



**COMMUNICATION STYLES AND EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE:  
A CROSS – CULTURAL ANALYSIS OF WOMEN LEADERS IN THE UNITED  
KINGDOM AND SOUTH AFRICA**

Dissertation Manuscript

Submitted to Unicaf University in Zambia  
in partial fulfilment of the requirements  
for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) - Business

By Tafadzwa Marowa

August, 2025

## **Approval of the Thesis**

COMMUNICATION STYLES AND EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE:  
A CROSS – CULTURAL ANALYSIS OF WOMEN LEADERS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM AND  
SOUTH AFRICA

This Thesis by Tafadzwa Marowa has been approved by the committee members below, who recommend it be accepted by the faculty of Unicaf University in Zambia in partial fulfilment of requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) – Business

Thesis Committee:

Dr Mary Mutete Mwanzia, supervisor

Dr Olga Novokhatskaya, chair

Dr Kinslin Devaraj, external examiner

Dr Assumptah Kagiri, internal examiner

## Abstract

### COMMUNICATION STYLES AND EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE: A CROSS- CULTURAL ANALYSIS OF WOMEN LEADERS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM AND IN SOUTH AFRICA

Tafadzwa Marowa

Unicaf University in Zambia

This study investigates the impact of leadership communication styles on employee performance within a cross-cultural context, focusing on women leaders in the United Kingdom and South Africa. Although women have been increasingly visible in worldwide leadership positions, there is still a notable absence of knowledge about how women's communication styles, which are based on different cultural lenses, affect outcomes at the organizational level. This study sought to address knowledge of women's communication style, delineate these styles, and consider their impact on employee performance. The main aims/goals and areas of this study are to determine the eclectic statement modalities adopted and used by female leaders in the United Kingdom country and in South African country to record the cultural distinctions between organizational communication in Africa and the West, and to investigate the impact of culture and communication style on worker performance. This research employed a concurrent mixed-methods approach. Quantitative data were collected via an online questionnaire from 200 employees (100 from the UK and 100 from South Africa) working under women leaders. Qualitative data were gathered through Skype interviews with 30 women leaders (15 from each country) reached after data saturation. An organization in the UK and an organization in South Africa were contacted via online surveys and interviews. The study's surprising finding is that there are female Chief Executive Officers (CEO) who have stated that they prefer an authoritarian leadership style. While there are several strengths to this

technique such as the accelerating of the decision-making, it may also promote trust issues in a negative way, the discouragement of the involvement of the employee and suppress the creativity tactics. The ANOVA analysis of employee performance revealed significant findings regarding the impact of communication styles and culture. In Regression Model 1, the regression sum of squares was 15.891 with two degrees of freedom, resulting in a mean square value of 7.945 and a highly significant F-statistic of 60.595 ( $p$ -value = 0.000), indicating that the model is statistically significant. The multiple correlation coefficient ( $R$ ) was 0.617, suggesting a moderate positive correlation, while the coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) of 0.381 indicated that participatory and authoritarian communication styles explain approximately 38.1% of the variance in employee performance. The Adjusted R-Square of 0.375 further refined the model's goodness of fit. In Regression Model 2, a strong positive correlation was observed with a multiple correlation coefficient ( $R$ ) of 0.889, and the  $R^2$  value of 0.791 demonstrated that culture accounts for 79.1% of the variance in employee performance, with an Adjusted  $R^2$  of 0.789 confirming the model's robustness. The total regression sum of squares across the analysis was 32.983, emphasizing the significant role of both communication styles and cultural influences on employee performance. Qualitatively, 80% of the leaders we interviewed stated that their cultural background played a fundamental role in how they communicated. While the vast majority (73.3%) described their style as participatory, a significant minority (26.7%), stated that they purposely practiced an authoritarian style for some levels of effectiveness and respect. The results study offered a view of information about the choices and rationales of female leaders for adopting participatory and authoritarian communication styles. The results underscore the intricacy of leadership approaches and the possible impact of historical and social backgrounds. They also stress how crucial it is to consider the opportunities and strength of many leadership beliefs and the effect they have on subordinate productivity and engagement. This study represents a meaningful contribution by

providing empirical, cross-cultural evidence that participative, or inclusive, communication is a vital motivator of employee performance, while authoritarian styles are not. The results challenge overly simplistic cultural stereotypes and demonstrate the strategic nuance in women's communication of leadership. The implications for leadership development are significant, advocating that organizations need to place a priority and emphasis on training in participative approaches to foster better performance. In terms of theory, it builds the cross-cultural application of frameworks such as Human Capital Theory by conceptualizing communication as a strategic investment. The highlight of the results gives an insight on how important it is for businesses to encourage successful communication techniques, as the participative communication style increases employee performance substantially. Future research should investigate the long-term repercussions of these communication styles and research their implications in other cultural dyads. More research analysis is crucial to understand fully the importance of cultural beliefs as well as other factors being influenced by these connections.

## Declaration

I hereby announce that I am the author of the thesis and that I have not presented the work for consideration for any other degree or qualified certification. I attest that the work I have acquiesced is original to me, apart from any submissions that are incorporated in publications that I co-wrote. The writers of this work, including me, have made our contributions clear here. I certify that all citations to other people's work in this thesis have received the proper acknowledgment. A portion of this work was included in the 1980 study *Dimensions of National Culture* by Geert Hofstede.

## AI Acknowledgment

### **Use of AI:**

I accept my use of Quillbot (<https://quillbot.com/>) to proofread chapter 2 and chapter 3 of my thesis. This action was completed in 15.12.2024.

The prompts used included: Proofread, paraphrase and correct grammar for the text below.

## Copyright Page

I confirm that I retain the intellectual property and copyright of the thesis submitted. I also allow Unicaf University in Zambia to produce and disseminate the contributions of the thesis in all media forms known or to come as per the Creative Commons BY Licence (CC BY).



## Dedication

I devote my research to my family. I will always be grateful to my brother and sister, Tinashe and Zvikomborero for their words of support and persistence, which have left a lasting impression on me. In addition, I devote this dissertation to my mother, Stella who has helped and encouraged me the entire way. I dedicate this work to my father, Dr. Evaristo Marowa, my best friend since the day I came into this world.

## Acknowledgments

I would like to thank all those who aided in any way with the effort described in this thesis. I would first like to thank my academic advisor, Dr. Mary Mutete Mwanzia, for accepting to be my supervisor. My time in graduate school was satisfying because of her intellectual independence, demanding standards for everything I did, and challenging me with new ideas. I also want to thank Dr. Philip Effiom Ephraim for his guidance on the first chapter. I will always be grateful to Sam Chakaipa for his many hours of proof reading and for helping me advance my technological skills. I would also want to thank the members of UREC for their interest in my work.

## Table of Contents

|                                                                   |       |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------|-------|
| Approval of the Thesis.....                                       | ii    |
| Abstract .....                                                    | ii    |
| Declaration.....                                                  | v     |
| AI Acknowledgment.....                                            | vi    |
| Copyright Page.....                                               | vii   |
| Dedication .....                                                  | viii  |
| Acknowledgments.....                                              | ix    |
| List of Abbreviations .....                                       | xvi   |
| List of Tables .....                                              | xvii  |
| List of Figures .....                                             | xviii |
| CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION .....                                     | 1     |
| 1.1 Introduction.....                                             | 1     |
| 1.2 Statement of the Problem.....                                 | 7     |
| 1.3 Purpose of the Study, Research Aims and Objectives.....       | 8     |
| 1.4 Scope of the Study and Country Justification.....             | 9     |
| 1.5 Nature and Significance of the Study .....                    | 10    |
| 1.5 Research objectives.....                                      | 17    |
| 1.6 Research questions.....                                       | 17    |
| 1.7 Research Hypotheses .....                                     | 18    |
| CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW .....                                | 19    |
| 2.1 Introduction.....                                             | 19    |
| 2.2 Leadership in earlier times.....                              | 25    |
| 2.2.1 Sun- Tzu’s leadership: The Art of War.....                  | 25    |
| 2.2.1.1 How the Marine Corps adopted the Art of War tactics ..... | 26    |
| 2.2.1.2 Summary of the Marine Corp’s five strategy tactics .....  | 35    |

|                                                                                                   |     |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| 2.2.1.3 Sun Tzu's interpretation of leadership .....                                              | 35  |
| 2.2.2 Plato's four virtues .....                                                                  | 38  |
| 2.2.2.1 Motivation for carrying out Plato's virtues.....                                          | 40  |
| 2.2.2.2 The agreement of virtues .....                                                            | 42  |
| 2.2.3 Leadership according to Aristotle's (384 BCE–322 BCE).....                                  | 43  |
| 2.3 Introduction of modern leadership.....                                                        | 60  |
| 2.3.1 Leadership in modern times.....                                                             | 61  |
| 2.3.2 Leadership theories and their effect on employee performance .....                          | 62  |
| 2.4 Organisational culture and its effects on employee performance.....                           | 67  |
| 2.5 Groupthink symptoms in an organisation .....                                                  | 71  |
| 2.6 Cultural differences and their effects on employee performance .....                          | 74  |
| 2.7 Previous research on the association of organisational culture and employee performance ..... | 77  |
| 2.8 The Denison (1984) model of organisational culture .....                                      | 80  |
| 2.8.1 Critical Examination of the Denison (1984) Model .....                                      | 83  |
| 2.8.2 Leadership communication styles on the performance of employees .....                       | 86  |
| 2.8.3 Transmission model .....                                                                    | 91  |
| 2.8.4 Relational model .....                                                                      | 93  |
| 2.8.5 Distortion/ manipulation model .....                                                        | 95  |
| 2.9 The influence of Western culture on Africa .....                                              | 97  |
| 2.10 Problems and prospects of the Western culture influence in Africa.....                       | 99  |
| 2.10.1 Deviation from traditional politics.....                                                   | 99  |
| 2.10.2 The challenge of worship.....                                                              | 101 |
| 2.10.3 Communication barrier .....                                                                | 102 |
| 2.10.4 High rate of divorce .....                                                                 | 104 |

|                                                                                                                   |     |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| 2.10.5 The education and technology challenges .....                                                              | 105 |
| 2.11 Influence of cross-cultural leadership on organisational culture: qualitative research in South Africa ..... | 105 |
| 2.12 Summary of the findings according to the cultural dimensions .....                                           | 109 |
| 2.13 Databases and Search Engines.....                                                                            | 116 |
| 2.14 Theoretical Framework.....                                                                                   | 117 |
| 2.15 Organisational communication .....                                                                           | 124 |
| 2.15.1 Types of communication styles for leaders and their impact on employee performance .....                   | 128 |
| 2.15.2 Past research on communication leadership style and employee performance .....                             | 131 |
| 2.15.3 Cross-cultural communication in organisations.....                                                         | 133 |
| 2.15.4 Cross-cultural communication theories .....                                                                | 134 |
| 2.15.5 Leadership in the past and in today's world .....                                                          | 139 |
| 2.15.6 The evolution of women leadership.....                                                                     | 141 |
| 2.15.7 Differences in Western and Eastern culture.....                                                            | 143 |
| 2.15.8 The acceptance and underrepresentation of women leadership.....                                            | 148 |
| 2.15.9 Differences of male and female leadership style .....                                                      | 149 |
| CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODS .....                                                                                 | 158 |
| 3.1 Introduction.....                                                                                             | 158 |
| 3.2 Research Approach and Design .....                                                                            | 160 |
| 3.2.1 Quantitative method.....                                                                                    | 160 |
| 3.2.2 Qualitative method.....                                                                                     | 164 |
| 3.2.3 Mixed method .....                                                                                          | 165 |
| 3.2.4 Research design .....                                                                                       | 166 |
| 3.3 Population and Sample of the Research Study .....                                                             | 168 |

|                                                                             |     |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| 3.3.1 Sampling Technique: Stratified Random Sampling .....                  | 168 |
| 3.3.2 Probability sampling .....                                            | 172 |
| 3.3.3 Data saturation .....                                                 | 174 |
| 3.3.4 Sample Size.....                                                      | 174 |
| 3.3.5 Rationale for Sample Composition and Representativeness .....         | 176 |
| 3.4 Materials/ Instrumentation of Research Tools.....                       | 177 |
| 3.5 Reliability and validity.....                                           | 178 |
| 3.5.1 Reliability and validity of the online questionnaire.....             | 178 |
| 3.5.2 Reliability and validity of the Skype interviews.....                 | 180 |
| 3.5.3 Questionnaire .....                                                   | 183 |
| 3.6 Operational Definition of Variables.....                                | 186 |
| 3.6.1 Variable 1 – Dependent variable – employee performance.....           | 186 |
| 3.6.2 Variable 2 – Independent variable – leader communication styles ..... | 187 |
| 3.5.3 Variable 3 – Moderating variable – Women leaders experience.....      | 188 |
| 3.7 Procedures and Research ethics .....                                    | 189 |
| 3.7.1 Research procedures .....                                             | 189 |
| 6.7.2 Ethical Assurances .....                                              | 191 |
| 3.8 Data Collection and Analysis.....                                       | 194 |
| i. Quantitative Data Collection and Analysis.....                           | 194 |
| ii. Qualitative Data Collection.....                                        | 195 |
| iii. Qualitative data analysis approach and statistical test .....          | 196 |
| b. Summary .....                                                            | 197 |
| CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS .....                                                   | 199 |
| 4.1 Trustworthiness of data.....                                            | 199 |
| 4.2 Quantitative Results from Questionnaires .....                          | 203 |

|                                                                                                                             |     |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| 4.3 Demographic characteristics of respondents .....                                                                        | 204 |
| 4.4 Results of the Reliability Test.....                                                                                    | 208 |
| 4.5 Regression Model 1 .....                                                                                                | 212 |
| 4.6 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA).....                                                                                       | 213 |
| 4.7 Regression model 2.....                                                                                                 | 220 |
| 4.8 ANOVA Test of results .....                                                                                             | 222 |
| 4.9 Coefficient analysis of Results.....                                                                                    | 224 |
| 4.10 Testing Hypotheses 3 and 4 .....                                                                                       | 226 |
| 4.11 Quantitative discussion of results .....                                                                               | 227 |
| 4.12 Qualitative findings.....                                                                                              | 228 |
| 4.13 Testing Hypothesis 1.....                                                                                              | 230 |
| 4.14 Testing Hypothesis 2.....                                                                                              | 232 |
| 4.15 Participatory communication style .....                                                                                | 234 |
| 4.16 Autocratic communication style .....                                                                                   | 236 |
| 4.17 Tactics used to improve employee performance from subordinates .....                                                   | 237 |
| 4.18 Whether women leaders tactics adapt to the culture of an employee or do you implore a<br>one size fits all tactic..... | 242 |
| 4.19 Evaluation of findings.....                                                                                            | 244 |
| 4.19.1 Demographics of respondents.....                                                                                     | 244 |
| 4.19.2 Hypothesis 1.....                                                                                                    | 245 |
| 4.19.3 Hypothesis 2.....                                                                                                    | 247 |
| 4.19.4 Hypothesis 3.....                                                                                                    | 250 |
| 4.19.5 Hypothesis 4.....                                                                                                    | 252 |
| 4.20 Overall Scholarly Contribution.....                                                                                    | 255 |
| 4.21 Summary .....                                                                                                          | 256 |

|                                                                                |     |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| CHAPTER 5: IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, FUTURE RESEARCH AND CONCLUSIONS..... | 262 |
| 5.1 Introduction.....                                                          | 262 |
| 5.2 Implications for practice .....                                            | 266 |
| 5.3 Recommendations for practice .....                                         | 275 |
| 5.4 Recommendations for future research .....                                  | 286 |
| 5.5 Conclusions.....                                                           | 295 |
| 5.5.1 Theoretical Contributions .....                                          | 305 |
| 5.5.2 Practical Implications.....                                              | 306 |
| References.....                                                                | 308 |
| APPENDICES .....                                                               | 354 |
| Appendix A: Consent form – Debriefing of Participants .....                    | 354 |
| Appendix B: Certificate of Consent.....                                        | 355 |
| Appendix C: Interview Guide .....                                              | 356 |
| Appendix D: Questionnaire .....                                                | 357 |
| Appendix E: Letter of Permission to Conduct Study (UK) .....                   | 362 |
| Appendix F: Letter of Permission to Conduct Study (SA).....                    | 363 |



### **List of Abbreviations**

|       |                                                    |
|-------|----------------------------------------------------|
| AC    | Authoritarian Communication.                       |
| ANOVA | Analysis of Variance                               |
| BIAC  | Botswana Institute of Administration and Commerce. |
| CIPD  | Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development   |
| EP    | Employee Performance.                              |
| EU    | European Union                                     |
| ILA   | International Leadership Association.              |
| UN    | United Nations                                     |
| UK    | United Kingdom                                     |
| SA    | South Africa                                       |
| SPSS  | Statistical Package for Social Sciences            |
| MCPD  | Marine Corps Doctrinal Publication.                |
| PC    | Participatory Communication.                       |
| PLA   | People's Liberation Army                           |
| ROE   | Return on Equity.                                  |
| ROI   | Return on Investment.                              |
| SHRM  | Society for Human Resource Management              |
| SLT   | Situational Leadership Theory                      |
| NIPA  | National Institute of Public Administration.       |
| ZIPA  | Zimbabwe Institute of Public Administration.       |
| MNCs  | Multinational Companies.                           |
| VSM   | Value Survey Model                                 |

## List of Tables

|                                                                                                                           |     |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| <b>Table 1</b> Demographic characteristics of respondents.....                                                            | 204 |
| <b>Table 2</b> Cronbach's Alpha Test .....                                                                                | 208 |
| <b>Table 3</b> Bivariate Correlation Analysis among Variables.....                                                        | 209 |
| <b>Table 4</b> Regression Analysis .....                                                                                  | 212 |
| <b>Table 5</b> ANOVA Analysis .....                                                                                       | 214 |
| <b>Table 6</b> Regression Analysis Authoritarian Communication Style (AC) and Participatory Communication Style (PC)..... | 215 |
| <b>Table 7</b> Results for the R Square Value .....                                                                       | 220 |
| <b>Table 8</b> Results of ANOVA Test .....                                                                                | 223 |
| <b>Table 9</b> Coefficient of Variables .....                                                                             | 224 |
| <b>Table 10</b> Hypothesis Testing.....                                                                                   | 226 |

## List of Figures

|                                                            |     |
|------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| <b>Figure 1</b> Nationality versus Age of Respondents..... | 207 |
|------------------------------------------------------------|-----|

## **CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 Introduction**

Effective communication was governed by the communication process (Burnett & Dollar, 1989). Through the communication process, the sender and the recipient have a joint meaning (Gibson & Hodgetts, 1990). The global business environment has seen a notable rise in women reaching management roles in multilateral organizations throughout the world (United Nations, 2021; World Bank, 2020). Within this global economy, good leadership is more and more associated with the ability to manage and communicate across cultures. Women leaders are often faced with negotiating the social intersection of gender expectations, cultural conventions, and leadership expectations that complicate their communication. Thus, their communication style deserves examination.

Fostering beneficial relationships amongst people is one way to recognize the value and importance of the communication process. Individuals perceive meanings and expand their understanding through this process. Communication entails the transmission of information from a source to a recipient. The audience must comprehend the message as intended for communication to be effective (Fashiku, 2017). According to Dawn and Tyler (2016), ineffective communication directs to discontent, whereas effective communication promotes motivation and supports a progressive work culture. Through interpersonal communication, people can enhance their lives and accomplish personal and professional objectives in both educational institutions and diverse work environments. Put differently, good communication is essential for people to engage in if they want to improve their professional chances and potential for better lives. In the lack of clear staff communication, last-minute changes come across as forced (Wieczorek & Manard, 2018). Because indirect communication can be read by others, in-person communication is more transparent and reduces miscommunication

(Llopis, 2012). Gaining the earned trust necessary for productive conversation requires clearness.

Not only can an effective team and a positive work environment enhance employee well-being, but they also promote patient safety and health. Effective communication practices are essential to creating a healthy workplace, a positive company climate, and trust. A collective labour agreement governs workplace meetings as venues for communication procedures. Open communication between leaders and workers is vital for development. Reflection is a necessary part of growth, and good communication can highlight areas where a teacher's practice is deviating from the intended path (Safir, 2017). Building these partnerships involves effective communication (Wieczorek & Manard, 2018). Good communication fosters work environments where employees can adjust to and welcome change. Fear of difficult conversations is reduced with increased proficiency in all areas of successful communication. Building solid associations amongst stakeholders requires trust. Transparency is intensified when intentions are clear, and active listening helps people process criticism and make growth-oriented adjustments. These fundamental qualities foster the solid stakeholder relationships required for useful schools that prioritize improvement. Maintaining connections will be made possible via communication while providing frank assessments, pushing co-workers, and interacting in difficult conversations, and creating partnerships with families.

On the other hand, not much is known about the structure of these gatherings and how they can improve communication. To better understand how meetings in a Swedish healthcare company are handled, Bergman, Dellve, and Skagert (2016) undertook a study. The understanding the benefits and challenges of effective communication is essential to the advancement and improvement of the discipline. It will take more time for managers to remedy unfavourable behaviour if they ignore their staff members' worry. Effective listening and communication are necessary when having tough talks and implementing changes that promote

school improvement. The purpose of the communication may become more complicated when a participant's ineptitude distorts the intended message (Bergman, Dellve & Skagert, 2016).

This study is specifically concerned with the leaders' communication style, which is the different types of observable behaviors a leader demonstrates when leading, inspiring, and relating to employees, which are typically characterized on a continuum from participative to authoritarian. Previous research has established a strong connection between communication style and various important organizational outcomes, most significantly employee performance, engagement, and job satisfaction (Eagly & Johnson 1990; Osama & Hamzah 2022), which is examined in this study.

The workplace sessions mostly covered functional ideas, with an emphasis on clinical procedures. All in all, the meetings were seen as a way for staff members to have a say in decisions and advancements at work, as well as a chance for top-down information sharing. The results implied that meetings at employment have a clear benefit on health. It became clear that workers value knowledge and the chance to weigh in on issues pertaining to workplace development. The results of the care given are likewise impacted by these factors (Bergman, Dellve, & Skagert, 2016).

Controlling, leading, organising and planning and controlling are the fundamental responsibilities that require effective communication from managers (Juneja, 2015). All living things on Earth have developed systems for exchanging feelings and ideas, but the capacity of humans to utilize words and languages to interact with one another distinguishes them from other animals (Pearson and Nelson, 2002; McLean, 2003; McLean, 2005).

The best working environments in organisations arise from executives and subordinates being conscious of one other's behaviour, yet there are possibly two conclusions from every contact. First, there are moments when the interaction makes you feel satisfied. Second, there

are times when interactions leave one feeling frustrated. This is because of incompetence and insensitivity, which stem from poor organizational communication (Barnlund, 2008).

Organizational communication is the exchange of communications between linked parties in a particular setting with the aim of achieving common objectives. Messages are communicated through written, face-to-face, and mediated channels, and their delivery depends on the context and culture (Jouany & Martic, 2020). A few decades starting years ago, organizational communication discipline has attracted a lot of attention and developed in depth and scope (Robbins & Judge, 2007). Organizational communication techniques and methods are crucial in giving subordinates guidance, support, and information (Karitawangi & Dahehasari, 2020).

Workers made the conscious decision to carry out tasks in line with the goals and roles of the company or as directed by supervisors they could clearly identify with Bass, (1985). A crucial better performance will be accomplished, therefore, when there is an acceptable degree of expectancy-fit and when managers and staff have equitable and fair social discussions (Wang, Shieh & Tang, 2010). Effective communication raises job satisfaction, which raises productivity (Holtzhausen, 2002). Leadership is a functional aspect of every workplace, where it is essential for individuals to be aware of their own communication method declared by Rogers (2012). When it comes to an organization's success and performance, a leader's communication style plays a significant role (Radu & Ramona, 2014).

The Hofstede Cultural Factors Theory, developed by Geert Hofstede in 1980, provides a framework for understanding cross-national cultural variations and their implications for business settings. The power distance index, collectivism vs. individuality, uncertainty avoidance index, femininity vs. masculinity, short-term vs. long-term orientation, and restraint vs. indulgence are the six factors that Hofstede defined that determine culture (Hofstede, 2011: Beugelsdijk and Welzel, 2018).

Antiquated edifying models, like the one developed by Geert Hofstede in 1980, are inapplicable to everyday communication situations and do not provide insight into cross-cultural relationships (Franklin, 2007). Nonetheless, business executives could find the Hofstede model useful since it offers a foundational comprehension. An executive can use the model to assess the strategy, choices, and actions that need to be made for that setting (Eringa, Caudron, Rieck, Xie & Gerhardt, 2015). One of the most difficult concepts to classify since it is an active notion that changes with time and that cannot be fixed is simply culture (Sen, 2008). Recently, social scientists have characterized culture more conversationally, focusing on common connotations, relations and communication forms (Aritz and Walker, 2009; Gandolfi, 2012).

According to Franklin (2007), a new paradigm that adequately reflects the dynamic and fluid nature of cultural contacts is necessary since Geert Hofstede's cultural dimensions, which were created in the 1980s, are insufficient to explain the complexity of intercultural relationships in modern society. In their exploration of the intercultural competence content domain, Bird et al. (2010) argues for a more all-inclusive and nuanced thoughtful of culture and intercultural competence, pointing out the shortcomings of Hofstede's cultural dimensions in describing the complexity of intercultural encounters. Hofstede's model is criticised by the dynamic duo of Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (2012) for taking a static and reductionist approach, and they suggest a dynamic model that considers several cultural characteristics and their interactions. In his discussion of Hofstede's model's shortcomings, Thomas (2007) highlights the need to go beyond generalizations about national cultures and instead concentrate on the situational and individual elements that affect behaviour and communication in cross-cultural contexts. All of this research points to the necessity of a more thorough and sophisticated method of comprehending cross-cultural interactions than what Hofstede's cultural dimensions can offer.



Gandolfi (2012) defines cultural awareness as the capacity of communicators to intentionally integrate new information from their own acquired knowledge while viewing events from the perspective of others to thrive in a cross-edifying environment. Chen (2015) support this and he and Maina (2021) who claims that cultural consciousness is a perceptual characteristic of edifying competency that illustrates and puts into practice the mental change that happens as one learns more about one's own values as well as the values of others (Chen, 2015; Maina, 2021).

Cultural competence is the capacity to deal with various norms, comprehend differing communication expectations, and interact to varied degrees with stakeholder groups (Johansson & Stohl, 2012). Empathy, meta-communication abilities, behavioural adaptability, and a non-judgmental mind-set are a few traits of cultural competency (Feinauer & Haoward, 2014). Being culturally competent is a crucial quality for a leader to have. Extreme self-awareness was necessary for the leaders in order for them to be able to work in cross-cultural settings and to be conscious of others' identities. Because coaching facilitates cross-cultural work environments, it is necessary for cultural competency (Tanneau & Mc Loughlin, 2021).

Nevertheless, the relationship itself is not universal and is importantly filtered through cultural contexts. Although communication is well-researched, most studies have focused on Western contexts and have also separated gender and culture as independent variables. Thus, a clear gap exists; there is little cross-cultural comparative research that examines how women leaders enact and how employees receive women leaders' communication styles in different cultural contexts, and how it influences employee performance. This research initiates a comparative study of women in leadership roles in both the United Kingdom and South Africa, in order to address this gap. Both of these countries differ in the paradigms of culture, namely Western and African culture, each having a unique historical past, social norms, and gender-based implicit expectations of leadership. (Hofstede, 2011) Subsequently, the intention of this

research is to understand the ways in which the cultural contexts adopted inform the communication styles adopted by women leaders and in turn, how it impacts employee performance.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

According to empirical evidence, women occupy only 32% of senior leadership positions globally (McKinsey & Company, 2023), and the World Economic Forum (2023) predicts it will take 169 years to close the economic gender gap if the current rate continues. This underrepresentation is especially pronounced of a cross-cultural context, where the unique barriers to women leaders are often poorly understood. According to Stobierski (2019), cross-cultural communication includes the ways in which people from different cultural backgrounds adjust to improve their interactions. Research on organisational communication theories across cultures is lacking despite its importance, especially when it comes to women's leadership. It is well known that communication lies at the core of leadership effectiveness. According to research conducted by Gartner (2022), workers who feel heard and understood are 4.6 times more likely to feel empowered to do their best work. Moreover, research has reliably demonstrated that effective communication in leaders' leads to 25% higher team productivity and a 30% reduction in employee turnover (Towers Watson, 2020). Most of this research has been done in homogenous or Western contexts, failing to consider the complex relationship of gender and culture.

There is still a lack of knowledge about how women executives in South Africa and the United Kingdom negotiate cultural differences inside their companies, despite research comparing Eastern and Western cultures (Warkentin et al., 2017; Stone, 2019). According to the United Nations (2021), women from a variety of backgrounds are becoming more prevalent in senior organisational positions, emphasising their networking and teamwork initiatives to

improve communication. This emphasises the need to investigate how female leaders' cross-cultural communication affects employee performance.

There is a notable difference between African and Western social norms. African cultures usually place more value on collectivism, indirect communication, and communal ties than do Western cultures, which tend to emphasise individualism, direct communication, and assertiveness. These variations may affect the efficacy of communication and leadership philosophies. The precise relationships between female CEOs and their teams in these cultural contexts are still not well understood, despite the fact that TIME Magazine has acknowledged the growing prominence of women leaders (Ventureburn, 2012).

The significance of class, race, and gender in women's communication has long been acknowledged by feminist researchers (Houston, 1992; Henley & Kramarae, 1991). Comprehensive research is necessary to better understand how women leaders communicate across cultural boundaries, especially in different circumstances (Uchida, 1997). Eagly and Carli (2007) assert that women executives' distinct viewpoints and communication philosophies can have a favourable impact on organisational results and decision-making procedures.

Therefore, this thesis sought to close the current gap by examining the influence of cross-cultural communication between female leaders in South Africa and the UK, with a particular emphasis on how these communication styles impact organisational success, particularly employee performance.

### **1.3 Purpose of the Study, Research Aims and Objectives**

This study was necessary to gain a better understanding of how workers' and employees' performance is influenced by their communication styles. Studies to compare workers under female leaders from various cultural backgrounds-such as West and African values were

investigated. Given that achieving gender equality still is a challenge (United Nations, 2021), it was of importance to recognise the growing domination of leaders who are women from diverse cultural upbringings in contemporary moments and the influence that their organisational communication has on the performance of their employees (United Nations, 2021). For this study, a mixed (quantitative and qualitative) research approach was employed. Skype interviews and an online questionnaire served as the study's primary data collection methods.

#### **1.4 Scope of the Study and Country Justification**

This research is limited to studying the influence of leadership communication styles on employee performance in a specific cross-cultural context. Geographically, the research was conducted in multinational and multicultural organizations located in the United Kingdom and the Republic of South Africa. Conceptually, this thesis was concerned with two primary leadership communication styles, participatory and authoritarian, as seen by employees and reported by leaders (e.g. employee performance). The rationale for investigating the UK and South Africa as comparable contexts is strategic and predicated on their representation of very different cultural, historical, and economic contexts, with the assumption that these differences in context, may influence leadership norms. Specific to Hofstede's cultural dimension's perspectives, the UK and South Africa represent an intriguing contrast. The UK is a typical example of Western, individualistic, and low power distance culture, where egalitarian communication patterns and individual proactivity are given greater relative importance. South Africa, on the other hand, is arguably a more collectivist, South African moderate power distance culture that has been influenced by African communal sociocultural values (Ubuntu) and its history that continues to shape expectations for leadership messages and authority (Hofstede Insights, 2023). This difference provides an important laboratory to assess the same

leadership styles across different cultural contexts. Since the UK has a history as a colonial power and South Africa's contemporary orientation has been influenced by an extensive historical colonialism and apartheid in its recent past, this represents an important lens to explore how historical power relations shaped or continue to shape leadership in the present. Both locations are also significant economic powers in their respective regions of Europe and sub-Saharan Africa, respectively, providing important context for multinational corporations operating in both regions.

### **1.5 Nature and Significance of the Study**

When a hypothesis is proven to be valid, careful consideration of the variables enables the use of larger sample sizes and yields specific results using quantitative approaches (Miller, Smith & Pugatch, 2020). Relationships and medians can also be found using these techniques (Blaxter, Hughs, and Tight, 2010; Bhandari, 2020). Miller et al. (2020) highlight the components of quantitative approaches, such as the examination of variables, the use of large sample sizes, and the development of particular conclusions when hypotheses are validated.

Quantitative techniques have many advantages and some disadvantages. Above all, participants in this study never got worried about answering questions because the exact source of their responses won't be revealed, giving them peace of mind (Layne, 2021). Second, the validity of the data was true regardless of how long the tests are run on the same individual or sample, contrary to popular notion that a quantitative approach is misleading (Blaxter et al., 2010; Savela, 2018; Layne, 2021). Miller (2019). Thirdly, the study's findings can be statistically generalized to the entire population as bias is eliminated from the data and information is collected at random (Gaille, 2018). A minor disadvantage of this could be the possibility that certain demographics would remain unrandomised, leading to inaccurate results when the study is conducted on the entire population (Ochieng, 2009; Gaille, 2018; Regoli,

2019). The cleaning of quantitative research was a quick procedure and was managed in a fraction of the time matched to other research methods however (Wyse, 2011; Rahman, 2017).

The quantitative research design of this study was predicated on the modification of the variables related to communication style and culture in relation to the employee performance variable, with conclusions drawn about the relationship between the variables. It is simple to change the other variables when one is under control, even though it has been contested that a series of procedures must be carried out first in order to test a hypothesis (Chegg, 2021). (Bevans, 2019). According to Wharrad and Silcocks (2009), Miller (2015), and Gaille (2017), the concurrent mixed research design is a valuable system, but in order for it to be useful, it needs to be rigorously regulated because internal or external factors could affect the final results.

The researcher also used control over internal or external factors, such as the temperature of the room where the questionnaire is performed or the time of day the respondents complete it, because this study allowed respondents to complete it virtually from any location of their choosing. To identify the likely participants, a search was conducted for organizations in South Africa and the UK that have a varied population of backgrounds. Although sample bias is a potential disadvantage, random sampling was used in this study because more representative samples enable results to be more widely applied to the target population. (2019, Enago Academy; McLeod, 2019).

Stratified sampling was the kind of random sampling used in this study. Random sampling is an essential method for achieving representativeness in quantitative research designs, as noted by Creswell (2014), Bryman and Bell (2019), and Neuman (2014). According to these authors, random sampling ensures that each individual has an equal probability of

being included in the sample, which enhances the chances that every member of the population will be included. In contrast to simple random sample and systemic random sampling, the population must meet certain criteria in order to be representative of standardised employees working in multicultural and national organizations and being led by women in South Africa and the UK. To ensure that each respondent was assigned to a subsection, stratified sampling is used (Murphy, 2021).

This study involved one hundred South African workers who report to female leaders in the workplace and one hundred British workers who work under female leaders. The fact that the number was the same for both countries supported the view that more attention should be paid to the study's overall flaws even while sampling error can be quantified by increasing sample size (Pathak, Meinhold and Fisher, 1980; Agresti, 1990; Vogt, 2005; Dudovskiy, 2018).

Two analyses were used of the study's findings. First, in the beginning of the study, and second, at a later point in the investigation. This is to guarantee the reliability of the results. Increasing the interval between tests and retests allows for real changes in survey responses, if any. This was noted by Morrison (2019). Results were moderately analysed using SPSS/STRATA's Compare Means techniques to evaluate differences (and/or similarities) between South Africa and the UK results.

Many scholarly studies have examined how men and women differ in the ways they communicate and use leadership styles to influence strategy (Eagly, Makhijani and Klonsky, 1992; Eddleston, Veiga and Powell, 2006; Merchant, 2012). In scholarly studies of psychological gender differences, men use language to accomplish concrete goals and demonstrate their power, while women utilise communication skills to build relationships and form connections. Mason (1994), Wood (1996), and Leaper (1991).

The metaphor of the “glass ceiling,” which describes the disparities that exist between men and women in the workplace, elevates the attention of males in academic studies. There comes a time when a barrier prevents women in leadership roles from moving up the managerial hierarchy (Baxter and Wright, 2000; Cook and Glass, 2011).

The meta-analysis of gender and leadership style by Eagly and Johnson (1990) offers insightful information about the distinctions in leadership behaviours between men and women. Through a comprehensive analysis of numerous studies, the researchers discovered that women typically embrace a more democratic and participatory leadership style, which is defined by encouraging teamwork and incorporating people in decision-making procedures. Conversely, men were more likely to demonstrate an autonomous and directive leadership style, which entails setting clear expectations for subordinates and making decisions on their own. These results clarify the gendered patterns of leadership behaviour and aid in our comprehension of the subtle differences between the approaches taken by men and women in taking on leadership responsibilities and relating to their followers.

Powell and Butterfield (2015) investigated the prevalent beliefs about men and women in managing positions and their leadership styles in their study on gender and managerial stereotypes. According to the research findings, women were often classified as having maternal and community traits, which emphasized their capacity to build relationships and establish peaceful work settings. Men, on the other hand, were more frequently linked to directive and argentic qualities, emphasizing their task-oriented leadership style and assertiveness. These results show how gender preconceptions still exist in managerial settings and offer insightful information about how society views and anticipates gender disparities in leadership.



The role congruity theory, proposed by Eagly and Karau (2002), provides an explanation for the bias that is frequently directed towards female leaders. This hypothesis states that because of the discrepancy between traditional gender roles and the expectations attached to leadership positions, people have a tendency to have biased attitudes against female leaders. According to the hypothesis, prejudices against female leaders are a result of societal conventions and preconceptions that link women to roles that are communal and nurturing rather than aggressive and dominant. The role congruity hypothesis highlights the difficulties faced by women in leadership roles and offers a framework for comprehending the underlying biases connected to gender that affect how people view female leaders.

This is consistent with Rudman and Glick's (2001) study delved into the concept of backlash directed towards women who exhibit agentic or assertive behaviours, which are traditionally associated with masculinity. Their research revealed that women who displayed such traits in leadership roles often faced social penalties and experienced backlash. This backlash can manifest in various forms, including negative evaluations, social isolation, and even the denial of career advancement opportunities. The study sheds light on the challenges women experiences when deviating from societal gender norms in leadership positions. It highlights the existence of gender-related biases and expectations that can hinder the acceptance and recognition of women who exhibit assertiveness and agency in their leadership styles. Breaking the “glass ceiling” that affects women in situations where globalization is changing gender norms and standards by supporting women's financial empowerment. This is mostly because to the increased intensity of information access from the Internet and television, which allows nations all over the world to learn about social standards in other regions and perhaps promote democratic views (World Bank, 2011).

In their article, Grown and Valodia (2010) explored the potential of women's economic empowerment as a strategy for global growth, with a specific focus on the role of globalization. They argue that globalization can open up new markets, employment opportunities, and resources for women, enabling them to achieve greater economic independence and empowerment. The authors highlight the positive effects of women's economic empowerment on various aspects of development, including poverty reduction, productivity, and overall economic growth. They contend that when women are economically empowered, they can contribute to more inclusive and sustainable development, benefiting both individuals and societies at large. Grown and Valodia (2010) analysis underscores the importance of harnessing the opportunities provided by globalization to advance women's economic enablement as a key driver of global growth.

Buvinic, et al., (2013) delve into the macroeconomic gains that can be obtained through gender equity. Their article explores the positive impacts of women's economic empowerment, facilitated by globalization, on various aspects of the economy. The authors argue that when women are empowered to participate fully in the workforce, it leads to increased productivity, higher incomes, and reduced poverty rates. They emphasize that policies promoting gender equity can generate substantial economic benefits at both the national and global levels. By recognizing the potential of women as economic agents and removing barriers that hinder their participation, societies can tap into a valuable resource and unlock economic growth. Buvinic, et al., (2013) study underscores the significance of gender equity as a stimulus for achieving sustainable and inclusive economic advancement in the context of globalization.

