



SCHOOL OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES

A STUDY OF THE IMPACT OF LEADERSHIP STYLES ON
PERFORMANCE IN ZIMBABWE STATE-OWNED ENTERPRISES: THE
CASE OF AIR ZIMBABWE AND THE NATIONAL RAILWAYS OF
ZIMBABWE (BETWEEN 2000-2010)

BY
CELESTINO CHINGURUVE
PHD6831009

SUPERVISOR:
PROF. ROY M. MUKWENA

Submitted to the School of Postgraduate Studies in partial fulfilment of
the requirements of the Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in Governance and
Leadership of the University of Lusaka

2019

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that “A study of the impact of leadership styles on performance in Zimbabwean State-Owned Enterprises: The Case of Air Zimbabwe and the National Railways of Zimbabwe” is my own work. It is submitted for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Governance and Leadership at the University of Lusaka, Zambia. I, the under signed, declare that this thesis is my original work and also declare that this dissertation has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other institution of higher learning, and that all references have, to the best of my knowledge, been correctly reported.

NAME: Celestino Chinguruve

SIGNATURE:

DATE:

SUPERVISOR: Prof Roy M. Mukwena

SIGNATURE:

DATE:

UNIVERSITY OF LUSAKA

RELEASE FORM

NAME OF AUTHOR: CELESTINO CHINGURUVE

TITLE OF PROJECT: A Study of the Impact of leadership styles on performance in Zimbabwean State-Owned Enterprises: The Case of Air Zimbabwe and National Railways of Zimbabwe

PROGRAMME FOR WHICH THE PROJECT WAS PRESENTED: Degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in Governance and Leadership

YEAR GRANTED: 2019

Permission is hereby granted to the University of Lusaka Library to produce single copies of this project and to lend or sell such copies for private, scholarly or scientific research purposes only. The author reserves other publication rights and neither the project nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's written permission.

SIGNED:

DEDICATION

I wish to dedicate this piece of work to my beloved wife the late Margret Chinguruve, the woman who saw the development of my life from childhood to manhood. And yet, she is with me each day in the memory of her last smile.

She will always be my inspiration. I will always cherish her candid love, care, and persistence to my happiness.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper was to examine the impact of leadership style on organisational performance of State-Owned Enterprises in Zimbabwe. The Descriptive and Explanatory study was conducted with a population of 300 selected from all the participating State-Owned Enterprises. Purposive, random and convenience sampling techniques were adopted in selecting respondents for the study, while relevant data was gathered with the aid of a structured questionnaire and interviews. The Descriptive and Explanatory research method was adopted. The research analysed various leadership styles and theories and their impact on performance of organisations. The relationship between the independent and the dependent variables was analysed and tested via Pearson Chi Square Tests with the aid of SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences, version 20.0). The findings of this study pointed out that a close relationship exists between leadership style and performance of the organisation. The following recommendations were made. There should be training of managers and employees on the principles that are very important for effective performance. And also those employees should be effectively motivated. Management should also create enabling environment and rules for both leaders and subordinates to carry out activities together as this will give all employee sense of a belonging. Based on the findings of this study, it is concluded that leadership style has both positive and negative effect on organizational performance. The study found that transactional and transformational democratic leadership styles, in which employees are allowed to have sense of belonging, carry out higher responsibility with little supervision, and followers are helped to achieve their visions and needs enhance organizational efficiency. It is recommended that, State-Owned Enterprises operating within the scope of the study should adopt appropriate leadership styles based on the demands of the situation in order to achieve the desired organisational performance. The study recommended

that transactional and transformational, democratic leadership styles should be employed by State-Owned Enterprises` management in order to enhance performance of the organisation. It also strongly recommended that there should be political will and commitment from central government and to curb corruption which is a cancer

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page	
UNIVERSITY OF LUSAKA	II
DEDICATION.....	III
ABSTRACT	IV
LIST OF FIGURES.....	IX
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	XIV
CHAPTER ONE	1
1.0 INTRODUCTION TO BACKGROUND.....	1
1.1 AIR ZIMBABWE BACKGROUND.....	3
1.2 NATIONAL RAILWAYS OF ZIMBABWE BACKGROUND.....	5
1.4 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM.....	9
1.5 RESEARCH PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES.....	10
1.5.1 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY	10
1.5.2 SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	11
THE BROAD OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY IS:	11
□ TO ESTABLISH IMPACT OF LEADERSHIP STYLES ON PERFORMANCE IN ZIMBABWEAN STATE OWNED ENTERPRISES.....	11
THE SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY ARE:	11
□ TO IDENTIFY AND EXPLAIN THE SPECIFIC LEADERSHIP STYLES EXHIBITED BY MANAGERS AND THEIR IMPACT ON PERFORMANCE AT AIR ZIMBABWE AND THE NATIONAL RAILWAYS OF ZIMBABWE.....	11
□ TO ASSESS THE IMPACT OF OTHER LEADERSHIP CHALLENGES ON PERFORMANCE AT AIR ZIMBABWE AND THE NATIONAL RAILWAYS OF ZIMBABWE.....	11
□ TO EXAMINE THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLES AND PERFORMANCE AT AIR ZIMBABWE AND THE NATIONAL RAILWAYS OF ZIMBABWE	11
1.5.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....	11
1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY.....	12
1.7 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	12

1.8 ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY.....	12
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	13
2.0 INTRODUCTION	13
2.1 RESEARCH GAPS	14
2.2 THE CONCEPT OF LEADERSHIP	15
2.3.0 LEADERSHIP THEORIES	17
2.3.1 TRAIT.....	17
2.3.2 BEHAVIOURAL THEORY	18
2.3.3 SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP	19
2.3.4 RELATIONSHIP/TRANSFORMATIONAL THEORY	20
2.4.0 LEADERSHIP STYLES.....	21
2.4.1 TRANSFORMATIONAL.....	21
2.4.2 TRANSACTIONAL.....	22
2.4.3 LAISSEZ-FAIRE LEADERSHIP	23
2.4.4 BUREAUCRATIC LEADERSHIP	24
2.4.5 AUTOCRATIC LEADERSHIP	24
2.4.6 DEMOCRATIC LEADERSHIP.....	25
2.5 IMPORTANCE OF LEADERSHIP STYLES	25
2.6 LEADERSHIP AND ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE.....	28
2.7 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP AND ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE.....	31
2.8 CONCLUSION	37
CHAPTER THREE: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	39
3.0 INTRODUCTION	39
FIGURE 3.1 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK	40
CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	41
4.0. INTRODUCTION	41
4.1. RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY	42
4.2 RESEARCH PARADIGMS (APPROACH).....	42
4.4 RESEARCH DESIGN	45
4.4.1 QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE DESIGN	46
4.5 TARGET POPULATION.....	50
4.5.1 SAMPLING TECHNIQUES.....	52
4.5.6 SAMPLE SIZE.....	54
4.6 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS	55

4.6.1 QUESTIONNAIRES	57
4.6.2 IN-DEPTH INTERVIEWS	59
4.6.3 MEASURING OF RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS	61
4.6.5 VALIDITY.....	64
4.8 CONCLUSION	68
5.1 BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF RESPONDENTS	70
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS SHOWING MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION AND VARIANCE DEMOGRAPHICS	73
TABLE 5.3	73
5.2.0 LEADERSHIP AND PERFORMANCE SECTION.....	74
5.3 TESTING FOR INDEPENDENCE OF ASSOCIATION (NON – PARAMETRIC TESTS).....	124
CHAPTER SIX: FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION.....	129
6.0 INTRODUCTION.....	129
SUMMARY OF MAJOR FINDINGS.....	169
CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	171
7.0 INTRODUCTION.....	171
7.1 CONCLUSIONS.....	171
7.2 RECOMMENDATIONS	176
BIBLIOGRAPHY	180
APPENDIX A.....	201
QUESTIONNAIRE.....	201
APPENDIX B	208
INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE.....	208

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
3.1 Conceptual Framework.....	46
5.2.1 Leadership Style in the Organisation.....	90
5.2.2 Characteristics of an Effective Leader.....	92
5.2.3 Delegate Duties to Subordinates.....	94
5.2.4 Responsibilities backed up by Adequate Authority.....	96
5.2.5 Leadership Style Improve Employees` Performance.....	98
5.2.6 Task Oriented Leadership Style improves Employee Performance.....	100
5.2.7 Transactional-Transformational Leadership Style Improves Employee Performance.....	102
5.2.8 Type of Leadership Style in the Organisation.....	104
5.2.9 Leadership has an Impact on Organisational Performance.....	106
5.2.10 Open and Sharing of Communication.....	108
5.2.11 Consulted in Decision Making.....	110
5.2.12 Commitment Improves Performance.....	112
5.2.13 Performance of the Company.....	114
5.2.14 Responsibility for this Level of Performance.....	115

5.2.15 Factors Stated to Enhance Organisational Performance in the Company.....	117
5.2.16 Counter High Organisational Performance.....	119
5.2.17 Not Recently Promoted.....	121
5.2.18 Decision of Promotion.....	123
5.2.19 Motivation.....	125
5.2.20 Receiving on Job Training.....	127
5.2.21 Kind of Training.....	129
5.2.22 Motivated in Response to their Efforts and Contributions.....	131
5.2.23 Performance Measurement Existing in their Organisation.....	133
5.2.24 Leaders` take errors.....	135
5.2.25 Rewards and Recognition are tied to Performance.....	137
5.2.26 Company is a Good Place to Work.....	139
5.2.27 Showing Care and Concern.....	141
5.2.28 Celebration of Success.....	143

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
5.1 Response Rate.....	84
5.2 Summary of Demographic Data.....	85
5.3 Descriptive Statistics Showing Mean, Standard Deviation and Variance.....	86
5.4 Leadership style on the organisation.....	89
5.5 Characteristic of an Effective Leader.....	91
5.6 Delegate of Duties to Subordinates.....	93
5.7 Responsibilities are backed up by Adequate Authority.....	94
5.8 Leadership Style Improve Employees` Performance.....	97
5.9 Task Oriented Improve Leadership Style Performance.....	99
5.10 transactional-transformational leadership style improve employees` performance.....	99
5.11 Type of Leadership Style in the Organisation.....	103
5.12 Leadership Has an Impact on Organisational Performance.....	105
5.13 Open and Sharing of Communication.....	107
5.14 Consulted In Decision Making.....	109
5.15 Commitment Improves Performance.....	111

5.16 performance of the company.....	113
5.17 Factor Stated to Enhance Organisational Performance in the Company.....	116
5.18 Counter High Organisational Performance.....	118
5.19 Not Recently Promoted.....	120
5.20 Decision of Promotion.....	122
5.21 Motivation.....	124
5.22 Receiving on Job Training.....	126
5.23 Kind of Training.....	128
5.24 Motivated In Response to Their Efforts and Contributions.....	130
5.25 Performance Measurement Existing in their Organisation.....	132
5.26 Leaders Take Errors.....	134
5.27 Rewards and Recognition are Tied To Performance.....	136
5.28 Company Is A Good Place to Work.....	138
5.29 Showing Care And Concern.....	139
5.30 Celebration of success.....	142
5.31 Leadership Style Has an Impact On Organisational Performance.....	144
5.32 Supportive Leadership Style Improve Employees` Performance.....	145

5.33 Task Oriented Leadership Style Improve Employees` Performance.....146

5.34 Transactional-Transformational Leadership Style Improve Employees` Performance.....147

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The successful completion of this thesis would not have been possible without the support, guidance and assistance of many people, amongst others, the following need special mention:

God has been faithful to me. I offer my first and foremost thanks to God for his abundant blessings throughout my study.

My profound gratitude goes to my able and encouraging supervisor, Professor Royson Mukwena, for his immense contributions, comments, suggestions, monitoring and kindness shown me. God bless you. Your support was great.

I offer special thanks to Doctor Kapambwe the Dean, Postgraduate Studies, and all lecturers and non-teaching staff of University of Lusaka, for their support and services during my study period. You really demonstrated friendship. I could not have made it without you.

Special thanks to my children, for sacrificing many hours without their father. I am also highly indebted to my entire family for their moral support and encouragement. The support and love of my all my siblings Michelle, Celestine and Cecilia was simply infectious. I love you all.

I would like to sincerely thank my research assistants for their wonderful support; Miss. F. Mudondo for data collection and analysis, and Miss P. Gavaza who spent a number of hours on the computer doing proof reading this manuscript.

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION TO BACKGROUND

The main aim of any organization is to sustain competitive advantage and considered to be effective between the demands of various stakeholders and the needs of the employees. Based on the previous studies in related field, it has been demonstrated that an appropriate leadership style can influence the success and the economic growth of both the organizations and employee's performance (Yukl,2013, Kouzes and Posner, 2007). Leadership style is the manner and approach of providing direction, implementing plans, and motivating people in order to achieve organisational goals and objectives.

The research work focussed on the review of relevant literature. Effort was made towards obtaining previous works on the topic of this study and related topic for review purposes. Appropriate journals, periodicals, newspapers, write ups and seminar/conference papers dealing on impact of leadership styles on organizational performance with specific reference to Zimbabwe State-Owned Enterprises were reviewed. The research also discussed leadership styles and their main types, relevant theories of the study, relationship between impact of leadership on employee performance and factors affecting the choice of leadership styles, role of leadership to employee performance.

During the last few decades,' hundreds of laboratory and field studies have been conducted to investigate the nature of leadership styles that exists in organisations. Examples are studies done by the Ohio State University, Michigan University, Managerial Grid, etc. Leadership style indicates the pattern and behaviours adopted by the leader during the process of directing and influencing the group members. The choice of a good leadership style is determined by many

variables which include the characteristics of followers, the nature of the work performed by the leader's unit, the type of organization, and the nature of the external environment. The researchers concluded that there is no one best style of leadership to use (Fiedler, 1967).

State-Owned Enterprises provide a diverse service to both the public and corporate institutions thereby providing a platform upon which other economic activities can ride on and grow such as telecommunications or ICTs, transport services and infrastructure, energy and power. These activities facilitate the creation of wealth through industrial sectors as well as the financial and retail sectors. A parastatal is an organisation or agency owned, or controlled wholly or partly by the government (Cullen, Gilmour and Holmes, 2005). The government's strong role in shaping the economy in Zimbabwe resulted in the formation of 78 State-Owned Enterprises. Their primary goal was to strengthen import-substitution industries and to build up a local economy and create employment (Nwankwo and Richards, 2001). Parastatals had to be set up to fill such vacuums especially in areas like steel production, fertiliser manufacturing, air transport and other public utilities, education and health services (Nwankwo and Richards, 2001). It is noteworthy that, in some of these parastatals, the provision of services to the public was a priority only to be followed by the maximisation of profits. It must be noted that state-owned companies rarely make a reasonable return on investment but continue to benefit from government subsidies (Nwankwo and Richards, 2001). State-Owned Enterprises contribute 60% to the G.D.P. and according to Information, Media and Broadcasting Services permanent secretary, George Charamba, parastatals at their best contribute about 60 percent to the country's gross domestic product and their underperformance translates to 60 percent of loss making (Mugabe T, quoted in The Herald of 16 January, 2014). The model structure of operation has always been based on the government owning the majority shareholding in these entities. Each state-owned enterprise has its own parent

ministry where it directly reports. It has overall responsibility in the day to day operations and activities whilst the ministry of state enterprises has the responsibility to oversee the cross cutting policy issues such as corporate governance which is a major challenge to all state entities. Of late the government is considering privatising these loss making entities as they are bleeding the fiscus with no tangible returns. Then one wonders what the source of corporate failure of these entities is.

1.1 AIR ZIMBABWE BACKGROUND

Air Zimbabwe is the national Airline for Zimbabwe whose main purpose is to provide air travel solutions for the Zimbabwean community, the African continent and the world at large. The airline which is wholly owned by the Government of Zimbabwe was founded in 1967 and has been in existence over the years up to present time. Its roots can be traced back to 1946 when it was known as Central Africa Airways and operated as a joint airline for Nyasaland, Southern Rhodesia and Northern Rhodesia. The tripartite operations continued till 1967 when the joint operations ceased leading to the formation of Air Rhodesia. The airline operated as Air Rhodesia till 1980 when the nation attained its independence and the airline adopted the name Air Zimbabwe. The Airline operated as Air Zimbabwe Corporation until 1997 when Air Zimbabwe Pvt Ltd was created in terms of the Air Zimbabwe Corporation Repeal Act No.4 of 1998.

The vision of Air Zimbabwe is to be the leading network Airline connecting Southern African Development Community to the World.

The airline`s proud history hinged on its enviable safety records, the exceptional skills of its pilots, and its fairly strong in-flight customer service. It had a good comprehensive technical and

engineering base which held approvals from civil aviation authority of other countries and from Boeing manufacturing company such that it did third party work for other airlines(IATA,2005).At Independence in 1980 Air Zimbabwe had 18 aircrafts and was a major player on the regional and international scene (Mutambirwa and Turton, 2009).The airline has ten aircrafts left, with only four of these in use while the remaining six aircraft are on care and maintenance due to shortage of spare parts. The other 8 aircrafts were rested due to old age by the Civil Aviation Authority of Zimbabwe (Malaba B, quoted in The Zimbabwe Mail, of 16 July 2016). Air Zimbabwe is drowning in a sea of debt (close to US\$300 million), unresolved labour issues, outstanding salaries, blotted workforce (mismatch between aircraft to employee ratios), ageing equipment and aircraft, suspension from International Air Transport Association(IATA), in-ability to service international routes (i.e. London/Beijing), incessant government interference, inadequate capitalization(Mlambo,2013).

The brain drain at Air Zimbabwe which occurred between the years 2000 and 2005 was so severe that it resulted in low staff morale. According to the airline's sixth annual report (2005), skilled manpower were leaving because 'the organisation's salaries are uncompetitive on the labour market'. Citing dissatisfaction with the airline's uncompetitive salaries, the annual report (2000), stated that staff losses in the Engineering Division were severe, especially those of experienced aeronautical journeymen. So serious was the brain drain that the airline reported that by June 2010, 'more than a quarter of the (staff) complement had less than one year of service with the corporation'. As a result, 'levels of individual performance have fallen owing to the higher proportion of inexperienced staff and the airline had incurred 'exceptional expenditures in training the new recruits'. Similarly, in 2000, it was reported that 140 employees had left the corporation during the year because of poor salaries and that 100 of these were from the Engineering and

Traffic Operations divisions. A further 95 employees left in 2001 and 2005 'in pursuit of higher salaries'. This added to the airline's operational costs because of the need to train new recruits to fill the jobs (Air Zimbabwe Annual report.2007)

Maintenance costs are said to be high and the major cost drivers are Jet A1 fuel, handling fees, navigation fees, crew allowances and aviation insurances. If the airline continues to use the aged aircrafts it would incur 40% of expenditure which it could not afford (Air Zimbabwe Annual report,2006). Air Zimbabwe's cost revenue structure is such that its expenditure is 70% in foreign currency, and its foreign currency earnings are only 10%. The airline's top five creditors are ENNA, ASECNA, CATIC, Aero Industrial Sales and American General Supplies and they are threatening to cut their supplies and impound an Air Zimbabwe aircrafts without notice if the airline fails to settle its debts.

Air Zimbabwe was carrying one million passengers per annum. Those were the times when the tourism industry was doing well with good traffic. Air Zimbabwe was then enjoying load factors of about 76% to 80%. At the moment Air Zimbabwe is operating at load factors of 45% and at best days 50% of its utilization (Nleya;2011)

1.2 NATIONAL RAILWAYS OF ZIMBABWE BACKGROUND

The National Railways of Zimbabwe (N.R.Z) was established as a railway company under the Railways act of 1997. Its mandate is to provide freight and passenger services within and outside Zimbabwe. The government inherited a very vibrant railway system which in 1980 was able to conveniently transport passengers and goods (Mutanda, 2014).

The Vision of National Railways of Zimbabwe is to be a provider of world class railway infrastructure and transport services in Zimbabwe by 2020

As for its assets the company owns real estate such as offices and accommodation. The National Railways of Zimbabwe -operated railways in Zimbabwe have a route length of 2,759 km, comprising 1,881 km of mainline and 878 km of branch lines. Some 313 km of the route length, from Dabuka to Harare, was electrified but was vandalised during the period under study. In addition, there is 385 km of track operated by the Bulawayo- Beitbridge -Railway concession. The total track length is 4,313 km. The Zimbabwe railways use a gauge of 1,067 mm which is the same as in all southern African countries. It supports an axle load of 18.5 tons on the main line and most branch lines, this being more than or equal to the axle load in all other countries except South Africa (National Railways of Zimbabwe Annual Reports, 2008-2010).

Zimbabwe also had a well-developed signalling and communication system prior to the deterioration of the past decade. It sits on the centre of Southern African Region and interfaces with contiguous railways on export /import route entries at Mutare/Machipanda for Beira, Sango/Chicualacuala for Maputo, Beitbridge for South Africa, Plumtree for Botswana and Victoria Falls for Zambia. The NRZ`s central position makes it the hub and gateway of the region. By July 2008 it employed about 9000 staff (ITF Rail Union Report, 2008).

Like all public enterprises, the organisation is governed by an act of parliament through legislative instruments under the custodian of the Ministry of Transport in collaboration with the state enterprise committee. The parastatal plays a pivotal role in driving economic activities in all

aspects of the economy. During the 1990s the organisation engaged in human resources structural adjustment strategy that saw job cuts and restructuring of the organisational structure in a bid to turnaround the fortunes of the organisation and improve its performance. The last decade has seen a decline in service delivery by the National Railways of Zimbabwe as a result of a host of reasons (ITF Rail Union Report, 2008). The performance of National Railways of Zimbabwe has been affected by the general decline of the country's economy, neglect of maintenance, lacking spare parts and overdue replacement of equipment which have led to a situation where only one part of the railroad net is in good condition and equipment problems have led to reduced service. Passenger and freight rates are constrained by road competition and, as a government entity, it is hampered by bureaucratic constraints and lack of commercial incentives.

The capacity of the National Railways of Zimbabwe is transportation of 18 metric tonnes of cargo and 18 million passengers annually. The collapse of National Railways of Zimbabwe, was apparent in 2000. Goods transport has declined, from 18 million tonnes in 1998 to 2 million tonnes in 2010. Its performance is below the railway performance benchmark of 12million tons a year (Sumatra, 2011, ITF Rail Union Report, 2008). According to the National Railways of Zimbabwe statistics the locomotives fleet in 2006 was 168 (only 71 were serviceable and 8 682 wagons (only 3 427 were operational), declining to 50 percent of its utilization (Sumatra, 2011). The wagon productivity indicators continue to be low; in fact, the best ever achieved were still much lower than those of the best-run railways in the world. The National Railways of Zimbabwe's entire wagon fleet is older than its 40-year design life. The railways could have carried 50 percent more traffic if it had adequate numbers of locomotives. Low reliability of locomotives is one of the main causes of poor utilization and this has affected its operational performance. As a result, the

National Railways of Zimbabwe has lost a lot of revenue because its previous customers in the agricultural, mining and industrial sectors moved to logistics companies who use road transport because of their reliability and punctuality (Mwase, 2013)

The collapse of NRZ, just like any other sector of the economy was apparent in 2000. The National Railways of Zimbabwe was capable of transporting 12 million tonnes in 1992 and there was a remarkable increase in 1997 when this improved to 19 million. Fast forward to 2014, NRZd is only able to move an average of 1 million tonne cargo (Mwase, 2013). There was a slump in performance. What it consequently means is that the parastatal is no longer able to generate income from the freight services-the avenue where it used to get 95 percent of its revenues (Mwase, 2013).

The National Railways of Zimbabwe has lost a lot of revenue because its previous customers in the agricultural, mining and industrial sectors moved to logistics companies who use road transport (Mwase, 2013). The railway infrastructure produces revenue only when trains circulate, its financial sustainability depends critically on loads, because any empty train represents a potential loss. High traffic density is an essential factor for making railways competitive in the transport market

As if this was not enough, the workforce that was available in the 1980s of 18 000 stands at 7000 (Mwase, 2013). The few workers who remained there go for months without pay. The organisations have been operating as monopolies for a long time and even now and again the government would inject capital to spur operations. Unfortunately, the intended results and service have not been forthcoming. Numerous publications have been made on corruption levels in

parastatals. A lot of inefficiencies have been brought up and people are wondering why such perennial problems continue unabated.

1.4 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The state- owned enterprises Air Zimbabwe and the National Railways of Zimbabwe have been corruptly and poorly managed without any professionalism and are increasingly coming under pressure to perform. The leadership have dismally failed to provide efficient services as well as poor financial performance. These institutions have been reporting perennial losses which in most instances had to be met by government bailouts.

The leadership styles adopted by the leaders and Management of these organisations have a negative impact on their performance of both entities resulting in theft of equipment, cannibalisation of aircraft and wagons, high staff turnover. The contributions of State-Owned Enterprises to the gross domestic product (GDP) of the Zimbabwean economy have declined, leading to loss of job opportunities and poor service delivery because of the unprofitability and rising debt levels(Mlambo,2013). One factor that researchers (Ojukuku,2012) regularly cite as an important contributor to organisational performance within the state-owned enterprises is the leadership styles adopted. The leadership styles adopted by the leaders of these organisations have a positive or negative impact on organisational performance. This will make the employee not put in his/her best for the achievement of the organisational goals. Poor leadership style brings low morale on the part of the workers in the sense that they will feel reluctant in carrying out the job assigned to them. The effect of poor leadership styles on employees will give a negative result

which will lead to disharmony in the organisation. It can be in the form of industrial strike action, demonstrating, poor response to management rule and regulations.

1.5 RESEARCH PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES

1.5.1 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Using the case studies of Air Zimbabwe and the National Railways of Zimbabwe (NRZ), the main aim of the research is to evaluate the impact of leadership styles on performance in state enterprises in Zimbabwe. The study centres on the concept of leadership styles, theories and their impact on employee performance, to identify the different leadership styles and their link with employee performance, to ascertain the relationship between leadership styles on employee morale and motivation, and to establish the impact of leadership styles on organisation survival.

1.5.2 SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

The broad objective of the study is:

- ❖ To establish impact of leadership styles on performance in Zimbabwean State Owned Enterprises

The specific objectives of the study are:

- ❖ To identify and explain the specific leadership styles exhibited by managers and their impact on performance at Air Zimbabwe and the National Railways of Zimbabwe.
- ❖ To assess the impact of other leadership challenges on performance at Air Zimbabwe and the National Railways of Zimbabwe.
- ❖ To examine the relationship between leadership styles and performance at Air Zimbabwe and the National Railways of Zimbabwe

1.5.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

To achieve direct results this study would seek to answer the following questions;

The main research question of the study is:

- Explain the nexus/connection between leadership styles and performance at Zimbabwe State Own Enterprises.

The secondary research questions of the study are:

- What leadership styles are exhibited by managers and their impact on performance at the National Railways of Zimbabwe and Air Zimbabwe?
- To what extent do other leadership challenges affect performance at the National Railways of Zimbabwe and Air Zimbabwe?
- What is the relationship between leadership styles and performance at the National Railways of Zimbabwe and Air Zimbabwe?

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

The study is focused on the impact of leadership styles on the performance of Zimbabwean state owned companies. The research work is aimed at improving employee performance through the various leadership styles. It is also aimed at highlighting the relationship between leadership styles and employee motivation, the significance of leadership styles on organisation`s survival. It will also serve as reference document to students, government, other researchers and scholars, leaders, employees by contributing towards the advancement of knowledge in management and other field. Customers will receive better services and products and with effective leadership, employees` morale will be boosted leading to higher performance. Furthermore, leaders will get useful insights on how to be effective leaders. If these state owned entities are managed well they become self-reliant and huge savings would be realised. The savings realised would go a long way in helping policy makers to channel the funds to other sectors of the economy like health, education and creation of employment.

1.7 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The research was conducted at two state owned enterprises namely Air Zimbabwe and National Railways of Zimbabwe`s head offices targeting both managers and non-managerial employees. They were chosen because of their importance to the growth of economy and that they are characterised with poor performance. Both women and men will participate in the study.

1.8 ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY

The researcher made assumptions that the data collection instruments had validity and would measure the desired constructs and the respondents would answer questions correctly and truthfully and that a significant number of questionnaires would be returned and being correctly filled and in due time

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews the literature on leadership theories and styles and the impact of leadership styles on performance. The current body of knowledge on leadership is reviewed focusing on the espoused link between theory and practice within different contexts in line with the research objectives and questions of the study.

In the past few years, there is a rebellion change in the ways leaders and their attitudes are defined, moving from more autocratic to a more participative approach (Burns, 1985). In the world of global economy people are becoming more eloquent and more educated; they require an environment of participation and more involvement in decisions (Bennis, 2007). There are different styles of leadership ranging from autocratic, charismatic, participative, situational, bureaucratic, democratic, laissez-faire, transactional, and transformational leadership (Mosadeghrad, 2003 and Goleman, 2000). Every leader should know the different styles for different situations and should be familiar with time of demonstration of a particular style (Rad and Yarmohammadian, 2006). The choice of a leadership style can impact negatively or positively on performance. Hence this study seeks to find out the impact of leadership styles on performance in state owned enterprises in Zimbabwe between 2000 and 2010.

2.1 RESEARCH GAPS

Past research, historical data, books in the library, catalogues, databases, Internet, were widely accessed to arrive at the gaps in literature. The intensive review of literature revealed that there is

no dearth of researches focussed on impact of leadership styles in Zimbabwe State-Owned Enterprises. More specifically, there is little research examining the impact of leadership behaviours on organizational performance within governmental entities. Consequently, the purpose of this paper is to empirically examine whether leadership styles of leaders in governmental settings impact public sector organizational performance.

Therefore, the intention of the researcher was to find out how far the leadership styles impacted on organisational performance in these selected organisations which are of repute world-wide. The results of the study would equip the organisational leadership to determine which styles to adopt so that the employees are more committed and motivated and hence have a much better engagement and connect with the organisation. Adoption of the appropriate style will help induce trust and loyalty for the organisation. Also the research intends to bridge the gap between theory and practice.

Despite the limitations and subjectivity of each type of criterion and the multidimensional nature of performance, the use of multiple performance indicators obtained through different methods seems desirable in leadership-performance research. Methodological problems limit most studies. Therefore, multiple performance measurement criteria should be adopted in order to enhance validity and reliability of the study. A specific concern is the measurement of organisational performance, particularly for State-Owned Enterprises (Holloway,2000). Given this, performance is not indicated by profits or losses the public enterprise might make but rather the efficiency and effectiveness of the service provided are the key indicators of performance. Hence, this study used utilization capacity and financial performance as proxy measure of organisational performance in order to fill the gap. Higher utilisation can reduce the cost per unit of output, thus making a business more competitive

2.2 THE CONCEPT OF LEADERSHIP

Theories on leadership generally argue (Bass and Aolio,2009, Yukl,2013) that when leaders to exhibit appropriate leadership styles to the situation or context they are in, they make high performance and employees are satisfied in their job. Recently there has been a renewed interest in leadership (Stodgill, 1964). The study of leadership has been an important and central part of the literature on management and organisational behaviour for several decades. Indeed, no other role in organisations has received more attention than that of the leader (Bolden, 2004; Adair 2011). Therefore, there appears to be some general agreement that leadership style have an impact on performance. Most scholars have come to the conclusion that the concept of leadership does not attribute to one specific definition. On this basis, leadership can be said to imply “the one who shows others the way”. As Peretomode (2012), rightly argues, this explanation derived from the root word gives insight into what leadership is all about. Leadership, therefore, can be defined comprehensively and comprehensibly as: an art or process by which a member of a group or organisation persuades, inspires, influences the attitudes, behaviour and actions of others and directs their activities so that the group or organisation members work willingly, cooperatively and enthusiastically toward the accomplishment of set goals (Peretomode, 2012).

Leadership has to do with the active use of a person`s ability, and talents towards influencing others in the achievement of a common or mutual goal (Ahmad, 2014). Leadership is important in every institution as a result of its overarching effects on the accomplishment of organisational objectives, policies, programmes and plans. The relationship between leadership and performance is most evident in sport where results are immediate and obvious (Maxwell 1999).

Normative Decision Theory is a theory of leadership that focuses on the correct norms or standards of behaviour for leaders to follow. Although it focuses on correct norms in decision-making, it is concerned with the extent to which leaders allow their subordinates to participate in decision-making. It proposes five styles of leader behaviour ranging from the autocratic style in which decisions are made solely by the leader to complete participation by subordinates and during which decisions are reached through consensus. Under this theory, the most effective style of leadership depends on the importance of the decision, the degree to which subordinates accept it, and the time required making the decision (Avolio and Bass, 2004). Leaders must be flexible in selecting the decision making approach that yields maximum benefits in terms of quality, acceptance and time constraints. Researchers have found leadership styles to be important determinants of organisational success (Bass and Avolio, 1990, Saenz, 2011, DuBrin, 2012). Organisations today need people with leadership ability they believe to bring assets and success to their organisations (Northouse, 2007). Good leadership has the ability to bring change in relation to environmental demands (Schermerhorn, 2008). It is considered the solution to most organisational problems (Yukl, 2013). Saenz (2011), notes that effective leaders have the ability to lead organisations to success by paying more attention to expected future events and environmental change. Leadership plays a vital role in establishing high-performing teams and is one of the critical elements in enhancing organisational performance (Northouse, 2007, Betroci, 2009, DuBrin, 2012). It has been identified as one of the key factors in promoting innovation (Jung et al., 2003).

2.3.0 LEADERSHIP THEORIES

Many researchers show their keen interest in studying leadership as a subject which resulted in establishment of different leadership theories. Fenwick and Gayle (2008), determine that

leadership behaviour can be used to create a significant impact on employees in order to improve organisation performance. Rarely is there a one-size-fits-all solution to any problem and the practical application gap is no exception. According to Northouse (2010), there have been as many as 65 different classifications of leadership systems developed over the last 60 years. This paper sought to review three management/leadership theories in an effort to determine if a combination of the three theories could not only meet the basic tenants of transformational leadership but would also provide a solution to the practical application gap. This paper reviewed the following three theories; Trait Theory; Situational-Leadership Theory; and Behavioural Theory.

2.3.1 TRAIT

Similar in some ways to great man theories, the trait theory assumes that people inherit certain qualities or traits make them better suited to leadership. Trait theories often identify particular personality or behavioural characteristics that are shared by leaders. Many have begun to ask of this theory, however, if particular traits are key features of leaders and leadership, how do we explain people who possess those qualities but are not leaders? Inconsistencies in the relationship between leadership traits and leadership effectiveness eventually led scholars to shift paradigms in search of new explanations for effective leadership. The trait theory does not indicate the order of importance of the traits. In addition, he mentioned that trait approach to study leadership failed to differentiate between traits that are required for attaining leadership are essential to sustain it. He further observed that the trait model assumes that an individual data profile lacks any serious analysis of behaviours.

The underlying gaps, criticisms and challenges of defining, explain and measuring the concept of traits led to emergence of the behavioural theories.

2.3.2 BEHAVIOURAL THEORY

The underlying gaps, criticisms and challenges of defining, explaining, and measuring the concept of traits and trait theory led to the emergence of behavioural theories. The trait theory encountered a barrage of criticisms for failing to establish a set of distinguishing traits that leaders possess. This led to scholars and practitioners to focus their attention on actions rather than attributes of leaders. Thus, attention shifted away from effective leaders on society to what effective leaders can do in terms of how they execute their work and delegate tasks to others. Behavioural theories of leadership are based on the belief that great leaders are made, not born. This leadership theory focuses on the actions of leaders not on intellectual qualities or internal states. According to the behavioural theory, people can learn to become leaders through training and observation. Boerner (2007) and Bohn (2002) note that interest in the behaviour of leaders has been stimulated by a systematic comparison of autocratic and democratic leadership styles. It has been observed that groups under these types of leadership perform differently: Autocratically led groups will work well so long as the leader is present. Group members, however, tend to be unhappy with the leadership style and express hostility. Democratically led groups do nearly as well as the autocratic group. Group members have more positive feelings, however, and no hostility.

On the other hand, the efforts of group members continue even when the leader is not present. An integral part of the behavioural leadership theory embraces the idea that an individual may be born with leadership abilities. The focus of the behavioural leadership theory is that the actions of leaders are more important than intrinsic characteristics. This implies that everyone could be a leader but the behavioural model ignores traits that are essential for leaders to succeed. The underlying gaps, criticisms and challenges of defining, explain and measuring the concept of behavioural theory led to emergence of the Situational /Contingents theories.

2.3.3 SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Challenges and lapses that were associated with trait and behavioural theories of leadership gave rise to contingency or situational approach of leadership. After five decades of serious research works on leadership, Williams (2012) and Bass and Riggio (2012) concluded that no specific leadership traits and behaviours have universal acceptance and application.

Situational theory proposes that leaders choose the best leadership style based upon situational conditions or circumstances. Different styles of leadership may be more appropriate for different types of decision-making. For example, in a situation where the leader is expected to be the most knowledgeable and experienced member of a group, an authoritarian style of leadership might be most appropriate. In other instances, where group members are skilled experts and expect to be treated as such, a democratic style may be adopted. Hersey and Blanchard model accrued, problems with the construct appeared. Charlton (2000) described three flaws with SLT dealing with its consistency, continuity, and conformity. Chan and Chan (2005) agreed, noting lack of internal consistency, conceptual contradictions, and ambiguities. Other scholars suggested additional weaknesses of SLT (Bass and Avolio, 2004; Daft (2008). Research revealed that no particular leadership style was universally effective and behavioural theories relied on abstract leadership types that were difficult to identify (Bass and Avolio, 2004). This led to the emergency of Transactional-Transformational Theory.

