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Special Issue 2021:

International Journal of Organizational Leadership

Organization of companies and public and private administrations: Ethics, management, accountability, leadership, accounting. A multidisciplinary approach.

International Journal of Organizational Leadership calls for submissions to a special issue with the theme "Organization of companies and public and private administrations: ethics, management, accountability, leadership, accounting. A multidisciplinary approach". The special issue will cover all aspects of private and public organizations with particular reference to leadership, organization, ethics, and accounting. Furthermore, the contributions that address these aspects from a multidisciplinary perspective (psychology, law, medicine, etc.) will be positively evaluated. The journal invites contributions from all over the world seeking to broaden understandings of organizational leadership.

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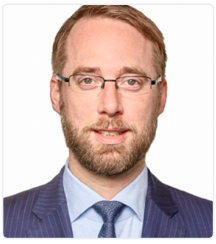

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Main themes

1 *organization*
2 *company*
3 *leadership*
4 *management*
5 *work*
6 *private & public administration*
7 *accounting*
8 *accountability*

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Topics covered by the journal include perception, cognition, judgment, attitudes, emotion, well-being, motivation, choice, and performance. Its specific purposes are to foster an improved understanding of how people in an organization are leaded and how leadership can be affected by business conduct.

This journal brings together a focus on leadership for scholars, consultants, practicing managers, executives, and administrators, as well as those numerous university faculty members across the world who teach leadership as a college course. It provides timely publication of leadership research and applications and has a global reach. It also focuses on yearly reviews of a broad range of leadership topics on a rotating basis and emphasizes cutting-edge areas through special issues.

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34 days to first decision: After double-blind review
30 days from acceptance to publication
Acceptance rate: 45%

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International Journal of Organizational Leadership is devoted to theoretical and empirical research concerning **organizational behavior, organizational psychology, and managers leadership tactics and consequences**.

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Contact

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Peer Review Process

Peer Review Policy on International Journal of Organizational Leadership

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The manuscripts which meet the minimum criteria are sent for double-blind review by at least 2 experts in the field of organization and leadership.

Double-Blind Review

The reviewers are requested to evaluate whether the manuscript is original research, is methodologically sound and robust, covers the most relevant literature review, has results which are clearly and concisely presented, has an elaborated discussion based on the research questions and hypotheses, and provides practical implications and suggestions for future research. This stage of review takes 4-5 weeks.

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1. Overall quality, scientific originality, and Significance for theory and practice
2. The literature review
3. Theoretical Framework and Conceptual Rationale
4. Clear definition of the research questions and hypotheses
5. Research design and data collection procedure
6. Research Methodology
7. Data analysis
8. Clarity of the results and appropriateness of the interpretations
9. Style (APA 6th Edition) and language

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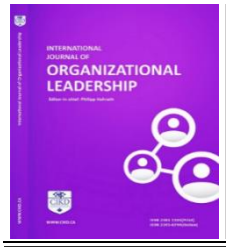

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Editorial: Organization of Companies and Public and Private Administrations: Ethics, Management, Accountability, Leadership, Accounting. A Multidisciplinary Approach

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In recent years, the profound economic and social transformations that characterize modern societies have given impetus to the reform processes of the business system and public administrations in an attempt to improve the degree of response to the expectations of citizens and businesses, also taking into account the need to contain management costs. In light of these transformations, national governments have been pushed to intervene in a timely and incisive manner, making innovative changes to the current legislation where it has been necessary to modify - in various ways and with different intensities depending on the type of political-administrative system of the Country considered - the framework within which the public administration and businesses operate, together with the rules governing the operation of the management machine, with a view to introducing operational mechanisms, including planning, programming, and control systems, leadership systems, personnel management, and accounting and non-accounting information systems. Therefore, public administrations and businesses have had to rethink their methods of operation, introducing programming models and management and control techniques in order to improve their performance.

Ultimately, the use of innovative organizational-management tools represents the output of a long and complex reform process that has affected the management and organization of the private and public sectors.

Within these considerations, the topic of this special issue is inserted, which through the contributions of those who wished to participate, aims to frame the multidisciplinary approach that characterizes the organization of companies and public administrations in the context of various issues such as ethics, management, accountability, leadership, and accounting.

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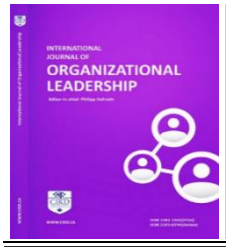

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Equine-Assisted Experiential Learning on Leadership Development

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ABSTRACT

In today's fast-paced business world, where there is a need to develop divergent thinking and a wider range of skills, organizations seek original ways to be successful. Accordingly, leadership development has seen several uncommon approaches. Equine-assisted learning programs which involve innovative, underutilized, and motivating techniques and strategies, provide a dynamic process of building and developing leadership skills through horse-human interactions. In this paper, after the history of horse-human relationships and interactions are examined, a literature review is conducted on developing research and using equine-assisted leadership development programs. Although the extant research shows that equine-assisted leadership development programs promote skills critical to being an influential leader, the present paper provides an insight into equine-assisted experiential learning on leadership development, provides an overview on what happens in a typical equine-assisted experiential learning session, and suggests practical implications for researchers and organizations.

A human-horse relationship has a long history (Berg & Causey, 2014; Hausberger, Roche, Henry & Visser, 2008). Both ridden and driven horses became essential as pack animals, transportation sources and especially in military ventures. In this way, they have contributed to the success of humanity more than any other animal (Heleski, 2011; Kachelmeier, 2008). Over time, human use of horses has changed dramatically, and the horse's utilitarian value had decreased, whereas they have become equivalent in many ways to other domestic pets (Birke, Hockenhull, & Creighton, 2010). Today horses still meet many human needs, including transportation, draft power, recreation, warfare, and companionship (Splan, 2011). While their

muscle power is no longer required, another use of horses has attracted attention. Humans need their intuition and wisdom for the subtle challenges of mastering soft skills (Bjönberg, 2015), meaning they are now healers, teachers, and facilitators of learning (Pohl, 2012). While they used to feed humans physically by plowing their fields and socially by performing as race and show horses, today they feed humans mentally by working to engender skills that can be used as powerful instruments and facilitators for personal and leadership development (Maziere & Gunnlaugson, 2015; Rauen, 2017).

Although the human-horse relationship goes back hundreds of years, the lessons learned from horses from a leadership, people skills, and communications perspective are only recently being taken into the business environment (Naidoo, 2009). In today's fast-paced business world, where there is a need to develop divergent thinking and a wider range of skills, organizations are looking for innovative ways to get ahead, and leadership development has seen several uncommon approaches (Gitsham, 2012; Rauen, 2017). Today, natural horsemanship, also referred to as "horse-whispering" is becoming in vogue in corporate leadership training and development worldwide (Naidoo, 2009). Accordingly, some of the world's largest organizations are discovering the unique lessons taught in equine-assisted courses. In addition, academics have acknowledged the value of working with horses at several university leadership development programs as a metaphor for leadership (Ridding, 2005). The literature on equine-assisted learning suggests that collaborating with horses can be a great example of learning leadership competencies. Besides, there has been explosive growth worldwide in this emerging industry (Dyk et al., 2012). This idea is unexpected and brings novelty and wonder with its aspects (Stock & Kolb, 2016).

Throughout history, horses have been poised for greatness because of their anatomy, physiology, and sociability, and riding them has been associated with power (Equine Heritage Institute, 2013; Robinson, 1999). Thus, taking care of a horse has been essential for leaders for thousands of years; kings, wise men, and generals alike. As the word "manager" branches etymologically into the old French word "manege", which means "the handling or training of a horse, horsemanship, riding maneuvers, proceedings" (Clegg, Kornberger, & Pitsis, 2008, p. 9; Kadalie, 2006, p. 19), the link between horses and the field of management was made long ago.

The ongoing discussions on how best to develop leaders assert that those who can harness intelligence in the body and brain have a distinct advantage in today's complex and volatile business environment (Cooper, 2000). Since horses are excellent examples to guide a learning process that facilitates this (Bjönberg, 2015), human experiences working with horses provide an opportunity to develop sustainable changes in an individual's awareness and actions regarding their leadership skills and authenticity (Gehrke, 2009; Lyle & Schlamb, 2017). Thus, they are different from the traditional leadership training and development programs.

Dyk et al. (2012) claim that most research on equine-assisted interventions focuses on therapeutical studies, and academic research on the effectiveness of equine-assisted leadership development programs is scant. They add that more academic research should be conducted on this subject so that equine-assisted activities may gain credibility as legitimate learning and development methods for leaders. To fill this gap, the present paper attempts to offer a factual report on equine-assisted leadership development programs, which provide a unique method to build leadership and self-awareness skills through horse-human interactions.

Theoretical Background

Experiential Learning

Adult learning theory encompasses more than just classroom teaching and places a premium on experiential learning (DeRosa, 2018; Lepsinger, 2018). Experiential learning is an active process that takes the learner out of their comfort zone and places them into a state of dissonance so that the learning may take place in an unfamiliar context. In this way, learning requires problem solving, inquiry, and reflection (Chapman, McPhee, & Proudman, 1995; Martin, Franc, & Zounková, 2016). It creates knowledge through the transformation of experience (Kolb, 2015: 51; Lewis & Williams, 1994: 5), leading to unexpected discoveries (Rickards, 2000). More specifically, outdoor experiential learning takes learning and development out of the classroom setting and places it into the setting where knowledge may be built through social interaction in a genuine context (Kelly, 2019, p. 8). It is driven by process rather than content (Lewis & Williams, 1994, p. 13).

It is asserted that leadership may be learned primarily through experience (McCall, 2004; Murphy & Johnson, 2011). The more one participates, the more they will benefit from the opportunities for leadership growth (Propst & Koesler, 1998). In this way, experiential learning theory provides a strong base for leadership education (Guthrie & Jones, 2012). As equine experiences make an individual more sensitive to new ideas and behaviors (McCormick & McCormick, 1997), and equine-assisted leadership development naturally integrates all levels of experience, the mind, emotions, spirit, and especially the body (Pohl, 2006), it is claimed that equine-assisted sessions find a basis in experiential learning model in a very practical sense (Rauen, 2017).

The Origins of Guided Human Equine Interactions

Horses and humans have a long history of interacting for mutual benefit (Notgrass & Pettinelli, 2015). This includes emotional, psychological, and physical interactions. Research suggests that horses create a unique context for learning and their behavior and unique characteristics have major significance for experiential learning on leadership development (Gehrke, 2009; Hagen, 2007). They bring out a range of emotions and behaviors in humans, which can be used to stimulate personal awareness and growth (Zugich, Klontz, & Leinart, 2002). Therewith the nature of the horse influences the nature of the leader (Rauen, 2017).

Horses preyed upon on food by wild animals and primitive men in the wild. As prey animals, their survival depends on their capability to be aware of their surroundings, to “read” the behaviors and intentions of predators, and react immediately to keep themselves safe. Since they know that they have to move away from what they perceive as dangerous for their safety, their first response to anything scary is flight (Evans, 2010; Keaveney, 2008; Sing, 2015). As flight animals by nature, they will not choose something less than a strong leader (Chappell, 2014).

As well as being prey animals, horses are environmentally sensitive and intuitive herd animals (Tinsley & Jedlicka, 2012). While they depend on one another for survival, they rely most on their leader to see the real threat and react accordingly (Clinging, 2004). Therefore, the leadership of and throughout the herd is vital to ensure the survival of all (Rashid, 2011). Like a herd of horses, a team of people also requires strong leadership, effective communication, and

a keen awareness of the needs and goals of the group (Roam Consulting, 2018). Accordingly, the characteristics of the herd leader, which are command, control, compassion, and communication (Hamilton, 2011), are similar to the characteristics of an effective leader (Chappell, 2014).

Horses have an extraordinary ability to identify a human's emotional state, intentions, and needs by reading their body language and mirroring the authentic feelings they try to hide (Gehrke, 2009; Kohanov, 2001). By this honest mirroring, they highlight behaviours that we may not yet be aware of and give us reliable feedback on our authenticity (de Beer, 2016; Notschaele, 2011). Since they react clear from socially desired behavior and high qualifications do not impact the horse's response to your presence (Frewin & Gardiner, 2005; Grootveld, 2015; Hamilton, 2011; Mandrell, 2006), their responses during their interactions with humans are instinctive and instantaneous. As people often do not reject demands because of the real or perceived power that titles and consequences hold over them, leaders rarely receive such honest feedback as the horse provides (Chappell, 2014; Notgrass & Pettinelli, 2015; Ridding, 2005).

Horses communicate nonverbally. They communicate mainly with body language and subtle signals. Humans primarily communicate verbally but also communicate with body language. In equine-assisted leadership development sessions, the participants learn to speak the language of the horses not only to understand what they are saying but also to tell them what they want them to know (Miller & Lamb, 2005). In this way, they improve their consciousness of nonverbal communication (Maurstad, Davis, & Cowles, 2013; Notschaele, 2011; Pohl, 2006; West, 2015) and their ability to interact and communicate with people (Wood, Gasser & Winward, 2010). Effective communication using verbal and nonverbal communication has always been considered a critical part of successful leadership (Darioly & Mast, 2014; Lac, 2017, p. 4; Marquis & Huston, 2009, p. 461; Pichler & Beenen, 2014, p. 11; Wülser, 2016).

Equine-Assisted Experiential Learning on Leadership Development

Equine-assisted learning (similarly referred to as equine-facilitated learning, equine-partnered learning, or equine-guided learning) (Lyle & Schlamb, 2017; Strozzi Mazzucchi, 2015) is an experiential methodology that supports the development of life skills adaptable to educational, professional, or personal objectives through equine-assisted activities (Alm, 2018: 3). The workshops focus on solutions, and they are nondirective. They emphasize metaphoric content within human-horse interactions (Iwachiw, 2017; West, 2015), which can be transferred to several settings. They emphasize spiritual development, personal growth, and team-building to achieve more practical skills and success in the corporate environment (Burgon, 2014; Kelly, 2014, p. 219) through personal exploration of feelings and behaviors (Kohanov, 2001). The general areas within equine-assisted learning are education, leadership, or corporate and personal growth. A wide pool of professionals works in these three areas with participants to develop those life skills in a learning context (McKissock & Anderson, 2018).

The participants who engage in a leadership development session may develop the skills necessary for effective leadership and learn new approaches to leadership or management (Hallberg, 2008). Since equine-assisted interventions are recently getting popular in the corporate world as a relatively new endeavor (DeSantis et al., 2017; Gunter, Berardinelli, Blakeney, Cronenwett, & Gurvis, 2017; Hallberg, 2008; Pendry, Carr, Smith, & Roeter, 2014),

Horses play a joint coach role in leadership, team building, and personal development programs mong employees in several organizations (Gehrke, 2009).

It is suggested that out-of-class experiences can create a various positive learning and developmental outcomes (Mikulec & McKinney, 2014). Experiential learning with horses deliberately takes participants outside their comfort positions, namely their offices, in an environment safe for experimentation. In this way, the participants become more open to self-discovery where they may view problems differently and get a clear understanding (Ewing, MacDonald, Taylor, & Bowers, 2007; Gunter et al., 2017; Selby & Smith-Osborne; 2013; Sing, 2015).

It is claimed that training in the outdoors seems to be emerging from the pack of notoriously diverse activities promoted by the unschooled, the unaccountable, and the unscrupulous (Thompson, 1991). Accordingly, the concept of using horses for leadership development might be regarded as a mere novelty, yet another fad or fashion in the corporate training field (Kelly, 2014; Stock & Kolb, 2016). However previous research suggests that equine-assisted interventions provide the opportunity to foster the development of emotional intelligence (Bouchard, 2014; Dyk et al., 2012; Fransson, 2015; Gibbons, Cunningham, Paiz, Poelker, & Chajón, 2017; Grootveld, 2015; Perkins, 2018; Rauen, 2017), development of life skills (Evans et al., 2009; Perkins, 2018; Slocum, 2004), social skills (Bouchard, 2014; Iwachiw, 2017), problem solving skills (Murphy, Wilson, & Greenberg, 2017) and interpersonal skills (de Beer, 2016; Hesse & Capitao, 2012), to build assertiveness (Fransson, 2015), social competence (Pendry et al., 2014), social-awareness (Rauen, 2017), perceived social support (Hauge, Kvalem, Berget, Enders-Slegers, & Braastad, 2014), work ethic, time management, balance, collaboration, teamwork (de Beer, 2016; Duff, 2010; Mikulec & McKinney, 2014), communication (de Beer, 2016; Mikulec & McKinney, 2014; Murphy et al., 2017; Notschaele, 2011; Pentecost, 2017; Perkins, 2018; Saggers & Strachan, 2016), self-awareness (Bouchard, 2014; de Beer, 2016; Grootveld, 2015; Notschaele, 2011; Rauen, 2017), self-efficacy (Bouchard, 2014); self-confidence (All, Loving & Crane, 1999; Bouchard, 2014; de Beer, 2016; Perkins, 2018; Saggers & Strachan, 2016), motivation (All et al., 1999; Pentecost, 2017), self-esteem, cooperation, enthusiasm (All et al., 1999), which are critical traits to being an influential leader. These findings verify that horse-assisted activities can help individuals develop leadership skills and thus contribute to leadership development. Previous research also suggests that participating in equine-assisted learning helps to teach leadership skills (Benson, 2012; Duff, 2010; Gibbons et al., 2017; Gunter et al., 2017; Kolzarek, 2001; Lyle & Schlamb, 2017, Mikulec & McKinney, 2014; Pohl, 2006; Ridding, 2005) and authentic leadership skills (Adams, 2013; Adams-Pope & Stedman, 2014; Grootveld, 2015).

An Equine-Assisted Experiential Learning Session

Horses have been crucial and meaningful partners for humans throughout time. They have a unique ability to connect with humans. In addition, they react to their energy, strength, and perceptiveness (All et al., 1999; Kendall, Maujean, Pepping, & Wright, 2014; Kuropatkin, 2013).

Equine-assisted experiential learning focuses on the learner's experience with the horses and promotes social, emotional, and cognitive development (Notgrass & Pettinelli, 2015, p. 162;

Murphy et al., 2017, p. 366). In addition, the workshops involve innovative and underutilized techniques to develop leadership skills (Saggers & Strachan, 2016).

Horsemanship skills help the learner to interact with the horse and develop their approach to what works best for them in that situation (Prechter, 2014). However, equine-assisted learning is not a riding or horsemanship program. In the workshops, the participants may participate the care and handling of their partnered horse. While some programs incorporate riding the horse as part of the course (Ewing et al., 2007; Pentecost, 2017) by the majority of the programs, the emphasis is on non-mounted activities which create interactions between people and horses and require individuals or groups to catch and apply specific skills (Duff, 2010; Notgrass & Pettinelli, 2015; Schulz, 2013).

Each session is unique to the participant(s). The number of sessions and the workshops' format will vary depending on the size, the objectives, and the time limitations of the participant group to find benefits. The sessions will be structured to allow participants to observe, perform the task and make changes correspondingly depending on their needs. After the participants arrive at a local equestrian facility, they are provided an orientation to their experience to get an overview of the agenda and processes they will experience in the session (Gunter et al., 2017; Pohl, 2006; Prechter, 2014; Rauen, 2017). Although the programs of the workshops are adaptable and flexible, a typical program includes topics such as getting acquainted with the horses, the basics of horsemanship, catching and leading horses, communication with the horses off the saddle, getting acquainted with the riding tack and equipment care, communication with the horse on the saddle, trust-building exercises, and working as a team including the horse (Saggers & Strachan, 2016).

The horse professional, licensed educator, and the horse(s) make up the education team. The horse professional should have comprehensive experience working with the horses and understand their behaviors. They review the participants' basics of horse behavior related to its status as a prey and herd animal and teach them how to approach the horse before entering the arena. This review emphasizes self-observation, self-responsibility, and respect for the horse (Adams et al., 2015; Hagen, 2007; Rector, 2005). The licenced equine-assisted learning practitioners are educators, organizational consultants, corporate trainers, human resource professionals, and life coaches who incorporate horses into their work with clients (Green, 2017; Lac, 2017). The horses are viewed as joint facilitators of the workshop team, and they are allowed to respond naturally to events within the sessions (Iwachiw, 2017). They are usually semi-retired working horses which are very calm during their interactions with clients (Gehrke, Baldwin, & Schiltz, 2011). During the sessions, while the facilitator monitors and processes the partipants' interactions with the horses, creating a reflective, experiential context for change, the participants gain new conceptions from the strong emotional experiences they come up with through these challenge activities (Green, 2017; Hagen, 2007; Lewis & Williams, 1994). A professional who interprets how the horse's response mirrors the participants' thoughts, personality, and behavior is key to conducting efficient workshops. Therefore, their feedback is of critical importance (Maziere & Gunnlaugson, 2015).

It is noted that equine-assisted interventions are not appropriate for everyone because of safety issues related to horses and the open environment in which the interventions occur (Bachi, 2012). As horses are large and powerful animals, their physical attributes and interactions sometimes inspire fear and trepidation or awe and excitement among participants

(Notgrass & Pettinelli, 2015). While some people find them intimidating, the practitioners should be aware of the comfort or anxiety of the participants and see if they can overcome the fear and work with an animal like this (Lac, 2017; Mandrell, 2006). In order to assure the safety and comfort of both the horses and the participants in a counseling session, the counselor should include horses that are calm and already physically, emotionally, and mentally pretty healthy and horses that the equine specialist knows well enough that he has a real sense of horses' druthers namely how they are likely response in any situation in the session (Hauge et al., 2014; Parelli & Parelli, 2012). Accomplishing an equine-assisted task, despite those fears and being able to maneuver and control such a huge animal in size, creates confidence and provides for great metaphors when dealing with other intimidating and challenging situations in life (All et al., 1999; Kuropatkin, 2013; Mandrell, 2006; Vollmer, 2014).

Conclusion

This paper offers an introduction to the theoretical foundations of equine-assisted leadership development. This relatively new and increasingly popular approach provides a unique learning experience by incorporating human-animal interaction into educational settings. As a result, skills that can be difficult to acquire in more traditional settings are developed and enhance and complement leadership skills.

While the human-horse bond can enrich and inspire learning, the equine-assisted learning workshops allow the participants to view problems differently and get new sights. They help to revise the behaviors, cognitions, and unconscious processes. Although some people claim that drawing analogies between horse management and human leadership is dangerous (Rickards, 2000; Selby & Smith-Osborne, 2013), the workshops obviously include all of the discussed processes in the leadership development literature, such as how goals are established, how decisions are made, who will make them and who will implement them as well as topics such as team development, conflict resolution, task management, communication, and relationships.

Previous research reveals that participants understand from their equine-assisted experience related to their style and organizational structure. Through the horses' modeling and teachings, they are encouraged to acquire new interpersonal skills and decide how better leaders should behave and treat others (Hagen, 2007; Hesse & Capitao, 2012; West, 2015). Based on recent theoretical and empirical literature on equine-assisted learning, it can be claimed that working with horses can help to experience the power of the horse to teach critical life skills such as trust, respect, honesty, open communication, and to enhance a person's self-awareness. Previous research also provides evidence that the confidence developed through equestrian experiences makes leaders more eager to face difficulties and take on new challenges. The assertiveness learned through handling horses is useful in getting co-workers to accept the leadership (Fransson, 2015). In the workshops, participants experience and practice effective communication, willing partnership, shared vision, skillful action, and thoughtful decision-making (Naidoo, 2009). To sum up, corporating equine-assisted learning in a leadership development program may be a proven, highly effective, and rewarding way to hone or discover the skills critical to being an influential leader.

The findings of the present study are consistent with the claims of Pentecost (2017, p. 23) that horses are a natural model for leadership and with the claims of Lyle and Schlamb (2017,

p. 4) that the human-horse relationship constitutes a creative exemplar that teaches leaders to be attentive to behaviours, needs, actions and reactions of those with whom they engage. Since the participation in the equine-assisted learning programs seem to have a primarily positive impact on teaching responsibility, caring, communicating as well as patience, empathy, trust, respect, confidence, attentiveness to others, conflict resolution through development in creative arts of persuasion, better communication skills (Keaveney, 2008), several emotional intelligence competencies (Grootveld, 2015), social skills, perceived sense of mastery, optimism, self-efficacy (Bouchard, 2014), self-awareness, self-confidence and team-building (Gehrke, 2009; Selby & Smith-Osbourne, 2013), there is no doubt that the skills the leaders develop in equine-assisted programs impact an organization's bottom line.

Leadership development programs can be an organization's top tool to maintain a visionary, strong leadership team. Since they are critical to the long-term success of organizations, they constitute a competitive advantage (Fulmer & Goldsmith, 2001; Weiss & Molinaro, 2005). Organizations can maximize the impact and benefits of their leadership development programs by creating out-of-class learning opportunities. To this end, the present paper presents the case for a new framework for leadership development programs. Based on our extensive work and research in this field, the present paper shows that horses provide a strong metaphor for human leadership. Thus, by mindfully relating to a horse, leadership skills can be developed. Equine-assisted leadership development programs constitute a unique, eye-opening, and profound leadership learning and development experience. Although the workshops may be relatively costly (Koris, Alalauri, & Pihlak, 2017) and logistically difficult because they can only take place in rural and urban settings (Adams-Pope & Stedman, 2014), they motivate the participants by offering a new environment, an unusual challenge, immediate feedback and chances to practice skills learned right away (Meola, 2016). The findings of the present study are consistent with the claims of Björnberg (2015) that equine-assisted learning may be the next frontier in experiential leadership development. As Hagen (2007) claimed, very few leadership development programs can compete with this one for hands-on, experiential learning, and flat-out-fun. The findings are also consistent with the claims of Felton (2012, p. 200) that they constitute an innovative way to bring a different perspective to leadership development programs while they are really effective and the return on investment is significant as personal breakthroughs can be achieved in minutes compares to months of traditional coaching.

It is recommended that equine-assisted leadership programs are offered to individuals who work in leadership positions. In addition, the universities that provide leadership training and development programs include equine-assisted leadership development workshops to their agenda.

It is crucial to note that the legitimacy of an equine-assisted learning program depends on the successful transfer of learning from the workshops on the farm to participant's personal and professional life (Dyk et al., 2012). To maximize results and improve future workshops, it is suggested that at the end of the workshop, the participants asses their own learning and evaluate the workshop to provide feedback to the facilitators. It is also suggested that a report is created which includes a summary of what learning goals are achieved from the workshop, the debrief notes from each session, noteworthy experiences that occurred, evaluation results, and next steps for development (Equine Experiential Education Association Marketing Committee, 2018).

It should be recalled that there are discussions on equine-assisted leadership development that different management styles may lead to experiences of bullying and abusive behaviors. However, this helps the participants draw fine distinctions between being tough, being assertive, being supportive, and being soft (Rickards, 2000). Furthermore, since the equestrian community is shifting from fear-based leadership to respect-based leadership, the participants discover how the horses react as humans do to intimidating leaders (Kaplan, 2015).

Equine-assisted programs are beginning to find their way into the literature (Perkins, 2018, p. 299). However, despite the powerful anecdotal and descriptive evidence that supports the beneficial psychological outcomes associated with the use of horses as an integral part of a coaching session with humans, scientific research on this topic is scant (Andersen, 2009). The management has a crucial role in orientation to learning (Gutiérrez Gutiérrez, Bustinza, & Barrales Molina, 2012). This paper is a road map for executives and human resources leaders considering how to develop leadership for competitive advantage, taking it more seriously and giving it the investment of time, money, and rigour that it deserves. The researcher hopes that the literature review and the recommendations compiled in this paper will stimulate further research on the effects of employing equine-assisted learning on leadership development.

Limitations and Further Research

This study represents an essential initial step in emphasizing the utility and value of equine-assisted leadership development, a category of promising complementary practices that are still striving to prove their efficacy and validity (Brown, 2010; Kruger & Serpell, 2010). As Jensen (2011) suggests, to allow the identification and elimination or revision of interventions that do not have the intended impact on self-awareness, formative evaluation of leader development programs is essential. Thus, the challenge for researchers in this area is to design both qualitative and quantitative studies that can examine whether equine-assisted activities can develop leadership skills and build an evidence-based to improve the potential application of equine-assisted leadership development programs. Another challenge for the researchers is to design studies that can examine whether the participants apply their learning in the context of their work environments. In sum, to improve equine-assisted leadership development, further studies must begin to focus on measuring the learning and transfer of leadership skills via equine-assisted interventions.

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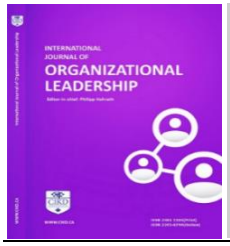

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Leadership Styles of Principals in Private Higher Secondary Schools in Nepal

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ABSTRACT

This article focuses on principals' leadership style in private schools in Nepal regarding their job experience, age factors, level of education, and gender issues. It is based on the three dimensions of the leadership of Principals. They are democratic, autocratic, and laissez-faire, and they were examined with the rating style questionnaires as perceived by principals themselves and their teachers. The population sample of this study covered 78 principals and 163 teachers of different private higher secondary schools. The data for the qualitative study were collected, and Stata programming was applied as a statistical tool. The findings of this research indicated that most respondents, including principals themselves with different demographic characters, gave a high score for the democratic leadership styles of the principals. Basically, no variation was noted between the leadership style of male and female principals. But, respondents of academically highly qualified female teachers and more experienced teachers gave high scores for autocratic and laissez-faire leadership style in relation to few management functions like decision making, goal setting, and communication only. Conclusively, the democratic leadership style of principals was highly desirable, but autocratic leadership style and laissez-faire leadership styles were deemed desirable.

Quality leadership is a key element to develop the entire academia and society. An excellent educational leader is in utter need of the 21st century to cope and compete with the global academic network. Sungtong (2007) found three main characteristics of principle's leadership in dealing with educational and cultural reform: increasing participation, transferring vision and producing changes, and recognizing foundation. The effectiveness of leaders in academic sectors is always valued by their abilities to contribute to improving the quality of education and providing harmony in school culture. Pont, Nushe, and Moorman (2008) claim that effective school leaders improve the efficiency and equity of schooling. It has been a universal principle that the success of any educational organization (school) depends on the leadership styles they practice as a principal.

This article investigates principals' leadership styles in private higher secondary schools in Nepal

concerning their job experience, age factors, and level of education and gender issues. Both male and female principals of different demographic characters like young to old age group, less experienced to more experienced, the master degree to PhD scholars are leading various schools as principals. The principals' leadership styles in private schools of Nepal have been raised a debatable matter. According to the gender issue in leadership, Mathema (2006) says male managers differ significantly from their female counterparts. In contrast, women follow participative and interactive approaches, but men depend less on such approaches. The principal's abilities and skills are central to building a school society that promotes meaningful teaching and learning activities. There are various groups of people in a school system, such as faculty, non-teaching, support staff, and students. And they are from different culture and social backgrounds, and various ethnic communities; of course, they have different desires, abilities, and attitudes. So, it is challenging for the principal to organize them into a common set of school structures that provide full satisfaction to all of them to achieve the institutional goal. According to Robbins and Judge (2007), a good leadership style can perform the critical task in managing human resources materials and financial activities into productivity in the most effective way. Therefore, principals' leadership styles are the main factors to strengthen the quality of teaching-learning and the overall performance of the school society. Sapkota (2008) has undertaken his research study on leadership in a public school in Nepal, but no research works have been done about the leadership of private higher secondary schools. So, it is noticed that the research on leadership practices of principals in private higher secondary schools in Nepal is insufficient. No researchers have stated which one is the dominant type of leadership practice in Nepal's existing private higher secondary school. Do their demographic variables determine the leadership styles of principals? And which leadership styles would be considered the best fit for Nepal's private higher secondary schools? The key concern of this research work is to quest for the dominant type of leadership styles of principals and whether the leadership types of principals are influenced or not by their demographic variables. It is also believed that democratic, autocratic, and Laissez-faire leadership styles have prevailed in private higher secondary schools in Nepal. In this context the main objective of the study is to examine the extent of prevalence of various leadership styles of principals or directors in private higher secondary schools in Nepal and their different demographic characteristics.

Literature Review

Leadership style

Leadership is the way of a leader leading an organization to achieve institutional goals. A principal is regarded as the leader in a school. Academic achievements depend upon the leadership role and performance of a principal. So, leadership is a consistent pattern of behavior displayed by a leader over time (Mathema, 2006). The researchers found that different leadership styles to be adopted depending on the situation and circumstances. It is also noted that the leadership styles are directly connected with their behavior. Mathema (2006) claims that a study of leadership styles, therefore, deals mainly with how the leader carries out their leadership functions or roles, use of authority and power, and approach to decision making (p. 56). This academic research works try to dig out whether the leadership styles of school principals vary with their educational level, job experience, and age or not. Are there any differences between male leadership and female leadership styles? Is the issue a much-debated question? Eagly and Karau (2001) claimed, though there is a general agreement that women face more barriers to becoming leaders than men do, especially leader's roles are male-dominated. Many research articles and publications focus that the leadership style of women in the organizational setting is much more democratic than men. These studies have compared the leadership styles of males

and females. Most of these studies have focused on a task and interpersonal style, and smaller numbers have examined autocratic style versus democratic and laissez-faire styles.

According to Eagly and Karau (2001), the extent that gender roles spill over to influence leadership behavior in organizational settings, the behavior of female leaders than that of male leaders may be more interpersonally oriented, democratic and transformational. In contrast, the behavior of the male leader, compared with that of female leaders, may be more tasks oriented and autocratic. In addition, the greater incongruence of the female than male gender role with typical leading roles may make it more difficult for women than men to manifest the more agented leadership styles (p. 13). The differences in leadership styles of leaders are based on the assumption that the leaders make a source of their power, authority, and human nature. Tannenbaum and Schmidt (2017) have also suggested the range of leader's behavior from extreme authoritarian to extreme democratic. There are different scholars in social sciences and management to claim varieties of leadership styles. Bogardus (1918) has suggested four types of leadership styles: The autocratic type who rises to office in a powerful organization, the democratic type which represents the interests of a group, the executive type who is goal granted leadership because he can get things done, and the reflective intellectual type who may find it difficult to recruit large followers.

Similarly, Levine (1949, as cited in Bass, 1990) has proposed four types of leaders. They are: The charismatic leader helps the groups rally around a common aim but tends to become dogmatically rigid, the organizational leader highlights and tends to drive people to effective action, the intellectual leader usually lacks skill in attracting people, and the informal leader tends to adopt his style of performance to group needs. There are different scholars they have their diverse perception of leadership styles.

Mathema (2006) has suggested that recent theorists have been primarily concerned with two major leadership styles; authoritarians and democratic. Both styles have been given new names. The authoritarian style is named as "task-oriented" or “structured" while the democratic is called “personal oriented" considerate (p. 59). Among the high leadership styles and approaches, Good worth (1988, as cited in Mathema, 2006) has stated that various leadership styles can be identified within each of the following management techniques. Each technique has its own set of good and not-so-good characteristics, and each uses leadership differently. Mathema (2006) has suggested that the lower studies identified the authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire leadership styles. These three leadership styles of higher secondary school principals have been taken as tools for this research issue based upon the assumption that principals' leadership styles can be judged by their managerial activities performed within schools’ premises.

Historical Background on Education System in Nepal

According to Sebaly (1998, as cited in Anderson & Lindkvist, 2000), rights to education for every citizen were adopted in Nepal in 1995. Before that, there was no right to education for all the people of Nepal because the autocratic constitution of Rana’s period had no provision for education to anyone except for the royal family members and high ruling classes. The rulers fear that if people and lower cast people got free education, they would critically approach the system and get dissatisfied. Therefore, the people should be kept ignored, which was better (Estrad,1998 as cited in Anderson & Lindkvist , 2000). At that time, the educational policy and system were not legalized and centralized. After 1971, the Government of Nepal first attempted to look at education as an “investment in human resource development (Sebaly, 1998 as cited in Anderson & Lindkvist , 2000). After establishing democracy in Nepal, public debates were begun about rights to education for the people. After the

world conference on education held in Jomtien (Thailand) in 1990, Nepal decided to endorse the Declaration and was agreed to "Education for All" (Anderson & Lindkvist , 2000). Education in Nepal is structured as school education and higher education. School education includes pre-primary (nursery to upper KG), primary (grade 1-5), lower secondary (grades 6-8), secondary (grades 9-10), and higher secondary level (grades 11-12). Higher education consists of bachelor's degree, masters, and PhD. The duration of bachelor level may be three years to five years, depending upon the stream and subjects. The duration of master's degree is genuinely two years. Table 1 presents the national education structure in Nepal.

Table1

National Education Structure

Grade	Level	Normal Age
1	Primary Education	6
2		7
3		8
4		9
5		10
6	Lower Secondary Education	11
7		12
8		13
9	Secondary Education	14
10		15
11	Higher Secondary Education	16
12		17
13	Higher Education (University)	18
14		19
15		20
16		21
17+		22+

Adopted from Ministry of Education, Keshar Mahal, Kathmandu, 2nd (1996, p.3) (skar & Cederroth, 1997 as cited in Anderson and Lindkvist 2000)

Legally there are two types of schools in the country: community and institutional. Community schools receive regular government grants, whereas institutional schools are funded by their own or other non-governmental sources. Institutional schools are organized either as a non-profit front or as a company. However, schools are mainly of two types: public (community) and Private (institutional).

Higher Secondary Education System in Nepal

Higher Secondary Education Board (HSEB), a higher secondary school certificate awarding body, was established in 2049 BS under higher secondary act 2046 BS. In the beginning year, 13 higher secondary schools were affiliated under HSEB all over the country. Still, today, there are more than 3500 higher secondary schools in Nepal where more than 800,000 students are studying in grades XI and XII. The objectives of higher secondary education are to manage Nepal's education system comparable to the education system of the other countries in the world and assure the quality of the higher secondary education system. The organizational structure of HSEB includes: a) Administrative department, Curriculum department, b) Planning, monitoring and evaluation department, c) Accreditation department, and d) Department of exam controller. Education minister is the chairman of the higher secondary education assembly. All higher secondary schools of the country are run under the control of the higher secondary education board. The principals in the higher secondary schools are important people who have executive rights and responsibilities.

There are very few research works undertaken in the area of schools' leadership in Nepal. However, in this research, an attempt has been made to review some of the studies and their findings directly or indirectly relevant to the present topic. Timalsina (2008) has researched the topic "school effectiveness criteria with reference to the public and private schools in Nepal." The major findings responding to

the principals are as follows: Dedicated leadership was respected as one of Nepal's major factors of school effectiveness. Conflict among the teachers and management team and inactive school principals were respected as a major impending factor of school effectiveness. Principals of private schools were found to be more active than public schools. Positive thinking and strong leadership of head teachers' involvement in decision-making were reported as essential factors for school effectiveness by school management committee members. The status of private schools was found to be better than public schools in Nepal. The commitment of private schools to valuing the importance of school effectiveness criteria and their implementation was observed to be higher than that of public school.

Similarly, Sharma (2009) investigated school management in Nepal. The major findings regarding school leadership pointed out by this study are as follows: Schools lack systematic planning processes and do not reflect stakeholders' participation in school planning. Schools run on a ritual basis and rarely implements organizing practices. Headteachers have weak power and do not have the appropriate qualification to develop school-level leadership. Schools need more authorities and a transparent system of monitoring with reward and punishment.

Singh (2016) examined leadership practices of principals and found that all the principals had to deal with political interference, less support from government policies, poor administrative support from the higher authorities, a lack of financial and other resources, and severe at times and increased in competition from mushrooming schools as their chief challenges. The conclusion made by Singh is also supported by Mathema (2006). He claims that teachers' morale in most public schools results from inadequate resources, weak leadership, lack of professional support, and political interference.

I realized that young Principals were more interactive with the teachers and staff than old principals during my school visit. I also found that schools having female principals were mostly present at the station compared to male principals. The schools with known and old principals were rarely present in their room and what I met such personalities were very difficult for front desk officer. They demanded power distance. For these reasons I wish to know the determinant factors of the dominant leadership styles, whether it may be age, education level, experience period, or gender issue. Nowadays, employees of any school (teachers, staff) usually raise the issues of being isolated themselves from the management activities by founders. We have numerous examples that teacher unions, employees, and other organizations are debating their rights and responsibilities with the school management. Analyzing the overall scenarios, I have realized that decision-making, communication, and strategic planning are the key management components. Therefore, I try to quest to what extent the principal democratic, autocratic, or Laissez-faire with their employees for the managerial activities.

The leadership studies have focused on different types of leadership styles in different sectors. In the present study, the main focus of analysis is to the extent of the prevalence of various leadership styles in Nepal's educational sectors. To meet the need of this study the objectives of the study is to examine the extent of prevalence of various leadership style of principals/directors in private higher secondary Schools of Nepal and their different demographic characteristics. To address the objective of the study, the following research questions were designed:

- To what extent the leadership styles differ in relation to principals/directors' job experience in the field?
- To what extent the leadership styles differ in relation to principals/directors' education levels?
- To what extent the leadership styles differ in relation to principals/directors' age levels?
- Are there differences between the leadership style of male and female principals?

Method

Research Design

The present research study was descriptive. Therefore, the study was qualitative. Though the research study was largely quantitative, both qualitative and quantitative approaches were applied to data collection and analysis. The quantitative approaches were applied to manage from close questionnaires to identify the variation of principals' leadership styles in relation to their demographic variables like age, sex, experience, and qualification. In contrast, qualitative approaches were mainly applied to manage interview data and secondary sources, which could not be done by the quantitative method.

