (6) indicated that participants totally agreed with the particular item, while the lowest scale option (1) indicated that participants totally disagreed with the item.

According to Hair et al. (2010) and Bryne (2010), data are considered normal if skewness is between -2 and +2 and kurtosis is between -7 and +7. For all three key research constructs (leadership, employee empowerment and OCB), the skewness of the subconstructs was within the thresholds of -2 and +2, and the kurtosis values were between -7 and +.7.

Table 6.9: Descriptive Statistics

Construct	Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)	Skewness	Kurtosis
Section B: Leadership				
Interpersonal relationships	4.04	1.41	-0.60	-0.76
Task orientation	4.25	1.26	-0.88	-0.04
Competence	4.17	1.38	-0.70	-0.36
Vision and goal orientation	4.24	1.30	-0.79	-0.36
Section C: Employee Empowerment				
Autonomy and decision making	4.17	1.30	-0.82	-0.29

Construct	Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)	Skewness	Kurtosis
Management support	4.07	1.38	-0.67	-0.65
Access to information and resources	3.96	1.35	-0.62	-0.62
Section D: OCB				
Altruism	5.24	0.65	-1.70	5.20
Civic virtue	4.83	0.76	-1.24	2.43
Sense of duty and consideration	5.32	0.52	-1.59	5.29
Sportsmanship	4.62	0.79	-1.02	0.84

Regarding Section B, the questionnaire assessed participants' perceptions of their supervisors' leadership. The table shows that participants regarded task orientation as the most important factor, with the highest mean score (M = 4.25, SD = 1.26), while interpersonal relationships were the least important, with the lowest mean score (M = 4.04, SD = 1.41).

Section C assessed participants' perceptions of employee empowerment in the institution. The table shows that autonomy and decision-making had the highest mean score (M = 4.17, SD = 1.30), while access to information and resources was the lowest (M = 3.96, SD = 1.35).

Section D assessed the extent to which participants engaged in OCB within the institution. The table shows that sense of duty and responsibility had the highest mean score (M = 5.32, SD = 0.52), while sportsmanship had the lowest (M = 4.62, SD = 0.79).

The skewness and kurtosis values all fall within the acceptable ranges for regression and SEM analyses, namely between -2 and +2 for skewness and -7 and +7 for kurtosis (Kline, 2011; Byrne, 2010).

6.5 CORRELATIONS

After analysing the reliability of the factors and their descriptive statistics, the data analysis resumed with the correlation analysis. The correlation was carried out using the Pearson product-moment correlation, which measured the strength and direction of the relationship between the leadership, employee empowerment and OCB variables. The results for the Pearson product-moment correlation are presented in Table 6.10.

The shading in Table 6.10 represents the following:

Green shading: relationships between leadership variables
Brown shading: relationship between employee empowerment variables
Purple shading: relationships between OCB variables
Orange shading: relationships between employee empowerment and leadership variables
Blue shading: relationship between leadership and OCB variables
Grey shading: relationship between employee empowerment variables and OCB
No shading: relationship is insignificant

Table 6.10: Bivariate correlations between the sub-scales of the Leadership/Employee Empowerment/OCB Questionnaire

VARIABLES		LEADERSHIP				EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT			OCB			
		Interpersonal relationship	Task orientation	Competence	Vision and goal orientation	Autonomy and decision making	Management support	Access to information and resources	Altruism	Civic virtue	Sense of duty and consideration	Sportsmanship
LEADERSHIP	Interpersonal relationships	1										
	Task orientation	.88**	1									
	Competence	.90**	.90**	1								
	Vision and goal orientation	.82*	.85**	.87 **	1							
EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT	Autonomy and decision-making	.90**	.80**	.85**	.71**	1						
	Management support	.93**	.86**	. 86**	.75**	.90**	1					
	Access to information and resources	.85**	. 84**	.81**	.75**	.80**	.85**	1				
OCB	Altruism	.21**	.19 **	.16**	.15**	.21**	.24**	.19**	1			
	Civic virtue	.16**	.15 **	.16**	.14**	.15**	.19**	.18**	.58**	1		
	Sense of duty and consideration	.03	. 03	.03	.07	-.03	-.01	-.02	.55**	.46**	1	
	Sportsmanship	.49**	.44**	.46**	.42**	.44**	.48**	.41**	.47**	.53**	.35**	1

**p ≤ .01, *p ≤05, r = .10 ≤ .29 are practically significant (small effect). r ≥ .30 ≤ .49 are practically significant (medium effect). r = .50 ≤ 1.0 are practically significant (large effect).

The focus was the relationship between the variables of leadership, employee empowerment and OCB (blue, orange and grey shading). Table 6.10 shows that not all relationships were significant and positive. However, a substantial number of the variables held a significant correlation, ranging between $r \leq .14 \leq .49$ at $p \leq .01$.

The first dimension of leadership, **interpersonal relationships,** correlates statistically significantly with the dimensions of OCB: altruism, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. Employees' sense of duty and consideration were not statistically significantly related to interpersonal relationships. The results indicate that three of the relationships were positive: altruism, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. The strongest positive relationship was with sportsmanship (r = .49; p≤ .01 ; medium practical effect), followed by altruism (r = .21; p≤ .01); small practical effect) and civic virtue (r = .16; p≤ .01; small practical effect). The positive relationship suggests that the leaders or managers that present more interpersonal relationship are likely to impact on employee's OCB related activities, such as altruism, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. However, employees' sense of duty and consideration is not significantly related to interpersonal relationships with their leader.

Task orientation, as a dimension of leadership, is statistically significantly correlated with the OCB dimensions of altruism, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. The strongest positive relationship was with sportsmanship (r = .44; p = .00; medium practical effect), followed by altruism (r = .19; p≤ .01; small practical effect) and civic virtue (r = .15; p≤ .01; small practical effect). The results imply that task-oriented managers are more likely to influence employees' willingness to participate in OCB activities in terms of altruism, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. However, employees' sense of duty and consideration is not statistically significantly related to task orientation.

The dimension of leadership, **competence,** had statistically significant relationships with the dimensions of OCB: altruism, civic virtue, and sportsmanship, except for sense of duty and consideration, where no statistically significant relationships were found. Three of the relationships were positive (altruism, civic virtue, and sportsmanship). The strongest positive relationship was with sportsmanship (r = .46; p≤ .01; medium practical effect), followed by both altruism (r = .16; p≤ .01; small practical effect) and civic virtue (r = .16; p≤ .01; small practical effect). The positive relationships suggest that highly competent leaders or managers are more likely to

have an impact on an employee's performance in OCB activities, including altruism, civic virtue, and sportsmanship.

The fourth dimension of leadership in Table 6.10, **vision and goal orientation,** had statistically significant correlations with the dimensions of OCB: altruism, civic virtue, and sportsmanship, except for sense of duty and consideration, where no statistically significant relationships were found. The results indicate that three of the relationships were positive: altruism, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. The strongest positive relationship was with sportsmanship ($r = .42$; $p = .00$; medium practical effect), followed by altruism ($r = .15$; $p \leq .05$; small practical effect) and civic virtue ($r = .14$; $p \leq .05$; small practical effect). The results imply that vision- and goal-oriented leaders are more likely to motivate employees to engage in OCB activities, such as altruism, civic virtue, and sportsmanship.

Table 6.10 also shows the relationship between employee empowerment and OCB. The first dimension of employee empowerment, autonomy and decision-making, correlates statistically significantly with the dimensions of OCB: altruism, civic virtue, and sportsmanship, with the exception of sense of duty and consideration, where no statistically significant relationships were found. The results indicate that three of the relationships were positive, viz. for altruism, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. The strongest positive relationship was with sportsmanship ($r = .44$; $p \leq .01$; medium practical effect), followed by altruism ($r = .21$; $p = .03$; small practical effect) and civic virtue ($r = .15$; $p \leq .01$; small practical effect). The results indicate that managers who encourage autonomy and decision-making in the workplace are more likely to inspire employees to engage in OCB with regard to altruism, civic virtue, and sportsmanship.

Management support, the second dimension of employee empowerment, is statistically significantly correlated with the OCB dimensions of altruism, civic virtue, and sportsmanship, with the exception of sense of duty and consideration, where no significant relationships were found. The results indicate that three of the relationships were positive, namely altruism, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. The strongest positive relationship was with sportsmanship ($r = .48$; $p \leq .01$; medium practical effect), followed by altruism ($r = .24$; $p \leq .01$; small practical effect) and civic virtue ($r = .19$; $p \leq .01$; small practical effect). The positive relationships suggest that increased management

support is associated with greater engagement in altruism, civic virtue, and sportsmanship.

The third dimension of employee empowerment, **access to information and resources,** correlates statistically significantly with the dimensions of OCB: altruism, civic virtue, and sportsmanship, except for sense of duty and consideration, where no statistically significant relationships were found. The results indicate that three of the relationships were positive: altruism, civic virtue and sportsmanship. The strongest positive relationship was with sportsmanship ($r = .41$; $p \leq .01$; medium practical effect), followed by altruism ($r = .19$; $p \leq .01$; small practical effect) and civic virtue ($r = .18$; $p \leq .01$; small practical effect). The results suggest that employees who are provided with information and resources are more willing to engage in OCB in terms of altruism, civic virtue, and sportsmanship.

Furthermore, very high correlation values between the leadership factors (green shading), the employee empowerment factors (brown shading) and the relationships between the leadership and employee empowerment factors (orange shading) indicate multicollinearity and will be investigated for discriminant validity.

The results provided insight into research objective 2: to investigate the empirical relationship between leadership and OCB in an open-distance higher education institution.

The results provided insight into the relationships and potential multicollinearity among leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB in an open-distance higher education institution.

In order to test the conceptual model for the study, based on the following research hypothesis: employee empowerment (management support, autonomy and decision making and access to information and resources) has a mediating effect on the relationship between leadership (interpersonal relationships, task orientation, competence and vision and goal orientation) and OCB (altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship and sense of duty and consideration), a measurement model was

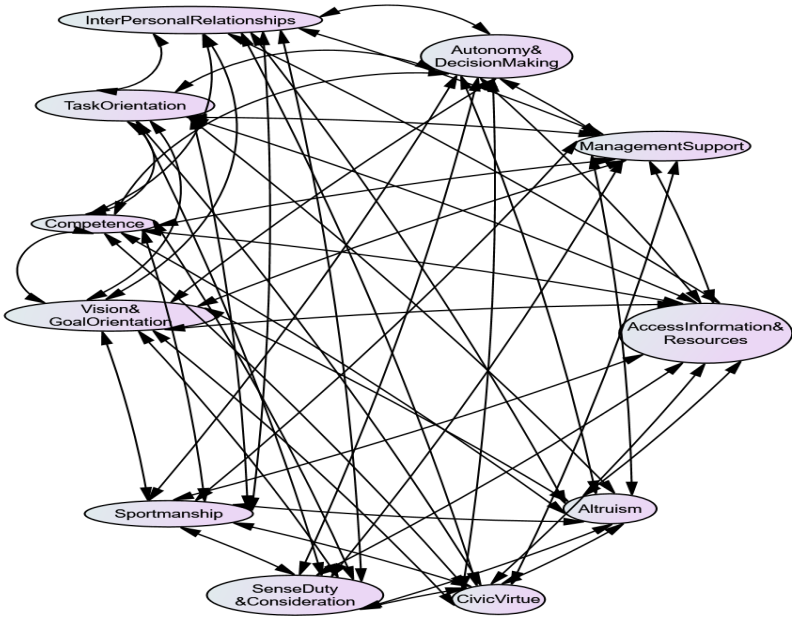
constructed to determine convergent and discriminant validity of the identified factors from the EFA.

6.6 MEASUREMENT MODEL FOR THE STUDY

The measurement model was conducted to test whether the four leadership dimensions: interpersonal relationship, competence, technical or task orientation and vision and goal orientation; the three employee empowerment categories: autonomy and decision making, management and access to information resources and resources; and the four OCB categories: altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship and sense of duty and consideration could be confirmed in this study as established through an adequate fit of the model. Convergent and discriminant validity were assessed following the measurement model statistics.

The measurement model is presented in Figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1: Measurement Model



In Figure 6.1, the model was tested using the dimensions of leadership (interpersonal relationship, task orientation, competence, and vision and goal orientation), employee empowerment (management support, autonomy, and decision-making), and OCB (altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship, and sense of duty and consideration). The model was tested for consistency with the observed data using an SEM approach. A model with the following goodness-of-fit indices meeting the threshold requirement indicates an acceptable fit: The RMSEA values below or equal to 0.05 (good fit) and between 0.05 and 0.08 (acceptable fit); SRMR <0.08; CFI, IFI and TLI above 0.9 and the CMIN/df value smaller than 3 (Hair et al., 2014; Raykov & Marcoulides, 2000) or smaller than 5 (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

Table 6.11 presents the goodness-of-fit statistics for the measurement model for the leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB scales.

Table 6.11: Goodness of fit: Measurement model

Model	CMIN	df	P	CMIN/df	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	IFI	SRMR
Measurement Model	6710.961	2359	0.000	2.845	0.064	0.870	0.863	0.870	0.0720
Indicate acceptable fit	-	-	-	< 3 or < 5	≤ 0.08	≥0.90	≥0.90	≥0.90	<0.08

The model fit statistics indicated acceptable fit, with an RMSEA of 0.064, an SRMR of 0.0720, and a CMIN/df of 2.845. The CFI (0.870), TLI (0.863) and IFI (0.870) were close to the 0.9 threshold. According to Lai and Green (2016), RMSEA and CFI can disagree and should not be the basis for dismissing a model. In addition, Wisting, Skrivarhaug and Dahl-Jorgensen (2018) considered CLI, TLI and CFI values above 0.8 as permissible. Therefore, the measurement model was considered to fit the data adequately.

6.6.1 Convergent Validity

Krabbe (2016) indicated that "*convergent validity refers to how closely the new scale is related to other variables and other measures of the same construct*".

Average variance extracted and composite reliability were calculated for each construct in the measurement model and are provided in Table 6.12 below. The thresholds for convergent validity were 0.5 for AVE and 0.7 for composite reliability (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 6.12: AVE and Composite Reliability

	CR	AVE
Task orientation	0,936	0,711
Interpersonal relationships	0,967	0,788
Autonomy and decision making	0,967	0,743
Civic virtue	0,791	0,394
Competence	0,956	0,758
Vision and goal orientation	0,897	0,689
Altruism	0,862	0,475
Sportsmanship	0,751	0,384
Sense of duty and consideration	0,670	0,341
Management support	0,969	0,758
Access to information and resources	0,913	0,724

Table 6.12 shows that all CR values exceeded 0.60 (Hair, Black, Babin & Tatham, 2006). The AVE values were above 0.5 for task orientation, interpersonal relationships, autonomy and decision-making, competence, vision and goal orientation, management support, and access to information and resources. The values for OCB factors: civic virtue, altruism, sense of duty, and consideration were below 0.5. However, Malholtra & Dash (2011) argue that AVE is often too strict, and that reliability can be established through CR alone. Therefore, the constructs can be considered convergently valid.

6.6.2 Heterotrait-Monotrait Approach (Htmt)

The HTMT of the correlations, which is the average of the heterotrait-heteromethod correlations (that is, the correlations of indicators across constructs measuring different phenomena), relative to the average of the monotrait-heteromethod

correlations (that is, the correlations of indicators within the same construct). The HTMT is used to assess discriminant validity using predetermined thresholds (Voorhees, Brady, Calantone & Ramirez, 2016). An HTMT of below 0.85 is needed to judge for discriminant validity (Henseler, Ringle & Starsedt, 2015). A HTMT value of 0.90 is considered a more lenient threshold (Hair et al., 2014). The HTMT results are presented in Table 6.13.

Table 6.13: Heterotrait-Monotrait Approach

	Task orientation	Interpersonal relations	Autonomy & decision making	Civic virtue	Competence	Vision & goal orientation	Altruism	Sportsmanship	Sense of duty and consideration	Management support	Access to information &
Task orientation											
Interpersonal relations	0,901										
Autonomy & decision making	0,816	0,921									
Civic virtue	0,106	0,138	0,125								
Competence	0,931	0,970	0,877	0,136							
Vision & goal orientation	0,900	0,880	0,748	0,116	0,935						
Altruism	0,164	0,192	0,207	0,668	0,149	0,132					
Sportsman-ship	0,419	0,510	0,455	0,632	0,475	0,432	0,553				
Sense of duty and consideration	0,054	0,025	0,000	0,660	0,024	0,073	0,696	0,503			

	Task orientation	Interpersonal relations	Autonomy & decision making	Civic virtue	Competence	Vision & goal orientation	Altruism	Sportsmanship	Sense of duty and consideration	Management support	Access to information &
Management support	0,876	0,959	0,949	0,156	0,895	0,798	0,223	0,495	0,000		
Access to information & resources	0,892	0,891	0,850	0,151	0,860	0,817	0,168	0,409	0,000	0,899	

The HTMT values between the various constructs were as follows:

- between task orientation and interpersonal relationships was 0.901,
- between interpersonal relationships and autonomy and decision making was 0.921,
- between task orientation and competence was 0.931,
- between interpersonal relationship and competence was 0.970,
- between competence and vision and goal orientation was 0.935,
- between interpersonal relationship and management support was 0.959 and
- between autonomy and decision making and management support was 0.949.

This indicates that the values were above the 0.90 threshold, suggesting a lack of discriminant validity.

The HTMT value between task orientation and interpersonal relationships was 0.901, between interpersonal relationships and autonomy and decision making was 0.921, between task orientation and competence was 0.931, between interpersonal relationship and competence was 0.970, between competence and vision and goal orientation was 0.935, between interpersonal relationship and management support was 0.959 and between autonomy and decision making and management support was 0.949, which indicates the values were above the threshold of 0.90 suggesting that a lack of discriminant validity is present.

Therefore, based on the results of the convergent and discriminant validity outcomes, specifically to address the multicollinearity, second-order factor models for leadership and employee empowerment were considered.

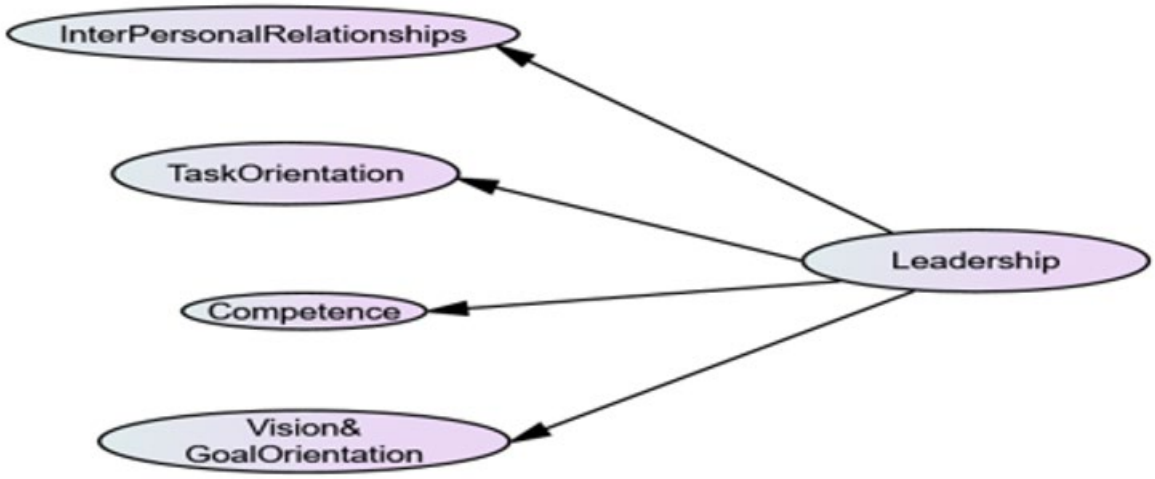
As constructs have become both more numerous and specific, the existence of higher levels of multicollinearity, even when discriminant validity is evident, is becoming problematic for assessing the role of individual constructs. Therefore, it is essential for a higher-order structure to represent these relationships. Structural models are affected by multicollinearity, suggesting that it can obscure an underlying higher-order structure (Schwarz, Schwarz & Black, 2014). This supports the use of the second-order structural model.

Higher-order constructs are also more parsimonious due to the gain in degrees of freedom (Edwards, 2001; Rindskopf & Rose, 1988). In addition, a higher-order construct allows an examination of the relative strengths of the lower-order constructs. Factor loadings indicate how reliably each lower-order construct reflects the higher-order construct and how important each is (Cheung, 2008).

6.6.3 Second-order model for leadership

Figure 6.2 displays a CFA model where a second-order factor is introduced for leadership.

Figure 6.2: Second-order model with factors underlying leadership



The model depicts a second-order model with four first-order factors.

Table 6.14 depicts the results of the second-order measurement model for leadership.

Table 6.14: Second-order measurement model for leadership

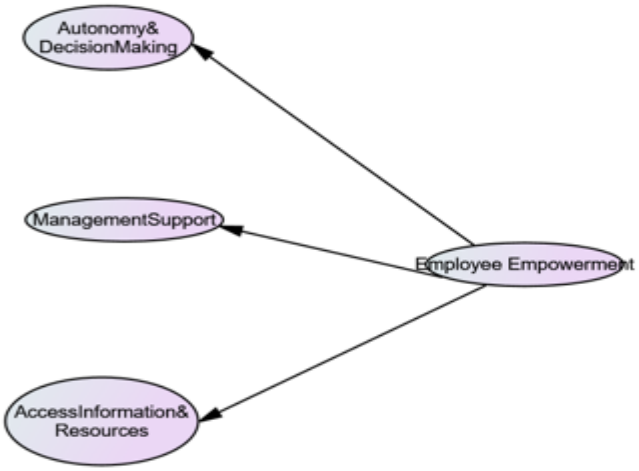
Model	CMIN
First order	1476,782
Second order	1481,526

The goodness-of-fit of a higher-order model is never better than that of the corresponding first-order model, as the higher-order model attempts to explain all the covariance among the first-order factors with fewer parameters (Marsh and Hocevar, 1985). Thus, the target coefficient (T), the ratio of the chi-square value from the first-order model to that of the second-order model, was used to assess the performance of the higher-order model. T has an upper limit of 1.0 when the covariance among the first-order factors is completely accounted for by the second-order model, and a value of 0.90 or greater suggests that the higher-order factor provides a good explanation of correlations between the lower-order factors (Marsh and Hocevar, 1985). In this case, the target coefficient was 0.997, indicating that we can use the second-order model for leadership in our structural model.