2.3.4 RELATIONSHIP/TRANSFORMATIONAL THEORY

In search for a better conceptual framework to define and explain leadership, scholars and researchers have combined the great man's trait, behavioural, and contingency theories to develop

new integrative leadership theory. The main thrust of the full range of leadership theory is that for any organisation to attain its objectives, goals and vision, there must be a definite and mutually acceptable relationship between leaders and their followers. Leaders must recognize that without the support and loyalty from their subordinates and followers they cannot perform.

Transformational theories is also known as relationship theories, and it focusses on the relationship between leaders and followers. With this theory, leadership is the process by which a person engages with others and is able to “create a formidable relationship which results in increased motivation and morality in both followers and leaders. Relationship theories are often compared to charismatic leadership theories in which leaders with certain qualities, such as confidence, extroversion, and clearly stated values, are seen as best able to motivate followers (Yukl, 2013). Relationship or transformational leaders motivate and inspire people by helping group members see the importance and higher good of the task. These leaders are focused on the performance of group members, but also on each person to fulfilling his or her potential. Leaders of this style often have high ethical and moral standards (Bass and Riggio, 2012). Although the majority of theories appear to be sound, there is often a distinct and significant gap between theory and practice. The contemporary leader needs to employ a system that not only works in practice but can also be replicated in order to ensure continued successes as generations pass. The shortcoming of each of these newly emerging leadership theories has been the lack of practical application when dealing with a non-compliant audience. This paper reviewed literature concerning three principal leadership theories identified as; Trait Theory, Situational Leadership, and Behaviour Leadership. The purpose of this paper was to determine whether the three theories listed above, when used in conjunction, would reduce the practical application gap present in the majority of leadership and management theories.

The literature revealed numerous commonalities between these three leadership theories primarily in the importance of developing a strong leader-follower relationship. In addition, as the theories demonstrate, these three theories should be used interchangeably as well as in conjunction in an effort to reduce the effects of the practical application gap.

2.4.0 LEADERSHIP STYLES

2.4.1 TRANSFORMATIONAL

Transformational leadership style focuses on the development of followers and their needs. Managers exercising transformational leadership style focus on the development of value system of employees, their motivational level and moralities with the development of their skills (Ismail et al., 2009). Transformational leadership acts as a bridge between leaders and followers to develop clear understanding of follower's interests, values and motivational level. It basically helps followers achieve their goals working in the organisational setting; it encourages followers to be expressive and adaptive to new and improved practices and changes in the environment (Bass, 1994). Thus, Yukl (2002) concluded that transformational leaders suffer from an illusion of superhuman leadership prejudice. Such leaders think that they are exceptional because they always maintain and stress that the most important determinant to get people to achieve outstanding performance is leadership. Scholars and researchers have also failed to recognize that just as leaders can influence their followers, followers are actively influencing their leaders at all times.

2.4.2 TRANSACTIONAL

Transactional leaders display both constructive and corrective behaviours. Constructive behaviour entails contingent reward, and corrective dimension imbibes management by exception.

Contingent reward involves the clarification of the work required to obtain rewards and the use of incentives and contingent reward to exert influence. It takes into consideration follower expectations and provide recognition when goals are achieved. The setting of goals and objectives and providing of recognition once goals are achieved should result in individuals and groups to achieve expected levels of performance (Bass, 1985). Active management by exception allows the leader to set the standards for compliance as well as for what constitutes ineffective performance, and which may include punishing followers for non-compliance with the set standards. This style of leadership requires the close monitoring for deviances, mistakes, and errors and then take corrective action as quickly as possible when they occur (Daft, 2008). In conclusion, transactional leadership is a good model because it emphasizes performance and reward that leaders will give to their followers upon satisfactory completion of a task. In a situation such as in Africa where poverty is widespread, employees may look forward to extrinsic reward in exchange of performance.

2.4.3 LAISSEZ-FAIRE LEADERSHIP

Bennis (2007) and Drucker (2003) mentioned that the laissez-faire or free rein leadership model is the type of behaviour in which leaders display a passive indifference towards their followers. Laissez-faire leaders are predisposed to depart from the leadership responsibility and offer insignificant direction and support to their subordinates. Laissez-faire leaders usually avoid taking decisions; surrender their roles and responsibilities to their subordinates. In addition, they display considerable passive and indifferent attitude towards the needs and concerns of their followers. Bass (1990) observed that Laissez-faire leaders have the tendency to avoid making decisions, abandon their roles and responsibilities and allow their followers to work on their own.

One of the main characteristics of Laissez-faire leadership is that they always want to delegate authority into the hands of their subordinates. They want to avoid taking risk and blame for any failure. Dubrin (2012) and Bennis (2007) however insisted that though leaders would allow their subordinates to make decisions, they still take the ultimate responsibility for the performance of the group or organisation.

The major criticism against the Laisser-faire style of leadership is that leaders fail to take decisions at some critical stages of the group or organisations. They always want to maintain the status quo even where there is overwhelming evidence that change is inevitable for the organisation to survive.

2.4.4 BUREAUCRATIC LEADERSHIP

In this style of leadership, the manager manages “by the book” (Yukl, 2007). It requires total compliance to procedures and rules. Bureaucratic leaders create, and rely on, policy to meet organisational goals. Policies drive execution, strategy, objectives and outcomes. Bureaucratic leaders are most comfortable relying on a stated policy in order to convince followers to get on board (Mullins, 2005). In doing so they send a very direct message that policy dictates direction. Bureaucratic leaders are usually strongly committed to procedures and processes instead of people, and as a result they may appear aloof and highly change adverse. The specific problem or problems associated with using policies to lead are not always obvious until the damage is done. The danger here is that leadership’s greatest benefits, motivating and developing people, are ignored by bureaucratic leaders (Michael, 2010).

2.4.5 AUTOCRATIC LEADERSHIP

Autocratic leaders practise dictatorship among subordinates (Goleman, 2000). These leaders lack experience when leadership is thrust upon them in the form of a new position or assignment that involves people management. Autocratic leaders retain for themselves the decision- making rights. They can damage an organisation irreparably as they force their subordinates to execute strategies and services in a very narrow way, based upon a subjective idea of what success looks like. There is no shared vision and little motivation beyond coercion (Dubrin, 2007). Communication is one way which flows from top to bottom. The commitment, creativity and innovation of followers is typically eliminated by this leadership style. In fact, most followers of autocratic leaders can be described as biding their time, waiting for the inevitable failure this leadership produces and the removal of the leader that follows (Michael, 2010).

2.4.6 DEMOCRATIC LEADERSHIP

Tannenbaum and Schmidt, (1958) describe democratic leadership as one where decision-making is decentralized and shared by subordinates. The potential for poor decision-making and weak execution is, however, significant here. The biggest problem with democratic leadership is its underlying assumption that everyone has an equal stake in an outcome as well as shared levels of expertise with regard to decisions. That is rarely the case. While democratic leadership sounds good in theory, it often is bogged down in its own slow process, and workable results usually require an enormous amount of effort. Good as it is, the concern expressed by Dubrin (2007) is that the participative style of leadership wastes time due to endless meetings and may lead to confusion and lack of direction. By implication, it is not appropriate for use in times of crisis when

the situation demands on-the-spot decision. Seeking advice from an uninformed or incompetent group of subordinates may lead to disaster. However, Goleman *et al.* (2002) posit that a democratic leader keeps staff morale high and therefore positive climate prevails in the organisation. There are significant similarities between this style and Likert's systems III and IV leadership styles.

2.5 IMPORTANCE OF LEADERSHIP STYLES

There is consensus among scholars that the importance of effective leadership cannot be overemphasised. Sashkin and Sashkin (2003), maintain that leadership matters because leaders help reduce ambiguity and uncertainty in organisations or societies. Leaders take constructive acts to achieve long-term goals and provide clear positive reasons for their actions, goals, and accomplishments. In essence, leaders add clarity and direction to life and make life more meaningful. These scholars say that leadership matters because effective leaders make a difference in peoples' lives; they empower followers and teach them how to make meaning by taking appropriate actions that can facilitate change (Maxwell, 1998). Bass and Riggio (2012) argued that business management contends that organisational performance and success depend on leadership style administrative supervisors and leaders pursue. Similarly, Elenkov (2002) maintained that leadership is an important factor that determines how organisations perform. Yukl (2010) and Bennis (2007) posited that the ability of an organisation to perform well depends on the ability of management and executives to apply their leadership style to elicit subordinates' motivation and desires to increase output.

Schermerhorn (2008) and Bass (1985) maintain that leadership is the heart of any organisation because it determines the success or failure of the organisation. Thus, the study of leadership in organisations is closely tied to the analysis of organisations' efficiency and effectiveness. Few

leaders understand the full significance of how influential their leadership style is on the performance and satisfaction of their employees. In recent years, many well-known companies such as Chrysler, Lehman Brothers and Merrill Lynch have either disappeared or were taken over and leadership is believed to be one of the contributing factors to their turmoil (Robbins 2009). Hence, it proves that capable leadership is a critical element in any organisation. Leaders control both interpersonal and material rewards and punishments that often shape employee behaviour and influence an employee's performance, motivation, and attitude (Senior and Fleming, 2006). They can affect an employee's self-image and resulting potential in either a positive or negative way by being supportive, fair, encouraging, or unsupportive, inconsistent, and critical. In addition, they can even affect an employee's health and energy level by creating a stimulating work climate or one filled with tension and fear (Bennis, 2007; Goleman, 2000). The influence of a leader's style reaches greater proportions as the effects on individuals begin to have a cumulative effect on group performance.

The introduction of the new public management system did not include enough effective change in bringing a new meaning and paradigm shift towards performance of State-Owned Enterprises (Benowitz, 2001; Fry, (2003). Furthermore, Yukl (2013) recommended that Sub-Saharan African countries should rethink their development strategies in the establishment of state enterprises. Despite legitimate complaints about SOEs, no government transferred activities of state enterprises or institutions into the private sector because of leadership failures (Nkwanko and Richards, 2011). The inadequate measures in the reforms, policy changes, modalities, and procedures adopted for the implementation of the SOEs in Zimbabwe resulted in the privatisation of public enterprises (Simpson, 2014). Against this background, Sultan (2014) and Simpson (2014) recommended further research into corporate governance failures of privatisation in some African economies.

Furthermore, Simpson advocated a rethinking of African SOEs and strategies to achieve better performance. The various attempts since the 1980s to reform and restructure SOEs attest to the existence of problems with public enterprises (Sultan, 2014). The inefficiency of public enterprises is an under researched area, and Simpson (2014) advocated for research into this phenomenon. Research on reforms and policy changes in SOEs in some developing countries indicated an institutional crisis in the management of SOEs (Betroci, 2009; Cetin, 2006). Researchers on the decline and poor performance of SOEs advocate privatisation as a solution with little information on the causes of their failures (Ojokuku 2013; Hussein 2014; Simpson, 2014). Despite the increasing failure of SOEs in some developing countries, empirical research on this matter remains scant (Muterera, 2012). Moreover, a relative dearth of empirical research exists regarding organisational failure of SOEs in developing economies (Obiwuru, 2011). Organisational failure has been an important area of interest to academicians, scholars, policymakers, and business managers, with the focus on empirical studies of firms in the private sector (Mullins, 2005 and Muterera, 2012; Simpson, 2014). The lack of knowledge of the operations of SOEs in developing countries constitutes a serious gap in the understanding of organisational failure (Muterera, 2012),

2.6 LEADERSHIP AND ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE

Leadership style is a key determinant of the success or failure of any organisation. A leader is person who influences, directs, and motivates others to perform specific tasks and also inspire his subordinates for efficient performance towards the accomplishment of the stated corporate objectives. Leadership style is the manner and approach of providing direction, implementing plans, and motivating people. Relationship between leadership style and organisational performance has been discussed often. Most research showed that leadership style has a significant

relation with organisational performance, and different leadership styles may have a positive correlation or negative correlation with the organisational performance, depending on the variables used by researchers (Fu-Jin et al., 2010; Ojokuku et al., 2012). He further argued that organisational performance depends on various kinds of factors such as leaders' styles and behaviour, leader-subordinate relation, firm size etc. which definitely has a great impact on the performance of a firm. One of the main reason behind this is that assets like leadership behaviours, organisation culture, skill and know-how, and motivation are seen as the most important factors of strength in those firms which involve group, procedures and organisational performance, Avery and Gayle (2008). Therefore, leaders and their leadership style plays a significant role influence both their subordinates and organisational performance.

Researchers have paid considerable attention to the potential effects of leadership on organisational performance. But with increased research into the leadership-performance relationship, major gaps still remain in our understanding. Therefore, this paper reviews the published literature and identifies these gaps, highlighting implications for future research into the leadership-performance relationship. In State-Owned Enterprises (SOEs), the leadership styles of the top management have a strong impact on the innovativeness and the performance of the firm (Riaz and Haide, 2010,). As the competition is becoming stiff by each day, SOEs development requires a new vision and set of directions to help them to become more competitive and have the ability to sustain their businesses. In order to be able to do this, the leadership behaviours of the CEOs would play a major role in ensuring the directions and a clear vision to be shared among employees in their establishments (Glantz, 2002). Without vision people perish.

The impact of leadership styles on organisational performance has been a topic of interest among academics and practitioners working in the area of leadership (Yukl, 2004; Rowe *et al.*, 2005).

Perhaps the most important reason for this interest is the widespread belief that leadership can affect the performance of organisations (Rowe *et al.*, 2005). The style of leadership used is considered by some researchers (e.g. Rao, 2006; Awamleh, 1999; Bass and Riggio 2012; Michael 2010) to be particularly important in achieving organisational objectives, and in enhancing performance among followers (; Jeremy *etal*, 2011; Howell and Shamir, 2005).

Despite these oversights, it is widely believed that leadership style creates the vital link between organisational effectiveness and people's performance at an organisational level (Avolio and Bass, 1999; Bass, 1990; Judge, Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Keller, 2006; McGrath and MacMillan, 2000; 2004; Yukl, 2002). Substantial numbers of researchers on leadership have debated the effectiveness of leadership styles and behaviours (Avery, 2004; Drath, 2001; House and Aditya, 1997; Shamir *et al.*, 1993; Shamir and Howell, 2005; Yukl, 2007). Many existing research leaves many unanswered questions and gaps. Hence this study seeks to fill the gaps.

Due to limitations, in methodologies adopted with most existing studies, the majority of studies have been cross-sectional in design, and the common-method bias often has been a problem when performance has been measured (Barling *et al.*, 2002; Avolio and Bass, 1999; Bass, 1990). The quality of performance measurement is not only important to determining outcomes about whether leadership matters and not all studies have been well designed (Barling *et al.*, 2002). For instance, when selecting measurements of performance, many researchers (e.g. Avery, 2004; Keller, 2006; Avery and Fenwick, 2008) neglected to focus on the relationship between financial performance and customer satisfaction and employee satisfaction, employing either financial measurements or non-financial measurements rather than employing all three in order to enhance the validity of the research. Therefore, attention is needed to ensure that the measurements of organisational performance are adequate and sufficient. No clear picture has emerged about the relationship

between leadership and organisational performance. Despite increased research into the leadership-performance relationship, many problems and gaps remain in existing studies. There is a lack of integration concerning the relationship between leadership and performance, a narrow set of variables has been used in previous studies, and context and levels have been ignored. Therefore, there is a need for clarification

2.7 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP AND ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE

Leadership is a critical management skill, involving the ability to encourage a group of people towards common goal. Leadership focuses on the development of followers and their needs. Several reasons indicate that there should be a relationship between leadership and performance. The first reason relates to practice. Today's intensive, dynamic markets feature innovation-based competition, price/performance rivalry, decreasing returns, and the creative destruction of existing competencies (Fenwick and Gayle 2008; Yukl 2010; Avery, 2004). Scholars and practitioners suggest that effective leadership behaviours can facilitate the improvement of performance when organisations face these new challenges (McGrath and MacMillan, 2000; Michael, 2010).

Understanding the effects of leadership on performance is also important because leadership is viewed by some researchers Zhu et al., 2005 as one of the most important factors for improving in determining organisation's performance. Leadership styles are regarded as a potent source of management development and sustained competitive advantage for organisational performance improvement (Avolio, and Bass, 1999; Rowe, 2001). For example, transactional leadership helps organisations achieve their current objectives more efficiently by linking job performance to valued rewards and by ensuring employees have the resources needed to get the job done (Zhu et

al., 2005). Visionary leaders create a strategic vision of some future state, communicate that vision through framing and use of metaphor, model the vision by acting consistently, and build commitment towards the vision (Avolio, and Bass, 1999; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000). Zhu et al., 2005 suggest that visionary leadership will result in high levels of cohesion, commitment, trust, motivation, and hence performance in the new organisational environments.

Mehra *et al.* (2006) argue that, when some organisations seek efficient ways to enable them to outperform others, a longstanding approach is to focus on the effects of leadership styles. This is because team leaders are believed to play an important role in providing collective norms, that help followers cope with their environments, and coordinating collective action. This leader-centred perspective has provided valuable insights into the relationship between leadership style and team performance (Yukl, 2007; Adair, 2012).

Some researchers (e.g; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Keller, 2006; McGrath and MacMillan, 2000; Meyer and Botha, 2000; Yukl, 2007) have explored the strategic role of leadership, and investigate how to employ leadership paradigms and use leadership styles to improve organisational performance. The reason for this is because intangible assets such as leadership styles, culture, skill and competence, and motivation are seen increasingly as key sources of strength in those firms that can combine people and processes and organisational performance (Jaskaran and Sri-Guru., 2014). Previous research leads to the expectation that leadership paradigms will have direct effects on customer satisfaction, staff satisfaction, and financial performance.

In general, however, the effects of leadership on organisational performance have not been well studied, according to House and Aditya's review (1997). House and Aditya (1997) argued that leadership studies mainly focus excessively on superior-subordinate relationships ignoring other

important functions that leaders perform, and to the exclusion of organisational and environmental variables that play an integral part to mediate the leadership-performance relationship. Another problem with existing leadership research is that the results depend on the level of analysis. House and Aditya (1997) distinguished micro-level research that focuses on the leader in relation to his or her subordinates and immediate superiors, and macro-level research that focuses on the total organisation and its environment.

Some researchers also argue that leaders and their leadership style influence both their subordinates and organisational outcomes (e.g. Rowe, 2005). From the review of literature, it is evident that although some scholars believe that leadership do influence decision making and its effectiveness in organisational performance while others contradict this belief, making comparisons practically impossible. Gaps and unanswered questions still exist. Thus the proposed study is to explore the relationship between leadership and organisational performance thus contributing towards the existing body of knowledge. Despite many researches on leadership-performance relationship conducted by some researchers, the findings are inconclusive and difficult to interpret. Some scholars believe that leadership enhance organisational performance, while others contradict this. Different concepts of leadership have been employed in different studies, making direct comparisons virtually impossible. Levels of leadership have not been distinguished. Gaps and unanswered questions remain. There is a need to re-examine the proposed leadership-performance relationship.

Organisational performance refers to the ability of an enterprise to achieve such objectives as high profit, quality product, large market share, good financial results, and survival at pre-determined time using relevant strategy for action (Koontz and Donnell, 1993). Organisational performance can also be used to view how an enterprise is doing in terms of level of profit, market share and

product quality in relation to other enterprises in the same industry. Consequently, it is the reflection of the most important dependent variable of interests for researchers concerned with just about any area of management (Rao and Krishna, 2006).

According to Rao and Krishna (2006), high performing firms are able to generate a variety of company and society benefits like attracting resources, wealth creation and jobs generation. These authors also claimed that an accurate measure of performance can provide reliable insights into what affects performance and how firms can develop good strategies, arrange resources, meet consumer expectations and compete. Murphy et al. (1996), confirm that growth, profitability and efficiency are the most common form of performance factors in the entrepreneurship literature. This is similar to what has been outlined by Nwankwo and Richards (2001), that growth and profitability represent the dimensions of a firm's economic performance. Understanding the effects of leadership on performance is also important because leadership is seen by some researchers as one of the key driving forces for improving organisational performance.

However, to measure organisational performance has been a persistent source of debate and critique (Azka et al, 2011). Previous research has been heavily criticized for the measures of performance used. For example, Bass (1985) argued that the selection of performance measures in most existing leadership-performance research for their limited perspective, and focus on only a few subjective outcome measures. Knowledge of prior performance may have biased ratings of leadership style and performance (Azka et al.,2011; Dubrin,2007,2012) and the most used criterion measures for assessing the effects of leadership behaviour rely on followers' self-reports of commitment to the organisation's goals, satisfaction with the leader, and perceived leader effectiveness (Azka et al, 2011; Cetin,2006; Chan and Chan,2005).

Considering the limitations of each type of styles and the multidimensional nature of performance, Fenwick and Gayle, (2008) agreed that the use of multiple performance indicators obtained through different methods seems desirable in leadership-performance research. Therefore, comparison of the relationships found with different performance outcomes may reveal information about the magnitude of possible measurement biases, while providing a more accurate estimate of the 'true' relationship between leadership styles and organisational performance (Fenwick and Gayle, 2008; Gaudreau,2012).

The definition of leadership is contentious, many practitioners argue that leadership creates the link between organisational effectiveness and people's performance at an organisational (Yukl 2001). Many authors assert that leadership behaviours can enhance the improvement of both leaders' leadership capability and induce or encourage employees to work better and improve their commitment and satisfaction (Jeremy etal, 2012). This ultimately contributes to enhancing organisational performance.

Therefore, research into the leadership styles and performance relationship is not conclusive. Many researchers have examined the effectiveness of leadership behaviours (Muterera 2012; Avery, 2004; Drath, 2001; House and Aditya, 1997; Shamiret *al.* 1993; Shamir and Howell, 1999; Yukl, 1999). These reseachers conclude that existing researches on the leadership-performance relationship is full of difficulties and has many unsolved questions, including methodological problems. This could hinder conclusions to be drawn about the extent to which leadership styles facilitate the improvement of organisational performance. Therefore, this study highlights some of the problems and gaps in existing research, which are discussed and summarised in the following paragraphs.

The problem relates to the quality of performance measurement. When selecting the measurements of performance, previous researchers have employed either financial measurements or non-financial measurements, rather than employing both kinds of measures in order to enhance the validity of the research. They have neglected the interrelationship between financial performance and customer satisfaction and employee satisfaction. This provides a narrow measurement of performance that may not have appropriately evaluated the sought-after performance effects appropriately. Thus, both objective measurements and subjective measurements of performance are essential in order to enhance research validity.

The significance of this study is apparent in both its contributions to the literature as well as practice. First, a review of literature suggests that very few studies (e.g. Boyne, 2003; Kim 2003) have tested the linkage between leadership styles and organisational performance state-owned enterprises in Zimbabwe. As best as the researcher can tell, no studies have been done within the state-owned enterprises context to examine the relationship between transactional-transformational leadership styles and organisational performance. Therefore, this research seeks to extend prior theoretical and empirical work by covering this gap.

The previous studies by Bass, (1985) have focused on a limited range of leadership styles like transactional and visionary while other leadership styles have been left when researching the leadership-performance relationship. This truncates leadership measurements. While Bass (1985) has opined that visionary leadership is always more effective than transactional leadership, other researchers which include Avery, (2004); Williams, (2012) argue that there is no single leadership style that is the most effective. Instead, an organisation should use the leadership style that suits the situation in which the leadership and followers interact. Therefore, future research should be

extended by encompassing a broad conceptualisation of leadership such as that offered by Avery's (2004) four leadership styles. This broadens the scope of the leadership perspectives and measures.

Most previous empirical studies on the impact of leadership styles on performance (Fenwick and Gayle, 2008) have been directed toward individual-level outcomes, such as individual satisfaction and performance. Little or no attention has been paid to the influence of a leader on group or organisational processes and outcomes (Conger, 1999; Yukl, 1999). Yukl (2002) asserts that the visionary leadership literature has focused too narrowly on dyadic processes, and calls for greater attention to team-based studies. Both of these issues represent additional gaps in the existing research.

Even where previous studies have examined the relationship between leadership styles and organisational performance and have shown that there is a positive relationship, none has explained the nature of this relationship, and how and why leadership affects performance of the organisation.

In the search for the type of leadership style that will achieve the levels of employee performance necessary for the overall performance of organisations it is clear that there are many ways of understanding leadership (Hannagan,2002). These should be provided by using effective leadership styles. Maxwell (2002) says that 21st century leader is one who empowers others to be leaders. Managers and supervisors must know the techniques, challenges and benefits of facilitative leadership (Howell and Shamir, 2005). According to him, "the old world was composed of bosses who told you what to do and think and made all the decisions. In the new world, no manager can know everything or make every decision now to be successful, a manager has to work in partnership and in collaboration with everyone, in other to tap everyone's ideas and intelligence.

Managers now are coach, counsellors and team builders. The leadership style leaders use influences performance, because it impacts employee morale.

2.8 CONCLUSION

After reviewing the literature on leadership styles, it is clear that accountable and suitable leadership style is essential for the success of any organisation. Every organisation needs effective leaders who fulfil organisational productivity by increasing followers' job satisfaction, performance and commitment. As a conclusion, the success or failure of an organisation is directly connected to the leadership style and the relevance of the founder's beliefs, values, to the current opportunities and constraints confronting the organisation at a specific moment. The style of leadership affects performance since performance cannot be achieved in the absence of a leadership that can adapt to the changes and challenges of the environment, that knows how to motivate the employees, and that encourages them to take more ownership for their work. This is consistent with the study a land mark study by Goleman D. Daniel Goleman's Leadership That Gets Results, (2000) Harvard Business Review study. Goleman and his team completed a three-year study with over 3,000 middle-level managers. Their goal was to uncover specific leadership behaviours and determine their effect on the corporate climate and each leadership style's effect on bottom-line profitability.

The research discovered that a manager's leadership style was responsible for 30% of the company's bottom-line profitability! That's far too much to ignore. Imagine how much money and effort a company spends on new processes, efficiencies, and cost-cutting methods in an effort to add even one percent to bottom-line profitability, and compare that to simply inspiring managers to be more kinetic with their leadership styles.

This leader-centred perspective has provided valuable insights into the relationship between leadership and team performance (Covey 2004). McGrath and MacMillan (2000) and Yukl (2002) have explored the strategic role of leadership, and investigated how to employ leadership styles to improve organisational performance. Furthermore, organisations can also perform well or poorly due to external forces, such as interest rates and taxation. To remain competitive in such an environment, an organisation needs to get the most out of its assets, especially the human assets.

Many organisations feel that their people can provide a competitive advantage, and therefore their people contribute to the organisation's performance (Govender, 2010). Employees play a pivotal role in organisational success (Hussein 2014). Employee performance has been shown to have a significant positive effect on organisational performance because employee performance translates to organisation (Hussein 2014). This study has shown that supportive and task oriented leadership styles improve employee performance. The performance of an organisation is dependent on the quality of its workforce at all levels of the organisation (McGrath and MacMillan, 2000) and it is essential to discuss the concept of individual performance. Bass and Avolio (2004) define employee performance as the degree to which employees accomplish work requirements. To them employee performance in effect reflects the performance of the organisation. Ultimately it is the performance of many individuals, which culminates in the performance of an organisation (Amstrong 2010). Therefore, effective leaders should combine the two leadership styles in order to achieve maximum performance from employees.

CHAPTER THREE: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

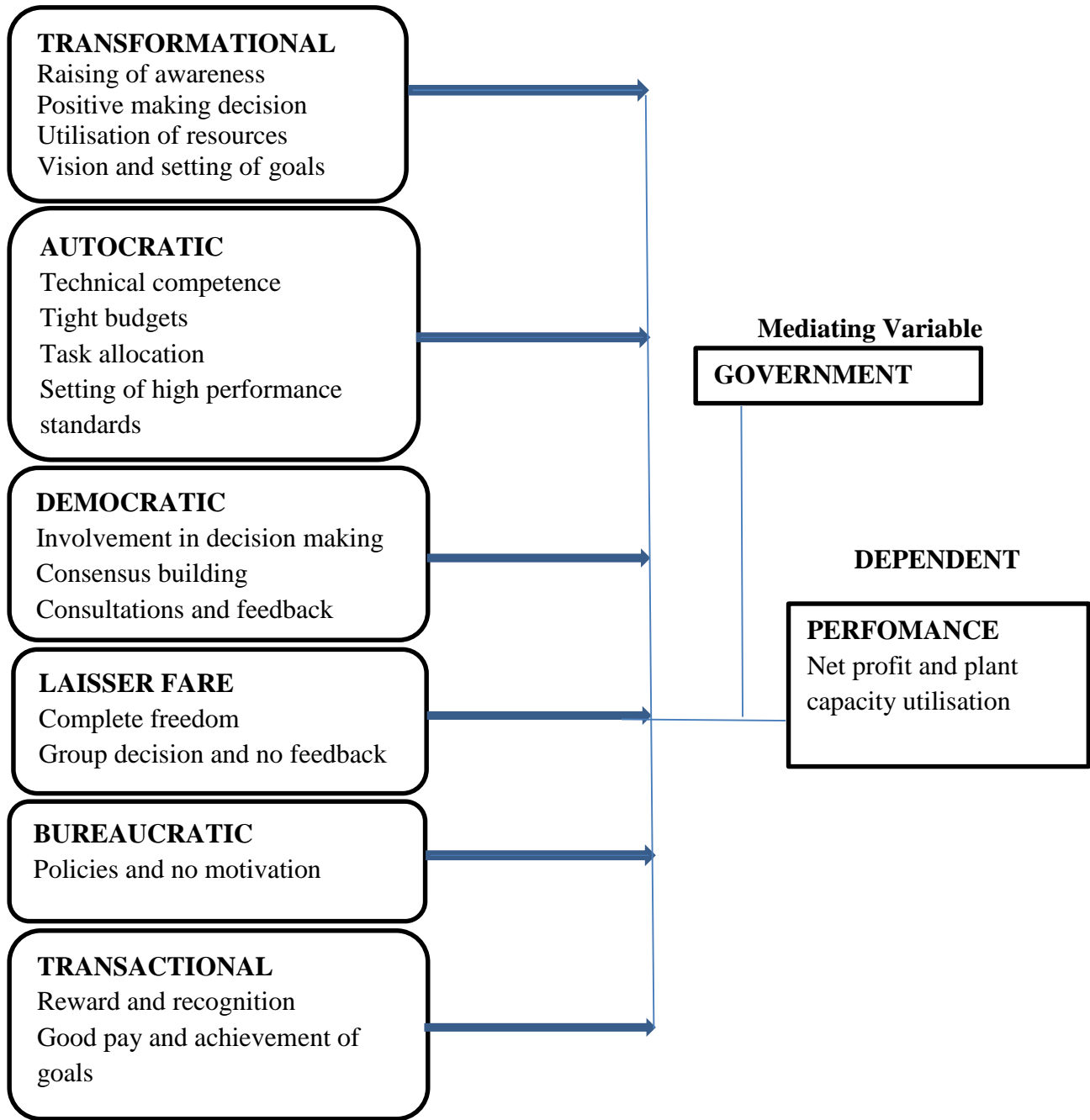
3.0 INTRODUCTION

This study is anchored on The Contingency Theory, by Fiedler

The contingency theory (Fiedler,1967) speculates that leadership styles are task or relationship oriented. This theory suggests effective leadership is determined by the situation and an effective leader is able to adapt to a variety of situations. Several models have prevailed under the contingency theory of leadership. The Situational Leadership Model (Hersey and Blanchard, 2001) seems to have been the most accepted and most prevalent model under the contingency theory (Bennis, 2007). The contingency theory of leadership suggests the leader's ability to lead is contingent upon various situational factors, including the leader's preferred style, the capabilities and behaviours of followers and various other situational factors (Bryan, 2002; Obiruwu et al., 2011). The theory assumes leadership styles affect outcomes, such as group performance and achieving goals, by influencing the subordinates' behaviour (Bass and Riggio, 2012).

Major variables include the characteristics of followers, the nature of the work performed by the leader 's unit, the type of organization, and the nature of the external environment. One leadership style is not appropriate for all situations. A leader style can be effective in one situation and ineffective in another.

**FIGURE 3.1 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
INDEPENDENT**



SOURCE: BY THE RESEARCHER 2016

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.0. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an outline of the research methods that were used to investigate the impact the different leadership styles have on performance. It presents the research paradigm, research approach, and methods. It gives details about the mixed method used in this study and the reasons for selecting it. Specifically, it describes the questionnaire surveys used and the issues concerning sampling procedures. This chapter delineates the survey methodology, measurement instruments, pilot study, survey administration, population, sample and data analysis utilised in this study. The researcher used performance as the dependent variable while various leadership styles were used as independent variables. Annual profitability and capacity utilisation were used as a proxy for performance.

4.1. RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY

Phenomenological study is a study that attempts to understand participants' perspectives and social realities. It provides a rich and detailed view of a human experience, and it requires that the researcher to be objective and free of bias when interpreting the data (Creswell 2009;2013). The philosophical assumption underpinning this study is objective because the researcher is independent of the research, this means that the researcher would have the capability to study the area of research independently without being influenced by his own views. This study followed a positivist approach which was deductive and used surveys for data collection and tends to explain and describe the causal relationships between variables by using quantitative data.

Phenomenological research, uses a naturalistic approach that seeks to understand the phenomena in context-specific settings and It allowed the researcher to notice trends and look at the big picture

4.2 RESEARCH PARADIGMS (APPROACH)

According to Creswell (2013), the research framework consists of three components; Research Design, Inquiry Strategies and Research Methods. There are two main research paradigms or philosophies. The two paradigms (approaches) are positivism and interpretivism. Many philosophers believe that positivism is the foundation and rationale for most management research these days (Saunders et al, 2012). Many social science approaches today have drawn their ideas from positivism or the contradiction to positivism despite the fact that it has been challenged (Smith, 2008; Gill and Johnson, 2005). For this reason, some aspects of positivism have become accepted ways of judging truth and reality and are now part of Western culture (Creswell, 2009 and Berg, 2009). Consequently, positivism has influenced many approaches that are thought to be an objective way of viewing reality, because of this wide influence, the definition of positivism has become unclear (Smith, 2008).

There are eight main features of positivism (Bryman (2007): First, a quantitative method is usually used, although it is possible to use qualitative methods. Second, large samples are usually used in order to generalise the findings. Third, hypotheses are tested; a hypothesis is usually tested by statistical analysis and a decision is made to reject or accept the null hypothesis. Fourth, data is specific; researchers attempt to measure the data and reach conclusions. Fifth, location; investigations of the problem are not usually conducted in the field Sixth, reliability; concerned with the repetition of the test, if the test is repeated will the same results be obtained? Seventh,

validity; do the findings represent the real situation? Eighth, generalizations are made from the samples; here confidence tests may be used to suggest that the researcher is 95% - 99% confident that the sample represents the population.

In contrast, the interpretive approach has a subjective epistemology that usually follows Inductive logic and uses qualitative methods reliant on investigating theories. The theory may be an existing one or one that the researcher creates in order to have in-depth knowledge of the main study. Reliability is low and validity is high. In the findings of the interpretive approach because in the interpretive approach reliability is not as important as it is in the positivist approach (Creswell, 2009). In the interpretive approach researchers are subjective in the way they look at their findings and attempt to understand and describe the way people view the world (Creswell, 2009). Moreover, the researcher in the interpretive approach understands that his Interpretation of these findings is influenced by his own culture, beliefs and experiences (Creswell, 2009).

Deductive logic places emphasis on arguing from the general to the particular area of research (Creswell, 2008). The researcher forms a theory based on a hypothesis allowing the researcher to deduce conclusions, which are then examined to establish whether they add to the general knowledge (Easterby-Smith et al, 2008 and Kish, 2004). The hypothesis that is formed must be tested empirically and the researcher must identify the method of data collection (Bryman 2012). According to Easterby-Smith et al, 2008 and Kish, (2004) the deduction process is as follow: theory, hypothesis, data collection, findings, hypothesis confirmation or rejection and revision of theory.

On the other hand, Inductive logic places emphasis on —arguing from the particular to the general (Creswell, 2008). The researcher makes observations and finds underlying themes in the data and

then these findings are subjected to more testing for further clarifications of the theme (Tashakkori and Teddle, 2003). The inductive process is as follows: observations, findings and then theory (Bryman, 2009).

In this study the researcher follows an objective assumption, a positivist approach and a deductive logic because using a scale to gather information from a large number of people to be analysed and then generalised to some degree requires a positivist approach. The positivist approach is used by many researchers in service quality and is predominately used because of the complex nature of service quality (.Tashakkori and Teddle, 2003)

4.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is a specification of procedures for collecting and analyzing the necessary data to help solve a given research problem (Creswell, 2009). The choice of research design depends on the objectives of the research in order to be able to answer the research questions (Singh, 2006). Research can be classified in terms of their purpose. Accordingly, they are most often classified as exploratory, descriptive or explanatory (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill 2007). In order to identify the leadership styles exhibited at National Railways of Zimbabwe and Air Zimbabwe and to examine its impacts on organisational performance, the researcher adopted descriptive and explanatory case study research design.