In a recent study, Elson and Pearson (2019) examined the complex relationship between globalization and gender equality. They acknowledge that while globalization has the potential to create new opportunities for women's economic empowerment, it can also exacerbate gender

inequalities and reinforce existing gender hierarchies. The authors emphasize the importance of implementing policy interventions to ensure that the benefits of globalization are equitably distributed and contribute to gender equality. They argue that without deliberate efforts to address the gendered impacts of globalization, there is a risk that women may be left behind or face increased vulnerabilities in the global economy. Elson and Pearson's (2019) analysis highlight the need for proactive measures to lessen the negative penalties of globalization and to promote inclusive and gender-responsive policies that advance gender equality in the context of globalization.

The study aimed to document the studious variation of a dearth of research on the communication styles used by female leaders in West and Africa, particularly in South Africa and the United Kingdom. The majority of research on communication styles currently available tends to imply assessments of various nations and cultures (Neuling, 1999; Flanagan, 2020; Point Park University, 2021). Nevertheless, this study contributes to our understanding of leadership and communication styles by raising awareness of the interactions between the personalities of women leaders who represent two distinct cultural backgrounds.

Women are hailed to be leaders and have a website called Women Leaders Unites Kingdom where their visualisation is to produce gender equality in every area of life by championing fairness for women in civil, political, economic, social and cultural arenas in the United Kingdom. South Africa is also similar where they have their website called Women's Voice and Leadership SA where their concept is to support women's progress and to empower women.

The study's conclusions support the organizational strategies of multicultural and multinational corporations in areas like fostering a company culture, developing domestic market knowledge, increasing local control, sharing knowledge, and developing a pipeline of

female leaders for management positions (Linton, 2017). One of the most important strategies that is pertinent to this study is the dissemination of company culture to employees because of the multicultural stakeholders and how their understanding of cultural differences as well as similarities safeguards employees' performance as well as customers a steady norm of services in all export territories and effective cross-cultural communication (Linton, 2017: The Choice Team, 2020).

### **1.5 Research objectives**

The following are the research objectives:

- (i) To identify the communication styles employed by female leaders and to determine the cultural distinctions in these styles between South Africa and the United Kingdom.
- (ii) To analyse the impact of the identified communication styles, within their respective cultural contexts on employee performance.
- (iii) To compare the leadership philosophies in the UK and South Africa and to understand their relationship with prevailing communication styles.
- (iv) To explore the relationship between employee performance and the cultural influences present in the Western (UK) and African (South African) contexts.
- (v) To assess the representation of women in leadership roles in contemporary society and its connection to the perception of leadership communication styles.

### **1.6 Research questions**

The following were research questions of the thesis;

- (i) What are the predominant communication styles employed by female leaders, and what cultural distinctions in these styles exist between South Africa and the United Kingdom?
- (ii) What is the impact of the identified communication styles on employee performance within their respective cultural contexts in the UK and South Africa?

- (iii) How do leadership philosophies in the UK and South Africa compare, and what is their relationship with the prevailing communication styles used by women leaders?
- (iv) What is the relationship between employee performance and the cultural influences present in the Western (UK) and African (South African) contexts?
- (v) What is the current state of women's representation in leadership roles, and how is this connected to the perception of leadership communication styles?

### 1.7 Research Hypotheses

A growth significance to identify cross cultural communication among women organisational leaders in Western and African cultures and how this affects employee performance has been inspired by globalisation. This is specifically key in the instance of South Africa and the United Kingdom which are the two leading countries in Africa and Europe respectively. There is hardly any research evaluating how women leaders in these countries connect with personnel (Uchida, 1997).

The comparing of the effect of culture and communication style on employee performance was the main aim of this study. The subsequent hypothesis directed the study in order to attain these objectives:

**H1:** *There is a statistically significant relationship between the national culture (South Africa vs. United Kingdom) of women leaders and their predominant communication styles.*

**H2:** *Women leaders in South Africa demonstrate a statistically significant higher use of an authoritarian communication style, while women leaders in the United Kingdom demonstrate a statistically significant higher use of a participatory communication style.*

**H3:** *There is a statistically significant positive relationship between an authoritarian communication style and employee performance (Turton, 2015).*

**H4:** *There is a statistically significant positive relationship between a participatory communication style and employee performance (Sagie, 2009; Turton, 2015).*

## **CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1 Introduction**

An analysis on leadership in past times commencing with the work of Sun -Tzu who authored the tactics book of leadership called *The Art of War* is the premise of Chapter 2 of this study. The research links on how the Marine Corps has implemented *The Art of War* Tactics in their restraint. The illustration of the leadership theories of two Greek philosophers; Plato and Aristotle, and how their work has likenesses and contrasts with Sun Tzu's work as well as how all the tactics may be useful in modern society are highlighted.

We talk about the two styles of modern leadership-transformational and situational-and how they impact worker performance. Definitions of groupthink, methods, and techniques to combat the idea are presented, along with a thorough discussion of earlier studies on the subject. In order to support the organizational theory, cultural differences and organizational culture are examined, and the Denison (1984) model is examined and evaluated. Three models of leadership communication styles-transmission, relational, and manipulation—are given and debated.

The five concepts of leadership communication that are essentially covered in this chapter are: organizational communication, women's leadership, leadership in the past and present, leadership in African and Western cultures, and cross-cultural communication. The field of organisational communication recognizes the ongoing evolution and changes in communication throughout time (Munoz, 2017; Rogers, 2012; Grimsley, 2021; Kendre, 2021). It also acknowledges that management's primary duties, which include organizing, leading, regulating, and planning, produce active communication. Furthermore, organisational theory supports the notion that communication can be informal or formal. The notion of cross-cultural communication acknowledges the importance of understanding the ways in which culture influences communication.

According to Tompkins and Cheney's (1985) organisational theory, verbal and physical interactions are used to control opposition and exert control over others. The third concept relates to leadership in the past and present, both of which hold that leadership evolves throughout time. The Great Man Theory (1979), put forth by Thomas Carlyle, lends credence to this theory. It holds that leaders are exceptional people who are destined to lead, and that organizations that adhere to antiquated leadership practices today cannot positively impact an organization's culture.

The fourth concept relates to employee performance and Western and African cultures. It highlights the key distinctions between African and Western cultures, demonstrating that while people in the east are more tactful and avoid using violence in public when confronted with challenging circumstances, people in the west are more liberal and allow for emotional expression and criticism. Any authoritarian leadership style used by African leaders is supported by a previous study conducted by Goren Hyden (1983) that examined the working lives of managers in the public and commercial sectors. The final topic is women's leadership in Western and African societies. Culture is a driving thrust at the back of the growth of women into senior management roles and female leadership as expected.

The idea is supported by empirical data, which designates this phenomenon as the outcome of contingency theory (Eagly & Karan, 2002). The idea that there are two systems of bias arising from the seeming discrepancy between male and female gender roles and leadership responsibilities is known as prejudice towards female leadership. The thesis delves deeper into these concepts in this chapter.

The following are the study's five objectives:

1. Determining the different communication modalities used by female leaders in South Africa and the UK; to record cultural distinctions between African and Western leadership

communication.

2. To investigate how employee performance is impacted by communication style and culture.

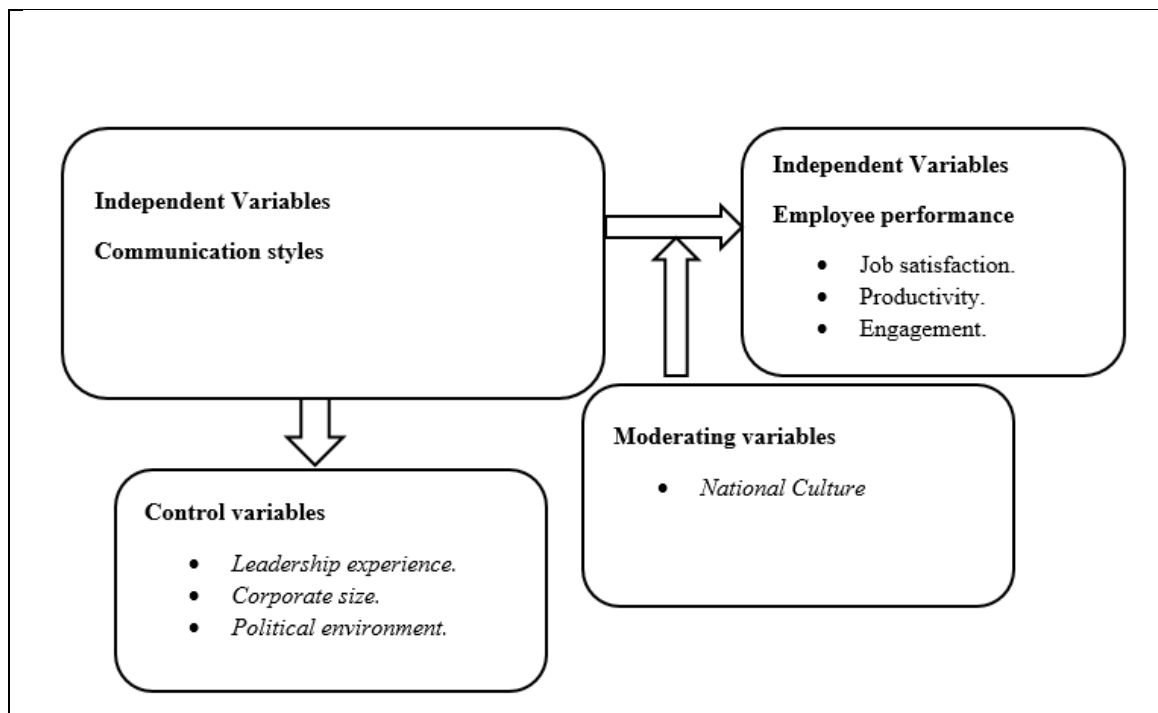
3. To compare information from the UK and South Africa in order to learn more about the differences between Western and African leadership philosophies.

4. To determine how employee performance relates to Western and African cultures.

5. To determine whether women are underrepresented in leadership roles in the modern society.

### Conceptual Framework

The diagram below illustrates the variables and how they affect employee performance:



Source: Author designed (2024)

In this study's conceptual framework, it is proposed that leadership communication style, which is characterized as either authoritative or participatory, directly affects employee performance, operationalized through job satisfaction, productivity and engagement defined as an attitudinal state toward their job. The focus of this study is to examine national culture as a moderating



variable which is posited that the strength, direction and type of relationship between leaders' communication style, and what would be expected to drive performance, will be different between participants in the UK and South Africa - the effect of culture is presumed to moderate the relationship due to the impact of cultural context. The model views culture not only as a cultural context within which communication would occur, but as an (active) variable in its own right, which influences interpretations of communication, and how it might perform. There will be adjusted control for potential other influences (other than national culture) on the relationships, including prior leadership experience, the size of the corporation, and political context, then provide the greatest level of scrutiny through focusing on the primary independent and dependent variables..

To further validate the conceptual framework and confirm the interplay between communication styles or culture and employee performance, the thesis referenced the work of Tang (2024) and Nadeem and Gasmi (2024) which have a published frameworks. Tang (2024) focused on comparative analysis of Chinese and Western leadership styles demonstrates how cultural influences affect decision-making and communication strategies, with Western leaders often favouring open dialogue and individual initiative. Similarly, another published framework by Nadeem and Gasmi (2024) emphasised the varying impacts of transformational and transactional leadership within individualistic and collectivistic cultures. Their findings reinforce the idea that communication styles must be adapted to cultural contexts to foster employee commitment and performance. This means that integrating these published perspectives, the conceptual framework not only aligns with established theories but also highlights the necessity for culturally sensitive communication, enhancing organisational effectiveness in a globalised environment. Therefore, the interplay between communication styles, cultural context, is pivotal for achieving employee performance. It underscores the need for culturally sensitive communication, which helps organisations enhance performance,

innovation, and competitiveness by aligning communication approaches with cultural expectations.

### **Implications of conceptual framework on hypotheses**

The implications of the conceptual framework on the hypotheses highlight the intricate relationship between cultural context, communication styles, and employee performance. Hypothesis *H1* asserts that the cultural context serves as a crucial independent variable influencing the communication styles employed by women leaders, thereby allowing for an in-depth exploration of how cultural differences shape leadership communication. This relationship is further examined in *H2*, which posits that the variations in communication styles—specifically authoritarian versus participatory—are moderated by cultural context, affecting their effectiveness in enhancing employee performance. Hypotheses *H3 and H4* build on this by suggesting that both authoritarian and participatory communication styles significantly impact employee performance. The thesis effectively tests the dynamic interactions between cultural influences, leadership communication, and employee outcomes.

Dasgupta, Suar, and Singh (2013) used the organization support theory and social exchange theory to investigate the impact of managers' communication styles on employee performance in support of the study's variables. A survey consisting of questionnaires was distributed to 400 workers from ten Indian manufacturing companies. Results indicated that supervisors with an assertive communication style provided their staff with the most support possible (Dasgupta, et al., 2013).

Ibad (2019) did a study to corroborate the factors in this study. The study looked at the relationship between faculty employee performance and leadership communication style in

university business schools in Karachi, as well as whether gender had an impact on job satisfaction. The analyses employed in this study were the Spector (1997) work satisfaction survey and the Bass and Avolio (1997) multifactor leadership questionnaire. Results indicated that there is no relationship between gender and job happiness, primarily because faculty members uphold organizational justice (Ibad, 2019). Rupp and Cropanzano (2002) investigate how social exchange interactions mediate the correlation involving workplace outcomes and organisational equality.

The authors stress how crucial it is for managers to communicate well in order to encourage fairness and support, which in turn builds healthy social exchange connections with staff members. They discover that the quality of social interactions between managers and employees is strengthened when managers communicate in a way that prioritizes support and fairness. Positive social exchange connections, which are defined by reciprocity, mutual respect, and trust, have a major effect on work-related outcomes, including employee performance. The research conducted by Rupp and Cropanzano (2002) highlights the critical role that managers' good communication plays in fostering healthy social exchange connections, which in turn improves employee performance and organizational outcomes (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002).

The national culture dimension categories proposed by Hofstede (1980) were used to operationalize the study's variables. The interview questions were based on Hofstede's (1980) four dimensions: power distance, masculinity/femininity, collectivism/individualism, and uncertainty avoidance. Every inquiry was connected to the employee performance dependent variable.

## **2.2 Leadership in earlier times**

### **2.2.1 Sun- Tzu's leadership: The Art of War**

Since the beginning of time, people have been debating leadership. For a considerable amount of time, starting in 400–320 BC under Sun Tzu's leadership, the advancement of leadership followed a military command as its axis (Erciyes, 2019). During the Eastern Zhou era of ancient China, Sun Tzu was a writer, military strategist, philosopher, and commander (Erciyes, 2019). But if Sun-Tzu ever existed at all, scholars have been attempting to figure out who he was for years. According to folklore, he led the Chinese armies in the spring and autumn. The commotion in China during this time was concealed by the desire of numerous kingdoms to have authority over the nation's uninhabited regions. Sawyer (2007).

Due to Sun Tzu's omission from the Zuo Zhan, a historical classic that listed the important personalities of the Spring and Autumn periods, Chinese historians began to question his existence (Gawlikowski & Loewe 1993). Sun-Tzu, the writer of The Art of War, was a real general who served his nation. While there are disagreements over the distinction between the large-scale battles and the refined tactics described in the book, Sawyer (2007) suggested that Sun Wu's teachings may have been passed down through his family or a small group of disciples. Certain facts in the original book may have been updated or expanded upon by these descendants or disciples (Sawyer, 2007).

The timeless wisdom found in Sun Tzu's classic "The Art of War" and its implications for leadership are explored in detail by Erciyes (2019). This research delves into Sun Tzu's ideas and tactics, analyzing their applicability in modern leadership situations. Erciyes (2019) emphasizes how Sun Tzu's lessons have endured and how they can be used outside of the battlefield to military and strategic leadership. The essay clarifies the strategic thinking, judgment, and flexibility needed by leaders in today's complex and dynamic contexts by examining Sun Tzu's teachings. Erciyes' study highlights how useful Sun Tzu's writings are as

a timeless source of leadership insight that still offers insightful viewpoints for contemporary leaders.

In the article by Tung and Verbeke (2010), the focus is on the Sun Tzu's application's strategies in the realm of Chinese business practices. Tung and Verbeke (2010) delve into how the principles of Sun Tzu's, originally meant for military strategy, can be adapted and applied to contemporary business leadership and strategy. This means that examining historical perspectives on the use of military tactics in business settings, the study sheds light on the significance of Sun Tzu's teachings in the context of Chinese business strategy. Tung and Verbeke (2010) highlight how concepts such as understanding the competitive landscape, strategic positioning, and effective decision-making can be informed by Sun Tzu's principles. The research underscores the enduring influence of Sun Tzu's strategic insights and their potential applicability in shaping effective business tactics in the Chinese context.

#### **2.2.1.1 How the Marine Corps adopted the Art of War tactics**

East Asian and Western military philosophy have been influenced by the concepts presented in Sun Tzu's *The Art of War* (Griffith, 1971; Cleary, 2000; Lord, 2000). Sun Tzu first heard of American military officials during America's Asian conflicts with Japan, Korea, and North Vietnam. All US Army units are required by the Department of the Army to maintain libraries at their headquarters so that soldiers can continue their education in the art of war at the Command and General Staff College. Staff duty officers are required to turn in brief assignments for peer presentations that utilize examples from *The Art of War* (Marine Corps Professional Reading Program, 2022). *The Art of War* is one of the books in the Marine Corps Professional Series.

Swanson (2004) examines the lasting influence of Sun Tzu's principles on modern warfare, including their impact on military organisations such as the Marine Corps. The author explores how Sun Tzu's concepts, such as deception, intelligence gathering, and flexible adaptation, have been incorporated into contemporary military strategies. Swanson (2004) highlights the enduring relevance of Sun Tzu's teachings, emphasizing their applicability in the face of evolving challenges and changing warfare dynamics. By adopting and adapting Sun Tzu's principles, military organisations like the Marine Corps have sought to enhance their strategic thinking, decision-making processes, and operational effectiveness. Swanson's research underscores the enduring value of Sun Tzu's wisdom in shaping modern military tactics and strategies, including those employed by the Marine Corps.

Perry (1993) delves into the application of Sun Tzu's principles in the realm of business. Although not specific to the Marine Corps, the book explores how military establishment strategies, inspired by Sun Tzu's "The Art of War," can be adapted and utilized in various organizational contexts. Perry emphasizes that the principles of Sun Tzu, such as strategic planning, competitive analysis, and decisive action, hold valuable lessons for business professionals. By drawing parallels between military and business strategies, Perry's (1993) work underscores the relevance of Sun Tzu's ancient wisdom in guiding modern executives in their decision-making, leadership, and competitive positioning within the business landscape. The book serves as a resource that showcases how Sun Tzu's teachings can be adapted and applied to enhance strategic thinking and organizational success in a business context.

Shulman (2005) takes a practical approach to applying Sun Tzu's principles in the pursuit of execution and achieving results. While primarily focused on business leadership, the book offers valuable insights into how Sun Tzu's strategies can be adapted and implemented in various organizational settings. Shulman (2005) emphasizes the importance of translating Sun Tzu's timeless wisdom into actionable steps that drive tangible outcomes. By exploring topics

such as strategic planning, teamwork, and overcoming obstacles, the book provides practical guidance on leveraging Sun Tzu's principles to enhance execution and accomplish goals. Shulman (2005) work serves as a guide for leaders looking to rein the intensity of "The Art of War" in a practical and results-oriented manner, offering valuable lessons on strategy implementation and organizational effectiveness.

"The First to Fight" has historically been used to describe the readiness of the Marine Corps. Because of their organization, training, and equipment for aggressive amphibious use, the Marines are a force that is always ready (Military Website, n.d.). The National Security Act, which was revised in 1952, establishes the Marine Corps' purpose. Its principal provisions are as follows:

1. *To conduct land operations that may be essential to the conduct of a naval war and to defend or seize advanced naval bases.*
2. *To provide task units and organizations for use on Navy armed vessels or to guard Navy property on naval bases and stations.*
3. *To collaborate with other armed forces to develop the tactics, gear, and methods used by landing forces during amphibious operations.*
4. *To prepare Marine units for airborne operations through training and equipment as needed.*
5. *To work with other armed forces to create doctrine, methods, and gear relevant to the Marine Corps for airborne operations not sponsored by the Army.*
6. *The capacity to grow from components of peacetime to fulfill the requirements of war in line with the mobilization tactics (Military Website, n.d.).*

During the Gulf War in the 1990s, Generals Norman Schwarzkopf Jr. and Colin Powell implemented Sun Tzu's theories on deception, targeting an enemy's weak points, and speed (McNeilly, 2001). It has been said, meanwhile, that The Art of War is not fully understood by

the United States and other Western countries, nor are they able to understand it from the standpoint of Chinese society as a whole (Hall, 2015).

The first update to the Marine Corps Doctrinal Publication MCPD1-0 on Marine Corps Operations was made available by the Marine Corps in July 2017. The tactical tasks of deceive, influence, corrupt, degrade, and deny were introduced after the revision. Given that *The Art of War* is a close approximation of the MCDP 1-0 disparities, Sun Tzu would have considered this alteration to be beneficial (Edubirdie, 2022).

### 1. Deception

According to Sun Tzu, deception is the art of trapping an adversary using deceit. The main objective of all the deceitful tactics described in Sun-Tzu's texts is to confuse the other person. With this tactic, the opponent sees your weaknesses as strengths and your strengths as weaknesses, while you see your deficiencies as strengths. The tactic is used to influence the enemy's choices (Edubirdie, 2022). Sawyer (2007) conducts a thorough analysis of several ancient Chinese military texts, including Sun Tzu's "The Art of War," in his book "The Seven Military Classics of Ancient China." In this in-depth study, Sawyer explores the concept of dishonesty as a crucial element of Sun Tzu's strategic framework.

He explores how the use of deceit is essential for spreading uncertainty and outwitting the opposition. According to Sawyer (2007), using deceitful strategies to mislead and control the opponent's view is crucial in order to achieve victory. Sawyer (2007) clarifies the function of deception, highlighting its significance in relation to Sun Tzu's general strategic ideas and highlighting its efficacy in attaining military triumph.



In his 1971 publication "Sun Tzu: The Art of War," Griffith provides a critical analysis and translation of the well-known book by Sun Tzu. Griffith explores the numerous effects of dishonesty as described by Sun Tzu in his study. He explores specific tactics advocated by Sun Tzu, such as feigning weakness, creating false appearances, and employing spies, all with the primary objective of inducing confusion and misleading the enemy. Griffith's commentary sheds light on how these deceptive strategies serve as potent tools for achieving military advantage and gaining the upper hand in warfare. According to Sawyer (2007) through an analysis of these particular strategies, Griffith offers readers a more profound comprehension of Sun Tzu's teachings regarding the function and implementation of deception, emphasizing its importance in attaining victory in combat. In his 2004 book "On Sun Tzu: The Art of War," Finkelstein provides readers with a thorough examination of Sun Tzu's enduring masterwork. Within the book, Finkelstein delves deeply into the idea of deception and its significance within Sun Tzu's teachings. He examines how deception serves as a powerful tool to manipulate the opponent's perception, create uncertainty, and ultimately secure a strategic advantage (Sawyer, 2007). Finkelstein emphasizes the enduring relevance of Sun Tzu's teachings on deception, highlighting their applicability in diverse contexts beyond warfare. This means that exploring the nuances of deception in 'The Art of War,' Finkelstein provides readers with a comprehensive understanding of its role in shaping successful strategies and achieving desired outcomes.

Mair (2007) cites Senior Colonel Ma Jun of the People's Liberation Army (PLA) as saying that "War is precisely war" and that the essence of combat is to fight to the death. According to the Senior Colonel, morality cannot be considered during a conflict; nonetheless, this strategy should only be applied against adversaries; friends and coworkers should not be the target of this technique (Mair, 2007; Tingguang & Weiguo, 2013). The PLA explains that as warfare is constantly changing, it is impossible to rely solely on preconceived notions.

According to Metcalf (2017), Sun Tzu's strategy of deception is a set of rules that can be arbitrarily used in various situations. It is important to keep in mind, then, that an average reader of Sun Tzu would not be able to detect dishonesty in his writings. Nonetheless, the Chinese military interprets the writings of Sun Tzu as essential to comprehending the reasoning behind their operations (Metcalf, 2017).

According to Giles (2013), one of the several episodes described in Sun Tzu's writings is the one in which Julius Caesar successfully employed the strategy to complete the crossing of the Allier River during Gaul's victory. Among other things, Julius Caesar advocated appearing powerful when one is weak and weak when one is strong. He also said that deceit is a necessary part of the military process and that all battle is based on deception (Giles 2013; Moon 2018).

## 2. Denial

The denial tactic hinders the opponent's ability to achieve a military goal. When an adversary denies any culpability, it might cause confusion whether or not they decide to go to war (before and after battle). Building a physical wall is one form of a denial approach, according to Edubirdie (2022). The obstruction does not alter the attack's feel; rather, it prevents the opposing player from striking. This indicates that the subject tries to keep the opponent from gaining strength by laying down their main resources.

Denial can also contribute to a state of confusion, both before and after a conflict. By denying any wrongdoing or responsibility, a party can sow doubt and uncertainty among its opponents and within the broader international community. This can make it challenging for

the opposing side to build a cohesive narrative, garner support, or effectively respond to the situation.

Within the broader context of international relations, the term "revisionist state" is drawn from the power transition theory. It lists states that want to change or abolish the existing system (Tenenbaum, 2012; Davidson, 2016). Denial is seen as an alluring defensive tactic when facing a revisionist power, particularly when the revisionist state consists of exposing an unanticipated assault on the pursuit of a *fait accompli* (Tenenbaum, 2012). If dissuasion fails, the best defense against attacks is the ability to protect allies, which is how quickly one may win a battle. Both punishment and reversal have drawbacks. Blockading or blasting an opponent is one way to punish them until the cost of their aggressiveness becomes unsustainable and they have no choice but to give up its missions (Edubie, 2022).

Regarding the protection of allies as a means to prevent attacks, it is a commonly recognized principle in military strategy. By establishing strong alliances and providing adequate support to partners, a nation can deter potential aggressors and enhance its collective defense capabilities. Rollback refers to gradually deploying forces and then stopping an opponent's advances. Despite giving up territory early on by delaying a direct response, World War II and the Desert Storm campaigns utilized the denial technique when handling international conflicts (Montgomery, 2020).

### 3. Corruption

Altering information from its original form in military strategies is described as the meaning of corruption. Numerous studies such as Treisman, (2000); Serra, (2006); Herzfeld

and Weiss, (2003) have identified political factors, a nation's legal structure, and its stability politically as crucial components of corruption; that is, economies with robust institutions and stable political environments are less likely to harbour corruption. Kieh and Agbese, (2004) states that worldwide corruption reports and case studies have demonstrated that government employees in the armed forces are equally corrupt as those in the civilian sector. Susan Rose-Ackerman and Palifka (2016) explored corruption in various sectors, including both the military and civilian government. This comprehensive analysis delves into the causes and consequences of corruption, shedding light on its impacts on societies and economies. The book examines corruption within military and government institutions, providing insight into the specific dynamics and challenges faced in each sector. It explores the underlying factors that contribute to corruption, such as weak governance structures, lack of transparency, and perverse incentives. Furthermore, the authors discuss the potential reform measures that can be implemented to combat corruption effectively. Therefore, delving into these topics, 'Corruption and Government' offers a nuanced understanding of corruption in military leadership and civilian government officials, providing a foundation for informed discussions and potential solutions to address this pervasive issue

Majeed and MacDonald (2010) piloted a study where they investigated other paths that may give a better understanding of the prevalence of corruption and the variations in it among countries, describe corruption. The goal of the study was to provide scientific and informational support to governments and international organizations in order to effectively eradicate the atmosphere of global corruption. The study found that the involvement of military elites in politics was the primary factor that encourages corruption. It was thought that Majeed & MacDonald's (2010) study was the first to draw attention to this crucial aspect of corruption. The study used a variety of econometric methodologies together with a cross-sectional and panel data collection that included numerous nations between 1984 and 2007 and had strong

empirical support. The study's conclusions demonstrated that the corruption index rises by 0.22-units for every standard deviation that the political military rises. Majeed and MacDonald (2010) reported that the analysis showed that the political system's ability to teach is as least as significant as the well accepted causes of corruption, such economic growth.

Sun Tzu has said that when people take advantage of power, there is not an issue in changing the rules. When someone in a position of authority misuses it, they may be rendered worthless for a while, but someone else may eventually assume the role even in the absence of accountability. Ensuring that one would not be prepared to fight back would help the enemies. According to Edubirdie, (2022) even though he did not foresee this, Sun Tzu advises the powerful to conduct morally in order to prevent corruption in the armed forces. The Art of War states that the wise and kind are the ones who are imbued with its ideals.

#### 4. Influence

This strategy is focused on the populace. According to Edubirdie (2022) the enemy's actions must be designed to benefit friendly troops, according to the enemy-oriented job. Conversely, population-oriented duties involve urging the general populace to accept or assist the friendly forces in place without interfering with the operation. Edubirdie (2022) states that it would be simple to raid them and win many battles if one could persuade the adversaries to act in a way that benefits friendly forces. The reason for this is that the adversaries would also use friendly forces, making them easy targets for assault. On the other hand, when the populace backs the friendly forces being used, it would be easier to carry out attacks because there would be no external disruption (Edubirdie (2022)).

#### 5. Degradation

According to Edubirdie, (2022) an enemy loses value when they are weakened. They would perceive this as a weakness since it would make them feel inferior. Degrading opponent causes you to accumulate more vulnerabilities in them, which increases the amount of effort they need to do in addition to completing their assaults. Sun Tzu counsels eliminating the adversaries' military leaders and equipment. It would diminish the confidence of their adversaries in accomplishing this. Also, it would be tough for them to attack and battle, giving them the upper hand (Edubirdie, 2022). The idea behind degradation is to create a snowball effect by adding up weaknesses for the opponent to address. By forcing the enemy to divert resources and attention to counter or repair the damage caused, their ability to carry out their attacks or achieve their goals may be compromised. Over time, this can lead to a cumulative effect that weakens the enemy and provides an advantage to the degrading force.

#### **2.2.1.2 Summary of the Marine Corp's five strategy tactics**

It is clear from examining the five strategies that the Marine Corps made the right decision. This is so because every method that has been implemented has a beneficial effect on an armed unit. According to Edubirdie, (2022) based on the amount of cases shown, deception is well-drawn and considered the most effective alteration. Even though there are fewer instances when deterioration is active, this is still a positive development because there are other theorists who provide more clarity. The tactical tasks that were altered in MCDP 1-0 were depicted in careful interpretation in The Art of War (Edubirdie, 2022).

#### **2.2.1.3 Sun Tzu's interpretation of leadership**

The formation and maintenance of alliances, strategy, tactics, and knowing when to concede defeat are all covered in Sun Tzu's Art of War (Chen & Lee, 2008; Adhikari, 2019). According to Sun Tzu, good leaders have courage, strictness, courage, sincerity, intelligence, and benevolence in common. In addition, Sun Tzu states that impulsiveness, impatience, and sensitivity are not desirable qualities in a leader; rather, the skillful and effective application of

soft power is one of a leader's greatest attributes, in contrast to the perceived weakness of using hard power (Chen & Lee, 2008). Transformational leadership, in which effective leaders are admired and motivated by their followers, is comparable to Sun-Tzu's style of leadership. By demonstrating punishment, bravery and faithfulness to a leader, the leader motivates his or her followers to accomplish on the battlefield (Thompson, 2019).

According to Sun Tzu, trustworthiness in leader-follower relationships primarily refers to allegiance to the leader, even while kindness is aimed downward at the subordinates. Wu, et al., (2001) braveness may be the optimum quality for military organizations and combat circumstances, but firmness is also ideal to some extent. Since it outweighs benevolence, firmness may be more ubiquitous in many organizations. According to Sun Tzu, kindness without firmness produces loyalty rather than deployability. Sun Tzu's book is viewed from a commercial standpoint by McNeilly (1996), who enumerates five requirements for the perfect leader.

The five characteristics are as follows:

1. A leader needs to develop their character in addition to their image.
2. Leaders must lead by example, not simply with words.
3. Leaders must communicate the successes and challenges that staff members encounter.
4. A leader needs to inspire people emotionally as much as physically.
5. A leader must be ready to clearly define tasks for each individual in order to avoid misunderstandings and overlap (Wu, et al., 2001).

According to Cleary, (2000:135) Sun Tzu's five lethal deficiencies of a tactical leader *are* "Those who are ready to die can be killed; those who are intent on living can be captured; those who are quick to anger can be shamed; those who are puritanical can be disgraced;

*those who love people can be troubled*". In warfare, an adversary may tactically take advantage of a leader's weakness (Cleary, 2000). While these have traditionally been seen as flaws in character or attribute (Griffith, 1971), they can also be seen as emotional and cognitive mistakes made in reaction to incredibly tumultuous and dangerous circumstances. Weaknesses are attributes, whether they are enduring or the result of a particular circumstance (Cleary, 2000).

It is important to recognize the book's inherent shortcomings since corporate executives use *The Art of War* as a tactical playbook. During the chaotic Warring States period of Chinese history, Sun Tzu's writings were directed at generals and warlords; however, they were not directed at merchants or their ancient Chinese equivalents. Sun Tzu views combat as an environment in which morality is suspended and anything goes. Since business is not actually an open-ended environment and moral and legal constraints still exist, entrepreneurs who take this advice too literally risk ethical or even legal repercussions (Thompson, 2019).

## ii. Greek philosophy and leadership

From a viewing of virtue and wisdom, leadership by Greek philosophy was observed. Retired from military service, Socrates opposed following a leader and advised his followers to combine moral and intellectual qualities; they should not be shallow and biased, but rather attentive in their physical training and seek wisdom and virtue rather than specific people. Both Plato and Socrates stressed the value of morality and discernment in leadership. According to Socrates, virtue is simply impartable knowledge about right and wrong. Rulers need to be virtue-driven, good-looking, and polite, but they also need to have intrinsic traits that promote learning. A leader, in Socrates' opinion, should not be feeble or unsuited for the great mental gymnastics test, but rather quick to pick things up, able to work hard mentally, retentive, firm, and industrious in thought; they should also not be a wounded spirit that despises deception but is inadvertently always lost in the mire of ignorance. In addition, he proposed that the four



fundamental values of justice, temperance, courage, and prudence should be at the center of an ideal state (Takala, 1998).

### **2.2.2 Plato's four virtues**

#### **1. Prudence**

Greek term *phronesis*, which means practical wisdom, is another word for prudence. Prudence is a term that denotes exceptional moral integrity and sound judgment (GK Today, 2015). Thomas McEvilley contends that "mindfulness" would be a more accurate translation of the term "prudence," as the modern definition of the word does not fully capture its meaning. Currently, the term "prudence" refers to a progressively nebulous range of behaviors with a faint theological undertone (GK Today, 2015). Prudence literally means "disregard in matters of practical concern." As the charioteer of the other virtues, prudence is distinguished and establishes the norms and regulations for the other virtues. Wisdom is marked by prudence.

For public servants, qualities like boldness, persistence, dedication, and loyalty to convictions are crucial. However, some circumstances could require specific attributes. Prudence, which encompasses knowledge, insight, and practical wisdom, would be our first choice if we could only choose one quality over the rest. Good judgment applied with tact is prudence. For all other traits to be directed and controlled, prudence is necessary. For example, bravery in the face of a foolish policy could be disastrous. Because of these things, prudence is the charioteer of the virtues (GK Today, 2015).

#### **2. Justice**

According to Garthoff, (2018) justice can be defined as the ideal arrangement by which each person manages their own affairs, or as the class and subdivision of people, or the right person

in the right position. Justice seems more ethereal than the other virtues. Justice in the State, according to Plato, requires justice in the citizens of the State. GK Today (May 2015). People live in political communities a lot of the time, thus sociologically speaking, fairness is a virtue that is always worth considering (Garthoff, 2018). According to GK Today (2015), justice recognizes civic values that foster a thriving community.

- Teamwork: contributing effectively to a group or team setting and demonstrating group loyalty.
- Handling each person fairly and according to the moral precepts of justice and fairness.
- Headship: organizing and supervising team projects.

### 3. Modesty

According to the Merriam-Collegiate Webster Dictionary (1996), temperance is defined as "moderation in action, thought, or feeling; restraint." But temperance is not the only thing that goes into being a leader. The definition of temperance is "the use of rational, informed decision-making in restraint; however, the benefits of leadership go far beyond mere moderation." According to Wiersbe (1989), temperance is the "practice (of) sober, intelligent reasoning in all points." This term is more appropriate for characterizing the temperance displayed by moral leaders (Wiltshire, 2011).

Temperance is a virtue that prevents excess; it involves restraint and respect for authority. It means that conflicting elements can live side by side peacefully. The virtue of temperance is the ruling and underlying values' companion in both the State and the individual. Temperance does not stifle the rational joys that contradict reason. It is important for us to prepare even if we are not tempted right away. The virtue of prudence, which is described as making wise decisions, avoiding unnecessary risks, and refraining from speaking or acting in a way that one

might later regret, is called into doubt when temperance is lacking, according to GK Today (2015).

#### 4. Fortitude / Courage

What courage is, is bravery founded on justice. It removes obstacles that obstruct the pursuit of justice. It is being willing to sacrifice one's life for another. That enables us to address the impediment to justice. Any threat causes us to naturally react with terror. A brave individual faces their legitimate fear and acts. It is the ongoing upkeep of risk-aware perspectives that are required by law and education. The ability to remain calm in the face of opposition, whether external or internal, is one of the emotional qualities. Relentless perseverance in the face of danger; a commitment to see through projects to completion; and the capacity to communicate the truth in a way, embracing life with vigour (GK Today, 2015).

##### **2.2.2.1 Motivation for carrying out Plato's virtues**

Plato encourages virtues for the ethical development of all medical workers. In this approach, doctors can "be good" and "do good," leading to "noble" professionalism. Thus, incorporating virtue ethics into medical executives' training merely amplifies what has previously been said (Carr, 1988). As was previously stated, virtue ethics provide a way for a leader to grow both personally and professionally given the expectations that they have on both a professional and ethical level. Virtue ethics provides a comprehensive framework for leaders to develop personally and professionally, considering both the demands of their role and the ethical responsibilities they bear. Through stressing the development of attributes like discernment, moral rectitude, bravery, and fairness, leaders can strive to embody these qualities in their actions and decision-making.

Virtue ethics encourages leaders to engage in self-reflection, seeking to align their values and behaviors with the ideals they espouse. This personal development journey enables leaders to enhance their ethical awareness, strengthen their character, and inspire trust and respect among their followers. By integrating virtue ethics into their leadership practice, leaders can navigate complex challenges with integrity and moral clarity while nurturing a culture of ethical conduct within their organisations. Ultimately, virtue ethics offers a holistic approach for leaders to grow both professionally and ethically, fostering their own well-being and contributing to the greater good of their teams and communities. Seeking an ethical role model to emulate or a professional mentor to follow are analogous to striving to build a habit of virtue or a positive leadership attribute. As a result, cultivating morality and developing leadership abilities go hand in hand (Carr, 1988; GK Today, 2015). The research indicate that virtues may typically. According to Peterson & Seligman's (2004) book *Character Strengths and Virtues: A Guide to Human Virtues*, virtues such as wisdom, courage, temperance, and justice are associated with effective leadership. This is just another justification for virtue ethics in leadership.