6.6.4 Second-order model for employee empowerment

Figure 6.3 displays a CFA model that introduces a second-order factor for employee empowerment.

Figure 6.3: Second-order model with factors underlying employee empowerment



The model depicts a second order model with three first-order factors.

Table 6.15 presents the results of the second-order measurement model for employee empowerment.

Table 6:15: Second-order measurement model for employee empowerment

Model	CMIN
First order	1440,272
Second order	1440,282

The target coefficient in this case was 0.999, indicating that we can use the second-order model for employee empowerment in our structural model.

The next section addresses research objective 3 using SEM.

The following research hypothesis was tested through the structural equation model.

Employee empowerment is a mediator in the relationship between leadership and OCB.

6.7 STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELING

Structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to investigate the mediating effect of employee empowerment dimensions: autonomy and decision-making, management support and access to information and resources on the relationship between the leadership dimensions: interpersonal relationships, task orientation, competence, vision and goal orientation and the OCB dimensions: altruism, civic virtue, sense of duty and consideration and sportsmanship.

6.7.1 Mediating effect of employee empowerment in the relationship between leadership and OCB – SEM results

The relationship between leadership and OCB, as second-order factors, was investigated as the first step in the mediation analyses. Figure 6.4 displays the relationship between leadership and OCB.

Figure 6.4: The relationship between Leadership and OCB

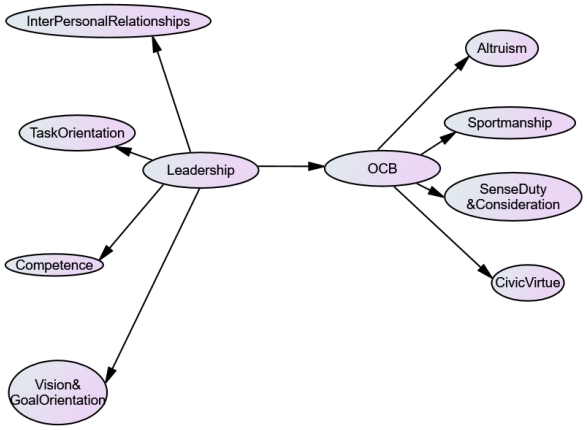


Table 6.16: Goodness of fit: The relationship between leadership and OCB

Model	CMIN	Df	P	CMIN/df	RMSEA	CFI	IFI
Model values	2825.125	1019	.000	2.772	0.063	0.900	0.900
Indicate acceptable fit	-	-	-	< 3 or < 5	≤ 0.08	≥0.90	≥0.90

According to Table 6.16, the model fit statistics indicated an acceptable fit, with an RMSEA of 0.063 and a CMIN/df of 2.772. The CFI (0.900) and IFI (0.900) also met the 0.90 threshold, indicating an acceptable fit.

The results indicated a statistically significant, weak positive relationship between leadership and OCB (r = 0.183).

Subsequently, employee empowerment was introduced as a mediator in the relationship between leadership and OCB. The first structural model included all three core constructs, leadership, employee empowerment and OCB as second-order models.

Figure 6.5: Employee empowerment as a mediator on the relationship between leadership and OCB

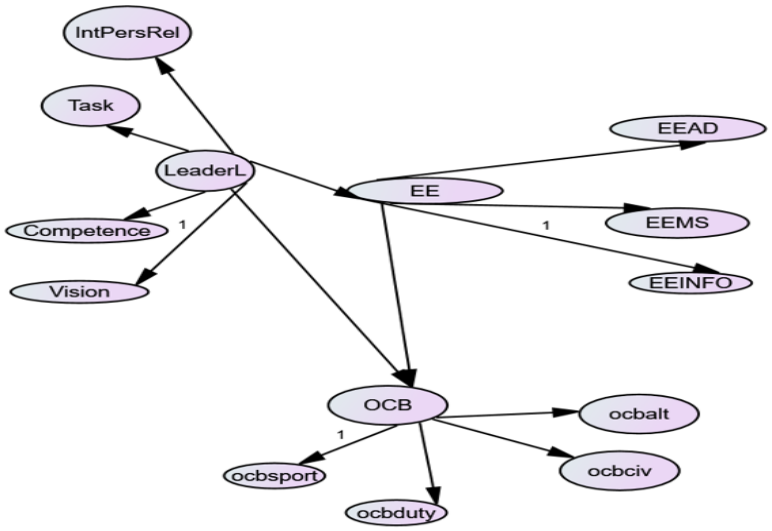


Table 6.17: Goodness of fit: Employee empowerment as a mediator on the relationship between leadership and OCB

Model	CMIN	df	P	CMIN/df	RMSEA	CFI	IFI	SRMR
Model values	5639,854	2311	.000	2,440	0.057	0.900	0.900	-
Indicate acceptable fit	-	-	-	< 3 or < 5	≤ 0.08	≥0.90	≥0.90	<0.08

According to Table 6.18, the model fit statistics revealed an acceptable fit in terms of the RMSEA (0.057) and the CMIN/df value of 2.440. The CFI (0.899) and IFI (0.900) met the threshold value of 0.90, thereby indicating the model was an acceptable fit.

In conducting the analysis to determine whether employee empowerment, as a second-order factor, acts as a mediator, estimation issues arise, including a perfect relationship between employee empowerment and leadership (as a second-order factor) and standardised weights greater than one. Subsequently, it was decided to test each of the three subconstructs of employee empowerment to determine whether that subconstruct, such as management support, plays a mediating role between each combination of leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour constructs (16 paths for each employee empowerment subconstruct).

- **The mediating effect of management support on the relationship between the leadership dimensions and the OCB dimensions**

Figure 6.6 depicts the SEM model, which reflects the mediating effect of management support on the relationship between the leadership dimensions: interpersonal relationships, task orientation, competence, vision and goal orientation and the OCB dimensions: altruism, civic virtue, sense of duty, consideration and sportsmanship, therefore testing the following hypotheses:

H8a: Management support mediates the relationship between interpersonal relationships and altruism.

H8b: Management support has a mediating effect on the relationship between interpersonal relationships and civic virtue.

H8c: Management support has a mediating effect on the relationship between interpersonal relationships and sportsmanship.

H8d: Management support has a mediating effect on the relationship between interpersonal relationships and sense of duty and consideration.

H9a: Management support has a mediating effect on the relationship between task orientation and altruism.

H9b: Management support has a mediating effect on the relationship between task orientation and civic virtue.

H9c: Management support has a mediating effect on the relationship between task orientation and sportsmanship.

H9d: Management support has a mediating effect on the relationship between task orientation and sense of duty and consideration.

H10a: Management support has a mediating effect on the relationship between competence and altruism.

H10b: Management support has a mediating effect on the relationship between competence and civic virtue.

H10c: Management support has a mediating effect on the relationship between competence and sportsmanship.

H10d: Management support has a mediating effect on the relationship between competence and sense of duty and consideration.

H11a: Management support has a mediating effect on the relationship between vision and goal orientation and altruism.

H11b: Management support has a mediating effect on the relationship between vision and goal orientation and civic virtue.

H11c: Management support has a mediating effect on the relationship between vision and goal orientation and sportsmanship.

H11d: Management support has a mediating effect on the relationship between vision and goal orientation and sense of duty and consideration.

Figure 6.6: Management Support has a mediating effect on the relationship between Leadership and OCB

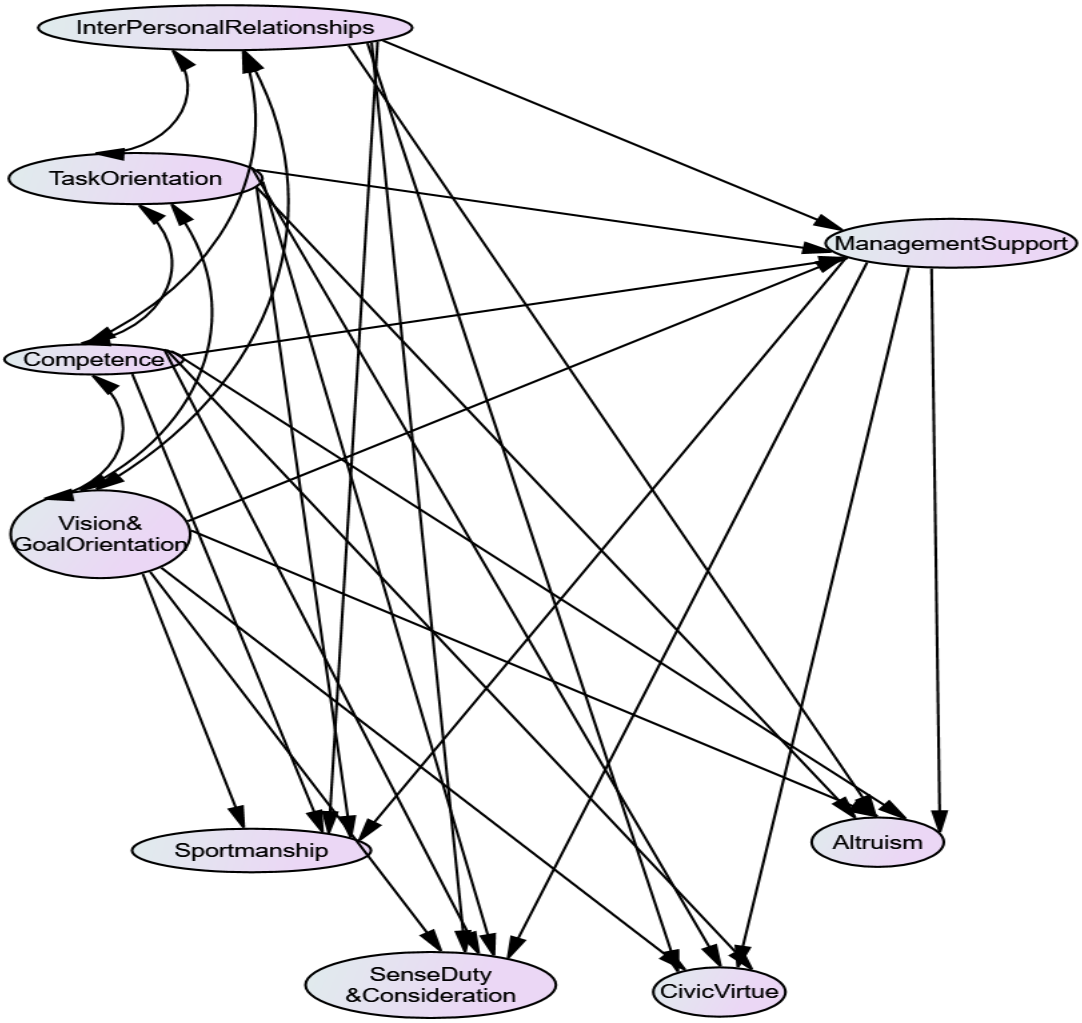


Table 6.18 represents the goodness of fit indices for management support, which has a mediating effect on the relationship between leadership and OCB

Table 6.18: Goodness of fit indices: SEM Model 1.1

Model	CMIN	Df	P	CMIN/df	RMSEA	CFI	IFI	AIC	BCC
Model 1.1	3944.829	1502	0.000	2.626	0.060	0.900	0.901	4246.829	4291.858

Model	CMIN	Df	P	CMIN/df	RMSEA	CFI	IFI	AIC	BCC
Acceptable fit	-	-	-	<3 or <5	≤0.08	≥0.90	≥0.90		

According to Table 6.18, the model indicated an adequate fit to the data. The RMSEA (0.060) was below 0.08. The CFI (0.900) and IFI (.0901) were both 0.90, and the CMIN/df (2.626) was smaller than 3, further indicating that the model was an adequate fit.

The bias-corrected percentile method was used to assess whether a mediating effect exists. If the confidence interval does not include zero, the p-value indicates statistical significance and the presence of a mediating effect. A maximum significance level of 5% was used.

It must be noted that, due to multicollinearity, SEM produced standardised weights greater than 1 (Deegan, 1978). Furthermore, multicollinearity can increase Type II error rates (Grewal, 2004). Elevated Type I error rates for the bias-corrected and accelerated bias-corrected bootstrap tests, not found in non-resampling tests or in resampling tests that did not include a bias correction, can also influence the results (Fritz et al., 2012). Therefore, mediation was also tested using the Process macro of Hayes, which is presented after the SEM results. The results are not directly comparable, as the Hayes Process macro uses composite factor-based variables that do not account for measurement error. Both SEM and the Hayes Process macro have advantages and disadvantages in testing mediation. The SEM approach was initially considered preferable in this study; however, given the results below and keeping the findings of Gerwel (2004) and Fritz et al. (2012) in mind, the decision on the support for or against the hypotheses was made using the Hayes Process macro results. It is also acknowledged that the Process macro can only use one independent and one dependent variable at a time. Future research in a similar setting, using the constructs as derived in this study, is required to confirm the validity of these results.

Table 6.19: Structural parameter estimates: Management support as a mediator for leadership and OCB

Relationships			Unstandardised Indirect effect	Lower bound (Confidence interval)	Upper bound (Confidence interval)	P value
OCB duty	<-->	vision	-5,505	…	-1,858	.008**
	<-->	competence	23,019	8,962	…	.000**
	<-->	Interpersonal relationships	-21,138	…	-8,087	.000**
	<-->	Task orientation	-5,603	…	-1,664	.005**
OCB sportsmanship	<-->	vison	-6,743	…	-2,070	.007**
	<-->	competence	28,199	11,345	…	.000**
	<-->	Interpersonal relationships	-25,895	…	-9,655	.001***
	<-->	Task orientation	-6,863	…	-1,981	.005**
OCB altruism	<-->	vison	-8,024	…	-2,777	.006**
	<-->	competence	33,553	13,569	…	.000***
	<-->	Interpersonal relationships	-30,811	…	-11,575	.000***
	<-->	Task orientation	-8,166	…	-2,246	.007**
OCB civic virtue	<-->	Vison	-7,552	…	-2,359	.008**
	<-->	competence	31,579	14,205	…	.000***
	<-->	Interpersonal relationships	-28,999	…	-11,665	.000***
	<-->	Task orientation	-7,686	…	-1,909	.007**

*** Significant at 0.1% level of significance (p-value <0.001), ** Significant at 1% level of significance (p-value <0.01), * Significant at 5% level of significance (p-value <0.05)

Table 6.19 indicates that all the indirect effects were statistically significant. Therefore, based on the bias-corrected percentile method, management support is a mediator in the relationship between all the dimensions of leadership and all the dimensions of OCB.

- **The mediating effect of autonomy and decision-making on the relationship between the leadership dimensions and the OCB dimensions**

Figure 6.7 depicts the SEM model, which reflects the mediating effect of autonomy and decision-making on the relationship between the leadership dimensions: interpersonal relationships, task orientation, competence, vision and goal orientation and the OCB dimensions: altruism, civic virtue, sense of duty and consideration and sportsmanship, therefore testing the following hypotheses:

H12a: Autonomy and decision making have a mediating effect on the relationship between interpersonal relationships and altruism.

H12b: Autonomy and decision making have a mediating effect on the relationship between interpersonal relationships and civic virtue.

H12c: Autonomy and decision making have a mediating effect on the relationship between interpersonal relationships and sportsmanship.

H12d: Autonomy and decision making have a mediating effect on the relationship between interpersonal sense of duty and consideration.

H13a: Autonomy and decision making have a mediating effect on the relationship between task orientation and altruism.

H13b: Autonomy and decision making have a mediating effect on the relationship between task orientation and civic virtue.

H13c: Autonomy and decision making have a mediating effect on the relationship between task orientation and sportsmanship.

H13d: Autonomy and decision making have a mediating effect on the relationship between task orientation and sense of duty and consideration.

H14a: Autonomy and decision making have a mediating effect on the relationship between competence and altruism.

H14b: Autonomy and decision making have a mediating effect on the relationship between competence and civic virtue.

H14c: Autonomy and decision making have a mediating effect on the relationship between competence and sportsmanship.

H14d: Autonomy and decision making have a mediating effect on the relationship between competence and sense of duty and consideration.

The following hypotheses were developed regarding the mediating effects of autonomy and decision on vision, goal orientation, and OCB.

H15a: Autonomy and decision making have a mediating effect on the relationship between vision and goal orientation and altruism.

H15b: Autonomy and decision making have a mediating effect on the relationship between vision and goal orientation and civic virtue.

H15c: Autonomy and decision making have a mediating effect on the relationship between vision and goal orientation and sportsmanship.

H15d: Autonomy and decision making have a mediating effect on the relationship between vision and goal orientation and sense of duty and consideration.

Figure 6.7: Autonomy and decision-making as a mediator between leadership and OCB

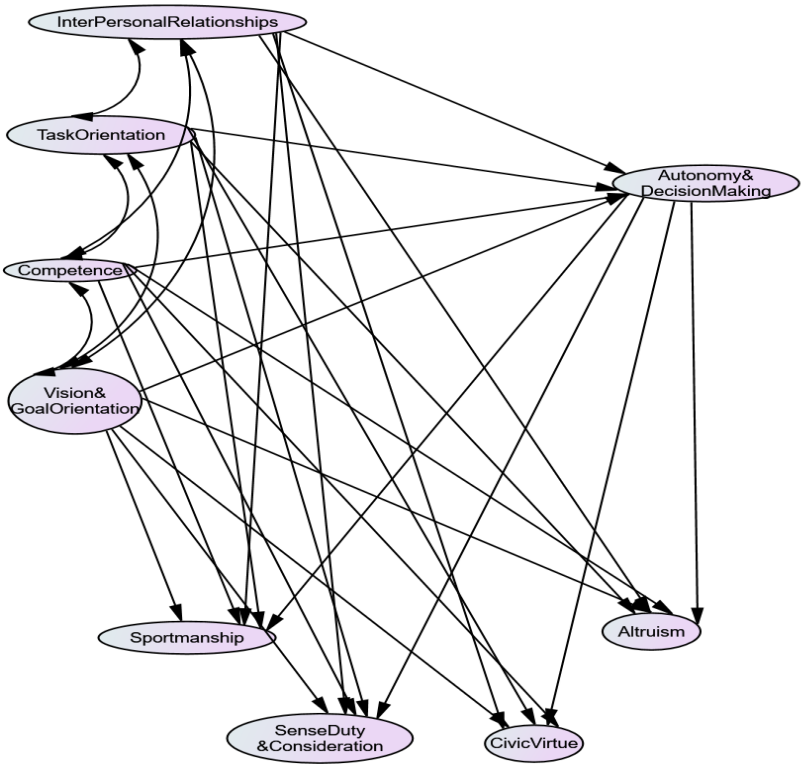


Table 6.20: Goodness of fit indices: SEM Model 1.2

Model	CMIN	df	P	CMIN/df	RMSEA	CFI	IFI	AIC	BCC
Model 1.2	3720,161	1391	0.000	2.674	,061	0.899	0.900	4018.161	4060.842
Acceptable fit	-	-	-	<3 or <5	≤0.08	≥0.90	≥0.90		

The results in Table 6.20 indicated that the model was an adequate fit to the data. The RMSEA (0.061) showed an adequate fit. The CFI (0.899) was very close to 0.90, and the IFI (.0900) indicated an adequate fit, which provides evidence that the model fitted the data. The CMIN/df (2.674) was smaller than 3, which also indicated that the model was a fit.

Table 6.21: Structural parameter: Autonomy and decision making as a mediator between leadership and OCB

Relationships			Unstandardised Indirect effect	Lower bound (Confidence interval)	Upper bound (Confidence interval)	P value
OCB duty	<-->	Vision	-5,505	…	-1,858	.008**
	<-->	Competence	23,019	8,962	…	.000**
	<-->	Interpersonal relationships	-21,138	…	-8,087	.000**
	<-->	Task orientation	-5,603	…	-1,664	.005**
OCB sportsmanship	<-->	Vison	-6,743	…	-2,070	.007**
	<-->	Competence	28,199	11,345	…	.000**
	<-->	Interpersonal relationships	-25,895	…	-9,655	.001***
	<-->	Task orientation	-6,863	…	-1,981	.005**
OCB altruism	<-->	vison	-8,024	…	-2,777	.006**
	<-->	competence	33,553	13,569	…	.000***
	<-->	Interpersonal relationships	-30,811	…	-11,575	.000***
	<-->	Task orientation	-8,166	…	-2,246	.007**
OCB civic virtue	<-->	Vison	-7,552	…	-2,359	.008**
	<-->	Competence	31,579	14,205	…	.000***
	<-->	Interpersonal relationships	-28,999	…	-11,665	.000***
	<-->	Task orientation	-7,686	…	-1,909	.007**

*** Significant at 0.1% level of significance (p-value <0.001), ** Significant at 1% level of significance (p-value <0.01), * Significant at 5% level of significance (p-value <0.05)

Table 6.21 indicates that the confidence intervals do not include zero and as a result, indirect effects were statistically significant as indicated above for the relationship between:

- Sense of duty and consideration and vision
- Sense of duty and consideration and competence
- Sportsmanship and vision
- Sportsmanship and competence
- Altruism and vision
- Altruism and competence
- Civic virtue and vision
- Civic virtue and competence

Therefore, autonomy and decision making mediates the relationship between (i) vision and goal orientation and all the dimensions of OCB and (ii) Competence and all the dimensions of OCB. No mediation effect of autonomy and decision making were observed (i) between interpersonal relationships with all the dimensions of OCB or (ii) between task orientation with all the dimensions of OCB.

- **The mediating effect of access to information and resources on the relationship between the leadership dimensions and the OCB dimensions**

Figure 6.8 depicts the SEM model, which reflects the mediating effect of access to information and resources on the relationship between the leadership dimensions: interpersonal relationships, task orientation, competence, vision and goal orientation and the OCB dimensions: altruism, civic virtue, sense of duty and consideration and sportsmanship, therefore testing the following hypotheses:

H17a: Access to information and resources has a mediating effect on the relationship between task orientation and altruism.

H17b: Access to information and resources has a mediating effect on the relationship between task orientation and civic virtue.

H17c: Access to information and resources has a mediating effect on the relationship between task orientation and sportsmanship.

H17d: Access to information and resources has a mediating effect on the relationship between task orientation and sense of duty and consideration.

H18a: Access to information and resources has a mediating effect on the relationship between competence and altruism.