Descriptive case studies set to describe the natural phenomena which occur within the data in question, for instance, what different strategies are used by a reader and how the reader use them. Generally, things are described by providing measures of an event or activity. Descriptive Research designs are usually structured and specifically designed to measure the characteristics

described in a research question. Hypotheses, derived from the theory, usually serve to guide the process and provide a list of what needs to be measured (Zimkund 2003). The object of descriptive research is to portray an accurate profile of persons, events or situations. It is necessary to have a clear picture of the phenomena on which researcher wish to collect data prior to the collection of the data (Saunders etal, 2003).

Explanatory case studies examine the data closely both at a surface and deep level in order to explain the phenomena in the data. Studies that establish causal relationships between variables may be termed explanatory studies. The emphasis here is on studying a situation or a problem in order to explain the relationship between variables (Saunders etal, 2003). Explanatory studies are designed to test whether one event causes another (Zimkund 2003). The purpose of the research is mainly descriptive and explanatory. It is descriptive because descriptive data has been collected through detailed questionnaire and it is also explanatory since the researcher will explain the relationship between service quality and demographic variables.

4.4.1 QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE DESIGN

Quantitative design is one in which the investigator primarily uses post positivist claims for developing knowledge (i.e. cause and effect thinking, reduction to specific variables and hypotheses and questions, use of instrument and observation, the test of theories), employs strategies of inquiry such as experiments and surveys and collects data on predetermined instruments that yield statistical data (Creswell 2003).

Quantitative research is frequently referred to as hypothesis — testing research. Characteristically, studies begin with statements of theory from which research hypotheses are derived. Then an

experimental design is established in which the variables in question (the dependent variables) are measured while controlling for the effects of selected independent variables. Subject included in the study are selected at random is desirable to reduce error and to cancel bias. The sample of subjects is drawn to reflect the population (Creswell 2009). These procedures are deductive in nature, contributing to the scientific knowledge base by theory testing. This is the nature of quantitative methodology. As a validity concern, this may be a limitation of quantitative design (Punch, 2006).

Qualitative research is multi method in focus, involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them (Saunders et al, 2013).

Qualitative research design is one in which the inquirer often makes knowledge claims based primarily on constructivist perspectives (i.e. the multiple meaning of individual experiences, meaning socially and historically constructed, with an Intent of developing a theory or pattern) or advocacy/ participatory perspectives (i.e. political, issue-oriented, collaborative or change oriented) or both. It also uses strategies of inquiry such as narratives, phenomenology, ethnography, grounded theory studies or case studies. The researcher collects open-ended, emerging data with the primary intent of developing themes from the data (Creswell 2003).

Creswell and Clark (2011), assert that there are three methods that can be used by researchers in conducting research which are quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods. In determining which research design to adopt Creswell (2013), suggests that the research problem, the researcher's personal experiences and the research target audience are all factors, which play a part in the

decision. The research design will be quantitative and qualitative in nature to gather information and to discover whether there is any relation between the two variables (dependent and independent) used in the study. For instance, this researcher used the descriptive research design to discover the relationship between autocratic, participative, bureaucratic, laissez-faire and performance in parastatals.

This researcher opted for a mixed method because the disadvantages of a quantitative approach are addressed by the advantages of a qualitative approach and vice versa. This study used the mixed methods approach. Creswell (2009), defines a mixed methods approach as one in which the researcher tends to base knowledge claims on pragmatic grounds for example, consequence-oriented, problem-centred, and pluralistic. It employs strategies of inquiry that involve collecting data either simultaneously or sequentially to best understand the research problem. The data collection also involves gathering both numeric information as well as text information so that the final database represents both quantitative and qualitative information (Jensen, 2002).

The researcher also used mixed approach because he wanted both methods to confirm the findings of the research thereby minimising the weaknesses of the two approaches and to improve the quality of the research (Creswell and Clark, 2011; Yin, 2003). There are many advantages of using the mixed method approach. It employs strategies of inquiry that involve collecting data either simultaneously or sequentially to best understand the research problem. The data collection also involves gathering both numeric information (e.g., on instruments) as well as text information (e.g., on interviews) so that the final database represents both quantitative and qualitative information (Jensen, 2002). It can be used for different purposes in a study, giving stronger evidence for conclusions through convergence and the corroboration of findings (Saunders et al,

2012). It helps the researcher to answer research questions that cannot be answered by quantitative or qualitative approaches alone (Creswell and Clark, 2011). They argue that the mixed methods approach can increase the generalisability of the results and triangulation helps increase the validity and reliability of results by reducing chances of systematic bias. It allowed the researcher to be more flexible, integrative, and holistic in the investigative techniques (Creswell and Clark, 2011).

Moreover, mixed methods approach is useful when either the quantitative or the qualitative approach used alone would be inadequate for gaining an understanding of the research problem. Tashakkori and Teddie (2003), argue that mixed method are useful if they provide better opportunities to answer research questions and where they allow to evaluate better the extent to which research findings can be trusted and inferences made from them. Recognising that all methods have limitations, the researcher felt that biases inherent in any single method could neutralise or cancel the biases of other methods. Therefore, combining both approaches would give the best understanding, and minimise the weaknesses of both approaches (Creswell, 2009, 2011). It would seem, therefore, that research design is the programme that guides an investigator on the process of collecting, analysing and interpreting observations. In this study an attempt was made to establish the impact of leadership styles on performance in State Owned Enterprises. Mixed methods research works particularly well for case study research as it allows the researcher to take the rich empirical data yielded from case studies and apply either quantitative or qualitative methods or quantitative and qualitative methods to the data.

4.4.3 CASE STUDY RESEARCH STRATEGY

Case study method enables a researcher to closely examine the data within a specific context. In most cases, a case study method selects a small geographical area or a very limited number of individuals as the subjects of study. Case studies, in their true essence, explore and case study as a research method investigate contemporary real-life phenomenon through detailed contextual analysis of a limited number of events or conditions, and their relationships. Yin (2009) defines the case study research method “as an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used.” This study relied on collecting and analysing both qualitative and quantitative data from management in one organisation, namely Air Zimbabwe and National Railways of Zimbabwe. Accordingly, this investigation constituted a case study.

The rationale for adopting the case study as a strategy was based on the fact that this approach is used widely in social sciences, psychology as well as related fields (Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler, 2008) and that it addresses a realistic problem in an organisation (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner, 2007; Leech, Dellinger, Brannagan and Tanaka, 2010). It also helps to understand specific cases and ensures a more holistic approach to research. The case studies not only help to explore or describe the data in real-life environment, but also help to explain the complexities of real-life situations which may not be captured through experimental or survey research(Yin,2009).

The researcher employed a cross sectional study, because it takes a snapshot of a population at a certain time, thus allowing conclusions about phenomena across a wide population to be drawn.

Cross sectional case study was chosen ahead of longitudinal because most research projects are undertaken for academic courses which are time constrained and cross sectional studies often employ a survey strategy.

4.5 TARGET POPULATION

A population is the total of all the individuals who have certain characteristics and are of interest to a researcher. The target population is the group or the individuals which the study or survey pertains. In this survey, managers and supervisors on one hand and subordinates on the other constitute the basic elements of analysis.

The author further explains that the population is also defined as including only those sampling units that fits the problem. (Yin, 2003), support the argument that it is the total collection of elements that a researcher would want to make some inferences on. A population can be defined as including all people or items with the characteristic one wish to understand (Yin, 2003). A population can also be defined as the entire group of people, events or things of interest that the researcher wishes to investigate (Creswell (2009), Saunders et al, (2007) and Zigmund (2003), describes population as a full set of cases from which a sample is taken. A choice of population for this study was driven by the need to extract relevant information from permanent employees both managerial and non-managerial of the surveyed organisations. Robson (2002), states that the first thing to do when carrying out sample selection process is to 'identify' and 'define' the target population. According to these scholars, the target population is the interest group the researcher intends to study and to which the research result will be generalised. Bless and Higson-Smith (2000), emphasise the need to clearly define and describe the target population to make the

compilation of the list of people in the population possible and more importantly, to ensure that the sample is selected among those who belong to the target population only.

The choice of two cases was a decision based on allowing the investigation to show whether there are similarities within parastatals and also to maintain the common understanding that evidence from more than one case is reliable and regarded as thorough (Yin, 2003). Therefore, the researcher chose two cases, which is the minimum. This choice was made so that it could be manageable, considering the time available and financial costs (Bless and Higson-Smith, 2000). Although it is recommended to have between four and 10 cases, there are some who advocate a minimum of two as proposed by Hedges (as cited in Perry, 1998), which is why two cases were chosen. The target population of the study was non-managerial and managerial employees of the organisations under study. Both companies have a combined staff compliment of 9800 employees. The information was obtained from the organisations` payroll reports.

4.5.1 SAMPLING TECHNIQUES

Sampling refers to the choice of a subset of a population used to derive conclusions about the characteristics of the whole population (Hair et al, 2007). Studying the whole population is neither practical nor possible so sampling is an indispensable technique. Although this research aims to consider performance in various state owned enterprises in Zimbabwe it is not feasible to undertake this from either a cost, time or resource perspective. However, to ensure the generalisability of our findings a sample of organisations from all the state owned enterprises was selected. Kish (2004), argues that issues regarding sampling are important in determining the extent to which research findings are generalisable. Saunders et al (2012) explained that collecting data from a sample that represents the entire population rather than from the entire population is

necessary when budget and time constraints prevent the researcher from surveying the entire population. Sekaran and Bougie (2011), argue that using sample can provide higher overall accuracy than surveying the entire population. Besides, Nesbary (2000) argues that the use of the entire target population may be infeasible in some situations; for instance, collection of data from a large population covering a wide area may be somewhat difficult and collecting data from fewer cases means that collected information is more detailed. Punch (2003) and Gunter (2002) emphasise that samples are manageable; therefore, it is easy to accomplish a task with a sample whereas it is usually difficult to accomplish a task with an entire population. In the light of this, a sample was used for this study. According to Leary, (2001), a representative sample must have the same properties as the population from which it is drawn. Moreover, these authors suggest that ‘correct’ and ‘complete’ sampling frame should be used to ensure representativeness of the sample.

Sampling techniques provide a range of methods that enable one to reduce the amount of data needed to collect by considering only data from a sub group rather than all possible cases or elements (Leary, 2001). It is argued that using sampling can provide higher overall accuracy than surveying the entire population (Sekaran and Bougie, 2011). Sampling is that part of statistical practice concerned with the selection of a subset of individuals from within a population to yield some knowledge about the whole population, especially for the purposes of making predictions based on statistical inference (Saunders et al, 2012).

The researcher used a combination of probability sampling and non-probability techniques that are primarily used in quantitatively oriented studies and involve “selecting a relatively large number of units from a population, or from specific subgroups (strata) of a population, in a random manner where the probability of inclusion for every member of the population is determinable” (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003). Probability samples aim to achieve representativeness, which is

the degree to which the sample accurately represents the entire population. (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005), argue that with the probability sampling, the probability of each case being chosen from the population is known and is usually equal in each case. This means that, it is very possible to answer the research questions and to achieve objectives that require estimating statistically the characteristics of the population from the sample. Therefore, the study adopted simple random sampling, convenience and purposive sampling

Simple Random: Each unit in the population has the same chance of being selected. This could be done by assigning numbers to each object in the population and then drawing a number at random. The method was to avoid research bias and, and it was the simplest, most convenient way and was used middle managers and non-managerial staff.

Convenience sampling was used because it is the selection of respondents based on who were most convenient to the researcher (Saunders et al 2012). It is cheap and easy to obtain.

Purposive or Judgemental sampling was used to choose respondents that were deemed to have sufficient relevant knowledge to participate in the interview sessions. This criterion ensured that selected respondents provided insightful answers to the questions which were asked (Yin ,2003).

It was used on CEO and his top management team.

4.5.6 SAMPLE SIZE

In an ideal situation, researchers have to collect data from the entire target population. Sample size has an effect on how the sample findings accurately represent the population (Leedy and Ormrod 2005). The larger the sample is, the more likely that the generalisations are an accurate reflection

of the population (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Sample sizes depend on factors such as the time and money available to collect the data (Hair 2006); they also depend on the statistical analysis used in the study (Saunders, Lewis and Thomhill, 2009). According to Hair (2006), small or very large samples have a negative impact on the statistical tests because either the sample is either not big enough to make generalizations or too big to reach any conclusions

From the target population, a sample of 300 respondents was chosen for the study using Saunders et al (2003), table for determining the sample size for research activities as quoted by Amin (2005). This was representative enough for the survey, and Saunders et al (2003), argue that a sample is representative of its population if it is greater than 1% of the population. Therefore, 300 respondents is greater than 1% of the population.

4.6 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

Although the study is largely quantitative in nature, still both qualitative and quantitative approaches to data collection were employed because a study of this magnitude required a multi-pronged approach combining different methods that help in triangulation in order to indicate reliability of the findings. The Data were collected through a primary closed questionnaire and face to face interviews. To cover the gaps left by the closed questionnaire, in-depth interviews were organized to provide respondents with the opportunity to deeply explore further their views, feelings, perspectives and thoughts (Yin, .2003; 2009). The qualitative approaches refer to the more descriptive methods of data management which were mainly employed to manage the analysis of interview data sources which could not only be done by the use of quantitative methods. The data gathering techniques used included questionnaires and interviews. Qualitative Research is primarily subjective in approach as it seeks to understand human behaviour and reasons that

govern such behaviour. Researchers have the tendency to become subjectively immersed in the subject matter in this type of research method.

In quantitative research, researchers tend to remain objectively separated from the subject matter. This is because quantitative research is objective in approach in the sense that it only seeks precise measurements and analysis of target concepts to answer research questions. Some studies make use of both quantitative and qualitative research, letting the two complement each other because the study aims to find out the answer to an inquiry through numerical evidence and wish to explain further why this particular event happened, or why this particular phenomenon is the case, it is then ideal to make use of both methods (Robson, 2002). The qualitative data is then converted into numerical codes so that it can be analysed statically. Tashakkori and Teddie, (2003) argue that multiple methods are useful if they provide better opportunities to answer research questions and where they allow better evaluation to the extent that the research findings can be trusted and inferences made from them. In addition, Bryman (2008) supports the combination of both strategies within the same research design arguing as follows: “Only may two be mutually enhancing, but a sensitive merger may provide a more complete picture which might be more satisfying and attractive to academics and policy makers alike...”

Qualitative research develops an understanding of the individuals and events in their natural setting, taking into account the relevant context (Tashakkori and Teddie, 2003). This is also in agreement with Nconco’s assertion that qualitative research was an important part of contextual analysis for the purposes of penetrating beyond the facts and the figures about institutions (Nconco, 2006; Bernard and Ryan, 2010). At the same time, the quantitative approaches were employed in order to manage data from the closed/open questionnaires. Further still, quantitative approaches were aimed at examining the relationship between leadership styles and performance in state

owned enterprises because ascertaining the relationship requires strict mathematical techniques of analysis. More so, Tashakkori and Teddie (2003), argue that quantitative methods are used because they tend to be relatively low in cost and time requirements to enable a large quantity of relevant data to be amassed and subjected to statistical analysis techniques for greater representation. For the purpose of this study, a quantitative and qualitative methodology was followed which is known as mixed model research method. Sikes (2004) and Taylor (2000), agree that there is growing appreciation about the need for both methods to be used in leadership research. This is necessary to tap into the strengths of each method and so yield better results.

4.6.1 QUESTIONNAIRES

It helped the researcher to collect a large amount of data from a sizeable population using a questionnaire (Saunders et al, 2012). According to Bryman (2012), the data collected by using case study strategy can provide several possible explanations of the relationships between variables and posit models of these relationships. Questionnaires were chosen because of their ability to reduce any bias and the collection of authentic data important for data analysis. The researcher used both closed ended and open ended questionnaires aimed at testing the effects of Leadership styles on employee performance at Air Zimbabwe and the National Railways of Zimbabwe. However, one of the limitations to this study was that since the study was self-administered, the researcher noted inconsistencies in answering and returning the questionnaires. The questionnaires were handed to the parastatal's head office Human Resource Department which distributed the questionnaires through their internal mailing system in an attempt to ensure that the respondents would receive the documents in the shortest possible time. A total of 300 questionnaires were administered, and

204 fully completed questionnaires were returned, thereby constituting a 68% return rate. This is higher than the 30% anticipated in most research as put forward by Sekaran (2003).

Furthermore, the justification in using a survey questionnaire was that it was a cost effective way of collecting data from the respondents of the organisation under study and all the respondents would receive the same set of questions. According to Taylor (2000), survey questionnaires provide respondents with an intimidation-free environment which gives them an advantage over interviews, focus groups and on-site observation. The advantages of a questionnaire, according to Singh (2006), are that it provides a wide coverage with low effort and cost. This enables both a wide geographical spread and a large sample size. Hence, Questionnaires were used because they have the advantage that responses are gathered in a standardised format thereby becoming more objective and easy to analyse. Given the target group, questionnaires presented a quick way to collect information especially in this study where there were more closed questions than open ended ones. The use of questionnaires also assisted in getting a relatively high response rate especially that the questionnaires were handed to their human resources department who then used their internal mailing system. A questionnaire is effectively a paper-based interview. Care must be taken in constructing the questionnaire as, being impersonal, there is risk that questions will be misunderstood and there is no interviewer present to clarify any ambiguities. With a questionnaire it is necessary to anticipate the range of possible answers, more so than in an interview (Singh, 2006).

Saunders et al (2009), explains that the choice over which questionnaire to use was influenced by several factors related to the questions and objectives of the research, such as the characteristics of the respondents, the size of sample required for the analysis, and the types and number of questions needed to collect the data. In this study it was decided to use self-administered structured

questionnaires as the means of collecting the data required for the research because self-administered questionnaires are more cost effective to administer than face to face interviews (Leary, 2001). Questionnaires are also convenient because the respondent can complete them on-site at work or in the comfort of his/her home (Newman, 2005). The design of the questionnaires took into consideration the need for both open and close-ended questions.

Open-ended questions were included in order to provide the respondents with an opportunity to air their views freely as they deemed fit. Open-ended questions were also designed as instruments for the research. The choice of open-ended questions was to allow respondents to give their perspective and ideas on issues in the questions and to give a guide to the flow of information intended for extraction. In addition, the use of open-ended questions allowed the respondents to give responses according to their interpretation of the world around them. This allowed deep exploration of respondents' points of view, feelings, and perspectives (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003). The closed-ended questions were also necessary to cover more ground within a limited timeframe particularly for those respondents who had severe time constraints. Although the questionnaires could be used as the only data collection method, the researcher felt that it would be best to link it with other method. For example, a questionnaire designed to discover the respondents' attitudes can be complemented by in-depth interviews to explore and understand these attitudes.

4.6.2 IN-DEPTH INTERVIEWS

Structured questions and open ended statements were used by the researcher in trying to interview CEOs and the top management. However, the researcher noted considerable difficulty in contacting these respondents since most of them were busy in meetings. The researcher further

noted that some respondents were not sincere, since they feared for their positions however the researcher had earlier assured them of absolute confidentiality.

Semi-structured Interviews were chosen because they maximised engagements and allowed detailed information to be obtained and they are flexible. They allowed to probe and read body language and facial expressions. An interview gives a unique opportunity to probe for clarification and in-depth information on the topic of interest (Bless and Higson-Smith, 2012), Twenty (20) respondents were interviewed from both organisations with each informant given the leeway to choose the convenient time and venue for the interview. The informants were notified two weeks in advance about the purpose of the study and the interviews through letters written and sent to them directly. This was after the researcher had secured permission to conduct the study.

Face to face interviews maximized engagements and provided in-depth exploration of respondents` opinion (Bryman, 2008). As the researcher was dealing with underperforming companies, interviews were conducted so as to gain the advantages of obtaining detailed information along with obtaining detailed information on feelings, opinions and perceptions along with asking more detailed questions to clarify ambiguities through pressing for a full answer and following up on incomplete answers (Guest et al, 2006).

The interviews enabled to further probe and to read facial expressions and body language to get clearer indications on honesty and frankness to be able to pass stronger judgement. Individual interviews were chosen, as they are mostly used in qualitative research due to their ability to provide an undiluted focus on an individual (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003). The form of interrogation was in-depth interviews, which allowed deep vertical understanding of that which was being investigated.

Saunders et al (2009) have found that managers are more likely to agree to be interviewed rather than complete a questionnaire especially when the interview topic is seen to be interesting and relevant to their current work. An interview provides them with an opportunity to reflect on events without needing to write anything down. Other researchers report similar conclusions, where participants prefer to be interviewed rather than fill a questionnaire (Robson, 2002 as cited in Cooper and Schindler, 2008). The researcher used interviews on this category in order to achieve higher response rate than using a questionnaire. In addition, Bless and Higson-Smith (2000) and Saunders et al (2012), make the point that the interviewer has more control over who answers the questions in comparison with a questionnaire, which may be passed from one person to another.

4.6.3 MEASURING OF RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

When undertaking research, there are three key concepts to consider: validity, reliability and generalisability. All three concern measurement. Whenever we are conducting quantitative research a question that inevitably arises is: “how well are we measuring what we want to measure?” (Muijs, 2004). Reliability test is one of the most vital aspects of designing and evaluating significance of any variables of interest when conducting a research. Reliability and validity of an outcome of a study are the algebraic principles that determine whether a study provides a good measure of the intended test and results or not. Babbie and Mouton (2001), indicate that reliability provides a good insight of the level at which study instruments provide the same results on repetitive tests. While reliability of a test measures consistency of a variable, validity on the other hand focuses on the systematic errors that occur in a study.

4.6.4 RELIABILITY

Reliability refers to the extent to which the data collection or analysis procedures used would lead to consistent findings (Saunders et al, 2009). Thus, it is concerned with the robustness of the questionnaire. Sekaran and Bougie (2011), assert that a measure should not only be valid but also reliable. These researchers perceive reliability as the stability of response to a data collection tool irrespective of the number of times the data are administered to the same respondents. In other words, an instrument is considered reliable if it produces the same or similar result each time it is administered to the same respondents. However, Punch (2003), contends that reliability of an instrument depends on whether the question can be steadily and sincerely responded to, using scales and options given and the respondents' attitudes while responding to the instrument.

Sekaran (2003) mentions that it is always important to test for reliability in any construct to determine whether the instrument is good. Babbie and Mouton (2001), said that the Cronbach's alpha consistency index is a consistent indicator used to test the internal reliability of any variables in a study. Cronbach Coefficient Alpha was used to test the reliability of the instruments. Sekaran (2005) points out that Cronbach Coefficient Alpha of 0.70 or more are considered good. One of the most commonly used is Cronbach's Alpha (Sekaran, 2003) Cronbach's Alpha is a widely used measurement of the internal consistency of a multi-items scale in which the average of all possible split-half coefficients is taken (Hair et al. 2000).

Normally, values of Cronbach's Alpha above 0.70 are considered to represent acceptable reliability, above 0.80 is termed as good reliability, and above 0.90 excellent reliability. The lower acceptable reliability may be reduced to .60 in exploratory research (Yammarino and Bass, 2006). To examine reliability in this study, Cronbach's alpha values were calculated; values of 0.80

indicated that the constructs have good reliability (Hair et al, 2010). In respect to measuring the reliability of the scale, the reliability coefficients (Cronbach's) of the charismatic leadership, the transactional leadership, the transformational leadership, the autocratic leadership, the bureaucratic leadership and the democratic leadership were 0.823, 0.791, 0.807, 0.644, 0.790 and 0.754 respectively. Yammarino and Bass (2006) found that the Cronbach's alpha consistency index is a reliable coefficient to test for the consistency of variables in a study. The study calculated Cronbach's alpha consistency index to evaluate the stability of the identifiable variables.

Organisational performance scale was used to assess respondents' level of their organisational performance. The scale was subjected to item analysis in order to ensure it is valid and reliable and it yielded reliability alpha of .76 (Hussein, 2014). The researcher used a modified organisational performance model based on Venkatraman and Ramanujam (1986) framework to collect and compile data on organisational performance. Venkatraman and Ramanujam (1986), model is considered by scholars and practitioners as a standard representation that is used to measure organisational performance. Thus, the study employed economic, business and organisational efficiency as the key independent and exogenous variables to represent organisational performance.

Sekaran and Bougie (2011), refer Reliability to the consistency of the instruments in tapping information from more than one respondent. This, according to them, is usually taken care of at pilot testing stage. It then follows that, reliability and validity of the instrument can be obtained by being careful about the choice of words to ensure clarity and relevance with regard to sentence construction. Also, pilot testing the data collection instrument before its actual administration enhances validity. Therefore, the instrument collection tools for this study were pilot tested for modification. Through a pilot study conducted on 20 respondents, the researcher established the

reliability of the instruments. Reliability was carried out on case studies that were outside the study. The results obtained were entered into the computer and correlation was run. The correlation coefficient attained from the questionnaire was 0.80, which indicated that the instrument was reliable (Hueryren, 2012).

4.6.5 VALIDITY

Validity means ascertaining the accuracy of the instruments by establishing whether the instruments focus on the information they are intended to collect. Leary (2001) refers to validity as the ‘meaningfulness of the result’. It deals with how well an instrument measures what it is meant to measure. Validity asks the question: are we measuring what we want to measure?” (Muijs, 2004). Two dimensions that need to be measured within the context of this research are leadership style and performance. Punch (2003), however, claims that validity deals with how a respondent can candidly and meticulously respond to questions, which he believes partly depends on the respondents’ attitude and mind condition. He says further, that validity is also related to the respondents’ ability to answer the question asked in the instrument. Saunders et al. (2009), suggest three ways of validating a questionnaire, namely content, construct, and external validity. According to Kish (2004), there are two types of data validity that must be considered: Internal (control) and external (sampling). Sekaran and Bougie (2011), state that content validity explains how well the dimensions and elements of the concept have been delineated. In order to ascertain face validity, the instruments were constructed and handed to the senior researchers in the school of education in one of the old universities for constructive criticisms.

Thereafter, they were revised according to these researchers' comments. And in addition, in order to ensure internal validity, it is necessary to accept that the world around us is composed of variables, things which are subject to change. In order to conduct successful research, it is imperative to understand the effect of a particular variable on other variables and exercise some form of control over the variables (Singh, 2006). In addition, content validity was also sought by requesting four experts in the field of study to provide their comments on the relevance of each item on the instrument (Husseini, 2014). The experts were requested to indicate whether the item was relevant or not. The results of their indications were analysed to establish the percentage representation using the content validity index. The second type of validity, construct validity, refers to the extent to which a set of measured items actually reflects the theoretical latent constructs those items are designed to measure and explains how the instrument works and how its application can be interpreted (Hair et al, 2010). Husseini, (2014), states that in SEM the primary objective of this equation is to assess the construct validity of the proposed theory. Thus, it deals with accuracy of measurement.

Thirdly, external validity refers to the research findings, which means the ability of the data to be generalised across populations and research settings (Cooper and Schindler, 2008). External validity can be exercised through the selection of a representative sample. This allows the generalisation of the sample findings and demonstrates its applicability on the wider population. This is an essential requisite for survey research (Singh, 2006). The survey instrument used was the MLQ developed by Avolio and Bass (2004). MLQ is by far the most widely used instrument for measuring leadership styles. It comes in several different versions. In this study, the popular MLQ Form 5x- Short was used to assess leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) and the outcome or dependent variables performance (extra effort, effectiveness and

satisfaction). The research instrument contains items prepared on a 5-point Likert scale from: 1-strongly disagree, 2-disagree, 3-neither agree nor disagree, 4-agree, 5-strongly agree. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was used to measure leadership styles (Avolio and Bass, 2004).

In the MLQ, each independent variable is given equal weighting. Each question has five potential answers, ranging from “not at all to” to “frequently, if not always” and is weighted from 0 to 5. This instrument has been revised several times and is widely used to measure leadership styles in different countries in the world and the validity and reliability of this scale have been established through previous research (Ojokuku et al, 2012). In addition, The MLQ has been used extensively in previous studies and has produced valid and reliable results across different cultures (Rohmann and Rowold, 2009, Avolio and Bass, 2004, Bass and Avolio, 1990, Saenz, 2011). The Bass and Avolio’s (2004) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) has been utilised many times over and is regarded in some circles as the definitive leadership style questionnaire. The MLQ was used successfully by Thite (2000), who conducted empirical research aimed at identifying successful leadership styles for managers of Information Technology/Systems R and D projects, and also Berson and Linton (2005), who used the MLQ to examine the relationships between leadership style, performance, quality, and employee satisfaction in R and D versus administrative environments. It has been also tested across industrial settings with different levels of leadership as well in non-homogeneous groupings of leaders (Antonakis et al, 2003).

4.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

General agreements among researchers need to be reached about ethical research considerations. This section briefly outlines some of these broadly agreed-upon norms in ethical research. In doing so, this section will explain the most important aspects of ethical research and how these aspects were operationalised and included in the current research study. Saunders et al (2004), acknowledge the problem of persuading participants to co-operate with the researcher in his research during data collection. Kothari (2004) generally accepts the ethical rights of a participant to be: the right to privacy and voluntary participation; anonymity and confidentiality.

Participation in research often disrupts the subject's regular activities (Kothari, 2004) and can possibly invade the person's privacy (Punch, 2003). Participation in research must be voluntary and participants must have the option to refuse to divulge certain information about them. Research often requires participants to reveal personal information that may be unknown to their friends and associates (Cohen, and Manion, 2001). Leary (2001) maintains that every researcher has the obligation to protect participants' rights and welfare. He asserts that one of the ways to ensure that participants' rights are protected is to obtain informed consent. Sikes (2004) adds that research is an activity that affects people's lives, therefore research should be ethical. Thus, the researcher obtained informed consent of the research subjects before they participated in the study. Leary (2001) argues that obtaining informed consent indicates that the researcher respects participants' privacy and provides them with required information, which could help them decide whether to agree or decline to participate in the study.

Many people are, however, prepared to divulge information of a very private nature on condition that their names are not mentioned (Taylor, 2000). The researcher cannot generalise the sample

survey findings to an entire population unless a substantial majority of the selected sample actually participates (Sikes, 2004). In terms of the present study, the relevant organisation was very forthcoming with confidential information and assistance and it was agreed that the research data would be used solely for the purpose of the research, and should the researcher wish to publish the thesis, the organisation would be consulted. Agreement was reached with the organisation's Human Resource Manager that no information would be made public without his prior consent, and after he had been provided with the opportunity to view the findings of this research.

One of the biggest concerns in research is the protection of the respondents' interests and well-being through the protection of their identity. If revealing their survey responses would injure them in any way, adherence to this norm becomes all the more important. A respondent may be considered anonymous when the researcher cannot identify a given response with a given respondent (Sikes, 2004). Generally, anonymity does not constitute a serious constraint on research, as most researchers are interested in group data rather than individual results. The consideration of anonymity can be easily overcome by omitting the names of the participants or identifying the respondents by a code instead of by name (Taylor, 2000). In this research study it was not possible to ensure anonymity of the respondents, as the respondents' details were known to the researcher. Jensen (2002) maintains that respondents' anonymity should be preserved to avoid possible embarrassment for providing certain information. He argues that respondents have the right not to associate themselves with the information they give.

Another ethical consideration is that of confidentiality. The participants must be assured that the data will only be used for the stated purposes of the research and that no other person will have access to the research data (Taylor, 2000). Confidentiality can identify a given person's responses but essentially promises not to do so publicly. In an effort to ensure this, all names and addresses

should not be written on the questionnaires but with identification numbers (Leary, 2001). All completed questionnaires were coded and names of respondents did not appear to ensure this.

4.8 CONCLUSION

In this Chapter, the researcher provided the justification for the choice of quantitative and qualitative research techniques and explained the strategies employed to implement and measuring instruments used in the study. The principles and ethics that guide a survey were reviewed, and sampling procedures and sample size were outlined. The questionnaires and interview guide used as the major instruments to collect data were described.

CHAPTER 5: DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

5.0 INTRODUCTION

As noted earlier, the research questionnaire was designed with a view of critically analysing the impact of leadership styles and organisational performance in the case of Zimbabwean state owned enterprises. The research data was analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software and Microsoft Excel with a view separating the raw data and the research report, in order to promote methodological replication (Yin 2003). The SPSS package, (version 20) software was used to analyse the data sets. Microsoft Excel Window 2007 edition was used to generate basic tables and graphs. According to Zikmund (2003), descriptive analysis is the process of transforming raw data into understandable information which is easier to interpret.

This chapter gives the results of the research and the analysis. It focuses on data presentation techniques, of research findings. This involves scanning and sifting through data collected as well as organizing it. Various techniques were used to display and present data including the use of pie charts, graphs and some statistical analytical models. Quantitative data was analyzed using a statistical package for social science (SPSS) data analysis program version 20. The qualitative data was then analyzed using the Willigs' four stage phenomenological study analysis procedure. The chapter will also revisit the research objectives and attempt to link these with the data collected in the literature review.

5.1 BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF RESPONDENTS

In view of the above, at the time of the survey, the total number of respondents was 300, and a total of 204 respondents out of the 300 were available at the time of the research. This gave a

response rate of 68%. According to Punch (2003), a low response rate can raise questions, on the research; hence the researcher should strive for a response rate of at least 60% in order to ensure replicability of the methodology (Yin 2003).

RESPONSE RATE

TABLE 5.1

Number of respondents	Total number of respondents who responded	Percent (%)
300	204	68%

In view of the foregoing, a feedback Table 5.1 show that 300 questionnaires were distributed and 204 were returned showing a response rate of 68% is therefore acceptable to continue with the analysis.

SUMMARY OF DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

TABLE 5. 2

VARIABLE	DESCRIPTIONS			
Sex	male	Female		
Percent (%)	60%	40%		
Age	18-29 years	30-40 years	51-60 years	61-70 years
Percent (%)	9%	10%	53%	28%
Length of service with the organisation	Under 2 year	2-4 years	5 -6years	Above 6 years
Percent (%)	9%	9%	9%	73%
Level Of Education	Primary school	Secondary school	Bachelor	Other
Percent (%)	21%	55%	19%	5%

Each questionnaire completed by the respondents contained opening questions aimed at providing demographic information on the sample. From Table 5.1.2 results show that 60% of the participants were males while 40% were females. The researcher included the gender of the respondents in order to establish the magnitude to which each of the sexes influences leadership and performance and 9% of the population were between the ages of 18-29. (10%) of the participants were within the ages of 30-40, 53% of the respondents were within the ages of 51-60

while 28% were within the ages of 61-70. With about 81% of the respondents within the age range of 51-70years, it shows that the bulk of the work force is old and nearing retirement. Therefore, most members of the work force are within the unproductive age. This does not encourage effective performance. Nine per cent (9%) of the sample population were employed in the company for 1 year, nine per cent (9%) within the last 1-3 years, nine per cent (9%) within the last 4-5 years and Seventy- four per cent (74%) were employed for more than 5years. This shows that most of the staff have been with the Companies consistently and are more likely to know about the company(s)'s performance. Twenty-one per cent (21%) were Primary school leavers, 55% with Secondary Education, 19% with Bachelor`s Degrees and 5% with other qualifications.

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS SHOWING MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION AND VARIANCE DEMOGRAPHICS

TABLE 5.3

Question number	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q1	Sex	1.40	.493	.243
Q2	age group	3.81	1.213	1.470
Q3	level of education	1.99	.635	.403
Q4	length in the organisation	3.47	.985	2.475
Q5	position in organisation	4.00	2.917	1.083

From Table 5.3 the standard deviation shows that distribution of scores was around the mean (average), since the standard deviation is smaller and generally it indicates that the scores cluster

closely to the average score. The variance is also smaller meaning the set of numbers are spread out and tend to be very close to the mean (expected value) and hence to each other. The standard deviation shows that distributions of scores are identical when the standard deviation is zero and the variance is zero meaning the set of numbers is identical.

From Table 5.3 it indicates that was a small difference between women and men who participate and the mean for age group 3.81 SD1.23) shows that a large number of employees is between 51-60 years and the level of education Mean 1.99 SD, 0.65 shows that more employees with secondary education are employed, the length of people in the organisation has the Mean 3.47, SD 0.985 indicates that there are more employees with 5 years and above. This means that the personnel at Air Zimbabwe and National Railways of Zimbabwe have a good level of educational background to enable them appreciate and have a good understanding of the questionnaire and also the objectives and goals of the business. Depending on the organisational culture, they are in a position to make their thoughts known to management on issues affecting them and the business. From the survey it was observed that the company employs a good number of polytechnic graduates due to the technical knowledge and skills required in the production or operations outfit, which is also the largest.

5.2.0 LEADERSHIP AND PERFORMANCE SECTION

The descriptive statistics were used as a way to examine the mean, standard deviation and other information which were not apparent in the raw data. It was needed to determine employees` perception towards leadership style and organisational performance. Frequency tables were used to summarise the respondents profile in the form of frequency and percentages.