Peterson and Seligman's (2004) offer a comprehensive exploration of character strengths and virtues from a psychological standpoint. This renowned manual explores the idea of qualities including justice, bravery, and knowledge presents research and evidence on their positive influence across different domains of life, including leadership. By examining the connection between virtues and various aspects of human behaviour, the book highlights how virtues can contribute to the development of good leadership. It provides valuable insights into how virtues can shape leaders' character, decision-making, and interpersonal interactions, ultimately fostering effective and ethical leadership practices. Havard's (2007) book *The Virtuous Leader: How the Power of Virtues Can Drive a Leader's Success*, provides a thorough analysis of the connection between virtues and leadership character. Havard (2007) highlights throughout the

book the value of moral principles like fairness, integrity, and caution in good leadership. The author demonstrates how nurturing these characteristics can aid in the development of strong leadership character through perceptive discussions and helpful advice. The book gives unique insights into the significance of embodying virtuous traits in leadership, allowing readers a framework to better their own leadership talents and make moral and principled choices.

With a focus on character development, "The Virtuous Leader" serves as a valuable resource for aspiring and current leaders seeking to integrate virtues into their leadership practice and foster positive organizational and societal impact. Therefore, there is even more justification for leaders to practice virtue ethics (Peterson & Seligman, 2004).

#### **2.2.2.2 The agreement of virtues**

Regarding what is called "the unity of the virtues," there is an extensive ethical discourse. Many Greek thinkers of antiquity held the view that in order to have one of the cardinal virtues, one must also have the others. In his renowned ethical treatise "Nicomachean Ethics," Aristotle delves into the concept of the unity of virtues. He posits that virtues are not isolated qualities but rather interconnected and mutually supportive. Aristotle believed that the growth of one virtue could benefit the advancement of other people. He emphasises importance of achieving a harmonious balance among virtues, with each virtue serving as a mean between extremes. For example, courage lies between recklessness and cowardice, while generosity lies between prodigality and stinginess. Aristotle's view of the unity of virtues underscores the notion that virtues are interdependent and reinforce each other, contributing to the cultivation of a well-rounded and virtuous character. By recognizing the interconnectedness of virtues and striving for a balanced integration of these qualities, individuals can aspire to lead ethical and virtuous lives.

These philosophers wonder how an intemperate person—someone who cannot restrain their desires—could be intelligent or just. Socrates believed that virtue was a matter of understanding; if one knew what was right and wrong, they would inherently be brave, just, prudent, and temperate. An example of the unity of the virtues is that a politician who cheats on his wife is not someone who should be trusted with the concerns of the people. When all elements cooperate for the greater good, true virtue is demonstrated (GK Today, 2015). A nation's leader, who must possess a natural charisma, should aspire to understand virtue, truth, and wisdom, claims Williamson (2009).

Despite having distinct definitions of leadership, knowledge is the bridge that unites Plato and San Tzu. Knowledge is one indispensable indicator of leadership, according to Chappell (2012). Aristotle, who taught Alexander the Great, concentrated on the moral principles of leadership and asserted that although knowledge and existence are empirical rather than propositional, truth in matters of practical importance may be seen in actions.

Aristotle, et al., (2009) state that people seek to know what is good via their actions and decisions, and as a good person never does anything bad, a leader ought to be virtuous as well. Additionally, Aristotle claimed leaders to have to possess practical understanding, which is, “a justified and authentic state of competence to take action with regard for social goods” (Aristotle et al. 2009).

### **2.2.3 Leadership according to Aristotle's (384 BCE–322 BCE)**

At minimum, the concept of leadership originated with the ancient Greek Aristotle. The well-known Greek philosopher Aristotle did not provide a clear definition of leadership in his writings. Nonetheless, there are insightful ideas and concepts in his writings that are

relevant to the idea of leadership. Aristotle highlighted the value of moral character, emphasizing that characteristics like courage, wisdom, equity, and temperance are necessary for good leadership. This notion of virtuous leadership, rooted in Aristotle's virtue ethics, suggests that leaders should embody and promote virtuous behaviour in their actions and decision-making. Additionally, Aristotle's ethical framework emphasizes the moral dimensions of leadership, advocating for leaders to act in accordance with ethical principles and prioritize the common good. His concept of practical wisdom, which involves making sound and practical decisions based on careful deliberation and adaptability, also aligns with leadership qualities. While Aristotle's works do not provide a precise definition of leadership, they offer foundational principles that contribute to our understanding of effective leadership. The related literature expands upon these concepts, applying Aristotle's ideas to contemporary discussions on virtuous, ethical, and deliberative leadership. A clear portrayal of what motivates a person in life, applied in all areas of life, including leadership came from the work of Aristotle (Nelson, 2015). Irwin's (1999) offers readers an insightful and comprehensive analysis of Aristotle's ethical philosophy. Specifically, the book delves into Aristotle's exploration of human motivation and its connection to moral conduct. Irwin (1999) explores Aristotle's concept of eudaimonia, which refers to the state of flourishing or well-being, as the ultimate goal that motivates human actions and choices. By examining the intricate relationship between virtue, character development, and the pursuit of eudaimonia. Irwin (1999) sheds light on how Aristotle's ethical framework provides a clear understanding of what motivates individuals in life. The book serves as a valuable resource for comprehending the complex interplay between human motivation, ethics, and the pursuit of a meaningful and fulfilling existence. According to Nelson, (2015) Aristotle presents a number of divisive ideas regarding leadership in his writings. Experience, wise judgment, humbleness, friendship, contentment, and composure were a few of the fundamental concepts of leadership.

Forman-Barzilai (2006), provides a comprehensive exploration of the intricate connection between Aristotle's ethical philosophy and his political theory. Focusing on the interplay between ethics and politics, the book delves into how Aristotle's understanding of human motivation and virtues influences his perspectives on leadership and governance. By examining Aristotle's ideas on moral character, virtue ethics, and the cultivation of virtuous citizens, Forman-Barzilai (2006) elucidates how these concepts shape Aristotle's vision of an ideal political community. The book offers valuable insights into Aristotle's practical philosophy, shedding light on the ways in which ethical considerations and motivations underpin the principles of leadership and the organization of society as envisioned by Aristotle.

### 1. Experience

Though Plato and San Tzu have different ideas about what leadership is, knowledge is what binds them together. According to Chappell, knowledge is one essential sign of leadership (2012). Alexander the Great's teacher, Aristotle, focused on the moral precepts of leadership and argued that while existence and knowledge are empirical rather than propositional, truth in issues of practical significance can be recognized in deeds.

Baracchi (2008), delves into the exploration of Aristotle's ethical philosophy and its intricate connection to knowledge and experience. The book centres on Aristotle's idea of phronesis and or practical wisdom, which entails fusing theoretical understanding with real-world application. Baracchi (2008) further emphasises the value of expertise in moral judgment and capable leadership. The book emphasizes how experience is crucial in forming a leader's capacity to handle challenging circumstances, use good judgment, and make moral decisions by analysing Aristotle's ideas. Through the integration of theoretical understanding and practical experience, leaders can develop the wisdom necessary to lead ethically and effectively. Baracchi (2008) claims that his research advances our knowledge of the value of



experience in leadership and supports Aristotle's contention that developing practical wisdom is a crucial quality in a leader.

Blaxter, Hughes and Tight (2010), provides a comprehensive exploration of leadership from various perspectives. Although it does not specifically focus on Aristotle, the book recognizes the significance of experience in leadership development. It emphasizes the importance of leaders learning from their experiences, both successes and failures, to enhance their skills and knowledge. By reflecting on past experiences, leaders can gain valuable insights, refine their decision-making abilities, and develop the necessary attributes for effective leadership. This book serves as a valuable resource for aspiring and current leaders seeking to harness the lessons of experience to navigate the complexities of leadership and make informed and impactful decisions in their respective roles. Similarly, Storey (2016), offers a comprehensive exploration of leadership from various perspectives. Although the book does not particularly address Aristotle, it offers insightful information about the significance of experience in the growth of leadership. The companion book has a chapter that is dedicated to the topic of developing leadership skills. This indicates the book's recognition of the significance of practical experiences in shaping effective leadership (Storey, 2016). This means that emphasising the importance of learning from practical experiences, the book underscores the value of real-world encounters in honing leadership skills. It recognizes that leaders can draw wisdom from their experiences, applying the lessons learned to navigate complex situations and make informed decisions. Aspiring leaders and practitioners can benefit from the diverse range of insights provided in this companion, getting a better knowledge of how experience and growth in leadership interact.

According to Fullan (2014), leaders can have a deep comprehension of the intricate relationships and intricacies of the educational system through experience. This means that leaders gain knowledge of the difficulties that educators, learners, and other stakeholders

encounter, which enables them to make wise choices and put into practice practical solutions. Importantly, experience contributes to the development of relationships built on trust and respect. As leaders accumulate practical knowledge, they enhance their credibility and earn the trust of teachers and staff. This, in turn, enables them to work collaboratively towards shared goals and drive positive change within the educational community. Fullan (2014) emphasise experience highlights its instrumental role in shaping effective educational leaders who can navigate the complexities of the education landscape and foster meaningful improvements in teaching and learning.

Manning and Curtis (2019) offers a comprehensive exploration of leadership encompassing various dimensions. The book emphasizes the value of practical knowledge in successful leadership while addressing a wide range of leadership topics. Manning and Curtis (2019) emphasise that leaders who possess relevant experience are better equipped to comprehend the challenges faced by teachers and other stakeholders in educational settings. Leaders have a greater grasp of the intricate details of their responsibilities via direct observation, which empowers them to make well-informed decisions and put strategies into action that meet the requirements of their teams (Manning & Curtis, 2019). Importantly, experience instils confidence and expertise, which contributes to earning the respect and trust of teachers. By possessing practical knowledge gained through experience, leaders can establish meaningful connections, inspire collaboration, and foster a positive working environment. Manning and Curtis thus highlight the importance of experience as a critical element in effective educational leadership.

Coleman (2018) clarifies the significance for having experience in positions of leadership and management in education. Coleman (2018) further suggests that leaders with a great deal of experience have a better grasp of the requirements, difficulties, and worries that staff members in educational settings confront. This heightened understanding enables experienced

leaders to make informed decisions and implement strategies that address the specific needs of their teams. Moreover, leaders with extensive experience tend to garner increased respect and credibility from their colleagues and subordinates due to their demonstrated competence and practical knowledge. This means that drawing on their wealth of experience, these leaders can effectively navigate complex situations, build strong relationships, and establish a motivating and encouraging workplace. Coleman (2018) emphasis on the significance of experience underscores its role in fostering effective educational leadership and management practices.

There are people who contend that experience is meaningless in the modern world. In contrast, a school system in Arizona has hired multiple academic tutors to work with teachers in order to raise pupil achievement at its underperforming campuses. The idea of someone coming to their courses and giving advice on teaching and managing the classroom was first accepted by the teachers. As soon as they discovered that one of them lacked expertise, these identical teachers lost trust in the coach and their advice. Experience counts in the top positions in education that exist today. According to Aristotle et al. (2009), advice from an inexperienced person ‘will be vain and unprofitable.’ Highly successful individuals have learned from both affirmative and adverse circumstances to develop into the leaders they are today. This also holds true for educational administrators, who should to learn from the errors of others as well as their own in order to become effective leaders in the end (Nelson, 2015).

Heifetz (1994) introduces the concept of adaptive leadership, which challenges the notion that leadership effectiveness solely depends on accumulated experience. Heifetz argues that effective leadership goes beyond relying on past experiences and instead emphasizes the capacity to mobilize and engage people in addressing complex challenges. Adaptive leadership involves the ability to navigate adaptive problems, which are characterized by their complexity and the need for innovative solutions. Heifetz asserts that leaders must possess the skills to identify and address the underlying causes of challenges, rather than simply addressing surface-

level symptoms. By mobilizing individuals and fostering collective problem-solving, adaptive leaders can navigate the uncharted territory and lead their organisations through adaptive change. Heifetz's concept of adaptive leadership highlights the importance of flexibility, learning agility, and the ability to engage others in tackling complex problems in today's dynamic and ever-changing world.

In Kellerman's (2012) work 'The End of Leadership,' she offers a provocative analysis of the conventional focus on the experience of leadership. Kellerman (2012) argues that the demands of the modern world necessitate a shift in our understanding of effective leadership. She challenges the notion that experience alone is sufficient for effective leadership and proposes that leaders need to possess a broader skill set. According to Kellerman, (2012) contemporary leadership requires adaptability, strategic thinking, and the ability to navigate uncertainty. She suggests that leaders must be equipped to handle complex and rapidly changing environments, where traditional approaches may no longer be effective. This emphasise the importance of adaptability and strategic agility, the need for leaders to constantly evolve and respond to emerging challenges (Kellerman (2012)). Therefore, perspective invites us to reconsider the conventional emphasis on experience and recognize the significance of a broader skill set in contemporary leadership contexts.

Heifetz and Marty Linsky (2002)'s 'Leadership on the Line: Staying Alive through the Dangers of Leading,' propose that effective leadership goes beyond accumulated experience. They argue that leaders must possess the willingness to confront difficult issues and adapt to changing circumstances. Rather than relying solely on past experiences, leaders need to continually learn, evolve, and develop new skills to address the complexities and challenges they face. Heifetz and Linsky (2002) emphasise the importance of adaptive leadership, which involves the ability to navigate uncharted territories, confront adaptive problems, and mobilize people for collective action. Their perspective highlights the need for leaders to cultivate a

mind-set of ongoing learning and growth, embracing the challenges that come with leadership and demonstrating the ability to adapt and respond to new situations. By focusing on adaptation and continual development, Heifetz and Linsky (2000) expand our understanding of effective leadership beyond mere experience, encouraging leaders to be proactive learners and agents of change.

Joiner and Josephs (2007) challenge the notion that leadership effectiveness is solely dependent on past experiences. Instead, they emphasize the significance of leadership agility as a core competency in navigating complex and uncertain situations. Joiner and Josephs (2007) further argued that it is imperative for leaders to cultivate the capacity to adjust and react efficiently to evolving situations rather than relying solely on accumulated experience. They propose five levels of leadership agility, each representing a higher degree of mastery in anticipating and initiating change. These levels reflect the leader's capacity to think strategically, embrace ambiguity, and engage in continuous learning and growth. This means that the importance of flexibility, adaptability, and the ability to navigate complexity and uncertainty in today's dynamic and evolving business environment. Their perspective expands the understanding of effective leadership beyond the confines of experience, encouraging leaders to cultivate agility as a crucial skill for success in the face of constant change.

## 2. Resonance decision-making

Aristotle cautions us that even the perfect choice might not turn out well. There will always be chance and random variables at play. A positive result is impossible to guarantee, but thoughtful consideration is (Richard, 2019). According to Aristotle and Roberts, (2004) when making important choices that have an impact on the organization, effective leaders must also be competent decision-makers. This was acknowledged by Aristotle, who stated that "only that which causes regret and suffering is involuntary; everything done out of

ignorance is not. This means all necessary stakeholders, both inside and outside a business, should put out effort and provide input to someone who makes wise decisions. Aristotle's work appears to have imparted some profound ideas, such as the importance of considering the good of the whole rather than the ego (Smith, 2019).

In education, People often talk about how decisions that impact schools should always prioritize the needs of the students. Effective leaders take into account the community at large, as well as the instructors and pupils. Everyone must contribute to important decisions—not just a small group of people. For instance, a local school system's superintendent made the decision to adopt a transformational model for the district. They readily contacted parents, business executives, and the community. But they neglected to tell the staff and teachers, which led to conflict and a widening rift between them. According to Nelson, (2015) since every single one of these significant stakeholders could be impacted in one way or another, they should all be taken into account when making decisions. In the days of Aristotle, selfishness was unproductive, and it is undoubtedly inapplicable in the contemporary leadership of today. (Nelson, 2015: Smith, 2019).

The study by Mintzberg, Rasinghani and Theoret (1976) titled 'The structure of 'unstructured decision processes' delves into the decision-making processes within organisations and underscores the significance of structured approaches. The research emphasizes that effective leaders must employ systematic and rational decision-making methods to achieve optimal outcomes. Through their analysis, the authors challenge the notion that decision-making is entirely intuitive or based on personal judgment. Instead, they argue that leaders should utilize structured approaches to decision-making to bring clarity and coherence to complex and ambiguous situations. This means that, leaders may improve the standard and efficacy of the choices that they make, which will improve the performance of the organisation. The study offers insights for leaders to traverse the difficulties of decision-

making in organisational contexts and is a useful tool to understand the significance of organized decision-making in successful leadership.

The idea of ambidextrous companies and the critical role that leaders play when making choices are explored in depth (Tushman & O'Reilly, 2007). The writers emphasise the importance of balancing two seemingly conflicting activities: exploration and exploitation. Exploration involves seeking new opportunities, experimenting with novel ideas, and fostering radical innovations, while exploitation focuses on refining existing processes, optimizing efficiency, and delivering incremental improvements. Strategic decision-making by effective leaders is critical to the company's long-term performance as it allows for exploration as well as extraction. They need to allocate resources, establish organizational structures, and create a culture that supports and encourages both types of activities. This means embracing ambidexterity in decision-making, leaders can effectively manage evolutionary and revolutionary change, enabling their organisations to adapt to dynamic environments and maintain a competitive edge. The research paper highlights the importance of strategic decision-making in striking a balance between exploration and exploitation and offers insightful guidance for executives attempting to negotiate the challenges of decision-making in ambidextrous organizations.

The paper titled 'Conditions for Intuitive Expertise: A Failure to Disagree' by Kahneman and Klein (2009) discusses the importance of intuition in making decisions, especially in hectic and complex situations. The authors emphasize that leaders can develop expertise and intuitive decision-making abilities through experience and deliberate practice. Intuition, in this context, refers to the rapid and automatic processing of information based on patterns and cues accumulated over time. The article highlights that intuitive expertise is not solely based on innate talent but can be cultivated through deliberate efforts. Effective leaders leverage their expertise and intuition to make decisions swiftly and accurately, especially when faced with

time constraints or incomplete information. By honing their intuitive capabilities, leaders can navigate complex environments, make sound judgments, and respond effectively to dynamic situations. The article provides valuable insights into the importance of developing intuitive expertise as a complement to systematic decision-making approaches, enabling leaders to make effective decisions in demanding and uncertain contexts.

According to Russo and Schoemaker (1992) who explored how overconfidence affects judgment and provide leaders with tactics to lessen its consequences. The authors emphasize the importance of leaders being aware of biases and potential pitfalls that can arise from overconfidence, which can lead to flawed decision-making. Overconfident leaders may underestimate risks, ignore contrary evidence, and make overly optimistic projections. The article emphasizes how leaders must actively control their arrogance by actively seeking out different viewpoints, supporting opposing viewpoints, and critically reflecting on their own actions. Leaders can make better decisions by being aware of their own prejudices and constraints. The essay gives leaders useful insights into the risks associated with excessive trust in their decision-making and proposes doable tactics to combat this cognitive bias, thereby improving their capacity to make wise and well-reasoned choices.

### 3. Humility

Financial responsibility tactics is another eminence that a great leader must possess. In Book IV, Aristotle discussed the significance of supporting the proper reasons. According to Aristotle et al. (2009), a liberal person will give judiciously and for the benefit of the nobility; he will do it with joy or without grief, and to the correct people, in the correct quantities, and at the correct moments, together with all other requirements that accompany appropriate giving. Effectiveness is promoted when leaders make prudent financial decisions that benefit the entire organization (Aristotle et al., 2009).



Kaplan and Norton (2005) clarified the significance of financial measures in evaluating the performance of organizations. They introduced the balanced scorecard approach, which advocates for a comprehensive set of performance measures beyond just financial indicators. However, they emphasize that financial metrics remain crucial in evaluating organizational performance. To improve performance and make wise strategic choices, leaders must be adept at managing and comprehending financial issues. Leaders can obtain insights into the financial well-being of their firm and pinpoint opportunities for enhancement by keeping an eye on financial measures like profitability, cash flow, and return on investment. This facilitates the efficient allocation of resources, establishment of feasible financial objectives, and informed decision-making that advances the organization's long-term prosperity. The article emphasizes the value of financial accountability in leadership and the part that financial measures play in directing activities related to performance management and strategic decision-making.

Goleman et al. (2002) conducted study on the idea of emotional intelligence and how important it is for leaders. Although emotional intelligence is the main topic of the article, it also emphasizes its importance when making financial decisions. The authors contend that emotional intelligence competences like self-awareness, self-regulation, and social awareness are essential for leaders who are accountable for their finances. This means that being self-aware, leaders can recognize their own biases, emotions, and tendencies when it comes to financial matters. They can regulate their emotions to avoid impulsive or irrational financial decisions. Furthermore, financially-conscious leaders are able to comprehend the requirements and worries of their stakeholders, co-workers, and the larger corporate context. This allows them to make financially responsible decisions that consider the interests of various stakeholders and ensure the financial stability and success of the organization. The paper emphasizes how crucial emotional intelligence is to good leadership, including financial

responsibility, as it enables leaders to navigate complex financial situations with awareness, composure, and empathy.

Schaltegger and Wagner (2011) shed light on the integration of sustainability and financial responsibility in leadership, especially when it comes to environmentally friendly entrepreneurship. The report highlights how important it is for leaders to have a long-term outlook and take the financial effects of sustainability measures into account. It highlights that financially responsible leaders in sustainable entrepreneurship strive to make responsible financial decisions that align with environmental and social goals. Thus, considering the financial consequences of sustainability initiatives, Leaders have the capacity to make certain that resources are distributed in a way that promotes both sustainability and profitability. This requires a holistic approach that takes into account environmental, social, and economic considerations, enabling leaders to foster a sustainable business model that benefits all stakeholders. The article emphasizes the importance of leaders embracing financial responsibility as a means to drive sustainability and innovation, this ultimately improves the company's long-term performance and favourable effects.

Conger and Xin (2000) explored the evolving nature of leadership and the increasing importance of financial acumen for leaders. The authors highlight that in the dynamic business landscape of the 21st century, leaders must possess a strong understanding of financial concepts. This includes knowledge of financial statements, budgeting, and financial analysis. This implies that acquiring financial acumen, leaders can effectively manage resources, allocate budgets strategically, and make well-informed budgetary choices that affect the company's performance in general. The article emphasises that financial literacy is critical for leaders to navigate the complexities of modern business practices, adapt to changing economic realities, and ensure the financial health and success of their organisations. It emphasises how important it is for executives to give executive education and ongoing learning top priority

when it comes to financial management in order to fulfil the demands of the modern business world.

An education leader needs to carefully consider and select the projects that will increase student achievement without wasting important financial resources. Since previous government budget cuts and lower investment have had a substantial influence on school finance, every decision is important. Every money must be spent carefully; there can be no waste. The company's future is put at risk by executives who mismanage their businesses and waste money without cause or justification—a practice that is frequently highlighted in the media. Aristotle et al. (2009) state that effective leaders consult with all three of the organization's major stakeholders prior to allocating cash to accomplish organizational goals. They then make wise use of the allocated funds. Arrogance is a quality that can harm leaders and the organizations they work for. Aristotle (2009) talked on the value of humility and the drawbacks of conceit or bragging. A conceited person is one who feels they deserve wonderful things yet are not. Pride can be harmful to a leader in a variety of ways. First of all, it obscures the real facts and the underlying essence of the problem. If someone believes they are always correct and won't listen to or take criticism, they become closed-minded. Secondly, haughty leaders who commit errors seldom own up to them and usually assign blame to others.

Lastly, too arrogant leaders avoid making changes because they believe their way is the best. There are many examples in history of conceited leaders who paid the price for thinking they were better than others. In contrast, Aristotle et al., (2019) when individuals know they can depend on modest leaders in difficult situations, they inspire trust in others.

#### 4. Friendship

Aristotle (2009) also discussed on the importance of friendships and how it promotes cooperation and support among co-workers in organizations, especially in the high-stakes, high-pressure workplaces of today. The ideal friendship, according to Aristotle et al. (2009), is one two great and morally similar persons because they both desire the other to be a good person and are good people themselves (Book VIII). Effective leaders create teams that are built on friendships and have a clear professional goal. Members should be polite since it promotes relationships and a positive work culture (Aristotle & Brown, 2004).

. Barsade and Gibson (2007) delve into the significance of emotions in the workplace and the impact they have on organizational dynamics. The authors emphasize the importance of positive emotional connections, including friendship and courtesy, among team members. They highlight that positive emotions fostered by these connections contribute to enhanced team dynamics, collaboration, and overall performance. A cooperative, courteous, and supportive work atmosphere is produced when team members get along well and show consideration for one another. Consequently, this results in elevated job contentment, elevated degrees of involvement, and enhanced collaboration. The paper emphasises how important positive affect is for fostering trust, productive teamwork, and the exchange of ideas and information. Therefore, fostering friendship-based teams and encouraging courteous interactions, leaders can cultivate an emotionally positive work environment that enhances team dynamics.

Dutton and Heaphy (2003) investigated into the concept of high-quality connections within the workplace. These authors stress the benefits of friendship-based teams and the significance of fostering beneficial connections among team members. They emphasise that creating a work environment where high-quality connections are nurtured leads to a supportive climate where collaboration and cooperation thrive. Friendship-based teams produce a spirit of unity, mutual respect, and trust among participants, all of which enhance worker satisfaction and the success

of the company as a whole. The chapter emphasizes how important it is to build strong bonds among team members in order to foster an atmosphere at work that encourages participation, fulfilment, and efficient teamwork. Through the identification and cultivation of superior relationships, leaders can cultivate a feeling of community, promote candid communication, and augment the general operation and efficacy of the establishment.

According to a study by Grant and Gino (2010), team dynamics and collaboration can be greatly impacted by employees expressing their gratitude and showing appreciation for one another through civility in the workplace. Positive relationships are fostered, motivation is raised, and pro-social behaviour is encouraged when employees feel appreciated and acknowledged. In a similar vein, Edmondson's book (2012) highlights how crucial it is to cultivate mutual respect, trust, and civility in order to create psychologically secure environments inside teams. Team members tend to be more willing to share their ideas, communicate honestly, and take chances when they feel psychologically secure. Through putting civility first and fostering an environment of gratitude and respect, leaders may build healthy connections, enhance motivation, and create an environment that supports collaboration, innovation, and continuous learning. These practices contribute to the development of cohesive and high-performing teams, ultimately driving organizational success.

## 5. Happiness

Establishing a stable work environment where individuals are courteous and respectful of one another is essential because leaders cannot lead in a divided or chaotic group. Happiness is the third attribute listed in Aristotle's *Nicomachean Ethics* that is important for modern leaders. It's unlikely that many people would want to work for someone who is unpleasant for an extended period of time. "The pleasant life is supposed to represent virtue; however, virtue

does not consist in amusement; it demands effort" (Aristotle et al., 2009). Aristotle believed that a happy life came from hard work. According to Aristotle et al. (2009), happiness is a virtue that is gained via the satisfaction of success rather than because it is enjoyable.

## 6. Being calm

In his work *Rhetoric*, Aristotle talked on the need of being composed, especially when angry. "Aristotle & Roberts, 2004, p. 64] characterize sedating or quieting of fury as growing calm. More than ever, leaders need to maintain composure. It's crucial to learn techniques for staying composed and coming up with a solution or reaction when things get difficult. Aristotle and Roberts (2004) assert that followers would rather work for someone who is calm and collected than someone who is always agitated. The topic of psychological capital and its significance for successful management are explored by Luthans et al. (2007). The authors note that psychological capital includes essential elements like self-efficacy, positive outlook, optimism, and resilience, all of which are critical for leaders to maintain composure and handle pressure well. Leaders who develop these psychological tools are better able to face issues head-on with self-assurance, optimism, and resolve. They can then tackle issues and decision-making with efficacy and clarity as a result. Psychological capital empowers leaders to maintain composure, overcome obstacles, and find constructive solutions during stressful times, ultimately enhancing their problem-solving and decision-making abilities.

George (2007) underscores the significance of authentic leadership and self-awareness in navigating stressful situations. The author emphasises how having self-awareness helps leaders comprehend more thoroughly their feelings and responses to pressure. This implies that recognizing their emotional triggers and patterns, leaders can develop the ability to regulate their emotions and maintain composure in challenging circumstances. This self-regulation empowers leaders to respond thoughtfully and effectively, rather than being driven solely by reactive emotions. By cultivating self-awareness and practicing self-regulation, leaders can enhance their composure, make sound decisions, and lead their teams with authenticity and effectiveness, even in the face of stress and pressure. Boyatzis and McKee (2005), discussed the concept of resonant leadership is explored. The authors highlight the significance of being attuned Successful leadership involves being sensitive to both one's personal emotions and those of others. Mindfulness is emphasized as a key practice for leaders to remain present and aware in stressful situations, enabling them to manage their emotions and respond thoughtfully rather than reacting impulsively. Additionally, the book underscores the importance of fostering hope and compassion in leadership, as these qualities contribute to building positive relationships and supporting others during challenging times. cultivating mindfulness, hope, and compassion, leaders can maintain composure, connect with their teams, and navigate stress with empathy and resilience.

### **2.3 Introduction of modern leadership**

The theories presented in several of the more recent works by writers such as Daniel Goleman (2013) and Abraham Zaleznik (2004) have completely changed the way we think about leadership. Prentice (1961), which refuted the idea that leadership necessitated the use of force or the possession of extraordinary analytical skill, foresaw several of these concepts. According to Prentice (2004) good leader is someone who can understand the reasons behind

individuals and engage staff participation in a way that balances individual desires and aspirations with the goals of the group. The accomplishment of a goal through the supervision of human associates is the definition of leadership (Prentice, 2004).

### **2.3.1 Leadership in modern times**

People apply the concept of leadership in both their personal and professional life. Understanding the significance of this notion is necessary before leadership can be put into practice (Kapur, 2020). Leadership can only be put into practice if someone understands its value and how it enables them to accomplish their objectives (Anshika, n.d). The primary goal of a leader is to achieve the intended objectives and goals while imparting information, support, and assistance to their subordinates in an organized manner. It is crucial for leaders to instill moral and ethical qualities in others that promote well-being and goodwill (Hollander & Offerman, 1990: Hollander, 1995: Parry & Bryman, 2006). One of the fundamental components of leadership is the ability to motivate people. Concepts grounded in leadership can be both unique and appropriated as long as they are successfully conveyed by a leader who sets an example for followers to follow. In addition to having critical thinking abilities to determine the best use of the resources available to an organization, a leader must be personable enough to inspire others to follow their orders (Ward, 2020). Several prominent business philosophers of today have offered their individual interpretations of what leadership is (Kruse, 2013).

Peter Drucker once said, ‘The only definition of a leader is someone who has followers.’

According to Warren Bennis, ‘Leadership is the ability to transform ambition into reality.’

Bill Gates said: ‘As we look ahead into the next century, leaders will be those who empower others.’

John Maxwell said, ‘Leadership is influence - nothing more, nothing less.’



### **2.3.2 Leadership theories and their effect on employee performance**

There are 221 distinct definitions of leadership because of the many debates and arguments in the social sciences (Bass, 1990; Bennis, 2007). (Rost, 1993). The most important and well-known aspect of leadership is the importance of practical leadership and how a person with strong leadership abilities may influence a lot of people in their immediate surroundings. Different authors and thinkers have given different definitions of leadership. See Yukl (2013) and Northouse (2013). The two leadership philosophies that are to be covered are situational leadership and transformational leadership.

#### **1. Situational (Contingency) Leadership**

The concept of contingency states that no style of leadership is ideal on its own since it depends on other factors, such as the situation, members' qualities, and other factors. According to this theory, a leader must adapt to both internal and external environmental restrictions, hence there is no such thing as a good or incorrect method to lead. Leaders frequently change more than only the dynamics and atmosphere within their organizations—they also often affect the people themselves (Kindle, 2009; Farmer, 2012; Cnaff & Wright, 2013). As a category of behavioural theory, the concepts of contingency, in simple terms, refute the idea that there is a single best way to lead or organize, and that a leadership approach that works well in one set of circumstance might not work as well in another (Greenleaf, 1977).

Fiedler emphasises the significance of a match between a leader's style and situational factors in his 1964 article, which presents his contingency model of leadership success. The model states that a leader's efficacy is dependent on the level of control in the circumstance. Task-oriented managers and leaders who prioritize relationships are distinguished by Fiedler. Task-oriented leaders do best in environments with high or low control, when organization and

clarity are essential. They emphasize completing tasks and achieving goals. Conversely, in circumstances with minimal control, where connections between people and teamwork are crucial, relationship-oriented leaders perform better. They place a high value on establishing trust and preserving goodwill with their followers. The contingency model highlights that a leader's performance depends on matching their style of leadership to the demands of the environment, acknowledging that different circumstances call for different strategies in order to achieve the best outcomes.

Hersey and Blanchard (1977) emphasised the Situational Leadership Theory (SLT), which emphasizes the notion that followers' preparedness level affects how well a leader leads. According to the theory, a leader should modify their approach to a job or objective in response to the competency and dedication of their followers. As per SLT, there exists a range of readiness levels that people or teams may display, from low to high. Leaders need to gauge their followers' readiness and modify their style of leadership appropriately. For example, in situations where followers are highly competent and committed, a delegating style that grants autonomy and independence may be most effective. Conversely, when followers are less experienced or motivated, a directing style that provides more guidance and support might be necessary. By recognizing and responding to the readiness level of their followers, leaders can enhance their effectiveness and maximize the potential for success in diverse situations. The contingency approach to leadership was examined by Yukl (2013). Yukl (2013) highlights how important it is to consider a variety of situational considerations while figuring out the best leadership style. The specific characteristics of the task at hand, the characteristics and skills of the followers, and the larger organizational backdrop are some examples of these situational elements.

The contingency method holds that there isn't a one, universally applicable leadership style that works for everyone. Instead, effective leadership requires leaders to assess and adapt

their behaviours based on the specific circumstances they face. By considering the situational factors and adjusting their leadership approach accordingly, leaders can enhance their effectiveness and achieve better outcomes. Yukl (2013) work underscores the importance of contextual factors in leadership, highlighting the need for leaders to be flexible and responsive to the unique demands of each situation. Unlike situational theorists who contend that individuals beneath the leader were crucial in defining their connection, contingency theorists maintained that the leader was at the center of the lead-subordinate interaction. Situational leadership keeps the leader at the center of attention while highlighting the importance of group dynamics. Some of our current ideas about group dynamics and leadership have been informed by these investigations of the interactions between individuals and their leaders. According to the theory of situational leadership, a leader's stance should reflect the level of maturity of their followers (Bass, 1997).

## 2. Transformational leadership

One way that transformational leadership differs from other leadership theories is that when followers participate in procedures or activities that impact the organization, they will feel as though they have personally contributed to the team. Neither the leader nor the followers benefit from transformational leadership in terms of motivation and morale (House & Shamir, 1993). This affects the performance that results in a goal being accomplished. As stated by Bass (1997), a transformational leader "attempts to motivate followers to rearrange their requests by transcend their own interests and aim for higher order wants." This notion aligns with Maslow's 1954 theory of higher order requirements. Transformative leadership aims to modify leaders' opinions, principles, and perspectives in order to enhance their behaviours and capacities for leading change. The literature claims that both leaders and followers prioritize the needs of the group over their own. According to House and Aditya,

(1997) for the purpose to empower and motivate everyone to take on a leader, the leader is told to focus on the needs and recommendations of the followers.

Transformational leadership is further distinguished by its ethical aspects, which emphasize the previously mentioned leadership philosophies. Whatever makes transformational leaders efficient is their capacity to recognize when change is needed, gain the commitment and cooperation of others, create a vision that guides change, and actually implement the change (MacGregor, 2003). This means that providing purpose and difficulty to their job, these leaders strive to elevate their subordinates' consciousness, morals, and abilities, viewing each person as an individual. These leaders seem to have a soothing and optimistic view of the future. Transformational leaders are imaginative leaders who seek to draw attention to the better characteristics of those who support them and nudge them forward more profound and universal aspirations and goals'. (MacGregor, 2003). According to Cole (2004), women who practice transformational leadership use a community-based approach, frequently attempting to bring their teams together rather than imposing their will on them. A woman's communication style with her team is a reflection of her transformative style. As was previously mentioned, women frequently approach situations cooperatively and honestly. However, in corporate environments dominated by men, a transactional (man) style is usually associated with leadership skills (Eagly & Johannesen, 2003).

Transformational leaders have the capacity to establish a compelling goal and persuade their supporters of it (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Transformational leaders inspire their followers to collaborate toward common objectives by outlining a compelling vision. The writers emphasize three essential components of transformational leadership: idealized effect, tailored attention, and stimulation of thinking. According to Bass and Riggio, (2006) leaders instil inspiration and engagement in their followers by stimulating their minds and encouraging

innovation, critical thinking, and problem-solving. Giving each follower personalized attention entails offering them encouragement, counselling, and mentorship, all of which boost their spirits and drive. Finally, a perfect influence describes leaders that act as role models for their followers, exhibiting admirable traits and behaviours that uplift and inspire both the followers and the leader. Bass and Riggio (2006) further discussed that detailed understanding of how transformational leaders successfully inspire and encourage those who follow them, which boosts employee engagement and drive within organizations.

Avolio and Yammarino (2013) provide an extensive examination of inspirational and transformational leadership. The research and analysis included in this book offer strong proof of the beneficial effects of transformational leadership on supporters and leaders' spirits and drives. The volume's chapters highlight the transforming power of leaders who can encourage and motivate their people to go above and beyond what they had previously thought possible. Transformational leaders improve employee motivation and spirits in the workplace by creating a feeling of shared purpose, outlining a compelling vision, and encouraging both individual and group growth (Avolio & Yammarino, 2013). The book reinforces the importance of transformational leadership in fostering organizational success and growth by providing a useful resource for comprehending the tremendous impact it has on followers' and leaders' well-being and inspiration.

The disagreement between transformational and transactional leadership philosophies has a historical foundation. In American culture, women are typically associated with caring for others, while men are typically linked with leadership. The findings suggests that women in leadership positions have probably grown up with ingrained biases in the workplace. The Social Role Theory provides a conceptualization of these linkages. According to the Social Role Theory, women have historically been excluded from leadership positions due to traditional male and female roles (Eagly 1987). Moreover, women are disadvantaged because

of these mental connections that associate men with agentic leadership and women with communal leadership. Community leaders are often characterized as focused on relationships and collaborative, whereas agentic attributes focus on focused on outcomes achievements (Eagly, 1987; Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Eagly 2007).

The contrasting value of transformational and transactional leadership styles is examined by Judge and Piccolo (2004). According to the study, in comparison with transactional leadership, transformational leadership shows a larger favourable link with follower results like motivation and work satisfaction. The results show that transformational leaders significantly raise the general population's motivation and sense of purpose. In accordance with Judge and Piccolo (2004), transforming leaders inspire and empower others to achieve greater performance and personal development. Throughout the organisation, transformational leaders cultivate an atmosphere that boosts morale and inspires drive by encouraging a feeling of unity in vision and offering assistance and recognition. The research bolsters the idea that transformational leadership is essential for encouraging favourable following outcomes and emphasises how important it is for enhancing staff engagement and overall business performance.

## **2.4 Organisational culture and its effects on employee performance**

Unwritten conventions, attitudes, and behaviors that shape decision-making, impose a framework, and establish dominance are referred to as organizational culture (Gordon, 2008; Satyendra, 2021). An organization's culture include a set of beliefs and principles, customs, rituals, routines, and methods for engaging with a particular macroculture. Employee performance is impacted by organizational culture, which has an explicit and implicit impact on behavior. Culture affects how organizational responsibilities are performed. The culture of

an organization shapes its survival tactics by encouraging integration and personal achievement (Gordon, 2008; Satyendra, 2021).