Sample Size

The sample population of this research was higher secondary schools' principals and their teachers of Kathmandu Valley, which includes a higher secondary school of three districts Kathmandu, Lalitpur, and Bhaktapur. The sample area has covered more than 60% of the private higher secondary schools. There are 290 (two hundred and ninety) existing private higher secondary schools in Kathmandu Valley. Out of 290 principals, 225 male and 65 female were leading the schools. The target population was determined by Gupta (1992):

$$n^0 = z^2 \frac{pq}{d^2} (Gupta, 1992)$$

= the confidence level (expected 95 %)

p and q are the proportion of female and male principals, respectively

d = permissible error is considered as 10% = 0.10

n^0 = number of sample size

$$\therefore n^0 = \frac{(1.96)^2 \times 0.288 \times 0.712}{(0.1)^2}$$

= 78.77

= 78

From the calculated sample, the equivalent proportion of male principals (63) and female principals (15) and 163 teachers (two teachers from each school) were in the sample size. Table 2 presents the total number of respondents.

Table 2

Total Number of Respondents

Status	No. of H.S.S*	No. of respondent	% of respondent
Male-principal	63	63	26.58%
Female-principal	15	15	7.59%
Teachers	163	163	66.66%
Total	241	241	100%

*Higher Secondary School

Instruments

The questionnaires were defined focusing on management functions to be performed by the principals. Each element of the questionnaires is related to major managerial functions like decision making, controlling, communication, participation isolation or involvement, motivation, job allocation, goal setting, performance appraisal, planning, etc. The same questionnaires were administered to principals and teachers to compare the perception of the both respondents to identify the leadership styles of principals. The leadership questionnaires concern the three dimensions of leadership styles. They are democratic leadership style (seven statements), autocratic leadership style (five statements), and laissez fair leadership style (five statements) with response categories ranging from “strongly disagree”

to "strongly agree" in 1 to 5 quantitative rating scales. The statements of the related style are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

The Statements of the Questionnaire

	Statement number in questionnaire	Statements in questionnaire
Democratic style statements in the questionnaire	DL Q.1	Teachers prepare job objectives and discuss with their principal for final approval.
	DL Q.2	Delegation of power to teachers in this school is strongly exist.
	DL Q.3	Teachers from different departments and levels sit together to solve the organizational problems.
	DL Q.4	Participative decision making is encouraged to teachers in decision on adoption of new policies and programs.
	DL Q.5	Teachers are encouraged to discuss about the organizational problems freely and frankly.
	DL Q.6	Communication moves freely, horizontally, vertically and laterally.
	DL Q.7	Teachers participate to determine school resources allocation and utilization in the school.
Autocratic style statements the in questionnaire	AL Q.8	Principal determines all the activities to be done by teachers.
	AL Q.9	Principal always makes decision himself/herself.
	AL Q.10	School management introduces the change without explaining the concept.
	AL Q.11	School management always threatens and pressurizes the teachers in their job.
	AL Q.12	Instructions are imposed on the teachers with expect to the job performing procedures and methods.
Laissez-faire style statements in the questionnaire	LL Q.13	The principal always tries to get teachers' ideas and opinions and make constructive decision.
	LL Q.14	Teachers are given freedom to set their goals.
	LL Q.15	Teachers have freedom to appraise their performance themselves.
	LL Q.16	Decentralization of power for making decision is large.
	LL Q.17	Information of all types are accessible at any time.

Note. DL Q = Democratic Leadership Questionnaire, AL Q = Autocratic Leadership Questionnaire, LL Q = Laissez-faire Leadership Questionnaire

The percentage distribution of respondents' male principals, female principals and teachers is 26.58%, 7.59%, and 66.66%, respectively. The questionnaires were administered to the respondent and returned. Data collected by this survey were analyzed statically using the STATA program to calculate mean, standard deviation, and coefficient of variation. The distribution of respondent principals and teachers regarding their age, experience, and academic qualifications was separately calculated.

Validity and Reliability

In order to assure validity, the tools and techniques designed for the study were handed to the supervisors and other senior academicians for analysis and provision of feedback. Then, they were revised according to their guidance and suggestions. Besides, the literature review also helped me to design the study. According to Joppe (2000), validity determines whether the research truly measures what it was intended to measures or how truthful the research results are. Similarly, reliability refers to the level of dependability of the items in the research instrument and the consistency of the research instruments in tapping information from more than one respondent (Nsubuga, 2008). For this research, the reliability test was performed by a pilot survey on a small population (10% of the sample size). The results of the pilot study provided authenticity to proceed with data collection.

Analysis and Results

The age-wise distribution of principals and teachers was 21 – 30 years, 31-40, 41-50, and 51+ years. Similarly, experience-wise made the difference of 10 years, i.e., 1-10 years, 10-2, and 20+ years of experience. The minimum requirement for higher secondary school principals or teachers, at least, is to pass master's degree. The descriptive, statistics and cross-sectional tabulation analysis technique were applied to assess the leadership styles of higher secondary school principals. Using stata

programming, standard deviation and coefficient variation were calculated to interpret the results. The element-wise analysis was performed in relation to each leadership style to know the leadership styles of principals in their specific management functions.

Table 4 shows that male principals perceived the greatest extent of democratic leadership style. The mean value of male principals is 3.28, which is greater than mid-value 3, and the lowest mean is 2.62 obtained for female teachers. Male and female principals and male teachers perceived the prevalence of democratic leadership style since the mean values are greater than mid-value 3. Female teachers perceived that the prevalence of leadership styles of principals is not democratic. The greater variation in the response (.29) has been found in male teachers, whereas female principal variation is the lowest (.19).

Table 4

Private School's Principal by Gender

Gender status	Number	*M*	*SD**	*CV**
M. principal	63	3.28	0.86	0.26
F. principal	15	3.13	0.60	0.19
M. teacher	147	3.05	0.90	0.29
F. teacher	16	2.62	0.67	0.25
Total	241	3.09	0.87	0.28

Note. *CV = Coefficient of Variation

Table 5 presents the age-wise data of principals. The respondents have been made four age groups: 21 to 30 years old, 31 to 40, 41 to 50 and more than 50 years old. The data showed that all age groups perceived the prevalence of almost equal democratic leadership style except age group 21 to 30 years. The age group 21 to 30 years old has scored the lowest mean 2.77 which is less than the mid-value. On the other hand, the mean scores of all age groups of principals except 21-30 are greater than the mid-value. The greatest variations .42 have been found in the principals of the age group 21 to 30 whereas the lowest variation is .20 in the respondents' (principals') responses of age group above 51 years old.

Table 5

Private School's Principal by Age Groups

Principals age group	Number	*M*	*SD*	*CV**
21 to 30 years	3	2.77	1.17	0.42
31 to 40 years	22	3.31	0.93	0.28
41 to 50 years	31	3.19	0.80	0.25
51 years above	22	3.33	0.69	0.20
Total	78	3.25	0.82	0.25

Note. *CV = Coefficient of Variation

Table 6 shows the democratic leadership style of principal perceived by different age groups of teachers. The greatest variation is .30, and the lowest is .25. The age groups 21 to 30 years and 31 to 40 years old teachers responded that their principals are democratic leaders. The mean value of 41 to 50 years and above 51 years old teachers are 2.93 and 2.83, respectively, below the mid-value 3. So, these age groups' teachers did not perceive the principals' prevalence of democratic leadership style.

Table 6

Democratic Leadership Style

Principals' age group	Number	*M*	*SD*	*CV**
21 to 30 years	51	3.06	0.93	0.30
31 to 40 years	85	3.01	0.89	0.29
41 to 50 years	25	2.93	0.86	0.28
51 years above	2	2.83	0.70	0.25
Total	163	3.01	0.89	0.29

Note. *CV = Coefficient of Variation

Table 7 shows the academic qualification of principals did not drastically affect the leadership styles of principals. The mean value of principals having master's degree, MPhil, and PhD degree qualification followed democratic leadership style. The principals with MPhil degree qualification scored 3.77 mean value which is the highest mean score. So, principals themselves perceived the prevalence of democratic leadership style. The variation is .24 that lies in master's degree holders, and the highest variation lies in PhD holders, which is .28.

Table 7

Private School's Principals by Academic Status

Academic Status	Number	*M*	*SD*	*CV**
Master degree	61	3.19	0.78	0.24
MPhil	9	3.77	0.92	0.24
PhD	8	3.08	0.86	0.28
Total	78	3.25	0.82	0.25

Note. *CV = Coefficient of Variation

In Table 8, statement No. 5 presents "organizational problems" and statement No. 4 represents "decision making". The highest mean scores recorded mean score of 4.33 for statement No. 5 and a score of 4.26 for statements No. 3 and 4. The remaining statements 1, 2, 6, and 7 were rated more than mid-value. Hence, the presented data informed that female principals follow democratic leadership styles in their administrative functions. They become more democratic with respect to managerial functions like "decision making" and "discussions with organizational problems."

Table 8

Statement Analysis

Statement No.	Number	*M*	*SD*	*CV**
DL Q.1	15	3.66	0.72	0.19
DL Q.2	15	3.86	0.64	0.16
DL Q.3	15	4.26	0.63	0.14
DL Q.4	15	4.26	0.70	0.16
DL Q.5	15	4.33	0.48	0.11
DL Q.6	15	3.73	0.59	0.15
DL Q.7	15	4.13	0.83	0.20

Note. *CV = Coefficient of Variation

Table 9 presents the respondents' experienced group of 21 years and above who have scored the highest mean for statement No. 5, which is "teachers are encouraged to discuss the organizational problems freely and frankly," and its mean score is 4.17. Similarly, they gave a 4.08 score for the statement of "decision making". The wise analysis of democratic leadership style considering total respondents in relation to their service experiences was conducted. All the experienced groups perceived the prevalence of democratic leadership styles for all statements like "Job objectives", "delegation of power", "participation in decision making", "communication", and "goal setting". The mean scores of all statements are greater than the mid-value. The data revealed that principals were more democratic in "discussions with organizational problems" and "decision making" and also showed that the existing leadership style of the higher secondary school in Nepal is dominantly democratic.

Table 9
Respondents' Experience

Statement No.	1-10 years			11-20 years			21 years above			total		
	No.	*M*	*SD*	No.	*M*	*SD*	No	*M*	*SD*	No.	*M*	*SD*
DL Q.1	142	3.62	0.83	76	3.44	0.83	23	3.60	1.30	241	3.56	0.88
DL Q.2	142	3.38	0.85	76	3.48	0.80	23	3.87	0.75	241	3.46	0.84
DL Q.3	142	3.69	0.90	76	3.59	0.86	23	3.75	0.82	241	3.68	0.88
DL Q.4	142	3.61	0.95	76	3.67	0.80	23	4.08	0.79	241	3.68	0.90
DL Q.5	142	3.60	0.96	76	3.75	0.81	23	4.17	0.83	241	3.73	0.91
DL Q.6	142	3.45	0.84	76	3.73	0.77	23	4.04	0.87	241	3.60	0.84
DL Q.7	142	3.28	0.88	76	3.48	0.75	23	3.43	0.89	241	3.36	0.85

Summary Major Findings

Democratic Leadership Styles of Principal

- Statistically, the gender-wise analysis showed that the mean values of male and female principals and male teachers are 3.28, 3.13, and 3.05, respectively, which are greater than three. On the other hand, female principals got a low score of 2.65, i.e., less than 3.
- The results showed that all respondents between 21 to 30 years scored greater than mid- value 3. The greatest variation .44 has been found in the principals between the age group 21-30 years. Similarly, the age groups 21-30 years and 31-40 years old teachers had mean values greater than 3 and 41-50 years and above 51 years had the mean score less than three.
- Principals with master's degree qualification, MPhill, and PhD degree holders scored mean values greater than 3. The greatest variation lies in master degree holder principals. Only the teacher with master's degree qualifications gave lower scores (i.e., 2.77 mean less than 3) for the democratic leadership styles of their principals.
- Principals with more than 20 years and less than 10 years of experience gave high mean scores. The teachers with less than 10 years of experience gave high scores, but 11 years and more experienced teachers did not perceive democratic leaders.

Autocratic Leadership Styles of Principals

- Principals, both male and female with different age groups, having other work experience periods and academic degrees, did not perceive themselves as autocratic leadership styles. The mean scores of all the cases were found to be less than mid-value 3.
- The teachers of all age groups having other work experiences and qualifications (except PhD) did not perceive principals as autocratic educational leaders. However, only PhD holder teachers gave a high mean score which is greater than mid-value.

Laissez-faire Leadership Styles

- Male and female principals of all age groups having other academic qualifications and work experiences did not perceive themselves as Laissez-faire since the mean scores were less than mid-value 3. Similarly, teachers of all age groups with other experience and academic qualifications (except PhD) did not perceive Laissez-faire leadership styles of principals. Only PhD holder teachers gave a mean score of 4 and pointed to the Laissez-faire leadership style.

Element-wise Analysis of Leadership Styles of Principals.

- Both male and female principals and teachers accepted the democratic leadership styles and all the seven management functions. Similarly, they did not support autocratic leadership styles in all the five functions of management. But teachers supported principals with Laissez-faire

leadership in some management functions, for instance, freedom of communication to set a goal and participation to make constructive decisions.

- The qualitative research work (interviews) was undertaken with various respondents, and they have almost supported the democratic leadership styles. A district education officer reflected this perception regarding the leadership style of principals.
  "*The principals must have clear vision in order to bring the cordial relationship among the staff, parents, other stakeholders and community for the improvement of school performance and to be recognized as an effective school leader."* The response of a mathematics faculty member on the same question was:
  "Because of the democratic type of leadership exhibited by the principal, staffs are always free to give suggestions and comments for the betterment of school performance." The perception of an English lady teacher about her principal was similar to a mathematics faculty member. She revealed:
  "Our principal is very friendly. We do not have any hesitation to put our problems in front of him. He makes the cordial relationship among us. He treats equally each staff and teacher. We are invited to participate in the meeting. So, we are proud of our principal's managerial skill and positive attitude." The above connections with all the respondents reflect the democratic leadership styles of principals.

Discussion

The statistical findings of quantitative data showed that almost all principals of private higher secondary schools in Nepal use democratic leadership styles dominantly. All principals have perceived themselves as good democratic education leaders. The principals value the good relation with teachers, the feeling of the teachers, and their role and responsibilities, which provide a good atmosphere for the teachers. So, the key leadership competency of the school principal is to know how to scan the internal and external environment of the institution properly. It is also supported by research work undertaken by Rajbhandari (2002) about the school leaderships of Nepalese education, which states that leadership style can be defined according to the institutions' environment. Therefore, it is the situation that demands the adaptation of leadership style in an organization. Conclusively, it is noted that Nepal's private schools' leadership is dominantly democratic in relation to the management functions performed by the principals. In addition, they have also practiced autocratic leadership style and laissez-faire leadership style to some extent. It is also found that the respondent (teachers) having a high degree (MPhil and PhD), high age (51 years above), and more job experienced (20 years and above) did not perceive the democratic leadership style of their principals. It was also noted that the majority of teachers have agreed that their principals' leadership style is autocratic in few management functions like job performance and job allocation. Similarly, they accepted the laissez-faire leadership style of the principal in relation to communication, decision-making, and goal setting.

In brief, the major findings of this study have indicated that the leadership style of private higher secondary schools' principals in Nepal is democratic. There are several reasons behind the democratic education management practices in Nepal. The country's autocratic political system has been changed into a complete democratic paradigm (Bush, 2010). Since school districts are part of society, there is a direct effect of national politics in the private education system. Bush (2010) says "democracy expects of its education system and its leadership growth of the nation to be equipped to assume responsibilities in political setting." Therefore, the principals virtually undertake democratic leadership and practice democratic style in their higher secondary school in the recent year to cope with the new

change in Nepal.

Conclusions

The prime objective of this research study was to identify the existing leadership style of private higher secondary school principals in which the three dimensions of leadership styles were considered. They were democratic, autocratic and laissez-faire leadership styles. It was also believed that these three scales of leadership styles may prevail in the private higher secondary schools in Nepal. Questionnaires were designed which included the major functions of school management to examine the dimension of leadership styles. The questionnaires were provided to the principals themselves and their teachers to collect the data. In the previous sectors, the collected data were presented and analyzed for the discussion. The main conclusions made by the findings and discussions of this study were summarized as:

- Leadership style of private higher secondary schools' principals is dominantly democratic, and Laissez-faire and autocratic leadership style are rarely present.
- Perception variations are noted in gender issues of leadership styles.
- Slight percentage variations are noted between more experienced and less experienced, younger and older teachers and teachers with different levels of academic qualification.
- Demographic characteristics such as level of education, age, and work experience have been seen as small determinant factors to evaluate principals' leadership styles.
- Principals adopt different leadership styles in different managerial functions.

The following implications for leadership practices have been presented from the research findings and conclusions. The private school leadership should scan the internal and external environment while practicing the educational leadership responsibility. The internal environment includes teachers, staff, and students. The external environment includes society, parents, various social organizations, education-related offices, and educationalists. Principals should be informed about the different approaches to educational leadership practices because a single leadership style may not always fit to achieve the objectives of schools. Principals should be provided professional development leadership training programs and education leadership style training programs which help them to gain a better knowledge of how and when to apply the appropriate leadership style in the school. Finally, principals of private schools should be aware of the educational leadership of the 21st century and follow the norms and values of a universal democratic leadership style.

The present study focused only on the three different dimensions of leadership styles. The three patterns of leadership styles are not enough for the current education era. Therefore, for future research, it is advised to identify the distinct patterns of leadership styles. Furthermore, the present study is limited to the principals that are employed for the private higher secondary school levels (Grade XI and XII). It would be more prudent to study the leadership styles of both private and public secondary schools along with technical secondary schools. Therefore, it is advised for future researchers to find out the leadership styles of principals of all kinds of secondary schools. This study only examined the perceptions of teachers and principals themselves. It would be more beneficial to conduct further research that examines other stakeholders' perceptions, such as parents, students, community members, staff, and other related people. Such research work could provide valuable data in comparing how different groups view the principals' leadership styles. This study presented the knowledge of existing leadership practices of principals in private higher secondary schools. Further research is needed to identify whether specific leadership styles of principal impacts on school performance.

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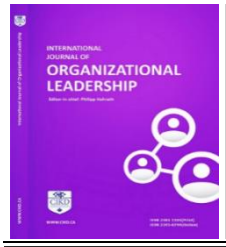

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A Responsible Leadership Dimensional Framework Model

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ABSTRACT

During the last years, leaders in the business world face uncertainty regarding how their decision and actions are considered responsible. While numerous papers have discussed the Responsible Leadership (RL) concept, a few models presented the concept. Still, the existing contributions to RL do not present a clear conceptual framework from the point of view of theoretical-practical. This paper aims to present a theoretical conceptual, logical, and dimensional framework for the RL phenomenon debates in the literature. The methodology used a qualitative approach applying focuses group discussion with 45 leaders in 20 factories and companies located in Egypt in different industries. Also, this paper reviews various recent literature and previous models for discussing the RL concept. The suggested model covering this area is new and innovative based on four existing models and presents a new definition of the RL phenomenon.

There is an increasing amount of research being published on sustainability and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR). The concept of Responsible Leadership (RL) has become one of the growing interests in business research. Voegtlin (2015) stresses that there is an important foundation for much of the subsequent work recommended by the RL concept for further research in the last few years. The latest research perspective is to fill in research gaps and suggest attendant future directions for the field of RL. Miska and Mendenhall (2018) recommend that, based on their research and observation, two notable developments should be considered for future RL research in this area, as follows: firstly, a shift from a micro-level toward multiple levels of analysis of the RL concept, and secondly, the need to focus on both

antecedents and outcomes of RL and to consider the phenomenon as a process rather than a state (Waldman & Balven, 2014). Also, Dinh et al. (2014) suggest that there is a need to compare trends in the broader leadership literature. In 2015, the European Group for Organizational Studies Annual Meeting devoted an entire sub-theme to the RL (Pless & Voegtlin, 2015). Although there have been many attempts to cover the concept of the RL, Galvin (2008) and Pless and Maak (2011) stress that there is a need to address the issues of definition and give more focus to the conceptualized framework of the RL. They suggest that it would be helpful to have scales and constructs for testing (Pless & Maak, 2011).

The RL is known for its comprehensive approaches, which include matching various diverse elements and levels such as an individual, an organization, and a community (Shaaban & Shehata, 2019), while Bergsteiner and Avery (2011) mention that it includes different elements such as people, organisations, leaders and followers, effectiveness, and environment. Shaaban (2020) examined and concluded in her study that responsible employees result from RL that leads to sustainable leadership.

Although the RL concept has recently attracted more research investigation and attention (Shi &Ye 2016), literature has failed to present a systematic clear description of the main thoughts, concepts, and theoretical framework approaches underlying the research. There is no organized and systematic framework with a scale to measure it. All the potential limited studies before were presenting a suggested model that has not been examined, which has been caused a scattered in the knowledge on the RL field through many publications. Studying the existing information in the RL field will allow understanding of the key theoretical methods and themes and identify the literature gaps and key prospects for further advancement. This study participates and aims to block this research gap by examining the objective of the RL field. This paper seeks 1) to present a full image and framework for dimensions of the RL and 2) to participate in shaping the image of RL that has previously been examined, tested, and presented in the literature.

Literature Review

Of the initial studies on the concept of RL belong to Maak and Pless (2006). They defined RL as ‘‘a relational and ethical phenomenon, which occurs in social processes of interaction with those who affect or are affected by leadership and have a stake in the purpose and vision of the leadership relationship’’(Maak & Pless, 2006, p. 32). So looking from wide view to the RL concept and early syage, the relationship between leaders and followers should be considered from contemporary view of leaders and stakeholders. To place more focus on the leaders’ responsibilities in relation to several stakeholder clusters, they suggested that these relationships are central to leadership, such as building and cultivating.

There is a common understanding among the world of researchers related to RL that specifies that “Responsible Leadership responds to both existing gaps in leadership theory and the practical challenges facing leadership” (Pless & Maak, 2011). In relation to the word ‘‘responsible’’, Pless and Maak (2011) interpret responsibility matters including accountability, appropriate moral decision-making, and trust. Also, regarding the concerns of others, they question for what and to whom leaders are responsible? (Pless & Maak, 2011).

At a stakeholder theory level, with a focus on ethics, Freeman et al. (2006) note the different perspectives and definitions of RL as ‘‘leadership in the context of contemporary stakeholder theory’’ (p.23). Bass and Steidlmeirer (1999) had previously defined RL as a ‘‘social-relational and ethical phenomenon, which occurs in social processes of interaction” (p. 16).

Waldman and Galvin (2018) point out that there is a lack of existing leadership theory related to the absence of the purpose of responsibility from the established explicit descriptors of leadership. However, in charismatic, transformational, authentic, participative, spiritual and ethical, servant, shared leadership, it is clear that this element is at the heart of what effective leadership is all about (Waldman & Galvin, 2008).

Consequently, we are attempting to raise the discussion of current leadership theories to state the relevant leadership challenges and incidents that face different big businesses worldwide. These challenges and incidents cause and raise the continuing debate related to corporate-level responsibility, followed by a “critical academic debate about the impact of greed and reckless self-interest in managerial decision-making” (Pless & Maak, 2011, p. 64).

The literature reveals that the bad management concept was destroying good management practice (Ghoshal, 2005 as cited in Pless & Maak, 2011) and spoke about the need for managers, not MBAs (Mintzberg, 2004), that is, professionals with higher aims and not just hired hands (Khurana, 2007). Furthermore, a call went out for ‘‘Responsible Global Leadership’’ from the European Foundation of Management Development, leading to the emergence of The Principles for Responsible Management Education (PRME), an educational offshoot of the UN Global Compact that seeks to incorporate the Compact’s ten principles into the curricula of business schools worldwide (Pless & Maak, 2011). There is a strong drive in the literature toward identifying the reform of irresponsible leadership, especially after the global economic crisis of 2008 that leadership was as one of its primary causes. To solve this primary cause, a long-term endeavor toward a new global leadership approach needs to consider individual and systemic stages toward the effective. Sachs claims in a recent book that ‘‘A society of markets, laws, and elections is not enough if the rich and powerful fail to behave with respect, honesty, and compassion toward the rest of society and toward the world…. Without restoring an ethos of social responsibility, there can be no meaningful and sustained economic recovery.’’ (2003, p. 27). The concept of RL is not limited to an ethical issue (Brown & Trevin'o, 2006). RL levels from the changes in and new requests of different stakeholders in the business contexts (Maak & Pless, 2006; Waldman & Galvin, 2008).

Most of the literature on RL models considers the concept as various and multilevel, filling the gaps in existing leadership theories and frameworks. The RL concept is evident in high-profile scandals on three levels – the individual, the organizational, and the systemic - and increasingly targets new and emerging social, ethical, and environmental challenges in the business world. As a result, tre is a high demand for more research on the RL concept and the need to feed the literature with more research and clarity relating to the concept (Miska & Mendenhall, 2018).

Business practice has a distinct (as opposed to distinguished?) interest in developing responsible leadership and boosting new generations of responsible leaders. Therefore, academics should develop and construct a clear understanding of the origins and outcomes of

RL as a multilevel leadership theory. Thus, the paper's main objective is to develop and build a conceptual framework for RL.

RL from other Leadership Approaches

Different studies and researchers have distinguished RL from other leadership approaches. (Pless & Maak, 2011) Pless and Maak (2011) have discussed and distinguished RL from other values-centered leadership theories like servant leadership presented by Greenleaf (2002), ethical leadership presented by Brown and Trevin'o (2006), authentic leadership presented by Luthans and Avolio (2003), and Gardner, Avolio, and Walumbwa (2005); transformational leadership presented by both Bass and Avolio (1995) and Shaaban (2018).

Pless and Maak (2006) argue that the main difference between these leadership theories and RL is that it focuses on sustainable values and positive changes, environmentally and socially. In addition, RL, with its focus on stakeholders on two levels, within and outside organizations, differentiates it from other leadership theories. Maak and Pless (2006) have described RL as being distinct from other leadership approaches that often focus on followers residing solely within the organization. Miska and Mendenhall (2018) sum up these differences and overlaps with other leadership approaches. One of the key features of these leadership approaches is the focus on hierarchies inside the organization and non-positional leadership among teams (Pearce & Sims, 2011). The main point of these early leadership theories is to focus on the interdependencies and procedures among team members and with particular respect to a hierarchies' perspectives. There appears to be no clear target of these leadership perspectives related to social and environmental causes that link to a sustainable value within the organization (Pearce & Conger, 2003). RL is reflected as an ''umbrella concept to rethink the concept of leadership in the context of stakeholder theory'' (Gond et al., 2011, p. 27). As a need for normative foundations, the focus of RL research is on social and environmental issues. The debates in the field are long-standing discussions and arguments related to the central responsibilities of businesses. Since its beginning in the 1950s (Carroll, 1999), the CSR concept has been developed until the current tendency to CR with sustainability assimilation (Carrol, 2015; Carroll & Buchholtz, 2014; Van Marrewijk, 2003). In this concept, RL research and study is interweaved with the CSR and sustainability areas developments.

The RL concept is different from other theories in leadership as it is argued that it focuses more on different dimensions of leaders and followers. It also focuses on the culture, environment, followership, leaders, regulation, and community, providing a broader concept rather than a personal individual concept.

An Analysis of Previous Theory

The suggested RL framework in this paper is based on reviewing the following four models:

The Multiple levels model of RL, developed by Miska and Mendenhall (2018), this model drawings various levels of analysis to present the RL model, with a focus on four levels, which are: a) Micro Level, which emphases on individual leaders in a business field, b) Meso Level, with a focus on groups and corporate strategy within an organizational level, c) Macro Level that emphases on culture, organizations and society, and d) Cross Level, that emphases on numerous relationships and connections between and among levels of analysis.

The Miska, Hilbe, and Mayer's (2014) model developed an RL research-based model on three comprehensive theoretical perspectives for viewing RL concepts. This view that has three main dimensions been reviewed by other researchers are (a) stakeholder views (Maak and Pless, 2006; Stahl, Pless, & Maak, 2013), which build on the theory of stakeholder perspective (Freeman et al. 2006; Hill & Jones, 1992) and the conceptual framework of RL based on a broad array of different stakeholders and focuses on relational and ethical thoughtful; (b) Agent views (Friedman & Miles, 2002) that build on the assumption which considered business leaders' performance as owners of a business, through to the individuals they are mostly responsible for (Jensen & Meckling, 1978; Ross, 1973), and (c) Converging views (Porter & kramer, 2006; Waldman & Galvin, 2008; Waldman & Siegel, 2008) that attempt to merge stakeholder and agent perspectives along with the logic of 'doing well by doing good', which a lot of literature mentions to as good management. This explanation related to RL attempts to merge economic, environmental, and social responsibilities as part of the strategic view. A clear essential commonality, important in the three levels, is the assumption that managers have the freedom of decision in their work roles (Carrol, 2015; Shaaban, 2020).

Pless, Maak, and Waldman (2012) have developed a model of RL which outlines four main approaches to the RL phenomenon based on the scope of constituent groups which considered what managers must focus on in their organizations, as well as the accountability of managers toward other shareholders and the owners of businesses. Based on their research, they developed four different orientation approaches, which are those of: (a) Traditional economists that focus on short-term economic value emphases and the orientations of shareholders; (b) Opportunity seekers, that focuses on the engagement in CR activities for instrumental reasons; (c) Integrators, who focus on seeing profit as a result of socially responsible business; and the last one; (d) Idealists that hold a broader perspective on their business responsibilities (including social and environmental challenges), often embedded and associated with strong ethical, spiritual and religious considerations.

De Bettignies (2014) developed five dimensions of RL, where his model depended on a practical level of working over many years with many business leaders. These comprise, Awareness, Vision, Imagination, Responsibility, and Action, and in each dimension, three levels focus variously on individual, organizational and social levels.

Accordingly, almost all of the models that have been developed so far in the literature focus on the broad area of CSR, that is followership and stakeholder's evaluation of the leadership. However, these models have missed one main point: the personality traits and characteristics of the leadership and leaders who implement this leadership approach. Furthermore, the conflict between organizational culture and national or international culture and the business trends and ethics is significant. To cover the shortfalls in the previous models, the following model (Figure 1) suggests a new theoretical framework for RL:

Figure 1. Responsible Leadership dimensions/ level suggested by the author.

Methodology

This study used a qualitative method of research design.

Qualitative approach and study group. The main criteria in identifying the 45 participant leaders were that they were between the ages of 30 to 45 years, middle management, and included both female and male genders in the Egyptian companies. The majority of the sample were also identified as future leaders in the selected companies. The participants were divided into three groups, each taking one day for a workshop and working closely in a focus group with one person leading the discussion. The four models presented in the literature that identified dimensions of RL were shown to the participants, and they were asked to identify the main dimensions from their perspective. They were also asked about aspects that were not considered in the other models previously. Table 1 shows the distribution of the focus group discussion vital dimensions for RL.

Table 1

The Focus Group Discussion

Focus group number	**Company Represented**	**Topics for In-Depth discussion**	**Researchers represented**	**Face to Face/ online interview**	**Number of participants**
Group (1)	EgyptAir company	1- The RL concept and the parameters of its dimension from the literature 2- Collection of participant expectations about what they think the best framework should be, including suggestions and how to measure it	Authors of this paper	Face to Face	15
Group (2)	stale steal Helwan/ Maddie			Face to Face	15
Group (3)	Alexandria/ electronic and renewable energy factories			Face to Face	15
Group (1), (2) & (3)	All companies together	3-Presentation of the final framework with dimensions/ levels, the way will be measured, and its scale	Authors of this paper	Face to Face	45

Qualitative data collection approaches. The researchers used a semi-structured questionnaire to investigate the matter in-depth and comprehend from leaders and followers who participated in this study the main component of responsible leadership in realty. In the first part, the interview form comprised a workshop to explain the previous models and make sure that people understand these models that were developed previously and could discuss the applicability of

this model to their industry and identify the missing parts in their groups in the previous models. The workshop was run in Arabic, as the background language of these industries participated in the study.

The Suggested Conceptual Framework

RL as an evolving leadership style effectively compensated for the inadequacies of traditional leadership formulae and is of substantial significance to enhancing corporate reputation and maintaining the sustainable development of enterprises and society (Voegtlin, Patzer, & Scherer, 2012). This model is different from other leadership styles because it focuses more on building the responsibility on the three levels as a responsible employee, the responsible organisation, and the responsible community.

Based on the statistical results and discussions from the focus group with all of the 45 participants in the qualitative approach, it was agreed that the most suitable definition for RL is as follows:

"RL is a dimensional approach, including different levels which are measured by different variables targeting the behaviors outside and inside the organization, behaviors, and actions to improve the existing theories of the leadership, personal, individual, organizational, and the community dimensions, which all involve ethical, environmental, reflexivity and sustainability perspectives".

This study suggests the dimensional framework in mapping by levels, including variables, that establish the RL four levels should be tested and applied by leaders according to the following:

(1) Personal Dimension, one which focuses on the personality traits and behavior level of individual leaders; (2) Individual Dimension, one focuses on individual or followers who interact and react to responsible leaders; (3) Organizational Dimension, one with a focus on organizational context, groups, and corporate strategy; and (4) Community Dimension, one with a focus on CSR, institutions, culture, and society.

Table 2
The Dimensions Suggested and Scale to be used in the Respondent Sample

Dimensions/ Levels	Concept of dimensions	Variables included	Measured by whom
Personal Dimension **Levels:** personality traits, ethical, sustainability perspective, environment oriented personality traits, ethical, Leaders values, ethical, motivations, characteristics, and achievements	Leaders values, personality/qualities, ethical, motivations, characteristics, history, etc…, mostly from a subjective, normative perspective. Individual' different RL orientations and attendant qualities and competencies in view of different approaches to RL	Personality traits/ Commitment	Personality trait scale developed by Chittaranjan, Blom, & Gatica-perez (2013) Commitment scale developed by Mowday, Streers, & Porter (1979)
Individual Dimension **Levels:** **follower's evaluation followers' perspective, 360 degree toward RL)**	Follower reaction and interaction toward RL Best personality can fit with this characteristic.	Responsibly	Responsibility scale developed by Voegtlin (2011) Qualitative approach to measure the leadership
Organisational Dimension **Levels:** organizational culture, Environment and suitability, groups, and corporate strategy, sustainable leadership	Connections between RL and other related organisational features such as responsible management corporate governance, leadership, development. The effects of RL and its difference from traditional leadership perspectives on companies' CSR performance	Organisation Culture (OC)	Organisational Culture by O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell (1991).
Community Dimension **Levels:** (CSR, institutions, leadership orientation culture, and society)	The mission of the RL in reviewing the dynamic of changing within institutional environments with explanation of addressing global problems from conceptual perspectives. Supporting this with Empirical, comparative research on the impact of institutional and cultural effects on the conception framework and the understanding of Responsible Leadership	CSR	CSR scale developed by D'Aprile & Talo (2014)

Leaders Personal Dimension

This level is related to the personality traits and ethical and behaviour levels of individual leaders. Leaders' values, personality/qualities, ethical motivations, characteristics, achievements, sustainability perspective, environment-oriented, etc., are mostly viewed from an individual normative perspective. The characteristics of RL's soft skills and personality traits include honesty, integrity, taking a long-term perspective, being open-minded, empathetic, respectful of others, and in the service of others. Judge et al. (2002) gathered the outcomes of studying 222 correlations focused on 73 studies of leadership performance and personality. The level of ethics is based on values-based judgements, building the relationship between leaders and stakeholders on ethical principles-driven; the relationship is connected through a shared sense of meaning. It raises individuals to the highest motivation and commitment levels for achieving social change and sustainable values design (Pless, 2007). Han, Wang, and Yan in (2019) state that responsible leadership increases individuals' independent environment motivation, which often engages where actions are consistent with their inside them.

On the level of personality and the relationship between leaders applying the RL approach in their organisations, Pless (2007) has further noted that a values-based and thoroughgoing ethical fundamental principles-driven relationship between stakeholders and leaders are associated with a common sense of purpose and implication, which they promoted one another

to advanced levels of commitment to achieve social change and maintainable values. Leaders applying this RL style have to encourage themselves and their followers to build their resilience (Shaaban & Shehata, 2019). Accordingly, the variables included in RL are a combination of personality traits, ethical leaders' values, motivations, characteristics, and achievements.

The Dimension of the Followers' Perspective

This level is related to the individual or followers' interactions and reactions to responsible leaders. It focuses on followers' reactions and interactions toward RL, in which personality can best fit this characteristic. Variables included are followers' evaluation, followers' perspective, and 360 degrees toward RL. Shaaban (2020) shows that responsible leadership sets the environmental base for the responsible employee; she also demonstrated that to have a responsible employee, we should have responsible leadership, and both, in turn, will lead to sustainability (Shaaban 2020).

At the level of followers, when leaders apply the RL approach in their organisation, the leaders in our sample organisations communicate with followers and set the system to translate the concept of responsibility. Pless and Maak (2011) pointed out that "responsible (global) leadership needs to be approached on both an individual and systemic level to be effective" (p. 23). The RL indicates a range of mindsets, a spectrum from low to high levels, depending on how the concept of leadership is considered, whether individualized or socialized (Waldman & Galvin, 2008). Other authors such as Doh and Quigley (2014)have examined key RL phenomena as value-centered, relational, and one that intends to produce a positive outcome for followers who are considered one of the stakeholders. As a further contextual factor, Doh and Quigley (2014) and Gond et al. (2011) noted that RL can be characterized with styles of strategy-making and a focus on future objectives. The RL is also characterized and defined by Uhl-Bien (2006, p. 25) as the ''great man'' or the transformative and charismatic leader, something geared to the approach of relational leadership.

Organizational Level

This level mainly focuses on the organizational, group perspective, and corporate strategical level. The connections between RL and other related organizational features include responsible management, leadership, corporate governance, development, and the effects of RL and its distinction from the perspectives of traditional leadership on CR performance of companies. Variables included are organizational culture, leadership orientation, groups, corporate strategy, and sustainable leadership. In the light of the previous arguement culture is considered one of the main support of RL when leaders intened to apply the concept. Researchers have identified that the processes, practices, culture may promote the organization level and policies of organizational cultivated by its leaders (Cameron, 2010; Dutton & Sonenshein, 2007). LaRocca (2011) supported the concept of the internal system within the organization and argued that RL is the "theory that defines followers as broad constituencies that are both internal (direct reports, peers, and supervisors) and external (community members, clients and customers, business partners, and environmental groups) to the organization" (p. 13).

Community Level

This level is concerned with CSR, institutions, culture, and society. The mission of the RL is in reviewing the dynamics of change within institutional environments and with an explanation that addresses global problems from conceptual perspectives. Variables included are CSR, institutions, culture, and society that all support this suggestion. Considering the community and CSR levels that translated the leader's relationship with stakeholders, RL is distinct from other leadership styles in that the RL approach considers an RL leader as one who provides a lead in stakeholder relationships, whereas an earlier style of leadership was to be a follower's leader. Voegtlin, Patzer, and Scherer (2012) emphasized certain differences in behavioral approach. For instance, RL is rationally built on discourse ethics and considered democracy, while ethical leadership and authentic leadership do not have any clear logical basics.

Discussion and Conclusion

RL has increased and gained substantial traction in the academic world of management that discourse and has become the main topic in contemporary issues in management leadership (Miska, Hilbe, & Mayer, 2014). Moreover, the contemporary business settings have also triggered a need for RL as globalization continues to confront organizations with a demand for a larger responsibility by leaders to realize better the management of stakeholders. Furthermore, RL has become an essential environment for organizational existence and success in investors' governance. Recently, business leaders are held responsible outside the economic domains, and their responsibilities spread out to different dimensions such as followers, organisation, community social, and environmental scopes (Baranova & Meadows, 2017).

The main finding of this study results from the qualitative approaches that confirmed that the main dimensions for responsible leadership are Personal, Followers, Organizational, and Community dimensions.

While no combining RL definition has yet to appear, there is unclear acceptance among researchers that the collaboration with stakeholders constitutes an RL significant part (Doh & Quigley, 2014; Pless & Maak, 2011; oegtlin, Patzer, & Scherer, 2012).

This study has presented a framework for RL based on a qualitative study from the perspective of different leaders and future leaders located in Egypt in different organisations and working in business sectors. Based on this study fininding, following dimentioned are recomeded as follows:

Practical Implications: The study results have indicated several practical implications. First, the significant connection between RL and other variables found in organisational culture was supported by an empirical study comparative research on the impact of institutional and cultural effects on the conceptual framework and the understanding of RL (Grovin & LaRocca, 2011) and CSR. Second, significant relationships were found between the four RL variables: personality, commitment, responsibility, orgainsational culture, and CSR. Third, this study seeks to add to the body of literature concerning RL's relation to the other variables mentioned above. Finally, this research has taken into consideration these variables and their impact and correlation on RL.

Theoretical implications: Firstly, nevertheless of the national variances, the leadership, and dimensions and variables, relationships are maintained within the Egyptian setting. Secondly,

the significant consequences found are the perceived ones of RL, Interactional and distributive, on the four levels dimensions of RL discussed.

Limitation: The study has different limitations. First, it only debates the target groups in a sampled group of factories located in Egypt. Also, the ideologies of the participants, age difference from 30 to 45 years, and the participants' role level reflect on their philosophies were identified based on interviews and observations in the qualitative design and were carried out within the same groups. So all the results applied for the same population of these groups in the wider industry will vary. Another limitation is that the responses in the self-reported questioners' step might not have required to clarify their point of view more accurately. Furthermore, although the author has tried to retain points of view in data collection and broadcasting, the author's philosophical perspectives on RL and its role may have affected the discussion considered limitation in this study.