H18b: Access to information and resources has a mediating effect on the relationship between competence and civic virtue.

H18c: Access to information and resources has a mediating effect on the relationship between competence and sportsmanship.

H18d: Access to information and resources has a mediating effect on the relationship between competence and sense of duty and consideration.

H19a: Access to information and resources has a mediating effect on the relationship between vision and goal orientation and altruism.

H19b: Access to information and resources has a mediating effect on the relationship between vision and goal orientation and civic virtue.

H19c: Access to information and resources has a mediating effect on the relationship between vision and goal orientation and sportsmanship.

H19d: Access to information and resources has a mediating effect on the relationship between vision and goal orientation and sense of duty and consideration.

Figure 6.8: Access to information and resources as a mediator in the relationship between leadership and OCB

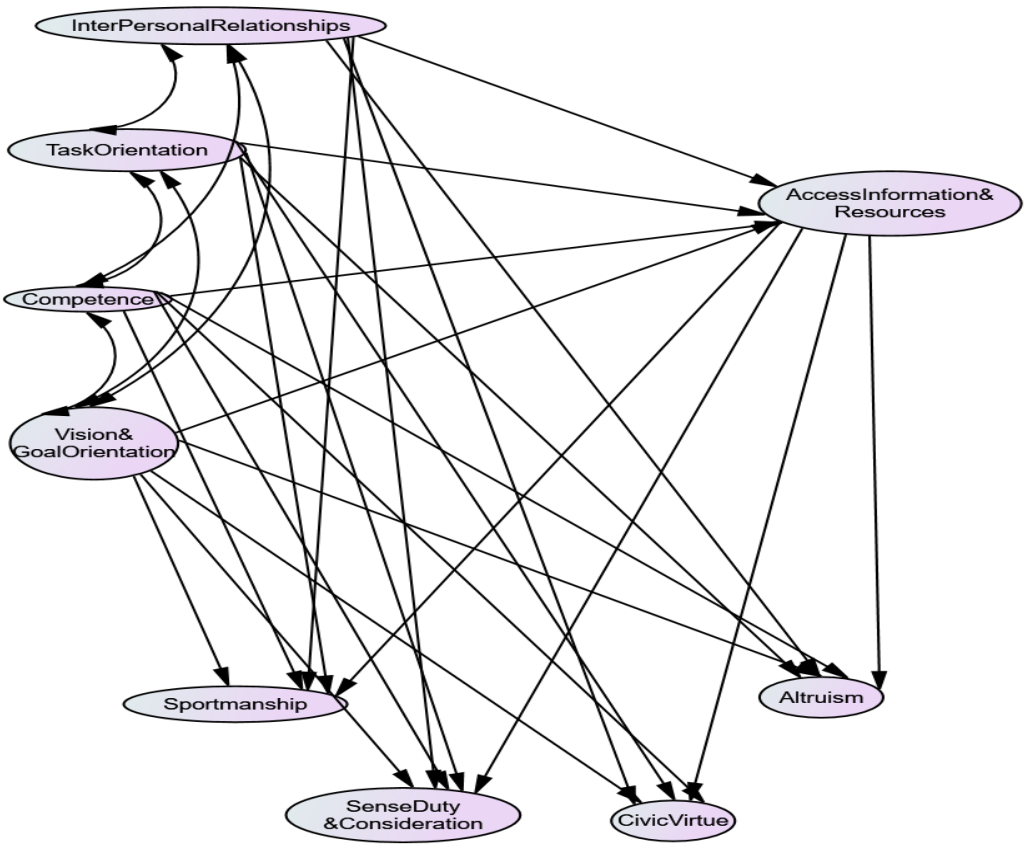


Table 6.22 represents the goodness of fit indices for access to information and resources as a mediator between leadership and OCB.

Table 6.22: Goodness of fit indices: SEM Model 1.3

Model	CMIN	df	P	CMIN/df	RMSEA	CFI	IFI	AIC	BCC
Model 1.3	3178,570	1185	0.000	2,682	0.061	0.901	0.901	3460.570	3497.694
Acceptable fit	-	-	-	<3 or <5	≤0.08	≥0.90	≥0.90		

The results in Table 6.22 indicated that the model was an adequate fit to the data. The RMSEA (0.061) showed an acceptable fit. The CFI (0.901) and the IFI (.0901) were above the recommended value of 0.90. and the CMIN/df (2.682) was less than 3, indicating an adequate fit.

Table 6.23: Access to information and resources as a mediator in the relationship between leadership and OCB

Relationships			Unstandardised Indirect effect standardised regression weights	Lower bound (Confidence interval)	Upper bound (Confidence interval)	P
OCB duty	<-->	Vision and goal orientation	-18,699	-3113,954	-6,382	,001***
	<-->	Competence	46,384	15,931	3904,464	,001***
	<-->	Interpersonal relationships	-28,625	-680,403	-9,223	,003**
	<-->	Task orientation	-8,732	-49,466	-1,035	,035*
OCB sportsmanship	<-->	Vision and goal orientation	-11,080	-2053,895	-3,759	,001***
	<-->	competence	27,484	9,448	2250,797	,001***
	<-->	Interpersonal relationships	-16,961	-576,480	-5,973	,003**
	<-->	Task orientation	-5,174	-32,421	-,811	,027*
OCB altruism	<-->	Vision and goal orientation	-16,466	-3399,888	-5,915	,001***
	<-->	Competence	40,846	14,298	4630,060	,001***
	<-->	Interpersonal relationships	-25,207	-861,632	-8,976	,002**
	<-->	Task orientation	-7,690	-40,037	-,829	,038*
OCB civic virtue	<-->	Vision and goal orientation	-15,510	-2838,219	-5,624	,003**
	<-->	Competence	38,472	12,877	3958,940	,003**
	<-->	Interpersonal relationships	-23,742	-1569,173	-7,833	,003**
	<-->	Task orientation	-7,243	-44,701	-,896	,038*

*** Significant at 0.1% level of significance (p-value <0.001), ** Significant at 1% level of significance (p-value <0.01), * Significant at 5% level of significance (p-value <0.05)

Table 6.23 indicates that the confidence intervals do not include zero, and as a result, all the indirect effects were statistically significant. Therefore, access to information and resources serves as a mediator in the relationships between all leadership constructs and all OCB constructs.

As stated before, due to multicollinearity that influences standard errors and subsequent calculations of statistical significance, the Hayes process macro was used. The results of the mediation tests are presented below.

Due to multicollinearity, the standardised weights exceeded 1 (Deegan, 1978). Because it can result in type 2 errors (Grewal, 2004), mediation was also tested using Hayes's PROCESS macro.

6.7.2 Process Macro of Hayes Results

The mediation results using the process macro of Hayes are presented below:

- **Autonomy and decision-making as a mediator between the leadership dimensions and OCB dimensions**

Table 6.24: Autonomy and decision-making as a mediator between leadership and the OCB dimension: Sense of duty and consideration

Relationships			Indirect effect Standardised	Lower (lower-level confidence interval)	Upper (upper-level confidence interval)	Mediator hypothesis supported/not supported
OCB: Sense of duty and consideration	<---	Competence	-0.1412	-0.2727	-0.0126	Supported
	<---	Interpersonal relationships	-0.1796	-0.3349	-0.0199	Supported
	<---	Task orientation	-0.1203	-0.2298	-0.0087	Supported
	<---	Vision and goal orientation	-0.1066	-0.1884	-0.0258	Supported

Table 6.24 indicates that autonomy and decision making mediates the relationships between all the leadership dimensions and the OCB dimension: sense of duty and consideration as none of the confidence intervals contain zero.

Table 6.25: Autonomy and decision-making as a mediator between leadership and the OCB dimension: civic virtue

Relationships			Indirect effect Standardised	Lower (lower-level confidence interval)	Upper (upper-level confidence interval)	Mediator hypothesis supported/not supported
OCB: civic virtue	<---	Competence	0.0081	-0.1338	0.1470	Not Supported
	<---	Interpersonal relationships	0.041	-0.1733	0.1976	Not Supported
	<---	Task orientation	0.0383	-0.0828	0.1574	Not supported
	<---	Vision and goal orientation	0.0444	-0.0446	0.1351	Not supported

Table 6.25 indicates that autonomy and decision-making did not mediate the relationships between all the leadership dimensions and the OCB dimension, civic virtue. This is evident from the bias corrected 95% confidence intervals, which do include zero.

Table 6.26: Autonomy and decision-making as a mediator between leadership and the OCB dimension: Sportsmanship

Relationships			Indirect effect Standardised	Lower (lower-level confidence interval)	Upper (upper-level confidence interval)	Mediator hypothesis supported/not supported
OCB: Sportsmanship	<---	Competence	0.1308	0.0097	0.2532	Supported
	<---	Interpersonal relationships	0.0380	-0.1095	0.1812	Not supported
	<---	Task orientation	0.1595	0.0546	0.2686	Supported
	<---	Vision and goal orientation	0.1751	0.997	0.2546	Supported

Table 6.26 indicates that autonomy and decision making mediated the relationships between the leadership dimensions: competence, task orientation and vision and goal orientation and the OCB dimension: sportsmanship.

However, the results also indicate that autonomy and decision making did not have a mediating effect on the relationships between the leadership dimensions: interpersonal relationships and the OCB dimension: civic virtue, as the confidence intervals contain zero.

Table 6.27: Autonomy and decision-making as a mediator in the relationship between leadership and the OCB dimension: Altruism

Relationships			Indirect effect Standardised	Lower (lower-level confidence interval)	Upper (upper-level confidence interval)	Mediator hypothesis supported/not supported
OCB: Altruism	<--	Competence	0.1835	0.0363	0.3290	Supported
OCB: Altruism	<--	Interpersonal relationships	0.1464	-0.0385	0.3229	Not supported
OCB: Altruism	<--	Task orientation	0.1285	0.0152	0.2309	Supported
OCB: Altruism	<--	Vision and goal orientation	0.1341	0.0167	0.2437	Supported

Table 6.27 indicates that autonomy and decision making mediated the relationships between the leadership dimensions: competence, task orientation, vision and goal orientation and the OCB dimension: altruism, as none of the confidence intervals contains zero.

However, the results did not have a mediating effect on the relationship between the leadership dimension (interpersonal relationships) and the OCB dimension (altruism), as the confidence interval contains zero.

Table 6.28: Management support as a mediator in the relationship between leadership and the OCB dimension of sense of duty and consideration

Relationships			Indirect effect Standardised	Lower (lower-level confidence interval)	Upper (upper-level confidence interval)	Mediator hypothesis supported/not supported
OCB: Sense of duty and consideration	<---	Competence	-0.0773	-0.2294	0.0838	Not Supported
	<---	Interpersonal relationships	-0.1028	-0.3337	-0.1174	Supported
	<---	Task orientation	-0.0907	-0.2415	-0.0545	Supported
	<---	Vision and goal orientation	-0.0848	-0.1811	0.0143	Not Supported

Table 6.28 indicates that management support mediated the relationships between the leadership dimensions (task orientation and interpersonal relationships) and the OCB dimension (sense of duty and consideration), as none of the confidence intervals contain zero.

However, the results indicated that management support did not mediate the relationships between the leadership dimensions: competence and vision and Goal

Orientation and the OCB dimension: sense of duty and consideration as the respective confidence intervals contain zero.

Table 6.29: Management support as a mediator between leadership and the OCB dimension: Civic virtue

Relationships			Indirect effect Standardised	Lower (lower-level confidence interval)	Upper (upper-level confidence interval)	Mediator hypothesis supported/not supported
Civic virtue	<---	Competence	0.1309	-0.0062	0.2766	Not Supported
Civic virtue	<---	Interpersonal relationships	0.2587	0.0509	0.4649	Supported
Civic virtue	<---	Task orientation	0.1610	0.0219	0.2933	Supported
Civic virtue	<---	Vision and goal orientation	0.1215	0.0197	0.2344	Supported

Table 6.29 indicates that management support mediated the relationships between the leadership dimensions: interpersonal relationships, task orientation, and vision and goal orientation and the OCB dimension: civic virtue, as the respective confidence intervals do not contain zero.

However, there was no mediating effect on the relationship between the leadership dimension, competence, and the OCB dimension, civic virtue. This is evident from the bias corrected 95% confidence intervals, which do include zero.

Table 6.30: Management support as a mediator in the relationship between leadership and the OCB dimension: Sportsmanship

Relationships			Indirect effect Standardised	Lower (lower-level confidence interval)	Upper (upper-level confidence interval)	Mediator hypothesis supported/not supported
OCB: Sportsmanship	<--	Competence	0.2471	0.1108	0.3821	Supported
OCB: Sportsmanship	<--	Interpersonal relationships	0.2076	0.0262	0.3943	Supported
OCB: Sportsmanship	<--	Task orientation	0.2773	0.1486	0.4077	Supported
OCB: Sportsmanship	<--	Vision and goal orientation	0.2558	0.1700	0.3478	Supported

Table 6.30 indicates that management support mediated the relationships between all leadership dimensions and the OCB dimension of sportsmanship, as none of the respective confidence intervals contains zero.

Table 6.31: Management support as a mediator in the relationship between leadership and the OCB dimension: Altruism

Relationships			Indirect effect Standardised	Lower (lower-level confidence interval)	Upper (upper-level confidence interval)	Mediator hypothesis supported/not supported
OCB: Altruism	<--	Competence	0.2665	0.1259	0.4083	Supported
OCB: Altruism	<--	Interpersonal relationships	0.3263	0.1295	0.5221	Supported
OCB: Altruism	<--	Task orientation	0.2236	0.1000	0.3383	Supported
OCB: Altruism	<--	Vision and goal orientation	0.1951	0.0758	0.3138	Supported

Table 6.31 indicates that management support mediates the relationships between all the leadership dimensions and the OCB dimension: altruism, as none of the respective confidence intervals contains zero.

Table 6.32: Access to information and resources as a mediator in the relationship between leadership and the OCB dimension: Sense of duty and consideration

Relationships			Indirect effect Standardised	Lower (lower-level confidence interval)	Upper (upper-level confidence interval)	Mediator hypothesis supported/not supported
OCB: Sense of duty and consideration	<---	Competence	-0.0725	-0.1895	0.0488	Not Supported
	<---	Interpersonal relationships	-0.0650	-0.2017	-0.0707	Supported
	<---	Task orientation	-0.0965	-0.2266	0.0324	Not Supported
	<---	Vision and goal orientation	-0.0928	-0.1811	-0.0004	Supported

Table 6.32 indicates that access to information and resources mediates the relationships between the leadership dimensions Interpersonal Relationships and vision and goal orientation, and the OCB dimension: sense of duty and consideration, as the respective confidence intervals do not contain zero.

However, access to information and resources did not mediate the relationships between the leadership dimensions, task orientation and competence and the OCB dimension: sense of duty and consideration, as the respective confidence intervals do not contain zero.

Table 6.33: Access to information and resources as a mediator in the relationship between leadership and the OCB dimension: Civic virtue

Relationships			Indirect effect Standardised	Lower (lower-level confidence interval)	Upper (upper-level confidence interval)	Mediator hypothesis supported/not supported
OCB: Civic virtue	<--	Competence	0.0703	-0.0524	0.1942	Not supported
OCB: Civic virtue	<--	Interpersonal relationships	0.0948	-0.0505	0.2469	Not supported
OCB: Civic virtue	<--	Task orientation	0.1041	-0.0313	0.2372	Not supported
OCB: Civic virtue	<--	Vision and goal orientation	0.0900	-0.0197	0.2032	Not supported

Table 6.33 indicates that access to information and resources did not mediate the relationships between all the leadership dimensions and the OCB dimension: civic virtue. This is evident from the bias corrected 95% confidence intervals, which do include zero.

Table 6.34: Access to information and resources as a mediator in the relationship between leadership and the OCB dimension: Sportsmanship

Relationships			Indirect effect Standardised	Lower (lower-level confidence interval)	Upper (upper-level confidence interval)	Mediator hypothesis supported/not supported
OCB: Sportsmanship	<---	Competence	0.0850	-0.0279	0.2044	Not supported
	<---	Interpersonal relationships	0.0177	-0.1104	0.1527	Not Supported
	<---	Task orientation	0.1047	-0.0146	0.2273	Not supported
	<---	Vision and goal orientation	0.1503	0.0590	0.2438	Supported

Table 6.34 demonstrates that access to information and resources has a mediating effect on the relationships between the leadership dimension: vision and goal

orientation, and the OCB dimension: sportsmanship, as the confidence interval does not contain zero.

However, there was no mediation on the relationships between the leadership dimensions: competence, interpersonal relationships and task orientation and the OCB dimension: sportsmanship. This is evident from the bias corrected 95% confidence intervals, which do include zero.

Table 6.35: Access to information and resources as a mediator in the relationship between leadership and the OCB dimension: Altruism

Relationships			Indirect effect Standardised	Lower (lower-level confidence interval)	Upper (upper-level confidence interval)	Mediator hypothesis supported/not supported
OCB: Altruism	<--	Competence	0.0915	-0.0360	0.2194	Not supported
OCB: Altruism	<--	Interpersonal relationships	0.0279	-0.1135	0.1664	Not supported
OCB: Altruism	<--	Task orientation	0.0619	-0.0608	0.1880	Not supported
OCB: Altruism	<--	Vision and goal orientation	0.0986	-0.0416	0.2316	Not supported

Table 6.35 indicates that access to information and resources did not mediate the relationships between the leadership dimension: competence, task orientation, interpersonal relationships and vision and goal orientation and the OCB dimension: altruism. This is evident from the bias-corrected 95% confidence intervals, which include zero for all mediation tests.

6.8 INFERENTIAL STATISTICS: TESTS FOR SIGNIFICANT MEAN DIFFERENCES

This section addresses research objective 4 using inferential statistics.

To test the research hypothesis that differences exist between the category groupings of each demographic variable (gender, age, race, qualifications, years in the organisation, and job level) with regard to the OCB dimensions, several statistical tests have been performed.

- **Gender**

The alternate hypothesis to be tested is:

- H20: There is a statistically significant difference between the gender groups with regard to each of the OCB dimensions.

The Student t-test for independent groups was used to test the hypotheses. A 5% significance level was used. The mean and standard deviation for the gender groups are presented in Table 6.36 below:

Table 6.36: Descriptive Statistics: Gender and OCB

GENDER		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
OCB Sense of duty and consideration	Male	165	5.34	0.49
	Female	272	5.34	0.46
Civic virtue	Male	165	4.91	0.78
	Female	272	4.82	0.66
Sportsmanship	Male	165	4.66	0.84
	Female	272	4.63	0.69
Altruism	Male	165	5.28	0.69
	Female	272	5.26	0.53

Table 6.37: Independent sample test for gender

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	T	df	Significance Two-Sided p
OCB Sense of duty and consideration	Equal variances assumed	1.195	0,275	0.087	435	0.931
	Equal variances not assumed			0.086	328.386	0.932
Civic virtue	Equal variances assumed	3.441	0,064	1.239	435	0.216
	Equal variances not assumed			1.188	301.904	0.236
Sportsmanship	Equal variances assumed	6.292	0,012	0.472	435	0.637
	Equal variances not assumed			0.451	296.819	0.653
Altruism	Equal variances assumed	3.400	0,066	0.502	435	0.616
	Equal variances not assumed			0.471	281.514	0.638

The null hypothesis of equal variances was not rejected (p>0.05) for the leadership and employee empowerment dimensions, and for three of the four OCB dimensions. The null hypothesis of equal variances was rejected (p < 0.05) for the OCB dimension: sportsmanship, in which case the t value and associated significance value were used for equal variance not assumed.

The results indicated that there were no statistically significant differences, at the 5 % level of significance, between males and females with regard to all the OCB dimensions: civic virtue, sportsmanship, sense of duty and consideration and altruism.

- **Race**

The hypothesis to be tested is:

H21: There is a statistically significant difference between the race groups with regard to the OCB dimensions.

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test whether there are differences between the race groups with regard to each OCB dimension.

Table 6.38 represents the mean and standard deviations of the OCB dimensions for each of the race groups.

Table 6.38: Descriptive Statistics for Race Groups and OCB

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
OCB Sense of duty and consideration	African	189	5.32	0.492
	Coloured	20	5.35	0.417
	Indian	32	5.29	0.524
	White	202	5.36	0.440
	Total	443	5.34	0.468
Civic virtue	African	189	5.15	0.653
	Coloured	20	4.87	0.464
	Indian	32	4.88	0.688
	White	202	4.59	0.663

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Total	443	4.86	0.702
Sportsmanship	African	189	4.89	0.664
	Coloured	20	4.36	0.889
	Indian	32	4.67	0.654
	White	202	4.45	0.754
	Total	443	4.65	0.746
Altruism	African	189	5.33	0.615
	Coloured	20	5.37	0.426
	Indian	32	5.20	0.505
	White	202	5.19	0.590
	Total	443	5.26	0.591

Regarding the assumption of homogeneity of variances that has to be met for the use of the F test, Table 6.39 shows the results of the Levene's test of homogeneity of variances based on the median as the group sample sizes were unequal (Nordstokke & Zumbo, 2007). The results indicated that the assumption for homogeneity of variances (p> 0.05) can be assumed for all OCB dimensions.

Table 6.39: Tests of Homogeneity of Variances: Race

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
OCB Sense of duty and consideration					
	Based on Median	0.435	3	439	0.728
Civic virtue					
	Based on Median	1.015	3	439	0.386
Sportsmanship					
	Based on Median	1.176	3	439	0.318
Altruism					
	Based on Median	0.937	3	439	0.422

The results of the one-way ANOVA showed a statistically significant difference between the race groups, at a 5% level of significance, with regard to the mean values of the OCB dimensions: civic virtue *F (3, 439) =23.72, p= 0.00 and sportsmanship F (3, 439) =13.32, p= 0.000*. The results are presented in Table 6.40.

Table 6.40: ANOVA for Race

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
OCB Sense of duty and consideration	Between Groups	0.178	3	0.059	0.271	0.846
	Within Groups	96.453	439	0.220		
	Total	96.631	442			
Civic virtue	Between Groups	30.75	3	10.125	23.719	0.000
	Within Groups	187.397	439	0.427		
	Total	217.772	442			
Sportsmanship	Between Groups	20.502	3	6.834	13.323	0,000
	Within Groups	225.189	439	0.513		
	Total	245.691	442			
Altruism	Between Groups	2.347	3	0.782	2.256	0.081
	Within Groups	152.278	439	0.347		
	Total	154.626	442			

The Tukey HSD multiple comparison test was conducted to determine between which pairs of race group the differences occur. Table 6.41 presents the results for Tukey HSD Multiple Comparison Post Hoc Test for race.