There are many roles to do with organisational culture which consist of the following:

1. There is a clear distinction between one organization and another.
2. It gives the organization's personnel a sense of identity.
3. It makes it possible for employees to grow a commitment to something bigger than their own self-interest.
4. It promotes organizational unity by giving workers the proper performance criteria to follow.
5. Employee views and actions are shaped and driven by a system of 'meaning and control' (Satyendra, 2019).

Employee performance determines the organization's success, hence in order to stay ahead of competitors, staff members must be industrious, proactive, responsive, and hardworking (Satyendra, 2019). According to Irving Janis (1972), a strong corporate culture reduces the possibility of groupthink. When employees come together to create a group of innovative thinkers, amazing things can happen- that is, assuming they do not succumb to "groupthink." Charles (2022) claims that people who work for a company without a strong culture occasionally hold beliefs without giving them enough thought. The mental process is indestructible. People's thought processes quickly and naturally take shape once they begin doing. When there is a strong company culture, people look for consensus instead of looking for different ways to go. It suggests that people tend to follow established cultures blindly and are reluctant to challenge corporate ideology. Creativity and innovation are reduced under a strong organizational culture (Charles, 2022).

Denison (1990) conducted a thorough investigation on the relationship amongst corporate culture and an organization's efficacy. According to Denison, a robust and supportive company culture is essential for raising employee productivity. The book draws on case studies and empirical evidence to illustrate how specific cultural dimensions influence employee behaviours and, in turn, impact performance outcomes. Denison identifies key cultural dimensions, including adaptability, involvement, consistency, and mission, and demonstrates how these factors shape employee attitudes and actions. Employees that work in cultures that value flexibility are more likely to be adaptable and receptive to change, which improves productivity in dynamic work contexts. Staff empowerment and engagement, or involvement, promotes a sense of dedication and ownership, leading to higher levels of performance. Consistency in values and practices provides clarity and direction, aligning employee efforts and improving performance outcomes. Therefore, a clear and compelling mission statement helps employees understand the organization's purpose and goals, fostering motivation and driving performance. Denison's book provides valuable insights into how a strong and positive organizational culture can effectively enhance employee performance by influencing their behaviours and attitudes.

The notion of fit between individuals and organizations and its effect on employee performance was investigated (O'Reilly et al. 1991). The study centres on how well an individual's personal ideals mesh with the organizational culture. According to the study, an employee's performance and loyalty to the company are positively impacted when their values and the corporate culture align well. People get a sense of alignment and shared identity when they see a match between the business's principles and their own initiative, and this increases motivation and engagement. The coherence of personal values and corporate culture cultivates



a favourable work milieu that bolsters employee productivity and amplifies their dedication to the organization's objectives. The study emphasizes how crucial it is to evaluate and support match between individuals and organizations in order to augment worker productivity and organizational results.

Schein, (2010) researched into the multifaceted dimensions of culture and explores how they shape employee behaviours, attitudes, and ultimately, performance outcomes. The book places a strong emphasis on how important it is for leaders to manage and shape corporate culture in order to create a setting that encourages great performance. Schein emphasises that the norms, values, and ideas that make up an organisation's culture are defined and promoted by its leaders. Leaders may create a culture that encourages motivation, involvement, and achievements by coordinating these cultural components with the business's strategic objectives. The book provides insights and practical guidance for leaders to understand, assess, and influence organizational culture to enhance employee performance and drive overall organizational success.

Kotter and Heskett (1992) investigated the connection between corporate culture and performance of organizations. They contend that improving overall performance and financial results is largely dependent on having a robust and flexible culture. The study found that a variety of case studies and factual data are included in the book to bolster the idea that strategic objectives for an organization, when in line with a good culture, increase staff involvement and boost productivity. Kotter and Heskett (1992) emphasised that a robust culture impacts employee behaviour, attitudes, and decision-making, leading to increased productivity, innovation, and customer satisfaction. They offer perceptions on how businesses can mould their atmosphere to fit their long-term goals, stressing the significance of employee participation, communication, and leadership in creating and preserving a culture that is

productive and beneficial. The book serves as a valuable resource for understanding the critical link between corporate culture and organizational performance, giving organizations who want to use their culture to achieve success useful advice.

## 2.5 Groupthink symptoms in an organisation

Janis (1972) outlined eight very possible consequences that occur when a group gives in to groupthink:

1. **Invulnerability:** 'Since everything has gone well thus far, everything will continue to go well going forward.'
2. **Morality:** 'We are able to do no wrong because we have a just cause.'
3. **Rationalisation:** 'This is what we all think, so it must be true.'
4. **Stereotypes:** 'We do not include outsiders in our decision-making.'
5. **Self-censorship:** 'I won't speak up because I don't want to seem controversial.'
6. **The delusion of unanimity:** 'We all have to agree because nobody else spoke up.'
7. **Pressure:** 'You ought to adjust your viewpoint to align with the consensus of the group.'
8. **Mind Guards:** 'This is the most appropriate decision because that is all we know.'

Hart (1990) elaborated on this idea further by stating that the development of groupthink is not necessarily correlated with strong affective ties among group members. A basic degree of cohesion among the participants—defined as their interdependence—can also lead to groupthink. This is due to the fact that those with lower status frequently assume the views, demands, or instructions of members with higher status and adjust their own actions and ways of thinking accordingly (Hart, 1990). In Whyte's (1989) comparison of the groupthink idea with comparable concepts of high-risk group decision-making based on bordering and prospect theory, the Challenger accident and the Iran-Contra crisis were highlighted as possible cases. Whyte also looked at the relative strengths and weaknesses of these different theories in demonstrating empirical cases of decisional fiascos.

## **How to avoid groupthink in the organisations**

Many companies start actively seeking out their friends' friends on the grounds that they believe it would be better for workers to collaborate with friends to achieve outstanding outcomes at work. According to research, such judgments usually don't work out, which is why leaders need to exercise caution (Bruzzese, 2015; Rousmaniere, 2016). a study by Wise (2016) that examined 187 teams' worth of emails sent within a single organization. It was shown that excessive cohesiveness lowered performance, even if the use of social networks and technical data collecting initially enhanced team performance (Wise, 2016).

The ways in which to stay away from groupthink are:

### **1. Plan for it**

Every risk management plan must provide for monitoring and minimizing the emergence of groupthink. This is not to imply that a team does not fall short. It implies that in the event that such a situation develops, it is preferable to be ready (Petty, 2010). Preparing for groupthink incidents is the first step towards improving an organization. It is essential to anticipate that groupthink will have an occurrence at some point because it is a social phenomenon. Companies must prepare for it and have the tools necessary to stop it in its tracks (Risk Management Studio, 2014).

### **2. Encourage debate**

Well-designed organizational structures and policies facilitate team members' expression of their unique perspectives and contributions (Janis, 1972). Leaders must explain to their teams the value of encouraging people to voice their thoughts and opinions (Quast, 2016). Successful completion of organizational tasks is facilitated by a culture that values critical analysis, information sharing, and feedback from staff members (Turner &

Pratkanis, 1997: Turner & Pratkanis, 1998a: Turner & Pratkanis, 1998b: Turner & Pratkanis, 1998c).

### **3. Look for different personalities**

In order to prevent groupthink, the team should consist of at least eight members with a variety of personalities, including the unconventional, creative problem solver, the person who performs well under pressure, and the colleague who evaluates possibilities objectively (Belbin, 2010). It is imperative for leaders to seek out individuals with diverse thought processes (Quast, 2016: Rousmaniere, 2016). Diversity is a durable remedy for groupthink. Since it is difficult for teams to develop standardized groups, research has shown that a variety of diversity sources reduce groupthink. For instance, diversification allowed Pepsi-Cola to avoid groupthink and grow its market share by focusing on certain groups.

Diversity in the workplace is critical to innovation, according to 85% of companies with annual revenue of \$500 million or more. Putting diversity at the forefront of hiring and promotion processes may sound simple on paper, but in practice it can be challenging. Organizations must remain relevant in the face of the rapidly diverse American population, which includes less than 50% white people by 2035. As of right moment, organizations are not successfully implementing varied approaches to foster increased creativity and innovation (Nemali, 2019).

### **Acknowledge bias in data**

Leaders who rely too much on statistics may think they can eradicate groupthink. If managers "cherry-pick" data to fit their expectations, they feel better about their choices and

hence see a need for improvement. Leaders must take care to avoid giving data scientists who are employed to gather and share information access to their "hope and dreams." Leaders ought to be able to provide advice independent of the information provided to them (Bruzzese, 2015).

#### **4. Reach out**

Focus groups are becoming a standard study method in the health and allied fields to obtain insight into challenging problems. There have been questions about a group's ability to openly express its thoughts, particularly when such group consists of people of varying social and political standing. Groupthink is one of the main drawbacks of the focus group methodology (MacDougall & Baum, 1997). An analysis between an Australian federal government and its communities was done, as well as an evaluation of a strategy to reduce groupthink and increase creativity in a focus group. It was suggested that using devil's advocates would prevent groups from coming to hasty decisions, would provide groups access to several alternative viewpoints, and would pose questions in a unique way.

It is essential to ask other co-workers from various departments to look at the data and offer comments. Unorthodox viewpoints must be explored and invited using a consensus-driven technique. Having a "*devil's advocate*" or a subgroup capable of bringing forth different viewpoints and solutions is always beneficial (Bruzzese, 2015; Quast, 2016).

## **2.6 Cultural differences and their effects on employee performance**

### **Organisational development and employee performance**

Several studies exploring the connection between positive organizational outcomes and cultural characteristics have established the critical importance of culture. A strong positive link between corporate ethics and culture is one key measure of business culture (Schein, 2010). It's possible that businesses need to be more than just task managers in order to develop and maintain a high level of employee loyalty. A company's operational culture has a major

impact on the success of its unit, according to Jofreh and Masoumi (2013), and there is compelling evidence linking organizational culture with performance in a positive way. The majority of Japanese businesses achieve success by developing an organizational culture and then having committed staff (Jofreh & Masoumi, 2013).

The influential work of Hofstede (1980) examines how cultural variations affect values connected to the workplace. It highlights aspects like power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individuality versus collectivism, and masculinity versus femininity that have a big impact on how employees act, think, and perform at work. Establishing a welcoming and encouraging work atmosphere requires an understanding of and ability to manage these cultural variations. This means that recognising and appreciating diverse cultural perspectives, organisations can foster effective communication, collaboration, and performance. This entails adapting leadership styles, communication approaches, and organizational practices to accommodate and leverage cultural differences. This means embracing cultural diversity, organisations can harness the strengths and unique perspectives of their employees, leading to enhanced employee engagement, satisfaction, and overall organisational success.

According to Earley and Mosakowski (2004) the notion of cultural intelligence (CQ) and its influence on workers' performance in multicultural settings. The term 'cultural intelligence' describes a person's capacity to adapt and function well in environments with varying cultural norms. In today's worldwide corporate environment, when employees frequently interact with co-workers, clients, and partners from diverse cultural backgrounds, the essay highlights the significance of CQ. Through cultivating and utilizing CQ, people can improve their capacity to recognize, comprehend, and negotiate cultural differences, which improves people's teamwork, communication, as well as efficiency in general. The writers offer perceptions and useful tactics, like exposure to many cultures, cultural training, and

awareness of cultural variances, to help organizations and people grow and improve their cultural intelligence. The highlights the role that cultural intelligence plays in promoting positive interactions and outcomes in diverse work environments.

According to Triandis, (1995) comprehensive exploration of the cultural dimensions of individualism and collectivism and their influence on individual behaviour and attitudes. The book delves into how these cultural differences can impact employee performance within organisations. Individualistic cultures prioritize personal goals, autonomy, and self-interest, while collectivistic cultures emphasize group cohesion, cooperation, and harmony. Understanding these cultural dimensions is crucial for effectively managing and motivating employees from diverse backgrounds. In order to establish a welcoming and encouraging work atmosphere that encourages employee engagement and performance, managers and other leaders must acknowledge and take into account these variances in culture. According Triandis (1995) is a useful tool for comprehending how culture influences employee attitudes and behaviours. It offers insights into how organizations can use cultural elements to maximize staff effectiveness and improve overall success.

Taras, Kirkman & Steel (2010) offers a comprehensive review of research spanning three decades on the cultural significance dimensions identified by Hofstede and how they affect organizational results, such as worker productivity. The study provides robust evidence of the substantial influence of cultural differences on employee behaviours and performance within organisations. It highlights the significance of considering cultural factors when managing a diverse workforce. The results underscore the necessity for organizations to identify and adjust to cultural variances in order to efficiently inspire, involve, and assist staff members with varying cultural origins. This meta-analysis highlights the significance of integrating cultural concerns into organizational methods and procedures in order to maximize

employee performance as well as overall organisational success, making it a useful tool for practitioners and scholars.

Effectively, organisational growth has particular elements that enhance sustainability. Increased productivity results in employee commitment since norms and values contribute to a better organisational culture. A strong educational environment is maintained by the development and effectiveness of culture, which forms the basis of organisational structures. Worker productivity increases in proportion to the strength of the organisational culture. Employee performance drives an organization's core operations. The awareness and understanding of the culture that enhances corporate behavior determines an employee's loyalty (Brooks, 2006).

## **2.7 Previous research on the association of organisational culture and employee performance**

Organisational culture is important for business success, according to previous studies (Denison & Spreitzer, 1991; Calori & Sarnin, 1991; Denison & Mishra, 1995; Fey & Denison, 2003; Denison & Haaland, 2004; LeeKim & Yu, 2004; Xenikou & Simosi, 2006; Sadri & Lees, 2011; Jofreh & Masoumi, 2013). However, there isn't a single, industry-accepted instrument for evaluating corporate culture. Other instruments have been used in earlier research to assess organizational culture across different countries. Sempene, Rieger, and Roodt (2002) employed the Organizational Culture Questionnaire (OCQ) as a tool to measure the impact of organisational culture on the job satisfaction of African employees. Egan, Yang, and Bartlett (2004) examined organisational culture at a US information technology company using an Organizational Learning Culture questionnaire.



The study conducted by Pawirosumarto, Sarjana, and Gunawan (2017) examined organizational culture, focusing on two distinct types: dominant culture and subculture. Kumar, Boesso, and Yao (2017) used the Stakeholders' Culture Framework to investigate cultural values, while Al-Sada, Al-Esmael, and Faisal (2017) used the Organizational Culture Instrument (OCI) to investigate organizational culture in Qatar implementation at five hundred US, Italian, and Japanese firms. Its elements were a philosophy of morality, moral the initial phase, stakeholder' rights, and stakeholder' relevance (Kumar, Boesso & Yao, 2017).

Schneider, et al., (2013) looked at the connection between performance, employee engagement, and organizational culture. The results underscored the noteworthy influence of the workplace atmosphere on staff engagement and the ensuing results in performance. The study found that employee engagement was higher in companies with cultures that valued employee growth, established clear standards, and promoted strong connections among staff members. In turn, it was discovered that performance outcomes were highly predicted by employee engagement. The performance of workers, productivity, and overall effectiveness were all greater among those who were more devoted to the company and more involved in their work. The findings underscore the need of fostering an affirmative and encouraging company culture that fosters robust connections, lucidity, and ongoing professional growth. Establishing and fostering such a culture allows organizations to improve employee engagement, which in turn boosts worker productivity and advances organisational objectives.

Hartnell et al. (2011) carried out a second study with the aim of investigating the connection between job performance and organizational culture across different nations. The study's findings indicated that workers' opinions of a helpful workplace culture improved their productivity. This emphasizes how important it is for employees' personal values to align with the principles that the company culture promotes. Workers are more inclined to feel driven, involved, and dedicated to their work when they believe that the culture of their company is

encouraging, inclusive, and consistent with their own values. Better job performance results from this alignment since it fosters a feeling of fulfilment and belonging. The study emphasises how crucial it is to build a solid company culture that aligns with the values of the workforce and offers a nurturing atmosphere where people can flourish and do their best work. Organizations can improve job performance, productivity, and overall effectiveness by cultivating a culture that is consistent with the values of their employees.

A study carried out by O'Reilly et al. (1991) looked at how organisational culture affected sales income in a large retail firm in order to determine how it related to employee performance. The results showed that there is a direct correlation between sales performance and corporate culture. The study found that stores that had a strong culture emphasizing customer service and sales excellence achieved higher levels of sales revenue compared to stores with weaker cultures. This suggests that when employees are immersed in a culture that prioritizes customer satisfaction and excellence in sales, they are more likely to demonstrate behaviours and attitudes that drive better sales performance. The study emphasises how crucial it is to create and maintain a solid corporate culture that is consistent with the objectives and core values of the company, especially in customer-focused businesses. This means that fostering a culture that emphasizes customer service and sales excellence, organisations can enhance employee performance and ultimately achieve higher levels of sales success.

In Yogyakarta, Indonesia, Wahyuningsih, et al. (2019) conducted research on organizational culture in a global hotel. Due to the fact that their employees and customers are not the same, international hotels need to establish a cultural niche in order to become more competitive in the market. The four components of Denison's (1984) organizational culture model—involvement, consistency, flexibility, and mission—are used in this investigation. 248 managers, supervisors, and staff members in various jobs at four-star hotels made up the

sample. According to the study, internal alignment measures such as worker empowerment initiatives, team orientation, skill training, and work value matching can help global hotel chains become more competitive. The findings of the study focus on the significance of uniformity in both internal and external dimensions for global company rivalry.

## **2.8 The Denison (1984) model of organisational culture**

Two key features that distinguish the Denison Model and Solutions from the competition are the research and the proven connection to organizational performance. Based on solid research concepts, the Denison Model provides firms with an easy-to-understand approach to performance enhancement. The effective implementation of culture solutions has helped many scenarios in hundreds of organizations worldwide, including strategic alignment, mergers and acquisitions, transformation and turnaround, and new leader transitions. [danisonconsulting.com](http://danisonconsulting.com) Sales growth, return on investment (ROI), return on equity (ROE), employee contentment, creativity, excellence, and customer pleasure are examples of business performance indicators, more are all tied to organizational culture according to the Denison Model.

After more than 25 years of research and application, Daniel R. Denison, Ph.D. and the Model and Culture Survey are the products (Denison, 1984: Denison, 1990: Denison, Janovics & Young, 2004). Denison, 1984: Denison Consulting, 2009) - The Denison Model and Survey has several important characteristics, such as a strong research foundation, proven reliability and validity, results that are benchmarked against an established database, statistical analysis connecting survey results to performance metrics that directly affect bottom lines, global applicability to a wide range of organizations across multiple industries, and translation, localization, and deployment in more than 50 languages.

A business might modify the Denison Organizational Culture Survey to meet its unique needs. Using scaled, open-ended, or drop-down menu questions allows the researcher to include more questions. The most common type of customization is adding demographic questions with drop-down options so that reports can be divided into different categories for your company. Denison is able to generate summaries based on demographic criteria that are categorized according to functional areas, locations, leadership levels, and other factors. More information can be made available and customized reports can be developed to suit the demands of a firm (Denison Consulting, 2009).

Denison et al. (1995) studied the relationship between employee performance, commitment, and satisfaction and company culture. Their research showed that employee loyalty, contentment, and performance were all greater in companies with strong and positive cultures that emphasized principles like teamwork, creativity, and customer service. This shows that workers are more likely to feel more satisfied with their work, show higher levels of commitment to the company, and perform at a higher level whenever they are a part of an environment that values cooperation, creative thinking, and customer service. The study emphasizes how crucial it is to develop an effective organizational culture that upholds and perpetuates these essential principles. Therefore, businesses can foster an atmosphere that inspires workers, raises job happiness, and eventually boosts output, all of which contribute to greater business success.

Based on characteristics that lead to a performance's gradual progress, Denison (1984) evaluated 34 American cultural performances. Culture and performance are interdependent due to the flawless alignment of organizational practices (Reichers & Schneider, 1990). Different business processes are the foundation of the operational complexity-based idea of culture. The long-term and financial success of more than 200 organizations has been assessed (Kotter &

Heskett, 1992). Since culture has been closely linked to success, several studies have been carried out to evaluate an organization's performance in light of its efforts.

Firstly, management by force alleged that culture and performance were interconnected. Second, a theoretical perspective has led to a more accurate description of the nature and scope of culture. It has been shown that there is a strong relationship between management techniques, performance, and culture management in order to effectively build culture. A company can obtain a competitive advantage through the development of its culture and strong associations. The identification of obstacles to performance evaluation is facilitated by the organizational culture (Rousseau, 1990). It has been demonstrated that there is a negative correlation between culture and employee performance because of its harmful effects on performance. Research methods and findings show that there was a belief that performance and culture were related (Lim, 1995).

Denison & Mishra (1995) developed a model of organizational culture and success using four aspects of organizational cultures: engagement, consistency, adaptability, and mission. These qualities are assessed in two linked studies, which are: A quantitative study provides an in-depth examination of CEO opinions on all four of these characteristics and their relationships to both subjective and objective measures of performance in a sample of 764 businesses. The first study uses qualitative case studies of five businesses to identify the traits and the details of how they relate to effectiveness.

The results confirmed the attributes' predictive power over behavior and provide an illustration of how qualitative and quantitative approaches can be combined to study corporate cultures. Since engagement and adaptability are indicators of flexibility, openness, and

responsiveness, they were two of the traits that were very good at predicting growth. The other two traits, consistency and mission, were found to be more reliable indicators of profitability. They are indicators of integration, direction, and vision. Each of the four attributes also significantly predicted other effectiveness measurements, such as overall performance, employee happiness, and quality (Denison & Mishra, 1995).

Furthermore, the findings demonstrated that, for the sample of organizations as a whole, all four traits were highly predictive of subjectively assessed effectiveness indicators.

However, for larger enterprises, they were more predictive of objective criteria like revenue growth and return on assets. This study argues that some aspects of culture may be useful performance and efficacy indicators and that culture may be studied as a crucial component of how businesses adapt. The study also shows how some areas of organizational culture research can be advanced by combining quantitative comparisons and theory-testing with qualitative case studies and inductive theory formulation (Denison & Mishra, 1995).

### **2.8.1 Critical Examination of the Denison (1984) Model**

Denison's Organizational Culture Model is still widely used by professionals and academics alike (DOCS). All cultures, however, have similar traits of involvement, consistency, adaptability, and mission, according to a meta-analysis and a thorough evaluation of publications from numerous Iranian institutions. There were some methodological errors in the Denison & Mishra (1995) paper. First off, the correlation test was not the best statistical technique available to compare the four organizational culture features. The five-point Likert scale is not a suitable tool for measuring the attributes of corporate cultures. There might be concerns regarding the relationship between organizational success and the four organizational culture traits based on these methodological errors (Asgari, Ebrahimi & Ramezan, 2016). The Denison approach has been criticized for relying too much on self-reported questionnaires to

gauge corporate culture. Self-report assessments, according to critics, are prone to flaws such as prevalent technique variance and social attraction bias.

Employees may feel inclined to provide responses that align with the desired or perceived organizational culture rather than accurately reflecting the actual culture present within the organization. This could lead to inflated or distorted results, thereby impacting the validity and accuracy of the model's findings. The reliance on self-reported surveys alone may overlook subtle nuances and discrepancies between the espoused culture and the enacted culture within an organization. To address this limitation, researchers and practitioners should consider incorporating multiple data sources and methods, such as observations and interviews, to have a more thorough and precise comprehension of organizational culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Thus, combining different approaches, a more robust and nuanced picture of organizational culture can be obtained, reducing the potential biases associated with self-report measures and enhancing the overall validity of the findings.

According to Schein (2010) states that opponents of the Denison model argue that the model's emphasis on four cultural characteristics—involvement, consistency, flexibility, and mission—may not adequately represent the diversity and complexity of corporate cultures. Such opponents argue that different industries and organizational contexts may require consideration of additional dimensions that are not adequately addressed by the model. Industries that prioritise creativity and innovation, can need a cultural component that places a special premium on taking risks and experimenting. Similarly, organisations operating in global or multicultural settings may need to account for cultural diversity and inclusion as important cultural dimensions. By overlooking these additional dimensions, the Denison model may limit its applicability and relevance in capturing the full spectrum of organizational cultures across different contexts and industries. To address this limitation, researchers and practitioners should consider incorporating a broader range of cultural dimensions or utilizing

complementary models that offer a more comprehensive framework for understanding organizational culture (Schein, 2010). By doing so, a more nuanced and contextually relevant understanding of organizational cultures can be achieved.

Gordon (2017) contended that the absence of a definite causal connection between culture and performance outcomes is a significant criticism brought up by opponents of the Denison model. Although the model suggests that certain cultural traits contribute to improved organizational performance, critics argue that attributing performance solely to culture overlooks the influence of various other factors. Leadership practices, strategic decisions, and external environmental factors, among others, also play significant roles in shaping organizational performance. These additional factors can interact with culture in complex ways, making it challenging to isolate the direct impact of culture on performance outcomes. It is crucial to take into account the interactions between cultural elements and other organizational dynamics in order to develop a more thorough knowledge of the relationship between culture and performance. Thus, the broader organizational context and accounting for the multifaceted nature of performance outcomes, researchers and practitioners can better discern the specific contributions of culture to organizational success (Gordon, 2017).

According to Maznevski, (2011) one notable criticism of the Denison model is its lack of explicit consideration for cultural diversity and inclusion within organizational culture. Opponents contend that it is critical to identify and comprehend how various cultural backgrounds and perspectives combine to influence the overall company culture in today's increasingly varied workplaces. The distinct experiences, attitudes, and viewpoints that come with cultural diversity can have a big impact on how a company operates. The Denison model may undervalue the influence of diversity and inclusion on the formation and upkeep of corporate culture since it does not specifically address these issues. It is crucial that both academics and practitioners include diversity and inclusion as essential elements of the larger



cultural environment in order to overcome this restriction. To develop a more inclusiveness and culturally sensitive organizational culture, this entails appreciating the importance of varied viewpoints, encouraging inclusive practices, and actively handling cultural differences (Maznevski, 2011). This means that considering cultural diversity and inclusion, organisations can harness the benefits of different perspectives and experiences to create more robust and adaptive cultures that reflect the realities of today's diverse workforce.

### **2.8.2 Leadership communication styles on the performance of employees**

Numerous viewpoints have been employed in organizational studies and other disciplines to examine the complex subject of leadership (Baxter, 2010). One field of study that is inextricably linked to leadership studies is communication studies. Since its establishment, leadership and communication have frequently been associated with each other (Ruben & Gigliotti, 2016). For example, studies revealed that between 60% and 70% of a CEO's or leader's time was spent on communication-related responsibilities like meetings, negotiations, gatherings of constituents, receiving grievances or goals, supervising staff, and handling corporate catastrophes. Hackman & Johnson's (2013) assertion that 'Leadership, first and foremost, is a communication-based activity' is acceptable.

It has been demonstrated that leaders that use participatory communication, including staff members in decision-making procedures and soliciting their opinions, improve worker performance. Employees are empowered by participatory communication because it gives them a voice and allows them to influence the course and results of their job. They are more dedicated to their work and the business as a whole when they feel invested and owned by the organization. Participatory communication has been shown to improve employee performance by encouraging innovative thinking, creativity, and solving issues (Eisenbeiss et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2005). When employees feel their opinions are valued and have the opportunity

to contribute their ideas, they become more motivated, engaged, and invested in their work. This participatory approach encourages collaboration, fosters a positive work climate, and helps businesses to take use of the wide range of skills and information held by its workers, which eventually improves performance.

There is a strong correlation between communication and leadership. "Leadership and communication are crucial" (Unsar, 2014). According to Rost (1993), Northouse (2013), and Martin (2006), "both fields support one another". Consequently, communication and leadership are the fields of study within twin studies (Touris & Jackson, 2008). In communication studies, the social phenomena of leadership is investigated.

The importance of communication is one of the long-standing issues in leadership studies. In essence, communication and leadership are the same. The perspective on communication in leadership is always changing due to changes in research, paradigms, and the dynamics of rapidly developing economies and societies. The industrial era's leadership communication is not the same as that of the post-industrial era. Philosophical traditions, theoretical thinking orientations, and empirical discoveries have led to the development of a plethora of theories, models, and views on leadership communication (Malik, 2019).

The way a leader communicates directly reflects the way they lead. One of the attitudes and abilities required of a leader is the capacity for communication with subordinates. In addition, because men and women have distinct mind-sets, interactions between male and female subordinates and leaders exhibit distinct behaviours and responses. It's clear that men and women communicate somewhat differently, and this distinction goes beyond how they try to sway each other's leadership philosophies (Barker & Zifcak, 1999). But another way to

gauge a leader's performance is to look at how well they inspire, modify behaviour, inspire trust, and influence their team members.

According to Fine (2009) there are conflicting findings about how men and women communicate in leadership positions,). The kind of transformational-transactional leadership that stresses interaction between superiors and subordinates is closely linked to a leader's communication style. Under transactional leadership, the leader serves as the primary axis while attending to the basic requirements of subordinates. Consequently, the existing communication channel is mostly used to convey commands from superiors to subordinates. The employer is required to provide incentives and sanctions based on the work output of the employees. Consequently, leaders can influence followers to behave in a manner consistent with their expectations by using transactional leadership communication.

Kong and Xu's (2017) carried a study to examine the relationship between moral voice, performance, and ethical leadership . According to the research, moral leadership and ethical communication by leaders have a favorable impact on worker performance. This is accomplished through helping staff members develop a sense of moral efficacy, or the conviction that they can act morally and have a beneficial influence. Morally concerned workers are encouraged to express their feelings and an ethical work environment is fostered by ethical leaders. The study also emphasizes the controlling impact of leader-follower value congruence, implying that the beneficial effects of ethical leadership on worker performance are amplified when leaders and employees have similar values. The results underscore the significance of moral leadership and its dissemination in elevating worker performance by means of the growth of moral efficacy and moral conduct within the company.

Compassion, active listening, and giving feedback are all examples of supportive communication techniques that have been repeatedly demonstrated to have a favorable effect

on employee performance by researchers. Encouragement through communication fosters a climate that promotes empathy and trust, which improves worker happiness and well-being. Eisenbeiss, et al., (2008) found that supportive communication behaviours from leaders contribute to higher levels of employee performance. Additionally, Wayne, Shore and Liden. (1997) showed that when managers communicate in a helpful manner, staff members are more likely to feel appreciated and supported, which raises motivation and engagement levels. In the end, greater performance results result from the existence of supportive communication, which creates a healthy work atmosphere where employees have confidence discussing their ideas, problems, and challenges.

Dulebohn et al. (2012) carried out a meta-analysis in order to examine the elements that contribute to leader-member exchange (LMX) and the effects that follow, such as the influence of communication between leaders' styles. The study finds that helpful communication and worker performance are positively correlated. Leaders that communicate in an open, sincere, and encouraging manner with their staff members typically build stronger bonds with them that are marked by respect, trust, and cooperation. Consequently, these constructive connections lead to improved work results for staff members. The results underscore the importance of constructive communication in cultivating favourable connections between leaders and members and augmenting staff productivity in corporate settings.

Numerous studies have consistently demonstrated the favorable effects transformational leadership, which is typified by visionary and inspirational communication, has on worker performance. Transformational leaders are able to excite and inspire their staff by clearly stating their vision, establishing high standards, and highlighting the significance of both individual and group objectives. The implementation of this leadership method cultivates a feeling of purpose, zeal, and dedication among staff members, leading to increased levels of job satisfaction and engagement. Meta-analytic research by Bass and Riggio (2006) and Judge

and Piccolo (2004) offer strong evidence for the relationship between enhanced worker efficiency and transformative leadership. When transformational leaders are able to successfully convey their vision, beliefs, and goals, a favourable work environment that fosters high levels of performance, innovation, and organizational success.

A study carried out in Zimbabwe by Chavunduka et al. (2024) revealed that most parastatals function appallingly. They may have performed below expectations because of the leadership ideologies these parastatals' administrators used. In the transportation sector, the study aimed to investigate the relationship between employee performance and leadership style. The 178 respondents at the selected parastatals—34 managers and 144 raters/subordinates—were asked about their leadership styles using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). Afterwards, an analysis of the data was conducted by reviewing the respondents' employee performance evaluation records. The data was examined using SPSS version 20, a statistical program. It was discovered that transactional and transformational leadership philosophies constituted the two most widely applied in this sector. Both leadership ideologies demonstrated a favourable link with employee performance; however, the transactional leadership style showed a far stronger correlation. This implies that the leadership style of parastatals plays a crucial role in their performance.

Malik (2019) carried out research with the intention of illustrating the intimate connection between leadership and communication. A literature review was the method employed in this investigation. The study utilised journals and books on leadership communication were among the data sources. As thought has grown, several advancements in techniques, research, ideas, and methodologies have given rise to three leadership communication models: the relational model, the critical model, and the transmission model. Three different communication models listed below form the basis of the findings:

### **2.8.3 Transmission model**

Curlee and Gordon (2014) claim that this concept first appeared as the industrial period progressed. Individuals who had previously resided in rural areas were moving to cities in search of new industrial occupations. Making money was their primary goal. In addition, the way that people live in society has started to become more opportunistic (Jacques, 1996). Conflicts with managers resulted from the large workforce in the industrial sector (Curlee & Gordon, 2014). The notion that leaders must possess greater skill and charisma than their subordinates developed as a result. It was intended for leaders to rule over their subordinates. In the end, this circumstance marked the start of a phase in which leadership communication attempted to use a psychological strategy.

Speaking is seen as a crucial instrument in this case to enhance the efficacy of leadership (Malik, 2019). Carey (1989) focused on the historical development of communication models and sheds light on the prominence of the transmission model during the industrial era. Carey highlights the societal changes brought about by industrialization and urbanization. The transmission model, according to Carey, gained prominence during this period as it emphasized the flow of information from urban centers to the rural population. It reflected the top-down dissemination of information, with the industrial sector and urban areas acting as the primary sources of communication while rural areas were positioned as the receivers. The study of Carey (1989) sheds important light on the historical background and significance of the transmission model and shows how important it is to comprehend communication dynamics in the industrial period and the accompanying societal changes. Leadership is described as the endeavor to persuade others to fulfill business objectives. "A leader without the power to convince will have no followers" (Soder, 2001). The primary focus of the research is on leaders who are perceived as change agents.

Consequently, people are given more weight as the primary reflection by the study analysis unit. 'The majority of people would agree that administrators are persons who direct, inspire, motivate, or guide others. In a business or area, these are the men and women who have the power to influence others. They pique the curiosity of others. They influence people to follow them or work toward objectives they specify. They oversee things (Barret, 2006). Innis, (1950) a renowned communication scholar, delves into the influence of communication technologies on societies in his book "Empire and Communications." Innis (1950) provides valuable insights into the historical context of communication and its impact on human civilization. Innis highlights the transmission model as a dominant framework during the industrial era. He places a strong emphasis on how communication technologies—like print and electronic media—help to shape social systems and the exchange of information. According to Innis (1950), the transmission model – which places a strong focus on the spread of knowledge from major urban centers to the peripheries—was essential to the development of industry and the construction of empires. The work of Innis (1950) makes a substantial addition to our knowledge of the industrial era dominance of the transmission model and its profound consequences for power dynamics and societal evolution.

For instance, the views of classical management, which emphasize individual-centered communication, also promote a psychological viewpoint. "Some fields, including management, likely to support the psychological model of leadership that emphasizes individualized communication and formal position power. According to Mayfield and Mayfield, (2017) this model, communication between leaders is a linear process (sender-message-recipient). A classic communication model states that messages are conveyed by senders to those receiving them, who then translate and interpret them before using them as the foundation for their own activities. Communication is a tool used by leaders to command and

persuade followers. According to Malik (2019) a leader's responsibilities include inspiring and supervising others, as well as disseminating the organization's mission and policies.

How well a leader can communicate is a key indicator of leadership effectiveness. A leader needs to be proficient in a variety of abilities, including excellent speech, negotiating, presentation, reading, writing, and listening. The leadership performance is more successful the greater the communication abilities are. This model's research paradigm is grounded in positivism, which prioritizes a quantitative approach and believes in empirical truth. The law of cause and effect is the suggested explanation. Theories derived from the practices and research of classical leadership include "the great man theory," trait theory, behavioral theory, contingency theory, and transformational theory, which are all applied in this thesis. All these ideas place a strong emphasis on the fact that leaders are the key players in altering subordinates' social and professional behavior (Malik, 2019).

#### **2.8.4 Relational model**

According to Uhl-Bien (2006), the phrase "relational" refers to someone who "likes people and feeds on relationship. Subject-object relationships continue to be the dominant relationship type. Contrarily, social construction views a relational as an inter-subjective or subject-to-subject link. Relationship leadership is defined as "a social influence process concept in which new values, attitudes, approaches, behaviors, and ideologies are formed and produced" in addition to emergent coordination, which refers to a shifting social order (Uhl-Bien, 2006). As per Uhl-Bien's perspective, "leadership" can be understood as a reciprocal influence relationship between a leader and a follower, with the primary goal of accomplishing mutual goals (Uhl- Bien, 2006). The theory of coordinated management of meaning (CMM), first presented by Pearce and Cronen in 1980, has its roots in the relational model of communication. Pearce and Cronen (1980) highlighted that communication is an instance of shared creating significance and the co-construction of social realities rather than just the



transfer of information. They contend that people constantly coordinate and negotiate meaning in their interactions, and that these processes have an impact on how people see the world and their interpersonal relationships. The relational model of communication, as presented through CMM, highlights the significance of context, culture, and shared narratives in shaping communication dynamics. According to Pearce and Cronen (1980) research offers significant perspectives on the relational aspect of communication, highlighting the importance of comprehending the process by which meaning is jointly constructed and its influence on social reality.

Numerous parties disagree with the transmission model because it prioritizes individual leaders excessively. Without taking into account followers or subordinates, as well as some facets of the corporate culture around it, the model is one-way. Contrarily, when people discuss leadership, they often refer to a wide range of factors, including organizational cultures, leadership styles, followers, and communication systems. The leader is thus just one of several variables. The post-industrial era has led to an emerging post-industrial paradigm that emphasizes relational and process-based leadership (Marten, 2006; Northouse, 2013; Rost, 1993 in Ziegler and DeGrosky, 2007). This paradigm highlights the growing intersection between leadership and communication studies. Baxter and Barbara (1996) focused on the intricacies of interpersonal communication using the framework of relational dialectics theory. The authors propose that relationships are inherently complex and are characterized by ongoing tensions and contradictions. According to their theory, individuals experience dialectical tensions such as autonomy vs. connection, openness vs. closedness, and predictability vs. novelty within their relationships. Baxter and Montgomery emphasize that these tensions are normal and inevitable in relationships, requiring active negotiation and dialogue to maintain relational satisfaction. They argue that communication plays a crucial role in managing these dialectical tensions, as individuals engage in ongoing conversations and dialogue to navigate

the complexities of their relationships. Baxter and Montgomery (1996) work sheds light on the relational nature of communication, highlighting the need for ongoing negotiation and dialogue to address the inherent tensions and contradictions present in interpersonal relationships.

With the emergence of the concept of constructivism paradigm, communicating with leadership is no longer seen as a one-sided persuasive strategy. Subordinates and superiors communicate with one another. In this model, dialogue between leaders and followers constitutes communication. As a result of socially constructed reality, leaders emerge (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017). The process of leadership communication is viewed as a two-way, dynamic interaction. The importance of social relationships in leadership has been highlighted by the research's change from prioritizing people to social interactions. Followers and leaders both influence each other. The perspective of relational frameworks is process-oriented as opposed to cause-and-effect law oriented. Qualitative research is an approach that is widely applied in this concept. The leadership communication macro theory is apparent (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017; Malik, 2019).