Future research: The following are recommended for future research. Further research is required to examine the effectiveness of personality and the personality trait of leaders who will apply the RL as an approach within their organization. The followers' perspective needs to be considered in a future study because it is very important to have a reasonable number of followers to implement the responsible leadership direction. The orgainsational dimension above that supports this RL approach should be included in the orgainsational culture as a supportive environment to measure the extent to which this leadership approach succeeds or fails. The community dimensions should be studied further to understand how the community and organisations perceive the CSR concept and how it is linked to RL and is analyzed with the ethical dimension. A scale should be developed to measure all these dimensions from a qualitative approach.

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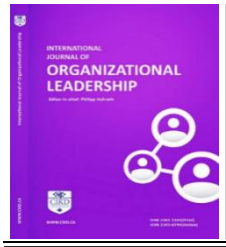

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Value-based Leadership Across Teachers' Ranks and Its Significance in Schools: A Case of Primary Schools in Kajiado North, Kenya

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ABSTRACT

This research assessed the practice of value-based leadership (VBL) of two ranks of primary school teachers in Kajiado North, Kenya. The study incorporated an explanatory sequential mixed-methods approach that utilized a pragmatic paradigm epistemology. Survey questionnaires were used to collect data from the teachers in the first quantitative phase and analyzed using (SPSS), v.25. In the second phase, interviews were conducted to gather qualitative information, which was thematically analyzed using Miner Lite software. The results from the quantitative phase showed a positive and significant relationship between the teachers' VBL and the head teachers' VBL. The practice of VBL in the two ranks of teachers was found to be consistent in integrity, trust, listening, respect, and inclusion and was inconsistent in vision and clear thinking. In the second phase, teachers described VBL as; leading through values and qualities, leadership that you see, leading by example, helping people grow and adding value to what they do, and doing what you are supposed to do by observing professional ethics. Consistency in the practice of VBL is critical in schools because it creates a uniform space where effective learning of values takes place. The study recommends the training of head teachers in VBL traits, in particular communication skills that will help them in delivering on vision and clear thinking. A replica of the study in the secondary school level is recommended to validate the findings.

Value-based leadership is a subject that has been gaining popularity in recent research. The motivation behind value-based leadership is attributed to the increasing societal challenges, such as intolerance, violent extremism, terrorism, and corruption that people have been encountering (Nyaga, 2018). While good research on value-based leadership has been done in

the business industry (Copeland, 2014), studies are required in the education sector, where limited research on value-based leadership has been identified (Wamahiu, 2015).

Bullying, substance abuse, and examination dishonesty are some of the school challenges that may occur when leaders fail to cultivate values in students. For example, Examination dishonesty has been described as a school challenge that occurs when students lack values such as integrity (Anzene, 2014). Examination dishonesty has affected education systems across the levels (Akaranga & Ongong'a, 2013) and has increased in recent years both in global, regional, and national examinations (Anzene, 2014). Cases of cheating in examinations, especially in national examinations, have been reported in Kenya severally (Akaranga & Ongong'a, 2013; Amadala & Kaluoch, 2015; Munuhe, 2016). This challenge requires a leadership solution.

Although literature identifies leadership as second to instruction in influencing school outcomes (Mitgang, 2012), its approach that emphasizes control systems to solve educational challenges tends to offer temporary solutions. For instance, cases of examination dishonesty, especially at the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Examinations (KCSE), are still being reported in the media despite deploying heavy security and control systems to manage the process (Situma & Wasike, 2020). However, the researchers perceive value-based leadership as a strategy that offers a long-lasting solution to school challenges because the values cultivated by teachers in students will not only guide students to make the right decisions during examinations but help them live ethical lives after school.

Value-Based Leadership (VBL) is leadership that leaders exhibit through values. It refers to leadership based on foundational moral principles, ethics and, values such as integrity, empowerment, and social responsibility (Reilly & Ehlinger, 2007, p. 246). Value-based leadership holds a few uncommon guarantees that other forms of leadership do not. An example to illustrate this is self-overseeing personnel; a lesser requirement for supervision and control; more respect between individuals; expanded energy and commitment to the undertaking; a reputation of reliability, fairness, and honesty; trust and faithfulness; improved integrity and responsibility; and better decision-making, which add to the vision (O'Toole, 1995).

Statement of the Research Problem

Value-based leadership studies in primary schools are rare (Adams, 2005). However, few studies on leadership within the secondary school level highlight the values of the principal, teachers, and students are described in the next paragraphs. Van Niekerk and Botha (2017) conducted qualitative research that assumed that school principals as leaders need to establish, develop, and maintain a core of shared values in their schools. The focus of the research was on principals' perceptions of values in their schools. Van Niekerk and Botha argue that the personal values of school principals underpin their decisions and actions and thus influence the members of the school. Although the results of their research show that the principals had diverse perceptions of values and that their values influenced the school community members, the research did not establish the extent of such influence.

A study carried out by Gold et al. (2003) explored how ten outstanding school principals in different kinds of schools in England translated their educational values into management and leadership practices. The results of the study showed that values drove the principals' leadership. Further, the value-based leadership approach used by the school principals provided

insights on how values and beliefs can be understood in both words and deeds. However, it was also unsettling how research is silent on how the principals' values relate to those teachers.

While the studies conducted by Van Niekerk and Botha (2017) and Gold et al. (2003) agree in principle that the personal values of the head teachers influence the core values shared by the members of the school community, they do not show the extent to which the principal's values influence the values shared by the teachers. Furthermore, there has been a lack of research on value-based leadership relationships between different ranks of teachers (Copeland, 2014). In addition, value-based leadership studies are required in the preschool context (Wamahiu, 2015). The preschool stage is “critical for developing the foundations for thinking, behaving, and emotional well-being” (Bakken, Brown, & Downing, 2017, p. 255). Further, research shows that children at the preschool age “develop linguistic, cognitive, social, emotional, and regulatory skills that predict their later functioning in many domains” (Bakken et al., 2017, p.255).

The researchers find the consistency in the practice of value-based leadership across the teachers’ ranks crucial because it creates uniformity in the cultivation of regulatory skills and other essential values such as; respect, honesty, love, and integrity, whose result is uniform development of ethical behavior in children. Therefore, this research assessed the practice of value-based leadership among primary school teachers at different ranks in Kajiado North.

Justification of the Study

While some research on value-based leadership has been done in the business industry (Copeland, 2014), there is little research on value-based leadership in primary schools (Adams, 2005), and especially at the preschool level (Wamahiu, 2015). The research on the emerging significance of value-based leadership by Copeland (2014, p. 130) shows there is a lack of "VBL relationships at different professional ranks within an organization," which she says "when investigated will provide useful information." Consistent practice of values across teachers' ranks creates an efficient environment for learning. Research shows that students in classrooms where teachers' values are aligned show no differences in behavior, while those in learning environments where there's inconsistency within the practice of values are different in behavior (Gage, Scott, Hirn, & MacSuga-Gage, 2018). Consistent practice of value-based leadership by teachers creates an ideal environment where moral values and regulatory skills are taught to shape students into responsible citizens. This study assesses the practice of value-based leadership (VBL) and examines the relationship between the VBL of head teachers and the VBL of preschool teachers in Kajiado North. The following Research Question (RQ) and Hypothesis (H) is addressed in the present study:

RQ: What is the relationship between the VBL of the head teachers and preschool teachers in Kajiado North?

$H_0$1: There is no relationship between the VBL of the head teachers and preschool teachers in Kajiado North.

Review of Related Literature

Value-based Leadership

Value-based leadership is defined as "goal-setting, problem-solving, language-creating, and value-developing interaction, which is anchored in the organization's values and high ethical standards" (Busch & Murdock, 2014, p. 87). This definition connects with what happens in schools. For instance, teachers set goals for students to achieve and choose what to teach and how to teach. Head teachers and teachers need to practice value-based leadership consistently because they are role models that students emulate to achieve moral values such as love, respect, and honesty.

The implication of this is that children's characters are highly dependent on the values that teachers practice in school because values are observable and imitable. Some of the values drawn from the concept of value-based leadership that connects to children's learning include integrity, respect, listening, trust, clear thinking, vision, and inclusion. These values are indicators of value-based leadership (O'Toole, 1995), which can be measured according to Garg and Krishnan (2003). Figure 1 depicts the indicators (traits) of value-based leadership that teachers may use to guide students, instill moral values, and shape them into responsible citizens.

Figure 1. The concept of value-based leadership
Note. Adapted from O'Toole (1995), Smith (2014), and Sambu (2020, p. 37).

Table 1 describes how head teachers have used values to lead schools and guide teachers and students.

Table 1
The Indicators of a Value-Based Head Teacher

	Characteristic	Description of the headteacher
1.	Integrity	Integrity – is identical to truth-telling, honesty, high moral standards. A headteacher whose words and deeds are consistent knows themself well and never loses sight of their goals nor compromises their principles
2.	Vision	Builds a vision and finds ways of communicating it to inspire teachers
3.	Trust	Inspires trust and hope in teachers who, in turn, become encouraged to serve, to sacrifice, to persevere, and to lead change. In turn, teachers become loyal to the school
4.	Listening	Listens to the teachers because they respect them and honestly believe that the welfare of the teachers is the end of leadership. Encourages dissenting opinion among their closest advisers and is not a slave to public opinion
5.	Respect	Committed to the moral principles of respect for teachers. Head teachers who succeed at bringing about practical and moral change believe in and act on the inherent dignity of the teachers they lead

6.	Clear thinking	Must have clear thoughts about their own beliefs, human nature, the role of the school, and the measurement of performance. Listens to the needs, ideas, and aspirations of the teachers, and then, within the context of their well-developed systems of belief, responds to these in the appropriate fashion
7.	Inclusion	Inclusive head teachers enable teachers to lead by sharing information, fostering a sense of community, and creating consistent rewards, structure, process, and communication systems. They are committed to the principle of opportunity, giving all teachers the chance to contribute to the school.

Note. Adapted from Garg and Krishnan (2003) and Sambu (2020, p. 39)

Empirical Review

In schools, quantitative studies relating to headteacher leadership and teacher results have been conducted. Liu, Bellibaş, and Gümüş (2021), for example, looked at the impacts of instructional leadership and distributed leadership on teacher job satisfaction and self-efficacy. The study found that distributed leadership and instructional leadership positively and directly associated with teacher job satisfaction and teacher self-efficacy, respectively.

Another quantitative study by Ahmad and Hamid (2020) looked at teachers' assessments of the impact of primary school head teachers' instructional leadership strategies on teacher effectiveness. The findings demonstrated that primary school head teachers' instructional leadership methods regarding school inputs, teacher effectiveness are significantly influenced by school procedures and outcomes. However, teacher gender and experience have a minor role in the relationship between instructional leadership practices and teacher effectiveness.

Liu and Wang (2020) carried out a research to understand the relationship between transformational leadership and collective teacher efficacy in the Chinese primary school context. The findings of the study revealed that when collective teacher efficacy is treated as a single variable, setting direction and managing the instructional program have relatively significant effects on collective teacher efficacy.

The literature reviewed revealed that head teachers' features of transformational, distributed, and instructional leadership positively impact teachers' work satisfaction, self-efficacy, and effectiveness, but they do not show how head teachers' VBL relates with preschool teachers' VBL. The findings of an in-depth investigation of the emerging significance of value-based leadership unmask a shortage of VBL relationships at various professional levels in organizations (Copeland, 2014, p. 129). According to Copeland (2014), examining VBL relationships across professional ranks can provide useful information. This study investigated the relationship between the VBL of head teachers and the VBL of preschool teachers in Kajiado North, Kenya.

Theoretical Framework

A theoretical framework is the application of a theory or a set of concepts drawn from one and the same theory to explain an event or shed some light on a phenomenon or research problem (Imenda, 2014). The social cognitive learning theory guided this research. At the center of social cognitive learning is observational learning, where teachers observe the behavior of their headteacher and learn values from it, as shown in Figure 2. The behavior of teachers is considered an influence in a learning environment where learners look up to the teacher (leader) for guidance and direction (Bandura, 1977). Under the social influences, the value-based leadership of teachers and head teachers was considered critical for the study since their

behavior, as intervened by the social cognitive theory, can influence pupils' values, model their behavior, and make them responsible citizens (Bandura, 2018).

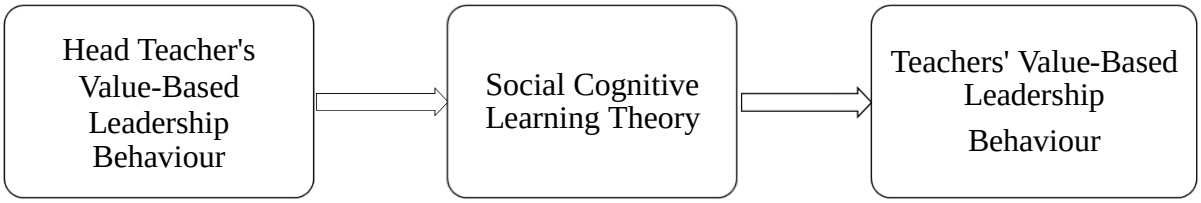

Figure 2. Theoretical framework for the research.
Note: Compiled from research data

Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework is a group of related concepts that explain or predict a given event or provide a broader understanding of the phenomenon of interest or research problem (Imenda, 2014). In other words, a conceptual framework shows how the research variables relate to each other. The conceptual framework for this research (Figure 3) demonstrates how the VBL of head teachers (X_1) relate to the VBL of teachers (X_2). Value-based leadership has seven indicators: integrity, vision, trust, listening, respect, clear thinking, and inclusion. As the primary school leader in which the preschool is situated, the headteacher is required to offer VBL (X_1), which is assumed to influence the teachers' VBL(X_2).

Social Cognitive Theory suggests that teachers' behavior is primarily learned by observing peers and the behavior of the headteacher and interactions with the learning environment (Bandura, 1997). To find the extent to which value-based leadership of the headteacher influences teachers' value-based leadership, all other factors that moderate the learning outcomes according to Bandura's cognitive learning theory were held constant. It was assumed that teachers only observe the behavior of the headteacher and absorb the values (see Figure 3).

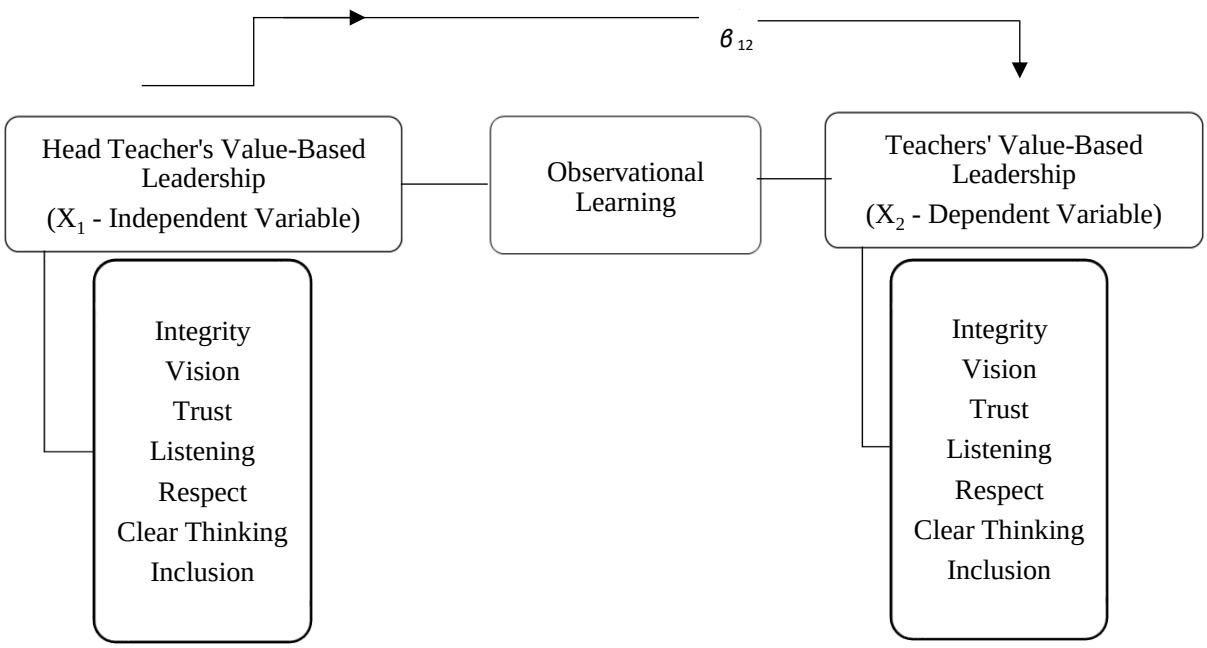

Figure 3. Conceptual framework for the research
Note: Compiled from research data

Methodology

This study incorporated a mixed-methods approach that utilized a pragmatic paradigm (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). From a pragmatic worldview, research focuses more on the research question and how to find the answers than on the theory behind how knowledge is created (Creswell, 2014). This research sought to answer the question, "What is the relationship between the VBL of the head teachers and the VBL of the preschool teachers in Kajiado North?" Interviews were conducted with selected respondents with a follow-up question that asked the head teachers and preschool teachers to describe the meaning of VBL in their own words. Table 2 shows how the pragmatic framework was operationalized in the research.

Table 2

Framework for the Pragmatic Application of this Research

Objective	Hypothesis	Research questions Quantitative	Qualitative (follow-up)
To examine the relationship between the VBL of head teachers and the VBL of preschool teachers in Kajiado North.	$H_0$1: There is no significant relationship between the VBL of head teachers and preschool teachers in Kajiado North.	What is the relationship between the VBL of the head teachers and the VBL of the preschool teachers in Kajiado North?	What does VBL mean to the head teachers and preschool teachers in Kajiado North?

Source. Research Data (Sambu, 2020, p.75)

The Study Population and Sample Size

At the time of this study, only 150 primary schools in Kajiado North had preschool units in the same compound. The total population of this study was taken as 300. This allowed a headteacher to be paired with a preschool teacher and taken as a case in the study. The pairing permitted the researchers to establish the relationship between the headteacher's VBL and that of the preschool teachers and enabled the consistency in the practice of VBL in the two ranks of teachers (teacher, headteacher) to be tested. The sample population of the research was 50 primary schools, statistically selected after considering some factors. Although time and financial constraints limited the number of schools that were included in the survey, the 50 schools chosen as the study's target population met the criteria for a margin of error of 5% at 95% level of confidence (Kothari & Garg, 2014). The computation that gave 50 schools as the sample was done as explained in the following paragraph. The sample size for the target population was computed using the formula:

$$n = \frac{z^2.p.q.N}{e^2\,(N-1) + z^2.p.q} \quad where$$

n = sample size

z = standard score,

p = confidence level,

q = 1- p,

e = acceptable error, and N = size of the population (Kothari, 2004, p. 179).

This computation gave the sample size (n) for the target population in the distribution (see Table 3).

Table 3

Distribution of Respondents in the Population

Category of respondents	Size of population (N)	Calculated (n)	Target (n)
Head teachers	150	49.3	50
Preschool teachers	150	49.3	50
Total	300	98.6	100

Note. Research Data (Sambu, 2020, p. 78)

Sampling Procedures

In the first phase, the simple stratified sampling technique was used to form two equal sub-populations, namely (1) head teachers and (2) preschool teachers. The population is divided into several subpopulations in stratified sampling that are individually more homogeneous than the total population (Kothari, 2004, p. 62). The 50 schools were chosen from the five regulatory wards, namely Ngong, Olkeri, Oloolua, Ongata Rongai, and Ngaimurunya (IEBC, 2017). The synopsis of private and public schools from which the quantitative information was gathered is shown in Table 4.

Table 4

The Distribution of Respondents in the Strata

Type of school	Target population	Calculated strata	Sample size (n)
Private	136	45.3	45
Public	14	4.6	5
Total	150	49.9	50

Source. Research Data (Sambu, 2020, p. 80)

In the second phase, eight interviewees were purposively selected from head teachers and preschool teachers in public and private schools. Intentional selection is utilized when a different view is fundamental or if the perspective of specialists in a specific field is the point of inquiry (Bryman, 2012).

In this research, the perspectives of head teachers and preschool teachers on the concept of VBL were required to explain the relationship between the VBL behavior of the two ranks of teachers. The participants' selection was based on factors such as gender, the type of school – private or public, rural or urban, and sponsored by an interested group or not. Many school attributes were included in the sample because samples without representativeness may not be dependable sources to draw inferences about the population (Bryman, 2012). The participants for the interview phase were selected, as shown in Table 5.

Table 5

The Demographics of Respondents in the Qualitative Phase

Respondent	Age	Gender	School category
T_1	30 - 39	F	Private
HT_1	Above 50	F	
T_2	40 - 49	F	Private
HT_2	40 - 49	M	
T_3	Below 30	F	Public
HT_3	Above 50	F	
T_4	40 - 49	F	Private
HT_4	40 - 49	F	

Source. Research Data (Sambu, 2020, p. 132)

Collection of Data

In the first phase, the study used questionnaires to collect quantitative data because they are less expensive than other methods. Questionnaires also generate massive data within a short time; they are free of bias from the questioner since the answers are given in the interviewees' own words, and interviewees have enough time to make very considered replies, and questionnaires are a means of conveniently reaching respondents who are not easily approachable (Kothari, 2004). In the second phase, data were gathered using qualitative

techniques. The motivation behind qualitative research is to enable researchers to comprehend or clarify human conduct and convictions and get a proper explanation of questions (Hennink, Hutter, & Bailey, 2011). In addition, qualitative information helps explain the initial quantitative results (Creswell, 2014). Qualitative information was gathered via face-to-face interviews with purposely selected head teachers and preschool teachers. The purposeful selection was guided by the inquiries that needed clarification and a better understanding, as observed in phase one of this study. For instance, outliers observed in the survey gave a clue to issues in the schools where the questionnaires were completed. Therefore, teachers from some schools where the outliers were observed were taken as participants in the interviews. The researchers selected the participants hoping to use their perspectives and experiences to understand the unexpected outcomes, as indicated by the extreme values in the questionnaires.

Instruments

For the quantitative part, a survey aided by a value-based leadership questionnaire developed by Garg and Krishnan (2003) was used to measure the VBL of the teachers and head teachers. The VBL questionnaires have 20 items capturing all the constructs of authenticity, ethics, morality, and service. A participant was required to respond to the characteristics of leadership exhibited by the headteacher (teacher's questionnaire) and those exhibited by the teacher (headteacher's questionnaire). Participants were required to check (√) the most appropriate response according to a five-point Likert scale, with 1 = Never, 2 = Rarely, 3 = Sometimes, 4 = Most of the time, and 5 = All the time.

Reliability of the VBL Questionnaires

Internal consistency refers to the level of consistency or exactness with which an instrument measures the trait it has been intended to gauge (Polit & Hungler, 2013). SPSS generates the reliability measure of the questionnaire, called the Cronbach's alpha (α), where $\alpha \geq .7$ is considered a good measure of reliability (Kothari & Garg, 2014). In addition, Keith (2014) affirms that a good instrument should produce consistent results when used over time or when used in various locations in the same context.

The questions included in the questionnaires estimated the levels of the constructs associated with value-based leadership. Although the VBL questionnaire had been tested in previous research (Garg & Krishnan, 2003), testing of its reliability again was prudent because this research was carried out in the primary school context. According to Converse and Presser (1986), pretesting the questionnaires is a way of checking if the questionnaires are working properly. The questionnaires were pretested with a pilot study group that incorporated eight primary schools, giving 16% of the targeted population of fifty (50) schools. The recommended percentage for a sample size that should be engaged in a pilot test is 10% to 20% of the target population (Simon, 2011); hence the eight schools met the requirement. The headteacher and one of the preschool teachers in each of the eight schools were requested to complete the questionnaires. All 16 participants completed the questionnaires and returned them to the researchers. The questionnaires were analyzed to check the internal consistency of each question (item) using SPSS 25. The outputs from the analysis were studied and, for each head teachers' VBL questionnaire, the average value of Cronbach's alpha (α) based on the 20 items reached .83 while that of the teachers' VBL questionnaire was .88.

Validity of the VBL Questionnaires

Validity is connected to the precision of the data obtained in the gathering stage or given out as a report after the investigation. Validity is considered as the degree to which an instrument estimates what is normal and what it professes to gauge (Punch, 2014). For the instrument to be considered valid, it should measure all variables represented in the conceptual framework (content validity), and the measures should conform to the ideals described in the theoretical framework (construct validity), as explained by Bryman and Bell (2015). The questions used in the VBL questionnaires were described in the literature review and explained in the section on the theoretical and conceptual frameworks. The information collected from the pilot study was applied in testing the content validity of the instruments.

Content validity is the degree to which an estimation instrument adequately includes the theme under examination (Kothari & Garg, 2014). Assurance of content validity should be possible by a board of people who pass judgment on how well the estimation instrument satisfies the guidelines since there is no numerical method to express it (Kothari & Garg, 2014). The results from the pilot study showed the inclusion of all the indicators of Value-based leadership. The measurements from the questionnaires per indicator varied slightly from each another, indicating the instruments' potential to measure the constructs they were intended to measure (Creswell, 2014). After confirming the reliability and validity of the research instruments, the researchers went to the field to collect data from the 100 targeted respondents in the 50 primary schools.

Validity and Reliability of The Teacher Interviews

While it may be easy to determine the reliability of a quantitative research instrument using observable measures like Cronbach's alpha (α), where $\alpha > .7$ is considered a good measure of reliability (Kothari & Garg, 2014), there are no such measures in qualitative research. Stenbacka (2001) does not believe there is such a thing as reliability in qualitative research. Instead of the term reliability, some authors have proposed the use of credibility, neutrality or confirmability, consistency or dependability, and applicability or transferability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). To accomplish these in qualitative research, a review of effects such as basic information, information reduction outcomes, and procedure notes ought to be done (Campbell, 1996). Furthermore, Patton (2001) views the researchers as the instrument; subsequently, the information gathered relies upon the researchers' effort and expertise. To ensure the trustworthiness and transferability of data (Seale, 1999), the researchers recorded the interviews after obtaining consent from the respondents to capture the information accurately. The participants' responses were triangulated with the findings of similar research that was carried out in the same context.

Analysis and Interpretation of Data

For the quantitative phase, the average scores of all indicators in each variable (described in the instruments section) were taken to indicate the levels of VBL. Microsoft Excel version 2019 was used to generate mean scores for all pointers of the variables indicated in the conceptual framework and produce tables and figures. The mean scores labeled as ordinal or ratio were transferred to the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) for further analysis to obtain descriptive statistics such as mean (*M*) and standard deviation (*SD*). As presented in Table 6,

the mean scores were interpreted using the interpretation scale developed by Nunnally and Berstein (1994).

Table 6

Interpretation of VBL Levels

Mean score (M)	Interpretation
1.00 to 2.00	Low
2.01 to 3.00	Moderately low
3.01 to 4.00	Moderately high
4.01 to 5.00	High

Source. Research Data (Sambu, 2020, p. 91)

To test the consistency of VBL practice by the two ranks of teachers, a correlation coefficient (*r*) was used. In correlation analysis, the correlation coefficient value (*r*) shows the strength of the relationship between the dependent and the independent variable, while the sign of *r* specified the direction of the relationship. The interpretation of (*r*) was made using Cohen's (1988) scale (see Table 7).

Table 7

Interpretation of Correlation Coefficients

Correlation coefficient (**r**)	Interpretation
± 0.01 to ± 0.29	Low positive/Low negative
± 0.30 to ± 0.49	Moderate positive/Moderate negative
± 0.50 to ± 1.00	High positive/High negative

Source: Cohen (1988), Sambu (2020, p. 92)

The consistency of the practice of VBL in the two ranks of teachers was confirmed using Spearman's rho correlation coefficients, which utilized pairs (X_1, X_2) of the seven indicators of VBL. Consistency in the practice of VBL was confirmed when a strong correlation ($r_s > .7$) and a significant value ($p < .001$) were obtained (Yue, Pilon, & Cavadias, 2002). The two variables, X_1 and X_2, were confirmed to be consistent as they were found to be strongly correlated, $r_s(N-1) > .7$, $p < .001$, where N-1 is the degrees of freedom (Yue et al., 2002).

To find if the consistency in the practice of VBL was significant between the two ranks of teachers, the paired sample *t*-test was done. According to Maverick (2018), a paired sample t-test is used when two samples are involved, and the values for each sample are collected from the same individuals (that is, everyone gives two values, one for each of the two groups), or the samples come from matched pairs of individuals. In this research, the VBL of the teachers was matched with the VBL of the head teachers (X_1, X_2). The paired-samples *t*-test was used to test hypothesis $H_0 1$. The *t*-test was meant to determine if there was a difference in the mean scores of teachers' VBL and head teachers' VBL.

Analysis of the Interviews

After collecting views from the teachers on their understanding of value-based leadership, the researchers used thematic analysis techniques to put together the information given, broke it down into small bits that were easy to understand and interpret in line with the research question (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982). The technique of breaking down qualitative data includes coding or ordering the information. Essentially, thematic analysis entails understanding enormous volumes of information by decreasing the volume of basic data, followed by distinguishing massive datasets, and lastly determining the importance of the information and, in this manner,

assembling a coherent chain of evidence (Patton, 2015). A thematic examination is a technique for identifying, breaking down and describing designs (themes) from the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Even though "[t]hematic analysis is widely used," there is no explicit agreement about "what thematic analysis is and how you go about doing it" (Braun & Clarke, p. 6).

The qualitative data from the audio recordings were transcribed using Otter.ai (a free mobile application for smartphones). Initially, the researchers had planned to use NVivo for thematic analysis. This study used Miner Lite V2.0. 6, which is free software. The transcripts were edited to remove redundancies before transferring them to Miner lite. The use of software in analyzing qualitative data saves a great deal of time, which gives the researchers more time to investigate patterns, distinguish themes, and draw inferences (Patton, 2015).

Investigating personal information has become a lot simpler with the use of modern computer tools. The researchers applied Microsoft Office analysis tools v. 2019 to compile figures and tables that summarise the themes. Figures and tables help enhance the visualization of the relationships that this study sought to establish. The visualization of the relationships helped the researchers to link the two sets of data (quantitative and qualitative), which facilitated the discussions on the consistent practice of VBL across teacher ranks and its implication for schooling in Kenya.

Results and Discussion

The Response Rate

After confirming the reliability of the instruments, 100 questionnaires were administered to head teachers and preschool teachers in the 50 schools. All the questionnaires were returned, but they were scrutinized for completeness, and only 48 pairs were complete. A response rate of 50% is acceptable, 60% is good to analyze and publish, and 70% and above is outstanding (Babbie, 2004); hence the response rate of 96% met the requirement for the analysis.

Results of the Assessment of Head Teachers VBL Questionnaires

The mean scores of all the indicators per case (school) were entered into SPSS v.25 to produce descriptive statistics for the two variables: head teacher's VBL (X_1) and teacher's VBL (X_2). The average of the seven mean scores was taken as the level of VBL (Table 8). The levels of VBL were interpreted as shown in Table 8.

Table 8

The Level of the Head Teachers' VBL

	N	Minimum	Maximum	*M*	*SD*
HTI	48	3.0	4.5	3.70	.40
HTV	48	3.5	4.5	3.91	.44
HTT	48	3.3	5.0	4.57	.59
HTL	48	3.5	5.0	4.18	.51
HTR	48	3.7	5.0	4.34	.45
HTCT	48	3.5	5.0	4.27	.65
HTIN	48	3.3	5.0	4.39	.56
Head teacher's VBL (X_1)	48	3.6	4.5	4.19	.33
Valid N (listwise)	48				

Source. Research Data (Sambu, 2020, p.111)

Note. The indicators of the head teachers' value-based leadership are abbreviated as: HTI-Head Teachers' Integrity, HTV-Head Teachers' Vision, HTT-Head Teachers' Trust, HTL-Head Teachers' Listening, HTR-Head Teachers' Respect, HTCT-Head Teachers' Clear Thinking, and HTIN-Head Teachers' Inclusion.

Preschool teachers rated the head teachers' trust the highest, at 4.57 (*SD* = .59), meaning they trusted their head teachers all the time in school. The high rating of 4.57 (*SD* = .59) for trust is an indication that the head teachers involved preschool teachers in decision-making on matters of the curriculum and supported them, especially in the implementation of citizenship education.

At the lower end of the ratings are the head teachers' integrity and vision, at 3.70 (*SD* = .40) and 3.91 (*SD* = .44), respectively. These results indicate that the preschool teachers perceived their head teachers as truthful, honest, and of good moral behavior most of the time – meaning there were cases when they failed to live by these principles. In terms of vision, the teachers perceived their heads as having an inspiring vision, which they found ways to communicate to both the teachers and pupils most of the time. Inclusion and listening received ratings of 4.39 (*SD* = .56) and 4.18 (*SD* = .51) respectively.

The head teachers' overall level of VBL practiced as perceived by the preschool teachers was 4.19 (*SD* = .33), meaning the head teachers practiced value-based leadership most of the time, as indicated on the scale of the tool used in the study. This finding is similar to that of Van Niekerk and Botha (2017) in their research paper on VBL. They found that nine school head teachers said they practiced VBL most of the time through values such as "[i]nclusivity, integrity, equity, loyalty, consistency, trust, Ubuntu, Christianity, cooperation, professionalism, accountability, kindness and democracy" (Van Niekerk & Botha, 2017, p. 138).

Results of the Assessment of Teachers VBL Questionnaires

The mean scores of all the indicators per case (school) were entered into SPSS 25 to produce descriptive statistics for teacher's VBL (X_2). Table 9 shows the level of the teachers' VBL as perceived by the 48 head teachers. The levels of VBL were interpreted as shown in Table 9.

Table 9

The Level of the Teachers' VBL

	N	Minimum	Maximum	*M*	*SD*
TI	48	3.0	5.0	4.17	.67
TV	48	3.5	5.0	4.18	.68
TT	48	2.7	5.0	4.48	.79
TL	48	2.0	5.0	3.96	1.11
TR	48	2.0	5.0	4.01	.93
TCT	48	2.5	5.0	3.96	.88
TIN	48	3.0	5.0	3.87	.66
Teacher's VBL (X_2)	48	3.1	5.0	4.07	.66

Source. Research Data (Sambu, 2020, p.112)

Note. The indicators of the teachers' value-based leadership are abbreviated as: TI-Teachers' Integrity, TV-Teachers' Vision, TT-Teachers' Trust, TL-Teachers' Listening, TR-Teachers' Respect, TCT-Teachers' Clear Thinking, and TIN-Teachers' Inclusion.

The head teachers ranked the teachers' trust at 4.48 (*SD* = .79). The vision and integrity of the teachers were ranked second and third, at 4.18 (*SD* = .68) and 4.17 (*SD* = .67), respectively. The high rating (according to the interpretation scale) indicates that preschool teachers were trusted most of the time because of their integrity, their willingness to serve, and the hope they stimulated in pupils, as reflected by the specific questions in the VBL tool. At the other end, inclusion, clear thinking, listening, and respect were perceived at moderately high levels, of 3.87 (*SD* = .66), 3.96 (*SD* = .88), 3.96 (*SD* = 1.11), and 4.01 (*SD* = .93) respectively. These scores indicate that the teachers listened to the pupils, encouraged dissenting opinions among their closest advisers, shared information, and fostered a sense of community with the pupils.

The overall rating of 4.07 (*SD* = .66), interpreted as 'high' on the interpretation scale, showed that teachers practice VBL' most of the time' (as indicated by the rating scale used) at a lower level when compared to that of the head teachers. This result is consistent with that of Mansor et al. (2018). The purpose of their study was to identify the influence of ethical leadership practices in school principals on teachers' work engagement dimensions as perceived by teachers in two distinguished high-performing secondary schools in a district in Malaysia. The principals of both schools had moderately high to high ethical leadership practices, while teachers in both schools displayed moderately high to high work engagement. Mansor et al. (2018) inferred from the results that the principals of high-performing schools have traces of ethical leadership practices in their leadership style that promote teacher work engagement.

Consistency in the Practice of VBL

Even though the mean scores of 4.19 (*SD* = .33) and 4.07 (*SD* = .66) suggest that both head teachers and teachers respectively practiced VBL most of the time, as interpreted from the scale of the VBL tool used, how consistent was the practice in the two ranks? Were teachers practicing VBL at the same level as the head teachers in all seven indicators? To answer these questions, a statistical test for consistency was performed. The consistency was confirmed through Spearman's rho (r_s) correlation coefficients, which utilized pairs (X_1, X_2) of the seven indicators of VBL with data coming from the 48 participants (see Table 10).

Table 10

The Spearman's Rho Correlation Coefficients for VBL (X_1, X_2)

			TI	TV	TT	TL	TR	TCT	TIN
rho	HTI	Correlation coefficient	.710*	-.243	.258	.346*	.067	.067	.775**
		Sig. (two-tailed)	.000	.095	.076	.016	.653	.653	.000
		N	48	48	48	48	48	48	48
	HTV	Correlation coefficient	.344*	.000	-.574**	.256	-.178	-.415**	.517**
		Sig. (two-tailed)	.017	1.000	.000	.078	.227	.003	.000
		N	48	48	48	48	48	48	48
	HTT	Correlation coefficient	.418**	.831**	.777**	.668**	.926**	.494**	.352*
		Sig. (two-tailed)	.003	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.014
		N	48	48	48	48	48	48	48
	HTL	Correlation coefficient	.395**	.262	-.234	.733**	.121	.121	.622**
		Sig. (two-tailed)	.005	.072	.109	.000	.413	.413	.000
		N	48	48	48	48	48	48	48
	HTR	Correlation coefficient	.510**	.547**	.906**	.709**	.760**	.760**	.510**
		Sig. (two-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
		N	48	48	48	48	48	48	48
	HTCT	Correlation coefficient	.503**	.632**	.224	.900**	.577**	.346*	.645**
		Sig. (two-tailed)	.000	.000	.127	.000	.000	.016	.000
		N	48	48	48	48	48	48	48
	HTIN	Correlation coefficient	.884**	-.250	.000	.632**	.000	.000	.898**
		Sig. (two-tailed)	.000	.087	1.000	.000	1.000	1.000	.000
		N	48	48	48	48	48	48	48

**Correlation is significant at the .05 level (two-tailed), *Correlation is significant at the .05 level (two-tailed).

Source. Research Data (Sambu, 2020, p.115)

Consistency in the practice of VBL is confirmed when a strong correlation ($r_s > .7$) and a significant value ($p < .001$) are obtained (Yue et al., 2002). The Spearman's correlation coefficients from SPSS exhibited strong, positive correlations between X_1 and X_2, showing consistency in the practice of VBL through integrity ($r_s = .71$, $p < .001$), trust ($r_s = .78$, $p < .001$), listening ($r_s = .73$, $p < .001$), respect ($r_s = .76$, $p < .001$), and inclusion ($r_s = .90$, $p < .001$).

The results are consistent with previous research findings, where strong, positive relationships between authentic leaders and authentic followers based on organisational outcomes were found (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Brown & Treviño, 2006; Luthans & Avolio, 2003; May et al., 2003).

There were inconsistencies in the practice of VBL in vision (r_s = .000, p > .001) and clear thinking (r_s = .35, p > .001). The inconsistencies in vision and clear thinking could stem from the head teachers' failure to communicate the vision to the teachers. Previous studies support this assertion by the researchers; for instance, Dean (2008) said that a value-based head teacher has to create a vision and inspire teachers to make that vision a reality. In addition, values-based head teachers create followers by enabling them to see clearly and achieve effectively, which they hold dear (O'Toole, 2008).

The Relationship Between Head Teachers' VBL and Teachers' VBL

The following research hypothesis was tested to find the relationship between the dependent and the independent variable as shown in the conceptual framework (see Figure 2).

$H_0$1: There is no relationship between the teachers' VBL and the head teachers' VBL.

The decision to reject or accept the null hypothesis was made utilizing the sample paired *t*-test and simple regression analysis. Among the statistics displayed in the analysis, outputs are the path coefficients (β_{12}), which show how two variables behave when all other factors are held constant, the correlation coefficient (r), which measures the strength of the relationship between two variables, and the *p* and *t* values, which indicate the level of a significant relationship between two variables (Creswell, 2014; Kothari, 2004). At the 5% level of significance, the null hypothesis is rejected when $T_{calculated} < T_{table}$, = 1.97, or when the *p*-value < α = .05 (Creswell, 2014; Kothari, 2004).

The results from the *t*-test showed a positive and significant relationship between the teachers' VBL and the head teachers' VBL (β = .79, $t(44)$ = 8.61, p < .05) (see Table 11). Based on the results, the null hypothesis was rejected, and the alternative hypothesis – H_A1: A significant relationship between the teachers' VBL and the head teachers' VBL – was accepted.

Table 11

The Summary of Regression Model Statistics

Path variables	Path coefficients	*r*	*p*	*t*
X_1 and X_2	β_{12} = .79	.60	.000	8.61

Source. Research Data (Sambu, 2020, p. 130)

To understand this relationship, interviews with eight purposely selected participants comprising head teachers and preschool teachers were scheduled. Participants were asked to describe what value-based leadership meant to them using their own words and experiences. The responses to the question asked aided the researchers in understanding the relationship between variables and getting the best answers to the research question as per the pragmatic philosophy. The descriptions assisted in understanding the inconsistencies in the practice of VBL in vision (r_s = .000, p > .001), and in clear thinking (r_s = .35, p > .001).

Findings from the Interviews

The data generated from the eight participants were subjected to the Attride-Stirling (2001) five-step process to generate themes using Miner Lite v. 2.0.6. The themes extracted from Miner

Lite were organized using Word SmartArt, following the Attride-Stirling (2001) web-like thematic network.