In terms of civic virtue, a statistically significant difference at the 1% level was found between the African and White race groups (p= 0.000).

In terms of the sportsmanship dimension, statistically significant differences, at the 1% level of significance, were found between the African and Coloured race groups (p= 0.010) and the African and White race groups (p= 0.000).

Table 6.41: Tukey HSD Multiple Comparison Post Hoc Test for Race

Tukey HSD				
Dependent Variable		**Std. Error**	**Sig.**	**95% Confidence Interval**

			Mean Difference (I-J)			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
OCB Civic virtue	African	Coloured	0,28448	0,15363	0,251	-0,1117	0,6807
		Indian	0,27013	0,12489	0,135	-0,0520	0,5922
		White	.55766*	0.06612	0,000*	0.3871	0.7282
	Coloured	African	-0.28448	0.15363	0.251	-0.6807	0.1117
		Indian	-0.01435	0.18623	1.000	-0.4946	0.4659
		White	0.27317	0.15316	0.283	-0.1218	0.6681
	Indian	African	-0.27013	0.12489	0.135	-0.5922	0.0520
		Coloured	0.01435	0.18623	1.000	-0.4659	0.4946
		White	0.28753	0.12431	0.097	-0.0331	0.6081
	White	African	-.55766*	0,06612	0.000*	-0.7282	-0.3871
		Coloured	-0.27317	0.15316	0.283	-0.6681	0.1218
		Indian	-0.28753	0.12431	0.097	-0.6081	0.0331
Sportsmanship	African	Coloured	.52732*	0.16841	0.010*	0.0930	0.9616
		Indian	0.21857	0.13691	0.382	-0.1345	0.5716
		White	.43839*	0,07248	0,000*	0.2515	0,6253
	Coloured	African	-.52732*	0,16841	0,010*	-0,9616	-0.0930
		Indian	-0.30875	0.20415	0.431	-0.8352	0.2177
		White	-0.08893	0.16789	0.952	-0.5219	0.3440
	Indian	African	-0.21857	0.13691	0.382	-0.5716	0.1345
		Coloured	0.30875	0.20415	0.431	-0.2177	0.8352
		White	0.21982	0.13627	0.372	-0.1316	0.5712
	White	African	-.43839*	0.07248	0,000*	-0.6253	-0.2515
		Coloured	0.08893	0.16789	0.952	-0.3440	0.5219
		Indian	-0.21982	0.13627	0.372	-0.5712	0.1316

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

- **Age**

The hypothesis to be tested is:

H22: There is a statistically significant difference between the age groups with regard to the OCB dimensions.

Table 6.42 presents the descriptive statistics for age and OCB.

Table 6.42: Descriptive Statistics: Age and OCB

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
OCB Sense of duty and consideration	26 – 35 years	82	5.40	0.396
	36 – 45 years	110	5.29	0.537
	46 – 55 years	160	5.32	0.457
	56 – 65 years	95	5.38	0.449
	Total	447	5.34	0.467
Civic virtue	26 – 35 years	82	4.97	0.664
	36 – 45 years	110	4.94	0.724
	46 – 55 years	160	4.83	0.689
	56 – 65 years	95	4.70	0.727
	Total	447	4.86	0.706
Sportsmanship	26 – 35 years	82	4.72	0.707
	36 – 45 years	110	4.55	0.842
	46 – 55 years	160	4.68	0.717
	56 – 65 years	95	4.60	0.731
	Total	447	4.64	0.751
Altruism	26 – 35 years	82	5.31	0.546
	36 – 45 years	110	5.20	0.722
	46 – 55 years	160	5.26	0.524
	56 – 65 years	95	5.29	0.567
	Total	447	5.26	0.591

Regarding the assumption of homogeneity of variances required for the F test, Table 6.43 below presents the results of Levene's test of homogeneity of variances based on the median, as the group sample sizes were unequal (Nordstokke & Zumbo, 2007). The results indicated that the assumption of homogeneity of variances ($p > 0.05$) holds for all OCB dimensions.

Table 6.43: Test of Homogeneity of Variance: Age

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
OCB Sense of duty and consideration	Based on Median	1.578	3	443	0.194
Civic virtue	Based on Median	0.318	3	443	0.812
Sportsmanship	Based on Median	0.612	3	443	0.608
Altruism	Based on Median	1.263	3	443	0.287

The results of the one-way ANOVA showed a statistically significant difference between the race groups at the 5% level of significance regarding the mean values of the OCB dimensions: civic virtue, F (3, 442) = 2.83, p = *0.038.* The results are presented in Table 6.44.

Table 6.44: ANOVA for Age

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
OCB Sense of duty and consideration	Between Groups	0.770	3	0.257	1.179	0.317
	Within Groups	96.429	443	0.218		
	Total	97.199	446			
Civic virtue	Between Groups	4.174	3	1.391	2.829	0.038
	Within Groups	217.898	443	0.492		
	Total	222.072	446			
Sportsmanship	Between Groups	1.889	3	0.630	1.117	0.342
	Within Groups	249.771	443	0.564		
	Total	251.661	446			
Alruism	Between Groups	0.622	3	0.207	0.593	0.620
	Within Groups	154.944	443	0.350		
	Total	155.566	446			

The Tukey HSD multiple-comparison test was conducted to determine which pairs of race groups differ. Table 6.45 presents the results of the Tukey HSD Multiple Comparison Post Hoc Test.

In terms of civic virtue, a statistically significant difference, slightly above the 5% level, was found between the 26–35 and 56–65 age groups.

Table 6.45: Tukey HSD Multiple Comparison Post Hoc Test for Age

Tukey HSD							
Dependent Variable		**Mean Difference (I-J)**	**Std. Error**	**Sig.**	**95% Confidence Interval**		
					Lower Bound	**Upper Bound**	
OCB Civic virtue	26 – 35 years	36 – 45 years	0.03271	0.10232	0.989	-0.2312	0.2966
		46 – 55 years	0.13883	0.09525	0.464	-0.1068	0.3845
		56 – 65 years	0.26903	0.10572	0.055	-0.0036	0.5417
	36 – 45 years	26 – 35 years	-0.03271	0.10232	0.989	-0.2966	0.2312
		46 – 55 years	0.10612	0.08687	0.613	-0.1179	0.3301
		56 – 65 years	0.23632	0.09823	0.077	-0.0170	0.4896
	46 – 55 years	26 – 35 years	-0.13883	0.09525	0.464	-0.3845	0.1068
		36 – 45 years	-0.10612	0.08687	0.613	-0.3301	0.1179
		56 – 65 years	0.13020	0.09084	0.479	-0.1041	0.3645
	56 – 65 years	26 – 35 years	-0.26903	0.10572	0.055	-0.5417	0.0036
		36 – 45 years	-0.23632	0.09823	0.077	-0.4896	0.0170
		46 – 55 years	-0.13020	0.09084	0.479	-0.3645	0.1041

- **Qualifications**

The hypothesis to be tested is:

H23: There is a statistically significant difference between the qualification groups with regard to the OCB dimensions.

One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test whether there are differences between the qualification's groups with regard to each OCB dimension. Table 6.46 presents the mean and standard deviations of the OCB dimensions for each of the qualification groups.

Table 6.46: Descriptive Statistics for Qualifications and OCB

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
OCB Sense of duty and consideration	Matric	24	5.49	0.391
	Certificate/ Diploma	46	5.42	0.505
	Bachelor's degree	60	5.34	0.467
	Honours degree	74	5.24	0.464
	Master's degree	120	5.32	0.456
	Doctoral degree/ PhD	117	5.37	0.459
	Total	441	5.34	0.464
Civic virtue	Matric	24	5.078	0.640
	Certificate/ Diploma	46	5.09	0.644
	Bachelor's degree	60	4.86	0.738
	Honours degree	74	4.84	0.638
	Master's degree	120	4.82	0.785
	Doctoral degree/ PhD	117	4.77	0.676
	Total	441	4.86	0.709
Sportsmanship	Matric	24	5.06	0.588
	Certificate/ Diploma	46	5.01	0.584
	Bachelor's degree	60	4.78	0.602
	Honours degree	74	4.67	0.577
	Master's degree	120	4.58	0.828
	Doctoral degree/ PhD	117	4.37	0.819
	Total	441	4.64	0.752
Altruism	Matric	24	5.49	0.556
	Certificate/ Diploma	46	5.48	0.442
	Bachelor's degree	60	5.28	0.569
	Honours degree	74	5.23	0.486
	Master's degree	120	5.11	0.718
	Doctoral degree/ PhD	117	5.28	0.552
	Total	441	5.26	0.594

Regarding the assumption of homogeneity of variances that has to be met for the use of the F test, Table 6.47 shows the results of the Levene's test of homogeneity of variances based on the median due to the group sample sizes being unequal (Nordstokke & Zumbo, 2007). The assumption for homogeneity of variances ($p > 0.05$) can be assumed for qualification group ($p = 0.050$) and the OCB dimensions: sense of duty and consideration ($p = 0.173$), civic virtue ($p = 0.429$) and altruism ($p = 0.514$).

Table 6.47: Tests of Homogeneity of Variances: Qualifications

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
OCB Sense of duty and consideration	Based on Median	1.549	5	435	0.173
Civic virtue	Based on Median	0.980	5	435	0.429
Sportsmanship	Based on Median	3.916	5	435	0.002
Altruism	Based on Median	0.852	5	435	0.514

The results of the one-way ANOVA show a statistically significant difference at the p< .05 level in the mean score for the OCB dimension: *altruism F (5, 435) =3.76, p= 0.002*. The results are presented in Table 6.48.

Table 6.48: ANOVA for Qualifications

		Sum of Squares	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**
OCB Sense of duty and consideration	Between Groups	1.853	5	0.371	1.738	0.125
	Within Groups	92.760	435	0.213		
	Total	94.613	440			
Civic virtue	Between Groups	4.646	5	0.929	1.868	0.099
	Within Groups	216.438	435	0.498		
	Total	221.084	440			
Sportsmanship	Between Groups	20.678	5	4.136	7.877	0.000
	Within Groups	228.397	435	0.525		
	Total	249.075	440			
Altruism	Between Groups	6.432	5	1.286	3.758	0.002
	Within Groups	148.898	435	0.342		
	Total	155.330	440			

For the dimensions, that violated the assumption for homogeneity of variance, it was necessary to use the robust Welch's ANOVA instead of the one-way ANOVA test. (Pallant 2010:253). As evident from Table 6.49, the Welch ANOVA show a statistically significant difference at the p<0.05 level in the mean scores for the OCB dimensions: sportsmanship and altruism.

The OCB dimension: sportsmanship that violated the assumption for homogeneity of variance, it was necessary to use the robust Welch's ANOVA instead of the one-way ANOVA test. (Pallant 2010). The Welch ANOVA showed a statistically significant difference ($p<0.05$) for the OCB dimension: sportsmanship.

Table 6.49: Robust Tests of Equality of Means

		Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Sportsmanship	Welch	8,771	5	138,207	0,000

The Tukey HSD multiple comparison test was conducted to determine between which pairs within the group the differences occur. Table 6.50 presents the results for Tukey HSD Multiple Comparison Post Hoc Test for Qualifications.

In terms of the sportsmanship dimension, statistically significant differences, at the 1% level of significance, differences were found between the Matric and Doctoral degree/ PhD (p= 0.000), the Certificate/ Diploma and Doctoral degree/ PhD groups (p= 0.000), the Certificate/ Diploma and Master's degree groups (p= 0.008) and the bachelor's degree and Doctoral degree/ PhD groups (p= 0.006). Statistically significant differences, at the 5% level of significance, were found between the matric and Master's degree group (p= 0.039).

In terms of altruism, statistically significant differences, at the 1% level of significance, difference were found between Certificate/ Diploma and Master's degree group (p= 0.004). Statistically significant differences, at the 5% level of significance, were found between the Matric and Master's groups (0.041),

Table 6.50: Tukey HSD Multiple Comparison Post Hoc Test for Qualifications

Dependent Variable			**Mean Difference (I-J)**	**Std. Error**	**Sig.**	**95% Confidence Interval**	
						Lower Bound	**Upper Bound**
OCB Sportsmanship	Matric	Certificate/ Diploma	0.04347	0.18246	1.000	-0.4788	0,5657
		Bachelor's degree	0.27817	0.17501	0.606	-0.2228	0.7791
		Honours degree	0.38793	0.17021	0.205	-0.0993	0.8752
		Master's degree	.47798*	0.16203	0.039	0.0142	0.9418

Dependent Variable			Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
		Doctoral degree/ PhD	.68533*	0.16237	0,000	0.2205	1.1501
	Certificate/ Diploma	Matric	-0.04347	0.18246	1.000	-0.5657	0.4788
		Bachelor's degree	0.23471	0.14200	0.564	-0.1718	0.6412
		Honours degree	0.34447	0.13605	0.117	-0.0450	0.7339
		Master's degree	.43452*	0.12566	0.008	0.0748	0.7942
		Doctoral degree/ PhD	.64186*	0.12610	0.000	0.2809	1.0028
	Bachelor's degree	Matric	-0.27817	0.17501	0.606	-0.7791	0.2228
		Certificate/ Diploma	-0.23471	0.14200	0.564	-0.6412	0.1718
		Honours degree	0.10976	0.12588	0.953	-0.2506	0.4701
		Master's degree	0.19981	0.11457	0.503	-0.1281	0.5278
		Doctoral degree/ PhD	.40715*	0.11506	0.006	0.0778	0.7365
	Honours degree	Matric	-0.38793	0.17021	0.205	-0.8752	0.0993
		Certificate/ Diploma	-0.34447	0.13605	0.117	-0.7339	0.0450
		Bachelor's degree	-0.10976	0.12588	0.953	-0.4701	0.2506
		Master's degree	0.09005	0.10710	0.960	-0.2165	0.3966
		Doctoral degree/ PhD	0.29739	0.10762	0.065	-0.0107	0.6055
	Master's degree	Matric	-.47798*	0.16203	0.039	-0.9418	-0.0142
		Certificate/ Diploma	-.43452*	0.12566	0.008	-0.7942	-0.0748
		Bachelor's degree	-0.19981	0.11457	0.503	-0.5278	0.1281
		Honours degree	-0.09005	0.10710	0.960	-0.3966	0.2165
		Doctoral degree/ PhD	0.20734	0.09414	0.239	-0.0621	0.4768
	Doctoral degree/ PhD	Matric	-.68533*	0.16237	0.000	-1.1501	-0.2205
		Certificate/ Diploma	-.64186*	0.12610	0.000	-1.0028	-0.2809
		Bachelor's degree	-.40715*	0.11506	0.006	-0.7365	-0.0778
		Honours degree	-0.29739	0.10762	0.065	-0.6055	0.0107

Dependent Variable			Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
		Master's degree	-0.20734	0.09414	0.239	-0.4768	0.0621
Altruism	Matric	Certificate/ Diploma	0.01074	0.14732	1.000	-0.4110	0.4324
		Bachelor's degree	0.21443	0.14131	0,653	-0.1900	0.6189
		Honours degree	0,26118	0.13743	0.403	-0.1322	0.6546
		Master's degree	.38378*	0.13082	0.041	0.0093	0.7583
		Doctoral degree/ PhD	0.21222	0.13110	0.587	-0.1631	0.5875
	Certificate/ Diploma	Matric	-0.01074	0.14732	1.000	-0.4324	0.4110
		Bachelor's degree	0.20369	0.11466	0.482	-0.1245	0.5319
		Honours degree	0.25044	0.10985	0.205	-0.0640	0.5649
		Master's degree	.37304*	0.10146	0.004	0.0826	0.6635
		Doctoral degree/ PhD	0.20149	0.10182	0.356	-0.0900	0.4929
	Bachelor's degree	Matric	-0.21443	0.14131	0.653	-0.6189	0.1900
		Certificate/ Diploma	-0.20369	0.11466	0.482	-0.5319	0.1245
		Honours degree	0.04675	0.10164	0.997	-0.2442	0.3377
		Master's degree	0.16935	0.09251	0.447	-0.0954	0.4341
		Doctoral degree/ PhD	-0.00221	0.09290	1.000	-0.2681	0.2637
	Honours degree	Matric	-0.26118	0.13743	0.403	-0.6546	0.1322
		Certificate/ Diploma	-0.25044	0.10985	0.205	-0.5649	0.0640
		Bachelor's degree	-0.04675	0.10164	0.997	-0.3377	0.2442
		Master's degree	0.12260	0.08648	0.716	-0.1249	0.3701
		Doctoral degree/ PhD	-0.04895	0.08690	0.993	-0.2977	0.1998
	Master's degree	Matric	-.38378*	0.13082	0.041	-0.7583	-0.0093
		Certificate/ Diploma	-.37304*	0.10146	0.004	-0.6635	-0.0826
		Bachelor's degree	-0.16935	0.09251	0.447	-0.4341	0.0954
		Honours degree	-0.12260	0.08648	0.716	-0.3701	0.1249

Dependent Variable			Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
		Doctoral degree/ PhD	-0.17155	0.07601	0.214	-0.3891	0.0460
	Doctoral degree/ PhD	Matric	-0.21222	0.13110	0.587	-0.5875	0.1631
		Certificate/ Diploma	-0.20149	0.10182	0.356	-0.4929	0.0900
		Bachelor's degree	0.00221	0.09290	1.000	-0.2637	0.2681
		Honours degree	0.04895	0.08690	0.993	-0.1998	0.2977
		Master's degree	0.17155	0.07601	0.214	-0.0460	0.3891

- **Number of years at the organisation**

The hypothesis to be tested is:

H25: There is a statistical significant difference between the number of years at the organisation groups with regard to the OCB dimensions.

One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test whether there are differences between the number of years at the organisation groups with regard to each OCB dimension. Table 6.51 represents the mean and standard deviations of the OCB dimensions for each of the qualification groups.

Table 6.51: Descriptive Statistics for number of years at the organisation and OCB

		N	Mean	Standard deviation
OCB Sense of duty and consideration	Less than 5 years	97	5,3216	0,45834
	6 – 10 years	150	5,3045	0,49372
	11 + years	195	5,3741	0,44461
	Total	442	5,3389	0,46483
Civic virtue	Less than 5 years	97	5,0352	0,67547
	6 – 10 years	150	4,8161	0,75929
	11 + years	195	4,8059	0,66429
	Total	442	4,8597	0,70493
Sportsmanship	Less than 5 years	97	4,7852	0,75938

	6 – 10 years	150	4,4875	0,74323
	11 + years	195	4,7082	0,68643
	Total	442	4,6502	0,73072
Altruism	Less than 5 years	97	5,2996	0,52715
	6 – 10 years	150	5,1301	0,71793
	11 + years	195	5,3350	0,49092
	Total	442	5,2577	0,59095

Regarding the assumption of homogeneity of variances that has to be met for the use of the F test, Table 6.52 shows the results of the Levene's test of homogeneity of variances based on the median due to the group sample sizes being unequal (Nordstokke & Zumbo, 2007). The results indicated that the assumption for homogeneity of variances (p> 0.05) can be assumed for all OCB leadership dimensions.

Table 6.52: Tests of Homogeneity of Variances: Number of years at the organisation

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
OCB Sense of duty and consideration	Based on Median	0,572	2	439	0,565
Civic virtue	Based on Median	0,232	2	439	0,793
Sportsmanship	Based on Median	0,975	2	439	0,378
Altruism	Based on Median	3,198	2	439	0,042

The results of the one-way ANOVA showed a statistically significant difference between the groups for number of years at the organisation, at a 1% level of significance, with regard to the mean values of the OCB dimensions: civic virtue *F (2, 439) =2.83, p= 0.038, sportsmanship F (2, 439) =6.13, p= 0.003 and altruism F (2, 439) =5.52, p= 0.004.* The results are presented in Table 6.53.

Table 6.53: ANOVA for number of years at the organisation

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
OCB	Between Groups	0,448	2	0,224	1,036	0,356

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Sense of duty and consideration	Within Groups	94,837	439	0,216		
	Total	95,285	441			
Civic virtue	Between Groups	3,836	2	1,918	3,910	0,021
	Within Groups	215,310	439	0,490		
	Total	219,146	441			
Sportsmanship	Between Groups	6,395	2	3,197	6,127	0,002
	Within Groups	229,076	439	0,522		
	Total	235,471	441			
Altruism	Between Groups	3,777	2	1,888	5,518	0,004
	Within Groups	150,230	439	0,342		
	Total	154,006	441			

The Tukey HSD multiple comparison test was conducted to determine which pairs within the group the differences occur. Table 6.54 presents the results for the Tukey HSD Multiple Comparison Post Hoc Test for the number of years at the organisation.

In terms of altruism, statistically significant differences, at the 5% level of significance were found between less than 5 years and the 6-10 years at the organisation group (p= 0.024).

In terms of sportsmanship, statistically significant differences, at the 1% level of significance, were found between less than 5 years and the 6-10 years at the organisation groups (p= 0.005). Statistically significant differences, at the 5% level of significance, were found between the 6-10 and 11+ groups (0.014).

In terms of civic virtue, statistically significant differences, at the 5% level of significance, were found between the less than 5 years groups and 11+ at the organisation groups (p= 0.024).

In terms of altruism, in terms of sportsmanship, statistically significant differences, at the 1% level of significance, were found between the 6-10 years at the organisation groups and 11+ groups (p= 0.004).