### **2.8.5 Distortion/ manipulation model**

Drawing from the neo-Marxist and Marxist critical traditions, the third model views predominance in communication among leaders. A connection of power and authority between management and employees is established and maintained via the use of leadership (Miller, 2012). According to this strategy, leadership entails hegemony, power, and control. Leaders are viewed as manipulators who try to "subdue" followers to follow their discernible passions, the profitability of the firm, or the best interests of shareholders (Miller, 2012).

According to Gray and Willmott (2005), this paradigm represents a 'rise of managerialism related with the ascendancy of the New Right; and the crisis of western (and notably North American) management in the face of globalized capitalism.' The fundamental

tenets of critical theory are numerous. First, critical theory's organizational and social framework is a process that exacerbates power disparities. Second, particular socioeconomic groups and community groups may be oppressed and alienated as a result of power imbalances. Third, the goal of critical theory is to expose covert inequity brought about by oppressive groups' leadership. Organizational structures and procedures are not weak since there the workers must battle to achieve emancipation (Miller, 2012).

The dominance of authority creates communication manipulation and distortion from leaders to followers, starting at the moment of communication. According to Gross (2010), manipulation is about deception. According to Jacob, et al., (1996) the Information Manipulation Theory (IMT) as a distortion of 'honest' way to convey information, misleading messages take on several features. According to Deceitful messages are characterized as 'deviation from what can be considered logical and collaborative communication. To begin with, a fabrication is a comprised message or false or deceptive information. Second, a message that conceals facts and truths reveals lies by doing so. To interpret truths or facts in a way that serves one's interests is distortion. Fourth, when a claim is contrasted with other facts and opinions, equivocation amounts to evasion. Deceptive communication happens because of the following: (1) the desire to belong to a particular group or to maintain one's self-worth; (2) the need to satisfy one's own needs; (3) the desire to protect oneself financially and socially in challenging circumstances; and (4) the need to gain greater authority over oneself. In an attempt to keep their pride intact, reduce conflict in their relationships, and improve communication, people may also engage in misleading communication (Kelley, 2015). In 1984 Habermas coined the phrase 'methodically distorted information' for the first time in 1984. Distorting communication occurs when 'probably one of those involved is misleading their own affairs respecting the simple fact that he or she is truly performing strategically'. The distorted speech

is systematically a fraud against oneself if manipulation is coupled to fraud against other parties (Habermas, 1984; Jacob et. al., 1996).

Yakuda (1986) asserts that Mueller later developed Habermas' theory regarding communication distortion within the framework of communication in politics. According to Mueller the Diffused communication is 'all kinds of restricted and prejudicial interaction that by their very existence prevent an exhaustive debate of challenges, issues, and concepts that have public relevance. Mueller went one step farther and separated the three types of damaged communications. The Nazi regime and communist governments, for example, publicly alter language meanings and terminology to imprint their political ideals in the minds of their populace. This type of communication is known as directed communication. The second way to set boundaries on communication is to stop talking. Third, restricted communication refers to a regime's monopolization of communication activities (Yakuda, 1986).

The relational approach is more interpersonal, but the essential model utilizes an examination of the structural unit rather than the individual analysis used by the linear model, which is responsible for the power imbalance in organizations and social life. Critical model studies concentrate on unequal communication networks rather than leaders or leaders and followers. Dialectic leadership is produced by critical approaches in leadership communication that are theoretically based on feminism theory. Both quantitative and qualitative approaches can be done using this critical model research methodology. The research approach, on the other hand, focuses more on empowering subordinates to superiors (Malik, 2019).

## **2.9 The influence of Western culture on Africa**

Africa's sociocultural development has in some way sparked both growth and crises. Most of the time, the crises that are created are unpleasant at their worst, hostile, and lead to war. The different wars that many portions of Africa experienced when the white man arrived

were expressive enough to demonstrate this. Africans received formal education and cultural traditions were banned. According to Sibani, (2014) the goal of culture is to meet the needs of the physical and social world. Values and virtues are important and fundamental aspects of society. Each the community's rate of cultural development is based on its degree of ethical value or virtue understanding. Similarly, Ntarangwi (2004) researched on the influence of Western anthropology on Africa. Ntarangwi critically examines the power dynamics and knowledge production processes involved in Western anthropological studies of African cultures. He sheds light on how Western cultural frameworks and preconceptions shape the understanding and representation of African societies. Ntarangwi (2004) challenges the traditional Western gaze and offers an alternative perspective by providing an African ethnography of American anthropology. Through his work, he highlights the need for a more inclusive and balanced approach to studying and representing African cultures, one that recognizes the agency and perspectives of African scholars and communities. Ntarangwi (2004) book contributes to the ongoing discourse on the influence of Western culture, particularly in the field of anthropology, and calls for a more nuanced and self-reflective approach to cross-cultural knowledge production.

According to Sibani, (2014) either positive and negative consequences of Western cultural influence on African culture can be found with a careful analysis. As a result, European civilization has largely supplanted native African culture. Whether by design or by accident, Africans have assiduously absorbed Western culture to the point where it is now essentially an integral part of their existence (Sibani, 2014). According to Rodee (1983), monoculture economies, widespread nepotism, rising prices, high joblessness, congested cities, and destitute communities are some of the socioeconomic problems in Africa brought on by Western influence. African culture is still enduring interactions and conflicts, which leads to a society with a healthier quality of life and a better social structure. However, given the status of African

culture today, particularly in Nigeria, tribalism, poor management, theft, bribery, and additional vices have lessened the influence of cultural on the social order. (Rodee, 1983). This African social order needs a watchdog in the form of culture. This is a glaring example of why modern birth control methods, such as abortion, have been rejected by many societies despite the arduous efforts of those who support them to accord them the highest respect (Sibani, 2014). This agrees with a study by Asante (1990) investigated on the concept of Afrocentricity and its significance in challenging the dominance of Western culture in Africa. Asante argues for the reclamation of African history, culture, and knowledge as a means of empowering African societies. He emphasizes the need to center African perspectives and experiences in the production of knowledge, countering the Eurocentric biases that have historically shaped scholarly discourses. Asante (2004) promotes an Afrocentric strategy that acknowledges the richness and significance of African history and customs with the goal of giving African people their sense of dignity and autonomy back. This means that highlighting the importance of Afrocentricity, Asante (2004) contributes to the ongoing discourse on decolonization and cultural empowerment, calling for a paradigm shift that acknowledges and celebrates African contributions to global knowledge and civilization.

## **2.10 Problems and prospects of the Western culture influence in Africa**

### **2.10.1 Deviation from traditional politics**

African ontology holds that legitimacy and power belonged to the complete community, just as its essential energies do. Every member possesses a specific level of power. In traditional African politics, an assortment of people are bestowed with the capacity to rule, and sometimes a worthy leader is chosen to act on behalf of the community at large (Arowolo, 2010; Chulu, 2015). People are given the authority by the community to act on behalf of the deceased as well as the living. They become symbols of oneness and agents of community phenomenological harmony maintenance by doing this. The political climate in Africa is currently an issue

because of a cultural shift, making modern African politicians no longer perceive themselves as leaders with the authority to make decisions (Okon, 2016). People now bulldoze, battle, and kill their way into positions of authority. This demonstrates a departure from and a rejection of values, particularly the sanctity of human life. African leaders should uphold high standards and be respected, and traditional leadership structures that are more hereditary in character need to be reviewed. To rein in the excesses, the democratic component of leadership should be embraced (Sibani, 2014; Abugre, 2018).

Mignolo, (2002) focused on the geopolitical dynamics of knowledge production and the influence of Western cultural dominance on non-Western societies, including Africa. Mignolo (2002) emphasizes the inherent power imbalances within the Western-centric knowledge system and how it shapes the understanding and representation of non-Western cultures, including African epistemologies. He clarifies the manner in which alternate perspectives on the world are frequently marginalised and undervalued by the impact of Western culture. The paper emphasizes how this knowledge hierarchy, which upholds a Eurocentric worldview, poses difficulties for the complex and varied epistemologies of African cultures. According to Mignolo (2004) work calls for a more broad and just orientation to knowledge creation that takes into account and collaborates with the philosophical perspectives of African cultures. It also adds to the ongoing debate on decolonization and the need to acknowledge and value non-Western knowledge systems.

Zezeza (2003) offers a critical analysis of the impact of Western cultural globalization on Africa. Zezeza (2004) examines the challenges that arise from cultural homogenization, economic dependency, and marginalization as a result of this process. He highlights how Western cultural influences often overshadow and marginalize indigenous African cultures, leading to a loss of cultural diversity and identity. Moreover, the article addresses the economic implications of globalization, with Africa often occupying a subordinate position in the global

economic order. Despite these challenges, Zeleza (2004) also presents prospects for Africa to reclaim agency and reshape its cultural and economic trajectories. He emphasizes the importance of embracing and revitalizing African cultural traditions and values while actively participating in the global arena on its own terms. Zeleza's work contributes to the discourse on African agency and the need for a more balanced and inclusive approach to globalization that respects the cultural and economic aspirations of African societies.

Nyamnjoh (2005) critically examined the influence of Western media on Africa and its impact on democracy and cultural belonging. Nyamnjoh (2005) highlights the challenges posed by Western media dominance, including the perpetuation of stereotypes and the marginalization of African voices and narratives. He explores how the Western-centric media often shapes the representation and understanding of Africa, reinforcing power imbalances and limiting the diversity of perspectives. However, the book also explores the prospects for Africa to counter this influence by developing its own media platforms and narratives. Nyamnjoh (2005) emphasizes the importance of African agency in shaping the media landscape, promoting diverse voices, and reclaiming cultural belonging. By addressing the challenges and prospects of Africa's media landscape, the book offers insights into the complex dynamics between Western media influence and the aspirations of African societies for democratic representation and cultural self-determination.

### **2.10.2 The challenge of worship**

Due to the influence of Western culture in the modern age, African culture has suffered considerably. The conventional forms of worship have undergone a significant transformation. Band-set and English songs have mostly replaced the native or traditional drums that give the people's music such significance and meaning. Africans should return to their origins and bring back the locally made drums and songs that characterize their unique worship style. The



acrobatic dance of the Africans is far more intricate than the devotion of the West, which has gradually turned African worshippers into tall, iroko trees (Alloy, 2003).

Gyekye (1996) focused the exploration of African cultural values and the influence of Western culture on traditional African societies. Specifically, Gyekye (1996) examined how Western religious practices, such as Christianity and Islam, have impacted traditional African religious beliefs and practices. The book addresses the challenges that arise from the encounter between these two belief systems and the potential erosion of African spiritual traditions. Gyekye (1996) further emphasized the significance of acknowledging and protecting African cultural values in the face of Western cultural dominance. He advocates for the preservation and recognition of African spiritual heritage as an essential aspect of maintaining cultural identity and autonomy in the midst of external influences. Through his work, Gyekye contributes to the discourse on the problems associated with the Western cultural influence in Africa, particularly in relation to religious worship, and underscores the importance of safeguarding African cultural values.

### **2.10.3 Communication barrier**

Due to cultural shifts, this approach facilitates the understanding and dissemination of ideas among individuals or groups (Venkatesh, 2012). Nowadays, the majority of Nigerians speak English instead of their mother tongue, which makes it difficult for young people to communicate with those who have moved to cities, some of whom reside in rural areas, and older men and women. A proportionate degradation of customary society may be experienced by most communities as native African societies persist in achieving this. Africans must educate their children while undergoing acculturation to prevent the local language from being fully replaced by Western languages. According to Sibani, (2014) the governing body should ensure that, in educational institutions, instruction is provided primarily in the mother tongues or the language of the surrounding community, with English being added subsequently.

Brenzinger (2007), offers a comprehensive examination of language endangerment and the factors that contribute to language loss on a global scale. While the book covers diverse regions, it provides valuable perspectives and insights that can be applied to understanding the communication barrier arising from Western cultural influence in Africa. The volume explores the influence of dominant cultures and languages, shedding light on how the dominance of Western languages can marginalize and endanger indigenous African languages. By examining the broader context of language endangerment, the book underscores the urgency of addressing the communication challenges faced by African communities in the wake of Western cultural influence. It emphasizes the need for linguistic and cultural preservation efforts to maintain the richness and diversity of Africa's linguistic heritage.

Awoyale and Ogunnaike (2015) the difficulties in communicating that Nigerians experience due to the predominance of Western languages, especially English. The writers emphasize the effects of obstacles to language on social integration, governance, and education by concentrating on different societal sectors. The essay highlights how good communication and understanding can be hampered by an appreciation for English as the major language of instruction and communication, particularly for those whose first language is not English. This language barrier in education can lead to difficulties in accessing knowledge and opportunities, perpetuating inequalities within Nigerian society. Furthermore, the article discusses the implications of language barriers for governance and social integration, as effective communication is essential for political participation and social cohesion. Work by Awoyale and Ogunnaike (2015) emphasizes the need of identifying and resolving the communication issues brought on by Western languages' predominance in Nigeria and emphasizes the necessity of diverse policies regarding languages that value and promote indigenous languages while ensuring effective communication across various sectors of society.

Ndongko and Abongdia (2018) investigated on the language policy landscape of Cameroon and its impact on communication dynamics within the country's multilingual society. The authors shed light on the challenges encountered by indigenous languages and the consequences of linguistic marginalization. The study highlights how language policies, which often prioritize dominant languages such as French and English, can lead to the marginalization of indigenous languages and hinder effective communication among different linguistic communities. This linguistic imbalance can result in social, educational, and economic disparities, as well as hinder cultural preservation and intercultural understanding. The study by Ndongko and Abongdia (2018) further highlights the need of encompassing language policies that value languages of indigenous people and acknowledge their worth, promoting social cohesion and communications within Cameroon's diverse linguistic community.

Aikhenvald (2003) explores the intricate dynamics of language contact and its broader consequences. Despite its Amazonian concentration, the book offers insightful information about how dominant languages affect indigenous languages more broadly. Aikhenvald (2003) investigated into the phenomenon of language shift, where indigenous languages are gradually supplanted by more dominant languages, and the challenges faced by minority languages in maintaining their vitality and functionality. By examining the experiences in Amazonia, the book sheds light on the broader implications of language contact, including the erosion of linguistic diversity and the potential loss of cultural heritage. According to Aikhenvald (2003) Native American languages are an essential component of the rich fabric of human diversity in culture and language.

#### **2.10.4 High rate of divorce**

A young person does not notify his or her parents who to marry in the traditional Igbo culture. The boy's and the man's parents had every right to start looking for their son's wife and to give their daughter to anyone they pleased. The next step was for him to wait until they

informed him of the location and timing of the wedding (Ubani, 2007). It is not in the hands of the man to conduct the investigation, locate the money, or find other things. Investigating here entails determining whether the girl's people can have children without incident, looking for signs of widespread infidelity, theft, and early demise, among other things (Ubani, 2007). Men now find their marriages independently and without their parents' permission due to societal shift. They make decisions about where and when the marriage will last rather than researching potential partners or learning more about them. Because of this, the two parties frequently experience regret, desertion, and even conflict. In Africa, marriage is a time when the living and the dead congregate. No single person can stand alone in this conglomeration. According to Subani (2014) to stop the high number of divorce cases in Africa, it is imperative that young people getting married pay attention to their parents, particularly if they feel threatened.

#### **2.10.5 The education and technology challenges**

African oral tradition and indigenous technological development were slowed down by Westernism and modern technology. To be fair, though, Western technology has significantly enhanced Africans' quality of life in several sectors, including clothing, medicine, communication, transportation, agriculture, and sports. However, we shouldn't keep luxuriating in the technological triumphs of the West and neglect to advance our own (Arinze (2006). According to Arinze (2006) growth may be encouraged if we respect the paintings, sculptures, and other works of art created by local artists just for their own sake.

#### **2.11 Influence of cross-cultural leadership on organisational culture: qualitative research in South Africa**

According to Booysen (2001) white men controlled society before to 1994 and maintained positions of political, economic, and social authority, despite the fact that black people made up a vast majority of the population. This explains why a lot of South African organizations are dominated by the Eurocentric (white) or Western style of management

approaches. Black managers demonstrated an Afrocentric style of management. The Ubuntu philosophy is valued by afrocentric leadership. Ubuntu promotes community morality and personhood (Booyesen, 2001) Ubuntu encourages collaboration and support, tolerance and understanding, cooperation and reaching consensus, kindness and sharing, and unity (Khoza, 1994; Mbigi, 1997). Ubuntu encourages unity and group compliance, which are the opposite of individualism and competitive conduct in the workplace. According to Feldman and Msibi, (2014) it can be argued that the directive leadership approach and the Eurocentric management philosophy are more compatible, while the participatory and servant leadership philosophies are combined in Afrocentric leadership.

South Africa's corporate culture is very centered on Europe (Khoza, 1994). Instead of relying on agreement, the dynamics of power have an impact on making choices in a Eurocentric manner, which encourages antagonistic interactions between managers and employees, customers and suppliers, and blacks and whites (Khoza, 1994). According to Madi (1995), American and European influences can be seen in South African corporate culture. Afrocentric (black) management practices emerged in South African organisations after 1994 because of the country's leadership styles (Binedell, 1992). According to Booyesen, (2001) due to country's history of colonisation, the Anglo American method of leadership is predominantly present in South Africa. Even after programs to advance equality across ethnic groups were heavily pushed when apartheid ended, white men continue to be overrepresented in management, particularly in the financial industry.

South Africa's corporate culture is very centered on Europe (Khoza, 1994). Instead than relying on agreement, The structure of power have an impact on making choices in a Eurocentric manner which encourages antagonistic interactions between managers and employees, customers and suppliers, and blacks and whites (Khoza, 1994). According to Madi (1995), American and European influences can be seen in South African corporate culture.

Afrocentric (black) management practices emerged in South African organisations after 1994 as a result of the country's leadership styles (Binedell, 1992). In South Africa, the legacy of colonialism has led to a dominance of Anglo American leadership styles. After apartheid ended, there was a strong push for initiatives to promote equality across ethnic groups, although white men are still overrepresented in management, particularly in the financial sector (Feldman & Msibi, 2014).

In the study by Feldman & Msibi (2014), a qualitative research approach was employed to help the researcher get fresh perspective on organizational culture, create novel concepts, and identify challenges associated with trying to comprehend organizational culture. When addressing organizational culture, qualitative research methods are preferable. He also suggested that to fully comprehend culture, one should think about combining fieldwork and observational methods (Schein, 1995).

The research conducted by Ngambi and Khoza (2016) focused into how organisational culture is affected by leadership actions in a multinational company in South Africa. The study investigates the connection between cross-cultural leadership and the creation and upkeep of organizational culture with a particular emphasis on South Africa. The study offers important insights into how leadership actions might affect organizational culture in a varied and diverse country like South Africa by looking at how styles of leadership shape cultural norms, values, and procedures inside the business. Within the context of the South African business environment, this study provides particular insights into the complexities of cross-cultural leadership and its effects on culture in organizations.

The sample technique of choice was convenient sampling. The study's target demographic has been identified as AMSA Newcastle employees, specifically the supervisors of the steelmaking department. Due to time and resource limitations, additional operating units such as AMSA

Pretoria, Vereeniging, Vanderbijlpark, and Saldhana Works were not considered. A sample of 32 respondents was selected from among the 115 individuals who indicated interest in taking part in the research study and they were classified as middle management staff members of Arcelormittal South Africa (AMSA). The sample size for this was 28%. Middle managers and skilled workers with direct reports were included in the population of interest because they are the categories who are most likely to experience cross-cultural influence because of diverse leadership.

The Plant and Human Resource Manager was contacted in a letter asking for approval to carry out the research. Each respondent also received a note outlining the purpose of the study, which is to partially complete the requirements for the UNISA School of Business Leadership's Master in Business Leadership MBL program.

The primary data for this investigation were collected with two different tools. The one made by the researcher in order to gather the demographic data required for this specific investigation. The second tool is the GLOBE survey questionnaire, which collects data on eight cultural characteristics and contains questions relevant to the corporate environment. The poll was designed using a 5-point Likert scale and included closed-ended questions.

According to Bailey (1987), closed-ended questions are straightforward to answer and aid in preventing misunderstandings. The survey that was designed for the study consists of 36 multiple-choice questions with negative as well as positive items. It is necessary for participants to firmly agree, agree, disagree, and dispute vehemently. Completing the questionnaire quickly is made possible by the neutrality option.

In order to establish reliability and assess the degree of consistency of the results following multiple rounds of testing, the Globe questionnaire was designed to elicit two or more replies for each cultural attribute (House & Shamir, 1993). It can be presumed that the

Globe survey covers the topic being investigated suitably and that the questions it asks are relevant to the topic. Researchers who conduct qualitative investigations shouldn't worry too much about validity and reliability because their aim is to gain a complete understanding of the phenomena rather than using statistical tools for theory testing as in quantitative investigations (Wood, 1996).

## **2.12 Summary of the findings according to the cultural dimensions**

1. Uncertainty Avoidance: AMSA management demonstrated a greater degree of this strategy.
2. Gender Egalitarianism: Although the results showed a balance in preferences between the sexes, 92% of AMSA management is still too male. This suggests a significant level of gender disparity.
3. Future Orientation: A high degree of future orientation was preferred, according to AMSA.
4. Power Distance: The AMSA stated that minimal power distance is preferred.
5. Human Orientation: A higher degree of human orientation was preferred, according to AMSA.
6. Collectivism vs. Individualism: AMSA management expressed a preference for collectivism.
7. Performance orientation: AMSA had a strong level of this trait.

The results demonstrated how the management structure of AMSA has become more inclusive and ethnically varied. In the literature review, Booysen (2001) made the connection between the black ethnic group and collectivism as well as a strong human orientation. The results also indicated that AMSA was more inclined toward humanist principles and collectivism. This implies that the organizational culture of AMSA, which is believed to be deeply embedded in the Eurocentric management style, is actually being modified by various ethnic groups. The



desire of managerial positions for a high level of human orientation and collectivism points to a change in management style from Eurocentric to Afrocentric, accommodating of various cultural paradigms. Finding a balance between the two management philosophies to achieve optimal performance is a challenge faced by South African businesses. The results corroborated Booysen's (2001) assertion that the proportion of white managers in middle management (58%) remains higher than that of managers from other ethnic groupings, including Africans (15%), Indians (27%) and Coloreds (0%).

According to the previously stated, Indian appointments (27%) for leadership are happening more frequently than Black appointments (15%) and Colored appointments (0%). The remark needs to be taken seriously since it has the potential to worsen discontent among black people, who make up the majority in South Africa with 79.4% of the population as opposed to 2.6% of Indians. It's also crucial to figure out why there is hardly any representation of people of colour in AMSA's management structures. Records kept by the company showed that White people in top management still had a disproportionate amount of power. Since top and middle managers use distinct styles of leadership, there may be cultural conflicts between them. One can claim that top managers continue to adopt a directive, Eurocentric style while middle managers use a balanced, Afrocentric and Eurocentric approach. For AMSA, gender diversity continues to be a significant concern, and interventions are needed to identify the root causes preventing advancement in this area (Feldman & Msibi, 2014). It was determined that during the past five years, the performance and effectiveness of the (research) organization had been significantly impacted by a knowledge of and ability to manage diversity. More specifically, diversity management made space for appreciation, creativity, and innovation, which offered the organisations a competitive edge in a variety of sectors (Mazibuko & Govender, 2017). Employee engagement, which assumes employee ownership of change by making it happen and is driven by employees who give answers to problems, by assisting one

another, and who are pleased to be a part of the organization, supports the positive impact created by diverse recruiting and retention. In the grand scheme of things, it influences corporate performance, growth, cost management, and the capacity to draw in, keep, and engage top personnel by creating a positive and welcoming culture (Mazibuko & Govender, 2017).

### **Influence of cross-cultural leadership on organizational culture: A United Kingdom analysis**

Migration, internationalization, and the relative ease of movement of recent EU members have brought people from many cultural backgrounds together and nations to the UK in quest of better employment prospects, increasing the country's diversity and fostering a more multiethnic labor market. More than ever, England is a multiracial and multicultural society, and this has affected not only the laws and economy of the nation, but also organizational structures. Further, part-time work is growing, the population with jobs is aging overall, and women now make up over half of the workforce in the UK (Taylor & Earl, 2016). Due to alterations to workforce demographics and the entry of other cultures into the job market, an organizational-level multicultural workforce has formed. As a result, firms have had to modify their policies to promote diversity and equality at work. This required businesses to make sure that their policies and procedures reflect that all employees should receive the same treatment and opportunity regardless of their race, age, gender, sexual orientation, handicap, culture, or any other factor that might lead to discrimination. Changes in the economy have affected organizations, causing them to become more dispersed entities with altered organizational structures. Additionally, organizations must comply with the law in order to accommodate the social and egalitarian case of diversity. Groups of people are assembled within organizations' teams to work together toward common aims and objectives, hence broadening the workforce's demographic. Multicultural teams are produced as a result. Owing to the constantly evolving

challenges posed by cultural diversity, organizations continue to strive to adhere to these legal and economic advancements. Consequently, it is become harder for organizations to meet their primary goals of luring, retaining, and efficiently utilizing individuals with the appropriate cultural abilities. This is particularly relevant in cases where an identity shift at work is caused by changes in demographics like ethnicity and gender (Cox, 2001).

Business Bliss Consultants FZE (2018) carried out research to examine how workforce effectiveness is impacted by cultural diversity. A mixed-approaches approach was employed in this study, combining primary and secondary research methods. For the quantitative research, managers and non-managerial organizations completed an established online questionnaire. This approach was selected because it allows for the completion of a large number of surveys with minimal disruption to busy work schedules. Employees were able to finish duties even while utilizing mobile devices because they could access their emails when they weren't in the office. Moreover, it allows for voiced remarks, which may be difficult for certain persons to write down. Therefore, completing forms in person enhances the sense of anonymity because there is no physical evidence that the forms have been filled out Business Bliss Consultants FZE, 2018).

The literature review was employed to draw from previously conducted organizational behavior research. The majority of scholarly and commercial journals were available online through various databases. Information about cross-cultural diversity in the workplace was also gathered through online books accessible through the university library. A few informal staff interviews were conducted to get their opinions on the team's cultural diversity, the organization's culture, and both. This made it possible to poll a few areas in the questionnaire. Over the course of six months, informal observations were made regarding staff attitudes and diversity awareness at work. Although not formally documented, this influenced the online

questionnaire's question selection to be more pertinent to this staff group (Business Bliss Consultants FZE, 2018).

The Camden neighborhood of London's health industry was the focus. Business Bliss Consultants FZE, (2018) carried a study on employees of a tertiary hospital's central administration were the study's target population. The target group for the study was the complete department of staff, and four weeks were dedicated to doing primary research. The main topics of research are worker demographics, views on organizational diversity, assessments of the effect of cultural variety on performance, and perceptions of cultural diversity in the workplace. The study contrasted the demographic characteristics of non-management and managerial personnel, including gender, age, and length of time spent working as a team achieving departmental goals.

According to the study, 50 out of 98 employees who were sent an electronic link to the survey ended up completing it. Multiple-choice answers were provided in structured surveys that were used to conduct the research. This method was chosen because it is simple to duplicate and allows for results to be compared to polls conducted in the past. Because the respondents and the researcher were not in close physical contact, responses might be more candid and anonymous (Business Bliss Consultants FZE, 2018). According to the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) (2009), data can be analysed to find connections between various variables when structure and detachment are both attained (CIPD, 2009).

Because it allows respondents to complete the survey in the manner of their choice and on their own schedule, the design was deemed sufficient. The link made it possible to finish it from any location with access to the internet, and hard copy printing provided an additional choice. The results of this could also be quantitatively investigated. This was accomplished by

employing a survey website that made it simple to gather and store responses from numerous respondents at once (Business Bliss Consultants, 2018).

The findings are as follows:

1. Overall, 54% of respondents came from a black background, including those from the Caribbean, Africa, and other black backgrounds. While just 12% of respondents—12% of British White respondents and 12% of all other white respondents—came from a white background. The distribution results directly from the sampling strategy where equal number of participants from South Africa and the United Kingdom were solicited. The South African sub-sample mostly consists of South Africans from the majority Black population of the country, while the United Kingdom sub-sample is ethnically diverse, but as one might expect, a good majority of the individuals identified as British. Therefore, this is the desired outcome of the sampling strategy in order to recruit culturally distinct groups for comparison. With regard to hypothesis testing, the proposed comparisons are to be made on the basis of the within-country and between-country analysis of the key variables, not on the ethnic composition of the total sample.
2. A large number of respondents said they could collaborate, be innovative and imaginative, speak clearly, and exchange information with colleagues from various backgrounds in their department when asked how cultural diversity affected performance. But most denied that they considered like teammates working with colleagues from various cultural backgrounds.
3. Most respondents disagreed that inclusion and diversity are at the core of organizational strategy and that management effectively portrays a varied staff. However, the majority of respondents said that STAR's management ensures that diversity is managed to

provide favourable outcomes and that it promotes a work climate that provides equitable access to information and employment opportunities.

4. Most responses believed that the positives of cultural diversity in the workforce include greater communications with a diversity of customer populations, both present and possibility, as well as the establishment of a robust internal talent pool. But it also encourages a lack of productivity and the emergence of negative emotions, which makes transformation difficult. Conversely, the least amount of respondents claimed that one benefit of organizational cultural diversity is that it helps people overcome shock from another culture.
5. The majority of respondents agreed that having a diverse team boosts worker productivity and gives patients more options for services. Furthermore, the majority of respondents strongly agree that having a diverse workforce enhances an organization's reputation both nationally and internationally. However, the majority of respondents disagreed that having a diverse workforce improves productivity within an organization, provides a diversity of employee viewpoints and situations, and fosters flexibility.
6. With regard to the benefits of cultural variety, most respondents agreed that: an organization that encourages diversity, staff engagement, and an understanding of responsibility is essential for managing a successful, diverse, and engaging workplace; a company that maintains in changing methods of hiring will ensure administration of a wide-ranging and happy workplace. These are the organizations that will guarantee organizational success when it comes to cultural diversity. Additionally, most respondents firmly agreed that a company's reputation is enhanced by an organization that supports a diverse workforce (Business Bliss Consultants FZE, 2018).

Due to concerns like multicultural disputes, managing collaboration and oversight issues, sustaining rich communication, and building and sustaining unity among teams, cultural diversity frequently inhibits this potential from being achieved. Being multicultural can lead to innate talents that can aid with key issues in multicultural teams, such as handling cross-cultural borders and disagreements (CIPD, 2014; CIPD, 2015).

## **2.13 Databases and Search Engines**

### **Library databases used for this research**

Online library databases – Academic search, APA PsycINFO, JSTOR, Science Direct and Proquest

### **Search engines used for this research**

Google

### **Key search terms**

Organisational communication

Leadership styles

Leadership communication style

Employee performance

Cross-cultural communication theory

Cultural differences

### **Types of literature and sources searched for this research**

Peer- reviewed, empirical studies, review articles, systematic review articles, meta-analysis, theses and dissertations, technical reports, government reports, conference papers, evaluation reports.

## **2.14 Theoretical Framework**

Women being on top of organisation hierarchies has become more prominent in today's business world as cross-cultural communication to be carried out needs heavy collaboration by women from different cultures (United Nations, 2021). The goal of this research is to learn more about and comprehend the impact of communication style influence employees working under women leaders from different backgrounds i.e., Western and African cultures. The theories surrounding intercultural interaction between managers and staff members in the workplace are covered in this thesis.

### **1. Geert Hofstede's (1980) dimensions of national culture**

Geert Hofstede has been considered by many (almost all) in intercultural research as the pioneer in the industry field. His work is universally recognised and emulated in the cross-cultural helm. Based on differences in cross-cultural countries, Hofstede adopted the idea of culture in the field of cross-culture. (Wu, Taylor & Chen, 2001; Sent & Kroese, 2020). Testing out hypotheses and achieving relative cross-cultural country analyses has been used by social scientists who have used Hofstede's research to carry out experimental studies on culture's role. (Kaasa, Vadi & Varblane, 2014; Beugelsdijk, Maseland & Hoorn, 2015; Davis & Williamson, 2016).

Hofstede (1980) conducted his research with the use of seventy-two countries which has eighty– eight thousand employees in IBM. Four core dimensions were produced based on value and beliefs differences pertaining to work goals. According to Hofstede (1980), the four fundamental dimensions are uncertainty avoidance, masculine against femininity, high power distance versus low power distance, and individuality versus collectivism. The extent or degree to which a nation relates to is defined as one of the aspects. The masculinity-femininity dimension was renamed as the 'taboo dimension' by Hofstede in 1998. According to this term, the masculinity-femininity dimension is more of a cultural trait than an individual one



(Hofstede, 2011). The benefits of Hofstede's model provide a basic understanding where it may be used by women leaders in multinational organisations to weigh out the communication style (s) used for employee performance. In addition, this framework relates to this study by shedding light on differential ways women's society have reacted to the COVID-19 pandemic.

Similar research in the past have used the Hofstede (1980) model. Hofstede's model is modified by a cross-cultural study that compares the cultural norms and standards of female managers in a non-profit organization in Taiwan and the United States of America. The study uses leadership frameworks developed by Bass and Avolio (1997). Interviews as well as surveys were used to verify the validity of the results, and understanding the cultural norms and expected female leadership styles in non-profit organizations advances understanding of cross-cultural leadership and organizational communication (Chao & Ha, 2008).

Another study conducted by Cansu Unal (2017) shows how the Turkish female leaders predicted leadership styles were moulded by Turkish culture. With the grounded theory drawing upon the relationship between Turkish female leaders and Turkish cultural values, interviews were carried out by ten women leaders with diverse backgrounds. With the use of Geert Hofstede's (1980) model, findings showed that although leadership behaviours of female leaders had no considerable influence on Islamic principles, uncertainty avoidance, collectivism and high-power distance significantly influence the leadership philosophies of Turkish women leaders. (Unal, 2017).

## **2. Trompenaars and Hampden- Turner's (1997) seven dimensions of culture**

This framework takes its basis on the Hofstede (1980) framework by recognising how the values of business are viewed socially, historically, and politically – the model is used to comprehend cultural differences (Trompenaars & Hampden- Turner (1997). Trompenaars & Hampden – Turner (1997) identified seven dimensions: affective versus neutral cultures,

universalism versus particularism, specific versus diffuse cultures, achievement versus ascription cultures, individualism versus communitarianism, time as sequence versus time as synchronization, and inner-directed versus outer-directed. The values and interests of forty-six thousand managers from forty nations were examined. The findings indicated that individuals across cultures are often predicted and specific whereby people who grew up in the same culture learned similar norms and values to the point where values are deep-seated like a cultural mark in one's mind (Moran, Harris & Moran, 2007; Dudovskiy, 2013).

Trompenaars and Hampden Turner (1997) have proposed that the way individuals identify with problem-solving accentuates the differences across national cultures. Three categories exist: interpersonal interactions (five cultural distinctions are identified), attitudes toward time (different civilizations perceive time differently with respect to the past, present, and future), and attitudes toward the environment (how individuals determine their fate) (Hampden- Turner, 1997)

### **3. GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness) (2004) nine dimensions of culture**

Although the Hofstede framework dates back to the 1960s, a more contemporary attempt to comprehend cultural elements emerged with the GLOBE project in the 1990s. GLOBE is a long-term study designed to find out how culture affects human norms, leadership, organizational performance, and societal economic effectiveness (Rohm, 2010). According to the GLOBE team, leadership is the ability to inspire, encourage, and persuade people to take part in an organization's success (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman & Gupta, 2004). The implicit leadership theory (Lord & Maher, 1991) concept has been prolonged to the national culture level where the hypothesis was different society members have different expectations from their leaders inclined by their cultural values (Agrawal & Rook, 2014). Survey responses

from 17,000 managers in 951 organizations throughout 62 societies worldwide served as the basis for the questionnaire, interviews, focus groups, and content analyses (House et al., 2004). Nine cultural aspects are categorized into two categories: ideals and practices. They include avoidance, power distance, gender egalitarianism, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, future orientation, performance orientation, and compassionate orientation.

Many leadership behaviours are similar across societies, pointing out that no matter the cultural difference or society in which a leader is from, there are specific leadership behaviours that are viewed as effective. The GLOBE project was significant in indicating how cultures distinguish effective and ineffective leadership, which is helpful to leaders in facilitating intercultural communications (House et al., 2004; Laskovaia, Shirokova & Morris, 2017). Values and practices do not always match but practices and values both differentiate between societies and organisations (House et al., 2004)

Because of the findings indicated in similar studies, the hypotheses formulated for this study are:

**H1:** *There is a statistically significant relationship between the national culture (South Africa vs. United Kingdom) of women leaders and their predominant communication styles.*

**H2:** *Women leaders in South Africa demonstrate a statistically significant higher use of an authoritarian communication style, while women leaders in the United Kingdom demonstrate a statistically significant higher use of a participatory communication style.*

**H3:** *There is a statistically significant positive relationship between an authoritarian communication style and employee performance (Turton, 2015).*

**H4:** *There is a statistically significant positive relationship between a participatory communication style and employee performance (Sagie, 2009; Turton, 2015).*

### **Comparison, differences and criticism of the Hofstede (1980) model, Trompenaars and Hampden Turner (1997) model and the GLOBE (2004) model**

According to Parboteeah, et al., (2008), the Social Science Citation Index lists Hofstede's culture variables as one of the most frequently cited in all of studies on culture. This is followed by research on culture from GLOBE, Trompenaars, and Hampden Turner (Tung & Verbeke, 2010; Willman, 2014). Each of the three models occasionally and inconsistently discuss potential causal influences that they may have on national culture. McSweeney (2009) suggests that this is a token gesture because the models only discuss non-cultural aspects without including them into their three-dimensional representations. Among the three cultural models, The GLOBE team exhibits the strongest correlation between culture and leadership, emphasizing the significance of leadership in relation to both organization and culture. (McSweeney, 2009).

GLOBE and Hofstede have generalised the inconsistencies between other studies and their own studies where more research is needed to be conducted for validation (Oyserman, Coon & Kemmelmeier, 2002a). GLOBE and Trompenaars and Hampden- Turner's research has often been overshadowed because to Hofstede's work's prominence and the amount of time that numerous scholars have spent refuting his idea

The cultural theory by Denison (1984) is considered different to the three theories dealing with dimensions as Denison (1984) replaces dimensions with traits. The Denison model traits are mission, adaptability, involvement and consistency. The characteristics quantify the actions motivated by these presumptions and ideas that shape the culture of a company (Denison, 1984).

#### **4. Technology Acceptance Model (TAM)**

The Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) provides an excellent frame for looking at the role of employees in the leader-communication relationship. TAM was created to explain how users adopt information systems and is based on the idea that an individual's intention to behave in a specific way when using a technology is determined by two assessments: (1) Perceived Usefulness (PU)-the extent to which a person believes using the system will enhance job performance and (2) Perceived Ease of Use (PEU)-the extent to which a person believes using the system will be effort-free (Davis, 1989). Since this study was concerned with the impact of a women leader's communication style, the communication style can be considered a “social technology” or a managerial act that the employee must “use” and “interface” with to complete their tasks. For example, an employee will only experience a participative communication style if they believe that is useful in meeting their goals (e.g., it offers them some genuine influence) and effort-free (e.g., the leader creates a space for conversation that is accessible and psychologically safe). Cross-cultural differences become very important here, as cultural institutions in South Africa and the UK will play a huge role in determining what is useful/effortlessly negotiating the communication interaction. This will also explain different levels of influence on employee performance and behaviour.

### **5. Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT)**

The Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT), which is an extension of Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) and ultimately more expansive and more useful for this study, was introduced by Venkatesh et al. (2003) as an integrated model or framework commissioned to synthesize previous research. The UTAUT model identifies four central user acceptance determinants: Performance Expectancy (the extent to which using technology will facilitate performance improvement), Effort Expectancy (the degree of comfort related to technology usage), Social Influence (the extent to which an individual perceives that important others believe they should use the technology), and Facilitating Conditions (the extent to which

an individual believes there is an organisation and technological infrastructure in place to properly use the technology).