The research analysed and reported on the response rates of the selected respondents at the initial stage. The study computed mean and standard deviation to determine average score for each variable while the standard deviation was calculated to determine the spread of each variable from the mean. All items for leadership behaviours and organisational performance are measured on a 5-point Likert scale (1-5). Organisational performance was the dependent variable in this study. The range of possible scores for the organisational performance measure was 1 to 5; with 1 representing a poorly performing entity and 5 representing a highly performing organisation. Based from data of the mean of total leadership behaviours was 2.75 (SD=0.40). In comparison between the leadership behaviours, the mean for transformational leadership was 2.99 (SD=0.49) and the mean for transactional leadership was 2.36 (SD=0.37). The mean for organisational performance was 2.68 (SD=0.53) and this means that the organisation is performing below average.

The data is summarised below; a summary of the descriptive statistics of the mean and standard deviation indicates that the overall average score for the three-leadership behaviour was 1.77. This means that all the leaders sometimes demonstrated the three leadership characteristics together to achieve their institutions' shared goals. Transformational leadership had the maximum mean score of 2.66 which implies that leaders with such leadership characteristics fairly often demonstrated traits, behaviour, skills and competencies such as creating a shared vision, mentoring and coaching, effective communication, providing inspiration and engendering enthusiasm to realise the groups' common objectives.

LEADERSHIP STYLE IN THE ORGANISATION

Which of the following leadership styles do you have in your organisation?

TABLE 5.4

Question number	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q 10	Which of the following leadership styles do you have in your organisation?	3.04	1.309	1.714

The results from Table 5.4 show that for total 300 employees the mean score is 3.04 (SD = 1.309).

This indicates that all leadership styles are used

FIGURE 5.2. 1



SOURCE: FROM SURVEY 2016

Figure 5.2.1 shows that 22(7.35%) of the respondents say a supportive kind of leadership type and 101(33.82%) of the respondents said task-oriented leadership and 97(32.35%) participative followed by 79 (26.47%) saying all of the above types of leadership are being exhibited.

CHARACTERISTICS OF AN EFFECTIVE LEADER

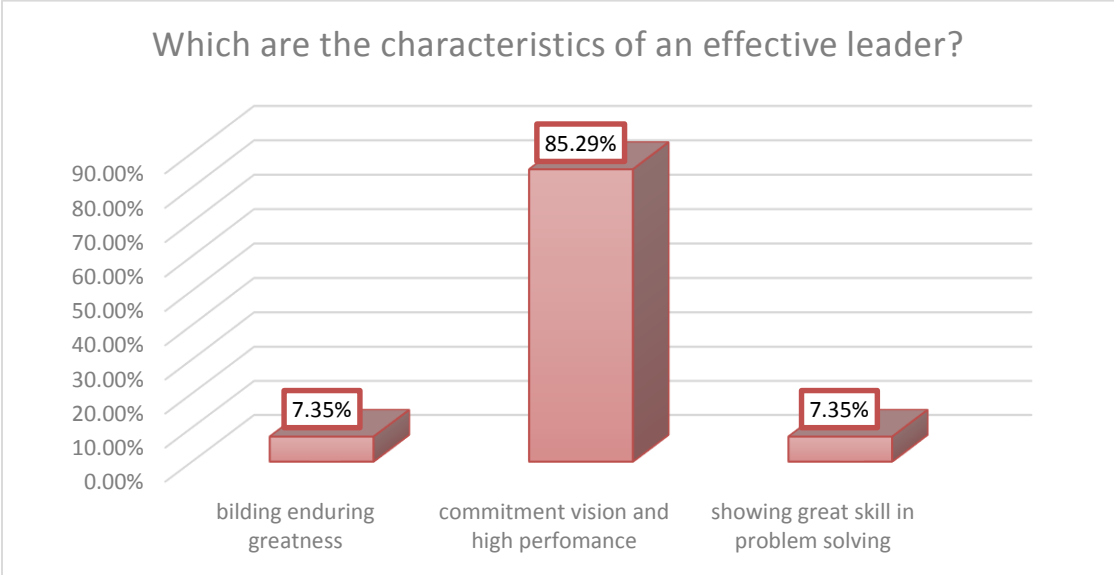
Which characteristics, characterize an effective leader?

TABLE 5.5

Question number	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q13	Which characteristics, characterize an effective leader?	2.15	.851	.724

The results from Table 5.5 shows that for total 205 employees the mean score is 2.15 (SD = 0.851). This shows that the characteristics of effective leaders are those who have commitment and vision, high performance. This implies that Vision-based leadership has positive effects on organisational performance.

FIGURE 5.2.2



SOURCE: FROM SURVEY 2016

The results from Figure 5.2.2 show that 22(7.35%) say building enduring greatness and 256(85.29%) of the respondents said commitment, vision and high performance while 22 (7.35%) says showing great skill in problem solving are characteristics of an effective leader.

DELEGATE OF DUTIES TO SUBORDINATES

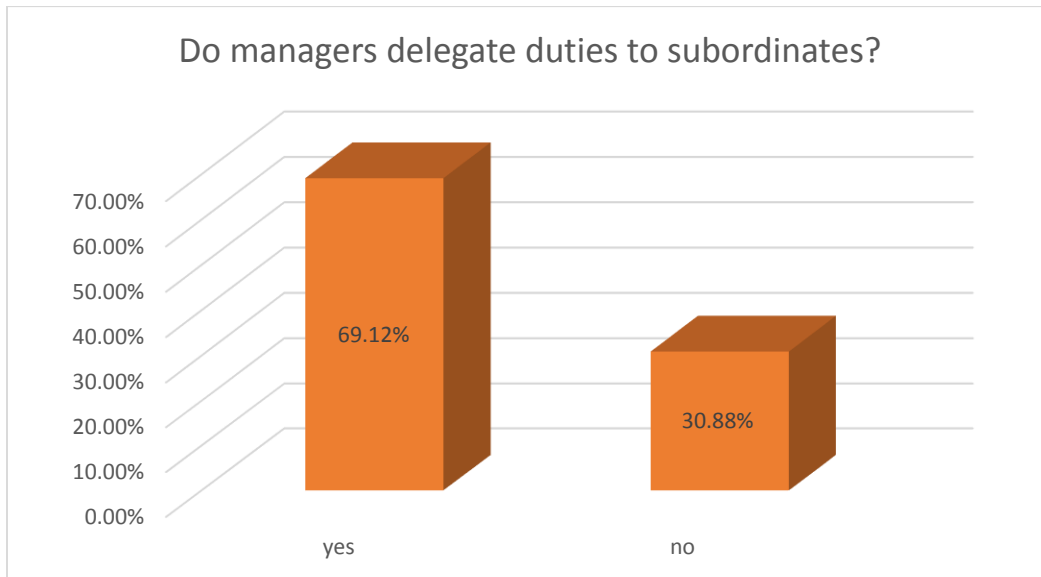
Do managers delegate duties to subordinates?

TABLE 5.6

Question number	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q17	Do managers delegate duties to subordinates?	1.31	.465	.217

From Table 5.6 shows that for total 300 employees the mean score is 1.31 (SD = 0.465). It shows that managers at the organisation delegate tasks to their employees as delegation is the process of giving decision-making, authority to lower-level employees. Effective delegation can benefit the manager, employee and the organisation.

FIGURE 5.2.3



SOURCE: FROM SURVEY 2016

Figure 5.2.3 shows that 208 (69.12%) of the respondents agree that delegation of duties exist, while 92(30.88%) says there is no delegation of duty in the organisation.

RESPONSIBILITIES ARE BACKED UP BY ADEQUATE AUTHORITY

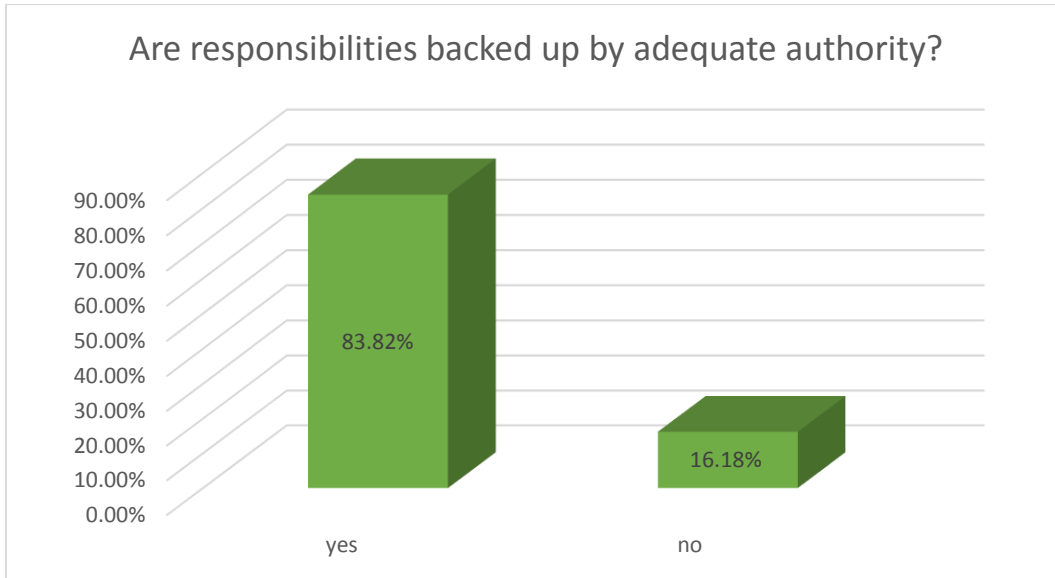
Are responsibilities backed up by adequate authority?

TABLE 5.7

Question number	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q18	Are responsibilities backed up by adequate authority?	1.16	.371	.138

From Table 5.7 shows that for total 300 employees the mean score is 1.16(SD = 0.371). The results of the study show that the majority of the respondents agree that there is delegation of duty which is good, it is very critical that responsibility should be backed up by adequate authority, so that followers will have the authority to make certain decisions that will affect that duty.

FIGURE 5.2.4



SOURCE: FROM SURVEY 2016

From Figure 5.2.4, 252(83.82%) say responsibilities are backed up by adequate authority while 48 (16.18%) says responsibilities are not backed up by adequate authority.

LEADERSHIP STYLE IMPROVE EMPLOYEES' PERFORMANCE

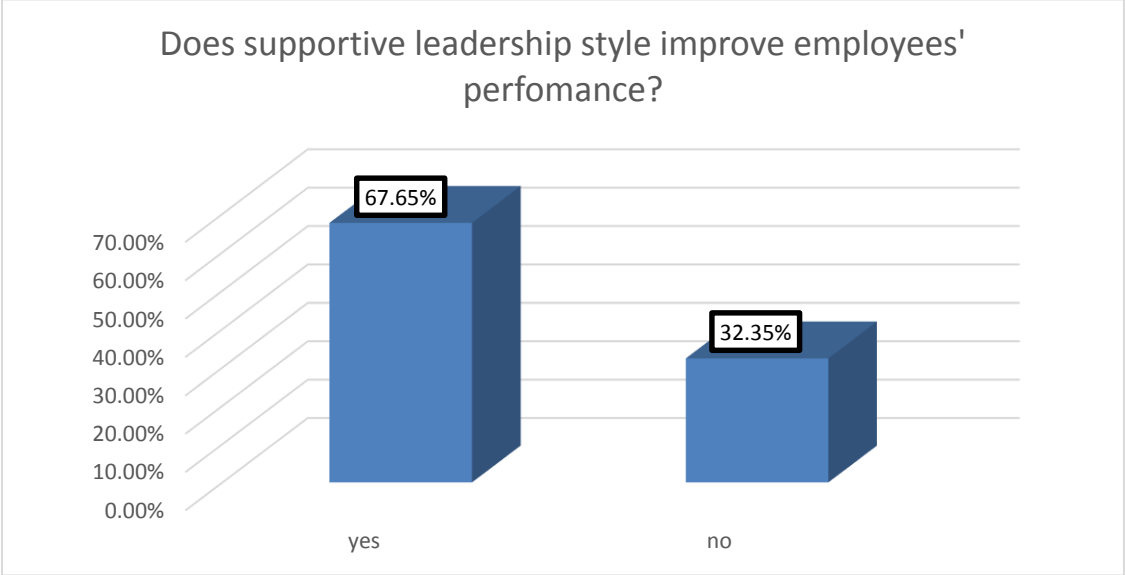
Does supportive leadership style improve employees' performance?

TABLE 5.8

Question number	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q7	Does supportive leadership style improve employees' performance?	1.32	.471	.222

From Table 5.8 shows that for total 300 employees the mean score is 1.32 (SD = 0.471). The results show that employee centred leadership style improves employee performance. This implies that Employee centred leadership style allow subordinates to participate in goal setting and in other work decision and help ensure high performance by inspiring trust and respect.

FIGURE 5.2.5



SOURCE: FROM SURVEY 2016

Figure 5.2.5 shows that approximately, 203(67.65%) of the respondents agree that supportive leadership style improve employees' performance while, 97(32.35%) disagreed.

TASK ORIENTED LEADERSHIP STYLE IMPROVE EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE

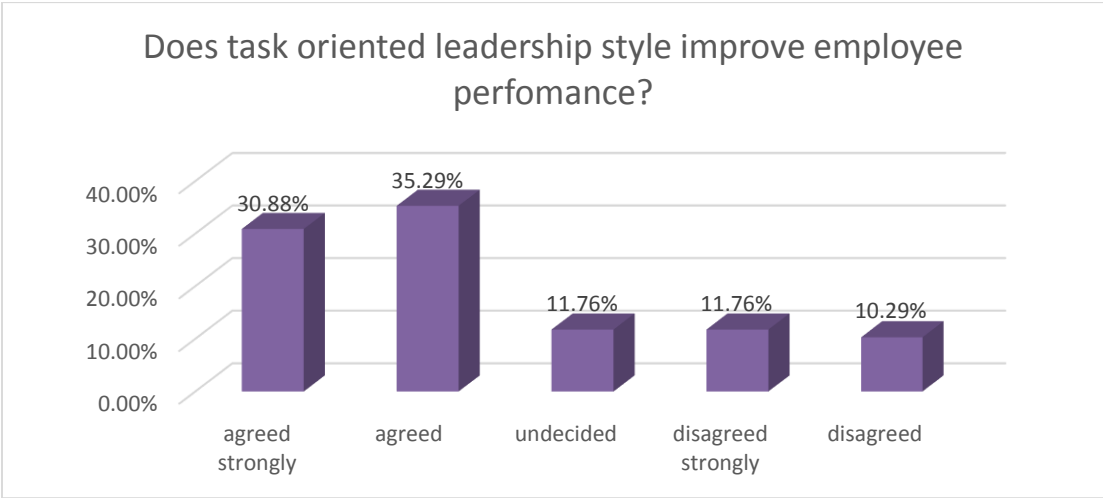
Does task oriented leadership style improve employee performance?

TABLE 5.9

Question number	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q8	Does task oriented leadership style improves employee performance?	2.66	1.733	3.003

The results from Table 5.9 shows that for total 300 employees the mean score is 2.66 (SD = 1.733). It shows that leaders are focused on achieving the task and allow participation from employees. This implies that leaders focus on achieving the task and encouraging subordinates to participate in the decision making process.

FIGURE 5.2.6



SOURCE: FROM SURVEY 2016

Figure 5.2.6 shows that 92 respondents representing 30.88% strongly agreed that task related leadership style improved employees’ performance, 106 respondents standing for 35.29% agreed. 35 respondents representing 11.76% are undecided. While 35 respondents representing 11.76% strongly disagreed and 32 respondents standing for 10.29% disagreed.

**TRANSACTIONAL-TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP STYLE IMPROVE
EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE.**

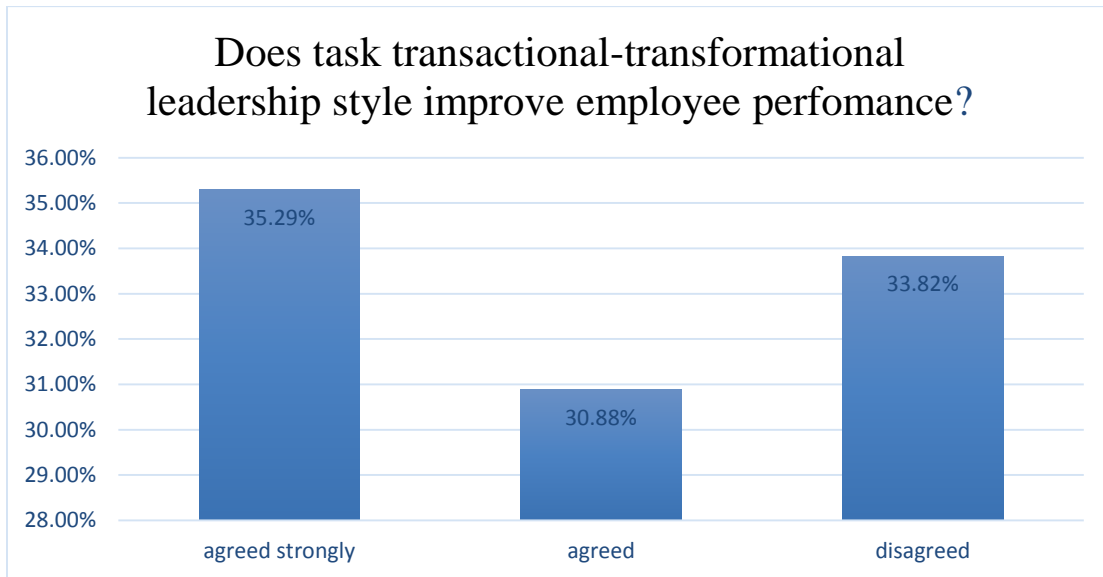
Do transactional-transformational leadership styles improve employee performance?

TABLE 5.10

Question number	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q9	Does transactional-transformational leadership style improve employee performance?	2.66	1.733	3.003

From Table 5.10 shows that for total 300 employees the mean score is 2.66 (SD = 1.733). The results indicate that there is a relationship between Transformational leadership style of leadership and employee performance. This means that this leadership style is one of the best to use in business situations. It encourages engagement from everyone in a team and leads to high performance.

FIGURE 5.2.7



SOURCE: FROM SURVEY 2016

Figure 5.2.7 show that 107(35.29%) strongly agreed that transactional-transformational leadership style improves employee performance and 31(30.88%) are disagreeing, while 101(30.82%) disagreed.

LEADERSHIP STYLE

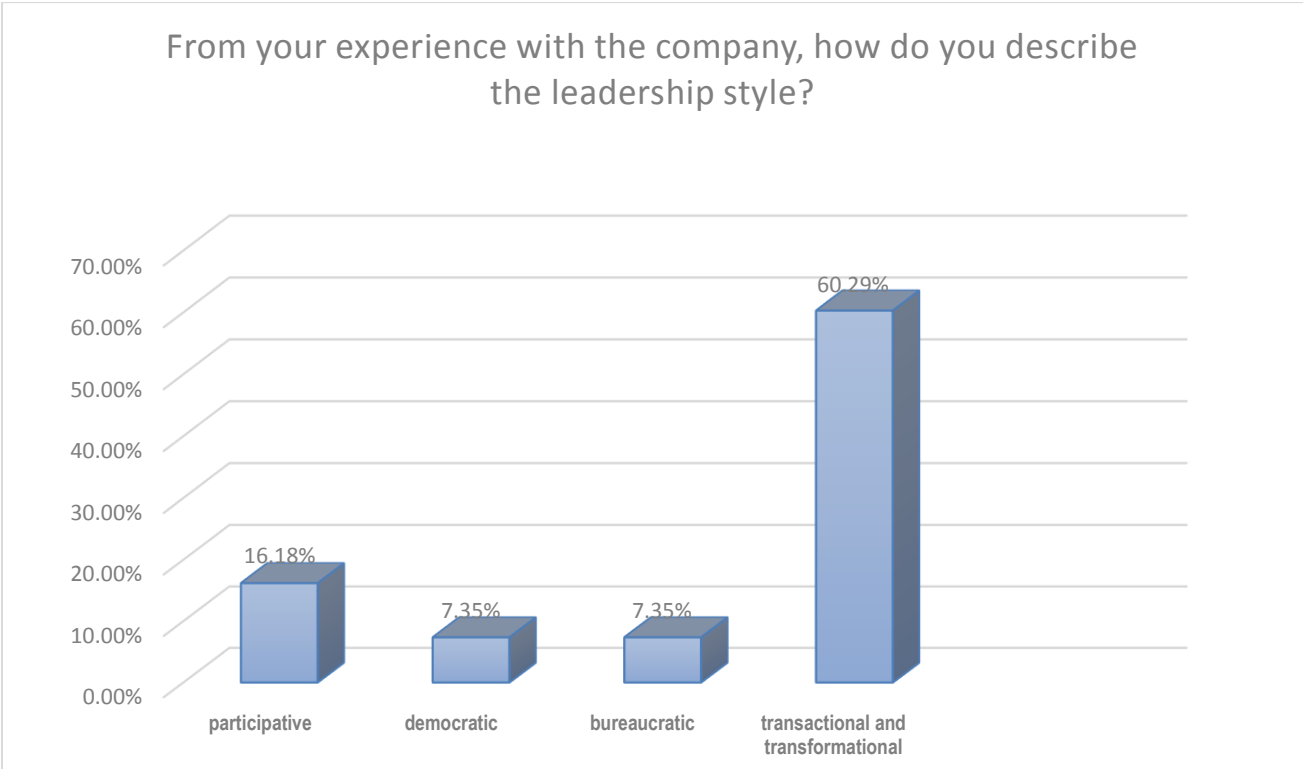
How do you describe the leadership style in your organisation?

TABLE 5.11

Question number	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q31	From experience with the company, how do you describe the leadership style?	3.94	1.465	2.146

From Table 5.11 shows that for total 300 employees the mean score is 3.94 (SD = 1.465). The results from the analysis reveal that Transactional and Transformational leadership style is exhibited followed by autocratic participative, bureaucratic and democratic leadership styles.

FIGURE 5.2.8



SOURCE: FROM SURVEY 2016

Figure 5.2.8 show that 180(60.29%) describes the leadership style as transactional and transformational followed by bureaucratic 22(7.35%), democratic 22(7.35% participative while 48 (16.18%), autocratic 8.82%.

LEADERSHIP STYLE HAS AN IMPACT ON ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE

Do you think leadership has an impact on organisational performance?

TABLE 5.12

Question number	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q10	Do you think leadership style has an impact on organisational performance?	1.66	.477	.227

From Table 5.12 shows that for total 300 employees the mean score is 1.66 (SD = 0.477). It shows that leadership styles have an impact on organisational performance.

FIGURE 5.2.9



SOURCE: FROM SURVEY 2016

Figure 5.2.9 show that 101 respondents representing 33.82% strongly agreed that leadership styles have impact on organisational performance, while 199 respondents representing 66.18% merely agreed while no respondents indicated interest on undecided, strongly disagreed and disagreed. All the respondents agree that leadership has an impact on organisational performance.

OPEN AND SHARING OF COMMUNICATION

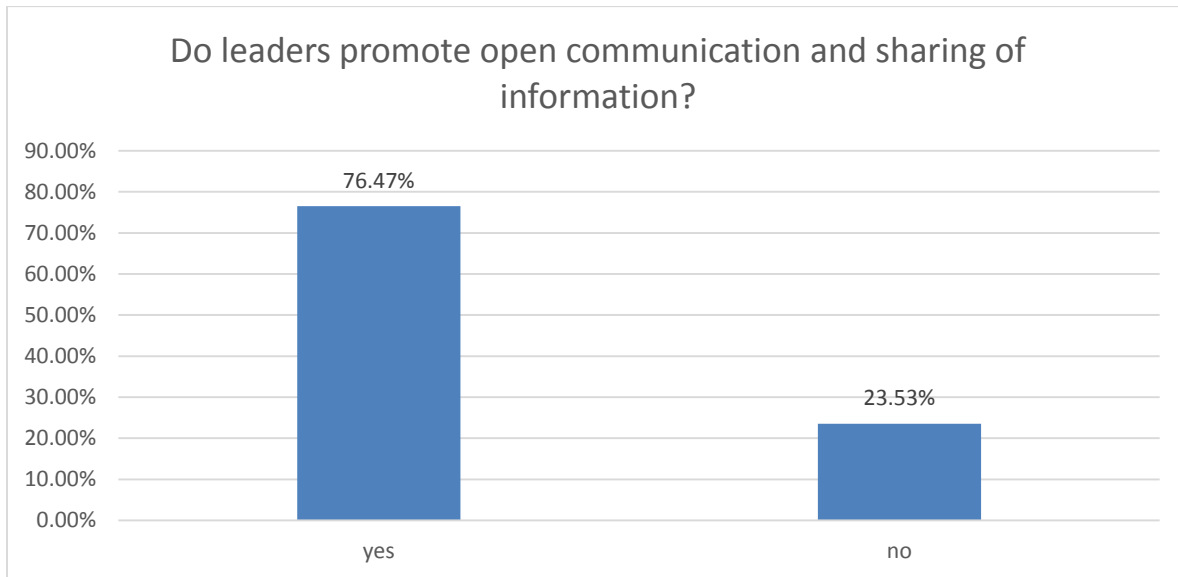
Do leaders promote open communication and sharing of information?

TABLE 5.13

Question number	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q20	Do leaders promote open communication and sharing of information?	1.24	.427	.183

From Table 5.13 shows that for total 300 employees the mean score is 1.24 (SD = 0.427). This shows that leaders collect the suggestions of the employees for about any kind of decision. The suggestions of the employees are also considered which increases the sense of ownership of the organisation by the employees and enhances their interest in their jobs.

FIGURE 5.2.10



SOURCE: FROM SURVEY 2016

The results from Figure 5.2.10 shows that 230(76.47%) of the participants agree that there is open and sharing of communication while 70(24%) says no. This means that effective communication exists. This implies that democratic leadership style is practiced which allows for a two-way open communication.

CONSULTED IN DECISION MAKING

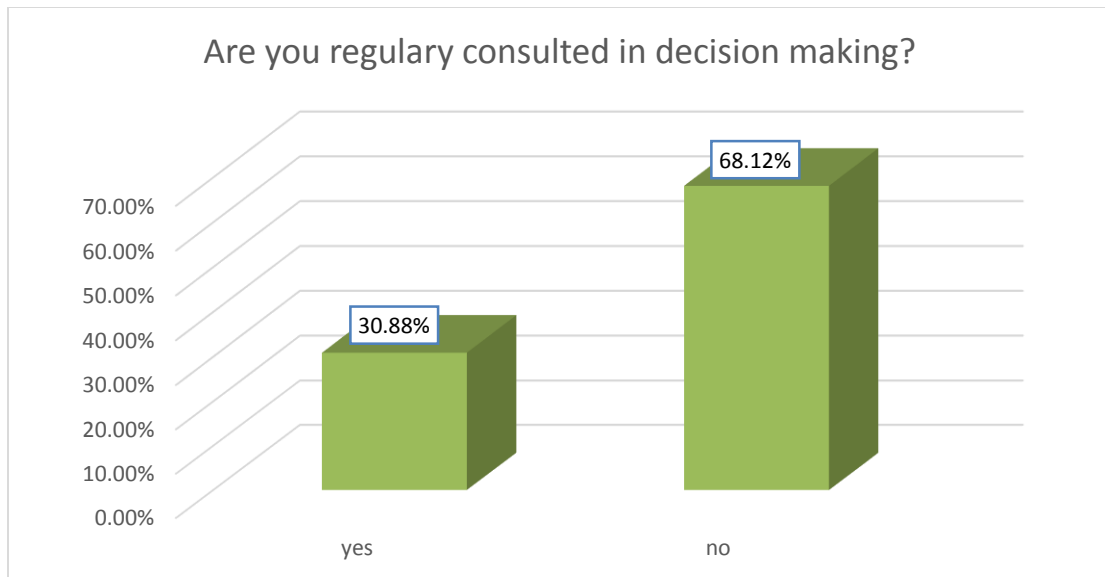
Are you regularly consulted in decision making?

TABLE 5.14

Question number	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q26	Are you regularly consulted in decision making?	1.69	.465	.217

The results from Table 5.14 show that for total 300 employees the mean score is 1.69 (SD = 0.465). This means that workers are not consulted on decisions that even affect their welfare and this implies that autocratic leadership style is practiced because lack of consultation is the characteristics of autocratic leaders

FIGURE 5.2.11



SOURCE: FROM SURVEY 2016

The study first of all considered the degree to which leadership of the state owned enterprises consulted with their subordinates during decision making. The views of the respondents were then analysed and presented in Figure 5.2.11. The results show that 208 (69.12%) of the respondents agreed that leaders did not consult subordinates before decisions were taken, on other hand, 92(31%) of the respondents believed that leadership consulted subordinates before taking decisions.

COMMITMENT IMPROVES PERFORMANCE

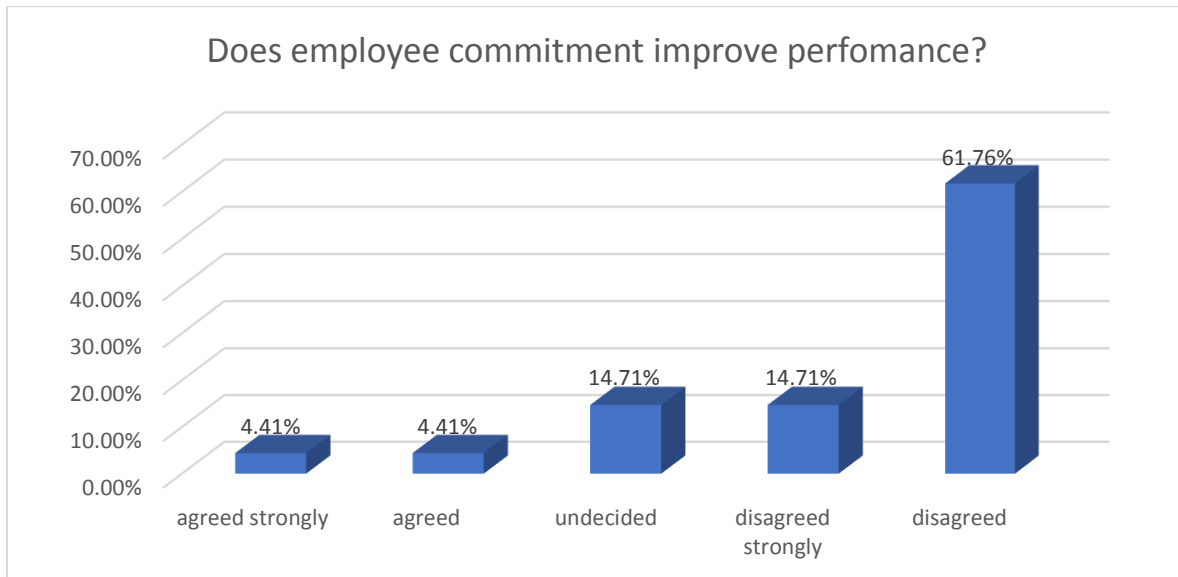
Does employee commitment improve performance?

TABLE 5.15

Question number	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q11	Does employee commitment improve performance?	4.25	1.138	1.295

From Table 5.15 shows that for total 300 employees the mean score is 4.25 (SD = 1.138). The results show that employee commitment improves organisational performance. This suggests that there is a link between commitment and organisational performance. Increase in commitment level of employees in organisations ultimately increases the performance of their employees.

FIGURE 5.2.12



SOURCE: FROM SURVEY 2016

Figure 5.2.12 show that approximately 186(61.76%) of the participants said they strongly agree, 44(14.71%) say they agree, 44(14.71%) are undecided while 13(4.41%) say they disagree and 13(4.41%) say they strongly disagree.

PERFORMANCE OF THE COMPANY

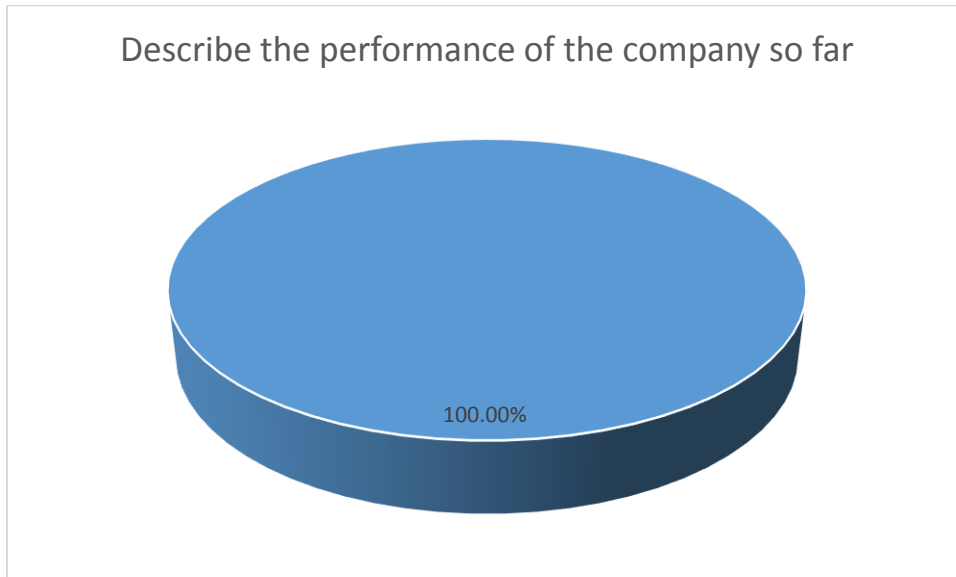
How can you describe the performance of the company so far?

TABLE 5.16

Question number	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q29	How can you describe the performance of the company so far?	2.00	.000	.000

From Table 5.16 shows that for total 300 employees the mean score is 2.00 (SD = 0.00). This shows that that the organisations are performing below average.

FIGURE 5.2.13



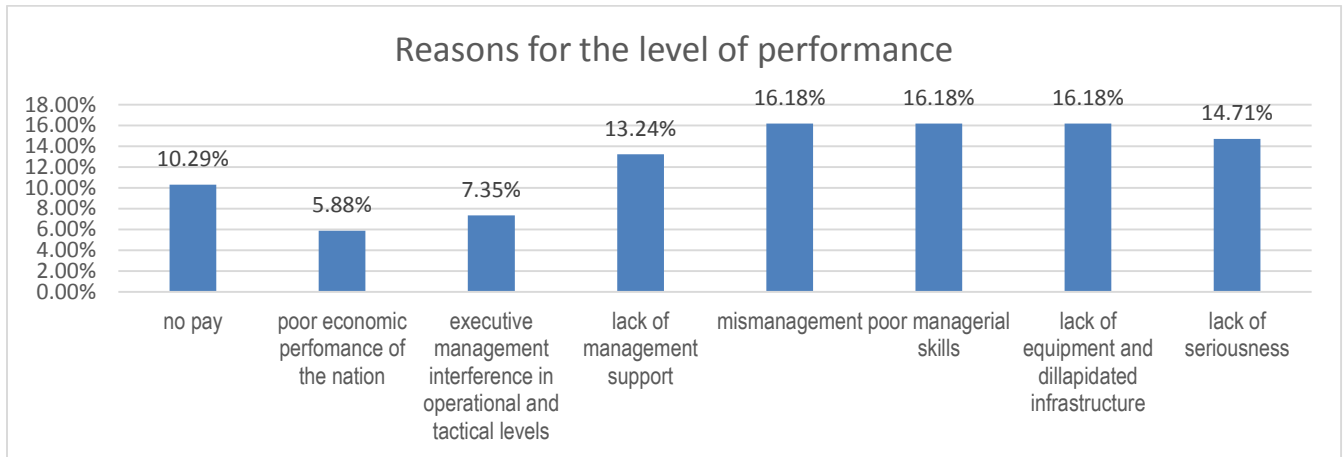
SOURCE: FROM SURVEY 2016

From Figure 5.2.13 all respondents agreed that the performance of the organisations is at their worst.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR THIS LEVEL OF POOR PERFORMANCE

What are the causes of the performance?

FIGURE 5.2.14



SOURCE: FROM SURVEY 2016

The question was asked to find the reasons for the level of performance. Figure 5.2.14 shows that 31 respondents which represent 10.29% said no pay, and 18(5.86%) view poor economic performance of the nation. While 22 (7.35%) of the respondents cited executive management interferences,40 (13.24%) say lack of management support, with 48 (16.18%) of respondents saying mismanagement, while 48 (16.18%) poor managerial skills, 48(16.18%) lack of equipment and dilapidated infrastructure are responsible for this level of performance, and 45(14.71%) cited lack of seriousness from top management.