The primary themes emerged directly from the research data, but the organizing themes were either direct or indirect, depending on the interpretation given by the researchers. Braun and Clarke (2006, *p*. 80) say that 'themes emerging' can be misunderstood to mean that they 'reside' in the data, and if we scrutinize keenly, they will 'emerge,' like Venus on the half shell. Braun and Clarke further argue that if themes 'reside' somewhere, they dwell in our minds from our thinking about our data and generating relationships as we draw and interpret their meanings. For the research question "What do you understand by value-based leadership," all the organizing themes 'emerged' from the research data, except 'capacity building,' which emerged from the mind of the researchers (Braun & Clarke, 2006) (see Figure 4).

Teachers differed in their perspectives of VBL, as illustrated in Figure 4. The themes that came up summarised the meaning of VBL as leading through values and qualities, leadership that one sees, leading by example, helping people grow and adding value to what they do, and doing what one is supposed to do by observing professional ethics.

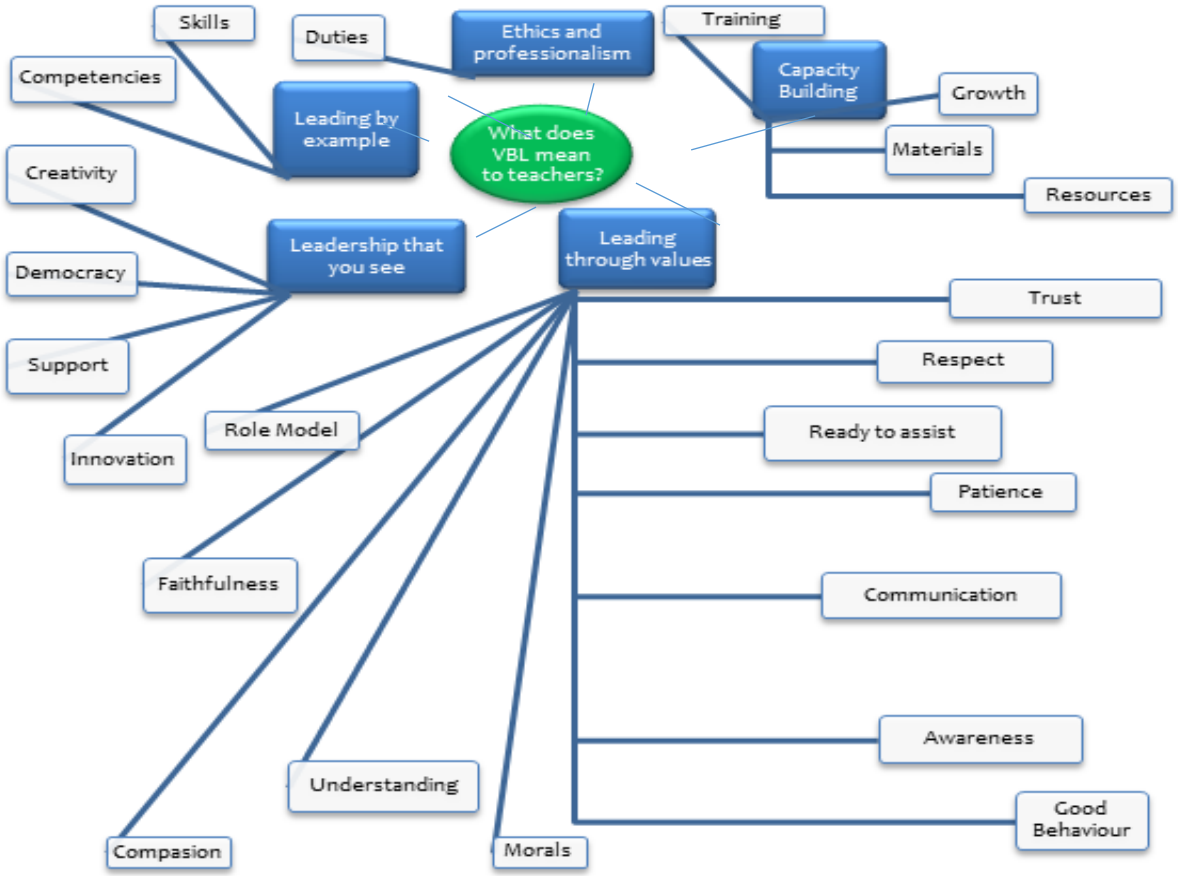

Figure 4. Teachers' perspectives of VBL
Source. Research Data (Sambu, 2020, p.142)

Leading through values was the most popular perspective of VBL and was described by the head teachers. The head teachers narrated these values with ease, possibly because they were practicing them in their workplace or had undergone some training on VBL, and the perspectives were still fresh in their minds. Some of the values communicated include respect, trust, inclusion (understanding and compassion), and integrity (morals and good behavior),

which resonate well with the indicators of VBL (Garg & Krishnan, 2003). When leaders possess these values, they do not think twice while acting or making decisions because they guide them to make the right decisions and assume a significant leadership role (Vilma, 2018). In addition, the research on the values of school principals reveals that values serve as their compass and grant meaning to their everyday activities (Abu-Hussain & Essawi, 2014).

Other studies have demonstrated that values direct people's character as individuals or collectively (as an organization, community, or nation) (Cubukcu, 2014; Turkkahraman, 2014). While positive values, such as friendship, trust, and creativity, help us to socialize with others and make a positive contribution to society (James, 2014), possibly restricting or potentially limiting values, blame, bureaucracy and status-seeking, on the other hand, do just the opposite (Vilma, 2018).

The second perspective of value-based leadership was also by the head teachers as "helping people grow and adding value to what they do', as explained by HT_1. The researchers interpreted this to mean 'capacity building.' The purpose of leadership is to enhance other individuals, and the accurate measure of leadership is influence. Therefore, a value-based leader needs to influence the frame of mind or conduct (Reese, 2017). Educational leaders should not lead the organization based upon giving and take principles but instead based on the leader's personality and characteristics and their ability to generate change and serve as an excellent example for those being led (Su-Tuan, 2011). Borrowing from this literature, a value-based head teacher must add value to what teachers do through activities. Leadership qualities must be conveyed by activities, generally in how the activities are led daily, and less in words verbally expressed or composed (Heathfield, 2018) because action speaks louder than words.

Value-based leadership was also perceived as 'leadership that one sees.' The teachers gave this version because they observe what their head teachers do daily. They see how their head teachers make decisions, react to teachers who are not up to standard in performing their duties, and even go out of their way to be creative in managing their leadership roles in the school. For example, one of the participants reported how the headteacher reacted when she used innovation in teaching her physical education lesson.

> For example, last week, I came to school wearing tracksuits because they are comfortable as they enable me to take pupils to the playground. I tried involving the parents to buy the same tracksuits for the pupils, but the administration took it negatively (T_3).

A value-based head teacher should be respectful (when guiding the non-performing teachers) and inclusive (when accommodating the reactive and performing teachers). From a morals and values standpoint, head teachers influence, create and strengthen individuals, team, and school values (Northouse, 2015).

Although value-based leadership was perceived as 'ethics and professionalism,' this perspective can be incorporated in 'capacity building,' which seems to be the overall organizing theme. There was something similar in how T1 presented her perspective of VBL compared with that of HT_1 (paired participants for case 1). For T_1, the meaning of VBL was described in detail:

> Value-based leadership is a lot to do with ethics and professionalism. I think you should come and do what you are supposed to do. The main goal for me is the child; how they are developing at every point, I must master each child. And for me, that is just value-

> based leadership because for you to achieve, it shows if you give your full dedication to what you are actually here for, and not dwell on things which are not necessary for you at that particular point, I think you will have a perfect leadership (T_1).

On the headteacher's part, VBL meant:

> It is twofold. We help the people under us add value to what they are doing by using the correct material. I would also look at it this way, allowing them to grow so that they go through some form of training that will positively impact their children as they learn or impart knowledge. That is how I understand VBL (HT_1).

This was a single case that depicted consistency in the practice of VBL in the two ranks of teachers. Consistency in the practice of VBL in the two ranks was found earlier, in the quantitative phase, in the indicators of trust, integrity, listening, respect, and inclusion ($r_s > .7$, $p < .001$). The narratives in case 1, as explained above by T_1 and HT_1, are a confirmation of consistency in the practice of VBL within the two ranks of teachers.

Integrated Findings

Integration is the explicit combination of quantitative and qualitative findings in mixed-methods research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). In the explanatory sequential design adopted for this research, interview questions were used to follow up the inquiries that arose from the first phase results (Creswell, 2015). An interview question display (IQD) links the initial quantitative results with the follow-up qualitative findings to explain what was not understood in the initial results (Guetterman, Creswell, & Kuckartz, 2015). Furthermore, the information presented in the quantitative area depended on the researchers' selection of what data need further explanation (Guetterman et al., 2015). Therefore, this research utilized an IQD matrix to explain the results and findings. The results from the first phase and the findings of the second phase indicated convergence (see Table 12).

The assessment of VBL among head teachers and preschool teachers revealed a general consistency in practice. At the 5% level of significance the *t*-test results established a positive and significant relationship between teachers' VBL and head teachers' VBL ($\beta = .79$, $t(47) = 8.61$, $p < .05$.

Table 12

The Relationship of VBL at The Two Ranks of Teachers

Research Question	What is the relationship between the VBL of the head teachers and preschool teachers in Kajiado North?			
Associated Survey Theme	Quantitative Data	Qualitative Data Examples	Associated Qualitative Code	Data Convergence label
Strong and consistent practice of VBL exists between head teachers and teachers in Kajiado North.	The head teachers' VBL significantly predicts teachers' VBL ($\beta = .79$, t (47) = 8.61, $p < .05$. $r = .60$	Value-based leadership has a lot to do with ethics and professionalism. I think you should come and do what you are supposed to do. (T_1), the same view as … we help the people under us add value to what they are doing by using the correct material … (HT_1)	Professional ethics	Confirmed

Source. Research Data (Sambu, 2020, p. 165)

Consistent Practice of VBL Across Teachers Ranks and its Implications for Schooling

The practice of VBL in the two ranks of teachers showed consistency in integrity, respect, listening, trust, and inclusion but revealed inconsistencies in vision and clear thinking. A similar study by Brewster and Railsback (2003) that investigated the characteristics of school heads and school environment showed that, in schools where trust, cooperation, and the quality of the

relationship between teachers are strong, students feel confident, safe, see their teachers as more caring, and achieve more in terms of learning outcomes. In contrast, in schools where test scores are declining, teachers are bound to say that they do not trust each other (Brewster & Railsback, 2003).

Further, Youngs (2007, p. 104) explains that "[t]rust develops when school leaders support teachers' work consistently and share responsibility for decisions related to curriculum, hiring, and professional development." This is consistent with what was found in other studies (Goldring & Rallis, 1993; Louis, Kruse, & Marks, 1996; Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2001).

The other significant indicators that portrayed the consistent practice of VBL by both the teachers and head teachers were integrity, listening, respect and inclusion. It is the consistent practice of VBL that makes the school succeed in all spheres. Some researchers have found that a successful head of school is an exceptional, instructive leader in offering support to teachers and adequately realizing leadership procedures. Such a head gives educational help to the teachers. It offers them, professional models, such as showing teachers how to make schemes of work and lesson plans using best practices and motivating them to improve their work (Abu-Hussain & Essawi, 2014).

Also, consistency in the practice of VBL, primarily through integrity, trust, and respect, creates an open organizational atmosphere and yields excellent outcomes regarding teacher conduct. It improves teachers' organizational behavior, expands their devotion, and raises their teaching degree (Sergiovanni, 1990). The results are consistent with previous research, in which strong positive relationships between authentic leaders and authentic followers were found to create excellent organizational outcomes (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Brown & Treviño, 2006; Luthans & Avolio, 2003; May et al., 2003).

In contrast to the consistency in the practice of VBL to integrity, trust, listening, respect, and inclusion, the other two indicators that failed in the consistency test, that is vision (r_s = .000, p > .001) and clear thinking (r_s = .35, p > .001). While the head teachers rated the preschool teachers' vision at a very high level of 4.18 (SD = .681), the preschool teachers rated the head teachers' vision at a lower value of 3.91(SD = .44). A value-based leader concerning this indicator expects to build a vision and find ways of communicating it to the followers. The low rating by teachers is a clear indication that the head teachers did not communicate the school's vision.

In terms of clear thinking, preschool teachers rated their head teachers at a higher level, of 4.27 (SD = .65), while the head teachers gave a lower rating to the teachers, of 3.96 (SD = .88). This means that, from the preschool teachers' perspectives, their leaders had a vision, were clear in their thoughts about their own beliefs, human nature, the role of the school, the measurement of performance, and so on, but failed to communicate the same to the teachers. This finding implies that school leaders should communicate the school's vision transparently and support teachers in implementing it.

Conclusion

This research examined the relationship between the VBL of head teachers and the VBL of preschool teachers in Kajiado North. The results showed a positive relationship in the practice of VBL across teachers' ranks. There was consistency in the practice of VBL through integrity,

respect, trust, inclusion, and listening, but inconsistencies were found in vision and clear thinking. Consistency in implementing VLB by teachers is critical in the classroom because it creates a consistent environment in which meaningful learning of values may occur. According to the study, head teachers should be taught VBL qualities, particularly communication skills, in order to help them deliver on their vision and clear thinking. In addition, future studies should be carried out in different locations to validate the results.

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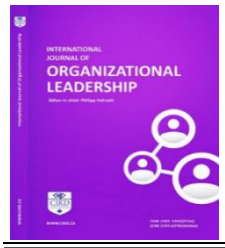

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Shared Leadership and Organizational Resilience: A Systematic Literature Review

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ABSTRACT

For a long time, leadership has been viewed as a 'great man' construct where an individual has the power, qualities, and position to influence others towards the achievement of a given goal or objective. However, that has changed. Heroic leadership can no longer meet the expectations being placed on leadership. Today's organizations are also faced with drastically changing trends and turbulent landscapes. This has emphasized the need for top-notch leadership to guarantee organizational success in an economically globalized context. There is a growing interest in leadership forms that focus more on sharing the responsibility of leadership between different individuals with different capabilities and qualities. One of these forms of leadership is shared leadership. In today's turbulent business environment, an organization's success is determined by its resilience through difficult times. Given that success has been linked to leadership, this systematic review aims to review the extant literature on the link between shared leadership and organizational resilience. The systematic review entailed searching relevant and reliable literature in various databases such as, Emerald, Google Scholar, APA PsycNet, Researchgate, and JSTOR using keywords (shared leadership, organization resilience, relationship, and impact of shared leadership on organizational resilience) primarily through Boolean operators. The initial search resulted in 200 articles, which were filtered using the study's inclusion and exclusion criteria resulting in 43 articles that were reviewed in this study. They culminated into a proposed integrated model appreciating the urgency of shared leadership in today's business environment. The review shows that the connection between shared leadership and organizational resilience has not received a lot of attention, making it a potential area for future studies.

Unlike in the past, where an individual who held the position of leadership individually took up the roles and functions of leadership, work teams have increasingly embraced the concept of distributing functional leadership roles among its members based on the requisite talent that each of the team members has (Goldsmith, 2010; Wang, Waldman, & Zhang, 2014).

Acknowledging this shift, research in the leadership field is also increasingly taking a new direction from one where leadership was a top-down vertical influence process to a direction of a horizontal as well as a shared leading process among members of a team (Lord et al., 2017). Transactional leadership, horizontal or collaborative leadership, classical management, transformational leadership, and ethical and critical leadership theories are the main viewpoints regarding leadership (Yukl, 2002). Shared leadership is an emerging concept in the leadership discourse. According to Carson et al. (2007), it is defined as a team phenomenon, which entails leadership roles and influence being distributed among team members.

Shared leadership has received attention from scholars and researchers in academic disciplines, including organizational behavior, industrial and organizational psychology, entrepreneurship, and strategic management are showing considerable interest. Shared leadership is different from other leadership forms of theories that have taken center stage in the past. As opposed to focusing on the eldership role of individual formal and appointed leaders, shared leadership focuses more on an agentic role that members in a team play in team leadership processes (Carson et al., 2007; Nicolaides et al., 2014). Research carried out on shared leadership has shown a possible influence and increased team effectiveness (e.g., Wang et al., 2014). As a result, shared leadership is an emerging field in eldership that is shifting how leadership has been understood (Cullen-Lester & Yammarino, 2016).

There has also been a continued emphasis on the need for effective leadership characterized by shared vision construction, shared understandings, and building a professional learning culture through good communication (Gibbs, Press, & Wong, 2019). Although many views exist about leadership, it is clear that the construct of leadership is not equivalent to a position or a person but a process of influencing and mobilizing people towards desired change. The desired organizational change is a blend of diverse attributes like values, attitudes, behaviors, approaches, and ideologies (Sinclair, 2014), moving away from Henri Fayol's general management theory that emphasizes planning and executing the control functions.

Globalization calls for adaptive leadership to deal with a continuously changing operating landscape. The leader’s task involves supporting their constituents to face realities and responsibilities: Creating opportunities for upcoming leaders as problem-solvers to control the firm's strategic positioning. Notably, no meaningful change would occur without the correct scale of influence upon the subordinates. Collective problem-solving enables everyday resilience (Gilson et al., 2020).

Leadership is the art of influencing followers towards the achievement of organizational goals (Northouse, 2016), buying the hearts and minds of the employees to harvest organizational success. Notably, traditional leadership theory does not fully explain sustainability leadership (Bendell & Little, 2015). The above calls for leadership hinging on learning and unlearning for people to become change agents operating at optimal levels and integrating sustainability into their leadership development programs, especially to manage disruptions. Recently, more scholars acknowledge that traditional forms of leadership do not work as well as they did in the past when it comes to fostering the achievement of organizational goals. O’Toole et al. (2002) stated that “Frequently, organizations learn the hard way that no one individual can save a company from mediocre performance—and no one individual, no matter how gifted a leader, can be ‘right’ all the time” (p. 67). Pearce (2007) said that “… we

can no longer rely on simple notions of top-down, command-and-control leadership, based on the idea that workers are merely interchangeable drones" (p. 355).

Although there is growing research in shared leadership, most of the studies have paid attention to conceptual appreciation and theoretical anchorage, with few taking the empirical path. The few empirical studies on shared leadership have been skewed either as cross-sectional studies or have been conducted within a single organization. Others largely focus on a singular crisis, concentrate more in the health sector, are not inclusive in terms of gender, and fail to consider lower cadre staff. A majority of existing studies are also skewed towards the Asian and western countries thus limiting generalization to a great extent (e.g., Bergman et al., 2012; Hoch, 2013; Houghton et al., 2015; Muethel & Hoegl, 2013).

The shared leadership formulations ride on the premise that individual leaders require their followers to be more effective in leading sustainable organizations. Disaster, natural or human-made, can occur at any time wherever in the world. The likelihood of increased exposure to natural hazards, weather-related extremes, terrorism, and epidemics continues to grow as the world goes global, causing a high degree of uncertainty leads to disorientation, solid emotional disturbance, and loss of control amongst the leadership team and the employees (Gemma & Aaron, 2020). For example, the Coronavirus pandemic has extraordinarily demanded top-notch leadership in business and beyond to manage fear amongst stakeholders and improve organizational learning. Therefore, organizational resilience is a crucial determinant of the success of any organization, and it is important to understand the role that leadership plays in organizational resilience.

Organizational resilience refers to the ability of an organization to identify, prepare for, and resolve disruptions and risks that jeopardize the organization with the least possible impact on life safety, reputation, and operations. Simply put, it is the ability to bounce back after disturbances or disruptive events and increase its capacity to adapt and handle such events in the future. Research on organizational resilience is relatively extensive, although its link to leadership, especially shared leadership is an area that still needs more research.

This systematic review focused on the construct of shared leadership and its role on organizational resilience in areas of:

1. How shared leadership and organizational resilience are appreciated and defined in the extant literature?
2. How are shared leadership, and organizational resilience operationalized and measured, and what are the notable strengths and weaknesses of employed research designs?
3. What is the future of shared leadership and organizational resilience research and possible model to apply?

The systematic review entailed identifying relevant literature pertinent to shared leadership and its interplay with organizational resilience. The selection criteria for the systematic review included:

i. Articles must have shared leadership as a primary variable
ii. The articles should look at organizational resilience and the role that shared leadership
iii. Must be in English

The search involved looking for relevant articles in various databases such as, Emerald, Google Scholar, APA PsycNet, Researchgate, and JSTOR. Additional material was also retrieved from the reference list of the article identified from the searches on the main databases.

Methodology

The articles to be used had to be reliable, relevant to the topic under study, and have a high level of validity and generalisability. The main keywords used to search for the articles were shared leadership, organization resilience, relationship, and impact of shared leadership on organizational resilience. The keywords were broken down, and Boolean operators were used to gathering as many articles a possible. The words were (shared OR collaborative OR distributed AND (Resilience or Organizational resilience) AND (relationship or impact or influence). Boolean operators refer to simple words, namely AND, OR, NOT, or AND NOT; used conjunctions to either combine or exclude keywords when searching for articles in a given database. These operators help in getting search results that are more productive and focused. They also helped reduce the amount of time and effort that was spent eliminating inappropriate and unsuitable results. It is important to note that how you use the operators will determine whether you increase or reduce your search results (Alliant Libraries)

Using the Boolean Operators is different on every search database. Some require the operator to be typed in uppercase or accompanied by a specific punctuation mark. This is usually indicated on the guidelines of using a given database. The operators work as follows.

i. AND – when you use and, both terms/ keywords you have indicated have to be available for an article to be included in the results list. If any of the terms are missing, the article is excluded. This narrows down your search.
ii. OR – these included results with either term (or both) broadening your search.
iii. NOT or AND NOT- depending on the coding of the database being used, the first term is searched. Any articles containing the terms after the operator are removed from the record or results list.

Using the Boolean operators and keywords, a total of 200 articles were produced. To narrow down this search, several filters and limiters were applied. The first one was the publication date. Any article published outside the 2006 to 2021 publication date bracket was removed, leaving 189 articles. The next filter was the articles dealing with leadership and resilience. With this filter, the article was narrowed down to 100. The next filter was the connection of shared leadership to organizational resilience, which resulted in 43 articles that have been used for this critical narrative literature review. Figure 1 displays the inclusion and exclusion procedures.

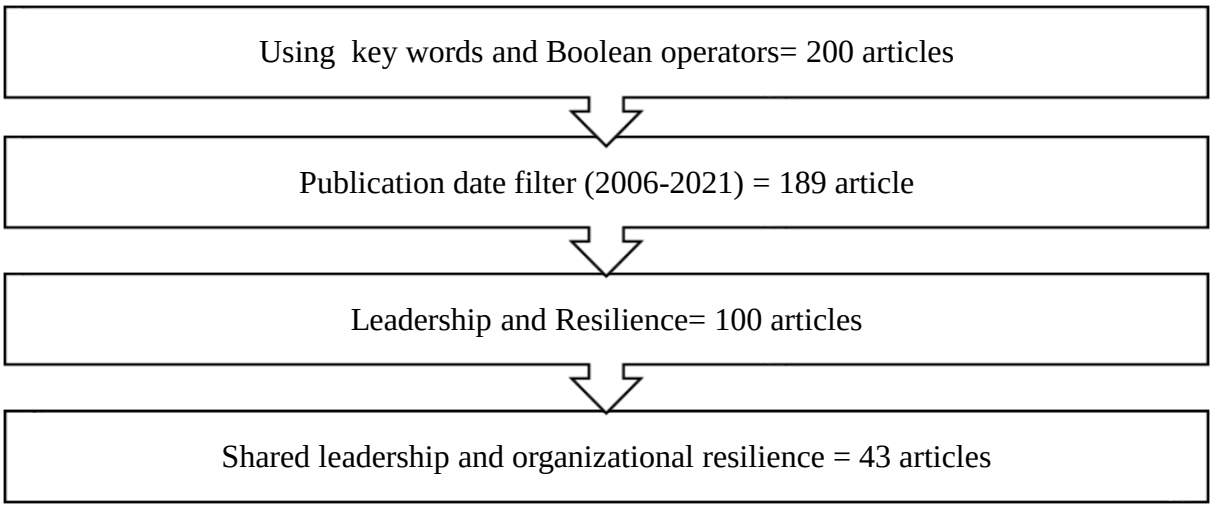

Figure 1. Inclusion and exclusion procedure

The strength of this search is that different parameters were used to ensure that the articles selected were relevant and reliable. The search was also carried out in different databases.

Analysis

The systematic review analysis entailed a three-phased approach that looked at the 43 main articles, with the primary variables being Shared leadership and organizational resilience. The first phase evaluated the extant conceptualization of the construct of shared leadership mainly by its operationalization (e.g., Carson et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2014 ;), and its key dimensions (e.g., Yukl, 2002), and forms (e.g., Wang et al., 2014). The conceptual evaluation of organizational resilience focused on the construct both as a process with measurable outcomes (e.g., Gilstrap et al., 2016; Wenger, 2017) and a position that supports long-term sustainability. An exciting aspect is how different resilience theorists advance arguments regarding opposing elements concerning resilience: The construct of bouncing back (Wenger, 2017). Therefore, the conceptual review summarizes the available background on the variables under study identifying, the meaning and relevance to organizational transformation and potential benefits that would flow from their review.

The conceptual interlude ushers the entry of the second phase on theoretical evaluation, which summarizes the influence of Transactional leadership theory, complexity theory, behavioral theory, transactional theory, and multi-stakeholder theory on the application of shared leadership in meeting society's broader expectations. Sustainability management is seen as a crucial focus in organizational agency relationships. The empirical literature reviews past empirical studies mainly in the Health sector, community projects, non-governmental organizations, and other organizations, most of them from outside the African continent where only a few studies existed. The above opened up a horizon of existing gaps and opportunities for future research, noting that there are limited studies about the interplay of shared leadership, and organizational resilience globally (Sandesh & Sharma, 2020).

The final phase utilized the various relationships from the empirical and theoretical evaluation to inform a new theoretical model to guide future studies regarding the construct of shared leadership and organizational resilience, proposing the need for shared leadership to generate organizations with superior adjustment, absorptive and transformative capacities. Table 1 shows the results of the article search. The results are presented based on authors'' name, area of focus, methodology, results, and limitations.

Results and Discussion

Table 1

The Results of the Article Search

	Article	Area of Focus	Methodology	Results	Limitations
1.	Bendell & Little (2015)	Sustainability leadership	Literature review	- Traditional leadership theories are highly problematic when it comes to the pursuit of sustainable leadership - There is a lack of common frameworks, methods, and metrics on sustainability leadership - Unlearning leadership as is currently assumed and taught is the first step to developing sustainable leadership	- Not indicated
2.	Bergman et al. (2012)	Shared leadership and decision-making	Cross-sectional design	- Teams with shared leadership reported fewer conflicts, there was greater consensus, and intra-group trust and cohesion was higher in teams with shared leadership in comparison to those without shared leadership - Shared leadership positively contributes to the overall functioning of a team.	- Only focused on short-term project teams - Only one type of leadership focused on - Controlled environment for participants - Use of ad-hoc groups - Robustness might need research on larger groups of participants - Cross-sectional design limiting causal inferences
3.	Bolden et al. (2015)	Shared leadership in Australia and UK	Qualitative survey	- Shared leadership is not just a desirable leadership approach but rather a necessity in higher education institutions - Shared leadership requires a systematic approach focusing on the relationship between individuals, organizations, and groups.	- Focused on higher education institutions only
4.	Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone (2007)	Antecedent conditions that lead to shared leadership and the influence of shared leadership on team performance	Partial cross-sectional study	- The internal team environment, which entails shared purpose and social support, and external coaching, are important predictors of shared leadership - Shared leadership predicts team performance - In teams that lack an internal team environment, external coaching is vital in the development of shared leadership and eventually improving team performance.	- Testing of causality was not possible due to the use of a partially cross-sectional design - The participants were only students and non-full-time employees, leaving out the full-time employees - Common source bias.
5.	Cobanoglu (2020)	The connection between shared leadership and organizational commitment in primary and secondary schools	Relational survey	Shared leadership positively and significantly predicts organizational commitment in primary and secondary schools	- The research was carried out in primary and secondary school only, meaning that the study did not cover all educational organizations. - The schools the study was carried in were all in the central districts of the metropolitan city. This means that there might be different results in schools in the countryside
6.	Cullen-Lester & Yammarino (2016)	Research and practice on collective and network approaches to leadership	Literature review	- Formal leadership roles and structure play important roles in the success of organizations - There is growing interest and emergence of collective and network approaches to leadership in many organizations	- Only nine studies were reviewed, which is a small size

7.	DeRue, Nahrgang, & Ashford (2015)	Interpersonal perceptions and leadership structures in groups	Two-wave design	- The emergent natures of leadership structures in self-managing teams and foreground interpersonal perspectives lead to varying informal and emergent leadership structures	- Ad hoc team working together for seven weeks where the study sample making generalizability of results difficult - Speed of leadership emergence cannot be assessed - Data was collected midpoint of the teams' operation, meaning that modeling what happened from the start was impossible - The groups studied were not significantly contextualized
8.	Devos, Tuytens, & Hulpia (2014)	Relationship between leadership and organizational commitment	Cross-sectional study	- The principal's leadership in the studied schools affected the organizational commitment of teachers. - Cooperation at the top level of leadership and participative decision making was directly related to organizational commitment	- Same source bias due to use of self-reported questionnaires - The teachers' organizational commitment was used as a dependent variable - The cross-sectional design does not allow for conclusions on causality among variables.
9.	Doffer et al. (2020)	Post- Corona Leadership	Essay	- Collaborative leadership is vital in the face of global challenges like the Coronavirus. - Individual leadership skills influence how a leader will deal with a global challenge and their perception towards collaborating with other leaders in the global space	- Limited predictive value of the frameworks used in the essay.
10.	Erkutlu (2012)	Relationship between shared leadership and team proactive behavior with organizational culture as the mediating variable	Quantitative study	- Shared leadership within work teams was positively related to proactive behavior in the team. The team proactive behavior was higher in organizations that had supportive cultures.	- Generalizability was difficult because the demographics were not wholly representative of the population. The majority of participants were male, young in terms of age, and has a job tenure of fewer than seven years.
11.	Faulkner, Brown, & Quinn (2018)	Community resilience	Mixed methods – survey and focus group discussions	- Community resilience is enabled by five main capabilities among community members. They are leadership, place attachment, community networks, community cohesion and efficacy, and knowledge and learning. - There is no universal mechanism for enabling community resilience. Each community is different and therefore poses different capabilities.	- Not indicated
12.	Fernandez & Tima (2011)	Employee empowerment and performance improvement	Empirical study	- Empowerment practices like providing employees with job-related knowledge and skills have a positive and significant impact on perceived performance	- The study only focused on federal agencies - Results could be susceptible to common source bias because data was self-reported and gathered through a single survey.
13.	Gilstrap et al. (2016)	Leadership in organizational crises	In-depth interviews	- The characteristic of effective crisis leadership includes the leader being a team player, strategic, transparent, quick in responding, self-composed and prepared. - Diagnostic and prognostic sense giving activities were more clearly observed than motivational sense giving activities across	- The sampling method did not consider organizations with human-generated crises - The study only detected latent motivational factors among the crises leaders

				crises leaders in the nonprofit organizations	- The longitudinal approach to crisis leadership and evaluation of the lifecycle of organization crises was not considered.
14.	Gittell et al. (2006)	Importance of financial and social capital on organizational resilience	Case study	- Layoffs have been used as the first response to dealing with a crisis that causes a drop in demand. However, high performance required in such times required commitment and loyalty to the organization, which is impossible with layoffs.	- Only focused on a single event (September 11 terrorist attack) and impact on one industry (airlines)
15.	Goksoy (2016)	Relationship between shared leadership and distributed leadership	Relational survey and casual design	-The relationship between the shared leadership scale and distributed leadership scale is a positive, medium level, and significant one. -The term 'collective leadership should be used to bridge the gap between shared leadership and distributed leadership - two leadership approaches are often used interchangeably and prevent cognitive complexity.	- Not indicated
16.	Grote (2019)	Relationship between leadership and organizational resilience	Literature review	- Three fundamental leadership requirements for organizational resilience were identified. They are the leaders' ability to be adaptive, design organizational mechanisms that support individual and team adaptivity, and the leaders' role in establishing organizational cultures.	- A brief literature review meaning it might not be a reliable representation of extant literature in this field of study.
17.	Hoch, & Dulebohn (2017)	Shared leadership in virtual teams	Literature review	- The inputs in shared leadership in virtual teams included organizational factors such as team design, reward systems, communication, and training; team leadership and team composition - Cognitive, affective, motivational, and behavioral team processes and emergent states were the moderating factors and the outcomes included performance and effectiveness at the individual and organizational level.	- Propositions based on individual recommendation and not on research
18.	Hoch (2013)	Relationship between shared leadership and innovative behavior	Cross-sectional study	- Shared and vertical leadership (not team composition) was positively related to the team's innovative behavior. - Vertical transformational and empowering leadership and team composition in terms of integrity were positively related to shared leadership	- Being a cross-sectional study, it precluded causality - The sample was predominately male - A broad measure of leadership - No focus on shared mental models
19.	Houghton et al. (2015)	Shared leadership	Literature review		- no statistics on the data reviewed
20.	Jarad (2012)	Leadership characteristics and project success in the construction industry in the Gaza Strip	Comparative study – interviews and a case study	- There is a strong relationship between the leadership characteristics of a project manager and the success/failure of the project - The leading characteristics associated with project success include monitoring, problem-solving, informed judgment, team building, initiative, influencing, communication, vision, planning and goal setting, time management, discipline, ethics, conflict resolution, positive expectations, and empowerment. - The important methods to develop the above skills are through job experience,	- Not indicated

				watching, observing, mentorship and coaching from seniors, company training, educational courses, and self-education	
21.	Magis (2010)	Community resilience	Literature review	- Resilience is the ability of a system to sustain itself through adaptations and occasional transformation - In addition to the definition, this study also gave the eight dimensions of community resilience which are community resources, active agents, strategic action, collective actions, equity, impact, resource engagement, and resource development	- Not indicated
22.	Langeland et al. (2016)	How to increase organizational resilience	Literature review	- Resilience was defined as the attribute of as a system that indicated its ability to maintain critical operations in the face of adverse disruptions - Information sharing and shared awareness of mission increases effectiveness and efficiency of operations during and after threat events - Clear error reporting structures and cultures allow the development of resilience - Balancing between flexible personnel with distributed decision making and specialized personnel with centralized decision making is vital to resilience - Training on specific and general threat response procedures improves resilience	- Not indicated
23.	Liang & Gu (2016)	Shared leadership and creativity	Comparative study	- The study was drawn on social cognitive theory. Shared leadership has a positive impact on creativity. - Shared leadership motivated team potency and improved individual competence and creativity	- Carried out in a specific area in China, making generalizability difficult
24.	Liphadzi, Aigbavboa, & Thwala (2017)	Difference between leadership and management	Literature review	Leadership and management are two district concepts. Leadership includes social influence and the leader's role in setting a vision or purpose of change for an organization. Management, on the other hand, is associated with the fulfillment of the goals and processes of an organization	- Not indicated
25.	Locke, Srivastava, & Bartol (2006)	Role of knowledge sharing and team efficacy in the relationship between empowering leadership and team performance	Survey	- Empowering leadership is positively related to both team efficacy and knowledge sharing. - Knowledge sharing and team efficacy are positively related to improved performance	- No causal design - Applicability to other types of business or operations in limited - Same data source leading to common method bias - The degree of non-responses could not be ascertained since the number of managers in each team was not recorded.
26.	Marques (2013)	Soft skills as an intrinsic part of successful leadership		- Soft skills are vital in the success of a leader	- Small sample size - The study was carried out in the Los Angeles area, which is metropolitan. Therefore, data from other areas with different economic and cultural prerequisites may be different.
27.	Morgeson, DeRue, &	Team leadership structures and processes	Literature review	- There are four sources of team leadership internal formal, internal informal, external formal, and informal external sources.	- Not indicated

	Karam (2010)			- There are 15 main functions of team leadership and are divided into two phases; - the transition phase and the action phase - Transition phase – compose team, define the mission, establish expectations and goals, structure and plan, train and develop team, sense-making, and provide feedback. - Action phase – monitor team, manage team boundaries, challenge team, perform team tasks, solve problems, provide resources, encourage self-management and support social cultures	
28.	Muethel & Hoegl (2013)	Effectiveness of shared leadership	Literature review	- The assumption of the existing theory that team members are always open to influence from fellow team members is disregarded - Independent professionals consciously decide whether or not to adhere to influence from fellow team members - To understand shared leadership, it is important to take into account the importance of a leader, a follower, and a relationship perspective.	No statistics on the reviewed literature
29.	Muthimi & Kilika (2018)	Leadership, behavioral focus, and performance	Literature review	- Leadership strategy affects a firm's strategic behavior focus - The construct in the study was based on theoretical frameworks drawn from the LMX theory, contingency theory, transformational leadership theory, and leadership strategy model.	- There was no presentation of the relationship between leadership, behavior focus, and performance.
30.	Nathaniel, Carlos, & Jesse (2019)	Pros and cons of shared leadership	Descriptive qualitative study	- The benefits of shared leadership that were identified included enhanced decision making, exceptional outcomes, ease in problem-solving, team-member fit, creative innovation, team synergy, individual well-being, sustained growth, healthy organizational culture, and organizational vitality. - The drawbacks included the difficulty of the shared leadership model, potential lack of follow-through, the danger of immature or usurping team members, lack of acceptance of the model, and lack of efficiency	- Only leaders from shared leadership teams that were committed to the model and experiencing success were interviewed, leading to biased findings
31.	Nicolaides et al. (2014)	Relationship between shared leadership and team performance, as well as the role that team confidence plays in the above relationship	Meta-analysis	- Shared leadership has a significant influence on performance - Shared leadership is effective when the interdependence in a team and team confidence is high - The team size or tenure does not affect the impact of shared leadership on performance.	- None of the studies includes in the meta-analysis used a true experimental design. - A relatively small sample size of the primary studies included in the Meta-analysis. - Inability to account for the dynamic nature of team tenure.
32.	Parris & Peachey (2013)	Servant leadership	Systematic review	- There was no consensus on the definition on servant definition - Servant leadership is being investigated in various contexts, themes, and cultures - Multiple measures are being used to explore servant leadership - Servant leadership is a viable leadership theory and helps organizations improve the well-being of followers.	- The systematic review only reviewed indexed journals available in the researcher's university library. Articles that were not peer-reviewed or indexed were not reviewed. - The only article in English were reviewed - The ability to explore all methodological

					considerations was limited by the study's integration of results conducted using both qualitative and quantitative data analysis methods
33.	Paul, Bamel, & Garg (2016)	Employee resilience and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) with organizational commitment as the mediating variable	Cross-sectional study design	- There is a positive relationship between resilience and organizational citizenship behavior - Resilience influences organizational commitment. - Resilience directly influences OCB and also influences it indirectly through organizational commitment	- The study purely relied on cross-sectional data. - A majority of the respondents were male, making generalizability difficult - Causation among the variable was not examined.
34.	Pearce, Wassenaar, & Manz (2014)	Responsible leadership and how shared leadership processes support it	Ethnographic study	- Shared leadership is vital in developing responsible leadership and can therefore be used to solve issues of irresponsible leadership	- Not indicated
35.	Scott-Young, Georgy, & Grisinger (2019)	Shared leadership	Systematic literature review	- Shared leadership is a construct that adds value to the project management construct - Shared leadership has the potential to enhance team functioning and project performance - Development of a multi-level moderated I-M-O-I model based on systems theory.	- Not indicated
36.	Sharma & Sharma (2020)	Links between team resilience, competitive advantage, and organizational effectiveness	Cross-sectional design	- There is a significant relationship between team resilience and organizational effectiveness. - Competitive advantage was a partial mediator among the relationship between team resilience and organizational effectiveness -	- Conclusion on causality is difficult to make due to the cross-sectional design used -
37.	Simons & Buitendach (2013)	Relationship between psychological capital, work engagement, and organizational commitment	Cross-sectional survey	- There is a significant positive relationship between psychological capital, work engagement, and organizational commitment. - Work engagement is the only significant predictor of organizational commitment.	- The cross-sectional survey design used cannot determine the causality among variables. - Use of self-reported questionnaire gave a ride to response bias - Small sample size
38.	Kjellström, Stålne, & Törnblom (2020)	Leadership development	Explorative qualitative study	- The six ways of understanding leadership development were: one's development, fulfilling a leadership role, leader and organizational development, personal development, collective leadership development, and human development. - There is increasing complexity in understanding leadership development	- Focused on only six ways of leadership development
39.	Spillane (2005)	Distributed leadership	A critique on existing theoretical and practical knowledge on distributed leadership	- The responsibility for leadership routines in distributed leadership involves multiple leaders - Shared leadership, team leadership, and democratic leadership are not synonyms of distributed leadership.	- The causal links between distributed leadership, instructional improvement, and student outcome was not established - Limited empirical evidence on the effectiveness of distributed leadership.
40.	Walker & Salt (2006)	Emergent paradigm of resilience	Literature review	- Through a conceptual overview and case studies, the study found that a resilient world had five main attributes: diversity, modularity, social capital, innovation, and overlap in governance.	- Not indicated

				- It defined social-ecological resilience as the capacity of systems as households and communities to respond to and deal with disturbances, and bounce back without affecting functioning or basic operations	
41.	Wang, Waldman, & Zhang (2014)	Shared leadership and team effectiveness	Meta-analysis	- Shared leadership is positively related to team effectiveness - What is shared among members matters when it comes to team effectiveness - Shared leadership is more strongly related to team attitudinal outcome and behavioral processes compared to team performance	- The number of studies included was limited - Inability to offer strong causal inferences - Only a few studies included had a time lag
42.	Wenger (2017)	Disaster resilience and how it is connected to long-term organizational resilience	Systematic review	- The policy outcome indicates that resilience can support resistance or accommodative strategies - Resilience is a measurable property - Resilience is a process characterized by adaptive capacity	- The PPRR framework used failed to distinguish between measures conducive to long-term resilience and those conducive to maladaptive outcomes
43.	Yusof et al. (2012)	Knowledge sharing in the public sector	Literature review	- Earlier approaches to knowledge sharing have only focused on the factors that influence it. The current study used a more holistic and integrated approach. The approach should draw together all critical factors, including human (individual), organization and technology factors that come into play when it comes to knowledge sharing.	- The proposed model is conceptual and therefore lacks empirical evidence.