Table 6.54: Tukey HSD Multiple Comparison Post Hoc Test for number of years at the organisation

Dependent Variable			Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
		6 – 10 years	.37004*	0,13542	0,018	0,0516	0,6885
OCB Civic virtue	Less than 5 years	6 – 10 years	.21909*	0,09125	0,044	0,0045	0,4337
		11 + years	.22924*	0,08701	0,024	0,0246	0,4339
	6 – 10 years	Less than 5 years	-.21909*	0,09125	0,044	-0,4337	-0,0045
		11 + years	0,01015	0,07606	0,990	-0,1687	0,1890
	11 + years	Less than 5 years	-.22924*	0,08701	0,024	-0,4339	-0,0246
		6 – 10 years	-0,01015	0,07606	0,990	-0,1890	0,1687
Sportsmanship	Less than 5 years	6 – 10 years	.29773*	0,09412	0,005	0,0764	0,5191
		11 + years	0,07706	0,08975	0,667	-0,1340	0,2881
	6 – 10 years	Less than 5 years	-.29773*	0,09412	0,005	-0,5191	-0,0764
		11 + years	-.22067*	0,07845	0,014	-0,4052	-0,0362
	11 + years	Less than 5 years	-0,07706	0,08975	0,667	-0,2881	0,1340
		6 – 10 years	.22067*	0,07845	0,014	0,0362	0,4052
Altruism	Less than 5 years	6 – 10 years	0,16950	0,07622	0,068	-0,0097	0,3487
		11 + years	-0,03537	0,07268	0,878	-0,2063	0,1356
	6 – 10 years	Less than 5 years	-0,16950	0,07622	0,068	-0,3487	0,0097
		11 + years	-.20486*	0,06353	0,004	-0,3543	-0,0555
	11 + years	Less than 5 years	0,03537	0,07268	0,878	-0,1356	0,2063
		6 – 10 years	.20486*	0,06353	0,004	0,0555	0,3543

- **Job level**

The hypothesis to be tested is:

H26: There are statistically significant differences between the job level groups with regards to each of the dimensions of OCB.

The Kruskal-Wallis one way analysis of variance by ranks test was used to test the differences between the job level groups.

The categories for administrative staff in levels P6-P7 and P8-P12 were combined in this analysis. The “other” category could not form part of the analysis as the number of participants (n<5) were too low for the Kruskal test.

Table 6.55 presents the results for the statistically significant differences between the various job level groups with regards to the OCB dimensions using the Kruskal-Wallis test.

Table 6.55: Kruskal-Wallis Test for Job Level

	Kruskal-Wallis H	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Rank			
				Admin staff (P6-P7 and P8-P12)	Academic staff (P5-P9)	(Managerial staff P1-P7)	Professional Support
OCB							
Sense of duty and consideration	1.723	3	0.632	214.85	231.65	219.42	236.46
Civic virtue	10.144	3	0.017	236.42	210.61	246.48	148.96
Sportsmanship	23.771	3	0.000	255.59	194.40	246.65	182.92
Altruism	9.835	3	0.020	244.41	206.09	238.10	184.58

The Kruskal-Wallis test revealed the following results:

- There were no statistical significant differences between job level groups with regard to the OCB dimension: sense of duty and consideration.

A statistically significant difference was found at the 5% (p≤0.05) level of significance between job level groups with regard to the following dimensions:

- Civic virtue (OCB) - Managerial staff (P1-P7) (246.48) indicated the highest mean rank (263.63), followed by administrative staff (P6-P7 and P8-P12) (236.42) and academic staff (P5-P9) (210.61). Professional support staff indicated the lowest mean (148.96) The results imply that managerial staff tend

to agree more regarding the civic virtue dimension than the other job level groups and professional support staff tend to agree the least of all the groups

- Sportsmanship (OCB) - Managerial staff (P1-P7) (246.65) indicated the highest mean rank (263.63), followed by administrative staff (P6-P7 and P8-P12) (236.42) and academic staff (P5-P9) (194.40). Professional support staff indicated the lowest mean (182.92). The results imply that managerial staff tend to agree more regarding the sportsmanship dimension than the other job level groups and professional support staff tend to agree the least of all the groups.
- Altruism (OCB)- Administrative staff ((P6-P7 and P8-P12) indicated the highest mean rank (244.41), followed by managerial staff (P1-P7) (238.10) and academic staff (P5-P9) (206.09). Professional support staff indicated the lowest mean (184.58). The results imply that administrative staff tend to agree more regarding the altruism dimension than the other job level groups and professional support staff tend to agree the least of all the groups

6.9 INTERPRETATION AND INTEGRATION OF RESULTS

This section provides an interpretation and integration of results with the literature review. The interpretation of the mean scores for the leadership, employee empowerment and OCB variables are also presented. A summary on the decisions regarding the hypotheses of the study is also included.

6.9.1 Research Objective 1

This section presents the interpretation and integration of results for research objective 1: To determine the factors that impact on leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB in an open distance higher education institution.

- ***Leadership***

Four factors were identified under the leadership variable.

Interpersonal relationships relate to the Ohio State leadership studies, particularly the consideration dimension of leader behaviour. Consideration concerns leaders demonstrating behaviour characterised by friendship, mutual trust, respect and good

interpersonal relationships. Leaders who display this behaviour are compassionate, acknowledge employees' ideas and offer them the opportunity to take part in decision-making (Hitt et al., 2017). Most respondents agreed with the items pertaining to interpersonal relationships (M=4.04). These results suggest that respondents regarded interpersonal relationships as an important element of leadership and that leaders engaged in them.

Task orientation relates to Fiedler's Contingency Theory of leadership effectiveness. Leaders who are task-oriented make task accomplishment their first priority and good relationships with employees their second priority (George & Jones, 2012). Most respondents slightly agreed with the items pertaining to task orientation (M=4.25). These results suggest that most respondents believed task orientation was important as a leadership quality and that their leaders adhered to work activities, processes, and systems, met deadlines, and prioritised task accomplishment.

Competence is associated with trait theory, which holds that leaders must possess intelligence to understand complex information and demonstrate integrity in their actions. In today's work environment, leaders need to show openness (Hitt et al., 2017). According to Yukl (2020), leaders need to demonstrate emotional stability and maturity in the workplace. In addition, managers require business skills to be competent in the workplace. The majority of respondents believed in the importance of competence and were of the opinion that the necessary competence was displayed by supervisors (M=4.17). They were confident that their supervisors have the intelligence, maturity, integrity, and skills to complete tasks. In a study by Mumford, Campion and Morgeson (2007), strategic and business skills were found to be important for higher-level managers. The study revealed that strategic and business skills were regarded as extremely important and preferred over interpersonal skills.

Factors such as vision and goal orientation are associated with the charismatic leadership style. Charismatic leadership limits the use of power, aligns group members' values with the leader's values, and devises and achieves goals that benefit the group. A charismatic leader is more valued when they have a vision of the future. These leaders are dedicated to the vision and inspire their followers when communicating it (Choi, 2006; Dubrin, 2015). Most respondents regarded vision and goal orientation as an important leadership trait (M = 4.24).

The results indicate that respondents regarded task orientation and vision and goal orientation behaviours as critical in leadership. The results also indicated that most supervisors in the Open Distance Higher Education institution displayed these leadership behaviours in the workplace.

- ***Employee Empowerment***

Three factors were identified under the employee empowerment variable.

Without a doubt, autonomy and participation in decision-making are necessary for employees to be effective in their jobs. Autonomy and decision-making were identified as important factors in employee empowerment. According to Ghosh (2013), empowered employees require power, autonomy and involvement in decision-making to achieve high performance. This facilitates their ability to grow and develop within the organisation. Most respondents identified autonomy and decision-making (M=4.17) as important to employee empowerment.

Managers need to provide employees with assurance and support to develop their own power (Wood et al., 2013). According to Ghosh (2013), a lack of support from top management can render employee empowerment ineffective. Most respondents reported positively on the importance of management support (M=4.07). The results indicate that most respondents were satisfied with the management support provided and acknowledged its importance in the organisation. This aligns with the findings from Kerppola-Pesu, Halme, Pietilä and Perälä (2016), which revealed that most respondents indicated they received good support from management.

Access to information and resources is another important factor in empowering employees. Access to information and resources is necessary to perform duties in the workplace. Organisations must make information widely available to their employees so they can use it to perform their jobs more effectively. Providing accurate information eliminates doubts and increases employees' knowledge, enabling informed decisions (Kennedy & Scleifer, 2015). Employees emphasised the importance of access to information and resources (M=3.96) in being empowered. The results imply that most respondents believed they did not have adequate information and resources to perform their jobs. Research conducted by Fernandez and Moldogaziev (2013) indicates that employee empowerment practices, such as sharing information,

resources, rewards and authority with employees, have both a direct and definite impact on employee performance.

The highest mean score was achieved for autonomy and decision-making. It is apparent that employees in the Open Distance Higher Education institution are given autonomy and decision-making powers when it comes to serving the students. University staff are given the freedom to make decisions on their supervisors' behalf or to implement suggestions in their work environment.

- ***OCB***

Four factors were identified under the OCB variable.

Altruism was identified within the OCB variable and related to one of its dimensions. According to Pradhan and Mishra (2019), altruistic behaviour is necessary to shape the future of students. It was also found that university staff demonstrated OCB behaviours towards colleagues, the organisation, and students. Most respondents agreed with the items pertaining to altruism (M=5.24). The results imply that most respondents believed they displayed altruistic behaviour in terms of helping others and the organisation. This finding is in line with Zehir, Müceldili, Altindağ, Şehitoğlu and Zehir (2014), where most respondents agreed with the items of altruism.

Civic virtue was identified as a factor within the OCB variable and relates to one of its dimensions. Employees who demonstrate civic virtue tend to be productive and contribute to the decision-making process. Civic virtue involves caring for the organisation's welfare and displaying positive behaviours. Employees with civic virtue adhere to policies and regulations and participate in activities that contribute to organisational success (Organ, 1988; Ozahin & Sudak, 2015; Hiroaki, 2015, in Siang, 2017). However, Zehir (2014) reported a neutral response regarding civic virtue. Most respondents slightly agreed with the items pertaining to civic virtue (M=4.83). The results imply that most respondents believed they displayed OCB with regard to civic virtue.

The factor of *sense of duty and consideration* was identified in the OCB variable and relates to the OCB dimensions. Acvi (2016) describes sense of duty and responsibility as an individual's ability to fulfil their duty to the organisation efficiently and effectively.

The element of consideration refers to “showing concern” and “being kind to others”. It is related to the dimension of courtesy. Courtesy entails safeguarding employees from future problems. This could relate to simple activities to help others (Organ, 1994 in Jex & Britt, 2014; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter, 1990). Most of the respondents agreed with the items pertaining to sense of duty and consideration (M=5.32). The results indicate that most respondents believed that they expressed dutifulness and consideration towards others.

Sportsmanship was identified as a component of OCB and relates to its dimensions. It refers to behaviour in which employees do not complain about minor issues. It involves maintaining a positive outlook and being tolerant of minor issues and inconveniences in the organisation (Wan, 2016). Most respondents slightly agreed with the items pertaining to sportsmanship (M=4.62). The results imply that most respondents believed they demonstrated sportsmanship in the organisation.

The highest mean score was attained for *sense of duty and consideration*. It is apparent that most employees displayed more sense of duty and consideration compared to the other dimensions of OCB. The results could mean that university staff believe it is their duty to perform their tasks, such as answering emails. These actions ensure that students receive the support they need to engage in their studies. The results could also mean that respondents have the utmost consideration for others and are willing to provide support to colleagues so that they can conduct their jobs with ease.

6.9.2 Research Objective 2

This section presents the interpretation and integration of results for Research Objective 2:

To investigate the empirical relationship between leadership and OCB in an open distance higher education institution.

In this study, positive relationships were found between the leadership dimensions: competence, interpersonal relationships, task orientation, and vision and goal orientation; and the OCB dimensions: altruism, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. The results for structural equation modelling indicated a significant positive relationship between the leadership dimension: vision and goal orientation, and the OCB dimension: altruism.

An interesting finding was that there was no significant relationship between leadership (competence, interpersonal relationships, task orientation and vision and goal orientation) and one dimension of OCB: sense of duty and consideration. The finding could be attributed to the employee's own motivation to assist others or the organisation and is not dependent on their leaders' influence. In other words, employees feel they don't need to be motivated by their leaders to perform their duties or assist co-workers for the organisation's benefit. Employees in the Open Distance Higher Education Institution have it in their nature to be dutiful and considerate.

Overall, the correlation analysis indicated a positive relationship between leadership and OCB. The findings of this study are consistent with many previous studies. According to Zehir et al. (2014), charismatic leadership was significantly positively related to OCB. When a leader is sensitive to staff's feelings, establishes goals, and maintains positive relationships with staff, they are most likely to help others and exhibit OCB. The findings of Afsar (2014) in Veloen (2016), as well as those of Sandada and Zungu (2016), indicate that leadership styles and characteristics lead to OCB through altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. Mahembe and Englelbrecht (2014) found significant relationships between servant leadership and OCB. This study emphasised that OCB will not occur when principals' leadership style is disliked. Newman et al. (2017) found positive relationships between servant leadership and OCB, which was mediated by the leader-member exchange theory. Hendriks (2017) found positive relationships between transformational leadership and OCB. Hackett, Wang, Chen, Cheng, and Farh (2018) explain that leadership influences OCB within the organisation. Leadership behaviours, including consideration, initiating structure, contingent rewards, and transformational leadership, were related to OCB.

The findings of previous and current studies indicate that leadership plays a significant role in promoting OCB within the organisation. Various leadership styles and theories can influence an employee's inclination to participate in OCB activities.

In this study, positive relationships were found between all three dimensions of employee empowerment: autonomy and decision-making, management support autonomy and decision-making; and three of the OCB variables: altruism, civic virtue, and sportsmanship.

An interesting finding was that there were no significant relationships between the employee empowerment dimensions: autonomy and decision-making, management support and access to information and resources and one dimension of OCB: sense of duty and consideration. As stated earlier, employees in the Open Distance Higher Education Institution take pride in their duties and in serving students, who are seen as a priority. The desire for autonomy and decision-making power in the workplace is not necessary in order to motivate them to be dutiful and show consideration towards others.

Overall, the correlation analysis indicated a positive relationship between employee empowerment and OCB. Similar to the findings in this study, many researchers (Jha, 2014; Zhong et al., 2011; Lin, 2013) found a strong relationship between employee empowerment and altruism, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, courtesy, and civic virtue. Munir and Shah (2013) found a positive relationship between supervisory support and OCB in an Open Learning Distance institution in Pakistan. The study stipulated that supervisor support fosters a trusting relationship between supervisors and employees, thereby leading to OCB.

A study conducted in Indonesian universities revealed significant correlations between certain dimensions of lecturer empowerment and OCB. The study found relationships between participatory decision-making and the OCB dimensions (Suriansyah et al., 2019). Kosar (2017) also reported similar findings and further indicated that when employees feel empowered and satisfied at work, their commitment levels increase, resulting in greater support for their colleagues. This will also lead to collaboration with other employees and commitment to additional organisational activities.

Newman et al. (2017) reported contradictory results regarding the relationship between empowerment and OCB. The study revealed that empowerment did not lead to employees performing discretionary behaviour.

Most findings from previous studies and the current study indicate that employee empowerment is necessary for employees to engage in OCB. Enough management support, the provisioning of resources and information, and opportunities for autonomy and decision-making in the Open Distance Higher Education institution can inspire university staff to engage in OCB.

6.9.3 Research Objective 3

This section presents the interpretation and integration of the results for Research Objective 3: to investigate the mediating role of employee empowerment in the relationship between leadership and OCB.

- **The mediating effects of autonomy and decision-making on the relationship between leadership and OCB**

The hypothesis was supported, with autonomy and decision-making acting as mediators between all leadership dimensions (interpersonal relationship, task orientation, competence, vision and goal orientation) and the OCB dimensions of sense of duty and consideration. Although research on the specific factors is limited, Yang and Zhu (2016) found that empowerment partially mediated the relationship between charismatic leadership and OCB. The study recommended that leaders should trust their employees, give them a sense of freedom, and involve them in decision-making, as this would lead to greater empowerment. Park (2016) reported that autonomy provides employees with the freedom to use organisational resources, enabling them to assist the organisation and colleagues. Another study by Pattnaik and Shahoo (2021) indicated that autonomy partially mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and OCB.

The leadership-membership exchange theory depends on high-quality supervisor-subordinate relationships, characterised by support and trust, access to information, and participation in decision-making. These high-quality relationships motivate

employees to take on responsibilities beyond their job descriptions (Boockoff, 2016; Inanc, 2018). A study among nurses found that most nurses experience moderate empowerment, which may be due to limited support from supervisors and a lack of participation in decision-making (Mohamed, Morsi & Mahmoud, 2020).

The results did not support the hypothesis that autonomy and decision-making mediated the relationships between the leadership dimensions (interpersonal relationships, task orientation, competence) and the OCB dimension of civic virtue. There were no specific studies that addressed these factors; a study by Pohl et al. (2012) showed that autonomy had a significant impact on OCB – civic virtue. The study by Jha (2014) found that transformational leadership and OCB, including civic virtue, were influenced by empowerment when empowerment was high. Another study also found significant positive relationships between leadership and OCB, including the dimension civic virtue, with the mediating effect of psychological empowerment (Ghalavi & Nastiezaie, 2020).

The results support the hypothesis that autonomy and decision-making mediate the relationships between the leadership dimensions (competence, task orientation, and vision and goal orientation) and the OCB dimension (sportsmanship). There were no specific studies that addressed these factors; however, Sahab et al. (2018) found that psychological empowerment mediated the relationship between empowering leadership and OCB, including the sportsmanship dimension. Jha (2014) also indicated that employees with higher levels of psychological empowerment, under the guidance of transformational leaders, are more likely to engage in OCB. The study by Khusanova et al. (2019) found that employees influenced by transformational leaders are highly empowered. Furthermore, the study revealed that employees are more likely to engage in OCB when transformational leaders are empowering.

The results support only the hypothesis that autonomy and decision-making mediate the relationships between the leadership dimensions (competence, task orientation, and vision and goal orientation) and the OCB dimension (altruism). There were no specific studies that addressed these factors; however, a study conducted among school teachers claimed that the servant leadership demonstrated by school principals is mainly responsible for teachers' psychological empowerment and OCB, including altruism (Van der Hoven, Mahembe & Hamman-Fisher, 2021). The study by Hassan

et al. (2021) indicated that empowerment mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and OCB, including altruism.

- **The Mediating effects of management support on the relationship between leadership and OCB**

The results support the hypothesis that management support mediates between all leadership dimensions (interpersonal relationship and task orientation, competence and vision, and goal orientation) and the OCB dimension (sense of duty and consideration). There were no specific studies that addressed these factors; however, a study by Tan and Lee (2020) indicated that the support provided by transformational leaders can motivate employees to perform beyond job expectations. Another study found a significant positive relationship between supervisory support and OCB. It was also stated that employees view support as an additional resource that motivates them to perform extra duties in the organisation (Abdullah & Marican, 2020).

The results support the hypothesis: management support mediates between all leadership dimensions (interpersonal relationships, task orientation, vision and goal orientation) and the OCB dimension (civic virtue). There were no specific studies that addressed these factors; however, Abdullah and Marican (2020) emphasised in their study that supervisory support enables employees to feel valued, as they view the workplace as a supportive unit, which encourages them to perform additional roles in the organisation. According to Ahadi and Suandi (2014), universities that offer a supportive work climate can improve an academic's commitment to the organisation.

The results support the hypothesis that management support acts as a mediator across all leadership dimensions: interpersonal relationship, task orientation, competence and vision, goal orientation, and sportsmanship. A study by Sinha and Negi (2021) indicated that employers who demonstrate supportive behaviour, for example, by caring for their employees, can foster an environment of trust within the organisation. Employees therefore have confidence in the organisation, which may result in greater engagement in OCB. Furthermore, in this study, sportsmanship was found to have the lowest correlation with perceived organisational support (Sinha & Negi, 2021).

The results support the hypothesis, *management support as a mediator between all leadership dimensions, interpersonal relationship, task orientation, competence, vision and goal orientation and sportsmanship*. A study by Narzary and Palo (2015) indicated that there was a significant positive relationship between access to support and OCB including altruism. The results suggest that increased supervisor support can lead to more OCB. The study by Jha (2014) proved that there was a significant positive relationship between transformational leadership and OCB including the dimension: altruism when there was an increase in empowerment. The study by Abdullah & Marican (2020) revealed that positive significant relationships between supervisory support and OCB.

It is apparent that management support mediates the relationship between most leadership and OCB dimensions. According to Abouraia & Othman (2017), an employee's performance can be enhanced through excellent leadership and leaders who support the organisation in achieving organisational goals. Structural empowerment, such as support from leaders, can facilitate learning and growth among employees, which is vital to ensuring they become more engaged in the workplace. The more engaged employees are in the work environment, the more likely they are to go beyond their work expectations (Amor, Vazquez & Faína, 2019; Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Kanter, 1977). Ahmad, Majid and Zin (2015) identified transformational leadership as a style that supports and directs employees towards organisational goals, thereby improving employees' commitment to the organisation. It can be inferred that leaders must provide employees with the necessary support so they can perform their tasks and engage in activities beyond their job descriptions.

- **The mediating effects of access to information and resources in the relationship between leadership and OCB**

The results support the hypothesis that access to information and resources serves as a mediator across all leadership dimensions: interpersonal relationships, vision and goal orientation, *and sense of duty and consideration.* According to a study by Amor et al. (2019), transformational leadership and structural empowerment (access to information and resources) are more likely to motivate employees to become more involved in the organisation, especially in today's changing business environment. The

study further indicated that when transformational leaders provided information and resources, employees were more likely to become committed and interested in work.

The results do not support the hypothesis, *access to information and resources as a mediator between all leadership dimensions: interpersonal relationship, task orientation, competence and vision and goal orientation and civic virtue and altruism.* This finding contradicts some studies that found empowerment mediates the relationship between leadership and OCB dimensions. According to a study by Amor et al. (2019), transformational leadership and structural empowerment (access to information and resources) are more likely to motivate employees to become more involved in the organisation, especially in today's changing business environment. Another study concluded that structural empowerment, such as access to information and resources, reinforces the work environment and relates to organisational citizenship behaviour-organisation (OCBO), which is beneficial to the organisation (Jaffery & Farooq, 2015). Academics who have access to information and resources will be able to make decisions swiftly. They can also provide other academics with information to help them excel in the workplace (Ahadi & Suandi, 2014; Kanter, 1979). A study by Narzary and Palo (2015) indicated that there was a significant positive relationship between access to information and OCB, including civic virtue and altruism.

The results support the hypothesis that access to information and resources mediates between leadership dimensions: interpersonal relationships and vision and goal orientation, and sportsmanship. According to Inanc (2018), employees who experience high-quality supervisor-subordinate relationships gain access to information and resources and have an empowering relationship with their supervisors. These empowering relationships can enhance OCB, including sportsmanship.