FACTOR STATED TO ENHANCE ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE IN THE COMPANY

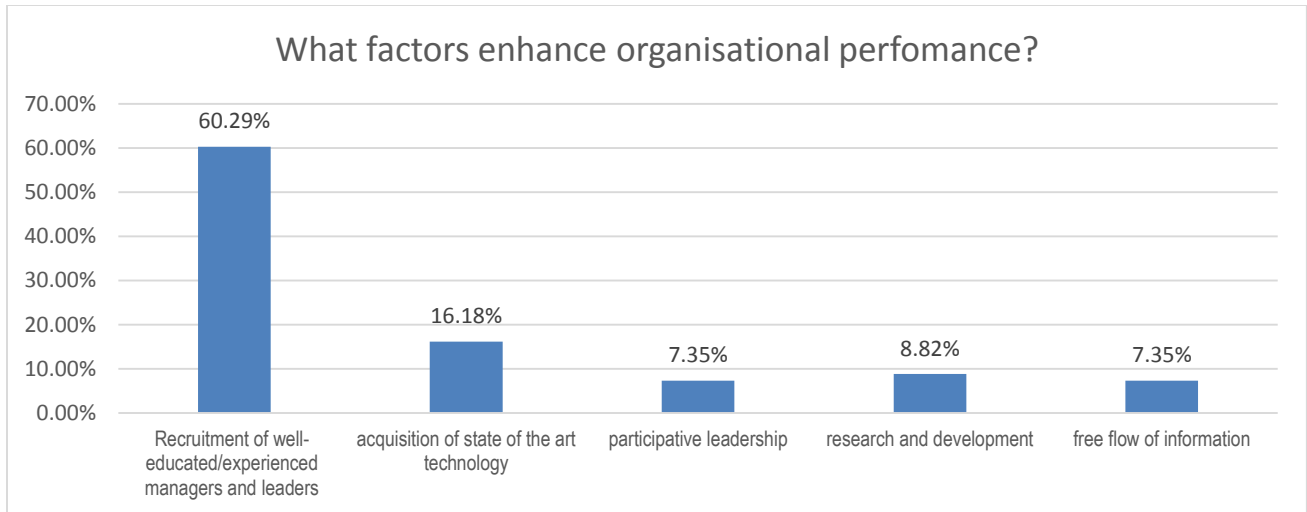
What factors will enhance organisational performance in your company?

TABLE 5.17

Question number	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q34	What factors will enhance organisational performance in your company?	1.87	1.303	1.699

Table 5.17 shows that for total 300 employees the mean score is 1.87 (SD = 1.303). It shows that other factors which would enhance organisational performance beside leadership styles.

FIGURE 5.2.15



SOURCE: FROM SURVEY 2016

The results from Figure 5.2.15 show that 181(60.29%) of the participants said Recruitment of well-educated/experienced managers and leaders is the most factor stated to enhance organisational performance in the company, 48(16.18%) said acquisition of state of the art technology, while 22 (7.35%) said participative leadership and 26(8.82%) said research and development and 22(7.35%) cited free flow of information.

COUNTER HIGH ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE

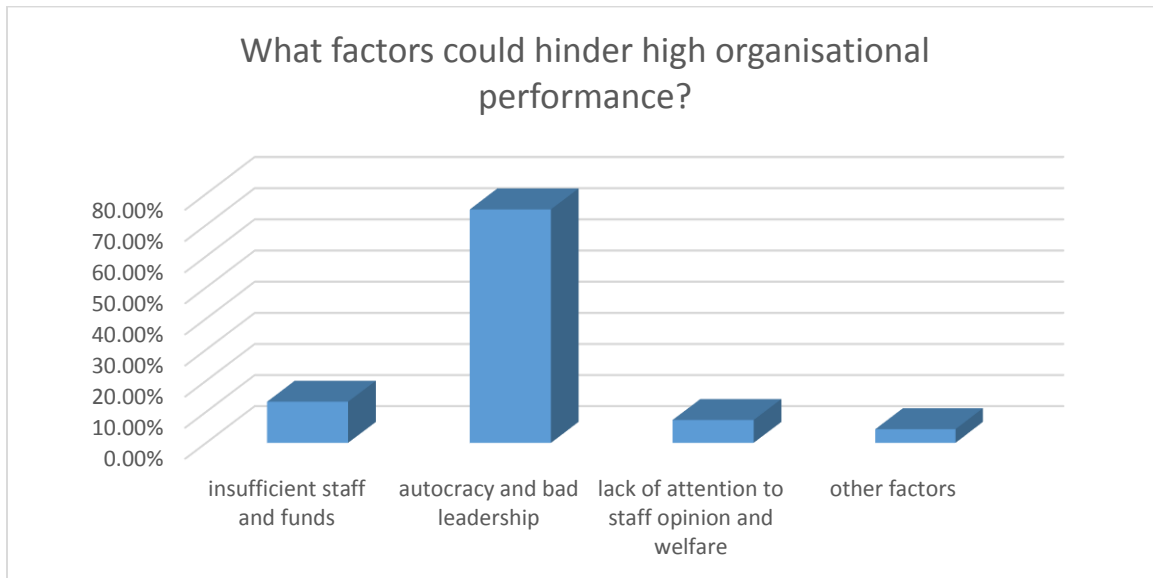
What factors could hinder high organisational performance?

TABLE 5.18

Question number	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q35	What factors could counter high organisational performance?	3.03	.622	.387

Table 5.18 shows that for total 300 employees the mean score is 3.03 (SD = 0.622). The results show that autocracy and bad leadership affect performance and that organisational performance depends on various kinds of factors such as leaders' styles, leader-subordinate relation, firm size etc. which definitely has a great impact on the performance of a firm.

FIGURE 5.2.16



SOURCE: FROM SURVEY 2016

Figure 5.2.16 shows that 40(13%) of the participants say insufficient staff and funds, while 225(75%) of the respondents said autocracy and bad leadership could counter high organisational performance, and 22(7.35%) lack of attention to staff opinion and welfare and 13(4.41%) said other factors can also impede performance.

NOT RECENTLY PROMOTED

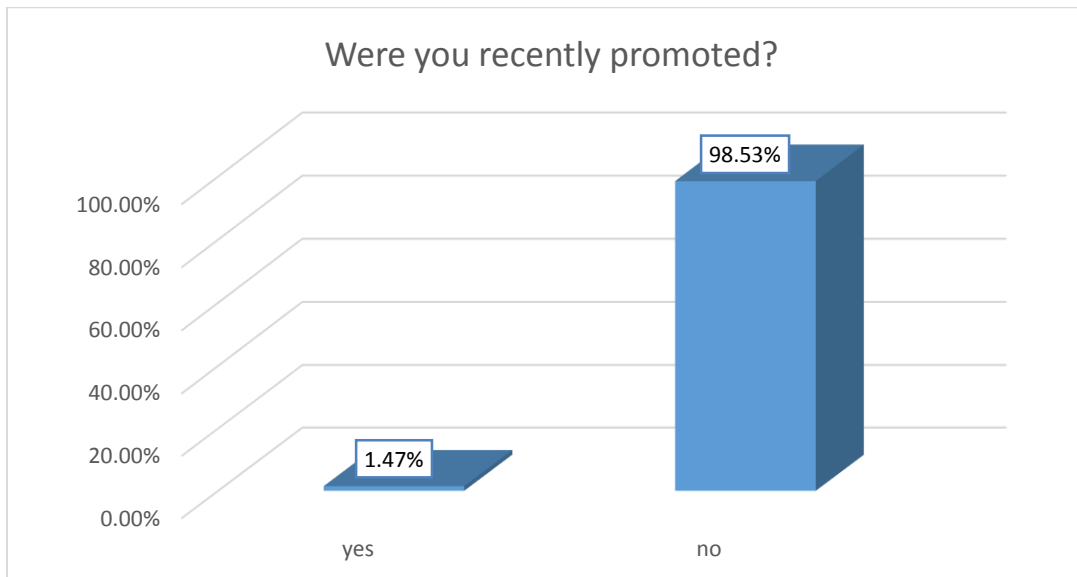
Were you recently employed?

TABLE 5.19

Question number	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q25	Were you recently employed?	1.99	.121	.015

Table 5.19 shows that for total 300 employees the mean score is 1.99 (SD = 0.121). This indicates that only a small percentage of the staff was promoted.

FIGURE 5.2.17



SOURCE: SURVEY 2016

Figure 5.2.17 show that 296 (98.53%) of the respondents were not recently promoted while, 4 of the respondents which represent (1.47%) were promoted recently

DECISION OF PROMOTION

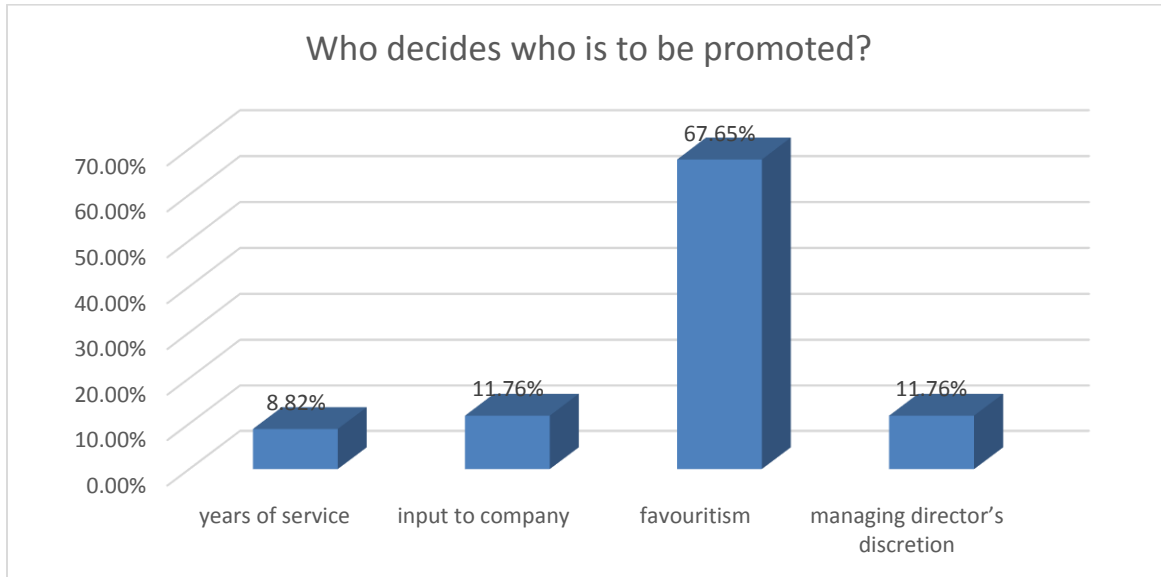
Who decides who is to be promoted?

TABLE 5.20

Question number	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q12	Who decides who is to be promoted?	2.82	.752	.565

From Table 5.20 shows that for total 300 employees the mean score is 3.29 (SD = 1.53). This shows that favouritism was used to select those to be promoted and this implies that company policies, rules and regulations regarding promotion were not followed. Staff promotion based on merit and skill will motivate staff to higher organisational performance.

FIGURE 5.2.18



SOURCE: FROM SURVEY 2016

Figure 5.2.18 shows that 26(8.82%) of the respondents say years of service and 35(11.76%) said input to company while 204(68%) says favouritism is mainly used on decision of promotion, and 35 (11.76%) were promoted on managing director's discretion.

MOTIVATION

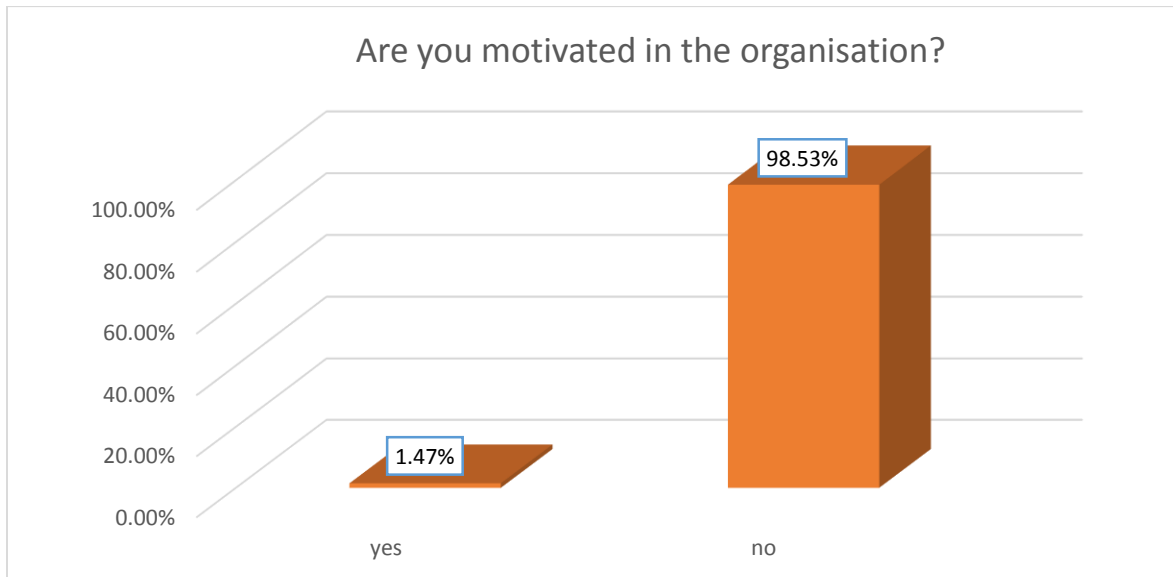
Are you motivated in the organisation?

TABLE 5.21

Question number	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q14	Are you motivated in the organisation?	1.99	.121	.015

From Table 5.21 shows that for total 300 employees the mean score is 1.99 (SD = 0.121). The results show that employees are not motivated. This implies that there is lack of proper recognition of staff and this results in high staff turnover. This prompts workers to seek jobs in other organisations, where their contributions and skills will be rewarded and properly remunerated

FIGURE 5.2.19



SOURCE: SURVEY 2016

The results in Figure 5.2.19 show that 296(99%) of the participants are not motivated while 4(1%) are motivated. Motivation factor is very necessary in organization regarding the performance of employees but we can't say that the person who is motivated is good performer. If there is no motivation among the workers then the performance rate will be low that will be harmful for workers as well as organization, but the job related training is also crucial for the skills that lead to motivation. Employee Motivation is very important factor for organization because it is the only factor that can enhance the capability of employees and can lead to success of organization.

RECEIVING ON JOB TRAINING

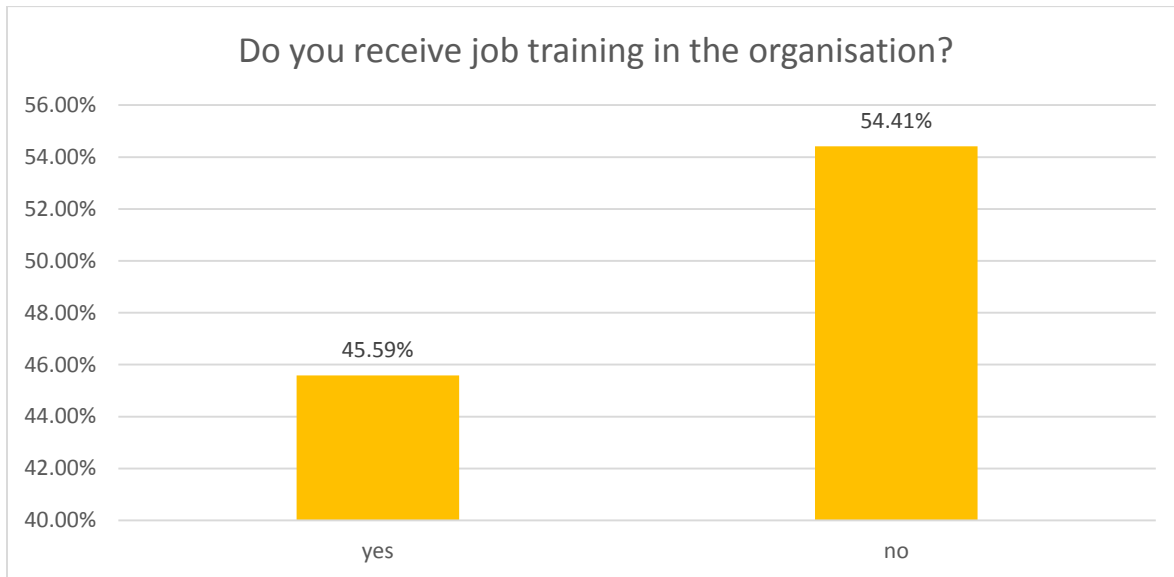
Do you receive on-job training in the organisation?

TABLE 5.22

Question number	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q15	Do you receive on-job training in the organisation?	1.54	.502	.252

Table 5.22 shows that for total 300 employees the mean score is 1.54 (SD = 0.502). This shows that on-job training is carried out but not everybody is qualified for the on job training. This depends on the person's type of job. This means that not all jobs need further training. But for jobs that require training from time to time, this would enable the respondents to be better equipped to tackle their day to day jobs and the challenges that come with them. This will lead to improved organisational performance.

FIGURE 5.2.20



SOURCE: FROM SURVEY 2016

Figure 5.2.20 shows that approximately 136(45.59%) of the respondents agree that they have training for the job they are currently doing, while 164 (54.41) respondents agree that they do not have training on the job. Training presents a prime opportunity to expand the knowledge base of all employees, but many employers in the current climate find development opportunities expensive. Employees attending training sessions also miss out on work time which may delay the completion of projects. The investment in training that a company makes shows employees that they are valued. The training creates a supportive workplace. Employees may gain access to training they wouldn't have otherwise known about or sought out themselves. Employees who feel appreciated and challenged through training opportunities may feel more satisfaction toward their jobs. Most employees will have some weaknesses in their workplace skills. A training programme allows leaders to strengthen those skills that each employee needs to improve.

KIND OF TRAINING

What kind of on- job training is offered by the organisation?

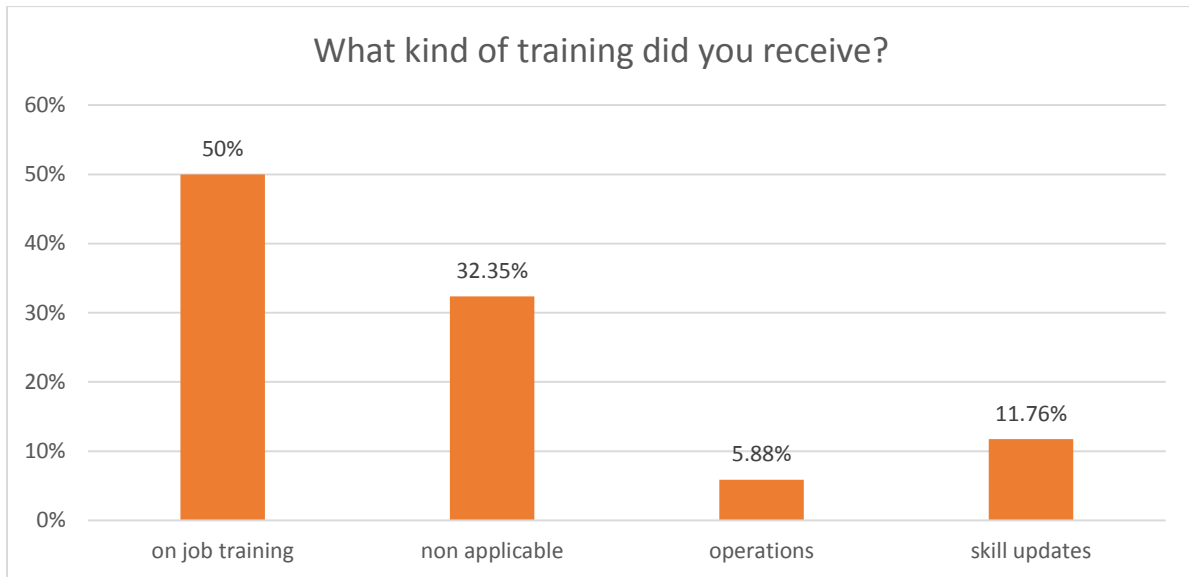
TABLE 5.23

Question number	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q16	What kind of on-job training is offered by the organisation?	1.79	1.001	1.002

From Table 5.23 shows that for total 300 employees the mean score is 1.79 (SD = 1.001). The results show that on job training is being carried out. No matter how automated an organisation may be, high performance depends on the level of training of employees.

Productivity usually increases when a company implements training courses. Increased efficiency in processes will ensure project success which in turn will improve the company turnover and potential market share.

FIGURE 5.2.21



SOURCE: FROM SURVEY 2016

The results from Figure 5.2.21 show that 150 of the respondents which represent 50% received on job training, 98 of the respondents which represent 32.35% say non applicable, and 18 participants which represent 5.88% received operations training while 35 respondents which represent 11.76% receives skill updates. A robust training and development programme ensures that employees have a consistent experience and background knowledge. The consistency is particularly relevant for the company's basic policies and procedures. All employees need to be aware of the expectations and procedures within the company. Increased efficiencies in processes results in financial gain for the company. Ongoing training and upskilling of the workforce can encourage creativity. New ideas can be formed as a direct result of training and development Training can be of any kind relevant to the work or responsibilities of the individual, and can be delivered by any appropriate method. For example, it could include: on-the-job learning, mentoring schemes, in-house training and individual study

MOTIVATED IN RESPONSE TO THEIR EFFORTS AND CONTRIBUTIONS

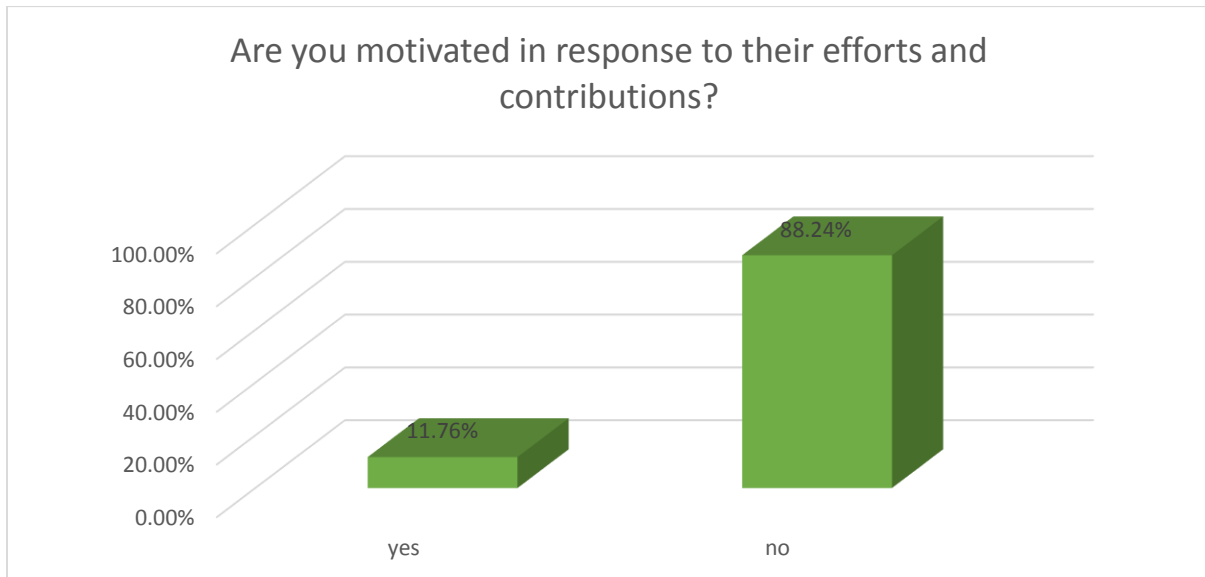
Are you are motivated in response to their efforts and contributions?

TABLE 5.24

Question number	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q32	Do you think workers are motivated in response to their efforts and contributions?	1.88	.325	.105

From Table 5.24 shows that for total 300 employees the mean score is 1.88 (SD = 0.325). The study revealed that State Owned Enterprises employers do not motivate their staff based on their effort and contribution. This can lead to low morale which can affect performance and productivity.

FIGURE 5.2.22



SOURCE: FROM SURVEY 2016

Figure 5.2.22 show that 36(11.76%) say they are motivated while 264(88.24%) think workers are not motivated in response to their efforts and contributions while.

This is a spill over from above question in order to ascertain the actual forms of performance measurement applied in the organisation.

129 (43%) of the respondents are of the opinion that there is no motivation. 69(23%) of the respondents agreed that they are very poorly motivated, while 9(3%) agreed that they are fairly motivated. 12(4%) agreed that they are averagely motivated, while 51(17%) and 30(10%) agreed that the level of motivation was good and satisfactory. The results show that there is no motivation of workers.

PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT EXISTING IN THEIR ORGANISATION

Are there forms of performance measurement existing in your organisation?

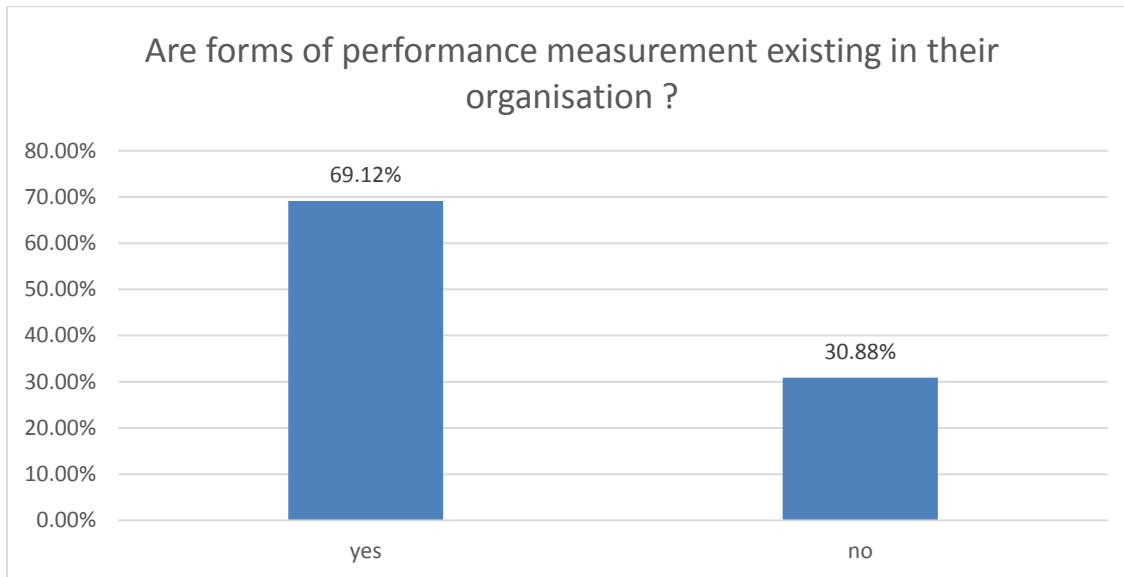
TABLE 5.25

Question number	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q33	Are there forms of performance measurement existing in your organisation?	1.31	.465	.217

From Table 5.25 shows that for total 300 employees the mean score is 1.31 (SD = 0.465). The results indicate that performance management systems are there and that employees are being appraised.

An effective performance management system can play a very crucial role in managing the performance in an organization by: Ensuring that the employees understand the importance of their contributions to the organizational goals and objectives.

FIGURE 5.2.23



SOURCE: FROM SURVEY 2016

The results from Figure 5.2.23 show that 208(89.12%) of the respondents say there are forms of performance measurement existing in their organisation while 92 (30.88%) say no. The State – Owned Enterprises can utilize employee performance measurements to calculate merit increases, provide opportunities for advancement or to determine whether to retain or let go employees. These evaluations must be consistent, fairly administered and transparent. Communicate your expectations to your employees and define what it takes to meet or exceed them. This approach contends that in order for a business to thrive it must identify its best and worst performers, nurturing the highest achievers and improving or discarding the least-effective workers. The goal is to reward and retain those who contribute the most to your success and cull the ones who hold you back. While arguably resulting in a more productive workforce overall, forced ranking may lead to a very competitive work environment and a lack of collaboration and teamwork between staff member

LEADERS' TAKE ERRORS

How do leaders take errors made by subordinates?

TABLE 5.26

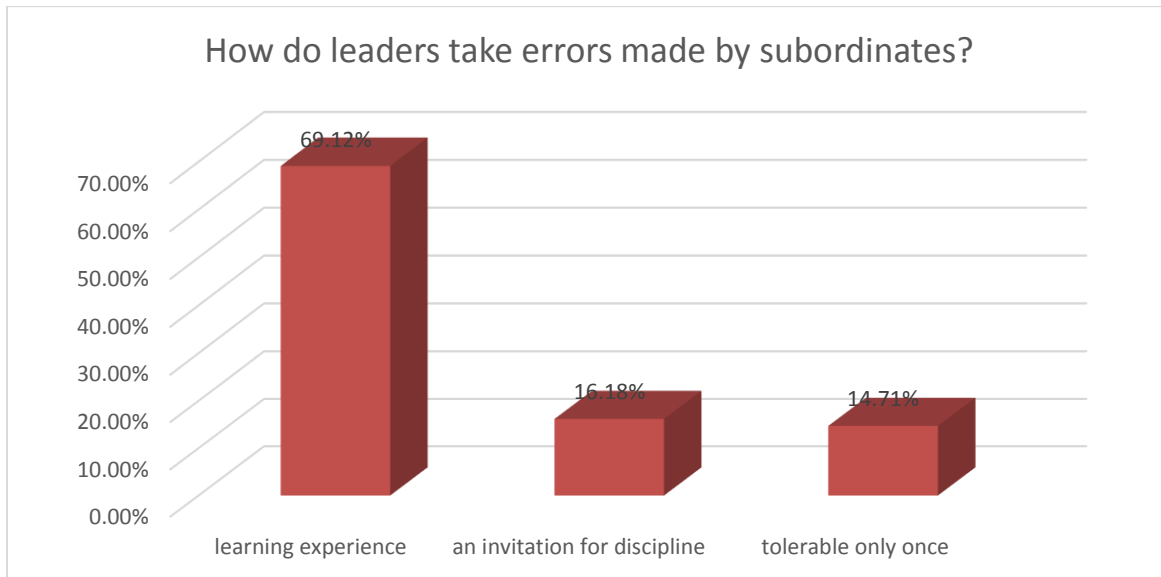
Question number	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q27	How do leaders take errors made by subordinates?	1.46	.742	.550

From Table 5.26 shows that for total 300 employees the mean score is 1.46 (SD = 0.742). It shows that employees are not always threatened or punished if they make mistakes because the organisation wants to achieve its goals.

The most common reason that people aren't innovative or creative is that they fear failure. Give your team space to fail, and watch the innovative ideas start to flow.

Finally, removing the punitive aspect of making a mistake helps improve employee satisfaction. You'll enjoy a more positive relationship with your team, and see more collaboration and trust.

FIGURE 5.2.24



SOURCE: FROM SURVEY 2016

Figure 5.2.24 show that 208 (69.12%) says leaders take errors as learning experience while 48(16.18%) says it is an invitation for discipline and 44(14.71%) says it is tolerable once. This shows that creativity and innovation is encouraged. This means that leaders are promoting employees to think outside the box to come up with new ideas. By allowing mistakes gives the employees the freedom to admit what they don't know -- and then find ways to improve their knowledge. As a leader, you could help create formal training and development programmes that allow employees to improve themselves and the company. Instead of trying to fake their way through tasks and hoping for the best, being able to admit shortcomings and getting support to develop and grow helps improve employee satisfaction and loyalty, and improves your workforce.

REWARDS AND RECOGNITION ARE TIED TO PERFORMANCE

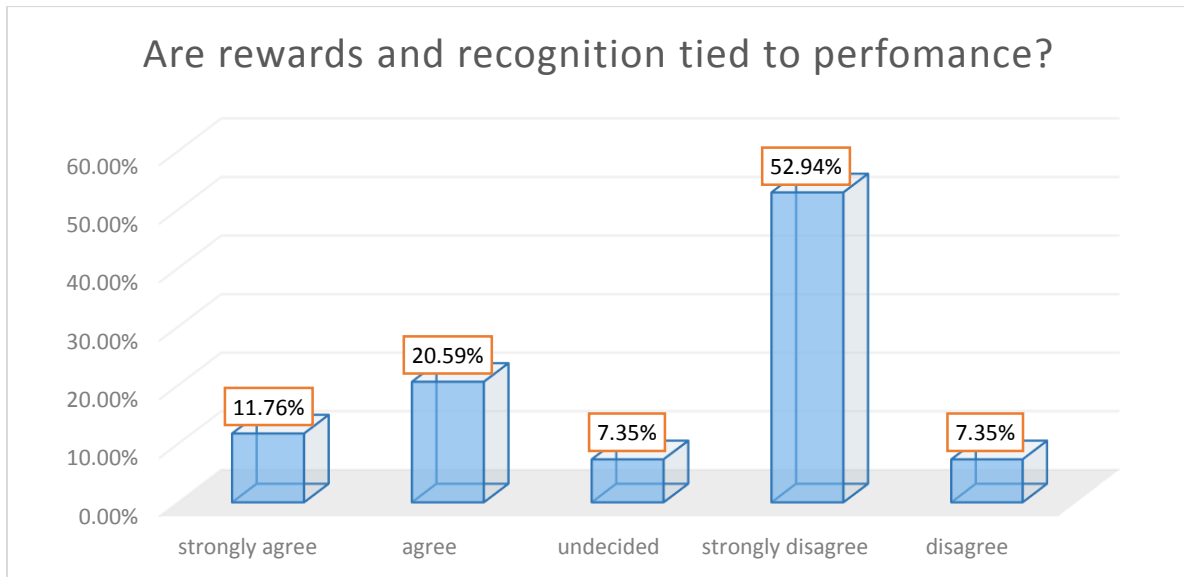
Are rewards and recognition are tied to performance?

TABLE 5.27

Question number	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q24	are rewards and recognition tied to performance	2.31	1.557	2.426

From Table 5.27 shows that for total of 300 employees the mean score is 2.31 (SD = 1.55). This shows that rewards and recognition are not tied to organisational performance. The larger section of non-managerial employees indicated that there was also a challenge in terms of poor distribution of rewards where there are perceptions of managerial employees getting very high perks against non-managerial employees, and in the absence of a performance-based rewarding system. A positive employee experience makes people both less likely to leave their current job and more likely to go the extra mile for their employers. And recognition and rewards programs are certainly one way to create a better work environment.

FIGURE 5.2.25



SOURCE: FROM SURVEY 2016

Figure 5.2.25 shows that 159(52.94%) of the respondents strongly disagree that rewards and recognition are tied to performance, 22(7.35%) disagree, 22(7.35%) are undecided and 62(20.59%) agree while 35(11.76%) strongly agree. Having a motivated workforce is one of the key requirements for an organization’s success, for both operational excellences in day-to-day efforts and effective implementation of improvement programs. It’s important to have measurable goals and specific desired actions in place so people know what to do. Then when they complete the actions or achieve the goals, they should have reinforcement, which motivates them to do more. Ultimately, reinforcement is an intrinsic element of a continuous improvement culture. In the workplace, reinforcement takes the form of a reward and recognition system. This generally doesn’t come about organically, but must be planned and implemented by leaders within the organization’s overall strategic deployment. Leaders at each level of the organization have specific accountabilities for the system, starting with strategic definition of a reward and recognition

system and provision of required resources by the organizational manager and cascading to identification of specific worker actions and metrics that should be rewarded. Leaders at all levels, of course, also need to engage in daily recognition activities

COMPANY IS A GOOD PLACE TO WORK

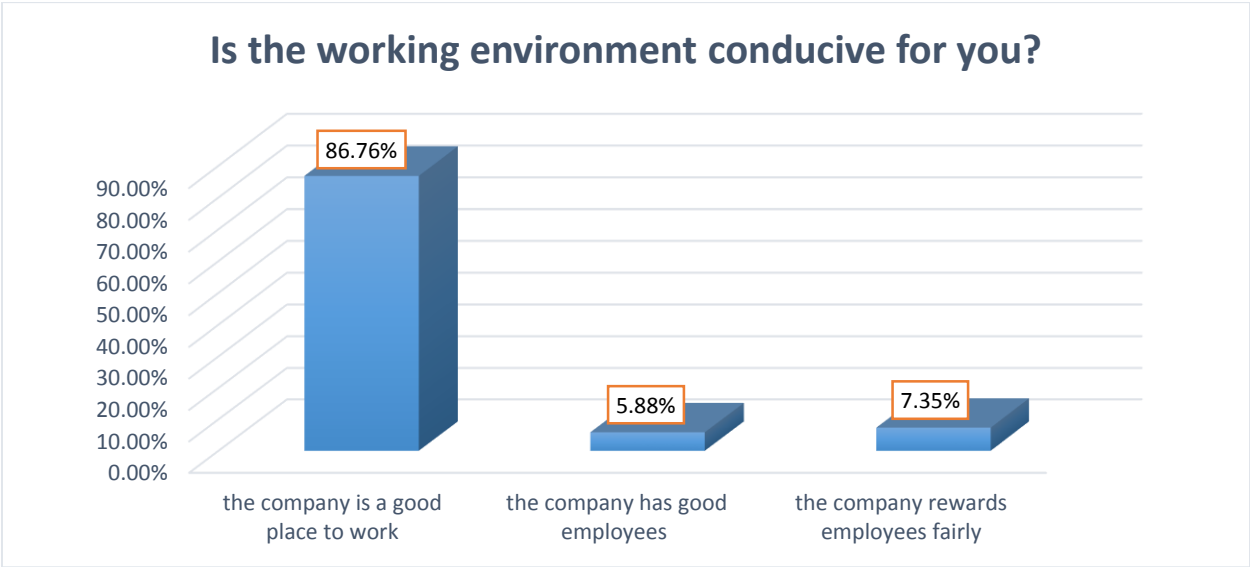
Is the working environment conducive for you?

TABLE 5.28

Question number	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q28	Is the working environment conducive for you?	1.21	.561	.315

Table 5.28 shows that for a total of 300 employees the mean score is 1.21 (SD = 0.561). It shows that leaders always try to create such kind of environment in which all employees feel easy to work and they are asked to participate in decision making in organisation matters this create a sense of ownership among the employees and they work more enthusiastically.