UTAUT adds one additional factor or construct when positing the influence of the four determinants, which was the factors all act as moderators in the model (for example, the factors of gender, age, experience, and voluntariness of use will moderate the impact of the four UTAUT determinants). UTAUT provides an effective cross-cultural analysis of leadership communication, whereby it facilitates an analysis of the importance of the context in either the UK or South Africa as a strong moderator for how employees receive a leader's communication. For example, Social Influence (i.e. peer pressure to do what the leader does) or Facilitating Conditions (to the extent organizational policies enabled or restricted one style of leader communication) were likely differ considerable between contexts, and UTAUT provides a theoretical rationale for the differences observed in employee performance in this study.

## **6. Human Capital Theory**

Human Capital Theory was a significant theoretical framework used to understand the connection between leadership communication and employee performance of study participants. For the purpose of this study, Human Capital Theory (HCT) was employed as an underlying lens. The Human Capital Theory was developed by economists such as Becker (1962) and Schultz (1961). Human Capital Theory assumes that the knowledge, skills, and abilities of individual contributors are a capital people can invest in and grow to earn monetary returns. Furthermore, those returns can be monetary returns for the individual and organization (Sweetland, 1996). In regard to this research, the human capital that a leader possesses includes their communication skills. Communication may be considered a skill to develop rather than a

trait or gift of a leader. Communication skills can be developed through training, experience and learning inter-culturally, meaning that they are an investment in human capital.

This study posited that women leaders who think deliberately and develop multiple communication styles, flexible in whether they prefer participatory or authoritarian styles, are developing their human capital. This human capital can be paid forward to improve employee performance, thereby establishing a return on that investment to the organization. A participatory style, for example, can pay back to employees' own human capital during employees' work by building skills and autonomy and increasing engagement and productivity. Whereas, an authoritative style, if used strategically, can pay back with efficiency toward organization strategic goals during specific cultural contexts found in the implementation countries of South Africa and the UK. Thus, Human Capital Theory does more than provide a lens for examining communication preferences. This lens examined the returns that can be realised from investments made into leadership communication capital to achieve performance dividends in different cultures.

### **2.15 Organisational communication**

The Latin word *Commnuicare* means 'to share': the act of sharing feelings, ideas, feelings, and emotions between a minimum of two people (Rodgers, 2012; Grimsley, 2021). Without meaning, communication may not happen as communication embodies the process of meaning creation: how people form meaning culturally, socially, and psychologically. Communication has been described as an unavoidable system where it may be formal or informal with a two-way process through signs, messages, and other products (Martinez & Nosnik, 1998; Gonzalez and Mitjans, 1999). The communication process is supported by two main actors which are the sender and receiver where the process is continuously passed from the sender and receiver (Daniel, 2016).

Communication has changed throughout the years and is still evolving (Rogers, 2012; Grimsley, 2021). The basic tasks of management which are controlling, leading, organizing, and planning are what make effective communication important for leaders (Juneja, 2015). Favourable working settings where both managers and employees are aware of one another's behaviour are best within organisations. During each of the interactions, two cases may occur. The first one is gaining satisfaction because of the interaction. Secondly, the interactions may bring on frustrations due to incompetence and insensitivity (Barnlund, 2008).

One of the building blocks for successful organisations is communication that is effective where all employees and managers are aware of people's behaviours that provide an efficient working setting (Barnlund, 2008). A means of disseminating information, such as the company's goals, is known as communication within an organization plans used to achieve those goals, policies, rules & regulations, and other trivial details (Bhasin, 2017).

The two types of organisational communication are formal and informal communication.

#### 1. Formal communication

Formal communication is established by the chain of command where people in an organisation follow official rules, regulations, and policies (Price, 1997; Kumar, 2021). Formal communication is the official flow of communication between employees and leaders (Bhasin, 2017). The advantages of formal communication are coordination and integration, an increase in overall efficiency, maintenance and discipline, development of competencies, an increase in reliability and validity and rapid accomplishment of tasks (Lunenburg, 2010).

With a top-down construction, meaning that higher-ranking employees often use it to send various messages and instructions to lower-level individuals, formal communication follows the chain of command



The aim of the research conducted by Unal (2017) was to understand the benefits of formal communication application found in a hierarchical organisational structure. Qualitative methods (observations, focus group discussions, literature review and literature reviews) were used for the research. The methods explore communication organisation theories that are applicable to organisational structures. The participants were 109 employees from the accounting department from the state-owned companies in the province of West Sumatra. The results indicated that organisational communication had an undesirable effect on work pressure. The results did not show work pressure and organisational commitment as mediating variables toward organisational communication performance. Dale (1952) states that organisational communication is a planning process that includes maintenance and development of an employment pattern meaning hierarchical organisations are not related to organisation continuity itself (Dale, 1952). A hierarchical structure for formal communication poses a weakness that members of the organisation may experience delays of an issue which may require urgent attention as well as the messages being distorted by going through so many stops until it gets to the end receiver (Pathak, 2008; Tiwari, 2022).

## 2. Informal communication

According to Koch and Denner (2022) informal communication is defined as non-formal communication and is referred to as the social glue of the workplace. The key to business success is effective communication where there are times when one informal communication type is better than the other (Sands, 2021). The methods of informal communication are discussions, instant messaging, phone calls and conversations (Koch and Denner, 2022).

Knowledge has been identified as being primarily an exchange through informal communication links whose constructions greatly differ from an organisational culture and workflows (Krackhardt & Hanson, 1993). These frameworks have an impact on workgroups

and people to produce an extraordinary performance since they swiftly establish how knowledge can be conveyed throughout a network (Krackhardt & Hanson, 1993).

The four types of informal communication are single strand (when a person communicates with one person and that person communicates with another person), gossip chain (everyone is talking to each other informally in a group conversation), probability chain (the same message is randomly shared by everyone) and cluster chain (a person shares information with a set of nominated individuals and each of those individuals share the information with others). The four types of communication describe how information flows amongst employees outside of a formal and professional meeting situation (Chiaburu & Harrison, (2008).

The relationships and patterns of informal communication networks are critical to the operation of business infrastructure, the success of knowledge-centric organizations, and their transformation. A lack of IT and semi-automated supported methods are well known by most executives (Schoder & Fischbach, 2013). The study conducted by Schoder and Fischbach (2013) focused on informal social networks within businesses. A corporate framework has demonstrated the value of Social Network Analysis (SNA), which has roots in psychology, organizational theory, sociology, and anthropology (Borgatti & Foster 2003: Gronau, Voigt & Proske, 2011). Research on this subject has focused on how network architectures affect an individual's, group's, and organization's performance (Cross & Cummings, 2004: Moran, 2005; Raz & Gloor, 2007).

Electronic communications classification has advanced significantly in the last few years. Personal communication is still hard to map out, especially since manual procedures are so incredibly prone to error (Fischbach et al., 2008). Social Badges, a microcomputer equipped with multiple sensors that record the private conversations and engagement configuration of the workers wearing them, were utilized in an ensemble with Kreissparkasse Cologne (KSK).

The study used Social Network Analysis (SNA) for the executives' easier use to assess and manage informal communication networks (Fischbach et al. (2008).

Among Germany's biggest Sparkasse banks is the KSK. For the study, 79 employees from seven KSK locations were selected. To map out the communication network between the facilities, the email connections network was watched for seven months, from April to October of 2006. There were roughly 16 million emails in the data set. Social Badges were used to monitor one of the a total of seven business units' private messaging networks. Twenty-two members of this unit wore Social Badges every day for a month, during which time they indicated that they were willing to respond to questions on their satisfaction and productivity (Fischbach et al. 2008). The results show the email network as a useful informal communications network (Fischbach et al., 2008).

In support of informal communication networks use, Fay (2011) conducted a study that observed specific informal communication messages of teleworkers. An understanding of informal communication networks helps leaders to create and encourage opportunities for a specific type of interaction to do with informal communication (Veiga, 2008: Fay, 2011). According to the findings, there has been a most recent empirical connection established between the company's dedication of high-intensity teleworkers and various forms of informal engagement (Fay & Kline, 2011).

### **2.15.1 Types of communication styles for leaders and their impact on employee performance**

Adapting communication style according to the situation is one of the most important skills leaders need to possess. With the use of the right communication styles, a leader can help their team reach peak performance (Prossack, 2018). Leadership styles are closely associated with leaders' communication styles, but the style used doesn't control the leaders'

communication style conclusively. The six leadership communication styles are listening, coaching, teaching, directing, advising and motivating (Prossack, 2018).

### 1. Listening

Listening ought to be the primary mode of communication for any leader. The leaders should lean a little more toward listening when it comes to the speaking-to-listening ratio. In order to understand the difficulties and annoyances faced by their teams, leaders must also be aware of what others are not saying (Prossack, 2018). Sincere listeners appreciate and make an effort to learn about the opinions, ideas, and feedback of their staff (Wooll, 2021). As per Haywood (2020), a leader needs to practice being fully present when listening to someone and putting aside any potential judgments. This is a talent that takes a lot of practice.

### 2. Coaching

For employees to build a wide range of skills, coaching is effective. Coaching is a combination of advising and teaching where an employee outline is laid out for an employee to reach their desired goals. Evaluating the amount of time for issue resolution determines whether a leader needs to coach or teach. If time is an issue, a leader needs to teach, if time is not an issue, a leader needs to coach. The best way to accomplish tasks is to use both teaching and coaching (Prossack, 2018). When they see best suited, coaching communication leaders offer words of support. When an employee seeks help, a leader may intervene. Coaching communication is all about displaying to people that they can reach their goals on their own and leaders make it clear that they are available at each step of the task process (Human Resources Development Quarterly, 2020).

### 3. Teaching

Teaching effectively relies on three main factors: explanation of how something works, steps that need to be taken and the benefits of knowing the topic. Many leaders forget to explain why a topic is beneficial and this may cause distrust and confusion among employees. To learn a team effectively a leader must communicate the factors in order (Human Resources Development Quarterly, 2020). When a leader observes someone having difficulty, it is the best time to teach (Prossack, 2018).

### 4. Directing

To make a task move forward, a leader's directing makes steps specific to a team. Laying out an action plan or a steps outline provides direction for a task to be completed. This communication style is useful in job fields that do not need employees to be creative in their tasks when they complete the same tasks recurrently (Human Resources Development Quarterly, 2020: Haywood, 2020). The difference between dictating and directing is in the delivery. If providing direction does not give results, dictating may be used carefully (Prossack, 2018).

### 5. Advising

A leader clearing a specific situation or clearing a misunderstanding is advising. A leader advising is providing a solution when employees come to a leader with a challenge or questions (Prossack, 2018). This is because a leader is trusted as the go-to person to amend any obstacle presented to the team (Human Resources Development Quarterly, 2020). The ideal technique for a leader to counsel his or her staff is to have an aerial perspective of the situation (Prossack, 2018).

## 6. Motivation

As a leader, knowing one's team is beneficial especially in being knowledgeable of the preferences of the team in terms of how they want to be motivated by the leader. Some teams may prefer to be hyped up by their leader and other teams prefer a less eager method of motivation. One of the best ways to motivate a team is by a leader working beside their team to overcome a challenge (Prossack, 2018). The disadvantage of motivational communication is that it can come across as condescending when not applied properly. "*Cheering*" a team on in less demanding circumstances can give the impression that a leader is out of touch rather than understanding the problem that presents itself (Human Resources Development Quarterly, 2020).

## 7. Delegating

Some researchers talk of delegating being the seventh communication style for leaders (Haywood, 2020; Human Resources Development Quarterly, 2020; Wooll, 2021). Transfer of responsibility is given to the employees by the leader with the delegating communication style. This style is used when there is a clear goal to achieve or a project to complete. Delegation is described as the hands-off of all communication styles although employees would need support and guidance (Wooll, 2021).

### 2.15.2 Past research on communication leadership style and employee performance

Most research before 2014 focused on Western culture on gender although countries in the East such as Malaysia, Japan, India and Pakistan contributed a majority share in the world's economy (Memon, 2014). A new model based on leadership style and employee performance was established with gender and culture and culture play mediating roles and communication being the moderating variable. According to Memon (2014) the results showed that the effects

of a leader's style on worker performance varied depending on gender and culture, but communication was one of the key components of a successful management approach.

Osabiya and Ikenga, (2015) carried a study and looked at how a leader's style affected how well their team members performed. The study set out to demonstrate how the relationship between worker productivity and performance served as a metaphor for the aims and purposes of the company. The results showed that leadership style and worker performance were significantly correlated (Osabiya & Ikenga, 2015).

Adongo (2019) examined the impact of leadership styles on employee performance using a case study of Infocom Limited in Kampala, Uganda. It was commonly known that Infocom Limited displayed unsuitable channels for consultation and contact, had a high volume of consumer complaints in its customer support reports, and occasionally took a long time to fix fundamental network problems. The objectives of the research were to examine the effects of a style of autocracy in leadership on worker performance, figure out the effects of a democratic leadership style on employee productivity, and find the effects of a laissez-faire leadership style on employee efficiency at Infocom Limited (Adongo, 2019).

The ninety respondents consisted of heads of departments and team leaders because of their representative status in relation to the study. A questionnaire with closed ended questions was used to facilitate an organised and all-inclusive capture of data. The interview guide had open ended questions that were used to deliver a rich understanding about leadership styles and employee performance. Observation was also used as data collection method (Adongo, 2019).

According to Adongo (2019) the results, 59.3% of the workers were full-time employees. Employee performance has been found to be impacted by authoritarian leadership styles, with the majority of 53.78% of respondents thought that managers communicated with staff members in an authoritative and controlling manner. Less than 50% of respondents agreed

that managers failed to show up when it was necessary to handle agent issues and would instead leave an employee to complete tasks on their own without supervision, while over 66.49% of respondents agreed that the manager encouraged them to pursue training and engaged them in decision-making (Adongo, 2019).

### **2.15.3 Cross-cultural communication in organisations**

The transfer of details, whether verbal or nonverbal, between individuals from diverse cultural backgrounds is referred to as interaction between cultures. (Bhasin, 2017). Large multinational companies started making waves during the decade of 1980s when companies wanted a position in the global marketplace. Working in teams with people from different cultures suddenly became the norm (Odine, 2018). In modern business era, it is important to maintain effective cross-cultural communication (Odine, 2018). Managers are supposed to be well versed as cross-cultural communicators in today's global world (Hunter, 1993).

For every firm to function, effective workplace communication is essential. Diverse paradigms have proposed theories regarding the potential impact of gender on communication inside the workplace. The concepts of gender-difference and gender-sameness are two fundamental notions of gendered communication (Barker 1999). The gender-sameness theory contends that men and women actually communicate quite similarly most of the time. Gender shouldn't be the only factor used to explain the rare occasions when they speak differently (Nadler 1987). According to Smythe and Meyer (1994) there have been no statistically significant differences found in "gender-linked language" according to studies supporting this theory.

All individuals possess a style of communication that indicates the culture he or she belongs to. Most people often discover a need for communication across cultures during their working hours (Bhasin, 2017). This claim is supported whereby individuals need to consider



that cultures have different norms and different rules especially in the workplace because communication affects the consequence of business interactions (Aneas & Sandin, 2009).

Due to the ever-changing professional world, it is of important to garner an understanding of how culture affects the communication of people in organisations (Aneas & Sandin, 2009; Stobierski, 2019). A current study from 90 countries consisted of employees where eighty-nine percent of them worked in virtual teams occasionally. These teams rely on online tools to communicate meaning there are huge consequences if there is even the smallest miscommunication (Aneas & Sandin, 2009).

#### **2.15.4 Cross-cultural communication theories**

##### **1. Tompkins and Cheney's (1985) organizational control theory**

This theory is an extension of the Weberian theory, and this control theory is applicable to organisations who have moved passed the (rigid) bureaucratic method but do not hold totally of an unstructured hierarchical level.

Tompkins and Cheney (1985) define organisational control as physical and verbal actions that are created to overcome resistance and exercise authority over others where it is a fundamental communicative action. Davis & Stout (1992) note how Tompkins and Cheney's (1985) theory puts strong reliance on managers who may choose to rely on commands such as communicating instructions to subordinates to aid in controlling them. For subordinates to achieve a process where the end results in a collective objective, some degree of self-sufficiency must be instilled and put in place by managers. Organisational control processes are studied by communication researchers, and this is to comprehend how organisational leaders are convincing their employees to work in harmony by understanding the sources and methods/ policies that are applied to achieve that goal. (Tompkins & Cheney 1985).

Four types of control in the Tompkins and Cheney (1985) theory are simple, bureaucratic, technical and concertive. These controls determine how organisations use power within.

a. Simple control

The relationship between the supervisor and the subordinate carries a heavy reliance on simple control to maintain a systematic order. In this control process, the supervisor sees and hears everything that is happening with his or her subordinates. and this is a blatant management strategy that gives power to the supervisor (Gossett, 2006). Papamichail & Robertson (2005) support this claim and say that as the supervisor is in a win-win situation when it comes to sight management. However, it becomes difficult when the organisation becomes too large to control by sight management hence why the simple control works well in small organisations (Ramsey, 2005; Robertson, 2005).

b. Bureaucratic control

This control strategy relies heavily upon set systems and rules. The belief with bureaucratic control is that even if the supervisor is not physically present to supervisor subordinates, the rule systems that have been put in place to provide a basis for managerial control. The advantage is that supervisor spend less effort and time supervising (Mumby, 2005; Gossett, 2006).

c. Technical control

In this type of control, software and hardware replace the physical presence of a supervisor when monitoring subordinates. Gossett (2006) acknowledges how the way of monitoring subordinates through technology became popular during the industrial revolution. For example, supervisors can monitor the outputs of subordinates when there is a tracking system for the websites that subordinates visit. This monitoring system may even block websites that are not being used by subordinates for work-related tasks. A disadvantage of this monitoring system

is that it does not allow direct supervision and direct observation with the physical absence of a supervisor. This control also does not permit supervisor – subordinate dialogue in terms of questions or clarity to do with tasks that the supervisor has handed down to the subordinate (Gossett, 2006: Littlejohn, Foss & Utomo, 2008).

#### d. Concertive control

Concertive control is a cultural management strategy expansion (Barker, 1993: Gossett, 2006) that moves control from management to workers. An ownership felt by the workers needs to be present in a team-based organisation which provides a sense of ownership among workers. Organisational objectives are achieved through teamwork where both workers and supervisors take on the role as a leader concurrently and members of the team are empowered to create their own rules and regulations. However, Barker (1993) argues that the main limit to this type of control is the fact that it is the most powerful and the most restrictive forms of organisational control.

## 2. Richard Lewis model of cultural differences

Richard D Lewis developed the model of cultural differences in the 1990s based on Edward Hall's (1976) work. After visiting one hundred and thirty-five countries and have worked in twenty of those countries, Lewis (1996) concluded that all world's cultures were divided into three groups: linear-active, multi-active and reactive. The three groups form a triangle which is based on behaviour and not on nationality and religion (Lewis, 1996). People who belong to the linear active group are planners who are very organised and plan tasks sequentially. People who belong to the multi-active group are impulsive and are comfortable executing many tasks at the same time. People who belong to the reactive group are attentive and polite and prefer to avoid embarrassment (Lewis, 1996). During a thirty-year span and over seventy thousand

people participating in training based on that model, Lewis' model has been triumphant (Red Tangerine, 2020). The popularity of the model is because of its workability.

The concept focuses on how individuals from different backgrounds of culture communication, which is the foundation of all worldwide trade (European Commission, 20). Appelbaum and Shapiro (2013) found that female leaders place a higher value on "empathy information sharing and relationship building" and that their communication methods are more "interpersonally-oriented" provide credence to the gender-difference theory. Also, Fine (2009) states that one of the most important qualities for female executives is "open communication" with their workers. Women began to take an approach that was transparent and cooperative. It was found from the interviews conducted for Fine's qualitative study that women identified as relationship-building and open. One of the most essential components of their leadership is communication (Fine, 2009). This presents a clear dichotomy between the ways in which men and women interact in the workplace and is fundamentally different from the manner in which male leadership styles emphasise communications.

The lack of understanding underlying the methodology has led to criticism of the Lewis model. The model has faced criticism for many cultural generalizations. Rather than focusing on any fundamental differences, the paradigm is more concerned with communication breakdown (Intercultural Communication, 2015). A UK-based organization inquired about outsourcing a part of its operations to the Philippines. When their counterparts in the UK cut off all communication, the Philippines team was left in the dark and the project was delayed. It was found that before beginning any tasks, the Philippines team needed additional information from the United Kingdom regarding their execution.

The Lewis model may have assisted the Philippines team in comprehending the team dynamics of the United Kingdom, but it did not provide an explanation for the brief

communication breakdown. People can better understand their own behaviors and characteristics by using models such as the Lewis (1996) model, which is a factor not covered in cultural studies. An individual gains knowledge by understanding how their culture fits into the global spectrum of social principles (Red Tangerine, 2020).

### 3. The Inglehart – Welzel Map

When five hundred thousand responders from one hundred nations have completed the Inglehart and Welzel map, it has been run frequently. This is a chart in which the countries are arranged by two values according to their scores. The map is based on a cross-national survey that looked at values and beliefs around the globe. There are questions about employment and wage satisfaction in this section of the study. Two aspects in particular stand out when it comes to traditional/secular principles and survival/self-expression values: people can prioritize family principles more when it comes to traditional/secular-rational principles, which is divided into two poles based on conservative and liberal perspectives, and their culture seems to foster respect for authority (Inglehart and Welzel, 2014).

The stage of economic growth is reflected in the survival/self-expression values component. Countries with similar values are placed together in this dimension to display elements like communist politics, language, and religion. 2010; Inglehart and Welzel). It has been said that the map has been positively received frequently (Taush, 2009; Fritzsche & De Lange, 2019; Staksrud, 2016). The Inglehart-Welzel model has some detractors among academics, but overall, its methodology and scope are well-respected. Scholars have questioned whether the map's two dimensions—traditional/secular and survival/self-expression—are adequate to reflect cultural diversity, despite its immense popularity (Majima

& Savage, 2007). There is a dispute over how little East Asian attitudes and values are represented on the map. A single-factor approach might be suitable, according to 2010 calculations (Beugelsdijk and Welzel, 2010). Inglehart (2018) came to the conclusion in 2018 that modernization can be indicated by a single component that integrates cultural values.

#### **2.15.5 Leadership in the past and in today's world**

According to Heiletz (1951), a leader is a person who has been bestowed with formal or informal power by others, regardless of what they stand for. Someone who mentors, encourages, or inspires their peers is a leader. 1951; Heifetz). The Great Man theory, according to Thomas Carlyle, was founded on the idea that extraordinary people are destined to be leaders. According to Juneja (2015), the term "man" in this idea denotes that leaders were masculine Westerners with a military approach to leadership. Similar evidence has been presented and supported for the Great Person idea, which changed its name to reflect the increasing recognition of women leaders after early leadership was primarily attributed to men (Bolden, Gosling, Marturano & Dennison, 2003; King & Stevenson, 2017).

If a leader or organization still uses outdated leadership techniques, it does not have a beneficial impact on the culture of the organization in the present era (Tegelberg & Lurie, 2019). Using antiquated leadership techniques makes it difficult to draw in and keep top talent. Organizational culture affects both an organization's performance and employee behavior (Nneji & Professor, 2021). Zimbabwe was the case study for an exploratory study that looked into Employee Voice Behaviors (EVB). Data was collected through structured interviews with thirty participants. The results showed that most employees talked in a constructive way as opposed to acting in a negative one. The results also showed that Zimbabwean personnel are

regimented in their organisations as a homogenized organisational culture is observable (Machokoto & Dzvimbo, 2020). According to Erciyes (2019), there are three main outdated leadership styles that should be abandoned in the modern world: conflating control with guiding, influencing individuals with financial incentives, and overusing parental leadership techniques.

### Confusing guidance with control

An individual in a position of authority tends to choose this traditional approach to leadership. According to this tactic, a leader cannot be trusted by his staff and would rather decide on his own without consulting the other members of the team. The days of command and control hierarchies are long gone, and today's leaders should influence their team members greatly rather than using their positional authority to dictate how they should be led (Stephenson, 2011; Erciyes, 2019).

#### 1. Monetary reasons to influence people

Offering monetary rewards to staff members is a traditional leadership tactic. In today's society, employees are not content with money alone. This is mostly due to the large proportion of millennial employees who have grown up with a strong sense of purpose (PWC, 2011). Opportunities for advancement are more important to millennials than financial incentives (PWC, 2011).

#### 2. Overusing parental leadership tactics

Employees are seen by modern leaders as individuals from whom they can learn. Leaders that adopt this traditional leadership approach often don't feel sorry for making mistakes (PWC,

2011). In the modern workplace, workers seek out leaders who own up to their mistakes and acknowledge that they are not always right (PWC, 2011). This is because millennials are self-assured enough to see that leaders are fallible.

## **2.15.6 The evolution of women leadership**

### **1. The resistance of women to lead**

History has demonstrated that all leaders were men, with a few notable exceptions. Men were characterized as forceful, intelligent, and logical, while women as warm and sensitive (Broverman, Vofel, Broverman, Clarkson & Rosenkrantz, 1972; William & Best, 1982; Deaux & Lewis, 1984). Women have greater obstacles and hurdles in their pursuit of leadership roles (Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani, 1995). Because they believed that women were unfit for such positions, workers were unwilling to elect female leaders (O'Leary, 1974; Terborg, 1977; Riger & Gallin, 1980). The "first-lady syndrome" or "wife-ism" filled the hole left by women's lack of political opportunities (Subramanian, Irudayaraj & George, 2016).

By benefit of descent, some women who inherited significant leadership are Queen Elizabeth of the United Kingdom, Queen Beatrix of the Netherlands, and Queen Mothers in Ghana. Even when it came to political leadership, women who the elected leaders would from and would be famous political families such as Prime Minister Benazir Bhutto in Pakistan and President Cori Aquino in the Philippines (Sharma, 2011).

The invisible barrier that prevents women from achieving positions of leadership has been referred to as the 'glass ceiling.' The metaphor (originally documented by Hymowitz & Schellhardt, 1986) is present in female-dominated organisations. In the present time, the term glass ceiling has been termed and revised as the leadership labyrinth where women face hardships even at the beginning of being part of an organization (Ealy & Carli, 2007).



Globalisation is eliminating the glass ceiling affecting women where globalisation is shifting norms and gender roles by women's economic empowerment is encouraged. The primary cause of this is the greater availability of knowledge owing to the Internet and television, which has taught nations all over the world about social norms in different regions and can encourage attitudes toward equality (World Bank, 2011). According to Ibad (2019) the relationship between interpersonal communication style and the performance of faculty in university business schools in Karachi was examined in a study to support the factors which also looked at whether gender had an impact on job satisfaction. The multifactor leadership questionnaire by Bass and Avolio (1997) and the work satisfaction survey by Spector (1997) were utilized for the analyses. Results indicated that gender and work satisfaction are not correlated, primarily because (Ibad, 2019).

## **2. The acceptance of women to lead**

The last few decades have helped women's entry into the workplace smooth by climbing up the corporate ladder (Desvaux, et al., 2008). In the non-traditional workplace sector, a women's workforce adds diversity of value. The study found a significant positive relationship between the existence of women and organisational. Also, the influence of women leaders is rising - women are responsible for a larger percentage of the influential people on TIME Magazine's global list than ever before. Women are showing why they are a force to be reckoned with (Ventureburn, 2012).

More than three thousand professional and college women took part in the KPMG's (Klynveld Peat Marwick Goerdeler) women's leadership survey. The study looked at characteristics and life experiences that support women's advancement and leadership in work environments. The study also offers a guide on how women can get to leading organisations. The results showed that nine in ten respondents were looking forward to what is possible.

Eighty-six percent of women say that they feel encouraged to get to the top of an organisation when they view more women in leadership. Eighty-three percent of women who work are familiar with steps taken in business to create a stage for future women leaders. Seventy - six percent of working women want to help other women advance in careers by personally taking active steps (KPMG, 2015).

#### Idea 4

Western and African culture and employee performance

#### **2.15.7 Differences in Western and Eastern culture**

Eastern and Western culture origins and differences have been discussed in depth in disciplines such as applied linguistics, anthropology, psychology and philosophy (Lenneberg, 1967; Diamond, 1999; Nisbett, 2003). Easterners give Chinese tradition credit while Westerners give their credit to the Greek (Nisbett, 2003). In social psychology, western culture is individual-centered while eastern culture is group-oriented (Hofstede, 1980; Nisbett, 2003; Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010). Group-oriented people create group harmony, seek benefits for the whole group and emphasize group cohesiveness. Individual- oriented people practice interdependence, self-determination, and self-expression (Hofstede, 1980).

The proportion of female managers in American businesses has been rising. According to Catalyst (2018), 63.4% of the 500 companies have female managers. Social stereotypes surrounding masculine corporate America have always placed female CEOs at a disadvantage. Women are frequently described as team leaders in communities who prioritize the group's efforts (Eagly 1987). They use interpersonally focused communication strategies, such as information sharing, teamwork, and connection building (Appelbaum et al., 2013). On the other side, agentic traits like aggression and results-orientedness have historically been linked to male leadership and communication styles (Eagly 1987). The currently available data indicates

that women often found a 'double bind' situation, wherein they are perceived to be arrogant and often hated if they act more agentically, and they are not recognized as successful leaders when they perform more communally (Northouse, 2013; Eagly & Carly, 2007).

Western culture tends to be more liberal than Eastern culture, which is one of the main distinctions between the two cultures. The West allows people to be critical and more open where taboo subjects are discussed and showing emotions is accepted. In the East, people are more tactical when faced with difficult situations and people do not use aggression publicly (Migration Translators, 2022). There is a large and frequently contradictory collection of study on female leadership and communication. A larger body of research contradicts the numerous studies that claim there are no gender-based criticisms directed towards female leaders (Davison & Burke, 2000; 2004; Rudman, Moss-Racusin, Phelan, & Nauts; 2012). This means that various studies also revealed conflicting findings about gender communication in the workplace, with some concluding that men and women communicate differently and others finding no differences at all (Barker 1999).

For Eastern and Western culture, there is not a lot of common ground to share similar traits. Types of religion, clothing and rituals are very important in Eastern cultures. Eastern cultures find it difficult to question beliefs and ideologies despite an individual's true beliefs. In contrast, Western cultures may forsake religion with no one thinking anything of it (Migration Translators, 2022).

### **1. African culture in management and employee performance**

Inadequacies in policy formulation, project evaluation and project analysis were detailed by the World Bank (1980) and how these inadequacies muffled the efficiency and effectiveness of African organisations (Mufune, 2003). From time to time, African governments analyse the institutional and organisational infrastructure that are responsible for undertaking development

activities. According to Mafune (2003) the Botswana Institute of Administration and Commerce (BIAC), Tanzania's Institute of Development Management, Zambia's National Institute of Public Administration (NIPA), and Zimbabwe's Institute of Public Administration (ZIPA) are among the African nations that have established training institutions to enhance public administration.

African managers have been deemed to portray a personal way in which they operate (Mufune, 2003). Thus, in many people are not able to measure their “*value priorities*” when they use the CIP as these procedures rely on self-reported data to reveal managerial ideals (Agle & Caldwell, 1999). Recall is particularly difficult when it comes to self-reports. When a manager says they are involved in critical incidences, it may not be the case: managers may just say it as it is impressive to do so. A managers’ explanations of situations might show incidences within organisations rather than sole undoubtedly recollected incidences as this is a possible problem faced with using CIP (Agle & Caldwell, 1999).

The CIP in the study is used by describing events in a period of seven to ten days about the regular workdays of managers in the corporate and governmental sectors. The study included three assessments: examining the functions of managers, evaluating their objectives and methods for achieving them, and examining the bureaucratic politics they engaged. In the work of these managers, it was discovered that personalism was the dominant orientation.

According to Mufune, (2003) in the functional analysis, managers perceived themselves as speaking for themselves and preferred to delegate speaking roles to others inside the organization. It was discovered that managers disclosed their personal interests in the goal analysis instead of those of a customer or subordinates. According to Montgomery's examination of bureaucratic politics, the majority of managers' political concerns were more about other people's fitness than policy. These conclusions were corroborated by two more

studies, one by Peter Blunt and the other by Goren Hyden, which found that African managers found Western managers' impersonation shocking (Munene, 1985). Many African managers show an authoritarian work positioning which is related to personalism. According to Morris, et al., (1977) African managers believe they bear personal responsibility for all decisions made in the areas they oversee, even if they become overly fixated on their territory.

There are clear power gaps between managers and their subordinates in Africa, and managers do not like it when their employees make choices without first consulting them (Kiggundu, 1988). In African organizations, workers do not view work as a necessary pursuit in life and most subordinates have an attitude that work is just a source of income at the end of each month (Mufune, 2003).

## **2. Globalisation in Western and African cultures**

Globalisation has inspired a growing interest to understand cross-cultural communication among women organizational leaders in Western and African cultures and how this affects employee performance. This is especially crucial when it comes to South Africa and the UK, two of the most powerful nations in both Africa and Europe (United Nations, 2021). There is little research comparing how women leaders in these countries communicate with employees (Uchida, 1997). The comparison of Western and African culture is because of how colonisation by the West dominated African culture and heritage. The westernisation of Africans is at the forefront and African culture is deemed as not permissible in the public realm (Arowolo, 2010). In Zambia, economic development has been said to be the reason for colonisation by the West hence why Zambian cultural identities and heritage have been undermined by cultural western identity (Chulu, 2015). The African continent has seen significant increases in the expansion of multinational companies (MNCs) where the integration of local employees and expatriates

has become increasingly important to the human resources department in MNCs (Abugre, 2018).

South African organisations need to improve their active productivity by focusing on their employees and their performance. A gap occurs between the ideal engagement levels and the fulfillment of employee engagement. The assumption is that the point at which an organisation operates are likely in part controlled by the level of engagement its leaders have with their employees. An employee who feels appreciated and sees himself or herself as an essential part of the organisation is the one that is more likely to promote the accomplishment of that organisation (Hoole & Bonnema, 2015).

Govender and Bussin (2020) carried out a study in South Africa to determine if performance management and employee engagement are related. In the study, twenty workers from a Gauteng-based fast-moving consumer products company (South Africa) were employed. Qualitative methods of research articles and interviews were used on employees from different levels within operations. The results showed that a connection occurs between performance management and employee engagement and that an expansion in employee engagement would lead to enhanced performance of employees and consequently the organisation. The study revealed that whilst engagement and communication happen across all levels within the organisation, there is still a considerable gap. The messages and expectations are not straightforward enough to be comprehended. Employees are not permitted to have a voice which causes them to be demoralized (Govender & Bussin, 2020).

#### Idea 5

Women leadership in Western and African culture

### **2.15.8 The acceptance and underrepresentation of women leadership**

Female leadership as well as women on the top of the organizational hierarchy has received wide attention in recent years (Kim & Shin, 2017). The notion of “*women being looked at as not being fit for top positions*” is being fizzled out by society (Eagly & Carli, 2007: Evans, 2010). Gender equality has been an interest to people who are more aware of the topic these days (Gallego, et al., 2015: United Nations, 2020) as there has been a decrease in traditional barriers (Evans, 2010). However, despite the existence of a trend, it is progressing slowly and many nations have yet to completely acknowledge it (Melero, 2011), which means that gender inequality is still being replicated in many nations (Chin, 2016). According to Chin (2016), women made up 23% of American CEOs and 46% of the labor force in the country in 2016. Though more and more women are working in academia, very few of them become senior faculty members. Even in senior leadership roles, women are still viewed as the exceptions that belong to males. Women executives face challenges in leading when they are portrayed inconsistently, and this frequently leads to different standards than those imposed on men. Women leaders are interchangeably portrayed as soft and ineffective or overbearing and calculating. This picture is complicated by its collaboration with racial and ethnic variances (Chin, 2016).

Due to the vast differences in cultures among nations, culture has a significant role in driving the advancement of women into top management roles and in female leadership (Hewlett & Rashid, 2015: Northouse, 2015: Eden & Forquer Gupta, 2017: Moriarty, 2019). To find a statistical relationship between various leadership philosophies, cultural norms, and gender, an analysis was carried out (Qureshi, Zaman & Bhatti, 2011). The study aimed to evaluate the behavior of male and female leaders in organizational culture, as well as the relationship between leadership styles and cultural basics and the X of culture on gender differences in the various leadership styles.

According to Qureshi et al., (2011) twelve surveys were completed and returned by the 150 leaders that participated in the study (38 female leaders and 74 male leaders completed the questionnaires, representing 74.6% of all questionnaires issued. The results demonstrated a high degree of positive correlation (correlation coefficient value = 0.721) between male leaders' member identities and their leadership behavior. With correlation coefficient values of 0.530 and 0.677 for reward criteria and unit incorporation on leadership behavior, respectively, similar results were obtained. The correlation between means-end orientation and leadership was found to be 0.389, whereas the link between team emphasis and leadership was found to be 0.434. Therefore, according to Qureshi et al. (2011), there was a strong medium association between the two direct findings and leadership styles.

It was generally decided that, aside from unit integration, female leadership styles don't do much to strengthen a woman's leadership abilities. Increased female leadership styles within the organization could result from unit integration. The effectiveness of gender differences in leadership behaviour was not concluded by the results. It was limited to discussing how culture affects gender roles. In a variety of settings, both male and female leadership performed more effectively (e.g., Berdahl, 1996: Hoojiberg & DiTomaso, 1996: Lauterbach & Weiner, 1996: Luthar, 1996: Moss & Kent, 1996: Pratch, 1996: Sakata, 1996: Cassell & Walsh, 1997: Kolb, 1997: Maher, 1997: Payne & Cangemi, 1997).

#### **2.15.9 Differences of male and female leadership style**

Given that the gender of the group that they lead influences how people lead, there is a discernible difference in the distinctive leadership styles of men and women (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001: Gartzia & Van Engen, 2012). According to psychologists, this is because men's and women's personalities have developed distinct behavioral strategies for reproduction since the beginning of time (Eagly & Carli, 2007).



The leadership style of females is shown to be empathic, regenerative, cooperative, and creative (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Bhat & Sisodia, 2016; Esser, Kahrens, Mouzughy & Eomois, 2018) and this supported by the fact that women need to fulfil expectations brought about by society when becoming a mother (Esser et al., 2018). Women tend to be more compassionate and concerned about relationships, which is explained by their capacity for empathetic empathy (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Sandberg, 2013). In comparison to males, women are more considerate of their followers' emotions and behave in a more democratic manner as leaders: women "promote team cohesion, cooperative learning, and participative communication" more than men do. Composed of numerous individuals or distributed geographically, this is beneficial in a varied team (Post, 2015). International teams can function more efficiently under a female leader, particularly given that women appear to handle crises better than males do (Borgerson, 2018).

According to Borgerson (2018), women leaders possess a "emotional-related capacity" that aids in resolving crises through strategy. In contrast to female leaders, men typically adopt a more task-oriented and dictatorial style of leadership. Male leaders may adopt a more directive style of leadership (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Esser et al., 2018). When compared to the female cooperative leadership method, male leadership is frequently characterized as forceful, aggressive, and brave (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Kim & Shin, 2017; Born, Ranehill & Sandberg, 2018). According to Eagly and Carli (2007) and Rahman (2018), men are more likely to appreciate traditional authority and hierarchical organizational systems. Since the original definition of leadership is associated with men, female leaders are at a disadvantage; nevertheless, depending on the situation and state, both male and female leaders can be effective (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Northouse, 2018; Steffens, Viladot & Scheifele, 2019).