Appreciating Shared Leadership

Notably, all economic, political, and organizational systems depend on their leaders' effective and efficient guidance. The leaders create a corporate vision and ensure the cascading of the vision to the subordinates to avoid selfish interests that may override superordinate purposes. Leadership includes social influence (Bennis & Nanus, 2007) driven by passion (Kotter, 2001), unlike the management associates who only embark on fulfilling the set organizational goals through formalized processes (Liphadzi, Aigbavboa, & Thwala, 2017) as a factor of production whose competencies may affect project performance. Although leadership is a subset of management, both are critical in facilitating organizational performance (Jarad, 2012). Arguably, beyond management roles, leadership aims to promote fluidity and change within organizations, seeking continual adaptive change through influence.

Leadership is a social construct that is subjective depending on the “eyes of the beholder”. Arguably, a person becomes a leader when followers perceive them as one (Northouse, 2016). Arguably, team performance is more of whether the actors see each other as leaders and followers. Top management's pivotal role encompasses designing strategies and enabling innovation among team players. Shared leadership influences such innovative team behavior (Muethel & Hoegl, 2013) to improve a firm’s performance (Daspit & D’Souza, 2013). In other words, the above-stretched mandate is a shared effort that should involve the entire organization’s cognitions and capabilities (Hambrick, 2007), helping a firm assimilate, transform, and exploit fresh ideas (Zahra & George, 2002). Leaders are agents for improving team performance and effectiveness, the most critical ingredient for organizational resilience (Carson et al, 2007). The need for distributed leadership allowing for wide-range participation and collaborative decision-making (Devos et al., 2014).

Collaborative leadership is critical during a crisis, aiming to empower and support teams to confront the day's challenges in a constructive way (Doffer et al., 2020) to maximize team efficacy (Bergman et al., 2012) through shared responsibility for shared outcomes (Hoch, 2013). The increased attention paid to shared forms of leadership suggests shared accountability through the distribution of responsibilities, thus substantially. Quality interaction between the leaders and followers involves social sharing of leadership, stretching leadership functions through an intentionally constructed interaction between multiple leaders (Devos et al., 2014). Shared leadership goes beyond the delegation of leadership tasks (Rayner & Gunter, 2005). On the contrary, it involves stretching leadership resources by pooling together people's expertise, interactively making the leadership resource a group property (Yukl, 2002). Further, facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives through dynamic, interactive leadership (Pearce & Congner, 2003) that values environmental support, team members' working attitude, and communication with task interdependence (Bligh et al., 2006).

Pearce and Sims (2002) note that Shared leadership is the outcome of behavioral-based leadership theories that influence its theoretical structure, and directive Leadership that positions power or hierarchical influence of behavior in an organizational chart. It supports employee performance-based reward motivation and the sociology of Charisma: Empowering leadership that emphasizes self-development and enriching leadership skills (Pearce & Sims, 2002).

Shared Leadership Dimensions

Yukl (2002) named "Shared Leadership" as a new paradigm of leadership that calls for a participatory approach to undertaking responsibilities and activities that follow the path of empowering followership and leadership. The distribution of leadership influence and the degree of leadership influence are the two main dimensions of shared leadership.

Bligh et al. (2006) extended the discussion by arguing that the leader's behavior is a critical pillar in encouraging employees to work in a team and employee attitude towards shared leadership to make it effective. A leader's behavior is a triad-dimensional that generally covers a sizable aspect of shared leadership; relations-oriented, task-oriented, and change-inclined attitude (Serban & Boris, 2016; Yukl, 2002). The relations-oriented leadership emphasizes support to achieve a harmony that will help pursue goals efficiently (Yukl, 2002), highlighting work-flexibility and adaptability to cope with new ideas and changes.

Forms of Shared Leadership

To date, many scholars have taken divergent approaches to appreciate shared leadership. Some have focused on the art of sharing specific leadership styles; research is closely associated with the first distinguishing aspect of shared leadership, in which team affiliates accomplish the functions assumed by top leaders in the traditional setup (Pearce & Sims, 2002). However, the combination of shared leadership with the many known leadership styles has reproduced a larger pool of potential constructs of shared leadership, for example, shared transformational, transactional, directive, charismatic, authentic, and empowering leadership (Wang et al., 2014). Shared transformational leadership and management, by exception, improve team resilience (Sommer et al., 2016).

The second approach researchers understand what is to be shared and focus on the "overall" leadership (Wang et al., 2014) rather than capturing certain specific leader behavioral content, thus aggregating a person's leadership to the team level (Carson et al., 2007). For example, Carson et al. (2007) argue that the shared leadership score could be measured based on how teams rely heavily on most of their members. Shared leadership shifts the focus from person and position to process (Bolden et al., 2015). The "sharing" process may transpire across many functional roles proposed by the functional leadership theory (Morgeson et al., 2010), where manifold leadership functions happen. Shared leadership does not necessarily mean every team member performs all leadership functions. Characteristically, shared leadership is informal and ad hoc, forming an internal and informal leadership style riding on well-knit task interdependence at lower and higher levels.

Operationalizing Shared Leadership

In addition to the propagation of definitions around shared leadership, there are two ways to operationalize the construct (Wang et al., 2014). The "aggregation" or the "referent shift" approach may measure shared leadership by applying the traditional leadership scale. The multifactor leadership questionnaire shifts the source of leadership from the official leader to the team, aggregating the team members' ratings. Shared leadership takes five diverse behavioral strategies, that is, aversive, transactional, transformational, directive, and empowering. The aggregation approach fits with the key faces of shared leadership, taking it as an emergent property (Pearce & Conger, 2003) unrealistically taking shared leadership pegged on the indistinguishable set of members with convergent attitudes (Carson et al., 2007): Hence its limitation. Another set of researchers (e.g., Carson et al., 2007) favor the social network approach, studying leadership as a shared activity, thus improving the appreciation of the repetitive leader-follower processes to facilitate the study of the team members' unique influence indexing as leadership centrality at the individual level. Shared leadership has been operationalized either as the density of leadership (Carson et al., 2007) or the decentralization of leadership. Density has been the most commonly used network index of shared leadership by measuring the degree to which the team relies on each teammate for leadership or decentralization of the shared leadership construct (DeRue et al., 2015).

Resilience as a Resource

The disciplines of ecology and sociology define resilience as the capacity of a system or a person to uphold its core purpose and integrity in exaggeratedly changing circumstances (Andrew & Ann, 2012), allowing individuals to recover from hardship more powerfully than before. This general definition of resilience applies in a wide range of specific contexts, each providing insight for developing resilient systems and organizations (Langeland et al., 2016). Organizational executives should develop a culture and strategy that builds resilience through re-engineering resources (Langeland et al., 2016; Wu & Chen, 2018). In behavioral science, people under stressful situations require resistance and support to improve their adaptation and response. Resilience is often used to describe a system or organism's competence to bounce back the following adversity in terms of capacity and time (Park et al., 2013), riding on a good psychological capital positioning through leadership (Simons & Buitendach, 2013). Financial and Social capital are critical ingredients for achieving outcomes that work for all stakeholders

(Gittell, 2006). However, another perspective stresses that high-performance work systems call for loyalty and commitment for individuals to work effectively (Park et al., 2013). Furthermore, if relationships help an organization bounce through a crisis, then it is essential to avoid harming relationships at such a critical time (Gittell, 2006).

Catastrophes present short-term, medium-term, and long-term challenges to organizations, thus calling for adequate control tasks stretching the world's imagination about potential damages and superior response strategies (Meyers, 2019), calling for leadership that fuels organizational learning (Daft, 2012). Resilient organizations do not limit the allocation of resources when dealing with threats that challenge their existence. Instead, they deploy available internal resources to guarantee the continuance of operations after a crisis (Gittell et al., 2006). Resilient firms prepare thoroughly for difficult situations, validating their preparedness in superior capacities to investigate, learn, and act against unknown disruptions. Furthermore, the firms cultivate motivation and other psychological resources of their employees not limited to self-efficacy, optimism, hope, and robustness to increase the chances of harvesting resiliency (Sutcliffe & Vogus, 2003): Boosting employees' confidence to respond well during challenging situations. Possible indicators for measuring organizational resilience insinuated above centers around 1) Quality of organizational data for decision making hinging on availability, accuracy, real-time, relevant, coverage areas, use (decision-making), 2) Systems and Processes that support, analysis (business intelligence), the flow of information, communication, and agility – adaptability; and 3) Mutual Trust (Muethel & Hoegl, 2013) exhibited in attention to results, no fear of conflict, accountability, and commitment.

Shared Leadership and Corporate Resilience

A fundamental prerequisite for acquiring new corporate knowledge hinges on the ability to recognize relevant knowledge based on prior firm's experiences (Zahra & George, 2002) through a network diversity supports a broad scope of distinctive access to good governance (Faulkner et al., 2018). Corporate knowledge is not adequate if not assimilated throughout the organization: The firm's ability to analyze, interpret and comprehend acquired knowledge by the actors (Jansen et al., 2005). Information sharing and shared awareness increase efficiency and effectiveness after disruption (Langeland et al., 2016) to generate resilient systems. Shared leadership allows for the participation in integrating new knowledge, improving necessary mental models overall to build resilience pegged on much current literature review that expresses leadership as a shift to soft skills (Marques, 2013), going beyond charisma, eloquence, and extroversion. Employees have been found to incline towards soft-skilled leaders who demonstrate self-awareness, motivation, empathy, and self-regulation, as opposed to an exhibition of purely hard leadership skills such as intelligence, technical prowess, and rigor (Goleman, 2000): A complement of hard skills (Dixon et al., 2010). According to Nyman (2006), soft skills may not come too easy for leaders, calling for leaders to examine their techniques of relating to others, self-reflection, sensitivity to peoples' perceptions, humility, and influence.

Shared leadership manifests in a leader's ability to find relevance in a crisis, commonly known as crisis leadership. Crisis leadership includes team playing, strategic thinking, high transparency with stakeholders, speedy response to counter challenges through self-drive (Gilstrap et al., 2016). Shared leadership plays a critical role in fostering corporate

accountability and success (Pearce et al., 2014), critical ingredients for team efficacy, and enhanced agency behavior at all organizational levels (Magnus, Robert, & Steve, 2019). A self-led leader has a higher capability of developing employees' positivity, especially on disaster risk management practices through sharpened organizational learning (Kumiko & Fernando, 2010). A self-led leader positivity improves an enthusiastic and cheerful mind, enhancing task performance (Wright, 2014), hence organizational resilience through employee commitment to the organization's mission and mandate. Dependable organizations spur employee commitment to continuous improvement to deal with change: For example, through risk management programs that improve the firm's resilience and citizenship behavior (Happy et al., 2016) and disaster preparedness (Barquet et al., 2016).

Theoretical Review

Transactional leadership theory, complexity theory, behavioral theory, transactional theory, and multi-stakeholder theory are critical pillars for the current study. The theories emphasize that empowering the organization to remain relevant and focused remains a critical pillar to confront the day's challenges. The leaders may demonstrate their superior economic behavior by passively drawing consequences from changing environments and changing the given circumstances. The corporate sustainability school of thought emphasizes that leaders should configure the organization to meet society's broader expectations. Arguably, sustainability management calls for organizations to develop new ways of creating a robust and resilient economy.

A call for a New Theoretical Model

Based on the above observations, the study proposes the following model to guide future studies regarding the construct of shared leadership and organizational resilience.

Proposition 1: The fluidity of the operating environment may propel the urgency of shared leadership behavior, calling for collaboration to steer the firm to greater resilience.

As displayed in Figure 1, the framework provides a broad spectrum of studying the interplay of variables that would improve organizational resilience, noting that shared leadership may occur differently depending on the context. For example, groups may experience stagnation when a chaotic state seems very far, depriving the group of the necessary stimulation to animate its work (Virginia, 2016). The decision-making process and subsequent decision outcomes follow different logics based on the decision-makers differing perceive about an uncertain future: Experience brings forth capabilities and the impetus to take action, evaluate risks, and allocate resources to address uncertainty. The leaders' responsibilities should help a firm assimilate, transform, and exploit fresh ideas by increasing a firm's absorptive capacity (Zahra & George, 2002) as a matter of urgency and anticipation of a mutually beneficial reward system.

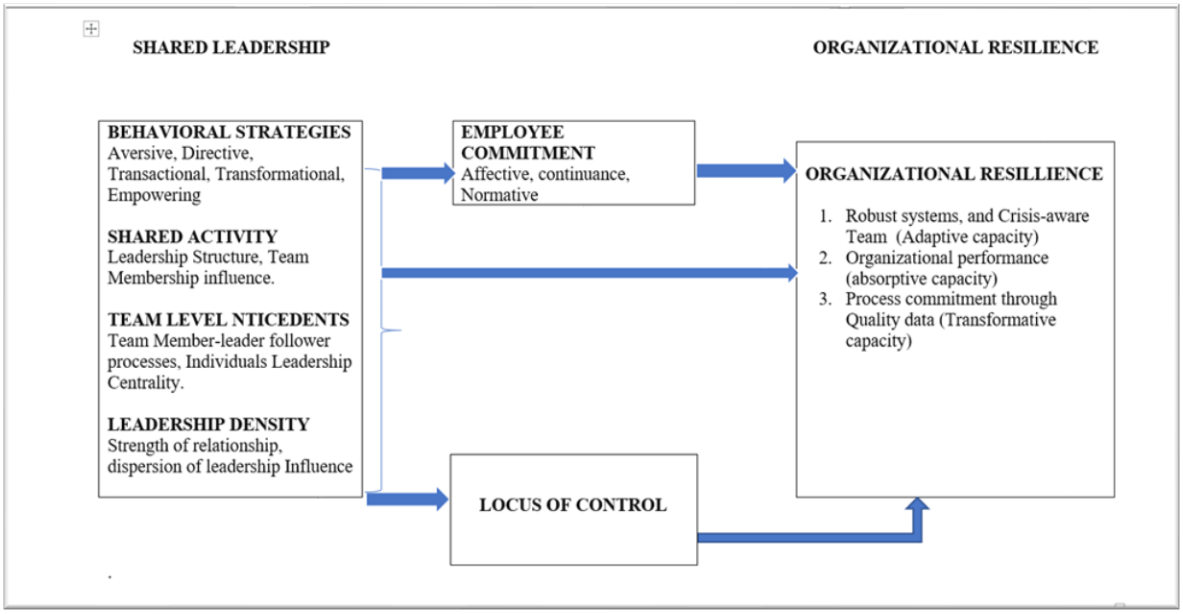

Figure 2. Shared leadership, and organizational resilience

Proposition 2: Deployment of the shared leadership strategy hinging on shared construction of corporate direction will positively affect behavioural efficacy necessary to improve the various dimensions of a firm's resilience.

A right balance between flexible workers and distributed decision-making; technical personnel lead by a centralized decision-making organ would increase appropriate organizational reactions during and after a crisis (McLeod et al., 2016). Relevant training on response to specific threats and still maintains flexibility in disaster response procedures is an uphill task calling for organizations to address a combination of specific and general risks. The framework advocates for the increased scope that involves training on unknown threats through increased follower-commitment hinging on an enhanced locus of control. The need for structures that improve the quality of dyadic leader-follower relations grows a committed and empowered joint workforce ready to act in favour of the organization's long-term advancement.

Proposition 3: Deployment of the shared leadership strategy that improves the internal organization environment will positively affect employee and organizational commitment, thus improving the various dimensions of a firm's resilience.

This calls for a leader to configure an organization to deliver an internal team environment with task cohesion, which predicts shared leadership and task satisfaction. Task satisfaction increases efficacy in execution, thus superior organizational efficacy. Organizational dependability influences commitment to building resilient teams.

Proposition 4: Deployment of the shared leadership strategy that improves Team member's leader-follower processes and individuals' leadership centrality will positively affect the employee's assertiveness and positivism to spur resilience.

A dyadic leader-follower relationship forms the overall leadership structure in a team. Decentralized leadership allows teams to influence each other to act, thus raising their cognitive awareness on aspects that would negatively affect firm performance, making everyone a champion for risk awareness through increased density of how each actor relies on each teammate for leadership (Carson et al., 2007). As a result, risk-aware people enhance a firm's adaptability and resilience.

Proposition 5: Deployment of the shared leadership strategy that improves Team member's locus of control would harvest organization resilience through behavior efficacy.

The locus of control is critical as members of an organization act to create organizational resilience. Although employee commitment harvests superior organizational performance, the psychological perspective that conceives organizational behavior and human behavioral actions is a function of personal dispositions and capacities. Notably, the intensity of stress reduces as the actor focuses on the locus of control, thus increasing the effectiveness of an intrinsic reward signal to spur the agent to explore its situation and learn skills (Pathak et al., 2017).

Proposition 6: Deployment of the shared leadership strategy that improves leadership dispersion and Team member's relationships increases the focus on the organization's controls to provide Quality data, Robust systems, and Process Commitment will elicit disaster-prepared organizations, an antecedent of organizational resilience.

Resilient organizations ride on systems that notice underlying vulnerability and create robust strategies for handling the wide-ranging effects of catastrophes. The above superior behavioral focus would improve organizational efficacy to create processes that guarantee quality information to guide resilience-based decisions.

Conclusion

Shared leadership can be situated within the broader concept of team leadership, including vertical, horizontal, and centralized forms of leadership aimed at combating increased complexity and ambiguity of tasks in parallel with the increasing pressure to respond more promptly to market conditions and challenges through superior decision-making (Hoch & Dulebohn, 2017). Various studies, however, reveal that shared leadership is not a panacea for all organizational problems. Through limited research, there are diverse perspectives of defining resilience; resilience should support adaptation beyond space and time.

Organizational strength is a derivative of a complex interplay of factors at different levels (Kumiko & Fernando, 2010) to navigate a complex operating environment (Gibbs, 2019). Performance feedback is a driver for organizational learning and improved organizational resilience. Agile and integrated coordination among stakeholders would ensure reliable information runs through the organization to create the necessary calm for decision-making and optimism. Shared leadership plays a critical role in fostering corporate accountability and success (Pearce et al., 2014). The shared leadership spurs exceptional outcomes and improved capabilities to solve complex problems (Nathaniel et al., 2019): Critical pillars for building resilient brands.

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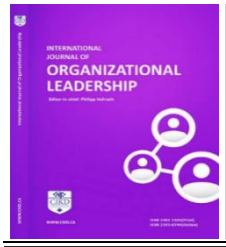

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The Effect of Teachers' Perception of Organizational Justice on their Job Stress

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ABSTRACT

Earlier studies concerning teacher-associated stress about organizational justice indicate that educating and instructing pupils is considered a hectic career, so bearing in mind the massive effect of organizational justice on teachers' stress, it is imperative to study this relationship further. The drive of the present research was twofold: the primary objective is to study how educators view organizational justice, and additionally, it evaluated the extent to which educators' opinions of three dimensions of organizational justice, including procedural justice, interactional justice, and distributive justice are connected to their stress levels. With the help of questionnaires, a quantitative research study was carried out. Data were collected from 200 sample cases of teachers selected by using the random sample selection technique from the private primary schools of Karachi. The regression analysis outcomes showed a significant positive relationship between teacher stress and organizational justice. The results of the independent sample t-test recognized that there is no difference between the mean values of the two groups. Hence, it can be interpreted that stress levels were the same for both males and females. It was thus suggested that institutions contribute to study the factors that can support impartiality and objectivity. There is a strong need to implement some managing policies which facilitate teachers to cope with their increasing stress levels.

A subject that is hardly studied in association with organizational justice is job stress. Missing from the latest organizational fairness meta-analyses, the impact of justice on anxiety, or stress, as it is widely recognized, is investigated by very few scholars. This scarcity of literature demands further research because stress is worth investigating in terms of organizational justice (Pignata, Winefield, Provis, & Boyd, 2016).

Aloe, Shisler, Norris, Nikerson, and Rinker (2014) identified that teachers suffered from high-stress levels compared to any other profession. Faupel, Otto, Krug, and Kottwitz (2016) further assert that teaching is considered the most stressful occupation in the world. Williams, Kern, and Waters (2015) found that those who suffer from stress are usually not satisfied at their workplace, unwilling to put in their effort, and develop feelings of quitting their jobs. Financial pressure, challenging job demands, and hostilities in a tertiary educational institution (Pignata et al., 2016), inequity at work are important indicators of teacher stress (Liu, Wang, Shen, Li, & Wang, 2015). Inequity at work is one of the most important indicators as it leads to angst and strain and consequently stresses (Faupel et al., 2016).

Torkelson, Holm, Backstrom, and Schad (2016) utilized stress and health theories to explain the impact of organizational justice on stress. The workers experience more stress if an organization has many factors linked with stress. Those possible factors can be work pressure, prolonged working hours, uninformed duties, demotivating school heads, and internal conflicts with coworkers. Akin and Ulusoy (2016) stated that if school leaders exhibit insensitive attitude, they leave stress-related issue unattended and such insensitivity among school leaders force teachers to quit their jobs.

The present research aims to focus on the effect of organizational justice on stress in the teaching profession. Furthermore, this research targets to investigate the role of organizational justice in triggering or minimizing stress in educational institutions. In addition, this study is based on a twofold approach: It investigates how organizational justice is viewed by teachers and how organizational justice relates to stress.

Theoretical Background and Hypothesis

Job Stress

Torkelson et al. (2016) defined job stress as the state in which the jobs are demanding, and results affect both the physical and cognitive health of an individual. Bastas (2016) stated that stress can also be developed if employees do not have clarity in terms of their job responsibilities, there are conflicts among school heads and teachers, they face difficulty in meeting deadlines, and they experience an improper appraisal system and have fewer growth opportunities. In addition, various studies identified that certain factors can aggravate stress and can affect an individual severely (Kobayashi & Kondo, 2019). These can be salaries, overloaded classrooms, lack of teaching material, disrespectful attitudes of students, and pressure of work, but if a supportive and encouraging environment is provided to teachers, then stress and strain can be minimized (Aloe et al., 2014).

In addition, the negative impact of stress can affect teacher's commitment to their jobs. Distress and health-related problems are common in teaching than in any other profession, resulting in retirement really before time (Finne, Christensen, & Knardah, 2014). The well-being of teachers is based on the positive environment of the workplace as it can be a source of motivation and reducing stress (Pan, Shen, Liu, Yang, & Wang, 2015). Ghandi and Hijazi (2017) discussed that it is identified that teachers' increasing level of stress is a matter of serious concern. Semmer et al. (2015) categorized the causes of stress, and these are related to physical aspects, mainly the working environment of an organization. Another source is work that includes prolonged working hours, workload, monotony, and role stressors (Hassard, Teoh, & Cox, 2016). Conflicts can also be a stressor, and lack of career-related opportunities can also

be stressful. However, for Pan et al. (2015), lack of organizational justice is the main cause of stress among employees and thus among teachers.

H_1: Stress is negatively related to organizational justice.

Organizational Justice

Organizational justice is defined as a guide that determines the worker's rights and responsibilities and fair sharing of both benefits and indictment in a planned way (Terzi et al., 2017). The perception of organizational justice is related to the social environment, which means that an occurrence of organizational injustice is said to be fair if the majority perceive it as fair (Kedenburg, 2014). Thus, organizational justice serves the purpose of a catalyst for reducing stress as viewed by many researchers. In educational contexts, lack of organizational justice can demotivate teachers and affect their physical and mental health, which eventually affects their ability to perform (Iden, 2014). Terzi et al. (2017) identified the role of injustice in triggering stress which ultimately results in the development of negative feelings and consequently job stress. Semmer et al. (2015) stated that stressful environment of the workplace and monotonous work lead to job strain such environment and work can increase teachers' turnover ratio. Therefore, organizational justice has gained importance in recent years as it is considered a source of improving employees' health by reducing stress. Yean and Yusof (2016) discussed the equity theory as the higher the level of fairness or equity, the more motivated the employee will be.

Adams Smith's equity theory (1963) is based on maintaining an equilibrium between the employee's input and output. If the input outweighs the output, then employees get demotivated, uncontended and dissatisfied. Therefore, the theory demands the factors that can be incorporated into an organization that can make an employee motivated, contented, satisfied, and above all, free of stress.

H_2: Organizational justice is negatively related to stress such that each justice variable predicts stress differently.

There are three main types of organizational justice: procedural, distributive, and interactional justice (Yean & Yusof, 2016).

Procedural Justice

It is related to the process of being fair, and the employees' output can be witnessed as they feel satisfied (Yean & Yusof, 2016). Procedural justice can be explained as reliable, free from prejudice, just decisions, and fair policies. On the other hand, injustice in the process can be a stressor and can affect organizational commitment (Kedenburg, 2014).

H_3: Procedural justice is negatively related to stress.

Distributive Justice

Based on the equity theory, distributive justice is when employees compare the tasks performed, and rewards received to check fairness and if they perceive it fair, they get satisfied. If an employee witnesses favoritism, then distributive justice becomes a stressor (Costa, 2014).

H_4: Distributive justice is negatively related to stress.

Interactional Justice

Yean and Yusof (2016) explained the two distinctive elements of interactional justice: interpersonal and informational justice. Interpersonal justice refers to just treatment. It includes the factor of giving respect and respectfully treating employees. Informational justice focuses on the element of trust that all procedures are communicated fairly with the employees.

H_5: Interactional justice is negatively related to stress.

Methodology

The study focuses on the impact of organizational justice and its well-known aspects of procedural, interactional, and distributive justice on stress. Some researches show the association of justice and workers' tension, but little is known about teachers' stress. The following research shows the impact of organizational justice on teachers' stress. Using a simple random sample selection technique, 230 sample cases were selected from various private primary schools of Karachi. The survey questionnaire having 16 items to be evaluated on a five-point Likert scale was distributed among the selected teachers, out of which 200 were considered without missing values and thus used for data analysis. The data collected from the study were analyzed by carrying out the reliability, factor, and regression analysis techniques. The following model was developed:

$$ST = \infty + \beta\ 1\ PJ + \beta\ 2\ IJ + \beta\ 3\ DJ + e$$

Where ST represents Stress (dependent variable). PJ is Procedural justice, IJ is Interactional justice, and DJ is Distributive justice.

The model is based on Equity Theory. Although research literature comprises numerous studies related to organizational justice, a subject that is hardly studied in association with organizational justice is job stress. This scarcity of literature demands further research because stress is worth investigating in terms of organizational justice (Pignata et al., 2016). Therefore, to fill this gap in the literature, stress is also included in the theoretical framework of the present study (Usmani & Jamal, 2013).

Materials

The constructs in this research have been adopted from the previous studies (Can, 2012; Costa, 2014). The items measuring the constructs were justified and validated in those earlier studies. Data is collected through these questionnaires. Since the measuring items and constructs have been adopted from previous research, Cronbach's alpha values for each construct range from .75 to .90. The researchers did not conduct a pilot study to confirm the validity and reliability of the instrument.

The items ST1, ST2, ST3, ST4, ST5, ST6, ST7, ST8, ST9, ST10, ST11, ST12, ST13, and ST14 in the questionnaire at 5-point Likert scale response show a high level of stress. Items PJ1, PJ2, PJ3, PJ4, and PJ5 in the questionnaire represent procedural justice, and responses at the 5-point Likert scale show a high level of organizational justice. Items DJ1, DJ2, DJ3, DJ4, and DJ5 represent distributive justice, and responses at the 5-point Likert scale show a high level of distributive justice. Items IJ1, IJ2, IJ3, IJ4, and IJ5 represent interactional justice, and responses at the 5-point Likert scale show a high level of interactional justice.

Respondent Profile

This study considers 230 valid cases for data analysis as seven univariate and multivariate outliers were removed as a part of the data screening process. The outliers were removed as it increases the variability in the data; as a result, the statistical power is decreased. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) stated that for detecting univariate outliers for continuous variables, standardized values (z scores) could be used outside the absolute value of 3.29. However, two univariate outliers were found in the study as the values were greater than 3.29 of the sample. Therefore, both were removed from the sample. Multivariate outliers were identified using Mahalanobis distance and CDF, CHISQ function (Mahalanobis D2, $p < .001$). The rationale for removing it is to increase the statistical power. If outliers are excluded, then it causes results to become statistically significant, reducing the chances of Type II errors. Out of 200 respondents, 140 (70%) females and 60 (30%) male teachers participated in the study.

Results

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22 was used to analyze the results obtained from the data collection. The reliability of data is explained by using statistical tests. The questionnaire comprised 16 items, including all the variables.

Table 1 indicates that the variable "Procedural justice" has five items and its reliability is .90. The variable "Interactional justice" has four items, and its reliability is .90. The variable "Distributive justice" has three items, and its reliability is .90. The last variable "Stress" has four items, and its reliability is .90, and generally, the reliability of the measure is .91. Thus, all Cronbach's Alpha values were high and above the cut-off value (Nunnally, 1978).

Table 1

Reliability Statistics

Variable	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Procedural justice	5	.90
Interactional justice	4	.90
Distributive justice	3	.90
Stress	4	.90
Overall	16	.91

The majority of the researchers use factor analysis to group variables based on strong correlation. The KMO measures the adequacy of the sample, and the threshold value must be more than 0.5. Since the value of KMO is .83, which is more than 0.5, it is suitable to run factor analysis (see Table 2). Bartlett's test of Sphericity recounts the impact of the study for the presence of sufficient correlation among the variables. The significance value should be less than .05. Table 2 shows that the significance value is less than .05, indicating the strong relationship among variables which means factor analysis is applicable in this study (see Table 2). In this table, the factor result shows the accuracy of the data of independent variables.

Table 2

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	.83
Bartlett's test of Sphericity Approx. Chi Square	1070.37
Df	120
Sig.	.000

As presented in Table 3, the correlation in the variables to the dependent variable is defined by the rotated component matrix. Therefore, the highest level of relationship to the dependent variable is depicted by the value with the highest correlation value. In this manner, a grouping of each variable is made.

Table 3

Rotated Component Matrix

Items	Procedural justice	Interactional Justice	Distributive Justice	Stress
- Evaluation is fair and free from favoritism.	.70			
- Performance evaluation is according to the performance of the employees.	.74			
- Outside pressure does not influence performance evaluations.	.71			
- Standard criteria are used for evaluations.	.65			
- Employees, coordinator and school head communicate during the evaluation period.	.68			
- My school head respects my opinion.		.65		
- My school head treats me kindly.		.60		
- My school head respects my rights as a coworker.		.80		
- My school head tries to be honest with me.		.75		
- Rewards are fair and fit with my previous work experience.			.60	
- Performance evaluations reflect my job responsibilities.			.68	
- Performance evaluations reflect my job difficulty.			.81	
- My job requires a high level of skill.				.63
- I get to do a variety of different things on my job.				.81
- My job requires me to be creative.				.73
- My job requires working very hard.				.50

Table 4 describes the statistics of all variables with their beta values, co-linearity value, significant value. The value of β decides the significance level such that the positive value of β depicts a positive significant relationship among variables and vice versa. The procedural justice, interactional justice, and distributive justice positively impact stress contrary to all our hypotheses (see Table 4). β value is used to form regression equation which is:

$$ST = \infty + \beta_1 PJ + \beta_2 IJ + \beta_3 DJ + e$$

Stress = .11 (procedural justice) + .25 (interactional justice) + .10 (distributive justice)

The significance values of procedural justice, interactional justice, and distributive justice are less than 0.1, which significantly affects stress. Hair (2010) stated that VIF is the variance inflation factor that tells whether multicollinearity exists or not. If VIF is less than 10, there is no multicollinearity, which means the coefficient represents the correct change in variable and independent variables are not correlated with each other (see Table 4).

Table 4

Regression Coefficient (Stress)

Variables	β	t	VIF	*p*
(Constant)	2.27	9.45		.00
Procedural Justice	0.11	2.24	1.38	.02
Interactional justice	0.25	4.14	1.32	.00
Distributive justice	0.10	1.89	1.39	.05
Adjusted R2	0.23			
F stat (prob)	19.98			

The independent T-test was used since the test comprises two parts, the data of stress and gender. The claim for Levene's test states that H_o: Variances are equal for both genders. After

applying the test, it can be seen in Table 5 that H_o is accepted since the significance value is > 0.1. It can be concluded that stress levels are the same in both genders.

Table 5

Independent T-test

Variables	Gender	Sample Size	F	*p*	*t*	*df*
ST	1	60	1.54	.215	-.372	198
	2	140				

Discussion

This research was carried out to add to the limited investigation of the relationship among each of the three organizational justice variables: distributive, procedural, interactional justice, and perceived stress. Considering the larger setting of how job stress and perceptions of organizational justice are linked with teachers' well-being can assist scholars. The experts comprehend the extensive influence that employment policy and management practices can have on the comfort of their staff members. The results show that these relations must offer organizational leaders a healthier perception of how their leadership practices and the working environment they produce unswervingly influence their teachers' well-being and contentment.

In addition to that, the impact of persistent stress exerted from the prejudicial conduct from one's headteacher, and the negative impact possibly will result in stressful behavior of teachers. The findings of the study show that greater levels of fairness are apparent when educators feel that they have involvement in processes than when workers do not have the opportunity to contribute. This result is consistent with the study carried out by Kedenburg (2014). The excellence of communication by an institute or school head during all stages of the evaluation period in specific can develop impartiality by enlightening teachers' perceptions of school head honesty and decreasing feelings of uncertainty. The people can understand the process of assessments from group fellows, and these can lead to homogeneousness of fairness insights within group members, producing a robust impartial environment. Consequently, group-level perceptions of justice can be hypothesized as a precursor to persons' fairness perceptions. The organizations can take on a more comprehensive, practical attitude to transform their organizational ethos into an impartial working environment. Through this style of leadership, employers can be presented with meaningful companywide plans related to reducing worker stress and enhancing the well-being of teachers through fair evaluation, fair distribution of rewards, and above all, quality communication (Aloe et al., 2014; Muqadas, Rehman, & Aslam, 2017).

Yean and Yusof (2016) stated that the organizations might need to study methods of improving head teacher-teacher relations and communication. For instance, efforts can be made to escalate levels of head teacher-teacher conversation in maintaining harmonious bilateral relations, headteachers can be a part of professional development programs to boost their communication skills, or school-wide strategies that are unambiguous, honest, and fair can be practiced that encourage and improve workers' fairness insights (Viseu, Jesus, Rus, Canavarro, & Pereira, 2016). The results also show that school head involvements intended for decreasing relational stress and conflict, consolidating group dynamics, and clear communications of aims and objectives probably reduce pointless stress and improve employee well-being.

Another interesting finding was that the independent sample t-test showed no difference between the mean values of the two groups. Hence, the stress levels were the same for both males and females. In this regard, the findings of the independent sample t-test brought forward several recommendations for the policymakers of private and public sector educational institutions that the school heads can enhance their skills by focusing on communicating strategies to cope with the stress of staff members, plan for precautionary actions to elude stress particularly in female teachers, present stress management exercises, communicate at every stage of evaluation to reduce ambiguity, encourage the participation of teachers to show their creativity, encourage learning and teaching environment and above all ensure fairness in all aspects as this can lead to the creation of flawless and stress fear working environment.

Conclusion

The present research examined the relationship between organizational justice and stress. The current study was destined to discover the influence of organizational justice on stress because the previous research regarding instructor-connected stress concerning organizational justice was limited. For this purpose, the random sampling technique was applied to collect a questionnaire from primary school teachers working in the private sector. The sample size was 200. The tests applied are reliability tests, factor analysis, regression analysis, and independent-sample t-test. The results indicated that other dimensions of organizational justice, such as procedural justice, interactional justice, and distributive justice played a significant role in stress. This relationship indicates that adopting fair evaluation procedures, developing positive interactions with employees, and equity at the workplace can reduce stress.

The study hopes that the results can help the concerned policy designers to focus on organizational justice and its impact on stress levels. This study can also contribute substantially to the professionals associated with organizations to consider the components that can support impartiality in the workplace. There must be some coping strategies that can be applied to reduce stress. Stress-reducing strategies should be designed by psychologists, work-related stress should be treated in the same way as other safety precautions. Tangible and non-tangible support must be provided.

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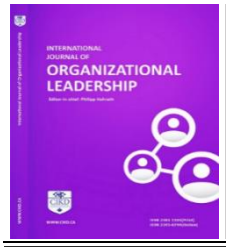

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The Effect of Servant and Transformational Leadership Styles on Employee Creative Behavior: The Moderating Role of Authentic Leadership

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ABSTRACT

Leaders are expected to trigger and increase the creative behavior of their followers, and hence they need to adopt various leaderships together. This study focuses on the effect of the servant and transformational leadership on employee creative behavior and the moderating role of authentic leadership on these relationships. One thousand one hundred forty-six blue- and white-collar employees working in the western region of Turkey were selected by convenience sampling. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and Process Macro by Hayes have been used to determine the effects and interactions among variables. Servant and transformational leadership were positively related to employee creative behavior, and that these effects increased if moderated by authentic leadership. Thus, authentic leadership strengthens the positive impact of servant and transformational leadership on employee creative behavior. It is predicted that leaders should be servants or transformational leaders to increase employee creative behavior in their organizations. It should be taken into account that if these leaders also exhibit authentic leadership, the effect of leadership on employee creative behavior will be even greater. A second leadership is also included in the relationship between leadership and employee creative behavior, which is generally examined through a single leadership type. The interaction of this second leadership with other leadership is also tested.

Employee creative behavior has become an important issue that can not be ignored in recent years. Both employers and academics emphasize this behavior very often and strongly in their

own atmosphere. Creative behavior can be explained based on creativity because one is idea-based, and the other is related to turning this idea into behavior, so creativity and creative behavior should also be discussed together. Creativity is briefly defined by Amabile (1988) and Zhou and Shalley (2011) as revealing new and effective ideas on products, processes, and procedures. It is also accepted that today creativity is a job requirement for employees (Unsworth, 2001). In addition, making suggestions to improve one's own workflow and developing new and useful ideas to solve problems to overcome difficulties can also be described as a creative process. For these reasons, it is now a necessity for companies to support creativity and creative behavior to achieve their goals and gain competitive advantages against competitors (Amabile, 1988). Many studies have focused on the individual's cognitive orientation and intrinsic motivation to increase creativity (Amabile, 1988; Woodman et al., 1993), but later other researchers have focused on collaborations (Bullinger et al., 2004), group interactions (Rickards, Chen, & Moger, 2001) and showed that surroundings also influence creativity and innovation, such as leadership (Amabile et al., 2004) and organizational hierarchy (Artz et al., 2010; Damanpour, 1996).

Transformational leadership is one of the most dominant paradigms in the relationship between creativity and leadership (Bono & Judge, 2004). With this leadership, it is hoped that the values and attitudes of the employees will be aligned with the organization and that the employees will show performances beyond expectations (Bass & Riggio, 2005; Çömez et al., 2011). In addition, transformational leaders strive to create a periphery where different ideas are valuable (Jung et al., 2003) and agree to be a role model that encourages opposite ideas and comments (Howell & Higgins, 1990). This creates a climate where creativity is affirmed (Kearney & Gebert, 2009). This type of leadership has been shown to be associated with many positive work behaviors, including well-being, task performance, and creative behavior (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Shin & Zhou, 2003).

While leader approval is required to use power and the realization of activities in traditional leadership, power-sharing is the priority in servant leadership. The servant-leader stands themself back and focuses primarily on the needs of the employees. Wong and Page (2003b) stated that this leadership takes the first place among other leaderships in achieving the common good and goals and ensuring employee development. This leadership also includes a perspective that values people and pushes them to act authentically (Laub, 1999). Russell and Stone (2002) mentioned empowerment, ability development, teaching, authorization, and encouragement while listing the characteristics of servant leadership. It is clear that this type of leadership, which supports authenticity and employee development, has a positive relationship with positive work behavior.

The importance of authentic leadership has increased due to the need for reliable and transparent leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). According to Neff and Harter (2002), authentic leadership is described shortly as being honest with oneself, but it is known that there are other factors rather than honesty, such as self-confidence and optimism (Arda et al., 2016; Ilies, Morgeson, & Nargang, 2005; Shamir & Eilam, 2005). This type of leader is consistent with what they say and what they do (Simons, 2002). Walumbwa et al. (2008) stated that authentic leadership has a better relationship with organizational citizenship behavior, organizational commitment, satisfaction, and individual job performance than other

leaderships. Employees also feel psychologically secure with these leaders and seek creative ways to solve problems and use opportunities (Prati et al., 2003).

In this study, employee's perception of leadership is placed at the center of employee's creative behavior, so this study will also have a role in examining employee perceptions, attitudes, and intentions that affect employee creative behavior. Few studies in the literature consider leaderships together, but the effects of a single leadership on employee behavior have been frequently studied. Therefore, while examining the effect of the servant and transformational leadership on creative behavior, we also focused on the role of authentic leadership. Although the effect of all three leaderships on creative behavior is positive, it has been shown by testing that authentic leadership also has a positive moderator role on other leaderships. This study first begins with the presentation of the theories supporting the models, continues with the development of hypotheses, and concludes with the methodology, results, discussions, and ends with the conclusion.

Theoretical Background

According to Torrance (1993), creativity is considered a process in which employees show sensitivity to problems and make suggestions and activities to solve them. Since creativity is an uninterrupted process that solves organizational problems and enables the organization to achieve its goals (Amabile et al., 2005), it is accepted as a necessity for the industry.