FIGURE 5.2.26



SOURCE: FROM SURVEY 2016

Figure 5.2.26 show that 260(86.76 %) of the respondents agree that the company is a good place to work while 18 (5.88%) say the company has good employees and 22 (7.35%) say the company rewards employees fairly.

SHOWING CARE AND CONCERN

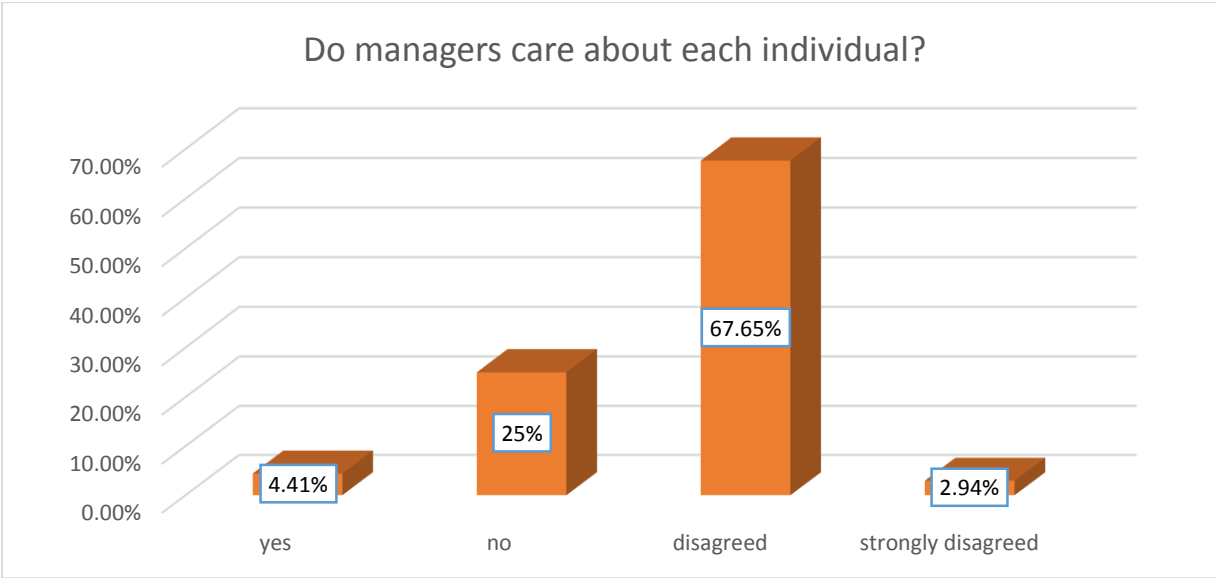
Do management care about each individual employees?

TABLE 5.29

Question number	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q22	Do management care about each individual employees?	1.97	.897	.805

From Table 5.29 results show that for a total of 300 employees the mean score is 1.79 (SD = 0.897). This indicate that leaders are focussed on achieving organisational goals without looking at the welfare of the employee

FIGURE 5.2.27



SOURCE: FROM SURVEY 2016

The results of the findings in Figure 5.2.27 show that 13(4.41%) say yes and on the other hand, 75(25%) of the respondents said no while 203 (67.65%) of the respondents disagreed and 9(2.94%) strongly disagreed that leaders show care and concern

CELEBRATION OF SUCCESS

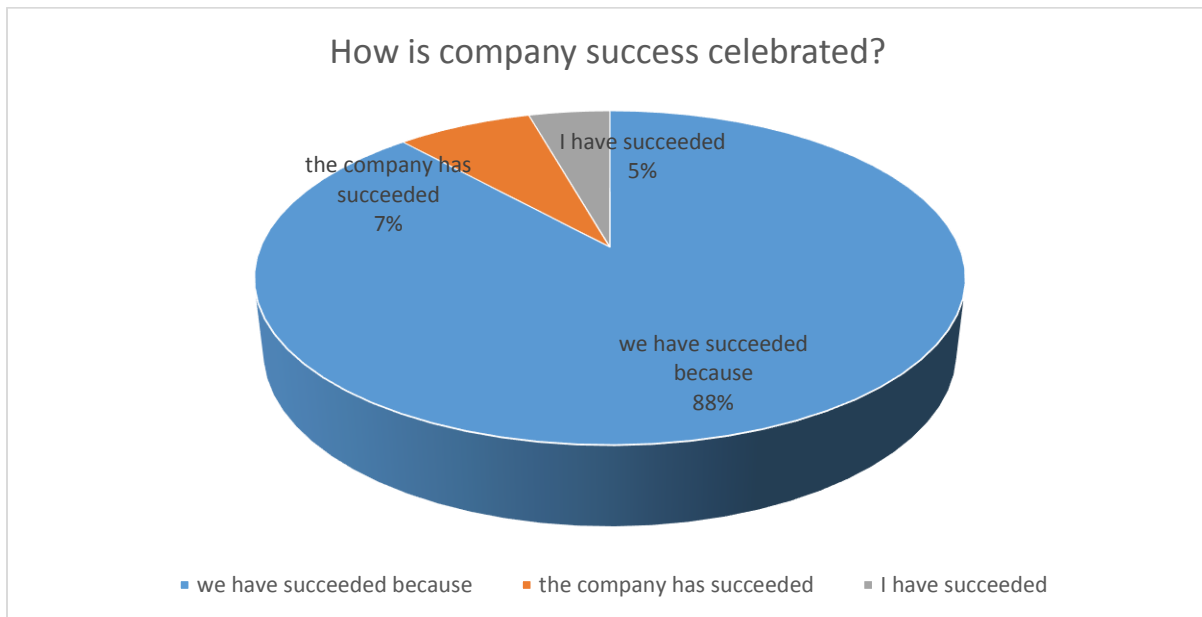
How is company success celebrated?

TABLE 5.30

Question number	Question	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q23	How is company success celebrated?	1.16	.477	.227

Table 5.30 shows that for total 300 employees the mean score is 1.16 (SD = 0.477). It shows that the leader does not take credit for success alone.

FIGURE 5.2.28



SOURCE: FROM SURVEY 2016

Figure 5.2.28 shows that 265(88.24%) of the respondents used the phrase —we have succeeded because...|| when addressing success and the 22(7.31%) used the phrase —the company has succeeded because...|| these statements give credit to the whole team and the remaining13 (4.41%) used the phrase I have succeeded

5.3 TESTING FOR INDEPENDENCE OF ASSOCIATION (NON – PARAMETRIC TESTS)

In order to investigate the relationship between leadership behaviour and the organisational performance of State Owned Enterprises in Zimbabwe Chi-Square Tests were conducted. Leadership styles were used as independent variables. The dependent variable was the organisational performance. The following questions Q7, Q8, Q9, and Q10 were used to examine the relationship between leadership styles and organisational performance. An alpha level of 0.05 was used to test for significance

Does Leadership style has an impact on organisational performance?

TABLE 5.31

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7.976 ^a	3	.047
Likelihood Ratio	9.368	3	.025
N of Valid Cases	68		

a. 2 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.69.

Decision

The p –value from the SPSS output of 0.047 is less 0.05 which is significant and thus we reject Ho and conclude there is indeed a very close association/relation between Leadership style of the organisation and impact on organisational performance. The views expressed by the participants seem to be in tandem with Bass and Avolio (2004) who revealed that there is a positive correlation between the leadership style and performance of the organisation. This is because when you have good leadership everybody is likely to be involved and where everybody is involved, there is likely to be accountability. Having good performance is part and parcel of being accountable. So leadership styles have an impact on performance.

Does Supportive leadership style improve employees' performance?

Table 5.32

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	15.258 ^a	3	.002
Likelihood Ratio	20.275	3	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	14.105	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	300		

a. 2 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.62.

Decision

The p –value from the SPSS output of 0.002 is less 0.05 which is very significant and thus we reject Ho and conclude there is indeed a very close association/relation between supportive leadership style and employees' performance. **Relationship behaviour** is the extent to which the leader engages in two-way or multi-way communications. This includes listening, facilitating, and supportive behaviours. In relationship behaviour the leader engages in two-way communication by providing socio-emotional support. The employee-centred style of leadership places strong emphasis on the welfare and motivation of subordinates. Leaders establish trust, mutual respect and rapport with the workers and show concern, warmth, support and consideration for subordinates (Mullins 2005). Leaders, with this style are more sensitive to the needs and feelings of the employee.

Does Task oriented leadership style improve employees' performance?

Table 5.33

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	37.086 ^a	12	.000
Likelihood Ratio	42.734	12	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	19.371	1	.000

a. 14 cells (70.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .51.

Decision

The p –value from the SPSS output of 0.002 is less 0.05 which is very significant and thus we reject Ho and conclude there is indeed a very close association/relation between task oriented leadership style and employee performance. Task oriented leaders directly and closely supervise subordinate to ensure that the task is performed to their satisfaction. According to Stoner (2005), a manager with this type of leadership style is more concerned with getting the job done rather than the development and growth of subordinates.

Does Transactional- transformational leadership style improve employees' performance?

Table 5.34

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	33.335 ^a	6	.000
Likelihood Ratio	39.218	6	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	15.033	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	300		

a. 3 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.54.

Decision

The p –value from the SPSS output of 0.002 is less 0.05 which is very significant and thus we reject Ho and conclude there is indeed a very close association/relation between task transactional-transformational leadership style and employee performance. A statistically significant

association between two variables implies that an increase or decrease in one variable will invariably lead to increase or decrease in the second variable.

Understanding the effects of leadership on performance is also important because leadership is viewed by some researchers (e.g. Zhu et al., 2005) as one of the key driving forces for improving a firm's performance. For example, transactional leadership enables the organisations to achieve their set objectives more efficiently by linking job performance to rewards and by making sure employees have the resources needed to get the job done (Zhu et al., 2005). Effective leadership is seen as a potent source of management development and sustained competitive advantage for organisational performance improvement (Rowe, 2001). This view suggests that transformational leadership will result in high levels of cohesion, commitment, trust, motivation, and performance in these new organisational environments.

SUMMARY OF RELATIONSHIPS

The p-values from the SPSS output of 0.047, 0.002, 0.002 and 0.002 which are all less 0.05 which are very significant and thus we conclude there is indeed a very close association/relation. From the analysis of data presentation and testing of relationships of the information derived from State Owned Enterprises, the researcher found out that there is a relationship between supportive leadership style and employee performance. There is also a relationship between tasks related leadership style and employee performance. In the last test, it was also proved that there is a relationship between leadership styles and organisational performance. Overall, it can be concluded that the correlational association between leadership styles and performance is significant. Likewise, the correlational relationship between leadership styles and organizational performance is also significant.

CHAPTER SIX: FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

6.0 INTRODUCTION

The chapter focuses on the findings and discussion in relation to the research questions. In addition, the demographic characteristics of the respondents are also discussed in relation to performance. This chapter captured the findings from the data and the framework used for the analysis and presents the findings and discussions.

Organisations are set up to achieve some set goals and objectives (Glantz, 2002). In order to achieve these goals and objectives, appropriate leadership styles must be adopted to influence the human factor which is of utmost importance (Howell and Avolio, 2010; Kouzes and Posner, 2006). A leader's style influences organisational members to contribute efforts willingly towards the accomplishment of pre-determined goals and objectives (Kotter, 2006; Obiruwu., 2014). The starting point is the focus on the objectives of the public enterprise in line with Kafuman's notion that organisational objectives are the key determinants of management systems adopted by any organisation (Kaufuman, 2010)

The main objective of public enterprise hinges on the production of service to the constituency it has to serve. This objective differs with the profit making objective of the private entity hence the management systems and organisational structures of the two differ considerable (Nwankwo & Richards, 2001,) Given this objective, performance is not indicated by profits or losses the public enterprise might make but rather the efficiency and effectiveness of the service provided are the key indicators of performance. This has led to a greater extent the adoption of the bureaucratic

and autocratic management systems as a principle of administrative technique and organisation in public sector management.

The findings of this research have also revealed that the main leadership styles exhibited by managers at Air Zimbabwe and the National Railways of Zimbabwe are autocratic and bureaucratic because 208(69.12 %) of the respondents believed that the leaders failed to consult subordinates when taking decisions. In addition to this, senior employees are also not involved in decision-making. Leadership styles is one of the factors that play significant role in enhancing or retarding the interest and commitment of the individuals in the organisation (Obiruwu et al., 2011). This is consistent with other studies from various authors like Boehnke et al, 2003; Obiruwu et al., 2011; Lee and Chuang, 2009). Lee and Chuang (2009) analyzed 525 Chinese firms on the effect of leadership styles on organisational performance. Consequently, their study identified two types of leadership behaviours- relational behaviour, and task behaviour. Further in their study, organisational performance was measured as profitability, sales growth, market share, and competitive advantages. They found that leader's task related behaviour is directly related to organisational performance (Obiruwu et al.2011).

From the study it showed that 199(66.18%) of the respondents agreed and 101(33.82%) strongly agreed that the autocratic and bureaucratic styles which are exhibited by leaders or managers have contributed to the poor performance of employees. Autocratic leadership is an extreme form of transactional leadership style, where leaders have complete power over staff. Staff and team members have little opportunity to make suggestions, even if these are in the best interest of the team or organization. The positive impact of autocratic leadership style is that decisions are made quickly, and is often best used in crises situation, when decisions are needed to be made quickly and without dissent. The leadership style has short and long-term effects on performance. For

instance, the autocratic style may produce great results in a short amount of time. However, excessive use of authority will decrease performance in the long-term(Avery,2004). People either get fed up and leave or fall into a malaise of hum-drum repetitive tasks without creativity and innovation. Autocratic Leader makes decisions alone without asking for the opinions or suggestions of other people (Yukl,2007). The leaders rely on threats to get their job done. This leadership style is high on task and low on relationships. The focus of power is with the leader and all interactions within the group move towards the leader (Mullins, 2005).

The followers typically follow the directives of the leader and do not openly question the directives, and execute the orders mostly out of fear of the consequences of not doing so, or out of respect for the leader, or both (Avery, 2004). Most people resent being treated this way. Therefore, autocratic leadership style often leads to high levels of absenteeism and high staff turnover. It does not improve employee retention and commitment of employees. From the data analysis the results showed that 186 (61.78%) of the respondents strongly agreed that lack of commitment from employees affects organisational performance. The level of commitment of employees in an organization will determine the success of the organization in today's competitive world. By performing at the peak of their abilities, employees emulate their employers and contribute to the growth of the company. However, in order to earn the commitment of any employee, job security has to be ensured alongside safe working conditions. Commitment itself is defined as the degree to which an employee identifies with the goals and values of an organization and is willing to exert effort to help it succeed. (Meyer and Botha, 2010).

However, the style can be effective for some routine and unskilled jobs in these situations, the advantages of control may outweigh the disadvantages. Mr. Goleman et al (2012) argued that autocratic leadership style can be highly effective in times of crisis or emergencies or when a department needs to be turned around. This style of leadership is usually quite good for controlling problem employees with whom no one else has had success.

Rochelle (2012) opined that the leadership style that characterizes the interaction between leaders and their followers (or employees) is most important in terms of employees' efficiency, performance and retention in the organization. This is because in this modern era of globalization, organizations are considered to be competitive on the basis of the competence of their human resources. With the authoritarian style, the focus of power is more with the manager, and all interactions within the group also move towards the manager. According to Mullins (2005), the manager solely exercises decision-making authority for determining policy, procedures for achieving goals, work tasks and relationships, and control of rewards or punishments. And this affect employee morale which in turn affects performance and from the study 300(100%) of the respondents agreed that the organisations are experiencing their worst performance.

Bureaucratic management is management bound to comply with detailed rules and regulations fixed by authority of superior body. The task of a bureaucratic is to perform what these rules and regulations order him/her to do (Weber, 1947). Bureaucratic leaders work "by the book." They follow rules rigorously, and ensure that their people follow procedures precisely and does not embrace change. Bureaucratic leadership is also useful in organizations where employees do routine tasks(Goleman,2000). Considering that the organisations are operating in a dynamic environment this leadership style is ineffective in teams and organizations that rely on flexibility, creativity, or innovation. Decisions take time to be made and usually when they are made they

would have been overtaken by events. Much of the time, bureaucratic leaders achieve their position because of their ability to conform to and uphold rules, not because of their qualifications or expertise. This can cause resentment when team members don't value their expertise or advice.

The overriding implication of bureaucratic style in organization is that it ignores the benefits of the leader to motivate and develop employees, since policies are simply inadequate to the task of motivating and developing employees' commitment and creativity in the workplace (Northouse 2013). The issue of leadership is crucial in the organization (Cole, 2005). This is premised on the fact that leadership styles contribute significantly to the success and failure of an organization (Mullins ,2005). Meyer and Botha (2000) as cited in Bass and Avolio (2004) posit that the ability of management to execute collaborated effort depends on leadership styles adopted. Industrial practitioners have come to realize the substantial role of employees in the realization of organizational goals. In an attempt to achieve these goals, organizational managers strive to develop, harness and utilize both material and human resources (Bennis 2007).

This also entails leading people, hence it has been argued by Armstrong (2012) that organizational failure is tied to the quantity, quality and inappropriate leadership style adopted. Goleman, (2013) emphasized that organizational performance hinges on the quality of leadership styles used and, determine how an organization can achieve corporate goals in the face of accelerating information management and technological innovation. The current business environment requires innovative kind of leadership style; a style that empowers employees and raises employee performance in an effort to improve organisational performance and its continued existence (Kotter, 2006). It has been argued by Williams, (2012) that the role of leaders and their leadership styles are crucial in employee retention, recognition and rewards, employee involvement, morale. This assertion is on the premise that leadership styles can either motivate or discourage employees, which in turn,

affect employees' increase or decrease in their level of performance and propensity for retention in the organization (Collins,2005)

If leaders adopt leadership styles that make them become self-centred, pessimistic or rigid they often hurt the organisation such that they cannot keep valued and talented employees in the organizations (Mullins ,2005). This is because when leadership styles of managers are viewed with negative lens from the subordinates, this would provoke their propensity to quit the organization(Covey,2007). When the leadership style is admired and favourable to the subordinates, this will endear them to stay in the organization, thereby improve their performance, and retention in the organization(Sharma,2012).

The concern, therefore will be for management to adopt leadership styles that would build relational bridges, and for leaders to be effective they need to connect with people. The above propositions intricately explain the impact of leadership styles on employee and organizational performance. Peter Drucker captured this notion by simply stating that leadership is about results. Transformational leadership style values flexibility, innovation, and adaptation, it cares and shows concern about people as well as economic outcomes, and it has a longer-term perspective with regards to objectives and strategies. If leaders exhibited more transactional and transformational leadership styles, the performance of employees will be enhanced. Transformational leadership is characterized by leadership behaviours that seek to motivate and inspire its followers by nurturing their desire to contribute to a shared mission or goal. Transformational leaders establish themselves as mentors or role models by gaining the trust of their followers. Additionally, transformational leaders communicate the goals or expected outcomes of the organization so that their followers feel a part of the organization's success (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978). While Transformational leadership is a process in which the leaders take actions to try to increase their associates'

awareness of what is right and important, to raise their associates' motivational maturity and to move their associates to go beyond the associates' own self-interests for the good of the group, the organisation, or society. Such leaders provide their associates with a sense of purpose that goes beyond a simple exchange of rewards for effort provided. The transformational leaders are proactive in many different and unique ways. These leaders attempt to optimize development, not just performance. Development encompasses the maturation of ability, motivation, attitudes, and values. Such leaders want to elevate the maturity level of the needs of their associates (from security needs to needs for achievement and self-development). They convince their associates to strive for a higher level of achievement as well as higher levels of moral and ethical standards. Through the development of their associates, they optimize the development of their organisation as well. High performing associates build high performing organisations. The potential for poor decision-making and weak execution is, however, significant here. This explains the synergic relationship between leadership styles, employees' retention and performance and organisational performance. Therefore, the results of the study, showed that 107(35.29%) strongly agreed that transactional-transformational leadership style improves employee performance and 31(30.88%) agreed, while 101(30.82%) disagreed. The role of human resources is absolutely critical in raising performance of an organisation (Armstrong, 2010). Ultimately, it is the performance of many individuals, which culminates in the performance of an organisation, or the achievement of goals in an organisational context (Armstrong ,2010). In order to achieve this, leaders in organisations have to adopt appropriate leadership styles. The results of the is similar to the study conducted by Pradeep and Prabhu (2011) who examined the relationship between leadership style and employee performance in India, the study found that transformational behaviours and transactional contingent reward leadership behaviour were positively linked with employee performance. The

results of this study were consistent with most of results on previous studies reviewed, for example, studies done by Raja and Palanichamy (2015) for sample of employees in public and private sector enterprises in India; Aboshaiqah et al (2015) on a sample of hospital nurses, Pradeep and Prabhu (2011) in India, and Ejere and Abasilim (2013), both in Nigeria, Tsigu and Rao (2012) and Gimuguni et al (2014) in Ehtiopian banking industry and Ugandan local government authorities respectively.

From the study 203(67.65%) of the respondents agreed that supportive leadership style improves employee performance while, 97(32.35%) agreed that task-oriented style improves or affects employee performance because task-oriented leaders focus only on getting the job done rather than the welfare and motivation of employees. They define the work that needs to be done, plan and organize how the work will be done, create and assign roles to do the work, put structures in place to manage performance and monitor the progress and standard of work. This style is effective when subordinates lack self-confidence; work on dissatisfying or stressful tasks and when work does not provide job satisfaction (Robbins and De Cenzo, 2002; Burns, 1987). The relationship between the two leadership styles and organisational performance in this study is similar to previous empirical study by (Obiruwu et al, 2011). The study found that leadership styles have a positive or negative impact on organisational performance depending on the situation

Also from the study it was found that employee-centred leadership style improves employee performance it is receiving scant attention. The employee-centred style of leadership places strong emphasis on the welfare and motivation of subordinates. Leaders establish trust, mutual respect and rapport with the workers and show concern, warmth, support and consideration for subordinates (Mullins 2005) however the results of the study revealed that 203 (67.65%) of the respondents indicated that leaders do not show concern towards the welfare of the employees

because employees go for months without salary. For instance, the National Railways of Zimbabwe employees are owed salary arrears amounting to us\$78.9million. Leaders, who practise employee-centred leadership style are sensitive to the needs and feelings of the employee. They typically find time to listen to workers, are willing to make changes, look out for the personal welfare of employees, friendly and approachable and in return the leader gets maximum performance (Adair, 2012).

With autocratic leadership, the manager retains most authority for himself and makes decision with the mind that subordinates will implement it. He is not bothered about attitudes of the subordinates toward a decision, he is rather concerned about getting the task done. This results in demonstrations, strikes and sit-ins at work place and contributes to the high staff turnover, which results in poor performance. It has been argued by Northouse, (2013) that employees leave managers and not organisations. Employees who do not contribute to decisions making are not motivated and this affects employee satisfaction and their performance (Robbins, 2009). The leadership style with these characteristics, where leaders permit very little or no subordinate contribution or suggestion and thus take unilateral decisions and compliance is autocratic leadership style. They can damage an organisation irreparably as they force their 'followers' to execute strategies and services in a very narrow way, based upon a subjective idea of what success looks like. There is no shared vision and little motivation beyond coercion. Commitment, creativity and innovation are typically eliminated by autocratic leadership (Goleman 2010). In fact, most followers of autocratic leaders can be described as biding their time, waiting for the inevitable failure this leadership produces and the removal of the leader that follows (Michael, 2010). Hence, this affects the level of performance of the organisation.

Although, democratic leadership style is considered to be the best leadership style it has its own limitations with regard to performance. Democratic or participative leadership style will be unproductive in the short-term. But, the longer this style of leading, the more productive a company can become (Mullins,2005). The biggest problem with democratic leadership is its underlying assumption that everyone has an equal stake in an outcome as well as shared levels of expertise with regard to decisions. That is rarely the case. While democratic leadership sounds good in theory, it often is bogged down in its own slow process, and workable results usually require an enormous amount of effort. Participative leadership can also create problems. The time and energy spent in calling meetings, soliciting ideas and training participants may affect deadlines. The involvement of subordinates may be perceived as a loss or sharing of power, thus creating resentment at the leadership level. This may negatively affect the performance of leaders which in turn, may affect subordinate performance. Some workers may not want to be involved in the decision-making aspects of jobs. When the leader is distrusted or when a poor labour relations climate is present, subordinates may see their participation as “doing management’s job”. This can have a negative impact on performance.

However, democratic leadership style can affect performance positively. Democratic leadership style is exhibited where the focus of power is more towards the group as a whole, and where there is greater interaction within the group (Mullins, 2002). The manager shares the leadership functions with members of the group where he or she takes part as a team member. The manager would characteristically lay the problem before the subordinates and invite discussion. In this respect the manager`s role is to be a conference leader rather than that of decision taker. The manager allows the decision to emerge out of the process of the group discussion, instead of

imposing it on the group as a boss. This leadership style is appropriate only in instances where the nature of the responsibility associated with the decision is such that group members are willing to share with their manager, or alternatively the manager is willing to accept responsibility for decisions, which he or she has not made personally.

The point of focus is on sharing: the manager consults his subordinates. Even though he or she invites contributions from the subordinates before making a decision, he or she retains the final authority to make decisions (consultative). The manager may also seek discussion and agreement with employees over an issue before a decision is taken (consensus). He or she may allow the subordinates to take a vote on an issue before a decision is taken (democratic). He or she coaches subordinates and negotiates their demands (Dubrin,2012). This leadership is viewed as an important aspect of empowerment, teamwork and collaboration. It has been observed that an organisation will be more effective when those who will be affected by the organisations` decisions are fully involved in the decision-making process. According to Rao and Krishma (2006), democratic leadership enhances innovation by engaging employees` personal value systems, buy-in from employees (Bass, 1985) and thereby heightening levels of motivation toward higher levels of performance and encouraging employees to think creatively (Mullins 2005).

However, some other studies (e.g. Muterera, 2012; Murphy and Drodge, 2004) suggest that role of leadership is important in achieving the organisational performance. From the study it was found that 208 (69.12%) and 252 (83.82%) of non-managerial employees agreed that there is delegation of work to subordinates with full responsibility in order to speed up decision-making respectively. This is crucial and it impacts positively on performance. According to Koontz and Weihrich (2010) a democratic leader is one who allows for a two-way open communication between members and allows people to be involved in decision making. When employees are

involved in decision making they are able to share information amongst each other. A leadership style that is open encourages creativity, innovation, a free flow of ideas, and information encourages and improves overall group communications and 230(76.47%) of the respondents agreed that there is evidence of open communication and sharing of information particularly between management and employees. High performing organisations share more rather than less information. If information is power, the more readily available it is, the more empowered and able the employee is to make solid decisions. Communication is the life-blood of the organisation. Increasing the dialogue lessens the danger of territoriality and keeps the organisation healthy, agile, flexible, and fluid (Daresh, 2002).

With leadership styles being regarded as instrumental in determining “the returns that organisations realise from its human capital, or human resources” Cullen, Gilmour and Holmes (2005) argue that, the poor performance of parastatals raises questions as to the type of leadership styles required to achieve the high level of employee performance necessary for the overall performance of the parastatals. As a result, the current business environment requires innovative kind of leadership style; a style that empowers employees and raises employee performance in an effort to improve organisational performance and its continued existence (Kotter, 2006). Mosadragh, (2003) asserts that if leaders want to have a positive impact on individuals, groups and organisations, then leadership should be broadened from old rigid autocratic style to friendly and contemporary style. For example, more than 150(50%) of employees in the research indicated that bureaucracy and lack of equipment as having a role to play in compounding the organisations` performance challenges. Bureaucratic leadership style has negative impact on performance because of its rigidness on focussing on rules and regulations. In this style of leadership, the manager manages “by the book”. It requires total compliance to procedures and rules. If the rules

and regulations do not cover a specific situation, the bureaucratic leader looks to the supervisor for guidance (Bass and Avolio, 2004). Michael (2010) argues that in bureaucratic leadership, it is the policies that drive execution, strategy, objectives and outcomes in the organisation. He stresses further that since bureaucratic leaders are usually committed to procedures and processes instead of people (employees), they often times appear aloof and are highly averse to change.

Bureaucratic leaders create, and rely on policy to meet organisational goals. Bureaucratic leaders are most comfortable relying on a stated policy in order to convince followers to get on board. In doing so they send a very direct message that policy dictates direction. The specific problem or problems associated with using policies to lead are not always obvious until the damage is done. The danger here is that leadership's greatest benefits, motivating and developing people, are ignored by bureaucratic leaders (Michael, 2010). Nwankwo and Richards, (2001) argue that structures in State-Owned Enterprises tend to be hierarchical process, cumbersome and characterised by rule books and multiple layers of approval while systems tend to be rigid. The effect of this reality is that it stifles innovation and hinders organisational flexibility and responsiveness. And hence performance is affected.

It was also observed from the study that leadership of the state owned enterprises in some situations exhibited high level of autocracy by failing to consult with subordinates resulting in unilateral decisions being taken. This practice has brought about a lot of resentments on the part of subordinates, as has been shown in this study as in the case of National Railways of Zimbabwe and Air Zimbabwe. It has also soured the relationship between management and subordinates as a result of accusations and counter accusations on the part of both management and subordinates of National Railways of Zimbabwe and Air Zimbabwe as shown in this study. It has affected trust between management and workers. Management must work to ensure that autocratic behavioural

characteristics such as failing to consult with subordinates during decision making is discouraged in all departments and units within Air Zimbabwe and the National Railways of Zimbabwe. When leaders take unilateral decisions, it does not ensure representativeness or organisational cohesion.

The result from this study shows that leadership dimensions have both positive and negative relationship with organisational performance, specifically; transformational style of leadership, transactional style of leadership, have positive effect on organisational performance. All these different styles of leaderships are suited to different environments. A behavioural style might be very successful in a certain environment yet might fail dismally in another so a good leader adapts to these different environments with different styles. Therefore, not all leaders are successful in all environments which is why certain leaders are chosen for certain situations. This implies that both autocratic and bureaucratic have negative effect on followers and performance and as a result organisational performance is affected. This means that leadership's greatest benefits, of motivating and developing people are ignored and this will not induce employees to perform as expected. Policies are not in themselves destructive, but non-futuristic and thoughtlessly developed and blindly implemented policy can de-motivate employees and frustrate desired outcomes. This may hinder performance and instigate employees' turnover in the organization. However, transformational style of leadership, and democratic style of leadership have positive effect on organisational performance.

The transformational leadership is the most widely used leadership style in many organisations worldwide. It is one of the most modern and most successful styles of leading, and is the style in which the leader plays the role model, he inspires his followers and challenges them to be more

involved in their work (Bass and Avolio, 2004; McKeown, 2012 and Meyer and Botha, 2000). Transformational leaders value flexibility, innovation, and adaptation; they care and show concern about people as well as economic outcomes, and they have a longer-term perspective with regard to objectives and strategies. Participants perceived transformational leadership style by managers and supervisors as the most significant leadership style. The results of this research are consistent with Block (2003) who found that transformational and transactional leadership styles are both very good leadership styles. Also from the study 107(35.29%) of the participants strongly agreed that transformational leaders communicate with their people, delegate responsibility, and try to know their staff, to understand their strong and weak points in order to find the best way to optimize their performance, thus optimizing entire organisation's performance. However, the gains achieved by transformational leadership are reversed by the structure which is found in state owned enterprises which is mechanistic (McKeown, 2012).

Under certain situations, some style of leadership leads to a successful working of the organisations (Burns, 1987). The transformational style of leadership has been found to work better for the followers and the organisation at large. Transactional leadership style gives more work pleasure as compared to transformational leadership style as fulfilling the given task is synonymous to reward in that leadership structure (Beer and Nohria 2000). Transactional theory, involve a "transaction" between manager or superior staff and a subordinate or lower staff. It is also important to note that, these type of the transaction (reward or discipline) are usually tied to employee's performance (Bass, 1985; Obiruwu et al., 2011). Transactional leaders attempt to meet the current needs of their subordinates through bargaining and exchanging. According to Chan

(2005), both leaders and followers focus on achieving the negotiated performance level (Boehnke et al, 2003; Bass, 1985; Obiruwu et al., 2011).

Thus, the efficiency in resources mobilization, allocation, utilization and enhancement of organisational performance depends to a large extent on leadership styles, among other factors (Obiwuru et al., 2011). Hence, the major premise of Burns' (1987) approach is that transformational leadership influences subordinates to exert greater effort in the pursuit of higher-order needs; support a greater vision for their work group or organisation; and in due course perform beyond expectations. From the study, it has emerged that 203(67.65%) of the respondents disagreed, while 9(2.94%) strongly disagreed that the leaders at Air Zimbabwe and the National Railways of Zimbabwe show concern and care towards employees. This is shown by the involvement of employees in one demonstration after demonstration for the payment of their meagre salaries. Employees have gone for eighteen months without being paid. The researcher argues that transformational leadership is not practiced fully and the leadership style which does not show concern and care is autocratic. However, Maxwell (1999) in his book *The 21 Refutable Laws of Leadership* has a different opinion; he argues that the leader's attention is on what he/she can put into people rather than what he/she can get out of them, so as to build the kind of relationship that promotes and increase performance in the organisation. Leadership styles have proved to be one of the key components of an effective organisation. As was asserted by Drucker (2001), the way how leader interacts with the team can determine the way how employees perform.

Transactional leaders are said to be instrumental and frequently focus on exchange relationship with their subordinates (Bass and Avolio, 1993). Transactional leaders have more concern with

the completion of task and performance of employees. It can be any number of things including a good performance review, a raise, a promotion, new responsibilities or a desired change in duties. Transactional leaders fulfil employee needs of rewards when targets are met (Bass, 1990; Howell and Shamir 2005; Humphreys, 2002). The results of this research are consistent with Burns (1987) who found that transformational leadership and transactional leadership are both very good leadership styles. Transactional leadership had a greater influence on staff perception of culture than other styles. They seek to optimise individual, group and organisational development and innovation. They push their subordinates to achieve higher levels of potential as well as higher moral and ethical standards. Transactional Leaders also offer rewards when goals are achieved. Leaders using this style always monitor for mistakes, and then take corrective action as quickly as possible when they occur (Bass and Avolio 2004).

So in order to ascertain the aspects of democratic leadership, structured interviews were administered among selected participants. The interviews intended to establish the perceptions of employees in relation to the democratic type of leadership and its impact on performance. High performance organisations promote employee participation in decision making because the leaders understand that employees have the right to participate in a decision that will affect them directly (McMillan, 2004).

The participative leadership style ranks among the best leadership style that promotes group communications (McMillan, 2004). Similarly, the democratic style of leadership encourages team members to indulge in open discussions before the leader guides the decision making process and help create an innovative environment. In today`s economic scenario, innovativeness has become

a major factor in influencing strategic planning. Leaders who actively support and promote innovation to their employees would create an environment for increase performance(Drucker,2003).

Innovation and leadership are closely related (Riaz, and Haide, 2010). Numerous research studies have indicated that transformational leadership is the key ingredient for R&D innovation (Hackman and Wagerman, 2007; Goleman, etal. 2002). From the interviews done with senior management on innovation, the findings were a pleasant surprise. Risk taking is so essential to innovation. When asked on how do they take errors made by employees? Their response collaborated with the result from the questionnaire which showed that the management take errors as a learning experience and this was supported by 208(69.12%) of the respondents. This proved that leaders encouraged employees to take risks and by not punishing those if they encounter the failures that are inevitable. Hence, this will free them to explore their imagination. Employees should be made aware that failure is nothing more than learning to win and that though some of the risks may lead to setbacks and many will also lead to innovation. To foster innovation leaders must recognise relentlessly and reward routinely (Sharma 2009). The senior management went on to cite examples that during the period of extremely volatility in Zimbabwe (2007-2008) when hyperinflation reached 230 million per cent per annum the employees' improvisation of work methods kept the organisations going. If we regard democratic leaders this way, these people are basically predisposed to be creative (Goleman, etal. 2002).

The laissez-faire leadership style involves non-interference policy, allows complete freedom to all workers and has no particular way of attaining goals. However, there is no one best style of

leadership. The effectiveness of a particular style is dependent on the organizational situation. Organization is an entity which is set up for a purpose. Organization can be defined as the human co-ordination of a number of persons or individuals in the service of mutual help for the achievement of common goals through the division of labour and functions, and through hierarchy of authority. Leaders need to utilize their resources efficiently to maximize performance. Its human resource is the most important the organization can have. Previous findings of similar studies assert that laissez-faire style is associated with dissatisfaction, unproductiveness and ineffectiveness (Avolio and Bass, 2004; Rao and Krishma,2006).

The findings of this research “confirm the theoretical underpinnings of the research that there is no one best type of leadership style to use and the leadership styles depends on the situation in which leadership style acts as a facilitator and stimulator of the direct and indirect effects on people’s innovation” (Koontz and Weinhrh, 2010). Rao and Krishma (2006) state that “participation in volatile environment requires innovation and entrepreneurial risk taking.” This study puts forth that it is essential for any organisation, especially an organisation that does not just affect its employees but the economic, social and political well-being of a country and its people, to decentralize the decision making process and include employees at all levels in the organisation in the decision making process (Nkwanko and Richards, 2001). This type of leadership style creates a conducive environment for workers. The Zimbabwean workplace is usually the ‘first family’, where employees spend most of their time than they do with their families and friends. Naturally, employees would not like to leave the place which takes a greater percentage of their adult life unless they experience high levels of job dissatisfaction. The results from the study show clear exhibition that the environment is conducive to working.