It is apparent that access to information and resources mediates the relationship between most leadership dimensions and the OCB dimensions: sense of duty and consideration, and sportsmanship. Access to information and resources assists employees in their development in the workplace, and leaders are responsible for creating a work environment that will lead to favourable results for the individual and the organisation (Cummings et al., 2010; Kanter, 1977).

Studies investigating the mediating effect of empowerment on the relationship between leadership and OCB found positive results. Jha's (2014) study demonstrated a significant positive relationship between transformational leadership and OCB as empowerment increased. However, in this study, negative relationships were found for most factors relating to the mediating effect of management support on leadership and OCB. The only statistically significant positive relationship was between the leadership dimension of competence and the OCB dimensions of sense of duty, sportsmanship, altruism and civic virtue when management support increased.

This is supported by Yang and Zhu (2016), who reported that empowerment partially mediated the relationship between charismatic leadership and OCB. They recommended that leaders trust their employees, give them a sense of freedom, and involve them in decision-making, as these actions would lead to greater empowerment. In the current study, the employee empowerment dimension of autonomy and decision-making played a mediating role across most leadership dimensions and OCB. Statistically significant relationships were found for most of the relationships examined. The only positive statistical significance was observed between the leadership dimension of competence and the OCB dimensions of sense of duty and consideration, sportsmanship, altruism, and civic virtue, when autonomy and decision-making increased.

Empowerment and empowering leadership behaviours are related to OCB-organisation (OCBO). The study by Jaffery and Farooq (2015) concluded that structural empowerment establishes a stable working climate by providing employees with access to information, support, and resources, thereby creating a strong relationship with OCBO. According to Laschinger (2007), support and resources are strategies that organisations can use to increase employee empowerment, which may also increase OCB. In this study, the employee empowerment dimension of access to information and resources had a mediating effect on some dimensions of leadership and OCB, as statistically significant relationships were found. The only positive statistical significance was found between the leadership dimension competence and the OCB dimensions: sense of duty and consideration, sportsmanship, altruism and civic virtue when there is an increase in autonomy and decision making.

6.9.4 Research Objective 4

This section presents the interpretation and integration of results for Research Objective 4: To determine whether respondents differed significantly in leadership, employee empowerment and OCB by gender, age, race, qualifications, number of years at the organisation and job level.

- **Gender**

The results reveal that there were no significant differences between males and females with regard to all OCB dimensions. This contradicts the findings of Newman et al. (2017), which reported a relationship between gender and OCB. The study showed that males presented higher levels of OCB than females. In the teaching environment, another study found that female teachers showed more OCB than male teachers (Wang'eri, Tumuti and Otanga, 2014). Punia and Shyam (2017) also found significant differences between males and females. Females engaged more in altruistic behaviours and were more conscientious than males. Males, on the other hand, exhibited more behaviours relating to civic virtue and sportsmanship.

The results of the current study align with the findings of Pradhan and Mishra (2019). The study found no significant differences between men and women in OCB within the academic context. It can be presumed that, irrespective of gender, employees in the Open Distance Higher Education institution go beyond the call of duty to serve students, colleagues, and the institution. All employees in the institution perceive that expressing OCB is the right thing to do and a way of helping each other.

- **Age**

The results reveal significant differences across age groups in the OCB dimension of civic virtue. Various studies have found significant differences between age groups and OCB, including the dimension of civic virtue. The study by Mitonga-Monga et al. (2017) showed significant differences across age groups in altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. The findings from

Profili, Sammarra and Innocenti (2016) indicate that age was related to OCB in terms of altruism. In a study at a higher learning institution, a very weak relationship was found between age and OCB. It was suggested that higher learning institutions should not rely on personal characteristics such as age to improve OCB, and that psychological and situational factors should be taken into consideration (Mohammad, Habthere were significant positive

However, the study by Bahrami, Montazeralfaraj, Hashemi, and Dehghani (2013), indicated that age had no effect on OCB.

- **Race**

There was a statistically significant difference between race groups in altruism, civic virtue and sportsmanship. Although the race groups varied in their responses to altruism, civic virtue and sportsmanship, a closer analysis indicated that African, Coloured and Indian respondents engage more in OCB activities, such as altruism, than White respondents. Furthermore, African, White and Indian respondents engage more in OCB activities, such as sportsmanship, than Coloured respondents.

A study by Garcia, DiDona, Santos, Gonzalez and Garcia (2017) found differences in culture and levels of OCB. The study suggested that understanding and embracing different cultures can benefit an organisation. Another study by Hsiao, Auld and Ma (2015) found that high levels of ethnic diversity were associated with stronger job performance and OCB. However, a study by Mahnaz, Mehdi, Jafar and Abbolghasem (2013) found no significant differences between ethnicity and OCB.

- **Qualification**

There was a significant relationship between qualification and the factors of sportsmanship and altruism. The results revealed that respondents with matric, diploma, and certificate qualifications were more likely to display altruistic behaviour and demonstrate sportsmanship in the organisation than those with degrees. Mitonga-Monga et al. (2017) reported significant differences between education levels and OCB, particularly regarding altruism, courtesy,

conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. However, this study found that higher-qualified respondents were more likely to engage in OCB, which contradicts the current findings. Gyekye, Haybatollahi, Stokes and Stokes (2015) reported that OCB increased with education level.

While the current study and other related studies found significant differences between qualification and OCB, a study by Uzonwanne (2014) investigating OCB and demographic factors among oil workers in Nigeria found no significant differences between educational levels and OCB.

- **Number of years at the organisation**

There was a statistically significant difference between the number of years at the organisation and the factors altruism, sportsmanship and civic virtue. The results indicate that respondents employed for more than 11 years and less than 5 years tend to display altruistic behaviour in the organisation, whereas those employed for 1-10 years are less likely to exhibit altruism in the workplace. With regard to civic virtue and sportsmanship, respondents employed for less than 5 years and those employed for 11+ years are more likely to display behaviours of civic virtue and sportsmanship in the organisation, while those employed between 6-10 were less likely to engage in behaviours related to civic virtue. A study by Mitonga-Monga et al. (2017) found significant differences among tenure, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. The more experienced employees displayed higher levels of OCB than the less experienced employees. The study also found no significant difference between tenure and altruism, contradicting this study. A study by Pradhan and Mishra (2019) also showed significant differences between tenure and civic virtue. The study inferred that as the employees' tenure increased, civic virtue improved.

In the current study, significant differences were found between the number of years at the organisation and OCB. The findings are in line with those of Mohammad et al. (2010), who found positive associations between tenure and OCB in an educational institution. However, a closer analysis of the results indicated a positive correlation between job tenure and positive attitudes and behaviours. This study indicated that short tenure was related to OCB, and that

long-serving employees were less concerned with assisting the organisation and colleagues in times of difficulties.

- **Job level**

Significant differences were found only between job-level groups and civic virtue, sportsmanship and altruism. The results suggest that the academic and professional support staff showed the lowest levels of civic virtue, sportsmanship and altruism in the organisation, while the remaining respondents (managerial and administrative staff) were more likely to exhibit these behaviours. This could be attributed to the fact that academics and professional support staff are overburdened with their job tasks and may be demotivated, which could explain the lack of civic virtue, sportsmanship and altruism in the Open Distance Higher Education institution. The findings are consistent with those of Aras and Jufri (2021), which found significant differences between job position and OCB. The study revealed that employees in supervisory positions exhibited greater levels of OCB, which is also similar to the findings in the current study.

The results also indicate that there were no significant differences between job level and the OCB dimension of sense of duty and responsibility. Irrespective of employees' positions in the organisation, they believe in engaging in OCB through a sense of duty and consideration. In the study by Pradhan and Mishra (2019), there were no significant differences between job category and OCB. On the contrary, another study in the university setting showed significant differences between job rank and OCB. Lecturers engaged more in OCB than associate professors. This finding was attributed to differences in workload and the limited time available to perform their duties (Dirican & Erdil, 2016).

6.10 SUMMARY

This chapter presented the results of the exploratory analysis and descriptive statistics. The results of the correlational analysis were also presented. Inferential statistics, including the student t-test, Kruskal-Wallis test and ANOVA, were conducted to investigate significant differences between demographic information and the variables of the study. The results of the structural equation modelling provided insights into the interrelationships among the variables of leadership, employee

empowerment and OCB. The chapter concluded with the interpretation and integration of the results. The next chapter presents the conclusions and recommendations based on the findings of the research.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides recommendations for promoting OCB within an open distance higher education institution through leadership and employee empowerment. It outlines the rationale for the study, the conclusions drawn from the literature review and the empirical results, and the practical applications of the findings. Recommendations for future research are also discussed. Contributions at both theoretical and practical levels are presented. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the limitations of the literature review and the empirical results.

7.2 REASONS FOR UNDERTAKING THE RESEARCH

Open Distance Higher Education Institutions always face many challenges, including keeping pace with technological advances and meeting student demands. Academics and other university staff are required to work hard towards achieving the goals set out by the institution to meet changing demands. OCB can play a valuable role if an organisation would like to keep up with changes in the educational climate. It is important to understand what motivates university staff to engage in OCB. There are many variables that impact on OCB; however, this study focused mainly on the influence of leadership and employee empowerment on OCB. It is believed that leaders play a vital role in shaping the attitudes and behaviours of employees. Effective leadership strategies are required to drive OCB within the institution. Leaders need to demonstrate competence, interpersonal skills, task orientation, and be committed to the vision and goals of the organisation. Employees will believe in leaders who possess strong leadership characteristics and, in support of their leaders, be willing to engage in OCB.

Employee empowerment is also important in driving employees to engage in OCB. Employees who feel empowered are more likely to engage in OCB activities. Employees need to be given support and autonomy when carrying out their job tasks, and to be part of the decision-making process in the organisation. In this way, employees will feel valued and believe their managers trust them. Consequently, these

positive feelings and relationships make employees likely to participate in extra-role behaviour in the organisation.

This study is important to an Open Distance Higher Education Institution, which depends on academics and administrative staff to perform tasks that are not formally outlined in job descriptions. The following sections provide the findings and recommendations on the role of leadership on OCB in a higher education environment and the mediating effect of leaders in the relationship between leadership and OCB.

7.3 CONCLUSIONS

Step 9 in the research process focuses on the conclusions drawn from the empirical results and the literature review, as outlined in Chapter 1.

7.3.2 Conclusions based on the empirical results

The conclusions from the empirical results are based on each objective as set out in Chapter 1:

Research Objective 1

To determine the factors that define leadership, employee empowerment and OCB in an open distance higher education institution.

The following conclusions were drawn:

- **Leadership**

The Cronbach's co-efficient alpha was used to test the reliability of the leadership construct. For the leadership construct, the Cronbach's alpha was in the range of 0.9 for all factors: interpersonal relationships, competence, task orientation and vision and goal orientation and was more than satisfactory as it was above the desirable range (0.70). The leadership scale was therefore considered reliable.

The principal axis factor analysis was carried out. The factor loadings for each item were above 0.30 and were considered suitable for inclusion in this study.

- **Employee empowerment**

For the employee empowerment construct, the Cronbach's alpha was in the range of 0.9 for all factors: management support, autonomy and decision-making and access to information and resources. It was more than satisfactory as it was above the desirable range (0.70). The employee empowerment scale was therefore considered reliable.

The factor loadings for each item were above 0.30 and were considered suitable for inclusion in this study.

- **OCB**

For the OCB construct, the Cronbach's alpha was in the range of 0.72 to 0.88. The factors of OCB: altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship and sense of duty and consideration were above the predetermined range (0.70) for this study. The OCB scale was therefore considered reliable.

The factor loadings for each item were above 0.30 and were considered suitable for inclusion in this study.

The results of the Cronbach's Alpha test and the exploratory factor analysis proved that the instrument was valid and reliable in measuring the constructs of leadership, employee empowerment and OCB. The measurement model using the dimensions of leadership (interpersonal relationship, task orientation, competence, and vision and goal orientation), employee empowerment (management support, autonomy and decision-making), and OCB (altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship, and sense of duty and consideration) provided an adequate fit to the data.

Research Objective 2:

To investigate the empirical relationship between leadership and OCB in an open distance higher education institution.

In terms of the empirical relationship between leadership and OCB, the following conclusions can be reached:

The study found significant, positive relationships between all dimensions of leadership (competence, interpersonal relationships, task orientation, and vision and goal orientation) and three of the OCB sub-variables (altruism, civic virtue, and sportsmanship). There were no significant relationships between the leadership dimensions and sense of duty and consideration.

A summary of the achievement of the hypothesis is presented in Table 7.1 below:

Table 7.1: Summary on the outcome of the hypotheses: Leadership and OCB

Research Objective	**Hypothesis**	**Achievement of the hypothesis**
To investigate the empirical relationship between leadership and OCB in an open distance higher education institution	H1a: There is a significant positive relationship between interpersonal relationships and altruism.	**Supported**
	H1b: There is a significant positive relationship between interpersonal relationships and civic virtue.	**Supported**
	H1c: There is a significant positive relationship between interpersonal relationships and sportsmanship.	**Supported**
	H1d: There is a significant positive relationship between interpersonal relationships and sense of duty and consideration.	**Rejected**
	H2a: There is a significant positive relationship between task orientation and altruism.	**Supported**
		Supported

	H2b: There is a significant positive relationship between task orientation and civic virtue.	
	H2c: There is a significant positive relationship between task orientation and sportsmanship.	**Supported**
	H2d: There is a significant positive relationship between task orientation and sense of duty and consideration.	**Rejected**
	H3a: There is a significant positive relationship between competence and altruism.	**Supported**
	H3b: There is a significant positive relationship between competence and civic virtue.	**Supported**
	H3c: There is a significant positive relationship between competence and sportsmanship.	**Supported**
	H3d: There is a significant positive relationship between competence and sense of duty and consideration.	**Rejected**
	H4a: There is a significant positive relationship between vision and goal orientation and altruism.	**Supported**
	H4b: There is a significant positive relationship between vision and goal orientation and civic virtue.	**Supported**
	H4c: There is a significant positive relationship between vision and goal orientation and sportsmanship.	**Supported**
	H4d: There is a significant positive relationship between vision and goal orientation and sense of duty and consideration.	**Rejected**

The following research hypothesis, presented in section 1.6, was therefore partially fulfilled, as positive, significant relationships were not found for all leadership and OCB dimensions.

- There is a significant positive relationship between the leadership dimensions: interpersonal relationships, task orientation, competence and vision and goal orientation and the OCB dimensions: altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship and sense of duty and consideration.

Research Objective 3:

To investigate the mediating role of employee empowerment on the relationship between leadership and OCB.

The study revealed that the employee empowerment dimension of management support acted as a mediator between some leadership and OCB dimensions.

There was a mediating effect of management support in the relationship between interpersonal relationships and the OCB dimensions: altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship, sense of duty and consideration.

There was a mediating effect of management support in the relationship between task orientation and the OCB dimensions: altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship, sense of duty and consideration.

Management support mediated the relationship between competence and the OCB dimensions of altruism and sportsmanship. There were no mediating effects of management support in the relationship between competence and the OCB dimensions: civic virtue and sense of duty and consideration.

There was a mediating effect of management support on the relationship between vision and goal orientation and the OCB dimensions of altruism, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. There were no mediating effects of management support on the relationships between vision and goal orientation and the OCB dimension: sense of duty and consideration.

Table 7.2 presents a summary of the results for the hypotheses regarding management support as a mediator in the relationship between leadership and OCB.

Table 7.2: Summary on the achievement of the hypothesis: Management support as a mediator in the relationship between leadership and OCB

Research Objective	Hypothesis	Achievement of the hypothesis
To investigate the mediating role of employee empowerment on the relationship between leadership and OCB.	H5a: Management support mediates the relationship between interpersonal relationships and altruism.	**Supported**
	H5b: Management support mediates the relationship between interpersonal relationships and civic virtue.	**Supported**
	H5c: Management support mediates the relationship between interpersonal relationships and sportsmanship.	**Supported**
	H5d: Management support mediates the relationship between interpersonal relationships and sense of duty and consideration.	**Supported**
	H6a: Management support mediates the relationship between task orientation and altruism.	**Supported**
	H6b: Management support mediates the relationship between task orientation and civic virtue.	**Supported**
	H6c: Management support mediates the relationship between task orientation and sportsmanship.	**Supported**
	H6d: Management support mediates the relationship between task orientation and sense of duty and consideration.	**Supported**
	H7a: Management support mediates the relationship between competence and altruism.	**Supported**
	H7b: Management support mediates the relationship between competence and civic virtue	**Rejected**
	H7c: Management support mediates the relationship between competence and sportsmanship.	**Supported**
	H7d: Management support mediates the relationship between competence and sense of duty and consideration.	**Rejected**

	H8a: Management support mediates the relationship between vision and goal orientation and altruism.	**Supported**
	H8b: Management support mediates the relationship between vision and goal orientation and civic virtue	**Supported**
	H8c: Management support mediates the relationship between vision and goal orientation and sportsmanship.	**Supported**
	H8d: Management support mediates the relationship between vision and goal orientation and sense of duty and consideration.	**Rejected**

There was a mediating effect of autonomy and decision-making on the relationship between interpersonal relationships and the OCB dimensions of sense of duty and consideration. There were no mediating effects of autonomy and decision-making in the relationship between interpersonal relationships and the OCB dimensions: altruism, civic virtue and sportsmanship.

The findings revealed that autonomy and decision-making mediate the relationship between competence and the OCB dimensions: altruism, sportsmanship and sense of duty and consideration. There were no mediating effects of autonomy and decision-making on the relationship between competence and the OCB dimension of civic virtue.

The findings revealed that autonomy and decision-making mediate the relationship between task orientation and the OCB dimensions: altruism, sportsmanship and sense of duty and consideration. There were no mediating effects of autonomy and decision-making on the relationship between task orientation and the OCB dimension of civic virtue.

The findings revealed that autonomy and decision-making mediate the relationship between vision and goal orientation and the OCB dimensions: altruism, sportsmanship and sense of duty and consideration. There were no mediating effects of autonomy and decision-making on the relationship between competence and the OCB dimension of civic virtue.

Table 7.3 presents a summary of the hypotheses' findings regarding autonomy and decision-making as a mediator in the relationship between leadership and OCB.

Table 7.3: Summary on the achievement of the hypothesis: Autonomy and decision-making as a mediator in the relationship between leadership and OCB

Research Objective	Hypothesis	Achievement of the hypothesis
To investigate the mediating role of employee empowerment on the relationship between leadership and OCB.	H9a: Autonomy and decision making mediate the relationship between interpersonal relationships and altruism.	**Rejected**
	H9b: Autonomy and decision making mediate the relationship between interpersonal relationships and civic virtue.	**Rejected**
	H9c: Autonomy and decision making mediate the relationship between interpersonal relationships and sportsmanship.	**Rejected**
	H9d: Autonomy and decision making mediate the relationship between interpersonal sense of duty and consideration.	**Supported**
	H10a: Autonomy and decision making mediate the relationship between task orientation and altruism.	**Supported**
	H10b: Autonomy and decision making mediate the relationship between task orientation and civic virtue.	**Rejected**
	H10c: Autonomy and decision making mediate the relationship between task orientation and sportsmanship.	**Supported**
	H10c: Autonomy and decision making mediate the relationship between task orientation and sense of duty and consideration.	**Supported**
	H11a: Autonomy and decision making mediate the relationship between competence and altruism.	**Supported**

	H11b: Autonomy and decision making mediate the relationship between competence and civic virtue.	**Rejected**
	H11c: Autonomy and decision making mediate the relationship between competence and sportsmanship.	**Supported**
	H11d: Autonomy and decision making mediate the relationship between competence and sense of duty and consideration.	**Supported**
	H12a: Autonomy and decision making mediate the relationship between vision and goal orientation and altruism.	**Supported**
	H12b: Autonomy and decision making mediate the relationship between vision and goal orientation and civic virtue.	**Rejected**
	H12c: Autonomy and decision making mediate the relationship between vision and goal orientation and sportsmanship.	**Supported**
	H12d: Autonomy and decision making mediate the relationship between vision and goal orientation and sense of duty and consideration.	**Supported**

Access to information and resources mediated the relationship between interpersonal relationships and the OCB dimensions: sense of duty and consideration. Autonomy and decision-making did not mediate the relationship between interpersonal relationships and the OCB dimensions: altruism, civic virtue and sportsmanship.

There were no mediating effects of autonomy and decision-making in the relationship between task orientation and the OCB dimensions: altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship, sense of duty, and consideration.

There were no mediating effects of autonomy and decision-making in the relationship between competence and the OCB dimensions: altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship, sense of duty, and consideration.

There was a mediating effect of access to information and resources in the relationship between vision and goal orientation and the OCB dimensions: sportsmanship and

sense of duty and consideration. There were no mediating effects of autonomy and decision-making on the relationship between interpersonal relationships and the OCB dimensions of altruism and civic virtue.

Table 7.4 presents a summary of the hypotheses' findings regarding autonomy and decision-making as a mediator in the relationship between leadership and OCB.

Table 7.4: Summary on the achievement of the hypothesis: Access to information, goal orientation as amediator in the relationship between leadership and OCB

Research Objective	Hypothesis	Achievement of the hypothesis
To investigate the mediating role of employee empowerment on the relationship between leadership and OCB.	H13a: Access to information and resources mediates the relationship between interpersonal relationships and altruism.	**Rejected**
	H13b: Access to information and resources mediates the relationship between interpersonal relationships and civic virtue.	**Rejected**
	H13c: Access to information and resources mediates the relationship between interpersonal relationships and sportsmanship.	**Rejected**
	H13d: Access to information and resources mediates the relationship between interpersonal relationships and sense of duty and consideration.	**Supported**
	H14a: Access to information and resources mediates the relationship between task orientation and altruism.	**Rejected**
	H14b: Access to information and resources mediates the relationship between task orientation and civic virtue.	**Rejected**
	H14c: Access to information and resources mediates the relationship between task orientation and sportsmanship.	**Rejected**
	H14d: Access to information and resources mediates the relationship	**Rejected**

	between task orientation and sense of duty and consideration.	**Rejected**
	H15a: Access to information and resources mediates the relationship between competence and altruism.	**Rejected**
	H15b: Access to information and resources mediates the relationship between competence and civic virtue.	**Rejected**
	H15c: Access to information and resources mediates the relationship between competence and sportsmanship.	**Rejected**
	H15d: Access to information and resources mediates the relationship between competence and sense of duty and consideration.	**Rejected**
	H16a: Access to information and resources mediates the relationships among vision and goal orientation, and altruism.	**Rejected**
	H16b: Access to information and resources mediates the relationship between vision and goal orientation and civic virtue.	**Supported**
	H16c: Access to information and resources mediates the relationship between vision and goal orientation and sportsmanship.	**Supported**
	H16d: Access to information and resources mediates the relationship between vision and goal orientation and sense of duty and consideration.	