One of the main traits of female leadership is that, in comparison to male leaders, women are more engaged on the human and emotional front (Evans, 2010). Women are expected to utilize transformational leadership behaviours and dependent rewards, which are styles connected with contemporary notions of effective leadership, and they use democratic or participatory forms more than males do. Women are just as engaged in the workforce as men are, and they are equally driven to assume leadership positions (Northouse, 2018).

Women encounter challenges. Because of the discrepancy between what people expect of women and what they anticipate from a leader, male leaders are not as apparent (Esser et al., 2018: 138; Koburtay et al., 2019). The role congruity theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002) refers to this phenomena, which is supported by empirical evidence. The role congruity theory of prejudice against female leaders postulates that two systems of bias result from the apparent incongruity between the female gender role and leadership roles: (a) viewing women as less qualified for leadership positions than men, and (b) viewing behavior that conforms to the expectations of a leader role as less deserving of praise when it is endorsed by a woman.

The fact that opinions of female leaders are less favorable than those of male leaders and potential leaders is significant. Additional repercussions include the greater difficulty women face in rising to the position of leadership and succeeding in such positions. These worries are supported by evidence from a variety of study models, particularly when circumstances amplify perceptions of a mismatch between the leadership duties and the female gender role (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

In addition, Sandberg (2013) notes that women face additional serious challenges such as sexual harassment, discrimination, and subtle forms of sexism. Numerous instances demonstrate the persistence of remarkable obstacles that prevent women from advancing in their careers and the unfavourable stereotypes associated with gender (Nekhili, et al., 2018).

This is mostly true for jobs that are controlled by men, such those in finance, engineering, and information technology (Koburtay, et al., 2019). This is particularly true in western nations and the businesses that support them, where individuals are more likely to adopt the viewpoint that variety is a source 'of strategic advantage.' (Virick & Greer, 2012).

### Summary of Literature Review

Many characteristics from the early definitions of leadership are still used in governments and organisations today. Even though they have diverse definitions of leadership, San Tzu, Aristotle, and Plato are all interconnected in the ancient world through knowledge. Leadership is viewed as being inextricably linked to knowledge. As Alexander the Great's teacher, Aristotle focused on the moral standards of leadership and argued that while life and knowledge are empirical rather than propositional, truth in practical concerns may be recognized from deeds (Chappell, et al., 2012). People's actions and decisions are motivated by a desire to know what is right, and since a good person always acts right. Additionally, a leader must to be a kind person (Aristotle, 2000). Currently, a leader's main mission is to help those below them accomplish the planned objectives and goals by effectively and efficiently providing expertise, encouragement, and support. It is crucial for leaders to instil moral and ethical qualities that promote harmony and well-being while they are in charge (Hollander & Offerman, 1990; Hollander, 1995; Parry & Bryman, 2006).

There are 221 various definitions of leadership due to the numerous debates and discussions in the social sciences (Bass, 1990; Thomas, 2007). (Rost, 1993). The significance of operative leadership and how someone with excellent leadership qualities may affect many others around them are the two most significant aspects of leadership that are well understood.

Employee performance determines the organization's success, so in order to consistently outperform rival organisations, employees must be conscientious, proactive,

responsive, and hardworking (Satyendra, 2019). However, some argue that the risk of groupthink, might be explained by a strong organizational culture (Irving Janis,, 1972). Amazing things can happen when workers collaborate to create a group of innovative brains, provided that the team does not fall victim to "groupthink" (Charles, 2022). When company culture is robust, employees are more likely to accept their own purposeless thinking. There is a fixed style of thinking. Once they start doing things, the way of thinking rapidly and simply takes shape. Strong corporate cultures encourage people to seek consensus rather than looking for alternatives. It indicates that people are inclined to adhere to the established culture and are unwilling to question established ideas. A strong organizational culture hinders the capacity for innovation and creation (Charles, 2022).

Many studies that look at cultural traits and beneficial organizational results imitate the important impact of culture. As a key indicator of business culture, a strong correlation between corporate ethical ideals is significant (Schein, 2010). Organisations may need to be more than just task managers for their businesses to instill and retain a high level of loyalty in their workforce.

According to previous studies, organizational culture is important for corporate success (Denison & Spreitzer, 1991; Calori & Sarnin, 1991; Denison & Mishra, 1995r; Fey & Denison, 2003; Denison & Haaland, 2004; LeeKim & Yu, 2004; Xenikou & Simosi, 2006; Sadri & Lees, 2011; Jofreh & Masoumi, 2013). However, there isn't a single tool that is used to gauge corporate culture. Thus, previous studies in a number of countries have evaluated organizational culture using alternative instruments. The Organizational Culture Questionnaire (OCQ) was used by Sempene, et al., (2002) to evaluate the impact of organizational culture on workers' work fulfilment in Africa. Egan, Yang, and Bartlett (2004) examined organizational culture at a US information technology company using a questionnaire on organizational

learning culture. In Pawirosumarto, et al., (2017) organizational culture analysis, two categories of organizational culture were looked at.

According Sibani, (2014) both positive and negative consequences of Western cultural influence on African culture can be found with a careful analysis. As a result, European civilization has largely supplanted native African culture. Whether by design or by accident, Africans have assiduously absorbed Western culture to the point where it is now essentially an integral part of their existence (Sibani, 2014). According to Rodee (1983), mono economies, widespread corruption, rising inflation, high unemployment, congested cities, and destitute communities are some of the socioeconomic problems in Africa brought on by Western influence. African culture is still enduring interactions and conflicts, which leads to a society with a healthier quality of life and a better social structure. However, given the status of African culture today, particularly in Nigeria, tribalism, poor management, theft, bribery, and other vices have minimized the impact of culture on the social structure (Rodee, 1983).

South Africa's corporate culture is very centered on Europe (Khoza, 1994). Instead of relying on agreement, decision-making in a Eurocentric manner is influenced by power dynamics, which encourages antagonistic interactions between managers and employees, customers and suppliers, and blacks and whites (Khoza, 1994). According to Madi (1995), American and European influences can be seen in South African corporate culture. Afrocentric (black) management practices emerged in South African organisations after 1994 because of the country's leadership styles (Binedell, 1992). Because of its history as a colony, South Africa has a preponderance of Anglo American leadership styles. Despite the strong drive for initiatives to promote equality across ethnic groups following the end of the apartheid white men continue to be disproportionately represented in management, particularly in the financial sector (Booyesen, 2001).

Groups of people are assembled within organizations' teams to work together toward common aims and objectives, hence broadening the employee demographic. This creates multicultural teams. Due to the obstacles presented by cultural diversity, which is always changing, organisations are still working to comply with these legal and economic developments. Consequently, it is become harder for organizations to meet their primary goals of luring, retaining, and efficiently utilizing individuals with the appropriate cultural abilities. This is particularly true if changes in demographics, such as gender and race, result in a shift in one's identity at work. (Cox, 2001).

Women being on top of organisation hierarchies has become more prominent in today's business world as cross-cultural communication to be carried out needs heavy collaboration by women from different cultures (United Nations, 2021). The goal of this research is to learn more about and comprehend how the effects of communication style influence employees working under women leaders from different backgrounds i.e., Western and African cultures.

Adapting communication style according to the situation is one of the most important skills leaders need to possess. With the use of the right communication styles, a leader can help their team reach peak performance (Prossack, 2018). Leadership styles are closely associated with leaders' communication styles, but the style used doesn't control the leaders' communication style conclusively (Bojic, 2022).

Most research before 2014 focused on Western culture on gender although countries in the East such as Malaysia, Japan, India and Pakistan contributed a majority share in the world's economy (Memon, 2014). A new model based on leadership style and employee performance was established with gender and culture and culture play mediating roles and communication being the moderating variable. According to Memon (2014) the results showed that gender and cultural factors varied in the effects of leadership style on worker performance;

nonetheless, one of the key components of an effective leadership style was found to be communication.

Historic records have shown that men, with a few distinguished exceptions, were all leaders. Women were described as sensitive and warm while men were described as assertive, competent, and rational (Broverman, et al., 1972; William & Best, 1982; Deaux & Lewis, 1984). Women face more challenges and barriers when it comes to attaining leadership positions (Eagly, et al., 1995). Employees were reluctant to have female leaders as they were looked at as being unqualified for the position (O'Leary, 1974; Riger & Gallin, 1980).

The glass ceiling that affects women is being lifted by globalization, which is also changing gender roles and standards by promoting women's economic empowerment. This is mostly due to the ease with which information is now accessible thanks to the Internet and television, which has allowed countries to learn about the social norms of other areas and maybe promote attitudes toward equality (World Bank, 2011). A study by Ibad (2019) corroborates the findings of this investigation. It investigated whether gender has an effect on job happiness as well as the relationship between faculty employee performance and leadership communication style at university business schools in Karachi. The analyses employed in this study were the Spector (1997) work satisfaction survey and the Bass & Avolio (1997) multifactor leadership questionnaire. Results indicated that there is no relationship between gender and job happiness, mostly because faculty members uphold organizational justice (Ibad, 2019).

Owing to the vast differences in cultures among nations, culture is a driving force behind the advancement of women into top management roles and in leadership roles (Hewlett & Rashid, 2015; Northouse, 2015; Eden & Forquer Gupta, 2017; Moriarty, 2019). An analysis was conducted to discover a statistical association between different leadership styles, culture

and gender (Qureshi, et al., 2011). The study aimed to evaluate the behaviour of male and female leaders in the context of an organization, the relationship between leadership styles and cultural basics, and the influence of culture on gender disparities in the various leadership styles.

The general decision emerged that female leadership style except unit integration are a weak contributor to boost female's leadership qualities. Unit integration may lead to boost female's leadership styles in the organization. The results did not conclude the efficiency of leadership behaviour of gender variances. It only focused on the cultural influence on genders (Qureshi, Zaman & Bhatti, 2011).



## **CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODS**

### **3.1 Introduction**

Effective oral and written communication is among the abilities that directors of organisations most desire, according to studies (Perrigo & Gaut, 1994; Davis & Miller, 1996; Holter & Kopka, 2001). According to the United Nations (2021), women from other cultures are becoming more and more visible at the top of organizational hierarchies. To facilitate successful organizational communication, these women are also networking and cooperating with other women from diverse cultures. (World Bank, 2020). Therefore, it is imperative to investigate how cross-cultural communication between women executives in Western and African cultures affects worker performance within firms. For some time now, feminist researchers have recognised that examining women's communication exchanges requires taking into account the connections between concepts like gender, race, and class (Henley and Kramarae, 1991; Houston, 1992). Research on the multicultural and intercultural contacts of women in leadership roles is crucial, especially when it comes to situated situations (Uchida, 1997).

There is a dearth of study comparing cross-cultural communication in African and Western organisations, particularly those led by women, even though communication inside Western organisations has been thoroughly examined (Barnes - Harden, 1984; Herlinger, 1992; Stainbach, 1996; Cai & Fink, 2006; Lustig & Koester, 2010; Abugre, 2018; Halcrow, 2019). This study aimed to identify and assess the methods of communication employed by female leaders in organizations in Western and African regions. South Africa and the United Kingdom are a microcosm of Africa and the West.

In this chapter, the research methodology and designs that work well with an online questionnaire-based primary quantitative research method are covered, along with a complementary Skype interview-based qualitative research method.

This chapter forms a discussion on why other research methods are not appropriate for this study. The population and sample of the research study were identified and discussed clearly in terms of how the population was recruited, a supporting power analysis and sampling procedures. The formation, validity and reliability of the research tools were discussed as well as why the tools are appropriate for the research and if any permissions were acquired for adaption of an existing tool. As this study is a mixed study, all variables were described, operationally defined and a level of measurement was identified for each variable. The study procedures discussed where there was a description of how confidentiality and anonymity were achieved. In order to provide informed consent protocols and define the researcher's position in the study, ethical assurances were also covered. The sections on data gathering and analysis wrapped up the data. In accordance with the study's hypotheses, an explanation of the data collection, processing, and analysis procedures were provided. The chapter also identified and talked about the tools used to analyse the data (SPSS for the quantitative data and NVivo for the qualitative data).

The primary objective of this thesis was to close a knowledge gap on the communication strategies used by female leaders in West and Africa, particularly in South Africa and the United Kingdom. In contrast to previous research on communication styles, which frequently compares various nations and cultures (Neuling, 1999; Flanagan, 2020; Point Park University, 2021). This study aims to provide light on the interactions between female leaders and their employees in two different cultural contexts. The researcher explained how they plan to carry out their investigation in order to accomplish their goal by employing this research approach. It is a logical, systematic approach to a research problem. The methodology describes the steps a researcher took to ensure that the study is genuine, accurate, and achieves its aims and objectives. It contains information on the data they plan to collect, where to obtain it, how to collect it, and how to analyse it.

### **3.2 Research Approach and Design**

This thesis adopted a mixed method approach. This involved use of both quantitative and qualitative methodology.

#### **3.2.1 Quantitative method**

The study used quantitative research methodology to gather numerical data that can be utilised to provide statistics that aid with problem quantification. After examining attitudes, beliefs, and actions from a larger sample population, results are extrapolated (Wyse, 2011). Precise measurements, statistical, mathematical, or numerical analysis of data collected by surveys, polls, and other research methods, as well as the manipulation of statistical data that has already been generated using computing techniques, are all stressed in quantitative methods. Quantitative research attempts to gather and evaluate numerical data in order to gain a deeper understanding of a particular occurrence or extrapolate it to a group of individuals (Babbie, 2010; Mujis, 2010).

The requirement for academics to quantify data led to the development of quantitative research about the year 1950. Since then, original research and the creation of new information have mostly been conducted via quantitative research, which has taken hold in western civilization. The natural sciences were the first to create this paradigm for examining natural events (Williams, 2007). A variable in quantitative research is a factor that may be controlled or altered during the course of an experiment (Wong, 2014). To obtain findings, factor analysis and quantification are used. When a highly planned study design is required and can be imposed on an experiment in a natural way, it is the ideal option. The researcher must be entirely disinterested in the subject being studied and must maintain objectivity (Haradhan, 2020).

Consider a scenario where a tutor administers a math examination to 100 students as an illustration. Why do some pupils succeed more than others? The tutor wants to know (something). Although the teacher is unsure of the response, she surmises that there are

potentially two possibilities: 1. Some students put in more effort to study for exams. 2. Some students are simply more intelligent. The teacher decides to investigate how intellect and review time affect the test results of the 100 students. The test mark is a dependent variable (measured from 0 to 100) a different variable. Review time has come (measured in hours) to measure intelligence (Cicek & Sadik, 2019).

In this study, quantitative research provided both some advantages and some disadvantages. In quantitative study, questionnaires are used for data collection because the source of participants' comments will remain anonymous, they does not have to worry about answering queries (Layne, 2021). Second, the validity of the data remains consistent regardless of the number of times the same individual or sample is examined, refuting the notion that a quantitative approach is misleading (Blaxter, et al., 2010; Savela, 2018; Layne, 2021). Thirdly, bias cannot be introduced into the data because it is collected at random. This is a key advantage because it allows the research's conclusions to be statistically extended to the entire population (Gaille, 2018). This has the small problem of perhaps leading to randomness. The research may not accurately represent all demographics due to randomization, leaving some demographics out. This is a minor downside (Ochieng, 2009; Gaille, 2018; Regoli, 2019). However, compared to other research methodologies, data purification for quantitative research is a speedy procedure that may be completed in a very short amount of time (Wyse, 2011; Rahman, 2017).

The primary component of this research employed a quantitative methodology. This approach was selected as the foundational method for this study because it directly addresses the core research aim of measuring the relationship between communication styles and employee performance and comparing these relationships across the two cultural contexts (UK and South Africa). he study posits specific hypotheses (e.g., H1, H2, H3, H4) about the effects of participatory and authoritarian communication styles. A quantitative approach, using

standardized questionnaires, allows for the collection of numerical data that can be statistically analysed to objectively test these hypotheses, determine the strength of relationships between variables (e.g., via regression analysis), and assess their statistical significance (Babbie, 2010; Muijs, 2010). Generalizability and Pattern Identification: By collecting data from a larger sample (n=200 employees), the quantitative phase aims to produce findings that are generalizable to the wider populations of employees working under women leaders in the UK and South Africa. It seeks to identify broad patterns and trends that may exist across these groups, moving beyond individual anecdotes to provide empirical evidence about the phenomena under investigation (Wyse, 2011).

Another key objective of this cross-cultural analysis is to make a systematic comparison between the two national samples. The quantitative method, with its structured and identical instruments, ensures that data from both countries are comparable. This allows for robust statistical comparisons (e.g., t-tests, ANOVA) to determine if observed differences in employee performance or perceptions of communication style are statistically significant, thereby reducing researcher bias in the interpretation of cross-cultural differences (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). In line with quantitative principles, this study focused on precise measurement of defined variables (e.g., communication style scores, performance ratings). The data collection was structured using an online questionnaire with closed-ended questions and Likert scales, which facilitates the quantification of attitudes and perceptions (Babbie, 2010). The analysis involved statistical procedures to quantify the relationships and test the predictions laid out in the research hypotheses.

The quantitative research method was a better fit for this study than the other research strategies because the current theory on culture is sufficient in this circumstance and the investigation is deductive. According to the literature, the quantitative method is more commonly used when addressing cultural phenomena in order to: (a) measure all of the cultural factors depending on

a particular time and place, as Hofstede did; or (b) investigate the ways in which local organizations are impacted by national culture, as Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner did (Karahanna, Evaristo & Srite, 2005). Gulati (2009) states that deductive reasoning is the process of going from the particular to the general. It is frequently accurate to infer a causal relationship or correlation from a single event or theory. A correlation or link observed in wider contexts may be examined using a deduction-based design (Gulati, 2009). The deductive approach in this study starts with a model (national culture) and moves on to a novel hypothesis. The positivist paradigm is justified by observations that assist decide whether a theory is true or untrue, which puts the hypothesis to the test. 2009 (Gulati).

In quantitative research, researchers frequently maintain an unbiased distance from the topic at hand. This is so because quantitative research adopts an objective methodology, focusing only on the accurate measurement and analysis of the inquiry's target concepts (Explorable, 2009). In this study, the researcher will belong to a certain culture or cultures and whatever the researcher's opinions may be, the respondents' answers will not be misinterpreted due to the objectivity of the quantitative research method employed. As a few publications reported the opposite (Kinn & Curzio 2005), results may conflict, the combination of the two methodologies did not produce excellent outcomes. To prevent conflicting demands, it is crucial to carefully consider each technique before integrating them (Kinn & Curzio 2005).

The type of quantitative research design for this study concurrent mixed research design whereby the leader communication style and culture variables are manipulated and applied to the employee performance variable where a conclusion is drawn about the relationship of the variables. When one variable is controlled, the other variables can easily be manipulated (Chegg, 2021) although it has been argued that a set of procedures need to be drawn out first to test a hypothesis (Bevans, 2019). The concurrent mixed research design is a useful system but for it to be valuable, the system must be tightly controlled as external or internal effects

may shift the outcomes being accomplished (Key, 1997; Wharrad & Silcocks, 2009; Miller, 2015; Gaille, 2017). For this study respondents completed the study in a place of their choice online, there was no control of external or internal effects such as time of day the respondents complete the questionnaire and temperature of the room where the questionnaire will be completed.

### **3.2.2 Qualitative method**

It is generally seen that a range of disciplines use qualitative and quantitative research methodologies and procedures rather frequently. Researchers from the opposing camps of positivism and interpretivism continue to engage in "paradigm battles" over research methodology. Positivism holds that the social world is composed of tangible, unchanging reality that can be quantified. However, interpretive scholars disagree with the positivist view of reality and contend that reality is socially produced by people and hence open to change and subjective interpretation (Corbetta, 2003; Marcon & Gopal, 2005; Kroeze, 2012). There are a few reasons for the superiority of research methodologies, some of them are concentrated on the paradigm wars: whether evidence that is qualitative is preferred to evidence that is quantitative, or vice versa (Rahman, 2017).

According to Strauss and Corbin (1998), qualitative research is a study design that produces results without the use of quantitative tools or statistical methodologies. Based on extensive reasons and descriptions, it typically references to a person's experiences, behaviors, and sentiments as well as to organizational processes, societal trends, cultural occurrences, and connections between ideas (Strauss & Corbin 1998). (Miles & Hubermann 1994). According to Reiter, et al., (2010) qualitative research approaches have centred on natural world phenomena, examining them from multiple perspectives.

Qualitative research has several limitations, including the inability to fully understand historical development, explain unintended consequences of action, address underlying tensions within organisations and society, or fully analyze the conditions. "What caused that?" and "Why did such-and-such happen?" are not the kinds of inquiries that the researcher can employ to identify cause-and-effect links. These problems can only be resolved by quantitative study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001). Large-scale data sets were used in this study; however others argue that because they require so much time and money, qualitative research approaches hardly ever take samples from them. When using qualitative designs, it takes time and effort to gather, evaluate, and analyze data as well as analyze the qualitative data itself (Williams, 2007).

Research in cross-cultural studies is frequently unrelated to practice. According to Rahman, (2017) the 'qualitative first' mixed method approach facilitates a comprehensive preliminary examination of the study issue and the establishment of a mutual understanding prior to the results being generally disseminated in a manner that is useful to the stakeholders. This supports Creswell (2006) observation that qualitative research considerably enhances mixed-method studies by promoting comprehension or by assisting intervention trials (Creswell, 2006). This refers to first identifying, then defining, then improving, or even creating a mixed method approach in the context of cross-cultural research. Notwithstanding the benefits outlined, it is important to emphasize that choosing an applied research approach needs to be predicated on goals rather than presumptions or broad conclusions from earlier research (Rahman, 2017).

### **3.2.3 Mixed method**

A mixed method approach was particularly appropriate for the study. Mixed methodology allowed for an exploration of the complex interplay between communication styles and employee performance across different cultural contexts. Integrating both quantitative and



qualitative methodologies, the researcher benefitted from the strengths of each approach. Quantitative data provided statistical insights and generalisable findings that can quantify the relationships between variables, while qualitative data offers rich, contextualized understandings of participants' experiences and perspectives (Creswell, 2006; Rahman, 2017). This combination enabled the researcher to not only measure the effects of communication styles but also to explore the underlying reasons and cultural nuances that influence these effects. As noted by Tashakkori and Teddlie (2010), mixed methods research can produce a more nuanced and holistic view of a research problem, making it particularly valuable in cross-cultural studies where context plays a critical role.

Furthermore, employing a mixed method approach aligns with the principles of pragmatism, which suggests that researchers should use the methods that best address their research questions (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). In this study, the quantitative component allowed for the measurement of specific variables and the testing of hypotheses related to communication styles and employee performance, while the qualitative component enables deeper exploration of how these variables are perceived and experienced by individuals in different cultural settings. This dual lens not only enriched the data but also enhances the validity of the findings by triangulating results, thereby corroborating evidence from multiple sources (Onwuegbuzie, & Collins, 2007).

### **3.2.4 Research design**

The term “research design” can be understood in various ways by researchers; it is often described as a master plan, blueprint, or a sequence of tasks and activities. Simply put by (Olawale et al., 2023) research design is a structured plan outlining the methods and procedures used to collect and analyse the data required by the manager. It provides a roadmap for how the researcher will address the research question(s) developed collaboratively by the manager

and the researcher. Clearly defining the problem into a researchable question is crucial. It is essential that the research design is justified based on the research question and objectives. All of the project's components and stages are held together by the research design. Leedy and Ormrod (2001), state that a badly designed study does not offer precise responses to the research question being studied, which does not help the manager make decisions. Research design is firmly grounded in scientific objectivity and rigor. Any preconceived notion in study design, whether it be methodological, procedural, or personal, will affect the entire research process.

This thesis adopted a concurrent mixed research design. According to Bell, et al., (2022) a concurrent design is when the researcher collect and analyse both quantitative and qualitative data at the same time, or in parallel, during your research process. The concurrent mixed methods research design was particularly suitable for this study justified due to the complexity and multifaceted nature of the research topic. According to Saunders et al., (2019) the concurrent research design method is particularly useful for cross-validating findings, as it enables you to compare numerical data with narrative insights, thereby offering a deeper understanding of the research problem. This means that employing the concurrent mixed method design the study simultaneously gathered quantitative data on the relationship between independent variables and dependent variables, while also collecting qualitative insights through interviews with women leaders that explore the subjective experiences and perceptions of employees regarding their leadership communication styles (Bell, et al., 2022). In addition, Easterby-Smith et al., (2018) state that concurrent design can help to enhance the validity and reliability of research findings by providing multiple types of evidence and reducing potential biases. This dual design allowed for a comprehensive understanding of how cultural contexts in South Africa and the United Kingdom shape communication styles and, consequently, employee performance. According to Dawadi, who in 2021 spoke of the the integration of both

data types will enabled richer interpretations, revealing not only statistical correlations but also the nuanced social dynamics at play. This provided a more holistic view of the impact of communication styles in diverse cultural settings.

In this study, the researcher intentionally chooses to manipulate the independent variable (leadership communication styles) to study how it affects the dependent variable (employee performance).

### **3.3 Population and Sample of the Research Study**

The target population for the quantitative phase of this study comprised employees at a multinational or multicultural organisation in South Africa and the United Kingdom. The critical inclusion criteria was that all participants reported directly to a woman in a leadership role. The sampling frame was created by identifying such organisations via professional networks and industry directories, and after getting permission from an organisational gatekeeper, obtain a database of employee email addresses from the Human Resources departments. (Pathak, Meinhold & Fisher, 1980: Agresti, 1990: Vogt, 2005: Dudovskiy, 2018).

#### **3.3.1 Sampling Technique: Stratified Random Sampling**

1. In this thesis, using a stratified sampling approach was appropriate since it ensured that critical demographic sub-groups are properly represented, increasingly supporting the validity and reliability of the results.
2. This study used a stratified random sampling approach to ensure that the sample represented the key cultural and structural variables informing the research topic. The entire population was delineated into mutually exclusive sub-groups or strata, based on two defining factors:

**Strata 1:** Country - this was the primary strata to ensure a robust cross-cultural comparison.

The two strata were:

- Employees in South Africa
- Employees in the United Kingdom

**Strata 2:** Employment under a Woman Leader - this was a qualifying strata to ensure that only relevant participants were selected. This strata excluded all those individuals who did not meet the core criterion of being employed under a woman leader.

### **Sampling Procedure**

The sampling procedure process followed the following steps:

1. The complete sampling frame or list of employee email addresses was first executed by filtering to determine only those employees who worked under a woman leader (applying Strata 2).
2. Next, the filtered list was divided into two groups based on the employee's country of employment (applying Strata 1).
3. Lastly, a simple random sample was drawn from each of the two country specific filtered lists (using a random number generator) in order to select the final participants.

Therefore, utilising stratified sampling was important for two reasons; it ensured equal and representation from both cultural contexts (100 participants from South Africa and 100 participants from the UK) in order to make the statistical comparisons robust and statistically sound. Furthermore, it ensured every participant selected was information rich in context to the purpose of this study, as all of them had personal experiences with the phenomenon under investigation; being led by a woman..

The stratus were based on their cultural background, the researcher separated the respondents into three stratus: those who worked for women leaders, those who were based in South Africa, and those who were in the UK. Because of the stratus' diversity, the findings

about the impact of female leadership in multicultural settings were more reliable. This sampling technique ensured that each subgroup, consisting of 100 respondents from organisations managed by women, is appropriately represented, enabling for relevant comparisons and insights.

The use of stratified sampling requirements was also used to determine the sample size. The total sample size (N=200) required an equal representation from both cultural contexts examined. The research question required examining the differences between the two cultural contexts directly. In order to leave the national, or cultural group unbalanced for statistical comparison, the stratified design noted above required equal distribution of participants from each stratum (country). A stratified design placed the total sample (N=200) deliberately divided with two equal and representative samples of 100 from each country (UK/South Africa).

This means conducting a search for multinational/multicultural organisations in South Africa and the United Kingdom, the participants were found. A reasonable number of organisations from both countries were found using extensive search engines. Potential participants were approached after gaining permission from the organisations, who provided a database of their employees' email addresses. One hundred respondents working under women leaders in South Africa and one hundred respondents working under women leaders in the United Kingdom participated in this study.

The age range technique is effective in research surveys, demographic questionnaires, and product testing. In many circumstances, it suffices to know which age categories the respondents belong to in order to segment and interpret the data effectively, rather than knowing the respondents' exact ages. In educational research, bio-data questions can also be used the age group technique (FormPlus, 2022).

The fact that there are the same number of respondents in both nations supports the idea that, while sampling error can be reduced by boosting sample size, the emphasis should instead be placed on the study's overall faults (Pathak, Meinhold & Fisher, 1980: Agresti, 1990: Vogt, 2005: Dudovskiy, 2018). Populations are utilised when every member of a group must contribute data in order to answer a research topic. This is usually only feasible in small, accessible populations (Bhandhari, 2022). Power analysis integrates statistical analysis, subject-area knowledge, and requirements to establish the best sample size for the study. The likelihood that a hypothesis test will find a real impact is known as statistical power. Studies that are both overbearing and underpowered are problematic (Frost, 2021).

### **Morgan and Krejcie Table (1970)**

The researcher utilised the Morgan and Krejcie of 1970 sampling table to calculate the appropriate sample size. Morgan and Krejcie of 1970 table provides a systematic method for determining sample sizes based on the total population size and the desired level of precision. For this study 200 respondents, with 100 participants from each country made up the sample size that includes a diverse group of women leaders, the researcher identified the total number of eligible participants and referred to the table to find the corresponding sample size that would achieve a confidence level of 95% and a margin of error of 5%. The table indicated that for the total population of women leaders in both South Africa and the UK, a sample size of 200 would provide a representative cross-section of opinions and experiences, ensuring that the findings are both reliable and generalizable. This methodical approach underscores the importance of statistical rigor in designing the study, allowing for meaningful comparisons between the two cultural contexts.

A questionnaire sample size of at least a hundred people was required for this investigation. Most statisticians agree that a sample size of 100 is necessary for any significant

result. If there are less than one hundred persons, the entire population must be surveyed. A number of the minimum should be chosen if a rough estimate of the results is required, if one does not intend to divide the sample into different groups during the analysis, if one intends to use a few large subgroups (for example, men/women), if one believes that most people will respond similarly, and if the decisions are made based on the results do not have significant consequences.

Selecting a representative sample is a crucial stage in any research process since it allows the researcher to draw additional conclusions based on the data collected. Sampling is the process of choosing a subset of people from a statistical population in order to figure out the characteristics of the entire population (census). In management research, a variety of sampling methods are available, allowing the researcher to select respondents based on the initial study methodology they have chosen.

Though Kruskal and Mosteller (1979) deftly show that the term ‘representative’ is open to a wide variety of interpretations, one assumes that a sample of probability is representative of the survey population as a whole. One of these is the representativeness of a probabilistic sample. Others contend that a sample made up of the lowest  $n$  components in a population of  $N > n$  elements, even when selected using a probability approach, is hardly representative of the population. To get a sample that is more representative of the population, a number of sampling techniques have been put forth. Särndal, et al., (1992) provide a brief but incisive discussion of three purposive sample selection methods: expert choice sampling, quota sampling, and balanced sampling.

### **3.3.2 Probability sampling**

The latter two methods choose samples from the population in such a way that many population units have zero selection probabilities. Such samples would enable accurate

estimation of a population attribute, but the design-based methodology prevents the assessment of precision with objectivity (Shreuder, Gregoire & Weyer, 2001). Although sampling bias is a potential drawback, random sampling was employed in this study since the more representative the sample, the more the results were generalised to the target population (Enago Academy, 2019; McLeod, 2019). For this investigation, stratified sampling was the method of random selection. The population met special criteria to be homogeneous employees operating in multicultural or national settings (unlike simple random sample and systemic random sampling) and in South Africa and the UK, women are in positions of leadership. Thus, using stratified sampling, all respondents are assigned to a certain category (Murphy, 2021).

The use of stratified sampling for selecting women leaders in the study "The Communication Style Influences on Employee Performance: A Cross-Cultural Analysis of Women Leaders in South Africa and the United Kingdom" is justified as it ensures a representative and diverse sample that captures the complexities of leadership within different cultural contexts. Stratified sampling allows the researcher to divide the population into subgroups—such as industry, organizational size, or leadership experience—before randomly selecting participants from each subgroup. This method enhances the reliability of the findings by ensuring that various perspectives and experiences of women leaders are included in the analysis, reflecting the unique cultural and organizational dynamics present in both South Africa and the UK. By employing this approach, the researcher can better understand how communication styles vary among women leaders across different contexts and how these variations influence employee performance. Ultimately, stratified sampling provided a robust foundation for drawing meaningful conclusions and making informed recommendations for leadership practices in diverse environments.



### **3.3.3 Data saturation**

Data saturation is a critical concept in qualitative research. The use of data saturation in this context ensures that the researcher collects sufficient qualitative data until no new themes or insights emerge (Bowen, 2008). Regarding the communication styles of women leaders and their impact on employee performance. This approach is justified because it enhances the credibility and depth of the findings, allowing for a comprehensive understanding of the nuanced experiences and perspectives of participants. This means that continuing data collection until saturation was achieved, the researcher confidently asserted that the insights gathered reflect a complete picture of the phenomenon under investigation, making the results more robust and applicable across different cultural contexts. This methodological rigor was essential for informing both theory and practice in cross-cultural leadership studies.

This approach allowed for a deeper understanding of the unique experiences and perceptions of women employees working under female leaders, highlighting how cultural factors may influence these interactions. Morse, et al., (2014) state that achieving data saturation for qualitative data enhanced the validity and reliability of the findings, as it demonstrates that the sample adequately represents the broader population's views and experiences. Therefore, data saturation rigor provides a more nuanced and comprehensive analysis, contributing valuable insights into the role of communication style in fostering effective leadership and employee performance across different cultural settings.

### **3.3.4 Sample Size**

The final sample comprised 200 employees, with 100 from South Africa and another 100 from the United Kingdom. For the sampling purposes, each country was considered to have an effectively infinite population, as is common to social science work, where there is not a final population census. In order to determine a statistically valid sample size for each country group

(the UK and South Africa), the standard sample size formula for unknown populations was used. This standard sample size formula estimates what the sample size would need to be in order to reach a desired level of confidence and accuracy. Assuming a conservative, finite population size (N) of 1,000 eligible employees in each country (a manageable estimate for the multinational organizations being considered). The calculations indicate that, in the case of an infinite population, an ideal sample size would be 385 respondents in each country. In the case of a finite population, a corrected formula for the sample size would be used. The sample size was calculated as follows;

$$n_{adj} = \frac{n}{1 + \frac{(n - 1)}{N}}$$

$$n_{adj} = \frac{385}{1 + \frac{(385 - 1)}{1000}}$$

$$n_{adj} = \frac{385}{1 + 0.384}$$

$$n_{adj} = \frac{385}{1.384}$$

$$n_{adj} = 278$$

Although the adjusted sample was 278, a sample of 100 per country was considered adequate and practical for this study since it is in line with conventional practice in cross-cultural studies,

which suggest samples of 100 per group for detection of medium-to-large effect sizes (Cohen, 1988). It complies with the minimum number specified in the Morgan and Krejcie (1970) population table for a population of 1000, which recommends a sample of 278. The number of 100 is lower, but is a number that was considered logistically viable, but still appropriately robust for statistical work and comparisons between groups. The main goal is to compare two groups (UK vs. SA) and not to describe each national population with precision. We believe that 100 per group will provide sufficient power for a comparative purpose. Thus, a final sample of 100 employees from the UK and 100 from South Africa (N=200) was practically established as methodologically appropriate.

### **3.3.5 Rationale for Sample Composition and Representativeness**

The aim of the sampling strategy was to obtain a large sample size of N=200, with 100 participants from South Africa and 100 from the UK. This law-abiding, one-group, two-group non-equivalent design ensures group equivalence to allow cross-cultural analysis on the primary dependent variable, and allows for statistical power to examine and interpret latent differences in attitudes and experiences between the two national contexts without either participating group having disproportionate influence on odds ratios or t-test results (Bryman, 2016). This research was designed for the former—to provide a valid comparative analysis of the two cultural contexts. Its design was not intended to be a nationally representative demographic survey of either country of South Africa or the UK. Therefore, the demographic profile of the total sample is a natural function of drawing equal sized demographic samples from two countries that share a number of distinctions. South Africa is home to a majority Black population, while the UK is predominately White British. Thus, drawing equal samples from each country, we would expect a greater representation of Black respondents in the overall pooled sample and a lower representation of respondents identifying as British, as British is a

nationality and not an ethnicity. This is a function of the research design, not a limitation of the research purpose, as it accurately captures the profile of the two recruited sub-samples. The purpose of the analysis is to focus on the comparison of the two groups cross-culturally, not to generalize the entire pooled sample demographic representation to either of cultural context.

### **3.4 Materials/ Instrumentation of Research Tools**

For this study, a questionnaire-style survey that was distributed via email was used. Surveys can be completed more rapidly and for less money than other main data collection methods like testing and observation. Primary data collecting through surveys allows for very straightforward analysis (Denscombe, 2010; Jackson, 2011; DeFranco, 2022). Surveys can be used to characterize the characteristics of a large population, which is relevant to this study because there were one hundred respondents from South Africa and a hundred respondents from the United Kingdom. Its wide variety of capabilities was unmatched by any other research methodology, ensuring a more precise sample to gather focused data from which to draw conclusions and make important decisions (DeFranco, 2022).

Research on attitudes dates to the 1920s, and "social surveys" of the conditions of the urban poor, which were pioneered in England by Charles Booth and Joseph Rowntree in the 1880s and 1890s and spread to many other countries in the first third of the 20th century, have their roots in centuries of census taking, intelligence and psychological testing, and research on attitudes (Bulmer, Bales & Sklar, 1991). However, their predecessors did not directly give rise to modern surveys. Instead, surveys developed out of the public opinion polls started in the middle of the 1930s by American market researchers, notably Archibald Crossley, Elmo Roper, and others, with the aim of representing entire populations, asking questions on almost any subject, gathering data quickly, and producing quantitative results (Bulmer, 2008).

Starting in the 1950s, there was a noticeable growth in the use of computers to help in the collection and analysis of survey data. The use of computers in any aspect of survey preparation, delivery, or analysis is known as computer-assisted survey information collecting (CASIC). Because CASIC can expedite and simplify data collecting, storage, and analysis, surveys have become more popular and reliable. According to Groves (2011) computers improved data quality by eliminating interviewer bias, reducing survey research expenses, and eliminated data input errors. Prior to the Internet, survey research was facilitated by computers in a number of ways .

Although surveys have been around for almost 200 years, the way they are done and analysed has changed most dramatically with the advent of internet survey platforms. One major development in the field of market research was the ability to manage a survey's whole lifetime from a computer. According to Groves (2011) even with CASIC technology, the process of designing a survey, sending it out, and then analysing survey results was laborious and time-consuming prior to the development of online survey platforms. Survey research is becoming an essential instrument for a greater range of study subjects, including social studies, marketing, and government statistics, thanks to the growth of online surveys.

### **3.5 Reliability and validity**

#### **3.5.1 Reliability and validity of the online questionnaire**

Validity examines how closely a survey instrument matches our desired outcomes. A survey that assesses employee performance but is intended to examine employee engagement, for instance, would not be seen as valid. The degree to which a survey instrument's questions reliably provide the same findings each time they are asked in the same context on different times is referred to as reliability (Knudsen, Martinez- Martin & Deuschl, 2007). A statistical measure called reliability assesses how reproducible the results of the survey instrument are. If

a survey instrument consistently yields similar results and any variation would be attributable to a genuine shift in attitude rather than a change in interpretation (i.e., a measurement error), it is said to have high reliability (Knudsen et al., 2007; Jang, 2020). In this study, the reliability was assessed with the test-retest reliability method. The online questionnaire was administered to the respondents later after the study and the responses at the two time points were assessed. The questions that were loaded onto the same factors were internally consistent. In essence, this stage examined the relationships between questions that load onto the same component. It functioned as a reliability indicator by examining the consistency of the responses. Cronbach's Alpha is a common internal consistency test (CA). The range of Cronbach Alpha values is 0 to 1.0. The number should be at least 0.70, while a value between 0.60 and 0.70 is acceptable. What actions should you do if your value is low? After eliminating a question, some programs have a great feature that displays the CA value.