As a result, it is now recognized that, to get the best out of people, they need to be led, not just managed as subordinates. They need to feel motivated, committed, and even inspired. Persuasion, not coercion, is required. Status and position are no longer enough. To get the real results required in a highly competitive age, people need to want to give their best, not just be told what to do. Mutizwa (2013) points out that organisations find their rhythm and perform beyond expectation when all members feel included and valued and look forward to going to work each day, knowing that they will be given the opportunity to participate and make meaningful contribution. Nothing demotivates members of the organisation than the feeling that they are outsiders who watch from the terraces while the favoured monopolise the action. This calls for the leader to create a conducive environment in which there is a sense of engagement and involvement across the entire organisation.

A sense that everyone matters and has a meaningful role to play and the leader will be rewarded with superior performance. Porter and Nohria (2012) argue that the effective CEOs sooner or later will come to appreciate the fact that they cannot make all as this is impossible. If the leaders tried to make all the decisions, then there will be unintended results that others in the organisation would stop making decisions as they will wait for the CEO to indicate which way to go. The important point made by these authors is that leaders get results through others and the most effective way for leaders to lead is through in direct way of influencing and persuading. Employee input can be valuable in creating more efficient work methods and improving performance. But the leadership style used by management can affect the effectiveness of employee input. A manager with a

democratic leadership styles accepts input from employees and uses the pertinent information to improve the work process(Bennis,2007).

Kellerman (2012) argues that leadership is no longer powerful as it used to be as traditional power has been chipped away by democracy and participation by followers in decision making has increased. From the foregoing contention, the researcher would like to argue that in this study the reason for a strong positive relationship between leadership style and performance, but a weak overall contribution, could be attributed to the fact that leadership was still vested in an individual who when his/her style of management was poor resulted in poor performance. When a leader does not let go of some of his powers, this will result in his/her employees becoming demotivated and subsequently performance will be affected.

Kouzes and Posner (2006) argue that until leaders change the dominant organisational metaphor that is based on hierarchical order and rank, it is difficult to build cordial relationship between employers and employees who will continue to view each other as bosses and subordinates. The metaphor implies that bosses are superior and followers are inferior. In such an environment trust is eroded and trust is the glue that hold organisation together. It also ensures that the execution of the policy is effective because employees may feel that it is a policy initiated, developed and brought to fruition by them and they were a part of every step. However, it is the feeling by some supervisors that having this form of management style may open the door for their position to be taken away from them. Thus, there is a belief that one is always right and knows it all and that wisdom can only flow from the apex of the organisation downwards and never in the reverse. This sentiment is captured by the arrogant statement which the researcher heard being uttered during

the interviews. The leaders on many occasions as they spoke to unfortunate followers they said “Leave the thinking to me and you do as you are told”. In addition, it promotes high turnover and poor performance. What this means is that managers are very particular about getting results and only motivate employees to give their best in order to increase performance. Organisations have to structure themselves to be responsive, fast nimble and continuously innovative to survive in a competitive business environment.

There is a demonstrated correlation between workplace satisfaction and employee recognition, that recognition is the most effective way to further organisational corporate goals. If the leaders set clear expectations, knows the employees, trusts them, and invests in them, the employees can forgive the lack of incentives. But if the relationship between supervisor and employee is broken, no amount of perks or benefits will encourage the employee to stay (Goleman,2000). The larger section of non-managerial employees of which 159(52.94%) strongly agreed that rewards and recognition are not tied to performance and that there was also a challenge in terms of poor distribution of rewards where there are perceptions of managerial employees getting very high perks against non-managerial employees, and in the absence of a performance-based rewarding system. In order for an organisation to meet its obligations to shareholders, employees and society, its top management must develop a relationship between the organisation and employees that will fulfil the continually changing needs of both parties. Rewards and recognition are essential factors in enhancing employee job satisfaction and work motivation which is directly associated to organisational performance (Jun et al., 2006).In general terms rewards programmes come within the overall concept of compensation strategies which are defined as the deliberate utilization of the pay system as an essential integrating mechanism through which the efforts of various sub-

units or individuals are directed towards the achievement of an organisation's strategic objectives (Avolio and Bass 2004; Adair, 2012). Rewards and recognition are management tools that hopefully contribute to a firm's effectiveness by influencing individual or group behaviour (Buble et al, 2014). All businesses use pay, promotion, bonuses or other types of rewards to encourage high levels of performance. Recognition comes in many forms; the problem is that most managers think they are recognizing their employees when they really are not. Incentives, bonuses, and perks are not forms of recognition and they only become recognition when they are awarded for a job well done, not if you do this, then you get this. In order to count as recognition, the message must be clear, managers need to explain why someone is being awarded a plaque for example. Most companies still overlook a very powerful tool in their arsenal which is recognition. There is a demonstrated correlation between workplace satisfaction and employee recognition, that recognition is the most effective way to further your corporate goals, that by creating memorable recognition experiences you can bond an employee to your organization (Yukl, 2013).

Common outcomes of an effective performance appraisal process are employees' learning about themselves, employees' knowledge about how they are doing, employees' learning about 'what management values' (Reena, 2009). At the National Railways of Zimbabwe and Air Zimbabwe, performance appraisals are done on an annual basis, but when employees got to the top of the scale the appraisals did not mean incremental salary increases. At that point even the supervisors failed to conduct performance appraisals and it fell by the way side. The performance of individuals is critical to the effectiveness of any organisation and needs to be managed. Any organisation requires an appropriate performance management system that is directly aligned to the strategic objectives of the business, ensuring that the strategic objectives of the business are translated into

clear achievable objectives for each individual employee. Performance indicators must be accessed by some means in order to measure performance itself. A manager appraises the employee's performance and delivers the appraisal to the employee. Manager appraisal is by nature top-down and does not encourage the employee's active participation. It is often met with resistance, because the employee has no investment in its development and this impact negatively on performance.

Ongoing monitoring and review of objectives keep the employee focused on achieving goals. At the annual review, progress towards objectives is assessed, and new goals are set. Therefore, the appraisal component of the system needs to be relevant and fair and should be tested by organisations for its continued reliability and validity. Any performance management system is only as effective as it is implemented. Managers play a crucial role not only in the implementation of a performance management system but in the leadership of desired performance outcomes of their subordinates. To do this, organisations need to identify the leadership style most relevant to the achievement of their strategic performance indicators. The leadership needs to be aligned not only with these indicators but throughout the organisation to ensure that the organisation moves in the appropriate strategic direction to achieve its performance indicators. People are the key to organisational effectiveness and the key to the success of any business is being able to unleash the potential which resides within their human capital.

Research shows that people often leave organisations because they have not received the recognition they want or feedback on how they are doing. In line with this, Lussier (2006) also asserts that employers need to design employee-driven motivation programmes to motivate their staff so as to ensure their retention. Reena et al (2009) are of the view that the ultimate test of

organisational success is its ability to create values sufficient to compensate for the burdens imposed upon resources contributed. Otherwise, they will discover they are losing their talented and creative professionals to other organisations who are ready and willing to meet their needs and demands. Drucker (2003) emphasizes the human aspects of management. They postulate that as it is people who make a business succeed – or fail – it is the organisation’s chief responsibility to motivate their people so that they will assure success.

The authors believe that each human being has the potential for creativity and for achieving goals. The infinite question is how organisations reach this potential and how they stimulate creativity and foster in their people the desire to succeed and to achieve self-fulfilment through their work. This recognition encourages repeat performance and brings some ego into followers’ performance as they know their work will be recognized. As noted by Collins (2001): Level 5 leaders channel their ego needs away from themselves and into the larger goal of building a great company. It is not that level 5 leaders have no ego or self-interest. Indeed, they are incredibly ambitious but their ambition is first and foremost for the institution, not themselves. The issue of addressing success for effective leaders is well illustrated thus; Level 5 leaders look out of the window to apportion credit to factors outside themselves when things go well (and if they cannot find a specific person or event to give credit to, they credit good luck). At the same time, they look in the mirror to apportion responsibility, never blaming bad luck when things go poorly (Collins, 2001).

The common theme of the above authors is the belief that people need to be respected and treated as precious human capital, more essential to an organisation’s effectiveness than its financial capital. People are now seen as the primary source of a company’s competitive advantage. From

the study it was found that management does not show care and concern towards their employees. The salaries and allowances which the parastatal bosses awarded themselves did not relate to the performance of their companies. Most of these companies are reeling under a heavy debt burden and workers could go for months without receiving their meagre salaries, yet the bosses received hefty packages. Using these factors as yardsticks, it is clear that greediness has its fair share in the crumbling of the once vibrant parastatals. The state of Zimbabwe's economy does not naturally permit salaries of this degree. In December, 2013, most people failed to access their salaries on time because of the liquidity crunch and the situation has not bettered in any way. Companies are closing and workers are struggling to make ends meet. Retrenchments are effected citing the reasons to reduce a bloated wage bill. Mtizwa (2013) argues that the real cost is at the top and not at workers who are failing to make ends meet. Therefore, the way people are treated increasingly determines whether an organisation will prosper or even survive (Dubrin, 2007). Organisations are under constant pressure to enhance and improve their performance and are realizing that an interdependent relationship exists between organisational performance and employee performance.

However, recognition and empowerment play an essential part in enhancing employee motivation towards organisational tasks. By appreciating the employees for their work done and giving them participation in decision making, internally satisfies them with their job, organisation and organisational environment. Thus their enthusiasm and motivation towards accomplishment of tasks increases. According to the Contingency Theory, leadership effectiveness or success depends upon the appropriate matching of the individual leader's style of interacting with the influence that the group situation provides. The main point of this theory is that effective leadership is just as

dependent upon the group situation as it is upon the leader. One leadership style is not appropriate for all situations. A leadership style can be effective in one situation and ineffective in another.

From the interviews conducted the leaders of the National Railways of Zimbabwe and Air Zimbabwe agreed that the organisations have been plagued by a number of challenges, as the economy has for the past more than a decade suffered various forms of fragility. These have consequently affected the operations of the organisation, as evidenced by perennial performance problems. Among these are: the ever-escalating price of fuel; the uncompetitive fare structure; increasing competition from other airlines following the opening up of Zimbabwean skies to other operators and also from haulage transport; loss of manpower as experienced and qualified personnel left for greener pastures elsewhere; an unfavourable global and local economic climate characterised by a protracted global recession. The other factors affecting performance are shortage of foreign currency, expensive maintenance of infrastructure and equipment, theft, vandalism, fuel, social service obligations and a declining capacity, mismanagement and corruption and too much political and ministerial interference, increasing competition for customers from foreign airlines, such as South African Airways (SAA), Ethiopian Airlines and Kenya Airways which have state of the art aircrafts, which have flooded the Zimbabwean skies

This is also consistent with findings from the study which was revealed that besides leadership styles there are other factors which have negative impact on performance. The study showed that 31 respondents which represent 10.29% said no pay, and 18(5.86%) view poor economic performance of the nation. While 22 (7.35%) of the respondents cited executive management interferences,40(13.24%) said lack of management support, with 48 (16.18%) of respondents

saying mismanagement, while 48 (16.18%) poor managerial skills, 48(16.18%) lack of equipment and dilapidated infrastructure, and 45(14.71%) cited lack of seriousness from top management as other factors contributing to poor performance of the organisations. In support of findings it is also interesting to note the following remarks by the Minister of State Enterprises and Parastatals. He was quoted in the Herald of 7 May 2012 as saying that most parastatals were run by incompetent managers, as evidenced by their failure to come up with meaningful restructuring proposals. The same newspaper on 10 March 2012 also highlighted the fact that about seven parastatals had been operating for more than two years without boards resulting in the poor economic performance of Air Zimbabwe and the National Railways of Zimbabwe's during the decade under study. The National Railways of Zimbabwe and Air Zimbabwe face challenges from time to time. Some of these challenges are from the environment in which the enterprise is operating in. Some can come from lack of capacity on the leadership to stir the enterprise to greater heights. According to Yukl (2013), leadership challenges do affect many organisations but the most important thing is that they vary with the organisation. From the study 264(88%) of the participants cited challenges to do with motivating, encouraging, and effectively managing people so that they become productive. This is particularly true in some state enterprises in Zimbabwe. In such a situation, what is required is that management and their employees must learn to work together in order for a company to be productive, efficient and effective in the eyes of the owners and the public at large. According to Yukl (2014) and Bass and Riggio (2012), any situation in which there are both leaders and supporters there is always a possibility that some form of leadership challenges can arise.

There is an absolutely absence of political will in Zimbabwe to address the gross anomalies in the public sector. This was revealed by Media, Information and Broadcasting Services minister,

Jonathan Moyo, at the presentation of a public lecture at the Zimbabwe Staff College in January 2014 when he said that “politics of slogans” was over as the country now needed “informed debate” pertaining to the economic challenges (Chidavaenzi, 2014). It is irrefutable that there is a robust connection between politics and economy. However, if we take a look at how leaders in state-owned enterprises are grappling with issues of nepotism, tribalism and favouritism and other ills within the organisations that create non-performing employees leaves a lot to be desired. From the study 204(68%) of the respondents also revealed that promotion is based on favoritism, tribalism and nepotism and 35(11.76%) agreed that the appointment of inefficient managers most of them lack the relevant experience and knowledge of the organization they are leading.

Most of the Board members are incompetent political appointees without any knowledge and experience. The Board of Directors consisting of professionals has a greater chance of being managed prudently than the board of directors who does not have professional management competencies (Zhou, 2012). It can be argued that the ‘militarisation’ of parastatals has greatly contributed to the decay of Zimbabwe’s state run companies. Individuals are not appointed on merit, but history has proved that retired military personnel, especially war veterans, are eligible for these positions. The state of the institutions which they run reveals their incompetence (Mwase, 2013). For example, Karakadzai left the Air Force to “revive” the National Railways of Zimbabwe but nothing improved during his tenure, but rather compounded the challenges facing the institution. The state of the institutions which they run reveals their incompetence.

According to Ndlovu (2016) another cause of Air Zimbabwe and the National Railways of Zimbabwe’ performance is attributed to the aged fleet. Air Zimbabwe operates an antiquated fleet

with an average age of 25 years and this has greatly compromised quality and increased costs rendering the airline uncompetitive (New Zimbabwe, 2016). There is a direct relationship between the age of aircraft and the maintenance costs; the older the aircraft the higher the maintenance costs. An aged fleet also increases the ground time required for maintenance thereby affecting the airline's on-time performance and reliability. According to Malaba (2016) the airline spends between 15 and 25 percent of its budget on maintenance. While NRZ wagon productivity indicators continue to be low; in fact, the best ever achieved were still much lower than those of the best-run railways in the world. NRZ's entire wagon fleet is older than its 40-year design life (, ITF Rail Union Report, 2008). The World Bank (2005) once recommended that NRZ should close down two-thirds of its railway network to allow for rehabilitation because of the high potential for disaster it poses. For instance, this agreed with the findings of the study which showed that 48(16.18%) of the participants indicated that aging fleet which required frequent maintenance affects reliability of the service thereby contributing to negative impact on performance.

Pedzisai Ruhanya, an academic and Zimbabwe Institute director, said "the collapse of parastatals was largely based on ZANU PF's politics of patronage where it rewarded top military personnel with little or no expertise to manage them" (Mambo, 2013). It is obviously detrimental to the economy if politicians abuse the parastatals to achieve their political ends at the expense of the struggling masses. Air Zimbabwe is one of the parastatal that have struggled for a long time, resulting in the cancellation of most, if not all international flights.

Furthermore, the airline has suffered huge losses brought about by declining passenger numbers, and mounting debt (Zhou, 2012). After the controversial Zimbabwean land reform policies many

European countries issued travel warnings about Zimbabwe, and this slowed down the number of tourists travelling to that country. Consequently, passenger numbers dwindled as tourist numbers declined (Malaba, 2016).

Accusations of mismanagement and corruption have for long been associated with Air Zimbabwe resulting in its placement under judicial management in 2012. A forensic audit in 2016 pointed to alleged fraudulent activity by the airline's management. Findings released revealed that between 2009 and 2013, five executives prejudiced the airline of €5895 695.49 and US\$1 298 827.88 totalling around US\$10 million (Chibamu, 2016). The fraud contributed to the financial problems the airline is facing (Malaba, 2016). The Auditor-General highlighted in her major audit findings/observations which were common to most Ministries and Departments. Those charged with governance (TCWG) are urged to pay urgent attention and seek remedies for these findings. Given this state of affairs, it appears independent internal audit presence in the respective parastatals would assist in improving the situation. It is therefore my opinion that an empowered, independent and objective internal audit would greatly assist the parastatals to achieve break-even and even profitability, thereby making them attractive to investors. A call was made to improve transparency and accountability in the public sector as stipulated in Section 298 of the Constitution of Zimbabwe Amendment (No. 20) Act 2013. According to Chikoko (2013), “these findings revealed that the National Railways of Zimbabwe and Air Zimbabwe, were not managing risk more effectively as evidenced by the recurrence of same audit observations and the no implementation of audit recommendations within the agreed time frames”

The state of the parastatal was worsened by a series of strikes as pilots protested over unpaid allowances. In July 2012, the financially crippled airline dispatched a near empty Boeing 767 to South Africa to pick up President Mugabe yet it owed its workers over US\$40 million (Mushava, 2012). The decline of Air Zimbabwe opened business opportunities for other airlines around the world. Air Zimbabwe is a very strategic branch of the economy and once it falls into such a crisis, it is common to press the panic button. The Zanu PF Government continues to abuse the transport parastatals for populist gain while failing to ameliorate their viability problems (Malaba, 2016). On commercial routes scheduled flights are often cancelled at short notice to accommodate the wishes of the political leadership (News Day, 2014).

The world economic crisis has caused and compounded foreign currency shortages, and the lack of fuel has increased the operational difficulties of Air Zimbabwe. Therefore, Air Zimbabwe's financial problems are also attributed to the volatile economic environment which has been characterised by the shortage of foreign currency as well as hyperinflation which was above 100% in 2010 (Zhou, 2012). For instance, Air Zimbabwe's cost revenue structure is such that its expenditure is 70% in foreign currency, and its foreign currency earnings are only 10% and this led to the cancellation of its international routes. The major reason was that the airline could not meet its fuel obligations after suppliers who were owed an excess of US\$1, 6 million halted deliveries (Nleya, 2011).

Political interference has also compounded to Air Zimbabwe's financial problems (Mananavire, 2016). The study findings showed that 22(7.35 %) of the respondents cited constant government interference and poor management as the other reason which has a negative impact on the

performance of the organisations. The Zanu PF Government continues to abuse the transport parastatals for populist gain while failing to ameliorate their viability problems (Malaba, 2016). For example, commercial routes on scheduled flights are often cancelled at short notice to accommodate the wishes of the political leadership (News Day, 2014). The most important of these factors, according to the World Bank (2005), is politics. This is so because if state-owned enterprise leaders come up with unpopular decisions can cost a government its support base. Consequently, politicians everywhere carefully weigh any changes in state-owned enterprise policy, naturally preferring policies that benefit their constituencies and help them remain in office over policies that undermine support and may precipitate their removal. While some exceptional leaders may be able to change their support base and mobilize new constituents for reform, most are necessarily responsive to the supporters who put them in office. In a democratic state, public enterprises should be accountable to the public or its representatives. What has happened to the two corporations under review, however, is that this control has developed in such a manner that it stands in the way of flexible management and autonomous decision-making. Supervision has resulted in centralisation of power, public accountability in political interference, while effectiveness of management has suffered.

Therefore, Ndlovu (2016) warns that an overhaul of the management and operations structures and systems at Air Zimbabwe and the National Railways of Zimbabwe is desperately needed. The fact that ex-military or military personnel are appointed to lead these key institutions means something ought to be addressed if the obligation of these institutions is to translate to improved performance. The study showed that 181(60.29%) of the participants said recruitment of well-educated/experienced managers and leaders is the most factor stated to enhance organisational

performance in the company, 48(16.18%) said acquisition of state of the art technology, while 22 (7.35%) said participative leadership and 26(8.82%) said research and development and 22(7.35%) cited free flow of information will act as the means to improve performance. It is against this backdrop that critics argue that Zimbabwe's parastatals have been in ruins as a result of poorly qualified managers who are largely aligned to ZANU PF. These were promoted because of their political links and not practical expertise (Bhebhe, 2012).

It was found that leadership styles affect employee outcome such as motivation, commitment satisfaction and attitudes. The success of an organisation is reliant on the leader's ability to optimise human resources. A good leader understands the importance of employees in achieving the goals of the organisation, and that motivating these employees is of paramount importance in achieving these goals. To have an effective organisation the people within the organisation need to be inspired to invest themselves in the organisation's mission: the employees need to be stimulated so that they can be effective; hence effective organisations require effective leadership (Rao and Krishma, 2006). Welch (2001) indicates that organisational performance will suffer in direct proportion to the neglect of this.

Also the autocratic leadership styles, mechanistic design of organisation and authoritarian rules as practiced in African organisations, where all decision making is confined only to top management and employees are just given orders to accomplish different tasks. In these types of organisational environment, the employees may suppress innovativeness and their motivation hindered, resulting in a direct negative effect on organisational performance, growth and effectiveness (Reena, 2009).

The ultimate goal of every corporate entity is to enhance performance. But the results from the research paint a gloomy picture. It found that employees are not motivated for their efforts; this affects morale which in turn affects performance. The role of motivation as a function of management is undoubtedly critical in enhancing the performance of every corporate entity. In line with this, employee motivation is indispensable to the success of every corporate organisation as they constitute the most important assets of the entity (Meyer and Botha: 2000; Amstrong, 2012). According to the equity theory, based on the work of J. Stacy Adams, workers compare the reward potential to the effort they must expend. Equity exists when workers perceive that rewards equal efforts. But employees just do not look at their potential rewards; they look at the rewards of others as well. Inequities occur when people feel that their rewards are inferior to the rewards offered to other persons sharing the same workloads. Employees who feel they are being treated inequitably may exhibit the following behaviours which have an impact on performance:

- Put less effort into their jobs
- Ask for better treatment and/or rewards
- Find ways to make their work seem better by comparison
- Transfer or quit their jobs

The equity theory makes a good point. It argues that people behave according to their perceptions. What a manager think is irrelevant to an employee because the real issue is the way an employee perceives his or her situation. Rewards and practices perceived as equitable should have positive results on job satisfaction and performance and those rewards perceived as inequitable may create job dissatisfaction and cause performance problems (Reena, 2009). Every manager needs to ensure that any negative consequences from equity comparisons are avoided, or at least minimized, when

rewards are allocated. Informed managers anticipate perceived negative inequities when especially visible rewards, such as pay increases or promotions, are allocated. Instead of letting equity concerns get out of hand, these managers carefully communicate the intended values of rewards being given, clarify the performance appraisals upon which these rewards are based, and suggest appropriate comparison points.

Relationship between leadership style and organisational performance has been discussed more often. Most research showed that leadership style has a significant relation with organisational performance, and different leadership styles may have a positive correlation or negative correlation with the organisational performance, depending on the variables used by researchers (Fu-Jin et al., 2010).

McGrath and MacMillan (2000) argued that there is a relationship between leadership styles and organisational performance. Effective leadership styles are seen as an important source of management development and sustained competitive advantage. Leadership style helps organisation to achieve their objectives more efficiently by linking job performance to valued rewards and by ensuring that employees have the resources needed to get the job done.

Bennis (2007) compares leadership style with the leadership performance in schools and enterprises, and found that leadership style had a significantly positive correlation with the performance in both schools and enterprises. From the research it was found out that there is a relationship between leadership styles and performance. This research hypothesis originated from the research question that stated that: what is the relationship between Transaction-Transformational, Task oriented, supportive leadership styles and employee performance? Thus the research hypothesis was tested and was accepted that all these leadership styles positively affects employee performance and employee performance reflects the performance of the

organisation. Erkutlu (2008) findings revealed that all dimensions of transformational leadership were positively correlated with leadership effectiveness while, laissez-faire leadership was found to be negatively correlated.

This study is also similar to Ojukuku (2012) who examined the relationship between effective leadership style and employee performance in Kenya, the study revealed that leadership style was positively linked with employee performance for both transformational behaviour and transactional contingent reward leadership behaviour. Furthermore, a similar research carried out by Humphreys and Einstein(2003), to determine which leadership style increase the performance of employees of some selected private schools in Pakistan, also demonstrated that transactional and transformational leadership styles are both positively associated with employee performance Webb (2003) indicated that combination of idealize influence attribute, individualized consideration, and transactional contingent reward were significant predictors of perceived leadership effectiveness rather than transformational or transactional leadership alone.

Mullins (2002) argues that during the past decades, the impact of leadership styles on organisational performance has been a topic of major interest among academics working in the area of leadership, they pointed out the most prominent reason for this interest is the widespread belief that leadership styles can ensure the performance of organisations.

According to Howell and Shamir, (2005); Fu-Jin,etal (2010) they agreed that the style of leadership used is considered to be play an important part in achieving organisational objectives, and in ensuring employees perform than expected of them. Despite the widespread acknowledgment of the importance and value of leadership styles, when studying the leadership literature, it was striking that the concept of leadership lacked coherence and agreement. The Zimbabwean SOE under the study are still practising autocratic and bureaucratic leadership styles and this is because

of the nature of their organisational structures. Most of the literature on leadership confuses the definition of effective leadership by failing to make clear distinctions in some definitions, such as between leaders and non-leaders, effective and ineffective leaders, as well as overlooking the definition of the levels of leadership as noted by Fisher (1995). Further noted that democratic leadership may have its advantages where both employer and the employee are given an opportunity to engage in the participation of performance schedules to the point where both share equal responsibility in deriving work requirements.

However, the contingency theory suggests that effective group performance depends on the proper match between the leader's style when interacting with the subordinates and the degree to which the leader controls and influences situations. Hence, when researching the leadership-performance relationship, the situation and environmental factors need to be taken into account and more leadership styles need to be considered in order to enhance the validity of the research. Therefore, closer attention is needed to ensuring that the measures of organisational performance are adequate and sufficient.

Broadly speaking, leadership performance is identical with organisational performance. Business management attributes their successes to leadership efficiency, that is, the leadership style of administrative supervisors has a considerable effect on the organisational performance (Bennis 2007). Fu-Jin et al. (2010) opine that when executives use their leadership style to demonstrate concern, care and respect for employees, it would increase interest of employees in their work and enable them to put up better performance, thereby affecting their job satisfaction positively. Howell and Shamir (2005) cited in Fu-Jin et al, 2010) confirm that there is a positive relationship between leadership style and organisational performance. The study found that transactional-

transformational, democratic, supportive and task leadership styles improves employee performance.

The broad objective of this research work was to establish the impact of leadership style on organisational performance. From the result, it was discovered that there is positive or negative relationship between leadership style and organisational performance, the Pearson model gives good account of the dependent variable of organisational performance on leadership style dimensions. This finding agrees with the work of Howell and Shamir (2005), Fu-Jin et al. (2010), Obiwuru et al (2011), and Jeremy et al. (2011) and also Jaskaran and Sri-Guru (2014), that leadership style has significant effect on organisational performance. In general, this notion that leadership style enhances the followers' performance is supported by the findings of empirical research done by Yukl, 2011; Avolio; 2007, Avolio and Bass, 2004.

From the Chi Square Tests results it was found that the P value from the SPSS output for task oriented leadership style was 0.002 is less 0.05, which is significant indicate there is indeed a very close association/relation between task oriented leadership style and employee performance. An alpha level of 0.05 was used to test for significance.

For Transactional-Transformational leadership style the P value from the SPSS output was 0.002 is less 0.05 which is a significant indicate there is indeed a very close association/relation between transactional-transformational leadership style and employee performance.

For supportive leadership style the P value from the SPSS output was 0.002 which is less 0.05 which is significant indicate that there is indeed a very close association/relation between supportive leadership style and employee performance.

Also it was found that the P value from the SPSS output was 0.047 is less 0.05 which is significant indicate that there is indeed a very close association/relation between leadership styles and organizational performance. The findings show that Autocratic and bureaucratic leadership styles are the most exhibited style at the bank followed by the transactional- transformational leadership style and laissez-faire. Employee performance is above average. Overall, scores in transactional-transformational leadership style were found to be strongly correlated with both measures of employee performance and overall performance except for the intellectual simulation dimension, which had insignificant positive correlation with quality of performance. Transactional leadership style was found to be positively correlated with both measures of employee performance as well as overall performance. However, contingent rewards had a negative but insignificant correlation with performance while management by exception had insignificant positive correlations. Authoritative leadership style had insignificant relationship while laissez faire style had insignificant positive correlation.

Transformational leadership style significantly positively affected employee performance while transactional leadership style affected employee performance significantly negatively. Authoritative and laissez faire leadership styles exhibited insignificant negative and positive effects on employees' performance, respectively. Arguably, employees are the most vital assets of any organization. However, getting the very best out of the employees remains an arduous task. As it were, the attainment of increased level of performance and efficiency has been the priority of any organization. Thus satisfied employees display positive attitude towards their job. Hence, the positive attitude will increase the quality of employee performance and vice versa. It can be illustrated that when an employee feels satisfied about the job, the employee is motivated to input greater effort and in turn help in the attainment of organizational goal.

SUMMARY OF MAJOR FINDINGS

The study found that the main leadership styles exhibited by managers are autocratic and bureaucratic because the majority of the respondents believed that the leaders failed to consult them when taking decisions, followed by transactional and transformational leadership styles. The laissez-faire and employee centered leadership styles were least used. The research also revealed that leadership styles like democratic, transactional and transformational improved the performance of employees whilst task oriented leadership style was found to have a positive and negative impact on performance and that leadership styles have a significant relationship with both employee and organizational performance. From literature review it was found that leadership effectiveness or success depends upon the appropriate matching of the individual leader's style of interacting with the influence that the group situation provides. One leadership style is not appropriate for all situations. A leader style can be effective in one situation and ineffective in another.

The study also found that the leaders do not show care and concern towards the welfare of the employees which has caused the resentment of employees resulting in demonstrations and strikes. Rewards and recognition are not tied to employee performance and promotion is based on favouritism, tribalism and nepotism and the appointment of inefficient managers most of the Board members are incompetent political appointees without any knowledge and experience. Political interferences in the day to day running of the organisations had a huge impact on the performance. From the interviews conducted with the top management, it was found that beside leadership styles there are other challenges like the aging of fleet affected is affected service delivery by regular down time of its fleet, which requires frequent maintenance and affects reliability of the service

and there is stiff competition, speed restrictions on some parts of the railway track. The lack of effective labour cost and control mechanisms (labour efficiency) mismatch between aircraft to employee ratios. An employee aircraft ratio of 250:1, higher than the global average of 150:1. Other are key challenges facing the organizations which are the shortage of foreign currency, expensive maintenance of infrastructure and equipment, theft, vandalism, fuel, social service obligations and a declining capacity. Experiencing loss of technical and professionals due to brain drain. The top management also indicated that the organisations lacked adequate capital.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter captured the findings from the data and the framework used for the analysis and presents conclusions drawn from the analysis. Recommendations are also given based on the findings. Results of the study show that leadership is an active factor that has both positive and negative impact on performances of organisations. The study also revealed that the various components of leadership styles have different levels of impact on employee and organisational performance.

7.1 CONCLUSIONS

This study concluded that the leaders exhibited autocratic and bureaucratic leadership styles because majority of the respondents believed that leadership of the National Railways of Zimbabwe and Air Zimbabwe failed to consult subordinates when taking decisions.

In order to investigate the relationship between leadership behaviour and the organisational performance of State Owned Enterprises in Zimbabwe Chi-Square Tests were conducted. Leadership styles were used as independent variables. The dependent variable was the organisational performance.

The Pearson product-moment correlations for each of the leadership styles and organizational performance was measured. The following questions Q7, Q8, Q9, and Q10 were used to examine the relationship between leadership styles and organisational performance. An alpha level of 0.05 was used to test for significance.

❖ Does Leadership styles have an impact on organisational performance?

The p –value from the SPSS output of 0.047 is less 0.05 which is significant and there is indeed a very close association/relation between Leadership style of the organisation and impact on organisational performance and conclude that there is a relationship between leadership style and organisational performance.

❖ Does Supportive leadership style improve employees' performance?

The p –value from the SPSS output of 0.002 is less 0.05 which is very significant and is concluded that there is indeed a very close association/relation between supportive leadership style and employees' performance and conclude that there is a relation between supportive leadership style and employee performance.

❖ Does Task oriented leadership style improve employees' performance?

The p –value from the SPSS output of 0.002 is less 0.05 which is very significant and concluded that there is indeed a very close association/relation between task oriented leadership style and employee performance and conclude that there is a relationship between task and employee performance.

❖ Does Transactional- transformational leadership style improve employees' performance?

The p –value from the SPSS output of 0.002 is less 0.05 which is very significant and concluded that there is indeed a very close association/relation between transactional-transformational leadership style and employee performance.

The findings show a positive relationship between the leadership styles and organisational performance. It can therefore be concluded that, there is a positive relationship between leadership styles and organizational performance.

Since it was found that there is a relationship between leadership styles and employee performance. Therefore, it was concluded that there is a relationship between leadership styles and employee performance. Also, Yukl (2010) observed that there is a significant association between employee and organizational performance. Adair, (2005,2012) maintained that the main influence on the organization's performance is the quality of its labour force. Thus, efforts by employees play a pivotal role in the overall performance of organizations and it is the performance of many individuals that culminates in the performance of the organizations (Fenwick and Gayle,2008). Furthermore, when there are good leadership styles adopted there will be good corporate behaviour by the employee, targets will be met and ultimately there will be satisfaction on the part of the employee and the employers.

Findings indicated that transformational leadership style was valid with regard to its effect on organisational performance. It can therefore be concluded that the extent to which National Railways of Zimbabwe and Air Zimbabwe's leadership does not focus on the development of followers and their needs, and this significantly affects organisational performance

. The National Railways of Zimbabwe and Air Zimbabwe play an important role in service delivery and are the engine of the economy. The transformational and democratic leadership style, in which employees are allowed to have sense of belonging, carry out higher responsibility with little supervision, and followers are helped to achieve their visions and needs enhance organisational performance (Humphreys, 2002). It is concluded that transactional-transformational and

democratic leadership styles are the best styles for the management at National Railways of Zimbabwe and Air Zimbabwe

The leadership style is only one of the several factors affecting employees' performance (Murphy and Drodge, 2004). Therefore, its effect cannot be regarded as absolute. Also there is an intimate relationship between leadership styles and organisation performance. Therefore, leadership styles have an impact on organisational performance. From this study it can be concluded that, the ideal leadership style should be a mix of transactional managerial abilities, with adequate incorporation of transformational elements, such as idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and other ingredients such as creativity, team orientation, appreciation of others, coaching, and recognition.

Proponents of transformational leadership theory have claimed that transformational leadership is the most effective and efficient leadership style in any setting. Transformational leaders encourage subordinates to put in extra effort and to go beyond what they (subordinates) expected before. Transformational leaders achieve the greatest performance from subordinates since they are able to inspire their subordinates to raise their capabilities for success and develop subordinates' innovative problem solving skills. As expected, relational analysis found that all transformational leadership behaviours have a strong positive correlation with organisational performance. According to the results of study, transformational leadership has a positive relationship with organisational performance. Transformational leaders are those who have a vision, makes strategic plans for future growth and development of their organisation, communicate goals and objectives to all concerned, and continue efforts for achievement of goals and objectives through commitments and dedication (Avolio, 2010; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000; Zhu et al. 2005). A

transformational leader uses values and principles for motivating subordinates to achieve expected levels of performance (Bass, 1985). Through values and principles, the level of trust and confidence increases which results into increase ownership and spirit of sacrifice. The transformational leader motivates and helps employee towards improved organisational performance. The significant rating of transformational leaders suggests that the leaders with such leadership skills should be sought after by state owned enterprises of Zimbabwe. Findings show a positive relationship between the transformational leadership styles and organisational performance. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a relationship between transformational leadership style and organisational performance

Laissez Faire style as per most of the literature available and reviewed has a negative effect on organisational performance and the study has confirmed that. The reason is due to limited interest of the leader and non-acceptance of the responsibility and provision of guidance by the leader. Due to less interest of the leader, non-acceptance of responsibility and loose/no control of the leader, mostly sub-ordinates are not satisfied, production targets are not met which results in poor performance of organisations (Yukl,2013).

The study concluded that beside leadership styles there are other challenges which have negative impact on performance

7.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

The study proposes that National Railways of Zimbabwe and Air Zimbabwe should adopt leadership styles that will galvanize organizational managerial and leadership processes and influence and behavioural patterns within the expectation level of employees. The adopted styles will also guide employees to develop an acceptable work attitude and behaviours. This is needed to enable employees to contribute to the success of the organization and equally create a healthy and balanced relationship in the workplace, thereby enhancing the contributions and retention of employees, especially the talented ones in the organization.

That in as much as the contingent theory suggests that there is no “one size fits all” approach to leadership, and that depending on the situation, varying levels of “leadership” and “management” are necessary (Blanchard and Hersey, 2006). Therefore, the leaders should adopt appropriate leadership styles based on the demands of the situation and leaders should know the impact of each leadership style on performance. Every leader should know about the different styles for the different situations and should be familiar with time of demonstration of a particular leadership style. Leadership styles are the approaches used to motivate followers. Leadership is not a “one size fits all” phenomenon. Leadership styles should be selected and adapted to fit organizations, situations, groups, and individuals. It is thus useful to possess a thorough understanding of the different styles as such knowledge increases the tools available to lead effectively.