Creative behavior, on the other hand, is a new phenomenon that has been studied recently in both individual and organizational fields. For example, George and Zhou (2001), who examined creative behavior individually, showed that creativity returns to the organization as creative behavior when supported by the organization. Accordingly, some factors affect this behavior in organizational terms (Amabile & Gryskiewicz, 1989; Anderson, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2004), such as group support, organizational encouragement, autonomy, and sufficient resources (Amabile & Conti, 1999; Amabile et al., 1996; Amabile & Grykiewicz, 1989) to turn creativity into creative behaviors. Bain, Mann, and Pirola-Merlo (2001) and Burningham and West (1995) also pointed to the importance of organizational support, challenging goals, and task orientation in creativity. Among such organizational factors, leadership seems to be an important key to encourage the creativity of employees (Scott & Bruce, 1994; Tierney et al., 1999).

One of the theories that state the leadership as an organizational factor impacts employee creative behavior is Amabile's componential theory of creativity (1988). Here, the influence of leadership on creative behavior is emphasized as a controlling incentive. With the support and intrinsic motivation provided by the leader, the creativity of the employees might increase. Setting goals, supporting the group, establishing effective communication within the group, showing confidence, and being open to new ideas also support creativity development (Amabile, 1997).

Bandura (2001) suggested that the basis of social learning theory is learning based on observing and imitating the behavior of others. Bandura (2001) also stated that social learning occurs from the reactions given and the observation of role models. In the leadership framework, this theory suggests that employees can learn by modeling the leader, that is, leaders influence their employees as a positive role model to act positively. In this respect, the most important factor of the social environment is the leader (Hannah, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2011).

In the theory of planned behavior, Ajzen et al. (1991) and Rosenthal (2018) explained the relationship between perception, attitude, and behavior and stated that attitude and intention must be formed before the behavior occurs. It is seen that strong attitudes turn into behaviors over time (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2005). Positive perceptions and attitudes are associated with positive behaviors, and negative perceptions and attitudes are associated with negative behaviors (Gonzalez et al., 2012).

Blau (1964) stated in his social exchange theory, an employee who receives positive reactions from their organization gives positive reactions mutually. For example, an individual supported by the organization engages in positive behaviors such as working hard and thinking extra about problems. This relationship between the organization and the individual is dynamic (Mearns & Reader, 2008; Saks, 2006).

According to Amabile's componential theory of creativity, Bandura's social learning theory, Ajzen's planned behavior theory, and Blau's social exchange theory, we suggest that servant and transformational leadership directly affects creative behavior. If these two leaderships additionally exhibit authentic leadership in the organization, employee creative behavior increases.

Hypothesis Development

Servant Leadership and Creative Behavior

Servant leadership is a leadership concept that acts in the direction of not gathering power in one man but sharing power. It serves the development of others by keeping the needs of others ahead of their own (Greenleaf, 2008). Laub (1999), on the other hand, defined servant leadership as a concept that values people, develops them and pushes them to act authentically. Russell and Stone (2002) listed some features such as being a role model, articulating a vision, having credibility, and empowerment to define servant leadership.

Many researchers have tried to determine the servant leadership dimensions, but recently, the dimensions determined by Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) are empowerment, standing back, courage, forgiveness, humility, accountability, and responsibility.

Encouraging and empowering employees can be creative by providing intrinsic motivation (Neubert et al., 2016). Servant leadership is also related positively to organizational citizenship behaviors (Ehrhart, 2004; Walumba et al., 2010) and performance (Chiniara & Bentein, 2016; Hunter & Nielsen, 2013). These servant leaders we described above increase the possibility of using creative methods to solve problems (Liden et al., 2014; Yoshida et al., 2014). Servant leadership is also known to positively affect employee creativity due to its altruistic tendencies (Neubert et al., 2008). It has been argued that this leadership creates psychologically safe workplaces in which followers are inspired to take risks and develop new ways of working (Schaubroeck et al., 2011). Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) also stated that servant leadership is the dominant leadership among others to create psychologically secure spaces that lead to positive follower behavior.

Because of the human-centered nature of the servant leader, the followers also feel that they are taken care of (Eva et al., 2019), and they respond to it by revealing their best performance, as Blau (1964) stated in his social exchange theory. Responses that followers can offer their leaders can include improving business processes as well as developing new ideas. Servant leaders' interest in supporting, empowering, and satifying his/her followers' needs (Yang et al.,

2017) also creates psychological trust among followers (Zou et al., 2015). This safe working environment created by the servant leader allows the followers to interact with the leader (Colquett et al., 2007) socially. In response to these behaviors of the leader, the followers also engage in creative behavior.

Hypothesis 1: Servant leadership is positively related to creative behavior

Transformational Leadership and Creative Behavior

A transformational leader makes an effort beyond expectations by motivating their followers and reflects this on the team and the organization (Bass & Avolio, 1990). The leader initially focuses on intellectual effort and influences the attitudes and assumptions of the team (Bass & Avolio, 1994). They want employees not to be stuck to the status quo and show that different ideas are valuable (Jung et al., 2003). They lead to diversity by exhibiting unexpected and creative behavior and sees it appropriate to encourage cognitive opposition (Howell & Higgins, 1990), thus creating a climate in which different opinions are supported (Kearney & Gebert, 2009).

Transformational leadership has been examined in four dimensions: charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration (Avolio & Bass, 1995). These leadership dimensions are expected to increase the positive behaviors of employees within the organization. Transformational leadership positively affects creative behavior because the leader provides intellectual stimulation that shows followers creative thinking (Waldman & Bass, 1991). Moreover, it is assumed that these leaders encourage their followers to adopt an inquiring and open mindset (Jung et al., 2003), thus producing original and creative ideas and solutions (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999). According to the social learning theory (Bandura, 2001), followers are expected to imitate the leader and engage in creative behavior. The leader is also the trainer of their followers, and the leader who is involved in intellectual stimulation also expects creativity from their employees. The leader, who is also a role model of employees, thus enables them to participate and learn (Bass & Avolio, 1990). Since transformational leader also increases the self-efficacy of the employees (Pillai & Williams, 2004), they still desire to change the status quo (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). The inspirational motivation dimension supports the process of generating ideas in line with the vision of the organization. Inspirational motivation, which is increased due to the behavior of the transformational leader, is a source of creativity (Tierney et al., 1999). Amabile (1983) also stated that creativity occurs with intrinsic motivation. For this reason, inspirational motivation is considered as a dimension that increases creativity, such as intellectual stimulation. Based on the theories, we think that transformational leadership increases creative behavior, and the leader has an important role in displaying the creative behavior of followers.

Hypothesis 2: Transformational leadership is positively related to creative behavior.

The Moderating Role of Authentic Leadership

While Neff and Harter (2002) defined authenticity as feelings, thoughts, wishes, and beliefs that do not contradict one's self, Kernis and Goldman (2006) stated that stable and high self-esteem occurs in authentic individuals and that defensive, fragile and inconsistent self is not seen. Erickson (1995) stated that there is no such thing as completely authentic or not authentic at all. If the authentic individual is in a leadership position, leadership characteristics are

generally explained in four dimensions; self-awareness, balanced processing, internalized moral perspective, and relational transparency (Walumbwa et al., 2008). An authentic individual who is in a leadership position does not change their attitudes and behaviors. It has been shown that an authentic individual does not behave like a traditional leader when they are a leader and that they conduct this leadership function only on expressing themselves and does not compromise on transparency and honesty (Gardner et al., 2005). The authentic leader also inspires employees with encouragement and enthusiasm using emotional experiences such as hope and optimism (Ilies et al., 2005; Zhou & George, 2003). This inspiration broadens employees' perspectives and increases the probability of taking creative and innovative actions (Fredrickson, 2001). Authentic leadership also increases the leader-member exchange level, creates a sense of trust and freedom to fearlessly revealing conflicting ideas among employees, and enables followers to take responsibility easily (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). People who work with authentic leaders are also more competent because the leader positively influences the values and behaviors of followers, ethically and spiritually (Laschinger et al., 2013). The authenticity of the servant leader can be understood as the leader's sincerity towards themselves and the harmony with the followers through ethical and spiritual values. This harmony creates dynamism, job involvement, job satisfaction, and trust in employees (Bobbio et al., 2012; Sendjaya & Pekerti, 2010). Needless to say that ethics is a construct that theorists prioritize while defining servant leadership (Jaramillo et al., 2009; Liden et al., 2014; Sendjaya et al., 2008). The authentic servant leader focuses on moral consistency and concern about others. Concern for followers is about leaders' focus on defending and protecting their followers' interests. Servant leadership with authentic leadership behaviors supports the personal development of followers much more than expected. These behaviors encourage followers by establishing autonomy and self-efficacy that increase their pride and personal responsibility for work. Therefore followers encounter more moral and ethical behaviors, increase their personal development, and thus have more opportunities to get ideas to realize them (Lemoine et al., 2019).

It should be known that authentic leadership differs from servant leadership in what they focus on. For example, a servant leader focuses on the interests of stakeholders, while an authentic leader focuses on ethical values. Based on the recent studies, we state that authentic leadership differs from servant leadership, but it strengthens the relationship between servant leadership and employee creative behavior (Figure 1).

Hypothesis 3: Authentic leadership positively moderates the relationship between servant leadership and creative behavior.

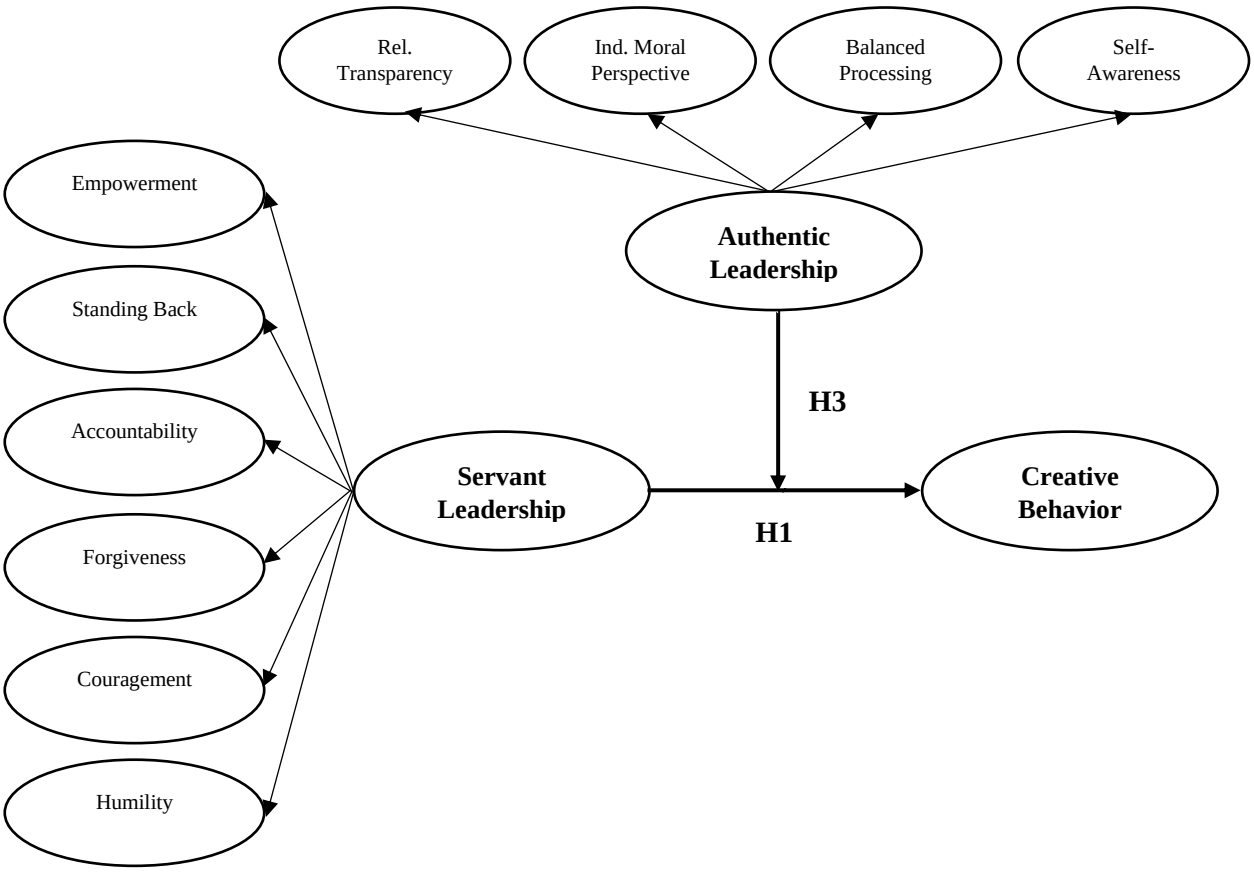

Figure 1. Theoretical model of Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 3

In addition to transforming their followers and organization, transformational leaders instill moral and ethical values: being authentic in their followers and enabling their followers to be productive for others (Zhu et al., 2011). Authenticity also provides the transformational leader with feelings of kindness, altruism, sincerity, harmony, trust, accountability, equality, and justice. It is stated that transformational leadership rises morally with the inclusion of authentic values in the leadership process (Burns, 1978). Dongil Jung and Sosik (2006) also argued that morally accepted courage and harmony make transformational leadership behavior authentic.

The four dimensions of transformational leadership now include a moral perspective, and this authentic transformational leader appears to be a moral person. Here, the transformational leader's being truly transformational depends on knowing what is good and bad, transforming the followers to themselves, developing their moral maturity, and wanting better for the group and organization other than themselves. Thus, apart from the characteristics of transformational leadership, the authentic transformational leader also can judge fairly and deals with group members morally.

Although it is evident that there is a positive relationship between authentic leadership and transformational leadership, a clear distinction between the two in terms of focus is also present, as in servant leadership (Walumbwa et al., 2008). With the authenticity of transformational leadership, followers find moral and fair workplaces, work more in harmony, are supported within the group, and thus have more opportunities to turn their ideas into reality (Prati et al.,

2003). Based on these studies, we would like to present that authentic leadership strengthens the relationship between transformational leadership and employee creative behavior (Figure 2).

Hypothesis 4: Authentic leadership positively moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and creative behavior.

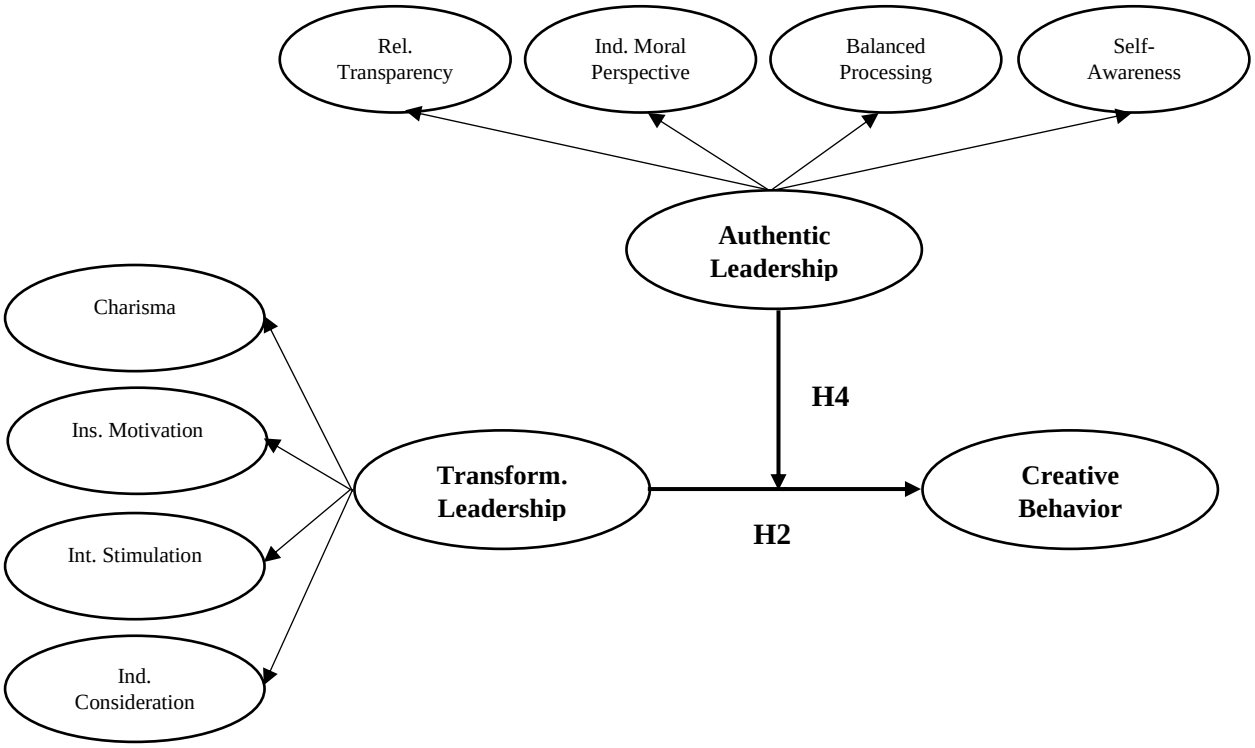

Figure 2. Theoretical model of Hypothesis 2 and Hypothesis 4.

Based on mentioned theories, followers are influenced by, aspire, and learn from their leaders. Therefore, the followers will respond positively to the leaders because these leaders serve or transform and show ethical values. As a result, positive individual and organizational outcomes are achieved. Furthermore, if servant and transformational leaders exhibit authentic leadership, they will positively increase employee creative behavior (Giallonardo et al., 2010).

Method

Participants and Data Collection

One thousand one hundred forty-six blue- and white-collar employees working in the western region of Turkey were selected by convenience sampling, and a cross-sectional questionnaire was applied. One hundred sixty-seven participant questionnaires were excluded from the analysis because most of the items in the questionnaire were not filled out. Mahalanobis distance, a multivariate outlier detection technique (Leys et al., 2018), was preferred to detect extreme values. Totaly, 119 cases were found as outliers and excluded from the analysis. Finally, 860 cases were used (the completion rate is 75%).

478 (55.6%) of the participants who filled out the questionnaire were men, and 336 participants (39.1%) were women. There is also a small number of participants who did not specify their gender. The rate of those who had bachelor's and master's degree is 79.9%. The

ages of all participants vary between 18 and 55, but the average age of participants was 32 years. In addition, the average tenure of the participants in the organizations is calculated as ten years, with approximately one-third of the participants working in manufacturing (305), one-third in the service (265), and the rest in other sectors (290). Care was taken to ensure the privacy of the participants to eliminate social desirability or acquiescence bias, and it was insistently emphasized that there were no right or wrong answers (Spector, 2006). Participants filled in the questionnaire by first completing the servant leadership scale, then the transformational leadership and authentic leadership scale, and finally the creative behavior scale. Demographical questions were placed at the end of the questionnaire as usual. This demographical information shows that the selected sample is suitable for conducting a reliable study.

Measures

The items were adapted from related questionnaires and validated by various papers. For leadership questionnaires, 1: Never, 2: Rarely, 3: Sometimes 4: Often and 5: Always (if not always, extremely often) and for creative behavior questionnaire, 1: Strongly Disagree, 2: Disagree, 3: Neither agree nor disagree, 4: Agree, 5: Strongly Agree, 5-point Likert scales were preferred.

Creative Behavior (CB): The first five items of this questionnaire were developed by George and Zhou (2001) and Tierney, Farmer, and Graen (1999), while the remaining three items were adapted into the Turkish language from various organizational creativity questionnaires.

Transformational Leadership (TL): Avolio and Bass' (2004) transformational leadership questionnaire has been confirmed and adapted to the Turkish language by researchers. The questionnaire contains 17 items and four factors. Of these factors, charisma is represented by seven items, inspiring motivation by four items, intellectual stimulation by three items, and three items present individual consideration.

Servant Leadership (SL): Van Dierendonck and Nuijten's (2011) servant leadership questionnaire is a frequently used and a validated questionnaire in the literature. The questionnaire was adapted to the Turkish language by researchers and consists of 23 items and six factors. Among these factors, empowerment is represented by seven items, standing back by three items, accountability by three items, forgiveness by three items, encouragement by two items, and humility is represented by five items.

Authentic Leadership (AL): Walumbwa, Avolio, and Gardner's (2008) authentic leadership questionnaire has been validated and carefully adapted to the Turkish language. The questionnaire consists of 16 items and four factors. Relational transparency is represented by five items, internalized moral perspective by four items, balanced processing by three items, and self-awareness is represented by four items.

Measurement Model

This study uses Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and Process Macro for hypotheses tests. Process Macro works efficiently when the model involves several structural path relationships (Hayes, 2018). This study aims to explore new relationships among variables that have been theoretically less studied or not studied at all. In addition, this study has second-order constructs and contains a moderator variable that makes the models more complex.

Before performing CFA analysis, we explored data distribution by understanding Skewness and Kurtosis for each construct included in the models. All values for Skewness range from -.85 to -.18, and all values for Kurtosis vary between -.61 and .80, which are below the threshold of ±1.50 for normality assumption (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). This information tells us that our dataset is almost normally distributed. We also examined the reliability and validity of the first-order measurement model. Table 1 shows the item loadings, the Cronbach's alpha, the composite reliability (CR) scores used to assess indicators, and internal consistency reliability (Elrehail et al., 2018).

Table 1
The Reliability and Validity of Items and Constructs

Construct	Dimensions	Cronbach's alpha	CR	AVE	Items	Loading
SL	Empowerment	.93	.91	.67	Emp1	.77
					Emp2	.88
					Emp3	.90
					Emp4	.86
					Emp5	.76
					Emp6	.69
					Emp7	.85
	Standing Back	.89	.86	.73	StaBac1	.87
					StaBac2	.79
					StaBac3	.89
	Accountability	.86	.81	.68	Acc1	.83
					Acc2	.83
					Acc3	.79
	Forgiveness	.80	.71	.58	For1	.74
					For2	.75
					For3	.78
	Couragement	.89	.88	.81	Cou1	.90
					Cou2	.90
	Humility	.93	.90	.72	Hum1	.85
					Hum2	.84
					Hum3	.81
					Hum4	.85
					Hum5	.89
TL	Charisma	.92	.89	.67	Cha2	.80
					Cha3	.75
					Cha4	.78
					Cha5	.88
					Cha6	.79
					Cha7	.88
	Ins. Motivation	.91	.88	.72	InsMot1	.78
					InsMot2	.87
					InsMot3	.88
					InsMot4	.86
	Int. Stimulation	.92	.91	.82	IntSti1	.90
					IntSti2	.91
					IntSti3	.90
	Ind. Consideration	.90	.89	.78	IndCon1	.88
					IndCon2	.82
					IndCon3	.94
AL	Rel. Transparency	.91	.87	.66	RelTra1	.77
					RelTra2	.81
					RelTra3	.83
					RelTra4	.84
					RelTra5	.82
	Ind. Moral Pers.	.88	.82	.65	IndMor1	.87
					IndMor2	.84
					IndMor3	.83
					IndMor4	.65
	Balanced Processing	.84	.78	.65	BalPro1	.69
					BalPro2	.82
					BalPro3	.88
	Self-Awareness	.91	.88	.72	SelAwa1	.84

					SelAwa2	.84
					SelAwa3	.87
					SelAwa4	.84
CB	(none)	.90	.81	.82	CreBeh1	.65
					CreBeh2	.70
					CreBeh3	.72
					CreBeh4	.71
					CreBeh5	.71
					CreBeh6	.72
					CreBeh7	.69
					CreBeh8	.79

Note. SL: Servant Leadership; TL: Transformational Leadership; AL: Authentic Leadership; CB: Creative Behavior; CR: Composite Reliability; AVE: Average Variance Extracted

As presented in Table 1, the loadings of all the items onto their latent constructs were between .65 and .94, except for Cha1 item in Charisma, which was deleted because its item loading was less than .60 on its latent variable (Field, 2018). Table 1 also indicates that the internal consistency and the composite reliability (CR) scores are obviously above the threshold value of .70 (Sarstedt et al., 2014). We also performed the validity of the measurement model using Average Variance Extracted (AVE) (Afsar et al., 2019). The AVE values were between .58 and .82, which are well above the cut-off value of .50 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Thus, all latent variables could explain more than half of their own items' variance and guarantee adequate convergent validity.

We also calculate the AVE square root to get the discriminant validity. As presented in Table 2, the AVE square root value for each latent variable was greater than its correlation with the other latent variables.

Table 2
AVE Square Root and Correlations

Variable	Cha	InsMot	IntSti	IndCon	Emp	StaBac	Acc	For	Cou	Hum	RelTra	IntMor	BalPro	SelAwa	CB
Cha	**.82**														
InsMot	.78	**.85**													
IntSti	.77	.75	**.90**												
IndCon	.76	.67	.70	**.88**											
Emp	.79	.71	.73	.73	**.82**										
StaBac	.77	.64	.66	.66	.74	**.85**									
Acc	.26	.26	.25	.20	.30	.26	**.82**								
For	.30	.27	.27	.29	.29	.32	-.14	**.76**							
Cou	.60	.53	.52	.48	.56	.53	.19	.16	**.90**						
Hum	.78	.68	.71	.68	.72	.71	.26	.30	.57	**.85**					
RelTra	.79	.72	.74	.71	.73	.68	.24	.31	.56	.75	**.81**				
IntMor	.78	.69	.69	.69	.69	.66	.27	.28	.54	.71	.80	**.80**			
BalPro	.74	.69	.74	.68	.69	.62	.25	.27	.50	.72	.76	.72	**.80**		
SelAwa	.78	.71	.72	.71	.71	.66	.29	.26	.49	.71	.76	.74	.77	**.85**	
CB	.27	.26	.20	.26	.23	.22	.11	.15	.18	.21	.22	.22	.24	.26	**.90**

Note. *All correlations are significant at p< .01

Cha: Charisma; InsMot: Ins. Motivation; IntSti: Int. Stimulation; IndCon: Ind. Consideration; Emp: Empowerment; StaBac: Standing Back; Acc: Accountability; For: Forgiveness; Cou: Couragement; Hum: Humility; RelTra: Rel. Transparency; IntMor: Int. Moral PersCouragement; Humed Processing; SelAwa: Self Awareness; CB: Creative Behavior

This demonstrates a good deal of discriminant validity. Overall, the tables and figures above provide evidence that the measurement model is reliable and valid. Therefore, it can be concluded that all latent first-order constructs are appropriate for further analysis (Elrehail et al., 2018).

Next, we examined both the reliability and validity of the second-order latent constructs (Wetzels et al., 2009). Cause the second-order latent variables in this study are reflective constructs, the researchers examined the loadings of each first-order on its second-order latent construct (Elrehail et al., 2018). As demonstrated in Table 3, the loadings of all first-order constructs vary between .33 and .96, and the values of Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability (CR) of second-order constructs are all above .70. Finally, the values of AVE range between .51 and .86, which are well above the threshold value of .50. Consequently, all second-order latent constructs in the models are reliable and valid. Now, we can move forward to test the proposed hypotheses.

Table 3
Hierarchical Measurement Model Assessment

2nd-order construct	Cronbach's alpha	CR	AVE	1st-order construct	Loading
TL	.92	.93	.80	Charisma	.95
				Ins. Motivation	.89
				Int. Stimulation	.88
				Ind. Consideration	.84
SL	.79	.77	.51	Empowerment	.88
				Standing Back	.91
				Accountability	.33
				Forgiveness	.37
				Couragement	.68
				Humility	.87
AL	.92	.95	.86	Rel. Transparency	.96
				Int. Moral Pers.	.93
				Balanced Processing	.91
				Self-Awareness	.89

Note. TL: Transformational Leadership, SL: Servant Leadership; AL: Authentic Leadership; CR: Composite Reliability; AVE: Average Variance Extracted

Findings

We designed two models (Figure 1 and Figure 2), including the main and the interaction effect, to support our hypotheses. Both models were established to examine and test all hypotheses using Process Macro. The estimates and interaction effects of both models are shown in Table 4 and 5. Table 4 shows that the relationship between SL and creative behavior was positive and significant ($\beta = .13$; $p < .01$), indicating that as the SL increases, creative behavior will increase too. Accordingly, the authors decided to support Hypothesis 1. Table 4 also shows that the interaction "SL × AL" has a significant effect ($\beta = .14$; $p < .01$), indicating that AL has a positive moderating effect on the role of SL. As a result, the authors decided to support Hypothesis 3. This shows that SL is more effective on creative behavior where AL is more visible on SL.

Table 4
SL Predicted CB Moderator AL

Variable name	β	*SE*	*t*	*p*
constant	3.86	.02	167.54	.00**
SL	0.13	.05	2.66	.00**
AL	0.14	.04	3.24	.00**
SL x AL	0.14	.02	5.57	.00**

Note. * p < .05 ** p < .01

Regarding the role of TL on creative behavior, the relationship between TL and creative behavior was also positive and significant ($\beta = .16$; $p < .01$), indicating that TL has a positive effect on creative behavior, thereby the researchers decided to support Hypothesis 2 (Table 5).

The result also shows that the interaction "TL × AL" has a significant effect (β = .133; p < .01), indicating that AL has a positive moderating effect on the role of TL (Table 5). This shows that TL is more effective on creative behavior when AL prevails on TL. Thus, the researchers decided to support Hypothesis 4.

Table 5
TL Predicted CB Moderator AL

Variable name	β	*SE*	*t*	*p*
constant	3.85	.02	164.49	.0**
TL	0.16	.04	3.40	.00**
AL	0.09	.05	1.77	.07
TL x AL	0.13	.02	6.04	.00**

*Note. * p < .05 ** p < .01*

Table 6 and Figure 3 show the relationship between SL and creative behavior under high, average, and low levels of AL. This result means that, with respect to the average and high level of AL and SL, SL coupled with AL exerts joint positive effects on creative behavior. In conclusion, the stronger the AL, the better the SL predicted creative behavior.

Table 6
Conditional Effects of SL at the Values of the Moderator

Values of AL	Effect	*SE*	*t*	*p*
mean-1sd	.01	.05	.23	.81
mean	.13	.05	2.66	.00**
mean+1sd	.25	.05	4.59	.00**

Note. * p < .05 ** p < .01

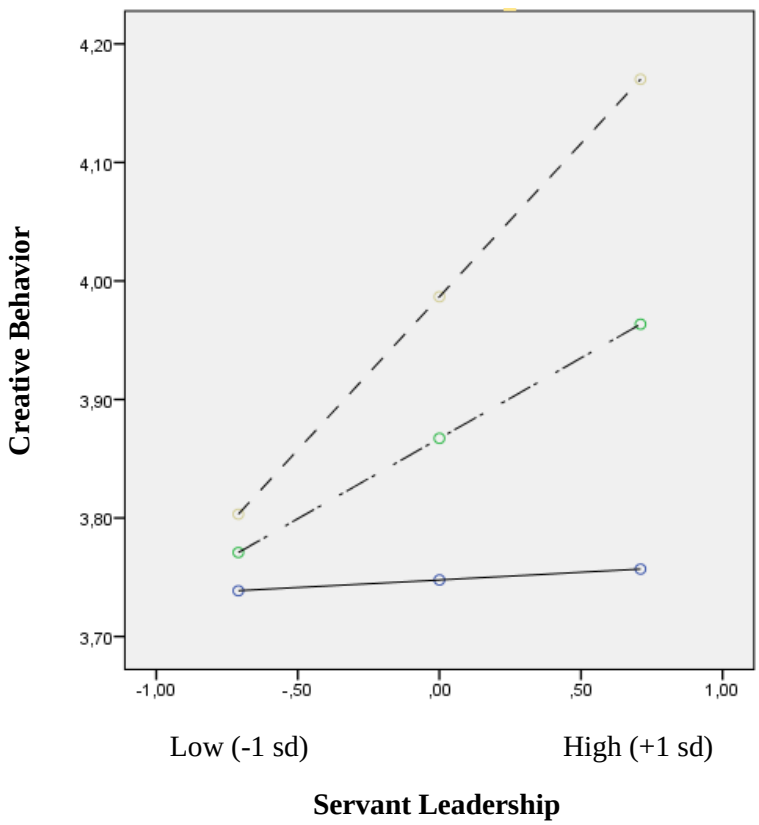

Figure 3. Interaction plot 1

Table 7 and Figure 4 indicates the relationship between TL and creative behavior under high, average, and low levels of AL. This result means that, with respect to the average and high level of AL and TL, TL coupled with AL exerts joint positive effects on creative behavior. This

indicated that TL was more predictive of creative behavior as AL became stronger. Therefore, we can conclude the claim that AL has a positive moderating effect on SL and TL.

Table 7
Conditional Effects of TL at Values of the Moderator

Values of AL	Effect	*SE*	*t*	*p*
mean-1sd	.05	.05	1.11	.26
mean	.16	.04	3.40	.00**
mean+1sd	.27	.05	5.21	.00**

Note. * p < .05 ** p < .01

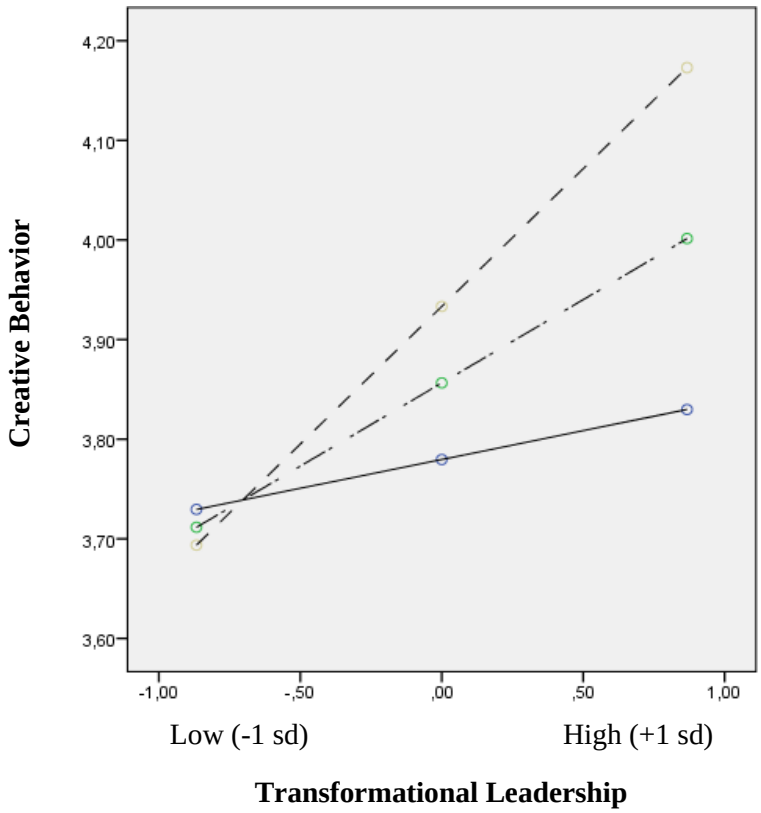

Figure 4. Interaction plot 2

In summary, our results indicate that Servant and Transformational Leadership have positive direct effects on creative behavior. Moreover, when AL interacts significantly with TL and SL with respect to the average and high level of AL, SL and TL effects on creative behavior increase. Finally, we conclude that all Hypotheses proposed were supported.

Discussion

First, our study aims to understand the direct impact of SL and TL on creative behavior. Second, since there are few studies in the literature on whether SL and TL need another leadership type to increase creative behavior, our study aims to examine the moderator role of AL in these relationships. Third, authenticity is not the main focus of SL and TL, but authenticity emerges as an important trait that every leader should embellish because this concept is closely related to ethics and morality.

SL emerges as an important type of leadership in many cultures and is very important for creativity (Neubert et al., 2008). Experimental studies show that SL has a positive effect on

work attitudes, organizational citizenship behaviors, performance, and creativity (Ehrhart, 2004; Harrington et al., 2017; Hunter et al., 2013; van Dierendonck, 2011; Walumbwa et al., 2010). When leaders are servants, employees become more prone to mutual support and concern for others, providing psychological trust (Liden et al., 2015). For this reason, employees take risks to use creative methods, which is a beneficial action to increase employee creativity (Yoshida et al., 2014). Our findings are similar to other studies in this respect and support that SL has a direct positive effect on creative behavior, as Shin and Zhou in their research (2003) stated. The fact that SL is always employee-oriented also meets the socio-emotional needs of the employees and provides meaningful support in producing creative ideas and behaviors.

The results also support the moderator effect of AL between the relationship of SL and creative behavior. The effect of SL on creative behavior increases significantly as the level of AL increases and decreases significantly as it decreases. The main effect of SL on creative behavior emerges when SL begins to exhibit AL; otherwise, this effect is limited. In this case, the strengthening role of AL should definitely be taken into account. Therefore, this study can also be presented as empirical evidence to demonstrate the moderator role of AL in the relationship between SL and creative behavior.

TL has been studied more frequently by researchers lately (Kearney & Gebert, 2009), and this concept has been proved to be effective in raising the performance and personal values of followers (Bass, 1985; Jung, 2001). The relationship between TL and creativity was also studied frequently but not as much as TL (Gumusluoglu & Ilsev; 2009; Shin & Zhou, 2003). TL affects employee creativity in two ways: cognitive and motivational (Kearney & Gebert, 2009). TL influences this type of creativity at a cognitive level by providing intellectual stimulation (Waldman & Bass, 1991), offering different perspectives, and trying to change the status quo (Bass, 1985). TL plays the role of creating vision at the motivational level, considering followers individually, and revealing passions (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). In our findings, the effect of TL on creative behavior was also examined. Not surprisingly, the results obtained from the analysis determine that TL has a positive effect on creative behavior, just as it does with SL (Alzawahreh, 2011; Vaccaro et al., 2012). These findings are also supported by Gong, Huang, and Farh (2009). TL's individual consideration to employees also meets their socio-emotional needs and provides meaningful support for producing creative ideas and behaviors.

As the effect of AL increases, the effect of TL on creative behavior increases, and as the effect of AL decreases, the effect of TL on creative behavior decreases. This is because the leader creates a safer, more friendly, and less risky environment for employees. In this case, it is understood that AL has a moderating role in the relationship, and the main effect of TL on creative behavior is even greater when TL starts to exhibit AL. Therefore, this study can also be presented as empirical evidence to demonstrate the moderator role of AL in the relationship between TL and creative behavior.

Conclusion

Our findings state that employee creative behavior in organizations increases even more, especially with servant and transformational leaders armed with authentic leadership traits. AL strengthens the relationship of the other two leaderships with creative behavior and creates a

more conducive environment for creativity. The followers also feel like an honest, self-confident and transparent leader, making it easier for them to take risks and generate and implement new ideas. In terms of theoretical and practical implications, people who think of as future leaders in the organization should be trained based on SL or TL, and these leaders should also be taught the concept of AL. AL within the organization is also important to increase the effect of SL or TL on creative behavior and create a positive psychological and ethical climate based on this (Schaubroeck et al., 2011).

Theoretical and Practical Implementations

First, while previous research narrows effective leadership styles to Transformational and Transactional Leadership, neglecting new approaches to leadership (Elrehail et al., 2018), this study theorized the impact of TL, SL, and even AL on creativity and creative behavior in the private sector. Second, this study conducted in a developing country shows significant similarities with studies conducted in the western context. This will force Turkey's leadership and cultural structure to be similar to western culture in creativity and creative behavior. In this context, it will further develop creativity and creative behavior through leadership. Third, previous research has taken into account the role that only a single leadership rules in organizations and hypothesized that creativity and creative behavior increase in this way. Investigation of the moderator role of another type of leadership, here AL, in this relationship sheds light on some of the circumstances in facilitating the role that leadership plays in promoting more creative behavior in organizations. Our findings highlight that AL offers more opportunities to get opinions, suggestions, ideas from employees when they moderate the creative processes of the other leaderships (Edmondson, 1999; Elrehail et al., 2018). Fourth, when AL plays a dominant role over SL or TL, leaders are more supportive of creative behaviors, and employees can achieve the best results in problem-solving and generating new ideas due to the psychological and ethical surroundings organized by AL (Laschinger et al., 2001; Lemoine et al., 2019). This study offers many recommendations for leaders in the Turkish private sector in terms of creative behavior. First, while SL and TL provide an environment that supports creative behavior in the private sector, these leaders show and focus on AL foster an organizational climate that increases creativity and creative behavior among the working staff.

Limitations and Future Research

This study has a couple of limitations as follows: In this cross-sectional study, the results might yield spurious causality, but Ajzen’s (1991) Theory of Planned Behavior suggests that causality progresses from perceptions to attitudes and from attitudes to behaviors, so the causal direction proposed is valid for both models. It is recommended that researchers conduct longitudinal studies in future studies. This study was performed in private companies located in Western Turkey, which narrows our ability to generalize the findings. Future studies should investigate other public-state companies in other regions as well. Furthermore, the study was conducted in a developing country like Turkey. Future studies should examine these models in developed countries. Finally, the study focused on two leadership styles separately, but other leadership styles are also available. Thus, future studies should investigate the relationship between other leadership styles and creative behavior. Moreover, researchers may take other leaderships as moderators. Adding other moderating leadership such as paternalistic and delegative leadership will be quite beneficial.