The following research hypothesis, presented in section 1.6, was therefore partially fulfilled, as employee empowerment served only as a mediator for certain leadership and OCB dimensions.

- Employee empowerment (management support, autonomy and decision-making and access to information and resources) has a mediating effect on the

relationship between leadership (interpersonal relationships, task orientation, competence and vision and goal orientation) and OCB (altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship and sense of duty and consideration).

Research Objective 4:

To determine whether the sample respondents differ significantly regarding the dimensions of OCB in terms of the following:

- Gender
- Age
- Race
- Qualification
- Number of years at the organisation
- Job level

The following conclusions were drawn:

a) Gender

There were no statistically significant differences between male and female groups across the dimensions of OCB (altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship, sense of duty, and consideration). The alternative hypothesis is therefore rejected in this study, and the following null hypothesis is accepted:

- There are no statistically significant differences between gender groups with regard to all OCB dimensions.

b) Age

The results reveal that there were no statistically significant differences between age groups and three of the OCB dimensions (altruism, sportsmanship and sense of duty and consideration). In this case, the alternative hypothesis is rejected, and the following null hypotheses are accepted:

- There are no statistically significant differences between age groups with regard to the OCB dimension: altruism.

- There are no statistically significant differences between age groups with regard to the OCB dimension: sportsmanship.
- There are no statistically significant differences between age groups with regards to the OCB dimension: sense of duty and consideration.

However, there were statistically significant differences between age groups with regard to the OCB dimension: civic virtue and therefore the following alternative hypothesis can be accepted:

- There are statistically significant differences between age groups with regard to the OCB dimension: civic virtue.

c) Race

The results reveal that there were no statistically significant differences between race groups and two of the OCB dimensions (altruism and sense of duty and consideration). In this case, the alternative hypothesis is rejected, and the following null hypotheses are accepted:

- There are no statistically significant differences between race groups with regard to the OCB dimension: altruism.
- There are no statistically significant differences between race groups with regard to the OCB dimension: sense of duty and consideration.

However, there were statistically significant differences between race groups and the OCB dimension: civic virtue and sportsmanship and therefore the following alternative hypotheses can be accepted:

- There are statistically significant differences between race groups with regard to the OCB dimension: civic virtue.
- There are statistically significant differences between race groups with regard to the OCB dimension: sportsmanship.

d) Qualification

The results reveal that there were no statistically significant differences between qualification groups and two of the OCB dimensions (civic virtue and sense of duty

and consideration). In this case, the alternative hypothesis is rejected, and the following null hypotheses are accepted:

- There are no statistically significant differences between qualification groups with regard to the OCB dimension: civic virtue.
- There are no statistically significant differences between qualification groups with regard to the OCB dimension: sense of duty and consideration.

However, there was a statistically significant difference between qualification groups and the OCB dimensions: altruism and sportsmanship and therefore the following alternative hypotheses can be accepted:

- There are statistically significant differences between qualification groups with regard to the OCB dimension: altruism.
- There are statistically significant differences between qualification groups with regard to the OCB dimension: sportsmanship.

e) Number of years at the organisation

There were statistically significant differences in the number of years at the organisation across the groups for the OCB dimensions of altruism, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. In this case, the null hypotheses are rejected, and the following alternative hypotheses are accepted:

- There are statistically significant differences between the number of years at the organisation groups with regard to the OCB dimension: altruism.
- There are statistically significant differences between the number of years at the organisation groups with regard to the OCB dimension: sportsmanship.
- There are statistically significant differences between the number of years at the organisation groups with regard to the OCB dimension: civic virtue.

However, there were no statistically significant differences between the number of years at the organisation groups and the OCB dimensions: sense of duty and consideration and therefore the following null hypothesis was accepted:

- There are no statistically significant differences between the number of years at the organisation groups with regard to the OCB dimension: sense of duty and consideration.

f) Job level

There were statistically significant differences among job-level groups in the OCB dimensions of altruism, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. In this case, the null hypotheses are rejected, and the following alternative hypotheses are accepted:

- There are statistically significant differences between job level groups with regard to the OCB dimension: altruism.
- There are statistically significant differences between job level groups with regard to the OCB dimension: sportsmanship.
- There are statistically significant differences between job level groups with regard to the OCB dimension: civic virtue.

However, there were no statistically significant differences between job level groups and the OCB dimension: sense of duty and consideration and therefore the following null hypothesis was accepted:

- There are no statistically significant differences between job level groups with regard to the OCB dimension: sense of duty and consideration.

Table 7.5 represents the summary of findings based on the hypotheses

Table 7.5: Summary on the achievement of the hypothesis: Demographic variables and OCB

Research Objective	**Hypothesis**	**Achievement of the hypothesis**
To determine whether the sample respondents differ significantly regarding the dimensions of OCB in terms of the following factors: ᔓ race	H17a: There are significant differences between race groups with regard to the OCB dimension: altruism. H17b: There are significant differences between race groups	**Rejected** **Supported**

☙ gender ☙ age ☙ qualification ☙ number of years at the organisation; and ☙ job level.	with regard to the OCB dimension: civic virtue. H17c: There are significant differences between race groups with regard to the OCB dimension: sportsmanship. H17d: There are significant differences between race groups with regard to the OCB dimension: sense of duty and consideration. H18a: There are significant differences between gender groups with regard to the OCB dimension: altruism. H18b: There are significant differences between gender groups with regard to the OCB dimension: civic virtue. H18c: There are significant differences between gender groups with regard to the OCB dimension: sportsmanship. H18d: There are significant differences between gender groups with regard to the OCB dimension: sense of duty and consideration. H19a: There are significant differences between age groups with regard to the OCB dimension: altruism. H19b: There are significant differences between age groups with regard to the OCB dimension: civic virtue. H19c: There are significant differences between age groups with regard to the OCB dimension: sportsmanship.	**Supported** **Rejected** **Rejected** **Rejected** **Rejected** **Rejected** **Supported** **Rejected**

	H19d: There are significant differences between age groups with regard to the OCB dimension: sense of duty and consideration.	**Rejected**
	H20a: There are significant differences between qualification groups with regard to the OCB dimension: altruism.	**Supported**
	H20b: There are significant differences between qualification groups with regard to the OCB dimension: civic virtue.	**Rejected**
	H20c: There are significant differences between qualification groups with regard to the OCB dimension: sportsmanship.	**Supported**
	H20d: There are significant differences between qualification groups with regard to the OCB dimension: sense of duty and consideration.	**Rejected**
	H21a: There are significant differences in the number of years at the organisation between the organisation groups regarding the OCB dimension: altruism.	**Supported**
	H21b: There are significant differences between the number of years at the organisation groups with regard to the OCB dimension: civic virtue.	**Supported**
	H21c: There are significant differences between the number of years at the organisation groups with regard to the OCB dimension: sportsmanship.	**Supported**
	H21d: There are significant differences between the number of	**Rejected**

	years at the organisation groups with regard to the OCB dimension: sense of duty and consideration.	
	H22a: There are significant differences between job level groups with regard to the OCB dimension: altruism.	**Supported**
	H22b: There are significant differences between job level groups with regard to the OCB dimension: civic virtue.	**Supported**
	H22c: There are significant differences between job level groups with regard to the OCB dimension: sportsmanship.	**Supported**
	H22d: There are significant differences between job level groups with regard to the OCB dimension: sense of duty and consideration.	**Rejected**

7.3.1 Conclusions based on literature review

The study ultimately aimed to establish the influence of leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB in an open-distance higher education institution.

Conclusions were drawn on each of the objectives:

Research Objective 1:

To conceptualise leadership in an open distance higher education institution.

This objective was achieved by defining the concepts of leadership and comparing leadership and management. Relevant leadership theories and styles were explored

to further explore the concept of leadership. The theories and styles of leadership were discussed in relation to the factors identified in this study: interpersonal relationships, competence, task orientation, and vision and goal orientation.

The following conclusions can be drawn from the literature review with regard to leadership:

- Various studies have established that traits identified in the trait approach are relevant and necessary for an individual to be an excellent leader, but that much depends on the leader taking appropriate action to be successful (Hitt et al., 2017). Regarding the factors identified in this study, a few traits were significant. For example, a leader's drive is essential for goal and vision orientation and integrity; cognitive ability and knowledge of the domain are relevant parts of competence; and extraversion is necessary for interpersonal relationships.
- Behavioural theories of leadership provide opportunities for leadership development by helping leaders become more effective. They foster openness to others' views, inspire, and promote encouragement and support (Salihu, 2019). The Behavioural Theories of leadership were significant for this study, as the University of Michigan studies showed that job-centred leader behaviour was related to task orientation. The focus is on the leader's ability to describe work processes to employees and to accomplish tasks.
- The situational or contingency theory of leadership provides managers with the opportunity to acquire different styles of leadership and to apply the style that is in line with the employee's readiness or the task (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 2013). Two approaches within the situational or contingency style of leadership were discussed in relation to the current study. Firstly, Fiedler's contingency theory of leadership effectiveness focuses on interpersonal relationships and task orientation. The theory demonstrates that leaders can possess relationship-oriented or task-oriented styles. Secondly, Hersey and Blanchard's situational theory identifies various styles of leadership. From this theory, the 'participating style' is of significance to this study. Leaders who can build interpersonal relationships should also motivate employees and ensure they are involved in decision-making in their organisations. In charismatic

leadership, a leader's envisioning behaviour has implications for this study. According to Choi (2006), envisioning involves developing an image of the preferred future state that people can feel enthusiastic about. The charismatic leader is more valued if they have a vision of the future. According to research, the greatest leaders are both charismatic and transactional, and charismatic leadership does not relate to all organisational settings. Research also suggests that developing charisma in individuals is difficult, and the impression charismatic leaders give can lead to job promises that cannot be fulfilled (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2012).

- According to Rahman, Othman, Yajid, Rahman, Yaakob, Masri, Ramli and Ibrahim (2018), strategic leadership is necessary for organisations to survive in an unstable business environment. In this study, a positive relationship was found between strategic leadership, operational excellence, strategic orientation, and business performance. An organisation faces many threats and opportunities, and strategic leadership can lead to effective operations that enable the organisation to function in an uncertain environment.
- Transactional leadership has positive outcomes in an organisation. A study by Shaaban and Shehata (2019) found positive correlations between transactional leadership and employees' resilience and performance. It was noted that positive contingent rewards in transactional leadership can motivate employees to achieve task objectives and engage in problem-solving. The study by Wahyuni, Purwandari, and Syah (2019) found a significant, positive relationship between motivation and employee performance. According to Purwandari (2015), performance is the outcome of task accomplishment. The accomplishment of tasks, or task orientation, is also addressed in this study.
- Transformational leaders are responsible for motivating employees and ensuring commitment to the organisation. Transformational leadership, linked to vision, is the most appropriate form of leadership for bringing about change in an institution (Gelis, 2001; Bryant, 2003; Timothy & Piccolo, 2004; Howell & Avolio, 1993). A study conducted in Greece indicated that leading digital institutions use transformational leadership (*A*ntonopoulou et al., 2021). Transformational leadership is important in goal orientation as it realigns

employees' goals and beliefs with organisational goals (Korejan & Shahbazi, 2016).

- With regards to the leader-member exchange theory, a study by Alo & Arslan (2022) found that employees who have more positive interpersonal relationships can result in higher commitment, job satisfaction and a higher quality leader-member exchange relationship.
- The rapid advancement of technology in the 21st century has brought challenges to the open distance learning environment. Leadership in open distance learning institutions must evolve to keep pace with a changing environment. Open distance learning institution leaders need to work towards building programmes that align with 21st-century technology. Staff must be trained in the latest online teaching technology. Ultimately, open distance learning institutions need to produce graduates who are innovative thinkers and technologically savvy (Tarusikirwa, 2016).

Research Objective 2:

To conceptualise employee empowerment in an open distance higher education institution.

This objective was achieved by defining the concept of employee empowerment. The forms, themes and dimensions of employee empowerment were explored to understand the concept further. The factors that defined employee empowerment in this study were also discussed.

The following conclusions were drawn:

- From the literature review, it can be inferred that employee empowerment is about giving employees autonomy in their job tasks, making employees part of the decision-making process and delegation of management power and responsibilities. According to Lim and Lau (2017), employees involved in job decisions are more likely to experience increased feelings of autonomy and control in the workplace. Autonomy and decision-making were significant factors identified in the current study.

- Employees must be given appropriate feedback to ensure that they are confident enough to carry out their tasks. Kumar and Kumar (2017) indicated that feedback is necessary for effective empowerment.
- Research conducted by Fernandez and Moldogaziev (2013) indicates that employee empowerment practices such as sharing information, resources, rewards, and authority with employees have both direct and definite impact on employee performance. Yildirim and Naktiyok (2017) stated that employee empowerment enables employees to be more responsible and thorough in their tasks.
- Empowerment was responsible for increasing organisational performance as it was reported that sales returns were enhanced when employees were allowed more responsibility and authority over their jobs (Champy, 1997; Hambrick & Frederickson, 2001; Bartlett, 2000, in Gill, 2011).
- Armache (2013) indicated that empowered employees can efficiently solve customer problems, where new sales can be established if employees can deal with customer concerns more efficiently. The organisation's reputation is enhanced due to the service they provide to customers. Addressing customer concerns is important in an open-distance higher education institution, as academics and support staff interact with students daily.
- Employees can be encouraged in many ways. According to Kumar and Kumar (2017), urging employee participation in meetings is also another way to encourage empowerment. According to Roozitalab and Majidi (2017), managers ought to adopt a leadership style that motivates and inspires employees to be creative on the job. Employees require training that inspires thinking and helps them bring about significant changes in their behaviour, attitudes, and the way they perform their tasks (Speegle, 2010). According to Serrat (2010), coaching and mentoring play an effective role in empowering employees and helping them reach their full potential. Coaching and mentoring provide the guidance and inspiration to employees. It increases self-direction and boosts an employee's self-esteem.

Research Objective 3:

To conceptualise OCB in an open distance higher education institution.

This objective was achieved by defining the concept of OCB. The dimensions and predictors were explored to understand the concept of employee empowerment. The factors that defined OCB in this study were also discussed.

The following conclusions were drawn:

- OCB will take place if employees can embrace the values of the organisation (Joubert, Crafford & Schepers, 2004).
- OCB is necessary for organisational effectiveness. OCB is responsible for generating social capital, improving efficiency and productivity, enhancing task coordination, and making it easier for employees to adjust to environmental changes (Somech & Oplatka, 2015).
- OCB can result in cost savings for organisations as employees do not expect financial rewards for the extra time that they take to meet their goals (Cheung & Wong, 2014).
- The five-dimensional model of OCB consisted of dimensions such as altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness (Organ, 1990). Other researchers (Graham, 1991; Optlaka, 2006; Avci, 2016; Pattanayak et al., 2003; Pradhan & Mishra, 2019) identified organisational obedience, compliance, sense of duty and responsibility, helpfulness, thoughtfulness, and organisational ambassador as dimensions of OCB. It can be inferred that there are many dimensions of OCB that researchers can use to measure it.
- The social exchange theory implied that the higher the social exchange relationship, the more likely the employee will engage in OCB (Salas-Vallina, Alegre & Fernandez, 2015).
- In terms of the equity theory and OCB, Ismail, Iqbal and Adeel (2018) found that employees who experienced fair treatment in the organisation and had trust in their supervisor engaged in OCB.
- Researchers such as Mohammad, Habib and Alias (2011); Munir and Shah (2013); Pradhan and Mishra (2019); and Oparinde (2019) found OCB to be present in higher learning institutions and outlined the importance of OCB in providing a service to students. OCB was vital in saving time and resources for the universities.

Research Objective 4:

To determine the theoretical relationship between leadership, employee empowerment and OCB.

The following conclusions were drawn:

The literature review indicated a relationship between leadership and OCB, as well as between employee empowerment and OCB. Leaders who show support and concern for employees motivate them to help others and perform extra-role behaviour, as they feel valued in the organisation (Baek-Kyoo & Sung, 2017). Employees guided by competent leaders are most likely to participate in OCB through altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship (Sandada & Zungu, 2016). Democratic, authentic, paternalistic, transformational, and charismatic leadership styles were found to motivate employees to engage in OCB. The literature review makes clear that leaders need to display trust, support, and concern to influence employees to participate in extra-role behaviour. Furthermore, leaders must recognise employees' efforts and create an organisational climate that inspires them to engage in OCB.

According to the literature review, OCB depends on the extent to which employees are empowered and feel a sense of belonging in the organisation (Yusof, Yaacob & Rahman, 2019). Many researchers (Jha, 2014; Zhong et al., 2011; Lin, 2013) found strong relationships between employee empowerment and altruism, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, courtesy, and civic virtue. These studies revealed that employee empowerment is necessary to facilitate OCB. A study conducted in Indonesian universities found significant correlations between certain dimensions of lecturer empowerment and OCB, including professional growth, competitive urgency to excel, participatory decision-making, competence, compliance and status, and individual resilience. Empowered employees who are given autonomy and decision-making powers are more likely to engage in OCB.

It can be concluded that there is a relationship between leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB. An open distance higher education institution ought to use leadership and employee empowerment to motivate employees to engage in OCB. Leaders should show concern for employees and recognise their efforts, as this can influence an employee's participation in OCB. Employee empowerment through job autonomy and participation in decision-making must be applied in an open distance higher education institution to increase participation in OCB.

This finalises the section on conclusions based on the literature review.

7.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

To formulate recommendations on how to promote OCB within an open distance higher education institution through leadership and employee empowerment.

The recommendations are based on the results, conclusions and limitations of the study:

7.4.1 Recommendations for the open distance higher education institution

Although the research findings were generally positive regarding the presence of certain leadership skills and OCB, it remains imperative to devise interventions that enhance OCB in organisations. Organisations with strong leaders who support and motivate employees and create a climate that empowers them will be able to capitalise on the strengths of their human resources.

The following recommendations are proposed for the Open Distance Higher Education Institution:

- A positive work environment that allows employees to be part of the decision-making process can certainly make an employee feel valued and have a sense of belonging in the organisation. Suggestion boxes could be used, and incentives offered for recommendations that lead to implementation. This will

increase the value of employee contributions and recognise employees as important members of the organisation.

- The organisation should nurture the sense of duty and consideration shown by employees. Leaders should encourage such behaviours in the organisation, as they demonstrate loyalty to the organisation and humanity towards other colleagues. Employees in the organisation need colleagues who care for and trust them. Collegiality and care are among the 11Cs, plus one, in the institution's philosophy of excellence. If the organisation wants collegiality and care to be maintained, then employees should be commended for demonstrating these behaviours.

- Job Autonomy must be embraced in the workplace and should become part of the organisation's culture. University staff must be given the freedom and independence to make suggestions on operational issues. Academics, in particular, want to demonstrate their creativity in developing study material and in how they deliver content. Creativity and freedom will influence employee satisfaction, which can result in OCB.

- Management support plays an important role in encouraging OCB. Employees will be eager to engage in OCB if they receive support from managers. Support can be provided through mentoring and coaching. Mentoring and coaching will also build employees' skills and capabilities, inspiring them not only to perform their jobs but also to take on additional duties in the organisation.

- Leadership styles that encourage OCB must be adopted. The results indicated that employees value goal-oriented leaders, which aligns with the charismatic leadership style. Charismatic leaders are resilient and adept at capturing their audience's interest (Cohan, 2019). They are creative, confident, and able to influence others (Wong, 2017). These characteristics make them effective in interpersonal relationships and in directing employees towards task accomplishment. They are competent at influencing and directing employees toward achieving a vision (Towler, 2019). Charismatic leaders seek innovation and creativity in the workplace. They can encourage employees to display

creativity and innovation in their work (Maric, 2017). In an open-distance higher education institution, a charismatic leadership style will be useful for driving change and improving service quality.

- Leaders need to be trustworthy, as employees who trust their leaders feel secure in their jobs. Employees who feel secure and have a trusting relationship with their supervisors are more likely to engage in extra-role behaviour.

- Supervisors should serve as a role model by exhibiting OCB. In addition to engaging in OCB, leaders should also equip themselves with the necessary skills and knowledge to perform their tasks competently. Employees can only trust a leader if they can rely on his competence to take care of them.

- Employees must always be provided with adequate resources and updated information that will enable them to perform their jobs. Adequate information and resources empower employees and enable them to maximise their efforts.

- The results showed that the more experienced employees in the organisation engaged less in OCB compared to the least experienced employees. Experienced employees should be motivated to engage more in OCB activities, as their experience can be valuable to the organisation's success. Younger employees are often prepared to engage in OCB for career purposes and more experienced employees could be used as mentors.