Moreover, National Railways of Zimbabwe and Air Zimbabwe management should adopt leadership styles that focuses on the development of staff members and their needs as this had the highest significance with regard to its effect on organisational performance.

Given the widely documented ineffectiveness of autocratic and bureaucratic leadership styles and the results of this study, the participative leadership style was rated above the other types of leadership with respect to impact on performance. The research established bureaucratic and autocratic tendencies in the organisational structure and their major tenet of centralization affect performance. It slows down efficiency and erodes adaptiveness on the part of employees and managers. More importantly, management should try as much as possible to avoid leadership styles such as autocratic, task-oriented or laissez-faire leadership styles as they do not enhance staff performance. To enhance staff performance, management must endeavour to exhibit democratic, people-centred or transformational leadership styles for them to improve employee and organisational performance.

Trust between management and workers should be improved. Trust is the foundation of leadership. Trust is the glue that hold the organisation together. No leader can break trust with his people and expect to keep influencing them

The results of the study also indicate that contingent rewards and active management by exception, have a medium positive correlation with organizational performance. Leaders or managers should therefore consider formulating and implementing effective reward and recognition systems as well as encouraging greater managerial supervision in order to curb loss of experienced and skilled personal.

All variables of transformational leadership style have a strong positive relationship with organizational performance. It is therefore recommended that managers should strive to become role models to their subordinates; inspire subordinates by providing meaning and challenge to work; stimulate subordinate efforts to become innovative and creative; and pay attention to each individual's need for achievement and growth.

Based on the findings of this research, democratic, Transactional and Transformational leadership style have greater impact on performance than autocratic and bureaucratic leadership styles in terms of employee performance. In order to stay in the competitive business environment, it is recommended that the right leader with high capability be identified at all levels of the organization.

There is an obvious link between leadership styles and the organizational performance therefore, National Railways of Zimbabwe and Air Zimbabwe should work hard to select and hire the right people with the acceptable levels of leadership and place them in the right places that reflect their performance. Also, at the same time, the organization should enhance their leaders with capabilities, values and competencies.

Leaders should create an environment in which all members may contribute to the limits of their ability and encourage full participation in important matters, continually broadening subordinate self-control and self-direction.

Management should be informed that organisational performance at National Railways of Zimbabwe and Air Zimbabwe is largely influenced by extraneous factors besides leadership styles; and should find strategic options or methods to address them in order to enhance organisational performance

There is urgent need for recapitalization. The government should assist in recapitalization drive by guaranteeing the loans and Government to retire crippling debt i.e. clean balance sheet. There should be political will and commitment from central government.

Leaders` autocratic and bureaucratic leadership styles will decrease employee performance. So they should try to avoid these type of leadership styles. Contrarily, supervisors should clarify expectations and provide goals and standards to be achieved for the followers. The leaders should adopt appropriate leadership styles best suited to the organisational goals and employees` needs and desires. To ensure higher employee performance, they should act as ethical role models and be accepted as such. Therefore, organisations need to have efficient leaders to lead and motivate their employees in their daily operation so that they can achieve the organisational goals.

Based on the results of the current study, leadership development programs could help leaders understand the relationships between effective leadership styles and employee performance. Organizations can develop certain training programs or mentoring by professionals for the supervisors and leaders. Professionals and trainers can use the results from the current study to develop training programs that support leadership development. Organization can provide leadership training program or interventions to improve supervisor's leadership. The leadership training program can be designed based on employee needs and organizational needs to achieve the very best from such particular programs. The organization and supervisors should involve employees in decision making and leadership improvement and provide training and teamwork facilitation. In addition, policies and practices related to rewards or feedback system in the organizations can be adjusted to meet employees `needs in order to improve employee performance.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Aboshaiqah, A. E., Hamdan-Mansour, A. M., Sherrod, D. R. Alkhaibary, A. and Alkhaibary, S. (2014). Nurses' Perception of Managers' Leadership Styles and Its Associated Outcomes." American Journal of Nursing Research, 2 (4), pages 57-62.ity Printery.
- Adair J (2011). Lexicon of Leadership Kogan Page Pvt Ltd New Delhi.
- Adair J (2012). The Inspired Leadership Kogan Page Pvt Ltd New Delhi.
- Adam, C., Cavendish, and W. Mistry, P (1992). Adjusting Privatisation London: Heinemann.
- Ahmad F A (2014). Leadership and Performance: the case of Malaysian SMEs in the services sector. International Journal of Asian Social Science, Volume 4(3): pages 43-55
- Air Zimbabwe Annual Reports 1999 to 2009
- Air Zimbabwe Corporation Act (Chapter 253) of 1980
- Amin, M. (2005). Social science research, conception, methodology and analysis. Kampala, Makerere University Prente.
- Anyango C, A (2015). Effects of Leadership Styles On Employee Performance at BOA, Kenya Limited, Tanzania
- Armstrong, G and Kotler, P (2006). Principles of Marketing, Pearson Prentice Hall
- Avolio, B. and Bass, B. (2004). Developing potential across a full range of leadership - cases on transactional and transformational leadership New York, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Awamleh, R., Evans, J. and MahatE, A. (2005).A test of transformational and transactional leadership styles on employees' satisfaction and performance in the UAE banking sector. *Journal of Comparative International Management* Volume. 8, No. 1, pages; 3-19.

Azka .G, Tahir. M, Aslam. M andSyed.T (2011). Transformational leadership, employee engagement and performance: mediating effect of psychological ownership. *African Journal of Business Management*, Volume.5 (17), pages; 391-403.

Babbie E and Mouton J (2009). *The practice of social research-* Oxford University Press.

Barling, J., Loughlin, C, and Kelloway, E. K. (2002). Development and test of a model linking safety-specific transformational leadership and occupational safety. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Volume 87, pages: 488-4.

Bass, B.andRiggio, R. (2012). *Transformational leadership*, 2nd edition, US, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc

Bass, B.M and Avolio, B.J, (1990). *Transformational Leadership Development: Manual for Multifactor Leadership*.Palo Alto, CA: ConsultingPsychologist, Press.

Bass, B.M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York: Free Press.

Bass, B., and Avolio, B. (1997). *Full range leadership development: Manual for the multifactor leadership questionnaire*. Redwood City, CA: Mind Garden.

Beer, M and Nohria, N(2000). *Breaking the code of change*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press

Bennis W. (2007). The challenge of leadership in the modern world: introduction to special issues. *Am. Psychology*. Volume, 62(1), pages; 2-5.

Benowitz E, A (2001). *Principles of Management* Published by Hungry Minds, Inc. 909 Third Avenue New York, NY 10022

Berg, B. (2009). *Qualitative Research Methods for the Social Sciences*, 7th Edition, USA, Pearson Education Company

Bernard, H. and Ryan, G. (2010). *Analysing qualitative data- systematic approaches*, London, Sage publications, Inc.

Betroci, D. (2009). *Leadership in organisations- There is a difference between leaders and managers*. US, University Press of America.

Bhebhe, N. "No imminent privatisation of parastatals: PM", *The Standard*, 29 April-5 May 2012.

Bless, C. and Higson-Smith, C. (2000). *Fundamentals of Social Research Methods: An African Perspective*. 3rd edition. Cape Town: Juta Education Ltd.

Boerner, E, G (2007). Follower Behaviour and Organisational Performance: The Impact of Transformational Leader. *Journal of Leadership and Organisation Studies* Volume 13 Pages; 12-17.

Bohn, J. G (2002). Relationships of Perceived Leadership Behaviours to Organisational efficacy: *Journal of Leadership and Organisational Studies* Volume 9 Pages; 65-79.

Bolden, R. and Gosling, J. (2003). *Leadership, Society and the Next Ten Years*. Report for the Windsor Leadership Trust, Centre for Leadership Studies, University of Exeter, July 2003

Bolden. R (2004). What is leadership? Leadership southwest Research Report, pages; 5-7 and 28

Bossidy, L. and Charan, R. (2002). Execution: The discipline of getting things done. New York: Crown.

Bowling, A. (2005). Mode of questionnaire administration can have serious effects on data quality. Journal of Public Health, Volume 27, pages; 281-291.

Bryman, A. (2008). Social research methods. 3rd Edition. Oxford, Oxford university press.

Bryman, A. (2012). Social research methods Oxford, New York, Oxford University Press.

Buble, M. Juras, A. Matic, I (2014). The relationship between managers' leadership styles and motivation. Management, Volume. 19, (1), pages; 161-193

Cetin M (2006). The Relationship between Job Satisfaction, Occupation and Organisational Commitment of Academy: Journal of American Academy Business Volume 8 pages; 78-88.

Chan, A., and Chan, E. (2005). Impact of Perceived Leadership Styles on Work Outcomes: Case of Building Professionals. Journal of Construction Engineering and Management, Volume13 (4), pages; 413-422.

Charlton, G. (2000). Human Habits of Highly Effective Organisations. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Collins, J. C. (2001). Great by choice. Why some companies make the leap ... and others don't. New York: HarperCollins

Collins (2006). The Good to Great, Random House.

Collins, K. M. T. Onwuegbuzie, A. J. and Jiao, Q. G. (2006). Prevalence of mixed methods sampling designs in social science research and beyond. Paper presented at the meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco

Cooper, D. and Schindler, P. (2008). Business Research Methods, USA, McGraw-Hill companies, Inc

Covey, S (2004). The Seven Habits of Highly Effective People 1st Edition Simon &Schuster Ltd, UK

Creswell, J. (2009). Research Design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches, USA, SAGE Publications, Inc.

Creswell, J. and Clark, V. (2011). Designing and conducting mixed methods research, US, SAGE Publications, Inc.

Creswell, J.W. (2013). Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches. Los Angeles, CA: SAGE Publications Inc.

Daft, L. R. (2008). New Era of Management, Second Edition. Mason, OH: Thomson South-Western.New York.

Daresh, J. C. (2002). What it means to be a Principal: your guide to leadership. California:Corwin Press Inc.

DeCenzo, A. D and Robbins, P. S (1998). Personnel and Human resource management. New Delphi: Mohan Makhijan

Dillman, D. (2007). Mail and Internet Surveys. The tailored design method. 2nd Edition. New York, John Wiley and Sons Inc.

Drucker, P. (2001). The next society. The Economist, 1 November.

Dubrin, A. (2007). Leadership: Research findings, practice, and skills New York Houghton Mifflin Company

Dubrin, A. (2012). Leadership: Research findings, practice, and skills, 7th Edition. , New York, Houghton Mifflin Company

Ejere, E. I., and Abasilim, U. D. (2013). Impact of transactional and transformational leadership styles on organisational performance: empirical evidence from Nigeria. The Journal of Commerce, 5(1), 30-41.

Elenkov, D. S. (2002). Effects of leadership on organisational performance in Russian companies. Journal in Business. Research, Volume 55, No 6: pages; 467-480.

Erkutlu, H. (2008). The impact of transformational leadership on organisational and leadership effectiveness, Journal of Management Development, Volume. 27 No. 7, pages; 708-726.

Fenwick F J, and Gayle, C. A (2008). Missing Links in Understanding the Relationship between Leadership and Organisational performance: International Business and Economics Research Journal Australia – Volume 7, Number 5 pages; 67 -69

Flick U (2002). An Introduction to Qualitative Research, 2nd Edition, and Sage Publications

Flick, U. (1998). An introduction to qualitative research. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Fry, L. W. (2003). Towards a Theory of Spiritual Leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, Volume14, pages; 693-727.

Gareth, R.J. (2000). *Contemporary Management*, McGraw Hill Higher Education Company, USA

Gaudreau M (2012). Effect of Empowerment on Employees Performance *Advanced Research in Economic and Management Sciences (AREMS) Volume2, Page 40*

Gilley, A. (2005). *The manager as change leader*. Westport, CT: Praeger

Gimuguni, L., Nandutu, J., and Magolo, A. (2014). Effect of leadership styles on performance of local governments in Uganda. A case of Mbale District.

Goleman D (2000). *Emotional Intelligence*. New York: Bantam.

Goleman, D. (2010). *The Leadership that gets results*, Harvard Business Review

Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R. and McKee, A. (2002). *The New Leaders*. London: Little Brown

GovenderD (2010). *The factors influencing job satisfaction of managers at State Owned Enterprises*. Gordon Institute of Business Science: Johannesburg

Gray, D. (2009). *Doing research in the real world*. 2nd Edition, London, SAGE publication Ltd.

Guest G, Bruce A and Johnson L (2006). How many interviews are enough? An experiment with data saturation and validity, *Field methods* volume18 (1) pages; 59-82

Gunter, B. (2002). *The Quantitative Research Process*, in *A Handbook of Media and Communication Research: Qualitative and Quantitative Methodologies*, edited by K. B. Jensen. London: Routledge

Hackman R. P and, Wageman R (2007). Asking the right questions about leadership discussion and conclusion. *Am. Psychol.*, 61(1), pages; 1-41.

Hackman, M. Z., and Johnson, C. E. (2004). *Leadership: a communication perspective*. Long Grove: Waveland Press

Hair, J., Black, W., Babin, B. and Anderson, R. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis: A global perspective*, 7th edition, US, Pearson Prentice Hall.

Hannagan T (2002). *Management concepts and Practices*, 3rd Edition Prentice Hall

Hersey, P., Blanchard, K. H. and Johnson, D. E. (2001). *Management of Organisational Behaviour: Leading Human Resources*. 8th edition. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc

Howell, J.M. and Shamir, B. (2005). The Role of Followers in the Charismatic Leadership Process: Relationships and Their Consequences. *Academy of Management Review*, Volume 30 (1), pages; 96-112.

House R, J (1971). A Path–Goal Theory of leader effectiveness, *Administrative Science publication*: pages; 321-38.

House, R. J. and Mitchell T, R. (1974). The Path-Goal Theory of leadership. *Journal of contemporary of business*: page 86.

House, R. (1976). Theory of charismatic leadership", in Hunt and L. Larson (eds).

Humphreys J. H. (2002). Transformational leader behaviour, proximity and successful service marketing. *J. Serv. Mark.*, 16(6), pages; 487-502.

Hueryren Y, S and Dachuan H (2012). The Journal of Human Resource and Adult Learning, Volume. 8, (2), pages; 54-55.

Hussein S JH (2014). The Impact of Leadership Style on Innovation in Iraq's Higher Education Institutions: The Role of Knowledge Sharing pages; 30-60

Ismail, A., Mohamad, M., Mohamad, H., Rafiuddin, N. and Zhen, K. (2010). Transformational and transactional leadership styles as a predictor of individual outcomes. Theoretical and Applied Economics, Volume. 6, No. 547, pages; 89-104.

ITF Rail Union Report, 2008

Jaskaran, S.D. and Sri-Guru, G.S. (2014). Challenges of Organisational Behaviour: Leadership and its Impact on Performance of Employees: A case Study of a Public Sector Bank in Mohali. Journal of Business Management & Social Sciences Research, 3 (11) pages; 33-50.

Jeremy .M, Melinde .C and Ciller V. (2012). Perceived leadership style and employee participation in a manufacturing company in the democratic republic of Congo, African journal of business management, .6(15), 5389-5398.

Jangare Daily News, "Probe parastatals", 13 December 2013

Jensen, K. B. (2002). The Qualitative Research Process, in A Handbook of Media and Communication Research: Qualitative and Quantitative Methodologies, edited by K.B. Jensen. London: Routledge

Judge, T.A. and Piccolo, R.F. (2004) Transformational & transactional leadership: A meta-analytic test of their relative validity. Journal of Applied Psychology, Volume 89(5): Pages

755-768 Jung

D I (2001). Transformational and transactional leadership and their effects on creativity in groups. *Creativity Research Journal*; Volume 13(2): pages 185–95.

Jun, M., Cai, S. and Shin, H. (2006). TQM practice in maquiladora: antecedents of employee satisfaction and loyalty. *Journal of Operations Management*, Volume 24, pages; 791-812.

Kanji G K and Moura P (2001). Middle Leaders and School Culture; *Journal of Education Research and Review* Volume. 12(2). Pages; 45, 70

Keller, R.T. (2006) Transformational leadership, initiating structure & substitutes for leadership: A longitudinal study of research & development project team performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(1): pages 202-210.

Kellerman B (2012). *The End of Leadership* New York Harper Collins

Kirkpatrick, S. A. and Locke, E. A. (1991). Leadership: do traits matter? *Academy of Management Executive*, Volume 5, pages; 48–60.

Kish, L. (2004). *Statistical Design for Research*, New York, Wiley.

Koonz, H. and Wehrich, H. (2010). *Essentials of Management*. Eighth Edition. New Delhi: Tata McGraw-Hill Publishing Company Limited.

Kotter, J (2006). Leading change why transformation efforts fail. *Harvard Business Review*, Volume 73 (2) pages 59-68

Kouzes, J.M and Posner, B.Z (2006). *A leader's legacy*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass

Krishna, K.S. (2005). Leadership Styles among Manufacturing Industries in Vusakhapatnam. *GITAM Journal of Management*, Volume.3, No.1. pages; 60-75

Leary, M. R. (2001). *Introduction to Behavioural Research Methods*. 3rd edition. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Lee, H. W. (2010). Relationship between leadership style and organisational commitment. *Operating Management Reviews*, Volume 6(1), pages; 87-95

Lee, J. L. (2009). The relationships among organisation climate, reward system, leadership styles, and job performance: The case of ocean freight forwarder industry. Unpublished master's thesis, National Taiwan Ocean University, Taiwan

Leedy, P.D. and Ormrod, J.E. (2005). *Practical research: Planning and design* 8th Edition. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson Education.

Lussier, R. N. (2006). *Management fundamentals: Concepts, applications, skill development* (3rd Edition.). Mason, OH: Thomson South-Western

Lussier, R. N. and Achua, C. F. (2007). *Leadership: Theory, Application and Skill Development*. USA: South- West College Publishing.

Lussier, R., and Achua, C. (2009). *Leadership: Theory, application and skill development*. Mason: South-Western Publications.

McGrath, G. R and MacMillan, I. C. (2000). *Entrepreneurial Mindset: Strategies for continuously creating opportunity in an age of uncertainty*. Harvard Business School Press Books

Madrid, G.A., H. Auken, P.D and García, L.D (2007). An analysis of factors impacting performance of Spanish manufacturing firms. *Journal of Small Business and Entrepreneurship*, Volume 20(4): pages; 369-379.

Manfred Kets de Vries, (2001). *The Leadership Mystique*, Financial Times Prentice Hall.

Matzler, K., E. Schwarz, N. Deutinger and R. Harms, (2008). Relationship between transformational leadership, product innovation and performance in SMEs. *Journal of Small Business and Entrepreneurship*, 21(2): pages; 139-152.

Mlambo, E., “CEO salaries bleed parastatals”, *The Independent*, 11 October 2013

Manungo, K, D (2007) *Security and Democracy in Southern Africa*. Wits University.

Maodza T, “Air Zimbabwe nosedives”, *Newsday*, 16 June 2011.

Maurik, J.V. (2001). *Writers on Leadership*. London: Penguin Books

Maxwell J C (1999). *The 21 Irrefutable Laws of Leadership* USA Thomas Nelson Inc.

McGrath, G. R and MacMillan, I. C. (2000). *Entrepreneurial Mindset: Strategies for continuously creating opportunity in an age of uncertainty*. Harvard Business School Press Books.

McKeown. M (2008). *The Truth about Innovation*. London, UK: Prentice Hall publications

Mehta, R., Dubinsky, A. J. and Anderson, R. E. (2003). Leadership style, motivation and performance in international marketing channels: An empirical investigation of the USA, Finland and Poland, *European Journal of Marketing*, 37 (1/2), pages; 50-85.

Meyer M and Botha E. (2000). *Organisation Development and Transformation in South Africa*. Durban: Butterworth

Mlambo AS (1997). 'Civil aviation in colonial Zimbabwe, 1912-1980', *International Journal of Politics and Good Governance*, Volume Pages; 79-80

Mosadeghrad, A.M. (2003). "The role of participative management (suggestion system) in hospital effectiveness and efficiency", *Research in Medical Sciences*, Volume. 8 No. 3, Isfahan, pages; 85-9.

Muenjohn, N. and A. Armstrong, (2008). Evaluating the structural validity of the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ), capturing the leadership factors of transformational-transactional leadership. *Contemporary Management Research*, Volume 4(1): pages; 3-14.

Mugabe, T. "Govt to act on parastatal pay rot". *The Herald*, 16 January 2014.

Muijs, D. (2004). *Doing Quantitative Research in Education with SPSS*. London: SAGE Publications Inc.

Mullins, J. L (2005). *Essentials of organisation behaviour*. London: Pearson.

Murphy, G.B., J.W. Trailer and R.C. Hill, (1996). Measuring performance in entrepreneurship research. *Journal of Business Research*, Volume36 (1): pages; 15-23

Murphy, S., and Drodge, E. (2004). The four I's of police leadership: A case study heuristic. *International Journal of Police Science and Management*, Volume6(1), pages; 1-15.

Mutanda D (2014). *International Journal of Politics and Good Governance* Volume 5, No. 5.2 Quarter II 2014, pages; 9-10.

Muterera, J. (2012). Leadership Behaviours and Their Impact on Organisational Performance in Governmental Entities. *International Journal of Sustainable Development*. Pages; 19-24.

Mutizwa J (2013). *Leading Without Command*. Partridge Publishing Africa, Bloomington, USA

Mwase, E., “NRZ’s sorry story”, *The Sunday Mail*, (7 July-13) 2013.

National Railways of Zimbabwe Annual Reports (2008-2010)

Nconco.F.(2006). A comparative study of leadership and management approaches in further education and training colleges. Unpublished PhD Thesis. Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, Port Elizabeth, South Africa.

Nehanda Radio, Zesa: No square pegs in round holes, (June 19 2014).

Nesbary, D. K. (2000). *Survey Research and the World Wide Web*. Massachusetts: Allyn and Bacon.

Neuman, W L (2005). *Social Research Methods* 6th Edition London, Pearson

Northose P, G (2010). *Leadership theory and practice* 5th edition sage publication New Delhi

Northouse, P. (2007). *Leadership, Theory and practice*, California, Sage publication, Inc.

Northouse, P. (2012). *Introduction to leadership: Concepts and practice*, 2nd Edition, Los Angeles SAGE Publication.

Northouse, P. G. (2011). *Introduction to leadership: Concept and practice*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications, Inc, New Delhi.

Nwankwo S and Richards D.C, (2001). Privatisation -The myth of free market orthodoxy in sub-Saharan Africa", International Journal of Public Sector Management, Vol. 14 Iss: 2, pages; 165-179.

Nyambayo G, "The power sharing agreement who needed it most" (The Zimbabwean, 15 September, 2008).

Ojokuku R. M, Adebayo T. A and Sajuyigbe A. S (2012).Impact of Leadership Style on Organisational Performance: American Journal of Business and Management Volume. 1, No. 4, pages; 202-207

Parastatals Performance: World Bank survey (2006).

Parliamentary Portfolio Committee on Transport and Infrastructural Development Report, (2010).

Peretomode, V. F. (2012). Theories of management: Implications for educational administration. Benin City: Justice Jeco Publishing Global.

Peters, T. and Waterman, R., (1982). In Search of Excellence. New York, USA: Harper and Row

Porter M and Nohria N (2010). What is Leadership? The CEO`s Role in Large Complex Organisation .Harvard Business Press, Boston, Massachusetts.

Pradeep, D. D.andPrabhu, N.R.V. (2011). The relationship between effective leadership and employee performance. International Conference on Advancements in Information Technology, Volume 20, pages; 198-207

Punch, K. F. (2003). Survey Research: The Basics. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Rad, A.M and Yarmohammadian, H.M (2006). The study of relationship between managerial leadership styles and employee job satisfaction leadership in health services Volume.19 pages; 22, 26

Raja, A, and Palanichamy, P. (2012). Leadership styles and its impact on organisational commitment. The Journal of commerce, 3(4), 15-23.

Rao, V.S.P. and Krishna, V.H. (2006). Management Text and Cases. Fifth Edition. New Delhi: Excel Books.

Reena A and Ahmed M S, (2009).The Impact of Reward and Recognition Programs on Employee's Motivation and Satisfaction: An Empirical Study. International Review of Business Research Papers Volume. 5 No. 4 Pages; 270-279

Riaz, A. andHaideR, M. (2010). Role of transformational and transactional leadership on job satisfaction and career satisfaction. Business and Economic Horizons, Volume. 1, No.1, pages; 29-38.

Richard F (2011). "Enhancing the role of the Boards of directors of state owned enterprises" OECD Corporate Governance Working Papers, No 2, OECD Publishing.

Ritchie, J., and Lewis, J. (Ed.). (2003). Qualitative research practice. A guide for social science students and researchers. London: Sage Publications, Inc.

Robbins, S.P. and M. Coulter, (2005). Management. 8th Edition. Upper Saddle River: NJ: Prentice Hall

Roberts, J. (2004) The Modern Firm: Organisational design for performance and growth. New York: Oxford University Press.

Robins S, P and Coulter M (2009). Management 10th Edition Prentice Hall, Pearson International, New Jersey.

Rohman, A. and Rowold, J. (2009). Gender and leadership style. Equal Opportunities International, Volume. 28, No. 7, pages; 545 - 560.

Rowe, W.G. (2001) Creating wealth in organisations. The role of strategic leadership. Academy of Management Executive, Volume 15: pages; 81-94.

Saenz, H. (2011). Transformational leadership in Bryman, Alan, Collinson, David, Grint, Keith, Jackson, Brad, and Bien, Mary, The SAGE handbook of leadership, London, SAGE Publications Ltd.

Sashkin, M. and Sashkin, M. (2003). Leadership That Matters. San Francisco: BerrettKoehler Publishers Inc

Saunders M, Lewis P and Thornhill A (2003). Research Methods Business Students 3rd Edition, Rosolito Hombard, Italy.

Saunders M, Lewis P and Thornhill A (2004). Research Methods Business Students 3rd Edition, Rosolito Hombard, Italy.

Saunders M., Lewis, P. and Thornhill, A. (2007). Research methods for business students London, Pearson Education Limited.

Saunders M., Lewis, P. and Thornhill, A (2009). Research methods for business students. 5th edition, England, Pearson education Limited.

Saunders M., Lewis, P. and Thornhill, A. (2012). Research methods for business students, 7 ed., England, Pearson education limited

Schermerhorn, J. R. (2008). Management, 9th Edition., New York, Danvers, John Wiley and Sons, Inc, MA.

Sekaran, U. and Bougie, R. (2011). Research methods for business: A skill building approach. 5th ed., London, John Wily and Sons Ltd.

Sekeran U (2003). Research Methods for Business. A Skill for Building Approach, 4th Edition New York, John Wiley and Sons.

Senior B and Fleming .J (2006).Organisational change, 3rd Edition, FT, Prentice Hall

Sharma R (2009). The leadership Wisdom:Jaicco Publishing House, Pvt, Ltd. New York

Sikes, P. (2004). Methodology, Procedures and Ethical Concerns, in Doing Educational Research: A Guide to First-Time Researchers, edited by C. Opie. London: Sage Publications

Simpson, S. N. Y. (2014). Boards and governance of state-owned enterprises. Corporate Governance, 14, 238-251.

Singh, Y.K. (2006).Fundamentals of Research Methodology and Statistics. New Delhi. New Age International (P) Ltd.

Smith, D. (2009). Exploring Innovation, 2nd Edition. London, McGraw-Hill Higher Education.

Stewart, R (1994) Managing in Britain and Germany. London: St Martin's Press.

Stoner, A.F. et al. (2005), Management (Eleventh Edition), New York: Published by Alimo-

Sultan B S (2014) State Owned Enterprises in Southern Africa: A Stocktaking of Reforms and Challenges. OECD Corporate Governance Papers No. 13, OECD Publishing.

Taylor, G. R. (2000). Introduction and Overview of the Research Process, in Integrating Quantitative and Qualitative Methods in Research, edited by G. R. Taylor. Lanham: University Press of America: pages; 1-11.

Taylor, G. R. and Trumbull, M. (2000). Major Similarities and Differences Between Paradigms, in Integrating Quantitative and Qualitative Methods in Research, edited by G. R. Taylor. Lanham: University Press of America: pages; 170-182.

Taylor, W. A. and Wright, G. H. (2004). Organisational readiness for successful knowledge sharing: Challenges for public sector managers. Information Resources Management Journal, Volume.17, No. 2, pages; 22-37.

The Economists, 2013

The Global Competitive Report, (2013)

The Herald, “Zimbabwe airline workers strike, flights grounded” 9 September 2010

The Standard, “Stop the rot at parastatals”, 15 December 2013.

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP, 2009)

The Wall Street Journal Guide to Management (2013)

Thite, M. (2000) ‘Leadership styles in information technology projects’, International Journal of Project Management, volume. 18, pages; 235- 241.

Tsigu, G. T., and Rao, D. P. (2015). Leadership styles: their impact on job outcomes in Ethiopian banking industry. ZENITH International Journal of Business Economics and Management Research, 5(2), pages 41-52.

Walumbwa F, O and Weber, T, J, (2004). Climates, Journal of Social Psychology, 10: 271-301. Leadership: Current Theories, Research and Future Directions Annual Review of Psychology Volume 60, Pages: 421-449.

Waterman, H. (2011). Principles of “servant leadership” and how they can enhance practice. Nursing management, Volume 17(9), pages 24–26.

Welch J, and Welch S (2005). Winning, Harper Collins publishers.

Williams C (2002). Effective Management-A Multimedia Approach South Western Publishing.

Williams M R (2010). Mastering Leadership 2nd Edition Thorogood Publishers Ltd New Delhi
www.nehandaradio.com Accessed on 19/06/2014).

www.the standard.co 27/08/13).

Yin, R.K. (2003). Case study research: Design and methods 3rd Edition. London: Sage Publications.

Yukl G. (2001). Leadership in Organisations. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.

Yukl G (2002).Leadership in Organisations.5rd Editions. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Yukl, G. (2006). Leadership in organisations New Jersey Person Education, Prentice Hall.

Yukl, G. (2010). Leadership in organisations, U.S, Pearson Prentice Hall.

Yukl, G. (2013). *Leadership in organisations*, 8th Edition. , N.J., Upper Saddle River, Pearson Education.

Zhu, W, Avolio, B. J, Koh, W., and Bhatia, P. (2005). Transformational leadership and organisational commitment: mediating role of psychological empowerment and moderating role of structural distance. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, Volume 25, pages; 951–968.

Zikmund W.G. (2003) *Business Research Methods* –South Western.

ZIMSTAT (2014)

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

No. 2345

Gwebi Street

Glen Norah A

Harare

Dear Respondent

Ref: Survey on impact of Leadership Styles on Performance of State Enterprises of Zimbabwe

The attached questionnaire is of an extensive research study undertaken to investigate “**The Impact of leadership Styles on Performance of State Enterprises of Zimbabwe**”. The study is part of Mr Celestino Chinguruve`s **Doctor of Philosophy in Governance and Leadership Thesis with the University of Lusaka-Zambia**

You are therefore kindly requested to complete the attached questionnaire to your best ability. The questionnaire will take you between twenty to thirty minutes to complete. All the information will be treated as confidential and will only be used for academic purposes. Thank you in advance for accepting to be cooperative.

Please tick the most appropriate answers

FIELD RESEARCH ON IMPACT OF LEADERSHIP STYLES PERFORMANCE

PART A

(1) Please Mark (x) in the boxes as appropriate unless otherwise indicated.

1. **Sex:** Male () Female ()

2. **Age group:** 18 – 29 (), 30 – 40 (), 41 – 50 (), 51 – 60 (), 61 –70 ()

3. **Level of Education:** Primary School (), Secondary School (),

Bachelors () Others,

4. **For how long have you been with the organisation?**

Under 2 year (), 3-4 years () 5-6 years () above 6 years ()

5. **What is your position in the Organisation?.....**

PART B

(6) **Which of the following leadership styles do you have in your organisation?**

(a) Supportive leadership style (b) Task related leadership (c) Participative leadership style

(d) Transactional and Transformational leadership style (e) all the above leadership styles

(7) **Do you think that supportive leadership styles improve employees' performance?**

1 Agreed strongly 2 Agreed 3 Undecided 4 Disagreed strongly 5 Disagreed

(8) **Do you think that task oriented leadership style improves employees' performance?**

1 Agreed strongly 2 Agreed 3 Undecided 4 Disagreed strongly 5 Disagreed

(9) **Do you think that Transactional-Transformational leadership style improve employees' performance?**

1 Agreed strongly 2 Agreed 3 Undecided 4 Disagreed strongly 5 Disagreed

(10) Do you think that leadership styles have an impact on organisational performance?

1 Agreed strongly **2** Agreed **3** Undecided **4** Disagreed strongly **5** Disagreed

11. Were you promoted recently?

Yes () No ()

12. What criteria is used for promotion?

Rank using a scale of 0 – 5 (with 0 being not important)

Length of Service () contribution to the Company () Nepotism and tribalism () Managing

Director's Discretion (

Others:

14. What is the level of motivation in the Organisation?

Rank your level of motivation using a scale of 0 – 5 (with 0 being no

motivation)

15. Have you receive job training in the organisation?

Yes () No ()

If yes, specify what kind of training you received.....

16. Do managers delegate duties to followers?

Yes () No ()

17. If yes, is delegation backed up by adequate responsibility and authority?

Yes () No ()

18. Using the scale (0-5) how do you describe the performance of the organisation so far?

Answer the level of performance using a scale of 0 – 5 (with 0 worst Performance)

19 What are the causes for this level of performance?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

20. Which is most the Leadership style in your organisation?

Autocratic () Participative () Democratic () Bureaucratic () transactional, and transformational leadership () Laissez-faire Leadership ()

Any Other.....

21. Do you think workers are motivated in response to their efforts and contributions?

Yes/No

If yes, rank the level of motivation using a scale of 0 – 5.

22. Are there any form(s) of performance measurement existing in your Organisation?

Yes () No ()

23 If yes, give examples

.....
.....
.....

24 What factor(s) will enhance Organisational performance in your Company?

Rank the following in order of importance (0 – 5)

- a) Recruitment of well-educated / experienced Managers and Leaders ()
- b) Acquisition of State of the art technology ()
- c) Participative Leadership and proper Motivation of staff ()
- d) Research and development ()
- e) Free Flow of information and personal recognition ()

25 What factor(s) could counter high organisational performance?

Rank the following in order of importance (0 – 5)

- a) Lack of good equipment ()
- b) Insufficient Staff and funds ()

c) Autocracy and bad leadership ()

d) Lack of attention to staff opinion and welfare ()

e) Others Specify ()

26 Do you think that leadership styles have impact on organisational performance?

1 Strongly Disagree 2 Disagree 3 Neutral/Undecided 4 Agree 5 Strongly Agree

27 Are you regularly consulted in decision making? Yes () No ()

28 How do leaders take errors made by subordinates?

(a) A learning experience (b) An Invitation for discipline (c) Tolerable only once

28 Does employee commitment improve Performance?

1 Strongly Disagree 2 Disagree 3 Neutral/Undecided 4 Agree 5 Strongly Agree

29 I feel management cares about me as an individual

1 Strongly Disagree 2 Disagree 3 Neutral/Undecided 4 Agree 5 Strongly Agree

30 Promote open communication and sharing of information. Yes/No

31 My ideas/suggestions are taken seriously

1 Strongly Disagree 2 Disagree 3 Neutral/Undecided 4 Agree 5 Strongly Agree

32 Management treats employees with dignity and respect

1 Strongly Disagree 2 Disagree 3 Neutral/Undecided 4 Agree 5 Strongly Agree

33 How is company success celebrated?

(a) We have succeeded (b) The company has succeeded (c) I have succeeded

34 Are rewards and recognition tied to performance?

1 Strongly Disagree 2 Disagree 3 Neutral/Undecided 4 Agree 5 Strongly Agree

35 Is the working environment Conducive for you?

(a) The company is a good place to work; (b) The company has good employees; (c) The company rewards employees fairly.

35 Which of the listed characteristics, in your view, characterise an effective leader?

Building enduring greatness through personal humility, greatness and professional will ()

Commitment, pursuit of a clear and compelling vision and high performance standards ()

Organizing resources and people for attaining objectives ()

Contributing individual capacity to the team ()

Showing great skill in problem solving ()

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Can you briefly tell me your secret to success with regards to your relationship with staff?
2. Do you tolerate mistakes in this organisation?
3. Has politics ever played a role at both individual and company level performance?
4. Which leadership style(s) do you use and why?
5. What would you say are the three most important characteristics of a successful leader?
6. In your view, are good leaders born or made?
7. Can you identify one Zimbabwean corporate leader and without naming them, just let me know what you think they are doing right.
8. In your view, how would you describe the period 2005 to 2010 and how did you manage as a Chief Executive Officer?
9. When you tackle key issues within your organisation, do you do so in your normal state or you operate from a different level?
10. Who do you look up to for inspiration in your day to day activities between God or your actual beliefs?
- 11 In your own opinion, why are State Owned Enterprises not performing?