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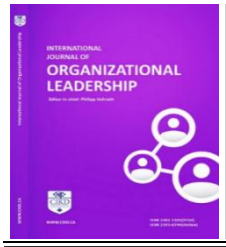

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Idealized Influence and Inspirational Motivation in a Microfinance Context: Review of Literature

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ABSTRACT

Besides the enormous attention paid to transformational leadership construct for the last four decades, much of the literature does not adequately delve deeper into the respective dimensions of the construct, thus limiting the clarity of how the dimensions impact organizations. This paper reviews the extant conceptual, theoretical, and empirical literature on the idealized influence and inspirational motivation dimensions of transformational leadership style focusing on microfinance context. This paper presents a comprehensive and integrative theoretical framework for knowledge advancement in the field of leadership. The methodology used for the review integrates the desktop and critical analysis of 56 journal articles in these dimensions. The key databases used to extract the relevant literature were JSTOR, Emerald, Google Scholar, DOAJ, and Wiley Interscience, with 69.09% being articles published in 2017 – 2021. Aspects used to qualify articles for review consideration were transformational leadership, idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and leadership in microfinance or any combination. The emerging gaps in the theorization and conceptualization of idealized influence and inspirational motivation were identified, presenting a case for further research on the transformational leadership construct. The review establishes that the four "Is" of transformational leadership (Idealized influence, Inspirational motivation, Intellectual stimulation, and Individualized consideration) are ambiguously interrelated, presenting a challenge of incoherence in the conceptual models used by researchers to conduct empirical research. The study also seeks to fill the contextual gap on the scanty research done to date on the outcomes of idealized influence and inspirational motivation in microfinance context such as staff retention, organizational commitment, self-efficacy, and organizational performance. A comprehensive conceptual framework for guiding further research on the constructs is formulated, including supportive propositions that can be empirically tested.

Progressive growth of organizations in today's volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous (VUCA) world is challenged by disruptions such as the Covid-19 pandemic necessitating a leadership style that is adaptive and resilient to change (Hughes, Beatty, & Dinwoodle, 2014). Afshari (2021), as well as Lussier and Achua (2010) perceive transformational leadership as the most effective leadership style for realizing desired change in organizations, as opposed to transactional leadership, which advocates for the status quo (Bass & Riggio, 2006) and laissez-faire (non-leadership). However, Judge and Piccolo (2004) and Odumeru and Ifeanyi (2013) argue that the best leaders use transformational and transactional leadership styles as different situations dictate.

Transformational leadership style has gained profound attention by researchers for over four decades since its first conceptualization by James Burns in 1978 in the political context and further contribution by Bernard Bass in 1985 in the organizational context (Bass & Riggio, 2006). To date, numerous studies have been conducted focusing on both conceptual and theoretical reviews and empirical studies. However, there still exists contentious aspects that need further research for advancement of knowledge in the field of leadership, such as the ambiguous interrelatedness of the "four I's" of transformational leadership, the clarity of how the "four I's" achieve their defined roles, and more comprehensive description of their deployment in expanded organizational contexts.

The discourse on the conceptualization of the transformational leadership (TL) style construct has led to the modification of the initial dimensions dubbed "four I's" namely idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration, to include other dimensions such as risk acceptance among others (Lashari & Rana, 2018). Further, the idealized influence has been perceived from two sub-dimensions, namely idealized influence attributed (II_a), which is linked with charisma and idealized influence behaviour (II_b), which is linked with role-modeling (Brown, Chen, & O'Donnell, 2017). The TL style dimensions are theoretically designed to achieve distinctive roles in the resultant organizational outcomes such as staff retention, organizational commitment, self-efficacy, innovation and creativity, performance, *inter alia*, but Odumeru and Ifeanyi (2013) posit that the theory does not explicitly outline how the dimensions play those roles. Furthermore, other authors such as Eva et al. (2019) criticize transformational leadership for the ulterior motive of empowering followers for the sole purpose of using the followers to achieve organizational goals. This implies that the leaders are seen to use followers as a means to an end than followers' needs purely, thus contravening the intended morality of transformational leadership. Consequently, the transformational leadership style is considered to be a double-sided construct, with both bright and dark sides. However, the conceptualization does not reveal the dark sides or instances in which the construct results in negative phenomena such as employees' stress and burnout (Parveen & Adeinat, 2019). This paper is delimited to idealized influence and inspirational motivation dimensions of transformational leadership style for in-depth, comprehensive coverage.

Statement of the Problem

The extant literature review presents a plethora of gaps that need to be addressed to enhance understanding of the transformational leadership construct and its dimensions in particular.

Conceptually, idealized influence has been perceived as charismatic by some scholars such as Judge and Bono (2000), while others perceive the two as distinct such as Bass and Riggio (2006) who argue that a leader can be transformational without being charismatic. Therefore, there is no clarity on the relationship between the idealized influence component of transformational leadership and charismatic leadership. Additionally, while some researchers have maintained the initial consideration of idealized influence as a unidimensional construct, others consider it as bi-dimensional comprising attributed and behavior components (Brown, Chen, & O'Donnell, 2017). This inhibits the derivation of conclusive results from research work, thus arousing the need for a unified and holistic conceptual model to guide future empirical research.

Secondly, the transformational leadership theory is accused of not specifying how idealized influence and inspirational motivation achieve the outcomes they are purported to achieve such as role modeling and greater performance, respectively (Odumeru & Ifeanyi, 2013). The attribution theory informs that followers seek clues to understand the intentions of leaders' behaviors (Schuh, Zhang, & Tian, 2013), which are not enshrined in the transformational leadership theory. This theoretical gap limits understanding of how practitioners and scholars optimize the constructs' deployment in organizations.

Contextual gaps are identified in the deployment of idealized influence and inspirational motivation. Much of the extant research have focused on certain contexts such as mainstream banking (Mekpor & Dartey-Baah, 2020), educational sector (Mwesigwa, Tusiime, & Ssekiziyivu, 2020), and health sector (Al-Yami, Galdas, & Watson, 2018) *inter alia*. Very little attention has been paid to the microfinance context, which is globally, regionally, and locally acknowledged as very significant economically for reaching out to the low-income population (Rasel & Win, 2020).

This study is guided by four objectives: To review extant conceptual literature on idealized influence and inspirational motivation in the microfinance context, review extant theoretical literature on the constructs, review the extant empirical literature on the constructs, and propose a holistic and integrative conceptual framework for future research on the constructs in the context of microfinance. The paper is significant to organizational leaders in the deployment of idealized influence and inspirational motivation in their organizations for the desired outcomes and scholars and researchers advancing research in leadership.

The Literature Review Methodology

A systematic desktop review of the relevant journal articles was conducted by searching for the key constructs such as transformational leadership, idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and leadership in microfinance. Only journals that are relevant to these search terms were included. Similar to the current study, this approach was successfully used by Eva et al. (2019) in their literature review. The commonly searched journals were JSTOR, Emerald, Google Scholar, DOAJ, and Wiley Interscience with the aid of the publish or perish software among others. The sufficiency recommendation by Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2007) was adhered to so that reading was done up to the point where further reading, including the references from initial search results, pointed to the already read references.

Critical review was used to scrutinize and elicit any gaps based on the methodology, conceptualization, theories, and contexts used while appraising the strengths of the studies considered. The focus was paid on recent publications, especially the previous five years and

the classical sources in transformational leadership, particularly idealized influence and inspirational motivation (Figure 1).

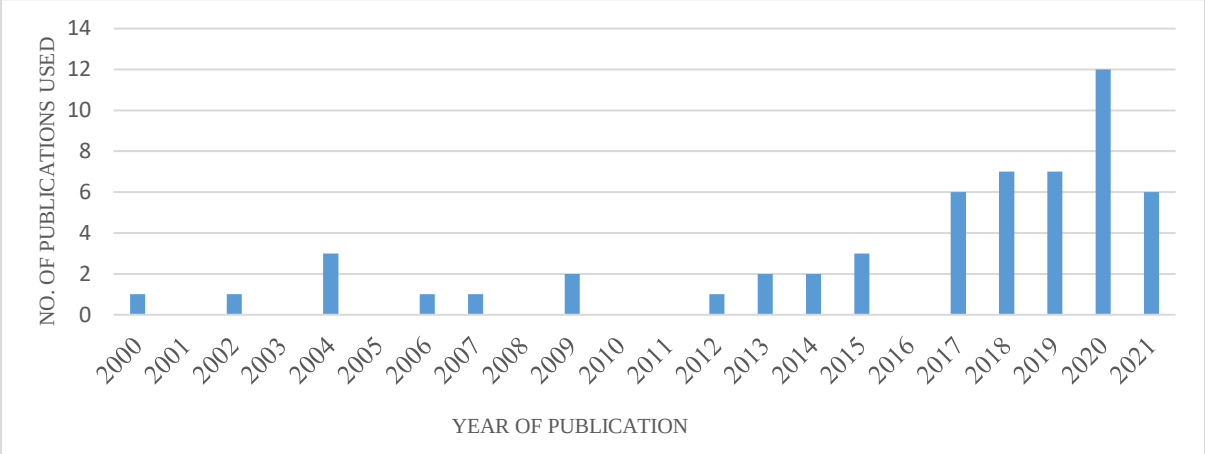

Figure 1. Idealized influence and inspirational motivation publications

The relevant articles to this study were analysed as illustrated in Table 1, 2, and 3 to guide the formulation of a holistic and integrative conceptual framework for future empirical research. The articles are categorized based on the aspects discussed by its authors, emerging indicators for the key constructs, results, and discussions arising from the articles.

Table 1

Dimension and its Emerging Indicators

Aspects	Emerging indicators	Authors	Discussion
Idealized influence: Attributed (II_a) and behaviour (II_b)	Charisma	Alzoraiki et al. (2018); Okoli et al. (2021); Brown et al. (2017); Afshari (2021); Judge & Bono (2000)	• Described in terms of socialized, behavioural, and ethical charisma
	Emotional attachment	Bass and Riggio (2006); Afshari and Gibson (2015)	• Identified as identity/affection with the organization
	Change	Okoli et al. (2021), Mgqibi & Sines (2020); Mwesigwa et al. (2020)	• Brings growth than status quo • Change in values, belief, and attitudes
	Risk-taking	Okoli et al. (2021); Lashari & Rana (2018)	• Risk acceptance added as a dimension with minimal studies on it
	Behavioural integrity	Kitur et al. (2020)	• Results to trust and respect
	Role modelling	Al-Yami et al. (2018); Brown et al. (2017); Kitur et al. (2020); Kariuki (2020)	• Leaders depicted as admirable and role models
	Perceived behaviour	Brown et al. (2017); Mgqibi & Sines (2020); Schuh et al. (2013)	• Leader perception from followers • Behaviour that facilitates creativity • Attribution theory explains behaviour
Inspirational Motivation	Clear vision articulation	Okoli et al. (2021), Olesia et al. (2015)	• Communicating the envisioned better future • Visioning
	Enthusiasm	Okoli et al. (2021); Edirisooriya (2020);	• Followers are inspired and energized by the leader's vision
	Optimism	Le and Le (2021); Hasija et al. (2019)	• Conceptualized as high expectations, positive perception of challenges
	Challenging tasks	Alzoraiki et al. (2018); Okoli et al. (2021)	• Leaders give staff challenging tasks and motivate them to achieve the tasks
	Esprit de corps	Edirisooriya (2020); Okoli et al. (2021); Magasi (2021)	• Change from self to collective interests
Transformational leadership	Combined dimensions	Ding & Lin (2020); Odumeru & Ifeanyi (2013); Thuan (2020)	• Considers individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation • Ambiguous conceptualization of the Is • Single dimension investigation (IS)
	Leadership styles	Ene (2020); Mugizi et al. (2019)	• Focus more on transactional leadership for staff retention
	Ethical aspect of leadership	Eva et al. (2019)	• Servant leadership is seen as more ethical
	Outcomes	Felfe et al. (2004); Islam et al. (2018); Lyria et al. (2017); Muthimi & Kilika (2018); Mwita et al. (2018); Ogola et al. (2017); Padilla et al. (2007); Parveen & Adeinat (2019)	• Organizational commitment; Talent retention; Employee retention; Organizational performance; employee performance; negative outcomes, e.g., burnout and stress
	Full Range of Leadership (FRL)	Judge & Piccolo (2004); Mekpor & Dartey-Baah (2020)	• Recommends use of both transformational and transactional • Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)
	Theory development	Kimani & Kilika (2019)	• Focus on organizational outcomes such as CSR

Table 2

Dimension and its Emerging Phenomena when Deployed in Organizations

Aspects	Emerging phenomena	Authors	Discussion
Idealized Influence (II): Attributed (II_a) and behaviour (II_b)	Organizational performance	Kitur et al. (2020); Mgqibi & Sines (2020); Tuffour et al. (2015)	• Achieved through increased creativity
	Organizational commitment	Afshari (2021); Afshari & Gibson (2015); Ahmed & Nawaz (2015); Avolio et al. (2004); Wulani et al. (2019)	Achieved through • Emotional connection • Moral connection to organization's values
	Self-efficacy	Hoxha & Hyseni-Duraku (2017);	• Leaders raise followers' self-efficacy; • Followers preconceive success
	Staff retention	Judeh & Abou-Moghli (2019); Nyasunda & Atambo (2020); Ashta & Fall (2012)	• Staff retention associated with: Reward management, • Transformational leadership
Inspirational Motivation (IM)	Organizational performance	Gyansah et al. (2020); Top et al. (2020); Le and Le (2021); Angus-Leppan et al. (2009)	Achieved through • Organizational values internalization. • Performance conceptualized in terms of financial performance, CSR, employee and staff satisfaction, etc.
	Organizational commitment	Okoli et al. (2021)	• Achieved through a change of attitude to collective interests
	Self-efficacy	Top et al. (2020);	• Social/verbal persuasion • Through high-performance expectation
	Staff retention	Edirisooriya, 2020; Bass & Riggio (2006); Judeh & Abou-Moghli (2019); Ashta & Fall (2012)	Achieved through • Excitement, • Intention to stay

Table 3

The Microfinance Context

Key Aspects	Authors	Discussion
Leadership; Management; Governance	Ahmed (2009); Rasel & Win (2020)	• Authors posit that the sustainability of MFIs is influenced by leadership • Management and governance conceptualized here as part of leadership
Transformational leadership	Gathondu et al. (2018); Kariuki & Wachira (2017); Muriuki & Ombaba (2018)	• MFI outcomes: Staff satisfaction, organizational performance, staff retention
Employee participation	Kiptoo et al. (2021)	• Employee motivation
Economic development	Kumar & Divya (2021)	• Poverty alleviation
Profitability	Meyer & Nagarajan (2006)	• Aspects of sustainability of MFIs
Financial resilience	Ullah & Khan (2017)	• Income smoothing for the poor

Extant Conceptual Literature Review

The extant conceptual literature on idealized influence and inspirational motivation dimensions of transformational leadership was investigated to establish the state of understanding of the constructs and the emerging phenomena arising from the deployment of the constructs in organizations.

Transformational Leadership Style

Transformational leadership has been defined as a leadership style in which a leader identifies required change, formulates a way to enact that change, and implements the change (Okoli et

al., 2021). The change is often perceived in terms of increased performance beyond the followers' initial expectations (Mwesigwa et al., 2020) as well as mutually transforming both the leader and follower morally (Bass & Riggio, 2006). This is important in ensuring continuous improvement and growth in organizations because the increased modern competitiveness can easily phase out organizations out of business. Although this leadership style was anchored in a political context when James Burns formulated it in 1978, Bernard Bass extended it to organizational context in 1985 (Lussier & Achua, 2010).

For over four decades, researchers have considered transformational leadership as the most effective leadership style for enacting positive change in organizations. Four key dimensions of this leadership style ("four I's") have been discretely and jointly researched on, namely idealized influence (II), inspirational motivation (IM), intellectual stimulation (IS), and individual consideration (IC). While extant literature presents rich knowledge on the "four I's", there still exists ambiguity on how the dimensions achieve the individual roles they claim to achieve. For instance, Odumeru and Ifeanyi (2013) assert that the dimensions are overloaded with a description of what they should do but not how they do so. Therefore, this study is delimited to two dimensions for in-depth and holistic coverage: idealized influence and inspirational motivation.

Idealized Influence (II)

According to Okoli et al. (2021), idealized influence is the charismatic aspect of transformational leadership, which means inspiring a vision for the future while embracing behaviour that makes them respectable. A leader can articulate a compelling vision and inculcate pride, trust, and esteem in followers (Le & Le, 2021). Bass and Riggio (2006) aver that followers develop an emotional attachment and strong identity with the leaders when such leaders exhibit behavioural integrity by ensuring that their deeds and espoused values rhyme. Additionally, leaders' strong in idealized influence are more consistent in ethical and moral behaviours than being spontaneous (Okoli et al., 2021). These attributes make such leaders worthy role models to the followers who admire and trust them (Kitur, Choge, & Tanui, 2020). It follows that the influence by such leaders is a result of both their behaviour and the perceived behaviour, i.e., their followers' perception of their behaviours.

Idealized influence leaders are depicted as risk-takers and enthusiasts (Okoli et al., 2021). This explains their ability to envision, plan, and implement change in organizations because they are not afraid of change. Their enthusiasm also inspires their followers to be hopeful of a better future, thus embracing change instead of the status quo. The risk-taking trait empowers the leaders to navigate turbulent times and develop the organization's resilience needed for the organization's survival.

Researchers have recently reconceptualised idealized influence into two sub-dimensions, namely idealized influence attributed (II_a) and idealized influence behaviour (II_b) (Brown et al., 2017). The two sub-dimensions play distinct roles. Idealized influence attributed (II_a) explains the actual charisma, where the leader is seen as possessing supernatural traits, while idealized influence behaviour (II_b) explains the role-modeling ability of the leader. According to Afshari (2021), idealized influence attributes refer to the perception of a leader by the followers, while idealized influence behaviour refers to what the leader essentially does. This granular consideration suggests that these two sub-dimensions are succinct in the role each plays.

Recently, empirical studies have been conducted to investigate the relationship between idealized influence and organizational outcomes. For instance, Mgqibi and Sines (2020) sought to establish the relationship between idealized influence and the success of change initiatives in the US context. The authors adopted a correlational design and used simple linear regression for data analysis, revealing a direct and positive relationship between the two variables. Locally, Kitur, Choge, and Tanui (2020) studied the relationship between idealized influence and secondary school students' performance. The descriptive study revealed a positive and significant relationship between idealized influence and performance.

Inspirational Motivation (IM)

Inspirational motivation is the ability of a leader to articulate a compelling vision of a better future for an organization so that the followers shift from self-interests to organization's collective interests (Edirisooriya, 2020). This arouses excitement by followers to willingly detest the status quo and pursue the envisioned better future enthusiastically. Furthermore, the leader creates group spirit in the followers to focus on collective interests, as alluded to by Okoli et al. (2021). However, this contradicts the premise of the individualized consideration dimension of a transformational leader, which requires the leader to focus on individual's interests and needs (Magasi, 2021). Therefore, it can be deduced that the leader strives to satisfy the needs of the followers to enable the followers to achieve more collective gains for the organization. However, Eva et al. (2019) criticize this as unethical where the leader uses followers as means to an intended end. From this perspective, the leader would be faulted for not being altruistic but ego-centric.

In the modern volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous (VUCA) organizational environments, inspirational motivation is helpful in empowering followers to cope with the emerging challenges and work pressures by perceiving challenges as opportunities asserted by Hasija, Hyde, and Kushwaha (2019). Consequently, the followers become more resilient and tenacious in turbulent times, resulting in positive organizational outcomes such as talented staff retention, increased self-efficacy, normative organizational commitment, increased performance, etc.

Empirically, inspirational motivation has been established to impact organizations positively. The study by Gyansah, Ogola, and Guantai (2020) found a significantly positive correlation between inspirational motivation and students' academic achievement in public schools in Kumasi Metropolitan, Ghana. A correlational study by Hasija et al. (2019) sought to establish the effect of inspirational motivation on employee engagement, yielding a positively strong correlation. Top, Abdullah, and Faraj (2020) found the inspirational motivation to have the strongest correlation with employees' performance compared with the other dimensions of transformational leadership. This presents the potentially cosmic impact that inspirational motivation can have when deployed in the microfinance context, among other contexts.

Emerging Conceptual Gaps

A number of conceptual gaps are drawn from how idealized influence and inspirational motivation dimensions are currently conceptualized. Firstly, the description of idealized influence as charismatic leadership undermines the moral and ethical standards expected, considering that charismatic leadership can be ethical or unethical, moral or immoral (Bass &

Riggio, 2006), while transformational leadership at large is expected to be purely moral and ethical. Deducing from Northouse (2016), the intent of transformational leadership, through idealized influence and inspirational motivation, is to raise the morality and motivation of both the leader and follower. This distinguishes transformational leaders from pseudo-transformational counterparts who transform their followers for self-aggrandizing interests.

Secondly, there is an overlap between the functions of idealized influence behaviour (II_b) aspect of idealized influence and the individualized consideration dimension in relation to mentorship and role-modeling. This is in line with the observation by Odumeru and Ifeanyi (2013) that there is an ambiguous interrelation among the transformational leadership dimensions, exhibiting a challenge to researchers conducting empirical research on how to conceptualize the model uniformly. Thus, there is a need for more clarity on the distinct roles of each dimension separate from other dimensions for more conclusive findings from research. Thirdly, while inspirational motivation endeavours to shift focus from the followers' interests to the collective interests of the organization (Edirisooriya, 2020), individualized consideration pays attention to the individual followers' interests (Magasi, 2021). This conceptualization depicts a phenomenon where these two dimensions of transformational leadership pull in opposing directions. However, the fulfilment of followers' individual needs may sequentially motivate them to achieve collective interests. It is desirable that the dimensions are theorized in a manner that they coherently reinforce each other for the greater impact of transformational leadership when deployed in organizations.

Organizational outcomes

Talented Staff Retention

Staff retention is the strategy used by organizations to encourage their employees to remain working in those organizations for the longest period of time possible (Mwita, Mwakasangula, & Tefurukwa, 2018). In this regard, inspirational motivation raises employees' excitement to be happy to continue working with the organization and even perform better (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Edirisooriya, 2020). Although some researchers such as Nyasunda and Atambo (2020) have confirmed the direct relationship between reward management and staff retention in microfinance, Judeh and Abou-Moghli (2019) found transformational leadership to impact staff retention significantly. Through the mediation of organizational commitment in the next section, both the idealized influence and inspirational motivation glue employees to the organization they work for. Islam, Tariq, and Usman (2018) similarly observed that employee retention is raised by the employees' organizational commitment, which is increased by transformational leadership.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is the bond that makes followers identify and be involved with an organization (Wulani, Supriharyanti, & Agustian, 2019). Extant literature presents three organizational commitment dimensions: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment (Felfe, Tartler, & Liepmann, 2004). Affective commitment is the emotional attachment of an individual to the organization. Normative commitment is the feeling of moral obligation to the norms and values of the organization, while continuance commitment

is the attachment of an employee to an organization due to the accruing benefits that the employee would not want to lose (Olesia, Namusonge, & Iravo, 2015).

Similar to Afshari's (2021) opinion, idealized influence attributes make the followers positively affect the organization, thus abiding more to its values and objectives. When the followers are emotionally connected to the organization, they are more likely to work out of their own volition than coercion, forming affective commitment. Additionally, the followers possess normative commitment when they feel morally obliged to stick to the organization (Ahmed & Nawaz, 2015). Although researchers often associate continuance commitment with monetary benefits like salary and retirement benefits (Olesia, Namusonge, & Iravo, 2015), other benefits such as social ties with long-term workmates could be considered important.

Inspirational motivation enables a leader to inspire and motivate followers to rise beyond self-aggrandizing interests to collective organizational interests by raising group spirit (Okoli et al., 2021). Through internalization, followers adopt the values and regulations of the organization and enact them with self-determination (Afshari, 2021), hence becoming more committed to the organization's success.

Self-efficacy

Idealized influence has been associated with the mechanism upon which followers admire being like their leaders through vicarious learning (Bandura, 1997). Bandura (ibid) defines self-efficacy as the belief in one's capability of performing given tasks. Jallow (2014) notes that highly self-efficacious followers develop the ability to optimistically perceiving challenges as opportunities than problems. This is important in empowering the followers to be more resilient even in organization's turbulent times hence its survival. Empirically, Hoxha and Hyseni-Duraku (2017) found a strong positive correlation between idealized influence and self-efficacy, indicating that leaders with strong idealized influence raise the self-efficacy of their followers.

Inspirational motivation is used by leaders through social persuasion to raise followers' belief that they can perform better (Bandura, 1997). When leaders inspire followers to envision a better future and performance, it becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy and ends up achieving their expected performance. Top, Abdullah, and Faraj (2020) ascertain that inspirational motivation strongly correlates with high performance, partially attributed to this high-performance expectation by the highly efficacious followers.

Organizational Performance

Building upon the current state of understanding of transformational leadership and its dimensions in the literature, the organizational performance presents itself as an ultimate outcome rather than an immediate outcome, resulting from the preceding immediate outcomes above: Talented staff retention, organizational commitment, and self-efficacy. Mgqibi and Sines (2020) allude to the fact that leaders who possess idealized influence behaviour empower their followers to be more creative and devise different ways of achieving organizational goals, thus boosting the organization's performance. By creating excitement and inspiration in followers, inspirational motivation causes the followers to perform beyond their initial expectations (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Le and Le (2021) postulate that leaders with great

inspirational motivation share high expectations with their followers in simplified ways, enabling them to strive for greater performance.

The current conceptualization of organizational performance extends beyond financial and operational performance to encompass aspects like corporate social responsibility (CSR) (Angus-Leppan, Metcalf, & Benn, 2009; Tuffour, Barnor, & Akuffo, 2015). The business case presented by CSR to organizations calls for a workforce whose motivation spans beyond self-centered benefits to others-centered benefits as targeted by inspirational motivation.

Microfinance Construct

The microfinance construct, developed by Yunus Muhammad in 1970s, is globally acknowledged as an effective approach to poverty alleviation by promoting financial services access to the low-income earners ordinarily unable to access the mainstream bank financial services (Meyer & Nagarajan, 2006; Ullah & Khan, 2017). Kumar and Divya (2021) describe microfinance as the "bank for the poor" (p. 49) and thus a solution to the underprivileged poor and unemployed members of society. However, a contrary view of microfinance departing from the initial goal of reaching out to the poor has been raised by researchers such as Meyer and Nagarajan (2006) and Ahmed (2009), who argue that microfinance institutions also focus on their profitability. Integrating these two views, the success of microfinance can be assessed through two criteria, namely the outreach to the poor and the profitability and sustainability of the institution.

As alluded by Ahmed (2009), leadership deployed in microfinance institutions influences how such institutions are operated. Ashta and Fall (2012) add that good governance is pivotal in the sustainability of the institutions. Empirical studies have confirmed a positive correlation between transformational leadership and desired organizational outcomes in the microfinance sector (Gathondu, Nyambegera, & Kirubi, 2018; Kariuki & Wachira, 2017; Tuffour, Barnor, & Akuffo, 2015). Employee motivation is one of the variables identified by Kiptoo, Naibei, and Cheruiyot (2021) as influential in increasing microfinance performance, thus the need to deploy inspirational motivation and idealized influence in microfinance to achieve and sustain such motivation.

Review of Relevant Theories

Transformational Leadership Theory

Transformational leadership theory, formulated by Burns in 1978 in the political context for leaders to influence their followers and extended to organizational context by Bass in 1985, postulates that a leader can motivate followers to change their belief system, values, and attitudes in order to perform better than they thought possible (Mwesigwa et al. 2020). Furthermore, the charisma possessed by idealized influence leaders builds trust between themselves and their followers (Le & Le, 2021), creating an enabling environment through which the followers willingly carry out their assigned responsibilities without coercion.

Among other researchers, Mugizi et al. (2019) utilized this theory in investigating the relationship between leadership style and teachers' retention, observing that transformational leaders can achieve positive outcomes such as employee retention. In addition, this study used the theory to explain how idealized influence and inspirational motivation contribute to desired

organizational outcomes such as performance, talented staff retention, organizational commitment, and self-efficacy among other emerging phenomena.

Leader-Member Exchange Theory

The leader-member exchange (LMX) theory explains the kind of relationship that forms with time between the leader and the individual subordinates (Yukl, 2010). Its proponents include Graen and Cashman in 1975, who posited that interaction between leaders and followers depends on compatibility between the two parties; and Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1975), who suggested that personality influences this relationship (Yukl, 2010). The relationship breeds two groups: in-group where the parties have high-quality relationships, and out-group where the parties have low-quality relationships (Northouse, 2016; Kariuki, 2020). The idealized influence attributed aspect can be used to deduce that followers will follow leaders that they perceive as trustworthy more than those they perceive untrustworthy.

A number of studies have used this theory. For example, Judeh and Abou-Moghli (2019) used it to explain how transformational leaders interact with their followers to reciprocate the high-quality relationship. LMX is used in this current review to establish the kind of relationships that form between a leader and his followers to effectively influence them to change their values and attitudes from self-centeredness to organization-centeredness as asserted by the inspirational motivation. LMX is seen as one of the antecedents for future behaviours by both the leader and followers.

Attribution Theory

Attribution theory posits that individuals desire to know why others behave as they do, i.e., the cause and motive of behaviour (Schuh, Zhang, & Tian, 2013). It seeks to describe leaders' perceptual and cognitive processes behind their behaviours (Goethals, Sorenson, & Burns, 2004). The key proponents of the theory are Heider (1958), Kelly (1967), Weiner (1985), Calder (1977), and Green and Mitchell (1979). Yukl (2010) argues that followers judge the leaders' intentions, not only their actions, and this determines their interaction with these leaders.

The theory was used by Schuh, Zhang, and Tian (2013) to investigate the relationship between transformational leadership style and the authoritarian versus moral behaviours of the leaders, observing that followers who evaluate leaders' behaviour as selfish react differently than those who evaluate the behaviour as meant for collective benefits of the organization. In this study, the theory is utilized to address the puzzle in which followers consider idealized influence from two opposing perspectives: Moral versus immoral motive, ethical versus unethical, and authentic versus unauthentic intentions. This helps discern the truly transformational leaders from the narcissistic leaders who use charisma to rise to the top leadership for selfish gains (Padilla, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2007).

Emerging Theoretical Gaps

Transformational leadership theory has been faulted for being biased in accounting for only the positive outcomes and not the negative outcomes it brings into organizations (Odumeru & Ifeanyi, 2013). Parveen and Adeinat (2019) cite cases where transformational leaders cause stress and burnout to followers when they set very high-performance expectations and unprecedented organizational changes through inspirational motivation that followers struggle to cope with, but the theory is silent on such possible effects. Although the attribution theory

explains that leaders can have varying motives in inspiring followers for change, it does not suggest how followers should courageously respond to these leaders without jeopardizing their in-group relationships. Finally, the dimensions of transformational leadership have been defined in ambiguous ways without clarifying how each dimension succinctly plays its role (Odumeru & Ifeanyi, 2013).

The Call for a New Theoretical Model

Although qualitative research is often inductive and proceeds from research to theory, quantitative research is deductive and proceeds from theory to research (Sekaran, 2003). This is echoed by Kimani and Kilika (2019) in their observation that new theories should be developed to guide new frontiers of knowledge, especially in transformational leadership, where ambiguity in the construct's conceptualization has been highlighted in extant literature. In its current form of conceptualization, idealized influence is accused of being double-edged so that it can be used by leaders constructively or destructively since charisma can be either ethical or unethical depending on the leader's motives. However, transformational leadership was initially designed to purely constitute ethical and moral aspects (Avolio & Bass, 2002), and consequentially its dimensions should entirely promote these aspects. Thus, there is a need to define charisma and idealized influence as distinct since charisma can have both positive and negative effects on the followers (Lussier & Achua, 2010). In support of this proposition, Bass and Riggio (2006) opine that a leader can be transformational without being charismatic with a classic example of Bill Gates.

Although empirical studies have been conducted based on different conceptual models, extant literature presents these models as fragmented, thus lacking consistency that can unify them into a more comprehensive model (Al-Yami, Galdas, & Watson, 2018; Islam, Tariq, & Usman, 2018; Mwesigwa et al., 2020). Furthermore, such fragmentation makes it difficult to draw conclusive findings from research to advance knowledge in the leadership field, besides decades of research in this field. Therefore, it is logical to integrate the various models into a more elaborate model that includes transformational leadership dimensions, the immediate and ultimate outcomes, and the moderating context in which the dimensions are deployed.

The Proposed Conceptual Framework

From the foregoing discourse, the conceptual framework proposed in Figure 2 encompasses idealized influence and inspirational motivation dimensions of transformational leadership style and the resulting intermediate and ultimate outcomes when the dimensions are deployed in organizations in a microfinance context.

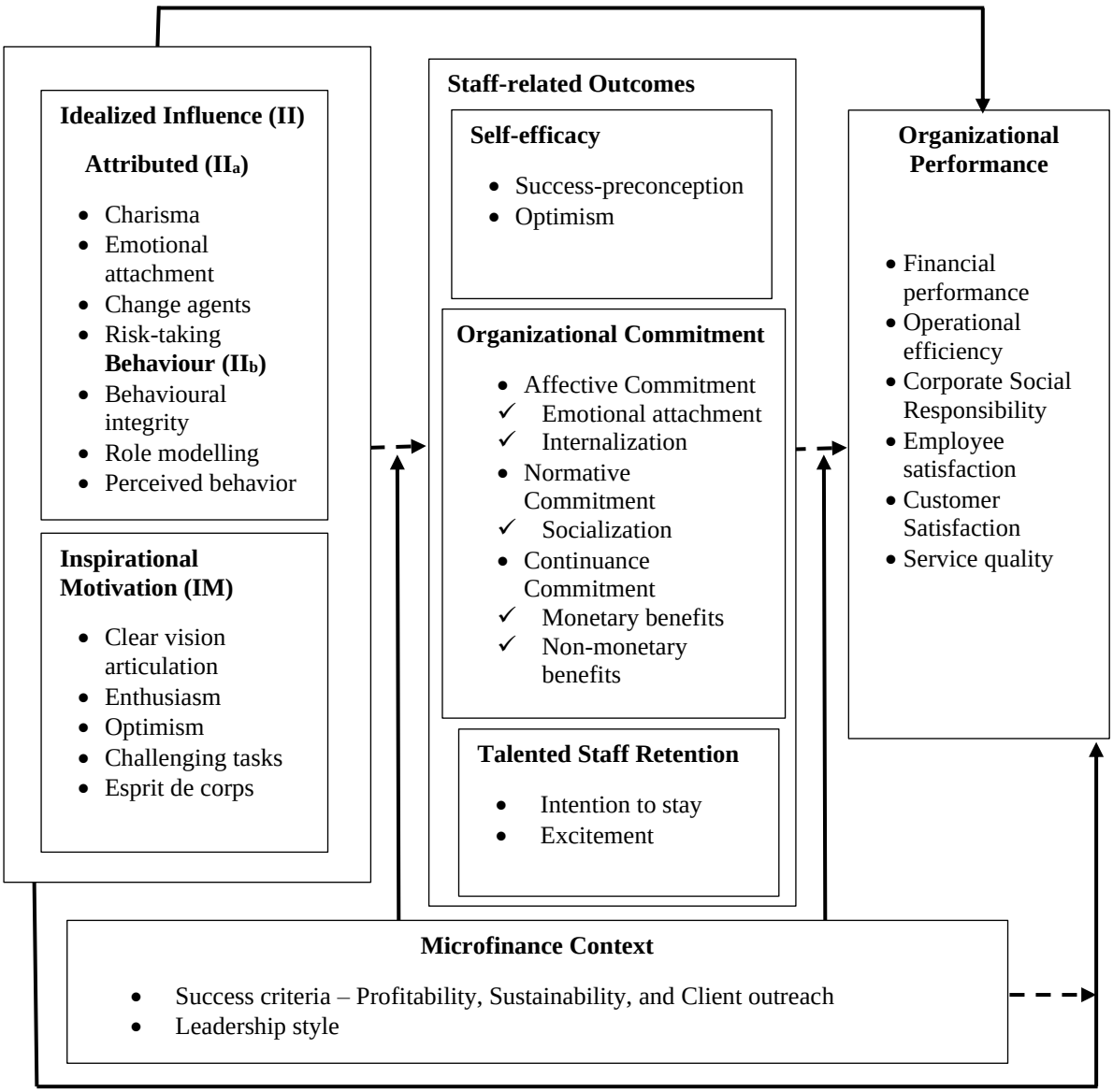

Figure 2. Conceptual framework

The Derived Propositions

The following propositions are derived from the conceptual framework in Figure 2 and can be empirically tested to enrich knowledge by practitioners and scholars in leadership.

Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, and Organizational Performance

When deployed in an organization, idealized influence and inspirational motivation impacts organizational performance. The key indicators of organizational performance emerging from extant literature include financial measures such as return on investment (ROI), the volume of sales and market share, and non-financial measures such as employee and customer satisfaction, service quality, and corporate social responsibility (CSR) (Muthimi & Kilika, 2018).

Proposition 1a: Leaders strong in idealized influence will positively impact the overall performance of an organization.

Proposition 1b: Leaders strong in inspirational motivation will positively impact the overall performance of an organization.

Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, and Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is a key factor influencing employees' performance, although little empirical research has been conducted on its link with idealized influence and inspirational motivation. According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy can be created through social persuasion where their leaders orally inspire followers who believe that they can perform better than they initially thought they could. This persuasion can be traced to the inspirational motivation aspect of the transformational leadership style. Empirically, Hoxha and Hyseni-Duraku (2017) found idealized influence to be strongly and positively correlated with self-efficacy. Judeh and Abou-Moghli (2019) confirmed the mediation of self-efficacy in the relationship between transformational leadership and employees' intention to stay in their place of work. The impact of the constituent dimensions of transformational leadership on self-efficacy can be further investigated empirically.

Proposition 2a: The adoption of idealized influence by a leader impacts the creation of self-efficacy of the organization's employees.

Proposition 2b: The adoption of inspirational motivation by a leader impacts the creation of self-efficacy of the organization's employees.

Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, and Organizational Commitment

Empirical studies have confirmed a positive correlation between transformational leadership style and organizational commitment (Avolio et al., 2004; Svyantek & Mahoney, 2014). This can be explained by the definition of idealized influence, which encompasses the emotional attachment enshrined in organizational commitment, defined as "the power of individual identification with, and involvement in, a particular organization" (Wulani, Supriharyanti, & Agustian, 2019, p. 82). Further, there is an emphasis on the significance of transformational leadership in increasing organizational commitment emerging from studies investigating the antecedents and the consequences of organizational commitment (Wulani et al., 2019). Additionally, Bass and Riggio (2006) link strong organizational commitment with transformational leadership that inspires and stimulates employees to change from self-interests to organizational interests as expected of the inspirational motivation dimension.

Proposition 3a: The idealized influence dimension of transformational leadership style plays a role in influencing the level of staff's organizational commitment

Proposition 3b: The inspirational motivation dimension of transformational leadership style plays a role in influencing the level of staff's organizational commitment

Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, and Staff Retention

There is currently a lot of empirical research investigating the link between transformational leadership style and retention of staff in their organizations, at a global level (Edirisooriya, 2020; Judeh & Abou-Moghli, 2019), regional level (Ene, 2020), and local level (Lyria, Namusonge, & Karanja, 2017; Nyasunda & Atambo, 2020). These studies are guided by different conceptual frameworks, with most of them considering transformational leadership as

a unidimensional construct than the respective dimensions. However, it is necessary to narrow down to the relationship between the individual dimensions and staff retention. Muriuki and Ombaba (2018) recognize the imperative need to investigate the impact of the individual dimensions on organizational outcomes instead of considering the transformational leadership constructs as a general independent variable. For instance, inspirational motivation raises employees' excitement, making them happy to continue working within that organization. Although mentorship is more related to the individual consideration dimension through personal development (Edirisooriya, 2020), the role-modeling function of the idealized influence behavior (II_b) strengthens the mentorship process since the followers trust and respect the leaders they consider as role models (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Therefore, there is a need for a more integrative and unambiguous conceptual framework as a useful foundation for researchers undertaking scientific research in these constructs.

Proposition 4a: There is a positive correlation between idealized influence and retention of staff to continue working in their current organizations.

Proposition 4b: There is a positive correlation between inspirational motivation and retention of staff to continue working in their current organizations.

Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, and Microfinance Context

The transformational leadership impact in organizations is expected to be dependent on the context upon which it is used. Among other sectors, empirical research has confirmed the profitability of deployment of transformational leadership in varying contexts such as mainstream financial sectors (Magasi, 2021), learning institutions (Gyansah, Ogola, & Guantai, 2020), manufacturing sector (Ding & Lin, 2020), information technology sector (Thuan, 2020), SMEs (Ogola, Sikalieh, & Linge, 2017), and microfinance institutions (Gathondu, Nyambegera, & Kirubi, 2018; Kariuki & Wachira, 2017). Deployment of transformational leadership dimensions in the context of microfinance is paramount given the two key purposes of microfinance institutions: Reaching out to the poor and sustainability (Ahmed, 2009).

Proposition 5a: The relationship between idealized influence and its organizational outcomes is moderated by the context within which it is deployed.

Proposition 5b: The relationship between idealized influence and organizational performance is moderated by the organization's context.

Proposition 5c: The relationship between inspirational motivation and its organizational outcomes is moderated by the context within which it is deployed.

Proposition 5d: The relationship between inspirational motivation and organizational performance is moderated by the organization's context.

Discussions, Conclusion, and Directions for Future Research

The comprehensive review of extant theoretical, conceptual, and empirical literature brings out the current state of understanding of the idealized influence and inspirational motivation constructs of transformational leadership, consolidating the otherwise largely fragmented knowledge in the field of leadership. The gaps that researchers need to fill for further

advancement of knowledge in the field are established, providing a pathway to a clearer conceptualization of the aforementioned dimensions of transformational leadership. Ethical issues, failure to explicitly capture the intentions of transformational leaders, and inadequate deployment of the constructs in the microfinance context are among the emerging conceptual gaps from the extant literature. Theoretical faults have been spotted in that the negative effects of idealized influence and inspirational motivation and situations in which these constructs can have negative impacts are not succinctly disclosed. While much literature has focused on the deployment of transformational leadership in organizations, there is a paucity of literature focusing on the intermediate and ultimate outcomes of the individual "four I's" of transformational leadership style in those organizations.