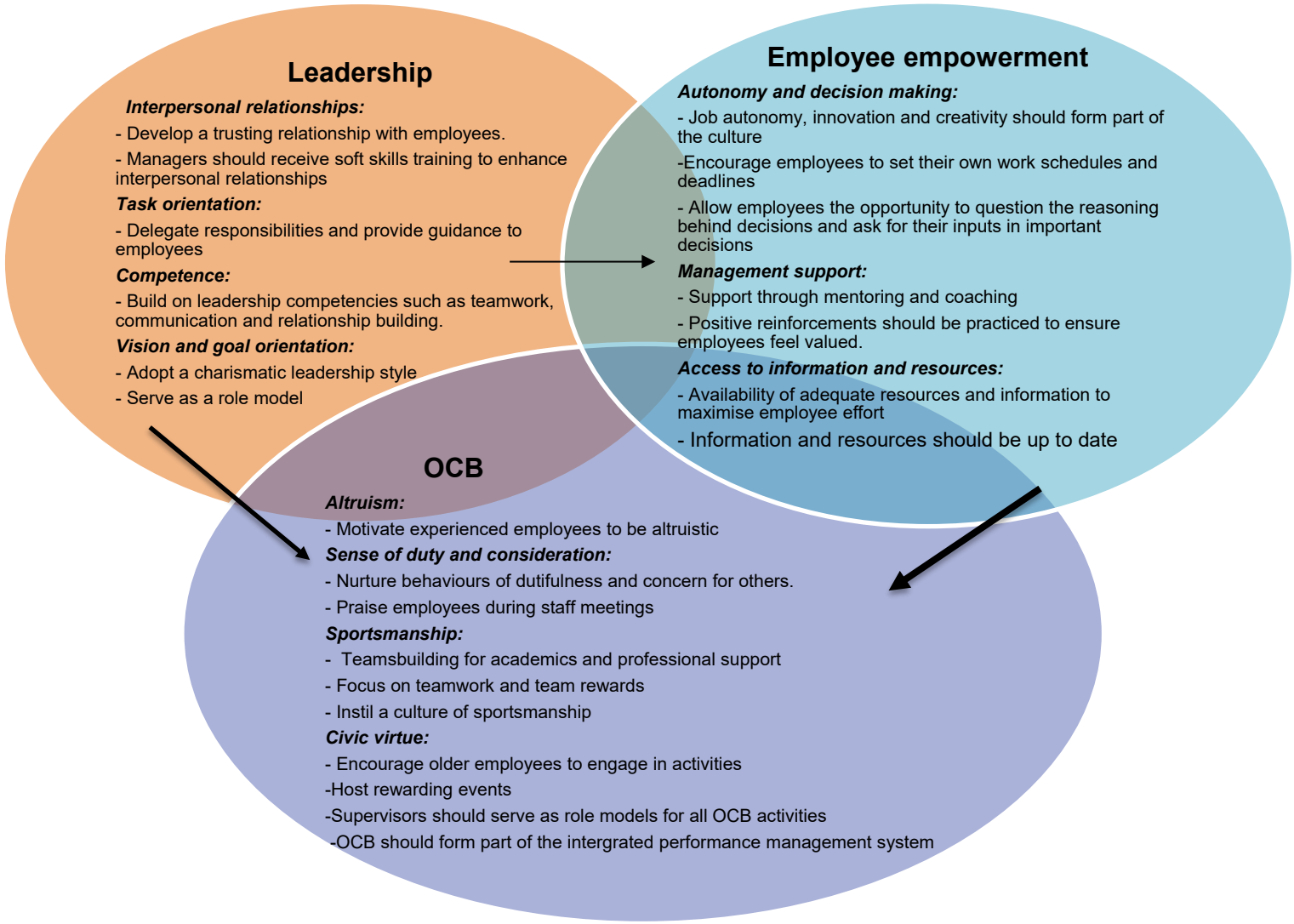
- Academics and professional support staff showed lower levels of sportsmanship. Practices focusing on teamwork and team rewards should be considered. This will create a culture of “we” instead of “I” when tasks need to be completed. Team-building sessions could also be considered to build group cohesion and organisational identity.

- OCB ought to become an integral part of the integrated performance management system (IPMS) at the institution. Employees are more likely to engage in OCB if they are rated for their extra-role behaviours within the organisation.

The recommendations presented above are appropriate for the field of human resources management, as they can be enforced through certain human resource principles and practices. For example, practices and making OCB an integral part of performance management can be driven by human resource management. Human resource practitioners ought to consider different ways to encourage OCB through other relevant HR functions, such as training and development, remuneration, and employee wellness policies.

Figure 7.1 presents strategies for encouraging OCB, which is relevant to the Open Distance Higher Education Institution and the field of human resource management. The strategies demonstrate how leadership and employee empowerment interact as determinants of OCB.

Figure 7. 1: Strategies to promote OCB in the organisation



7.4.2 Recommendations for future research

The following are the recommendations for future research:

- The relationship between leadership, employee empowerment and OCB within the private higher distance educational institutions in South Africa ought to be investigated to allow for comparison of results. The study can also be replicated in other countries to allow for further comparison of results.

- There are other constructs that impact OCB within the higher education context, which future studies can explore. Future research can investigate other factors, such as job satisfaction, trust, and commitment, in relation to OCB within the Open Distance Higher Education environment.

- Leadership roles are always changing in the Open Distance Higher Education Institution, and so will the trend of employee empowerment initiatives. The study can be replicated in a few years to determine whether an employee's engagement in OCB has changed due to leadership changes.

- Future research could also consider a qualitative approach by conducting in-depth interviews with the participants to further understand their motivation to engage in OCB. Significant differences were found between job level and number of years at the organisation. Interviews can be conducted with different job categories, such as academics, administrative staff, professional support staff, and managerial staff, to investigate how and why they differ in their OCB practices. Interviews can also be conducted with long-tenured employees and those employed for a short period of time.

- Longitudinal studies are recommended to further investigate the relationship between leadership, employee empowerment and OCB.

- The mediating effects of employee empowerment (management support, autonomy and decision making, access to information and resources) on the relationship between leadership (competence, interpersonal relationships, task orientation and vision and goal orientation) and OCB (altruism, civic virtue,

sportsmanship and sense of duty and consideration) were not addressed in a single study. Future researchers can use the proposed conceptual model in other settings.

7.5 CONTRIBUTIONS

This research makes a contribution to the field of human resource management at the theoretical, empirical, and practical levels.

7.5.1 Contributions on a theoretical level

On a theoretical level, readers of this study will develop a better understanding of the constructs of leadership, employee empowerment and OCB. This study investigated the relationship between leadership (competence, interpersonal relationships, task orientation, vision and goal orientation) and OCB (altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship, sense of duty, and consideration). No single study has examined this relationship using this combination of factors. This study therefore adds to the existing body of knowledge and addresses the gap with regard to the relationship between these factors, providing theory on this relationship within the context of the open distance higher education environment in South Africa.

The mediating effects of employee empowerment (management support, autonomy and decision-making, access to information and resources) on the relationship between leadership (competence, interpersonal relationships, task orientation, vision and goal orientation) and OCB (altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship, sense of duty, and consideration) were investigated. This relationship, with a combination of these factors, is also unique. This study endeavoured to advance research on the conceptualisation of a model for the mediating effects of employee empowerment on the relationship between leadership and OCB. By modelling the factors of employee empowerment (management support, autonomy and decision-making, access to information and resources) as mediators in the relationship between leadership and OCB dimensions, the study provides fresh insights into the tested relationships. This study adds to the gap in knowledge in this regard.

The statistical significance of differences between the demographic variables and OCB was explored. The study addresses the gap by providing insight into whether there were differences from an open distance higher education and South African perspective. During the literature review, it was found that few studies examined differences between racial groups in relation to OCB. This study helps fill the knowledge gap in this regard.

The literature review identified multiple dimensions of OCB, as reported by various researchers. Furthermore, the literature review examined the relationship among leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB. The relationships identified among leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB should guide higher education institutions in identifying interventions to improve OCB through leadership and employee empowerment.

7.5.2 Contributions on a practical level

Human resource practitioners and higher education institutions can use the results of this study to inform interventions that motivate staff to engage in OCB and boost workplace productivity. In so doing, they will also enhance staff co-operation, resulting in greater organisational effectiveness.

Open Distance Higher Education needs staff who will go beyond the call of duty in order to keep up with the changing open distance education environment and student needs. The higher education institution will succeed if it has exceptional employees who are willing to go the extra mile to do what is best for the organisation. The study found that leadership and employee empowerment are important in encouraging OCB in an open distance higher education institution. The study provides grounds for all higher education institutions to focus on improving leaders' interpersonal relationships, competence, task orientation, and vision and goal orientation. Institutions can invest in training to boost leadership competence, such as communication, teamwork, and relationship-building workshops. This type of training will improve leadership skills and increase supervisors' confidence, motivating employees to engage in OCB. The study also provides motives for higher education institutions to improve their employee empowerment efforts by providing employees with greater job autonomy, decision-making power, management support, and access to information and resources,

thereby increasing their performance in OCB. Employees must be allowed to make their own decisions and be given greater autonomy in their work activities. Management support through mentoring and coaching will certainly contribute to employees' professional and personal growth, thereby improving their loyalty towards the organisation and their engagement in OCB. Higher education institutions need to ensure that employees are provided with updated information and adequate resources to perform their tasks and also engage in OCB. It should strive to create a climate of trust, support, and appreciation for others, and be open to new ideas and suggestions. A work climate that empowers employees can consequently create an environment that encourages OCB.

The results of this study provide insight and guidelines for enhancing OCB among university staff through leadership and employee empowerment. The results of this study are not only of value to educational institutions but could also be applied in all organisations. Irrespective of the type of organisation, leadership and employee empowerment do influence employees' willingness to engage in OCB.

Recommendations were made for future researchers and this study should be seen as a contribution to the field of human resource management within the context of open-distance higher education.

7.6 MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

The study provides a better understanding of the influence of leadership on OCB. It also raises awareness of the mediating role of employee empowerment in the relationship between leadership and OCB. The findings have significant implications for managers seeking to enhance OCB in the organisation.

Managers should take more interest in their employees by being more relationship-oriented. Managers can adopt a relational leadership style by establishing a friendly relationship with group members. In this relationship, members interact openly, and emotional support is offered (Luthans, 2011). A leader's relationship-oriented behaviour entails supporting and developing individuals (Yukl, Mahsud, Prussia & Hassan, 2019).

Managers should be able to provide guidance and have clearly defined work plans. They should enhance their competence by improving their business and problem-

solving skills. Managers can enhance their vision and goal orientation by expressing it with confidence. They should also adopt a charismatic leadership style, as these leaders can influence employees to engage in OCB. Charismatic leaders offer a vision and create a sense of purpose for employees. They hold followers in high esteem and motivate them to be committed to the organisation's shared goals (Strukan et al., 2017).

Essentially, managers should harness and advance their interpersonal relationships, task orientation, competence, vision, and goal orientation, which can lead to greater OCB in organisations. Good leadership considers both human relations and task orientation. A leader must effectively describe tasks while also providing support and motivation for staff. Demonstrations of both human-related and task-oriented behaviours are necessary for the successful achievement of goals (Kurniawan & Syakur, 2017). Competent leaders are essential in a turbulent business environment and crucial to organisational success. Some of the main elements of leadership competencies may include honesty, subject knowledge, business awareness, the ability to interact with others, strategic thinking and formulation and delivery of goals (Andriukaitienė, Voronkova, Kyvliuk, Maksimenyuk & Sakun, 2017).

Managers can create an autonomous workplace by fostering an environment of trust and granting employees sufficient freedom to carry out their tasks. Managers should create opportunities for employees to participate in decision-making, such as appointing employees as leaders on work projects. According to Baird, Tung and Su (2020), the distribution of decision-making powers and autonomy may be supported by the trust, communication and fairness present in the relationship between the supervisor and the employee.

Managers should provide employees with the necessary information and resources to perform their tasks. In this way, employees will be empowered to make decisions about their jobs rather than being dependent on managers for decision-making. Demircioglu (2017) suggests that information about employees' performance can help them identify ways to implement innovative practices in their jobs. Furthermore, Dahou and Hacini (2018) state that an employee's growth depends on the support and access to information and resources provided by the organisation.

Management support, together with trust, honest feedback, open communication, and appreciation for employees, should become important elements in the workplace. It is therefore anticipated that supervisors will regularly observe an employee's performance, consult with employees about their performance, and provide support to improve it (Baird, Tung & Su, 2020).

Satisfying an employee's need for management support, autonomy and involvement in decision-making and providing access to information and resources can influence them to go the extra mile in the organisation.

Increased engagement in OCB can make the organisation more effective and better able to thrive in a changing environment and during the Fourth Industrial Revolution. The COVID-19 pandemic has also affected organisations globally, prompting managers to rethink how the organisation operates. OCB efforts can play a fundamental role in ensuring the organisation copes in this ever-changing climate. Managers should therefore develop their leadership skills and plan their employee empowerment initiatives to increase motivation for OCB activities.

7.7 LIMITATIONS

The following limitations were identified in this study:

- There was no research conducted on the relationship between leadership and OCB in open distance higher education institutions in South Africa. However, international studies were considered for integration in the literature review.
- Regarding the factors identified in this study and their relationships, there was very little research available. No studies investigated a combination of these factors.
- The use of a cross-sectional research design limited the inferences about the causal relationship between leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB. Longitudinal studies are recommended to further investigate the relationships among leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB.
- The study was only focused on one open distance higher education institution in South Africa and therefore cannot be generalised to other settings. The study should therefore be replicated in other institutions to determine whether similar outcomes will be achieved.

- The quantitative approach was the only data collection method used in this study and therefore does not account for the participants' personal views on leadership, employee empowerment and OCB. Interviews should be considered in future studies.

Despite the limitations outlined above, it can be concluded that the study will make a significant contribution to the fields of leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB in Open Distance Higher Education Institutions within the South African context.

7.8 SUMMARY

This chapter explained how the research objectives were achieved at the theoretical and empirical levels. Recommendations for open distance higher education institutions and future researchers were provided. The contributions, both theoretical and practical, were also presented in this chapter. The study's limitations were also discussed. Managerial implications were also provided in this chapter.

This concludes the research project.

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APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE

INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH STUDY:

"*The Influence of Leadership and Employee Empowerment on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour in an open distance higher education institution*".

INFORMATION SHEET

Dear Prospective Participant

You are invited to participate in a research study, entitled **"*The Influence of Leadership and Employee Empowerment on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour in an open distance higher education institution*".**

May I thank you in advance for assisting me in conducting this study? I realise that your time is also valuable and appreciate the sacrifice you are making in completing the questionnaire.

The study is being conducted by Linda Naidoo under the supervision of *Professor Mariette Coetzee* (both from the University of South Africa - UNISA). Your participation is, however, voluntary, and you are free, at any point in the process, to withdraw from the study without offering any explanation.

1 Aim of the study

The aim of the study is to determine the influence of leadership and employee empowerment on organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) to enable recommendations to promote OCB within the organisation.

2 Participation

Kindly note that names and employee numbers will not be requested, and all information derived herein will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

3 Completion of the survey

The questionnaire consists of the following four parts: demographics, leadership, employee empowerment and organisational citizenship behaviour. We have tried to keep the questions simple and easy to answer. Since there are no open-ended questions, the estimated time to complete this questionnaire is approximately 15-20 minutes.

4 Procedure

You are required to complete the questionnaire and return it to the researcher by clicking on the submit button.

5 Confidentiality, privacy and anonymity

The information provided and the study results will be kept completely confidential. The study is for research purposes only and the results may be published in an accredited academic journal. General research findings will be reported and no individual results.

6 Retention of records

Electronic information will be password–protected on a Universal Serial Bus (USB) flash drive and an external hard drive.

7 Remuneration for participating in the study

No incentives or payments will be offered, directly or indirectly, for participating in this study.

8 Ethical approval of the study

The study received written approval from the University of South Africa (2018_RPSC_048) and can be provided upon request.

9 Disclosure of results

If you would like to be informed of the final research findings, you are welcome to contact the researcher, Linda Naidoo at naidol@unisa.ac.za. You may contact the researcher if you require any further information. If you have any concerns about how the research has been conducted, you may contact *Professor Mariette Coetzee* at Coetzm@unisa.ac.za.

10 Willingness to participate and benefits

Kindly indicate your willingness to participate by clicking on the "I agree" button. By doing this, you acknowledge that you understand the contents of the form and the nature of the study and agree to take part in the study.

The study will benefit the organisation by providing information that will help us determine whether employees are actually engaging in OCB and whether leadership and employee empowerment are playing a vital role in promoting OCB in the organisation. This research will contribute to the development of strategies to promote OCB in the organisation. These strategies will display the necessary leadership behaviours and characteristics of employee empowerment that will motivate employees to engage in OCB.

Yours Sincerely

Linda Naidoo

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

I agree to participate in the research project, as outlined in the accompanying letter, which Ms L Naidoo is conducting.

I clearly understand that:

- participation is voluntary, confidential and anonymous;
- the information gathered from the completed questionnaires will be used for research purposes only;
- the information gathered will be treated as confidential, and will not be made publicly available; and
- individual feedback will not be provided to participants.

If you are willing to participate in the study, please click the button “I agree” below:

I agree

QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions

The following questionnaire contains a number of questions regarding your opinion about your current work situation. Please read each question carefully and click the answer which most accurately represents your view. There are no right or wrong answers; please provide an honest answer to all items. Please answer all questions. In total, it will take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete all of the sections.

Remember that all answers will be kept completely confidential. The research report compiled from the overall findings will include an integrated summary of the results. No individual will be identified by name in the reporting of the findings.

The questionnaire is divided into four sections:

Section A: Demographics

Section B: Leadership

Section C: Employee Empowerment

Section D: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHICS (please click the appropriate option)

1. Race:

1	African	
2	Coloured	
3	Indian	
4	White	
5	Other (please specify) _____	

2. Gender:

1	Male	
2	Female	

3. Age:

1	25 years and younger	
2	26 – 35 years	
3	36 – 45 years	
4	46 – 55 years	
5	56 – 65 years	

4. Highest Qualification:

1	Matric	
2	Certificate/ Diploma	
3	Bachelor's degree	
4	Honours degree	
5	Master's degree	
6	Doctoral degree/ PhD	
7	Other (please specify) _____	

5. Number of years employed at the organisation:

1	Less than one year	
2	1 – 5 years	
3	6 – 10 years	
4	11 + years	

6. Job level:

1	Administrative staff (P8 – P12)	
2	Academic staff (P5 – P9)	
3	Managerial staff (P1 – P7)	
4	Other (please specify) _____	

SECTION B: LEADERSHIP

Think about leadership in your department and indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements on the LEADERSHIP of your chair of department (COD)/manager/supervisor? You are required to rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements using the following scale:

1. **Totally disagree**
2. **Disagree**
3. **Slightly disagree**
4. **Slightly agree**
5. **Agree**
6. **Totally agree**

		Totally disagree					**Totally agree**
1	My supervisor upholds honesty and integrity in the workplace.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	My supervisor serves as a role model for employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	My supervisor demonstrates confidence towards goal achievement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	My supervisor displays maturity when dealing with problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	My supervisor is open to exploring new ideas.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Totally disagree					Totally agree
6	My supervisor expresses assertiveness when communicating a vision.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	My supervisor is ambitious.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	My supervisor is intelligent in comprehending complicated information.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	My supervisor works jointly with employees to achieve a shared outcome.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	My supervisor communicates his/her vision for the department/organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	My supervisor motivates me towards goal achievement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	My supervisor provides me with sufficient support to achieve goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	My supervisor offers me the opportunity to participate in decision-making.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	My supervisor shows concern for others by offering emotional support when needed.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	My supervisor understands my needs in the workplace.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	My supervisor establishes a friendly relationship with employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	My supervisor possesses the required business skills to do his/her job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	My supervisor is knowledgeable about the organisation’s systems and processes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	My supervisor can describe work processes to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	My supervisor makes task accomplishment a priority.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Totally disagree					Totally agree
21	My supervisor provides well-defined directions to employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	My supervisor describes how, when and where tasks must be carried out.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	My supervisor is concerned with meeting deadlines.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	My supervisor is able to take control of a situation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	My supervisor responds in a crisis by communicating measures that need to be followed.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	My supervisor has the ability to influence me to apply his/her suggestion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	My supervisor encourages me to carry out my day-to-day activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	My supervisor has empathy for employees having personal and family-related problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION C: EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT

Think about EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT in your department or the organisation and indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements? You are required to rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements using the following scale:

1. **Totally disagree**
2. **Disagree**
3. **Slightly disagree**
4. **Slightly agree**
5. **Agree**
6. **Totally agree**

		Totally disagree					**Totally agree**
1	My supervisor trusts my judgement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	My supervisor delegates less pleasant jobs easily.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	My supervisor reprimands me if I do not perform up to standard.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	My supervisor alerts me to training opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	My supervisor provides me with resources to perform my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	My supervisor provides me with general information about my organisation on a regular basis.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	My supervisor gives me adequate feedback on my job performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	My supervisor gives me control over the outcome of my tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Totally disagree					Totally agree
9	My supervisor allows me to make decisions within certain limits.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	My supervisor allows me to be creative in performing my tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	My supervisor looks after my interests.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	My supervisor is willing to mentor me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	My supervisor consults me on issues that concerns my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	My supervisor involves me in discussions about job related matters.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	My supervisor views my job as being important.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	My supervisor actively assists me with challenging tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	My supervisor allows me to attend training/ workshops on matters that are relevant but not directly related to my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	My supervisor actively promotes cooperation between group members.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	My supervisor allows me to set my own goals in line with organisational goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	My supervisor recognises and praises me on my achievements.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	My supervisor has an open mind and is willing to consider suggestions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	My supervisor supports decisions that I take on his/her behalf.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Totally disagree					Totally agree
23	My supervisor provides me with challenging tasks for which I am sometimes not fully competent.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	My supervisor makes me believe in myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	My supervisor allows me to use my discretion on the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	My supervisor implements my suggestions in the department.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	My supervisor sees me as an important member of the department.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	My supervisor shares relevant information with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION D: ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Think about your behaviour at work and indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements? You are required to rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements using the following scale:

1. **Totally disagree**
2. **Disagree**
3. **Slightly disagree**
4. **Slightly agree**
5. **Agree**

6. Totally agree

		Totally disagree					**Totally agree**
1	I assist my co-workers to perform their tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	We work as one big family at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	I am willing to assist my supervisor voluntarily whenever he/she needs assistance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I have the organisation's interest at heart when conducting my duties.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	I stand in for colleagues when they are on leave.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	I go beyond the call of duty to ensure the completion of a project/task.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	I provide suggestions to improve the performance of the department/organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I keep strictly to the tasks outlined in my job description.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	I assist others so that they do not encounter problems in their job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	I share information with colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	I am polite to my co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	I seldom complain about minor issues in the workplace.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	I maintain a positive attitude when confronted with difficulties.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	I am able to bear the inconveniences that may arise in the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Totally disagree					Totally agree
15	I abide by the rules and regulations of the workplace.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	I am punctual for work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	I feel guilty when taking long breaks at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	I see it as my duty to attend voluntary functions organised by the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	I respond to messages or emails promptly.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	I keep myself updated with information concerning my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	I regularly attend work meetings to keep abreast with changes in the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	I speak highly of my organisation outside of the work environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	I will report irregularities to ensure good governance of my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I aim to protect my organisation from threats.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	I make an effort to acquire skills that will benefit myself and the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	I am prepared to accept a small pay increase in times of financial difficulties faced by the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	I look out for the interest of others.						

Thank you for your participation.