There is a clear need to advance knowledge in the respective dimensions of transformational leadership style and the outcomes they produce when deployed in microfinance institutions. The proposed comprehensive conceptual model in Figure 2 can guide further research on the relationship between idealized influence and inspirational motivation and their resultant phenomena in organizations. The investigation can be reinforced by the propositions derived above. This would significantly boost microfinance institutions in overcoming their current challenges, such as talented staff retention and sustainability.

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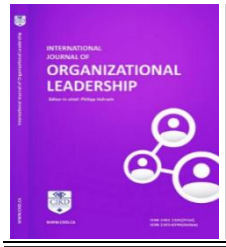

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The Effects of Adaptive Leadership on Organizational Effectiveness at Public Higher Education Institutions of Ethiopia

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ABSTRACT

This study explores the effects of adaptive leadership practices on organizational effectiveness and the link and prediction of both constructs in higher education institutions located in the Amhara National Regional State of Ethiopia. The study adopted a descriptive survey and correlational research design with a quantitative method. The target population of the study consists of 5460 deans, directors, and academic staff members. The sample size was determined to be 620 using a sample size determination formula. A questionnaire with multi-item scales from prior developed models was adapted to gather primary data. Percentages, mean values, one-sample t-test, correlation, and regression analysis were used to examine the data. The findings revealed that leaders practice adaptive leadership at every level because of the current uncertain and dynamic challenges confronting institutions. Furthermore, leadership practice, characterized by adaptation and knowledge building, has led institutions to be effective organizations. The findings also indicate that the constructs have a positive and substantial association. This suggests that the more adaptive leadership is practiced in the institutions under investigation, the higher the goal attainment and organizational effectiveness will be.

Higher education is vital for achieving economic progress, political stability, and peace, as well as for establishing a democratic culture and society, as the globe becomes increasingly interconnected, interdependent, and a global village (OECD, 2005). It is known that higher education institutions (HEIs) are both sources of cultural change and are required to continually renew themselves in response to societal developments (Burkhardt, 2002). Nowadays, HEIs are in the midst of dynamic challenges in response to environmental, social, economic,

technological, and political transformations all over the world (Temple, 2011). As stated by Temple (2011), leaders of HEIs are under pressure to accommodate the needs of a variety of stakeholders, including governments, students, administrative, and academic employees. In addition, Corlett (2005) described how leaders at higher education institutions are held to high standards in terms of research, teaching, and community engagement. This indicates that the leaders of HEIs are expected to play a significant role in developing various techniques and mechanisms for setting different strategies and mechanisms to overcome the unprecedented challenges they face in the current world. Clearly, in the current competitive context, one of the considerable variables in mapping the success or failure of a firm is leadership (Mesterova, Prochazka, Vaculik, & Smutny, 2015). As Avolio (2007) asserted, although leadership is not a cure-all, it does play a critical role in bringing about major organizational change and progress. These days, the success of organizations relies on the skilled performance of leaders and leadership practices that resolve complex, dynamic, and ill-defined organizational problems (Avolio, 2007). Hence, the nature of the present world's challenges requires us to adopt a leadership approach that allows leaders to be flexible and able to adapt to changing sociological and political environments (Heifetz, 1994).

Given the complexities of today's world and the global economy, traditional leadership articulations centered on hierarchical patterns are becoming less useful (Lichtenstein, Uhl-Bien, Marion, Seers, Orton, & Schreiber, 2006). This means that, in a setting where many of the challenges are not clear-cut, leaders must use adaptive leadership strategies (Heifetz, 1994). In defining adaptive leadership, Heifetz (1994) expressed that “it is the activity of mobilizing people to tackle the toughest problems and do the adaptive work necessary to achieve progress" (p. 24). According to Heifetz (1994), leaders can utilize the adaptive leadership framework to help them navigate the uncertain environment in which educational institutions must operate. Thus, as Heifetz, Grashaw, and Linsky (2009) described, the adaptive leadership approach is more valuable as a leadership approach in current HEIs. This is due to its acceptance of ambiguity and complexity in situations and its active pursuit of inventive solutions that contribute to effectiveness and success (Heifetz, 1994). As a result, with the rapid rate of change in the workplace and worldwide, adaptive leadership abilities are becoming increasingly important (Heifetz et al., 2009; Heifetz & Laurie, 1997), more than ever, having a competitive advantage is crucial.

To better describe the need for adaptive leadership in the frequently changing contemporary world, with the existing commonly used leadership paradigms such as transactional and transformational, servant, and authentic leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Burns, 1978; Greenleaf, 1977) respectively, the leader is at the core of everything. Adaptive leadership, on the other hand, focuses on the leader's behavior and interactions with followers, as well as the leader's ability to mobilize and motivate followers to adapt to change (Heifetz & Laurie, 1997). In addition, Coldwell, Joosub, and Papageorgiou (2012) stated that the previous theories encompass personal and occupational values while adaptive leadership is a leadership style that can adjust to changing circumstances and prosper (Heifetz et al. 2009). Heifetz (1994) further expressed that the adaptive leadership framework is underpinned by the diagnostic distinction between technical problems and adaptive challenges, implying that the majority of leadership failures are diagnostic in nature, with authorities and experts misdiagnosing adaptive challenges and applying known solutions for technical problems. According to Heifetz et al. (2009)

adaptive challenges are problems that are not completely understood and for which there is not a known answer. Hence, the role of leadership shifts to building knowledge in understanding the nature of the challenges and rallying stakeholders to better understand the problem's complexity and seek out varied perspectives that can lead to diagnostic learning (Heifetz, 1994; Heifetz, Kania & Kramer, 2004; Heifetz & Linsky, 2002).

As it is described by Northouse (2016), getting on the balcony (observing the situation from a high level), identifying the adaptive challenges, regulating the participants' distress as the adaptive challenge is addressed, maintaining the energy, focusing on solving the problems, and applying leadership while avoiding micromanaging are all part of the adaptive leadership framework. Northouse (2016) outlines prescriptive ways for successfully guiding through change for each of the behaviors. This means that the approach promotes leaders and followers to confront their challenges and decision possibilities through a win-win process in which both can learn, experiment, and adapt to new ways of coexisting and achieving positive outcomes (Coldwell et al., 2012). Furthermore, according to Heifetz et al. (2004), adaptive leadership is about how leaders assist people to adapt to challenges and changes. It focuses on the adjustments and learning that individuals must make in response to changing surroundings.

Consequently, in today's changing and dynamic environment, HEIs, like other organizations, must adapt to change or risk being left behind in today's competitive market. Accordingly, in this era of intensified competition and rapid transformation and change, effective institutions are those that can recognize, react to, manage, and prosper in a changing environment (Hwang & Bae, 2010). Thus, being effective necessitates the ability to adjust to a fast-changing environment while still achieving one's objectives (Hwang & Bae, 2010). This reveals that the practice of leadership that tries to adapt to the present-day overall challenges creates an organization that continuously learns and transforms itself to further enhance the effectiveness of the organization (Jacob & Shari, 2013). Therefore, compared to other models of leadership, adaptive leadership finds organizational effectiveness through the attainment of organizational goals via adaptive change intervention (Owens & Valesky, 2007).

These days, the leadership at public HEIs in Ethiopia is facing many emergent issues and challenges. As described by Teshome (2018), the main adaptive challenges facing Ethiopian public HEIs presently are the challenges of workforce diversity management, student unrest and turbulence, academic staff turnover, lack of sufficient budget, advancement of new technology in the teaching-learning process, and other uncertain problems due to prevalent political and social motives. Thus, these challenges have affected the activities of the leaders of the institutions and their effectiveness. The findings of a study conducted at three public universities in Ethiopia by Durie and Beshir (2016) indicate that academic leaders are mainly engaged in routine and low-priority activities rather than change-oriented activities, which could make the institutions competitive in the current dynamic world. As a result, educational leadership in Ethiopian HEIs is uneven, incoherent, lacking in practice, and research-based (FDRE, 2019). Hence, Ethiopian public HEIs should investigate ways to better adapt to the current uncertain challenges to be effective in attaining their expected objectives. Thus, a necessary condition to deal with the current challenges, of course, is to have adaptive leaders who understand the challenges and are able and willing to make significant efforts to constructively deal with the changes to transform and make HEIs responsive.

Empirical studies conducted on the effects of adaptive leadership practices on organizational effectiveness have been undertaken in the adaptive leadership practices matched with culture transformation in health companies have been studied for their effectiveness (Corazzini, Twersky, White, Weiner, & Colon, 2014). Moreover, adaptive leadership's influence on organizational design, structures, and processes have been explored by researchers (Dinh, Lord, Gardner, Meuser, Liden & Hu, 2014; Hempe, 2013). While most research studies have revealed important discoveries on adaptive leadership in commercial and health care organizations, there is a vacuum in understanding the effects of adaptive leadership practices in complex adaptive higher education systems (Dinh et al., 2014; Hempe, 2013). In addition, there has been very little empirical study demonstrating the effectiveness of this leadership technique to date (Dugan, 2017; Northouse, 2016). This suggests that there is a deficit in knowledge about the actual process of adaptive leadership in higher education institutions that considers the complex realities of 21st-century leadership in organizations.

As stated by different authors, adaptive leadership practices and organizational effectiveness in HEIs are currently a relatively unexplored area of research and application (Bryman, 2007; Dugan, 2017). So, practicing adaptive leadership practices for the effectiveness of HEI's is a subject that needs to be investigated further. Moreover, studies on the effects of adaptive leadership practices for the effectiveness of organizations have primarily been carried out in industrialized countries (Garcia-Morales et al., 2012; Hempe, 2013; Zagorsek, Jaklic, & Stough, 2004). However, research involving underdeveloped countries and Ethiopian public HEI where the context is very different is nonexistent. Finally, to the author's knowledge, there are no empirical studies conducted on this issue in developing countries context generally and in the Ethiopian public higher education perspective specifically. Hence, there is a need for a study that could deliver a fresh understanding of the current status, effects, and relationships between adaptive leadership and organizational effectiveness at public universities located in the Amhara National Regional State (ANRS): Ethiopia. Hence, the following research questions are formulated to be addressed in this study:

1. To what extent is adaptive leadership practiced by the leaders of public universities located in the ANRS?
2. To what extent has organizational effectiveness been attained by the HEIs under consideration?
3. What is the association between adaptive leadership strategies and organizational effectiveness at the HEI understudy?
4. Which dimension of adaptive leadership predicts organizational effectiveness?

Considering the theoretical framework, this research focuses on adaptive leadership, as conceived and taught by Heifetz (1994) and elaborated on by successive coauthors (Heifetz & Laurie, 1997; Heifetz & Linsky, 2002). According to Glover et al. (2002) and Nelson and Squires (2017) organizational leaders can utilize an adaptive leadership framework to negotiate unexpected conditions, ongoing competition from rivals, and technological advances so that their enterprises can remain sustainable. The theory also assists these leaders in dealing with internal and external difficulties that influence the company. The goal of adaptive leadership is to get rid of the technical approach to dealing with adaptive problems (Heifetz et al., 2009). The adaptive leadership theory was thought to be an acceptable paradigm that leaders can utilize to

boost organizational success rates, given the energy that is required by the leader and team members to solve complicated changes and difficulties (Ebrahimi et al., 2016; Feldbrugge, 2015). Thus, this study uses adaptive leadership theory as a theoretical framework for thinking about the current challenges facing higher education and the process by which leaders in higher education might generate solutions to those challenges.

Furthermore, the theoretical framework of organizational effectiveness used in this study is Cameron's model for assessing organizational effectiveness (Cameron, 1978). According to Cameron (1978), various effectiveness models and techniques have been created, but sadly little study has been done on organizational effectiveness in higher education. Cameron's approach to evaluating organizational effectiveness had been used successfully in a number of institutional settings, from schools to corporations. Cameron's (1978) analytic instrument, which was employed at the university level, revealed nine characteristics that are shared by all successful universities. After carefully selecting the criteria, constituency, and institutions, Cameron (1980) performed effectiveness studies in institutions of higher education and discovered nine unique areas that administrators considered were indicative of an effective university. These categories represented organizational qualities that were deemed to be indicative of effectiveness by the institution's internal primary decision-makers. The nine dimensions included: (1) student's educational satisfaction, (2) their academic, (3) personal development, (4) professional development, (5) faculty's job satisfaction, (6) professional development of teachers, (7) resource acquisition, (8) system clarity, and (9) organizational health. A literature review also indicates that, this model has been devised by researchers in this field more than others for the evaluation of organizational effectiveness in higher education (e.g., Ashraf & Kadir, 2012; Hertelendy, 2010; Kwan & Walker, 2003; Lejeune & Vas, 2009; Smart, 2003). Moreover, a comparative result between some models of organizational effectiveness in higher education shows some overlapping, and the trace of some of Cameron's nine dimensions can be observed in two other models developed by Pounder (1999) and An et. al. (2011). This demonstrates Cameron's model's comprehensiveness in assessing organizational effectiveness in higher education institutions. Hence, the review of theoretical and empirical studies on the subject under consideration and the practical observation of adaptive leadership practices has aided the researcher in developing a conceptual framework that will act as the study's guide. It emphasizes that proper implementation of adaptive leadership and its various dimensions leads to organizational effectiveness and success.

Method

Sampling and Sampling Technique

The study employed descriptive survey and correlational research designs. Currently, there are 10 federal public universities in the ANRS which are classified into four strata of generation based on their age or period of establishment. The established stratum was used in the selection of sample universities for this research. To make the study manageable, six universities (60%) of the total from each generation/stratum were chosen as study samples using stratified random selection.

The target population of the study consists of 5460 deans, directors and, local permanent academic staff members currently on duty at the sample public universities. The sample size was determined to be 620 using a sample size determination formula. After determining the total sample size of each university, respondents in their corresponding university were assigned proportionally to the total population of staff members in their respective colleges and departments. Finally, a simple random sampling procedure was used to select individual sample responders.

Materials

The data for the study was collected from 620 respondents through standardized questionnaire items that were applied by adapting the items in the context of Ethiopian HEI. The questionnaire consists of adaptive leadership, organizational effectiveness, and demographic sections prepared in the English language. First, adaptive leadership scales were adapted from the study of Northouse (2016) questionnaire comprising six dimensions and 28 items. The construct was measured by using 6-point Likert scale items ranging from (1) Almost never to (6) Almost always. Organizational effectiveness questionnaire items were taken from Cameron's (1978) model of organizational effectiveness with its nine dimensions. The items were measured using 6-point Likert scales ranging from Always true (6) to Never true (1).

Validity and Reliability

To determine the validity and reliability of the instrument item scales in the context of HEIs, a content validity check and Cronbach alpha test was performed, respectively. To ensure content validity, the research instrument was subjected to expert judgment validation by six professionals/panelists who examined the content to see if it measures what it claims to measure based on the study's core questions and objectives. Based on the feedback received, the directions established to respond to items on each construct are developed independently to clarify instructions for responders. In addition, three organizational effectiveness items pertaining to graduate employment opportunities were removed from the instrument because some respondents may not have access to this information. Apart from that, language correction, which included phrasing adjustments and the removal of redundant and unneeded terms, was carried out under the supervision of language experts. Thus, the instrument was enhanced in the final draft by making relevant modifications and adjustments. Moreover, Lawshe's (1975) content validity check model was also used to see how far each item is pertinent to measuring the major constructs of adaptive leadership and organizational effectiveness. According to the guideline, the minimum valid value of Content Validity Ratio (CVR) for the evaluated item to be retained is $p = .05$, and the CVR value is somewhere between zero and .99 (Lawshe, 1975). As a result, the average value of the CVR was determined for the entire item in the instrument and found to be $p = .90$, indicating that the questionnaire may be used for the desired purpose.

Considering the reliability of institutional effectiveness instrument items, it has been reported with a high value of Cronbach's alpha by several researchers. Though there are high values of reliability of the instrument in different studies, it does not confirm reliability in the context of Ethiopian higher education institutions. Therefore, the reliability of the questionnaire items on the constructs was checked using Cronbach's alpha (r) based on the pilot test

conducted with 50 randomly selected staff members working in different leadership positions at one university other than those included in the study. After calculating the responses of the pilot group, the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient for adaptive leadership questionnaire items was r = .81 and organizational effectiveness r = .80. Reliability tests resulting in the alpha of 0.7 and above are generally accepted as having high reliability (Rovai et al., 2014). Therefore, the overall internal consistency between the constructs indicates a high value (r = .81), which suggests that the questionnaire is reliable and could be used to obtain pertinent data for the intended purpose.

Procedure

The distribution and collection of the questionnaire to sample respondents were self-administered by the author. Hence, the questionnaires were distributed to 620 sample respondents. However, 27 questionnaires were not returned, and seven more were discarded because they were incomplete. After undertaking the necessary data cleaning process, the authors found a total of 593 copies duly filled and returned questionnaires which were usable for the data analysis with a 95.6 % return rate. Before conducting the actual statistical tests, data screening for any irregularities based on correlation and regression tests assumptions was checked for analyzing data gained through the questionnaire, mean values less than 3.00 (Low); values from 3.01 to 4.00 (Moderate); and values of 4.01 and above (High).

Results

The analysis of demographic characteristics of respondents indicates values of respondents' sex composition, educational levels, service years in the institutions, and current occupational status. Concerning the sex composition of the respondents, as depicted in Table 1, the great majority (86.5%) were males, which indicates male dominance in the career. Considering the educational levels, the majority of the participants were at the MA/MSC (75.2%) level, followed by BA/BSC holders (13.8), and the rest (11%) were with Ph.D. This implies that respondents have the appropriate educational background to easily observe and respond to the practices of the current leadership style and its effect on the attainment of organizational effectiveness in the HEIs. Considering respondents' length of service years in the universities, the result indicates that the majority (54.3%) of the respondents have served more than five years, which indicates that they could have better knowledge of the practices and status of their organization's leadership style and its effect on the outcome variable.

Table 1
Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

No.		Item	Frequency	Percent
1	Sex	Male	513	86.5
		Female	80	13.5
		Total	593	100
2	Education Level	BA	82	13.8
		MA	446	75.2
		PhD	65	11
		Total	593	100
3	Service year in the university	Below 5 years	271	45.7
		5 to 10 years	232	39.1
		Above 10 years	90	15.2
		Total	593	100
4	Occupational status	Leader only	69	11.7
		Instructor only	398	67.1
		Leader and Instructor	126	21.2
		Total	593	100

The analysis of data gained through the questionnaire on the first research question ascertains that there exist adaptive leadership practices in the institutions with an aggregate mean value of 4.20. As shown in Table 2, the result of one sample t-test also illustrates $t = 120.86$ with a $p < .05$, indicating no significant difference between the mean and the population mean. This indicates that respondents perceive that the leadership of the institutions practices adaptive leadership under study. Considering the mean and t values of the dimensions of adaptive leadership, all are significant with $p < .05$, and the highest mean value is observed on the dimension, which indicates that the leaders "maintain disciplined attention" with a mean value of 4.55 and $t = 50.46$. The result is followed by the dimension, which designates that leaders "identify adaptive challenges" with a mean value of 4.46 and $t = 58.62$. The other dimensions are labeled as "get on the balcony" and "regulate distress" with 4.02 and 3.91 mean values and 32.21 and 38.89 t values, respectively.

Table 2
One-Sample T-Test Statistics on Adaptive Leadership Dimensions

Variable and its Dimensions	*t*	*M*	*df*	*M* difference	*SD*	*p* (2- tailed)
Adaptive leadership	120.86	4.20	592	1.20	.24	.000
Get on the Balcony	65.62	4.25	592	1.25	.46	.000
Identify Adaptive Challenges	58.62	4.46	592	1.45	.60	.000
Regulate Distress	56.46	4.24	592	1.24	.53	.000
Maintain Disciplined Attention	50.46	4.55	592	1.54	.74	.000
Give the work back to the people	38.89	3.91	592	0.90	.56	.000
Protect leadership voices from below	32.21	4.02	592	1.01	.76	.000

Based on sample respondents' responses to the items related to organizational effectiveness, the results of the analysis in Table 3 show that respondents perceive institutions as effective, with an aggregate mean value of 4.89. This result is supported by the one-sample t-test value, which illustrates a value of $t = 110.04$ with a $p < .05$. Moreover, in evaluating the attainment of

organizational effectiveness dimensions, the highest value is observed in the "student academic development" dimension with a mean value of 5.11, $t = 56.34$, and $p < .05$, followed by "system openness and community interaction", "organizational health", and "ability to acquire resources" with 5.08, 5.05, and 5.00 mean, and t values of 57.23, 56.64, and 52.68, respectively with an overall $p < .05$. The dimensions which are "professional development and quality of the faculty" with a 4.86 mean and a 53.96 t value, and "student educational satisfaction" with a mean of 4.78 and a t value of 45.04, both with $p < .05$, also indicate the effectiveness of the institutions. Compared to other dimensions, the one with the lowest mean value is "student career development" with a 4.24 mean, 25.183 t value with a $p < .05$ significant level. This implies that institutions compared to other dimensions, are working less on students' occupational and vocational progress. To further evaluate the fields of organizational effectiveness in which HEIs under study are more effective, a one-sample t-test was conducted between the main organizational effectiveness fields developed by Cameron (1986), i.e., academic field, moral field, and external adaptation field.

Table 3

One-sample t-test statistics (Organizational Effectiveness Dimensions)

Variable/ Dimensions	*t*	*M*	*df*	*M* difference	*SD*	*p* (2- tailed)
Organizational Effectiveness	110.04	4.89	592	1.88	0.41	.000
Student educational satisfaction	45.04	4.78	592	1.75	0.68	.000
Student academic development	56.34	5.11	592	2.01	0.63	.000
Student career development	25.18	4.24	592	1.31	1.01	.000
Student personal development	43.60	4.67	592	1.56	0.63	.000
Faculty and administrator employment satisfaction	39.58	4.44	592	1.32	0.67	.000
Professional development and quality of the faculty	53.96	4.86	592	2.26	0.67	.000
System openness and community interaction	57.23	5.08	592	2.77	0.62	.000
Ability to acquire resources	52.68	5.00	592	2.26	0.63	.000
Organizational health	56.64	5.05	592	2.27	0.57	.000

According to the test's findings, respondents believed that HEIs are more effective in the academic field ($M = 5.04$, $SD = .87$, $t = 57.10$, $p < .05$), followed by effectiveness in the external adaptation field ($M = 4.96$, $SD = 0.84$, $t = 57.030$, $p < .05$) (Table 4). Moreover, Pearson correlation analysis was performed between adaptive leadership practices and organizational effectiveness to ascertain the degree of relationship between adaptive leadership as the predictor variable and organizational effectiveness as the dependent variable.

Table 4

One-Sample Statistics (Fields of Organizational Effectiveness)

Level	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p* (2-tailed)
External	593	4.96	.83	57.03	592	.000
Moral	593	4.78	.75	57.30	592	.000
Academic	593	5.04	.87	57.10	592	.000

The result of the correlation study, as shown in Table 5, indicates a substantial positive correlation ($r = .64$, $p < .01$). Furthermore, the correlation test used to determine the association between adaptive leadership dimensions and organizational effectiveness found that all correlations are significant at level $p < 0.01$. The highest score within adaptive leadership

construct is “maintain disciplined attention” with (r = .44; p < .01). The lowest relationship is (r = -.19; p < .01) scored by the construct “protect leadership voices from below”.

Table 5

Correlations (Adaptive Leadership Practices and Organizational Effectiveness)

		Adaptive Leadership	Organizational Effectiveness
AL	Pearson Correlation	1	.64**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.00
	N	593	593
OE	Pearson Correlation	.64**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.00	
	N	593	593

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

In addition, as shown in the model summary Table 6, the "R Square" value of 41.5% reveals that the independent variable adaptive leadership explains the entire variation in the dependent variable organizational effectiveness. In other words, the amount of coefficient of non-determination, which accounts for 58.5%, indicates that the effect of the independent variable is also noteworthy.

Table 6

Model Summary (Adaptive Leadership and Organizational Effectiveness)

Model	R	R^2	*adj.* R^2	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.64[a]	.41	.41	.63

a. Predictors: (Constant), AL

In addition, the regression model with all adaptive leadership dimensions produced R^2 = .41, F(1, 591) = 419.63, p < .01 (Table 6 and Table 7). This means that the independent variable statistically predicts the dependent variable (i.e., the overall regression model is a good fit for the data).

Table 7

ANOVA *(Adaptive Leadership and Organizational Effectiveness)*

Model		*SS*	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
1	Regression	168.41	1	168.41	419.63	.000[b]
	Residual	237.19	591	0.40		
	Total	405.61	592			

Note. a. Dependent Variable: OE; b. Predictors: (Constant), AL

Furthermore, the regression results depicted in Table 8, indicate that adaptive leadership has a considerable positive effect on organizational effectiveness signified by the coefficient of a Beta factor (β = .64, p < .01), indicating a significant relationship between both constructs. It might be stated that adaptive leadership has a major impact on organizational effectiveness.

Table 8

Coefficients[a] (Adaptive Leadership and Organizational Effectiveness)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	*t*	*p*
		B	*SE*	β		
1	(Constant)	1.18	.19		6.13	.000
	AL	1.02	.05	.64	20.48	.000

a. Dependent Variable: OE

Table 9 presents the results of the regression analysis for the first study question, which is concerned with determining the predictive potential of adaptive leadership dimensions on

organizational effectiveness. Moreover, Beta coefficients were employed to evaluate the direct effect of each dimension of the independent variable on organizational effectiveness. Thus, the effects of the dimensions "get on the balcony" (β = .10, *t* = 2.60, *p* = .009), "protect leadership voices from below" (β = -.21, *t* = -5.68, *p* = .000), "identify adaptive challenges" (β = .31, *t* = 6.97, *p* = .000), "maintain disciplined attention" (β = .39, *t* = 11.23, *p* = .00) and "give the work back to the people" (β = -.14, *t* = -3.69, *p* = .000) on organizational effectiveness of the HEIs were statistically significant. That is to say, 10.5%, 21.9%, 31.4%, 39.2% and -14.8% of organizational effectiveness was accounted by leaders' practices in the above mentioned five dimensions of adaptive leadership. The value of one dimension which is "regulate distress" with a test result of (β = .06, *t* = 1.62, *p* = .10) disclosed no statistically significant effect on organizational effectiveness.

Table 9

Coefficients (Adaptive Leadership Dimensions and Organizational Effectiveness)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	*t*	*p*
		B	*SE*	β		
	(Constant)	1.76	.35		4.98	.000
	GB	0.18	.07	.105	2.60	.009
	IAC	0.42	.06	.314	6.97	.000
1	RD	0.10	.06	.069	1.62	.106
	MDA	0.43	.03	.392	11.23	.000
	BP	-0.21	.05	-.148	-3.69	.000
	VP	-0.23	.04	-.219	-5.68	.000

Note. a. Dependent Variable: OE; (GB - Getting on the Balcony, IAC – Identify Adaptive Challenges, RD- Regulate Distress, MDA- Maintain Disciplined attention, BP- give the work back to the people, VP- protect leadership voices from below)

Discussion

The Extent of Adaptive Leadership Practices

The results of the analysis regarding the first research question revealed that the leaders and academic staff members of HEIs understudy perceive that the university leadership is practicing adaptive leadership at every level. The results indicated that even though the leaders did not specify that they are practicing adaptive leadership deliberately, the activities that are done to identify adaptive challenges, to find solutions with the collaboration of multiple stakeholders, empowerment of employees to find solutions to challenges, and provision of a holding environment designate that, respondents perceive the practices of adaptive leadership in universities. The findings are backed up by research conducted by Hempe (2013), who argues that educational leaders must use adaptive leadership strategies in a world where there are no easy answers to many of the problems. Furthermore, Heifetz and Linsky (2004) advocated for educators to embrace the practice of adaptive leadership in light of the complex world. Adaptive leadership, according to Heifetz et al. (2009), is a vital feature for companies that are better equipped to learn, innovate, perform, and adapt to the types of external pressures that HEIs are currently facing.

According to Owens (2004), educational organizations today are presented with highly complicated difficulties, often misunderstood and ambiguous, with unclear results. Thus, institutions must be flexible and sensitive to changing conditions. Accordingly, traditional top-down leadership is ineffective in today's higher education scene and is out of step with research on effective companies, which shows the importance of adaptive leadership (Alanoglu & Demirtas, 2016). In addition, Owens (2004) described that every leader in the world must deal

with change, but not all leaders are able to make changes that allow their businesses, governments, or communities to adapt successfully and sustainably. Therefore, it can be concluded that the current challenges have made HEIs leadership practice a model appropriate for the political, technological, and social contexts of the nation. Consequently, the finding implies that, compared to other dimensions, leaders demonstrate the dimension of maintaining disciplined attention remarkably, which indicates that leaders as adaptive leaders focus on encouraging followers to stay dedicated to their work, fostering conversation to resolve problems, and refocusing employees' attention on the transformation process. This ensures that the members of the HEIs are focused on the topic at hand and gives staff a sense of organization in their work and operations (Heifetz et al., 2009). This result is similar to Arthur-Mensah and Zimmerman (2017), who stated that adaptive leadership assists employees in navigating through adaptive change, and persistence to success stems from having a disciplined mind to stay focused on the task at hand despite work avoidance, resistance, and disputes. Furthermore, according to Volden (2018), a positive leader-follower connection can foster an interactive climate among employees, reducing stress and attrition. Hence, leaders must cultivate a positive leader-follower relationship with team members to improve organizational success through adaptive leadership that improves people's inclusion (Arthur-Mensah & Zimmerman, 2017).

The Status of Organizational Effectiveness

The overall results on the status of organizational effectiveness show that respondents perceive institutions are adapting to the current dynamic environment and working to achieve their goals and be effective. It also implies that, regardless of differences in magnitude, HEIs are working to realize organizational effectiveness. This finding is supported by Kwan and Walker (2003), who stated that these days, governments across the globe have become increasingly determined to make higher education more responsive and accountable to their stakeholders. Thus, the quest for effectiveness is a pressing concern for the current world universities (Kwan & Walker, 2003), which also holds for HEIs under study. The finding is reinforced by Akhtar and Ahmad Khan’s (2011) study, which describes how educational leaders are challenged to increase their organization's effectiveness by satisfying stakeholders' needs and embracing new technology in today's competitive environment. This implies that institutions need to improve their current competencies and enhance their organizational effectiveness to stay competitive. In addition, Jacob and Shari (2013) also described that, in an environment that includes shrinking resource availability and increased competition, organizational effectiveness would be the key to the survival of an organization. Hwang and Bae (2010) similarly described how the existing global organization should improve its capacity to adjust to a fast-changing environment and fulfill its objectives by ensuring the satisfaction of its members. Therefore, the finding of this study reveals that HEIs are adapting to the current challenges by implementing adaptive leadership, which makes them competitive towards the attainment of their overall goals.

In terms of the degree of attainment of organizational effectiveness characteristics, the study's findings show that institutions are more effective at student academic growth, system openness and community involvement, organizational health, and resource acquisition ability. These findings indicate that institutions are effective in terms of student achievement, growth, and progress, as well as the attention paid to interaction and adaptability with the external environment and community service. In addition, the HEIs understudy can also be considered

effective in the breadth of resources they receive from outside sources and the smoothness of their operations and processes, such as goodwill and liveliness. This finding is supported by McCann (2004), who noted that the benchmark of organizational effectiveness is the successful accomplishment of the organization's aims through core teaching-learning, research, and community service strategies. It is recommended by the empirical research findings of Pearce and Conger (2003) that higher education institutions should enforce their institutional effectiveness to improve educational quality to increase student learning results, which will impact the country's economic growth and development. Pearce and Conger (2003) also suggested that leaders and educators of effective institutions consider the levels of preparation of their students and provide them with higher than anticipated academic performance. The reviewed literature similarly showed that effectiveness in educational institutions was related to the ability of leaders and teachers to help students achieve specific learning outcomes and satisfy the interests of all stakeholders in the educational community (Kwan & Walker, 2003). Moreover, the result of this study is directly related to the findings of Jacob and Shari (2013), which also implies that the leaders of HEIs often seek organizational effectiveness by investing minimal resources to achieve superior outcomes in all aspects of their mission. In addition, the dimensions of professional development, the quality of the faculty, and student educational satisfaction also indicate the effectiveness of the institutions in these fields. This indicates that the range of work achievement and improvement of faculty members, as well as the extent of incentives for work growth provided by the institutions, and the contentment of students with their educational experiences at their institutions, are likewise successful. As it is described by Ashraf and Kadir (2012), effective distribution of resources, cooperation and engagement among staff, ethics, effective communication, and performance are the influential factors that any leadership and management must consider salient towards organizational effective performance and change. Thus, when leaders of educational institutions give due attention to an effective working environment, it is likely to result in excellent student outcomes, turnover avoidance, and poor-quality services (Ashraf & Kadir 2012; Owens, 2004). Compared to other dimensions, the one with the lowest mean value is student career development. This implies that the HEIs under study are working less on students' occupational and vocational progress and career opportunities. Thus, leaders should give due emphasis to all dimensions to create a successful institution. This is also supported by Owens (2004), who stated that organizations would be able to effectively face the difficulties posed by the modern world if leaders can develop qualities that allow them to lead adaptably in complex and fast-changing contexts. Therefore, even though the overall result depicts the institutions as effective, the observed dimensions with moderate value should be considered properly to overcome the observed gaps.

The results of data analysis about the three domains/fields of organizational effectiveness prove that the HEIs under study are more effective in academic dimensions, which are mainly concerned with student academic development, professional development and the quality of faculty, and the ability to acquire resources. The result is followed by the external adaptation field in which institutions are working on student career development, system openness, and community interaction. However, the moral field in which the activities are related to student personal development, student educational satisfaction, faculty and administrator employment satisfaction, and organizational health, though results look low compared to others, the

institutions are also effective with a remarkable mean value. Concerning these findings, Alanoglu and Demirtas (2016) identified the acquisition of key skills by students through clearly developed learning outcomes as one of the main features of an effective academic organization. In addition, Hofman and Gray (2015) proposed that the most critical effectiveness indicators in academic organizations were satisfied teachers and students, academic achievement, satisfied stakeholders, and students trained as responsible citizens prepared for the social and economic context that awaits them. Hofman and Gray (2015) also stated that students' academic achievement could be a clear indicator of educational effectiveness. In this sense, Alanoglu and Demirtas (2016) suggested that leaders and educators of effective institutions should consider the levels of preparation of their students and provide them with higher than anticipated academic performance. Therefore, an effective institution provides added value to the academic performance of its students as compared to similar institutions that accept students with similar levels of preparation (Alanoglu & Demirtas, 2016). However, Gilreath (2006) affirmed that, in addition to academic achievement, several other outcomes are related to the professional development of faculty, satisfaction of stakeholders, and student career and personal development that indicate an effective institution.

Relationship between Adaptive Leadership and Organizational Effectiveness

The correlation analysis of the independent and dependent variables indicates that adaptive leadership techniques and organizational effectiveness have a significant positive association. Furthermore, a correlation test to ascertain the association between adaptive leadership dimensions and organizational effectiveness indicates that all correlations among the dimensions are significant at $p < .01$. This suggests that the more adaptive leadership is practiced in the HEIs, the better the attainment of goals could be. The result is reinforced by the findings of Ebrahimi, Moosavi, and Chirani (2016), and Fabricius and Büttgen (2015), who described that to secure organizational success, leaders must utilize adaptive leadership strategies. In addition, the results of this study were consistent with Nolan (2017), who stated that effectiveness in organizations depended on the effectiveness of their leaders, and adaptive leadership was the cornerstone of organizational effectiveness. It is widely agreed that unless leaders can develop qualities that allow them to lead adaptively in complex and fast-changing settings, their companies will be unable to address the modern world's challenges. Adaptive leadership is viewed as a proactive and practical strategy to assist businesses in adapting to new or changing circumstances, in which leaders can facilitate change management through direct advice and the deployment of coordinating resources (Doyle, 2017). In addition, the study conducted by Hwang and Bae (2010) asserts that, compared to other models of leadership styles, adaptive leaders find organizational effectiveness through the attainment of organizational goals via adaptive change intervention. Owens (2004) also argued that to ensure the organization's long-term success, adaptive leadership stresses the creation of new information, skills, products, and procedures. Therefore, based on the findings of this research and other empirical shreds of evidence cited, it is possible to say that employing adaptive leadership and acculturating it in HEIs may help create supportive working environments characterized by goal achievement and success.

The Effect of Adaptive Leadership Dimensions on Organizational Effectiveness

Furthermore, the result of this study indicates that the application of adaptive leadership in institutions has significant predictive power for the effectiveness of the HEIs under study. The effects of the five dimensions (get on the balcony, protect leadership voices from below, identify adaptive challenges, maintain disciplined attention, give the work back to the people) on the organizational effectiveness of the HEIs were statistically significant. That is to say, 10.5%, 21.9%, 31.4%, 39.2%, and -14.8% of organizational effectiveness was accounted for by leaders' practices in the above-mentioned five dimensions of adaptive leadership. Compared to other dimensions, maintaining disciplined attention is the best predictor by which the dimension explained 39.2% of the variability of organizational effectiveness. This implies that HEI leaders, as adaptive leaders, focus on encouraging followers to stay engaged in the task, fostering conversation to resolve problems, and refocusing employees' attention on the transformation process. This finding is consistent with Ahyar, Vini, and Putri's (2017) study, which confirmed a significant positive effect of adaptive leadership on organizational effectiveness at universities. Thus, when followers face a tough project or situation, the leaders of the HEIs display disciplined attention to guarantee that members are focused on the topic at hand and that the work and operations are structured (Cawsey, Deszca, & Ingols, 2016). The research findings of Owens (2004) also showed that organizations' long-term survival and effectiveness rely on greater inclusion of individuals lower in the organization who may have useful information to bring to decision-making is critical for the long-term survival and success of organizations. Arthur-Mensah and Zimmerman (2017) and Owens (2004) similarly argued that when employees and other stakeholders are involved in the decision-making process and contribute their expertise obtained through experience, an organization's effectiveness improves significantly. In addition, Owens (2004) and Owens and Valesky (2007) stated that adaptive leadership in educational organizations helps facilitate organizational performance and effectiveness. Volden (2018) also suggested that leaders who involve stakeholders in their organization will witness an increase in their effectiveness. A study about employee involvement and organizational effectiveness conducted by Amah and Ahiauzu (2013) also concluded that effectiveness in organizations is primarily associated with harmony between employees, the quality of the results or outcomes of organizations, and how they achieve their highest priorities and goals, where all these factors rely on the type of leadership. In summary, the findings indicate that adaptive leadership strategies implemented by leaders facilitate the augmentation of organizational effectiveness in HEIs. Doyle (2017) stated that leaders who can adjust to changing scenarios can keep their organizations effective and running smoothly.

Conclusions

Nowadays, it is evident that governments across the world have become increasingly determined to make higher education more responsive and accountable to their stakeholders. Thus, the quest for effectiveness is a pressing concern for current universities across the world. This suggests that many crucial leaders have been called upon to address the issue flexibly and successfully. This study examined practices, status, relationships, and effects of adaptive leadership on the organizational effectiveness of Ethiopian federal public HEIs located in the ANRS. Overall, this research aimed to add to the current body of information and practices

about higher education leadership and its impact on organizational success. Hence, based on the analysis made, HEIs under study are practicing a model of adaptive leadership to give solutions to the current uncertain challenges that face the institutions and become effective institutions to further attain their expected goals. The findings imply that the current challenges have made the HEIs leadership practice a model appropriate for the political, technological, and social contexts of the current world and the nation. Concerning the effectiveness of the institutions, the result indicates that the overall status of the institutions is perceived as effective. However, even though it is said to be effective, there are variations in the attainment of different dimensions of organizational effectiveness. Moreover, the result designates a positive and significant relationship in evaluating the relationship between adaptive leadership and organizational effectiveness. This reveals that the more adaptive leadership is practiced in the HEIs, the better the attainment of organizational objectives and goals. Accordingly, the results of this study indicate that the application of adaptive leadership in institutions has significant predictive power for organizational effectiveness. It is also stated that the total variation in organizational effectiveness is explained by adaptive leadership. This implies that practicing adaptive leadership through considering all dimensions significantly contributes to the effectiveness of the institutions under study.

Recommendations

The findings of this study demonstrate that practicing adaptive leadership in public HEIs leads to maximizing the level of organizational effectiveness. As a result, it is recommended that HEI leadership at every level develop knowledge of the adaptive leadership framework through continuous training to employ adaptive leadership properly to develop organizational effectiveness and achieve the intended goals of the institutions. In addition, the leadership of HEIs, considering their current competitive environment, should develop methods to enhance the quality of teaching-learning, community engagement, doing research, and developing sustainably. Besides, HEI leaders should establish a set of organizational procedures for implementing different perspectives on disseminating knowledge within HEIs, which could lead to higher productivity and effectiveness. Furthermore, the concerned governmental ministry should think about the possible ways of implementing adaptive leadership in HEIs to overcome the current uncertain challenges facing institutions in the country.

Limitations and Further Research

The study findings could give sight to leaders of the HEIs under study and other stakeholders to the current status of adaptive leadership practices and their effect on the organizational effectiveness of the institutions. However, as to other research works, this study, like all research projects, has limitations. First, the research considers the practice of the leadership model and its effect on six sample public HEIs located in one regional state of Ethiopia. Hence, the results and conclusions could not be generalized to all public universities in the country. As a result, further research is needed to fully comprehend the consequences of adaptive leadership on the outcome variables in the higher education sector (public and private) of the country.

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