Therefore, test-retest reliability approach was used in this study to assess the online questionnaire's reliability. Respondents were given the questionnaire at two distinct times so that the consistency of their answers could be evaluated. Cronbach's Alpha was computed for the questionnaire's items in order to assess internal consistency. Reliable internal consistency was indicated by a Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.70 or more. Specific questions were looked at and maybe removed if the value was low (below 0.70), and software tools provided updated Cronbach's Alpha values following modifications.

For the validity of the online questionnaire, the first step is to have specialists or people who are knowledgeable about the subject read the online survey. They should assess if the questions adequately cover the subject of the inquiry. They might have to take notes while pretending to complete the survey. The second step is to have a psychometrician (a person with expertise in questionnaire design) review the online survey for frequent mistakes including double-barrelled, unclear, and misleading questions.

According to Newman, and Ramlo, (2010) factor analysis is a statistical method used to identify underlying relationships between variables in a dataset. The researcher employed factor analysis to establish the validity of the questionnaire by examining the underlying relationships between the survey items and identifying clusters of related questions that measure specific constructs. Thus, conducting this statistical technique, the researcher was able to determine whether the items intended to assess communication styles and employee performance indeed grouped together as expected. Jöreskog, and Moustaki, (2001) state that factor analysis allows researchers to confirming that the questionnaire effectively captures the intended dimensions of the research variables. Factor analysis helps to identify any redundant or irrelevant items, ensuring that each question contributes meaningfully to the overall construct being measured. This process not only enhanced the validity of the instrument by demonstrating that it accurately reflects the theoretical framework but also ensured that the resulting data provided reliable insights into the effects of communication styles on employee performance across different cultural contexts.

For this study, factor analysis was used to establish validity, this involved administering a questionnaire with multiple items designed to measure various aspects of communication styles, such as assertiveness, clarity, empathy, and feedback. After collecting responses from respondents, the researcher performed exploratory factor analysis to identify how these items cluster together. Therefore, identifying clusters of items that measured the same construct, factor analysis eliminated redundant or irrelevant questions, streamlining the questionnaire for better clarity and focus.

### **3.5.2 Reliability and validity of the Skype interviews**

The validity of the coding for interview replies is an important, but often overlooked, methodological concern in cross-cultural research. It is rare for cross-cultural researchers to be able to show that their research's coding are correct, or that they measure what they should. As

a result, many cross-cultural studies' findings are seriously debatable. Cross-cultural studies are criticized for their inconsistent results, especially when researchers use interrater reliability (the level of agreement between at least two independent raters) as a benchmark (Rohner & Katz, 2009).

To fulfill the requirement for rich and nuanced understanding, a separate semi-structured interview guide that included open-ended questions was employed. This tool was employed specifically with the aforementioned sample of 30 women leaders (15 from South Africa and 15 from the UK) researched data saturation. The open-ended questions were critical for: Producing rich narrative data regarding their personal leadership philosophies. Considering the complexity of their reasons for their choice of a communication style.

Interrater reliability, which looks at the degree of agreement between at least two independent raters coding the responses, was used to evaluate the dependability of the Skype interviews. This method guarantees that the coding procedure is legitimate and consistent in many cultural contexts. A pilot research was carried out to improve the interview questions' validity and make sure they correctly measured the desired constructs. The results of this pilot study supported the validity and reliability of the interviewing methodology by demonstrating the coding correctness and pointing out possible cultural differences in comprehension. All things considered, both tools underwent extensive testing to guarantee they produced accurate and legitimate data for the research.

Cultural differences exist in the difficulty of comprehending and mapping, according to the findings of a behavior coding study conducted in the US with African American, Latina, and non-Latina white women. Cho, et al., (2006) found that African Americans reported more mapping problems than white respondents, and Latinas reported more comprehension



problems than white respondents. It was helpful to illustrate the validity and reliability of the Skype interview questions by posting the study's results from a pilot study.

This study followed the two phases of the pilot project (Ader, Mellenbergh & Hand, 2008; Wright & So, 2022) in the following ways:

#### Phase 1

- The model supported the experiment's broad aims by tracking conceptual framework variables (leadership communication styles and employee performance).
- The necessary tools, such as the ethics board and consent forms.
- The tasks that participants must complete, including filling out and submitting the questionnaire and interviews, reading, and comprehending the consent paperwork, and reading and comprehending the questionnaire's criteria.
- Inquiries from participants - The team would need to discuss and record any inquiries that participants might have concerning this study. The goal is to use Grammarly to create a brief set of questions that are well-written, impartial toward the participant, and supportive of one another. This typically necessitates removing a sizable amount of the original questions after eliminating the ones from the initial list (Wright & So, 2022).
- The study's participant count: to ascertain whether 100 participants from the United Kingdom and 100 participants from the United Kingdom are a sufficient sample size.
- The anticipated participant profile - The team needed to reach consensus on the requirements for the participants in this study. The inclusion of individuals who have worked for their organisations for a certain number of years may need to be discussed.

#### Phase 2

In a short and iterative approach, a small sample of participants were used to pilot this study. Depending on how these individuals react, the research approach is evaluated, improved, and then tried on one to two additional persons. Researchers repeat this process until all the "bugs" in the research design have been fixed, like QA-ing a new experiment (Ader et al., 2008; Wright & So, 2022).

### **3.5.3 Questionnaire**

In essence, a survey is a compilation of questions, processes, and methods intended to evaluate and comprehend data about other people. According to Cleave (2021) although a questionnaire was typically one of the survey's components, it only accounts for a small percentage of the total. In contrast, a questionnaire focuses only on the questions that participants are asked in order to obtain their opinion on a certain matter.

Researchers consider the questionnaire to be the primary tool for gathering information from a larger target audience. The majority of questionnaires have a combination of open-ended and closed-ended questions. This allows researchers to collect both qualitative and quantitative data based on their requirements. Compared to other research methods like interviews, the questionnaire helps any research have more structure, which can help enhance the success of whatever researcher wishes to investigate and answer (Jackson, 2011; Cleave, 2021; DeFranco, 2022).

For this study, the instrument consisted of mostly close-ended questions (i.e., Likert scales) to yield standardized numerical data from a larger sample (n=200 employees). This was a practical choice considering the need for efficiency, statistical analysis and generalization of findings on the what and how much of the relationships between communication styles and performance.

The Values Survey Module (VSM) 2013 is a thirty-item paper-and-pencil survey whose purpose is to compare respondents' culturally impacted values and attitudes with those of similarly situated respondents from two or more nations, or sometimes regions within countries. It makes it possible to compute scores using a total of 24 content questions, four for each of the six national cultural factors. The last six questions include the respondent's gender, age, level of education, kind of occupation, current nationality, and nationality at birth. The separation of current nationality and nationality at birth is important to include in the questionnaire as one of the documented reasons is that from 9% in 2004 to 14% in 2021, the proportion of people born outside of the United Kingdom (UK) rose. The percentage of foreign citizens increased from 5% to slightly under 10% throughout the same time frame.

Because many immigrants eventually become UK citizens, the population's proportion of those born outside of the country often grows faster than that of those who are not citizens. European Union (EU) immigrants have historically had a lower naturalization rate than immigrants from non-EU nations. This held true even after the EU membership referendum in 2016, despite an increase in EU citizens applying for citizenship. Approximately 350,000 UK-born children (under the age of 18) were EU citizens in 2021, whereas 118,000 were non-EU citizens, according to the Annual Population Survey (Migration Observatory, 2022). The third version of Hofstede, et al., (2010), which includes a detailed description of the six dimensions measured, was developed by Geert Hofstede and his research collaborators. They address important national societal concerns that have been studied in social anthropology and cross-cultural research (Hofstede & Minkov, 2013).

For this study, twenty-four content questions enable the calculation of index scores for the six national value system dimensions (large vs. small), individualism vs. collectivism, masculinity vs. femininity, uncertainty avoidance (strong vs. weak), long- vs. short-term orientation, indulgence vs. restraint, and power distance. Five-point scales are used to grade all

of the topic questions (1-2-3-4-5). The average scores on five-point scales can be calculated using any basic statistical computer application (Hofstede, et al., 2010). The advantages of Michael Minkov and Geert Hofstede (2013) VSM gives women and men executives in multinational organisations a fundamental understanding that they may use to evaluate the communication style(s) employed for employee performance. The VSM was adapted for this study so that all six dimensions had questions pertaining to each leadership communication style (listening, coaching, teaching, directing, advising and motivating).

Users who compare ten or more nations or areas are encouraged to provide a copy of their findings in the format below to [minkov@iuc.bg](mailto:minkov@iuc.bg) for the purpose of updating and improving the VSM:

- the nations/regions covered, and the languages used in the questionnaire
- dates of data collection (month and year)
- method of gathering data (such as: in class, by postal survey, via email survey, during working hours)
- backgrounds of respondents (e.g., workers at, students at) - total number of respondents
- the respondent sample's demographic breakdown, as indicated by questions 25 to 30,
- mean scores for each question by nation or region 01-24
- index scores for each of the 6 dimensions calculated (Hofstede & Minkov, 2013).

A methodical methodology was used to choose study respondents in order to guarantee a representative and varied 200 sample of respondents under female leaders from South Africa and the United Kingdom. In order to identify networks and organisations fully committed to female leadership, including professional associations and leadership development initiatives, the researcher started with a comprehensive literature analysis. To get information on eligible

respondents, outreach was done to these organisations, with a focus on respondents under women leadership positions across a range of industries. The researcher made sure the chosen respondents were diverse in terms of industry, expertise, and cultural background by using stratified sampling technique. After that, invitations to take part were sent out, stressing the importance of their insights and anonymity. A final sample of 200 women leaders, 100 from each nation, was produced as a result of this painstaking procedure, offering a wide range of viewpoints for insightful study and comparison.

### **3.6 Operational Definition of Variables**

The independent variable for this study was the leader communication styles which were participatory or authoritarian. The dependent variable was employee performance. The moderating variable was leadership experience, corporate size, and employee demographic, economy and political environment. The selected statistical tests for this study were ANOVA and t-test. The ANOVA compares the association of two groups (women leaders from the South Africa and United Kingdom) of the moderating variable which also spoke to the data from the qualitative supplementary interview questions. This in turn sought to accept or reject hypothesis 1. The t-test assessed whether two groups (mediating variable) differed statistically which will speak to the quantitative data of online questionnaires. This in turn sought to accept or reject hypothesis 1, 2 and 3. The qualitative Skype interviews were processed as a thematic analysis where the independent variable (leader communication styles) sought to accept or reject the research objectives.

#### **3.6.1 Variable 1 – Dependent variable – employee performance**

Although performance is a broad concept, it may be broken down into two primary components: the intended outcome and the process element, or behavioral interactions

(Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). The activities people take to finish a task are referred to in this study as behavior, and the results section discusses the consequences of an individual's work behavior (Campbell, 1990). In the workplace, behavioral engagement and expected outcomes are related, but they don't fully overlap yet because the behavioral component has less of an impact on expected achievements than motivation and cognitive capacity (Borman & Motowildlo, 1993). The operational definition of employee performance in this study is the behavioral component of how an employee carries out their task by meeting their objectives. An online questionnaire measuring performance on an ordinal scale of 1 to 5 was used to collect data from workers at each stage of the variable's evaluation. The specific scores used in the study came from the first answers found in the average answers to the survey items.

### **3.6.2 Variable 2 – Independent variable – leader communication styles**

Politicians have been pushed to use sophisticated digital communication strategies in their campaigns during the past ten years because of the increasing usage of ICTs, including social networking sites like Facebook and microblogs like Twitter. Politicians' content and methods of communication with their constituents are being transformed by social media. They serve as instruments for engaging with a more demanding citizenry as well as for adopting innovative techniques to provide more individualized and direct messages and images to the general audience. There aren't any thorough empirical studies on the political communication styles used in Twitter, despite some studies highlighting the uniqueness of the format and content of tweets. The study examines the e-campaigning of Italian political figures and offers an operational description of communication styles (Paolo, et al., 2021).

In this 2021 study, prior to being operationalized, the concept of communication style needs to be conceptually specified because it is so broad and multifaceted. The terms "communication style" and "communicative performance and patterns," which include "arguments" and "ways of speaking," respectively" (Pels, 2012: Charteris-Black, 2014).

According to a number of recent empirical studies on political communication on Twitter, the form and content of the communications are the initial macro factors that make up the concept of communication style (Bracciale & Martella, 2017). What is said and how it is stated in political performances on Twitter interact with each other and are closely related to each other (Pels, 2012; Wodak, 2015). As a result, the operational definition of leadership communication styles in this study is defined as those that managers of various cultural backgrounds can readily identify with when supervising, instructing, directing, delegating, inspiring, listening, and coaching staff members. This variables data sources emanated from the qualitative Skype interviews as well as archival data. The raw data source was categorized and coded by adding up the interview replies, with a nominal level of measurement applied to this variable.

### **3.5.3 Variable 3 – Moderating variable – Women leaders experience**

In order to thrive when serving in a leadership role, women leaders usually downplay their femininity (Eagly & Johnson, 1990). There is less role conflict (Eagly, et al., 1992). If not, she invites prejudice in the form of unjust performance evaluations and negative preconceptions, both of which could negatively impact her output (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Men are more likely than women to be leaders when it comes to bias. This shift in roles has an effect on women's health. When working in their usual way, which is interpersonally focused, they have not reported feeling under pressure or having mental health concerns; but, when they are required to alter their leadership style, they become mentally ill (Gardiner & Tiggemann, 1999). Serving in historically male-dominated professions like the military forces women to adapt their leadership approach. Male leaders are preferred in these kinds of organizations, and most people in military and law enforcement roles are men. This is the way that male-oriented groups, such as the military and police, vary from other kinds of organizations. The skills needed by firms that cater to men differ greatly from those of the feminine gender.

In groups where males predominate, women must exhibit stereotypically masculine traits in order to be accepted as cadets. (Francke, 1997; Ehrbert & Hall, 1993). Engen, Leeden, and Willemsen (2001) found that women who had worked in other male-dominated fields, like the car and lumber industries, considered themselves as task-oriented, while women who had worked in female-dominant fields, like the beauty industry, education, and nursing, saw themselves as interpersonally oriented. Women who want to work in the military usually adjust to the male-dominated environment and fit in by compromising on their leadership style in order to succeed. People who are hard to adjust leave the organization. Organizational cultures become more uniform and less varied as a result of adaptations (Kelley, 1997).

In order to blend in, female military personnel adopt a "in-between role" that is neither too feminine nor too macho. They are capable, logical, impersonal, and they portray themselves in a way that complies with gender norms. People try to do better as a result while upholding their gender norms (Herbert, 1998). Owing to the results of earlier operational definitions of women leaders, women leaders in this study are defined as those who exercise leadership in accordance with their own cultural practices, whether those practices are Western or African. The category level of measurement for this variable will determine if the female leader is of African or Western descent.

From the Skype interviews the exact scores were grouped into the United Kingdom group answers and the South Africa group answers to analyse from the two countries.

### **3.7 Procedures and Research ethics**

#### **3.7.1 Research procedures**

This thesis was approved by the University Research Ethics Committee prior to data collection. One hundred (50 male and 50 female) participants from multinational and



multicultural organizations in South Africa and one hundred (50 male and 50 female) participants from multinational and multicultural organizations in the United Kingdom were asked to complete an online questionnaire as the study's human subjects. An additional fifteen female leaders—fifteen from South Africa and fifteen from the United Kingdom—were asked to participate in a Skype interview. Potential participants were contacted only after obtaining permission from the organizations, which was done by speaking with the Gatekeeper.

The firms had to provide the researchers with a link to an online questionnaire so that the employees could participate in the study. Every reply was offered the choice of accepting or rejecting the link. After accepting the link, participants received the debriefing of their participation form. As indicated in the participant debriefing form, the researcher promised to make sure that participants are voluntarily participating in the study and that there are no potential dangers or negative effects on them.

The participants have to read the terms and sign the certificate of consent form after signing the debriefing participant form. The document had to be signed by the participant to attest to their completion of the following:

- Read or have the study's information read to you if it has already been provided. I had the opportunity to discuss it and ask questions.
- Got satisfactory answers to all of their questions and enough information regarding the study.
- Acknowledged that there are no consequences and no requirement to give a reason for quitting the research at any time.
- Given consent for the use of multimedia (including audio and video recordings) related to their participation in the research.
- Freely consented to participate in the study; acknowledged that, absent specific instructions to the contrary, their data was kept private and anonymous.

Over the course of 48 hours, the questionnaire was only completed in a maximum of one hour

in order to prevent conflicting with regular commitments and responsibilities. The system would log a respondent out and force them to log back in before allowing them to continue with the questionnaire if an hour went by and they still hadn't completed it. If the respondent does not finish the questionnaire within 48 hours, they will not be authorized to log into the system. This guarantees that the respondents' unfinished questionnaire responses are removed from the system, giving them peace of mind. The women leaders signed their signatures on the informed consent form after reading it three times to ensure that they understood the questions. This was done before the online Skype interviews were completed.

The names of the participants were not recorded on the entire questionnaire, and the answers to the online survey were kept fully private. The interviews with the female leaders yielded anonymous responses. Participants were advised that they could opt out of the study and that their answers would not be taken into account after completing the online survey and Skype interview. The data gathered was reported in the final dissertation once it was available to all participants. There were no consequences or requirements for leaving the study early, and participants were free to do so without providing a reason. The information gathered may be deleted under specific circumstances. Everyone who did not participate in this study was not able to access any of the coded data and information that had been collected. When discussed and included in dissemination operations, data was only coded information that ensures participant identification beyond the realm of possibility.

### **6.7.2 Ethical Assurances**

Research compliance is the process by which the organization confirms that research activity is conducted in accordance with ethical guidelines and federal law (Dubois, 1989). Previously, academicians were frequently unwilling to talk about the ethical difficulties they encountered in their work as researchers and academicians, but times are changing. When it

comes to handling sensitive research material or supervising graduate students, academic psychologists are more likely to seek advice from their colleagues (Smith, 2003). The competitive "publish or perish" culture of academics can be a recipe for problems when it comes to authorship credit.

The best way to avoid disagreements about who should receive credit and in what sequence is to discuss these issues at the beginning of a professional relationship, even if many people often feel uncomfortable about them. Tangney continues, "It's almost like talking about money. They don't want to come across as egotistical or avaricious.

For advice, the researcher ought to consult the APA Ethical Code. Faculty advisers should discuss publication credit with students as early as possible and as needed during the research and publishing process, according to the recommendation (Sales & Falkman, 2000). When the researcher and supervisor put their work in writing, they have a helpful tool to help them consistently improve it. Because Web technology is continually developing, researchers must be technologically literate to do research online and cautious when sending personal material electronically (American Psychological Association, 2002). An Internet-savvy person will be needed to help the study's researcher, or else it might be possible for others to obtain material you thought was well shielded.

If it is practicable, the researcher may think about removing personal information from sensitive documents and storing them in a secure area with restricted access (for example, by employing codes). It is important for the researcher to be aware of situations in which confidentiality might be inadvertently breached, such as while conducting private Skype interviews in an unsound proof room where the conversations could be overheard by anyone outside the room. The researcher needs to wear headphones to make sure that no one outside the room may hear the interviewee's responses.

In order to prevent professional prejudice, the following steps were taken into consideration for this thesis:

- The guidelines must always be adhered to; the norms of the University Research Ethics Committee should be consulted for any inquiries.
- Careful documentation of the study, particularly the procedures for gathering data, is necessary to minimize errors since it lowers the possibility of errors occurring during data analysis. The investigation's goals should be clearly stated and taken into consideration at all times, particularly in the early stages of data collection.
- The researcher should avoid confirmation bias. Even if the results don't seem important or relevant, they should all be included in the final report after data analysis.

A critical element in guaranteeing the safety of keeping secrecy is private information. The researcher needs to use several techniques to protect the subjects' identities. To protect their records above all else, they use password-protected files, encryption when transferring data online, and even the more traditional closed doors and drawers. Often, when they collect data, they overlook the connection between subject responses and identifying information (usually through the use of a code that is unique to them). Additionally, since participants may be identified by a combination of IDs or other criteria rather than just their names, researchers typically reveal aggregate data to the public rather than specific information about each individual.

### 3.8 Data Collection and Analysis

Data acquired from mutually quantitative and qualitative sources were gathered for this study. The knowledge needed to address the concepts that follow will be provided by the data gathered and examined:

*H1 Culture has an effect on the communication styles used by women leaders from South Africa and the United Kingdom.*

*H2 Women leaders from South Africa have a more authoritarian communication style concerning employees and women leaders from the United Kingdom have a more participatory communication style regarding employees.*

*H3: The authoritarian communication technique has a positive statistical significance on the performance of employees (Turton, 2015).*

*H4: The participatory communication technique has positive a statistical significance on the performance of employees (Sagie, 2009; Turton, 2015).*

Methodological triangulation was applicable in this study because a quantitative survey and a few qualitative structured interviews were conducted. This type of triangulation is quite similar to the mixed method approaches used in social science research, where the results of one method are used to enhance, augment, and clarify the results of another (Bekhet & Zauszniewski, 2012; UNAIDS, 2021). Understanding and appreciating the influence of communication style on employee performance is the aim of this research. To achieve this, a methodological triangulation approach involved employee questionnaires and interviews with female leaders was employed to obtain different perspectives on how to analyse the respondents' data.

#### i. Quantitative Data Collection and Analysis

An online questionnaire serving as a quantitative data gathering instrument was given to one hundred employees working under female leaders in multicultural and international organizations in South Africa and the United Kingdom. Data was kept separate and unconnected from any other records that contain personally identifiable information, unless it is being used to determine an individual's eligibility for the research. For the thirteen content questions, the index scores for the six national value approach dimensions (large vs. small, individualism vs. collectivism, masculinity vs. femininity, uncertainty avoidance (strong vs. weak), long- vs. short-term orientation, indulgence vs. restraint, and power distance) was evaluated.

The ordinal five-point grading system (1-2-3-4-5) for each theme question sought to answer the three hypotheses. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to calculate the averages of the five-point scale. Regression analysis was also used to identify trends in the data by analysing the independent variables (leadership communication styles) and dependent variables (employee performance). An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to interpret the moderating variable (women leaders), and a t-test was used to interpret the mediating variable (Western and African Culture). The variables match the predictions of the statistical tests, and the tests fit to answer the hypotheses.

## **ii. Qualitative Data Collection**

To collect qualitative data, female leaders from South Africa and the other from the United Kingdom took part in Skype virtual interviews. Using Geert Hofstede's dimensions to determine national culture scores, they were asked questions on their leadership communication approaches. These inquiries, which solicited input from female leaders as well as staff members, data gathered had a greater impact on whether the hypotheses are accepted or rejected. A deductive approach was used for this investigation because qualitative research

is a tiny part of a bigger quantitative study (Lacey & Luff, 2009). The researcher had one-on-one conversations with each respondent in order to collect the data.

A key idea in qualitative research, the principle of data saturation, guided the choice to interview female leaders from South Africa and the United Kingdom. When more interviews no longer produce fresh themes or ideas, data saturation has been reached, signifying that a thorough comprehension of the research issue has been attained (Sirwan, 2025). Saturation frequently happens within sample sizes of 12 to 20 participants, depending on the population's diversity and the topic's complexity, according to studies by Sarfo et al. (2021) and Sirwan (2025). This study used data saturation to choose participants by nation in order to ensure that the data obtained is rich and valuable while capturing a wide range of experiences and viewpoints. As a result of this data saturation, the distinct cultural settings of women leaders in South Africa and the UK could be thoroughly examined, leading to an improved understanding of their cross-cultural communication dynamics.

### **iii. Qualitative data analysis approach and statistical test**

The qualitative data for this study were analysed using a thematic analysis approach, which involved going over and over the recorded material again to seek for themes in the Skype interview responses. Comprehensive theme analysis can produce dependable and informative results (Rice & Ezzy, 1999; Nowell, Norris, Hecker, Rabatach, Noseworthy & White, 2017). To achieve high-quality findings, a rigorous analysis procedure is the most important aspect of concept analysis. In order to maintain the necessary rigor throughout the process, the study will employ Braun and Clarke's five phase analysis process (2006). The first step-familiarization with the data-begins, as its name suggests, with the researchers' wish to get to know their data.

The phase is crucial since it guides the researcher through any further steps that may be required in order to appropriately examine the data (Dawadi, 2020). The interviews data was

extensively transcribed in order to obtain an understanding of the participants' responses to the concerns raised in this study about employee performance and leaders' communication methods. All of the transcripts were put into NVivo 10 for analysis. NVivo coding made it possible to apply different codes in the second phase by selecting interesting phrases, sentences, or paragraphs. Each transcript was thoroughly read several times before being coded. While some codes have many phrases, others had only have one.

The data extracts were coded in order to examine the communication style view of women leaders and the communication style view of cultural leaders. A list of the codes was prepared on a different piece of paper in advance of phase three, and organised into idea-piles that take into account the relationships between the codes and the ideas. All coded extracts relevant to each initial idea were taken from the NVivo file and pasted into a Microsoft Word document. This allowed coded extracts and ideas to be cross-referenced with each other and to be retrieved, compared, and meaningfully organized in Phase 4, at level one. The whole data set was be utilised for this method. Phase five demands paying close attention to each idea's 'narrative' and how it fits into the larger 'story' the researcher wants to talk about the data in relation to the hypotheses, making sure there is little to no overlap between the thoughts.

### **b. Summary**

Skype interviews were employed as a qualitative research strategy in this study in addition to a quantitative one using an online questionnaire. In a series of online interviews conducted through Skype, fifteen women leaders from South Africa and fifteen women leaders from the United Kingdom will be questioned about their leadership communication styles in relation to their national culture scores as determined by Geert Hofstede's (1980) dimensions. These



questions, which will get feedback from both staff members and female leaders, will be more influential in determining whether the theories are accepted or rejected.

Because of the completion of an online questionnaire by a hundred employees from South Africa and a hundred employees from the United Kingdom, the quantitative research approach is the primary emphasis of this study. The study's potential ethical dilemmas must be adequately disclosed to the researcher.

## CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

### 4.1 Trustworthiness of data

Alternative criteria, such as credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability, should be used by qualitative researchers to evaluate the reliability of their findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1997). The basis of qualitative and quantitative research, respectively, is a different research paradigm that represents the researcher's scientific perspective. As a result, variations arise in methodology, approaches, and results (Mahoney & Goertz, 2012; Stumpfegger, 2017). It makes sense to assess the quality of academic research using distinct standards for (1) quantitative and (2) qualitative approaches. The cross-cultural analysis of female leaders' communication methods in South Africa and the UK is crucial to employee success.

A questionnaire and interviews were utilised in the research investigation to gather information using primary and secondary data. It was not possible to locate secondary data on the subject of the study in South Africa or the UK. A well-structured online questionnaire and interview questions were used to gather primary statistics. The results of the qualitative interview questions approach improved, supplemented, and clarified the responses to the quantitative online questionnaire. A questionnaire for employees and an interview with women leaders were utilised as part of a methodological triangulation to get different viewpoints on data analysis from the respondents.

Statistical tables and graphs were used by the researcher to portray the quantitative data gathered for numerical analyses, while transcription and coding were used to present the qualitative data gathered for numerical studies. The most effective strategy for gathering information for this study on how to raise employee performance in the UK and South Africa was the mixed methods approach. The quantitative data collection tool was an online survey

distributed to a hundred workers in South Africa and a hundred workers in the UK who are currently employed as female leaders in multinational/multicultural organizations. Since the data was not used to establish a person's eligibility for the research, it was kept apart from and apart from any other records that contain personal identifying information.

The calculation of index scores for the six dimensions of the national value system—power distance, individualism versus collectivism, masculinity versus femininity, and uncertainty avoidance (strong versus weak)—led to the development of the thirteen content questions. Every relevant question was graded using five-point ordinals (1-2-3-4-5), and the outcomes of this grading matched the four hypotheses. The average ratings on five-point scales (PSPP) were computed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences. Regression analysis was performed on the data, with staff performance serving as the dependent variable and leadership communication strategies serving as the independent variable. The responses in Western and African cultures were evaluated using a t-test, and the moderating impact of women was examined using an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). Anticipations were met by the outcomes of the statistical tests that were standardized to address the variables and hypotheses.

In online Skype interviews, data saturation was achieved to collect data from female leaders from South Africa and the UK responded to questions on their leadership communication styles based on national culture scores derived from Geert Hofstede's dimensions. The qualitative information gathered was supplied by the interview responses. Feedback from female executives and staff members was incorporated into these investigations, and this had a bigger influence on whether the hypothesis was accepted or rejected. The researcher conducted one-on-one interviews with each respondent to obtain the data. As part of the qualitative data collection process, the recorded material for the Skype

interview responses was examined and reviewed using thematic analysis. As stated by Nowell, Norris, Hecker, Rabatach, Noseworthy & White, 2017; Rice & Ezzy, 1999), a systematic idea analysis technique can produce dependable and enlightening conclusions.

The most crucial part of the idea analysis process is producing outcomes of the highest standard, which requires a rigorous analysis strategy. Braun and Clarke five-phase analytical technique was employed in the study (2006) to ensure the rigor required throughout the methodology. As the name implies, the researchers' desire to become familiar with their data was the starting point for the first stage, familiarisation with the data. This stage is important because it directed the researcher's next steps.

In order to understand the participants' responses to the questions posed in this study regarding the impact of leaders' communication styles on employee performance, the interviews were fully transcribed. NVivo 10 was used to load all of the transcripts for analysis. Phase two was the application of several codes through the selection of significant words, phrases, and paragraphs using NVivo coding. Before being coded, each transcript was carefully examined multiple times. While some codes had many phrases, others just had one. To assess the communication style viewpoint for women leaders and the communication style view for leaders based on culture, the data extracts were coded.

On a different sheet of paper, a list of the codes was made in chronological order and arranged into idea piles for phase three, taking into account the relationships between the codes and the concepts. To enable cross-referencing of the coded extracts with the ideas and to carry out the retrieval, comparison, and meaningful organization of coded extracts and ideas in Phase 4 at level one, all relevant coded extracts for each initial idea were extracted from the NVivo file and pasted into a Microsoft Word document. The entire set of data was used in this process.

In phase five, it was ensured that there was minimal to no overlap between the concepts and that each concept's "narrative" fit into the larger "story" the researcher wished to tell about

the data and in connection with the hypotheses. The researcher felt confident in the reliability of the data collected from trustworthy sources, which included personnel in multicultural and multinational organizations led by women, for this study.

### **1. Credibility**

Zambo (2004) defined credibility as the plausibility and consistency of the data. It indicates how closely the results reflect the viewpoints and experiences of the participants. In order to establish credibility in this regard, the researcher used a number of strategies, such as triangulating results by utilizing data from many sources and member verification to ensure data accuracy. In order to obtain feedback on the validity of the findings, the researcher also performed peer debriefing and made sure data saturation was achieved in order to guarantee thorough and extensive data collection.

### **2. Transferability**

Transferability is the degree to which the results can be used to individuals or circumstances that are not included in the study sample, according to Babbie and Mouton (2021). The researcher produced this study's research so that readers might draw parallels between the scenario under investigation and their own situations in order to achieve transferability. In addition to choosing a sample representative of the target audience, which consists of SMME owners, this offered a thorough description of the study's participants and environment. To find similarities and differences, the researcher also compared the findings with those of earlier research.

### **3. Dependability**

This illustrates the consistency and dependability of the research's conclusions throughout time. A study should show its audience, according to Babbie and Mouton (2021), that the same outcomes would be obtained if the same subjects and the same setting were used again, but with a new researcher. In order to ensure reliability, the researcher documented every stage of the research process, including data collection and analysis. Additionally, the researcher employed overlapping approaches and provided a comprehensive explanation of the methodology to facilitate study replication. Furthermore, dependability was achieved by maintaining an audit trail that documents changes to the research protocol and data coding, as well as by employing a systematic and ordered approach to data analysis.

#### **4. Confirmability**

Procedures that ensure the objectivity and neutrality of the collected data are necessary to achieve confirmability (Zambo 2004). In order to ensure confirmability, the researcher employed a methodical and transparent approach to data analysis, promoting objectivity by utilizing many data sources. Transcripts of the interviews were also kept by the researcher as a record of decisions and changes made throughout the course of the investigation. In addition, identifying the study's methodological shortcomings and possible effects, conducting an audit, and acknowledging the researcher's assumptions and presumptions.

#### **4.2 Quantitative Results from Questionnaires**

In this chapter, the researcher conducted a systematic analysis of data collected via questionnaires using SPSS 20.0 software. Numerous statistical methods, including regression analysis, ANOVA, correlation analysis, variable reliability evaluation, descriptive analysis, and hypothesis testing, are employed in the analysis. The results were presented with appropriate tables and graphs, accompanied by text to ensure readability and clarity.

### 4.3 Demographic characteristics of respondents

The percentage and frequencies are displayed in Table 1 below. Of the 200 valid responses in the random sample, 67% of the employees had more than ten years of work experience, and the majority held managerial positions. The findings unequivocally demonstrate that a large percentage of the staff (66.0%) have academic training. Similarly, 44.5% of the participants are British, 45.5% are South African, and 10% are of other nationalities.

**Table 1** *Demographic characteristics of respondents*

| Demographics       |                      | Frequency | Percent |
|--------------------|----------------------|-----------|---------|
| <b>Education</b>   |                      |           |         |
|                    | Academically Trained | 132       | 66.0    |
|                    | Generally Trained    | 68        | 34.0    |
| <b>Nationality</b> |                      |           |         |
|                    | South Africa         | 89        | 44.5    |
|                    | UK                   | 91        | 45.5    |
|                    | Other                | 20        | 10.0    |
| <b>Experience</b>  |                      |           |         |
|                    | ≤ 10 years           | 66        | 33.0    |
|                    | > 10 years           | 134       | 67.0    |
| <b>N=200</b>       |                      |           |         |

Source: Field data (2023)

As shown in Table 1, the demographic profiles of the UK and South African samples were broadly comparable. The demographic breakdown of the sample is displayed in Table 1. The breakdown of nationality is nearly even between participants from either the United Kingdom (44.5%, n=89) or South Africa (45.5%, n=91) with a small group of other countries (10%, n=20). This relatively equal representation is important for the study, as it will detour one cultural group from outweighing the other, adding validity to the cross-cultural aspects of H1 and H3. Within each nationality group, the age categories are distributed as follows: 21.3% of South Africans are between the ages of 20 and 30; 44.9% are between the ages of 31 and

40; 19.1% are between the ages of 41 and 50; 10.1% are between the ages of 51 and 60; and 4.5% are older than 61. 30.8% of UK citizens are between the ages of 20 and 30; 45.1% are between the ages of 31 and 40; 20.9% are between the ages of 41 and 50; 3.3% are between the ages of 51 and 60; and none are older than 61.

According to the demographic statistics, 89 of the participants are from South Africa, 91 are from the United Kingdom and 20 were from other nationalities. This distribution of nations demonstrates a diversified sample including representation from South Africa and the United Kingdom, which supports the analysis for H1 in question. This variation raises the possibility of cultural influences on the communication techniques of these women leaders. The results are in line with research by Munoz (2017), who talked about how corporate communication recognizes how communication has changed and continues to develop throughout time.

A variety of people with various educational backgrounds and training experiences appears to be represented in the distribution of the 132 participants who were academically trained and the 68 participants who were generally trained. This variation in educational backgrounds may help the sample's viewpoints, abilities, and expertise to span a wider spectrum. Academically trained individuals (132 participants) are those who have finished formal education programs at colleges, universities, or other academic establishments. These individuals most likely possess expertise and understanding in their field of study or concentration. The higher proportion of participants with academic background indicates a considerable representation of formal education in the sample. On the other hand, individuals who received training or education outside of official educational institutions fell within the group of the generally trained (68 participants). Their skills and knowledge may have been acquired through workshops, career programs, apprenticeships, or other non-academic sources. These people might have learned what they know through specialized programs or practical

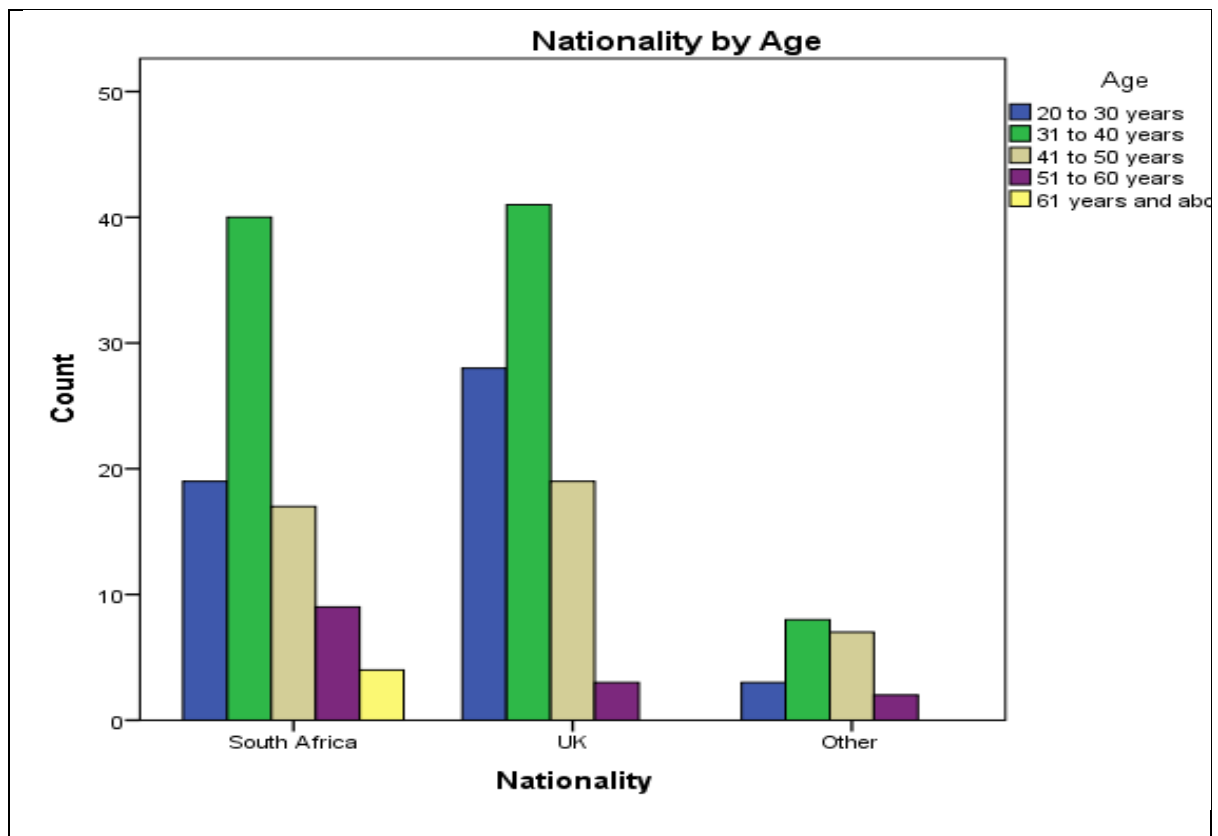


training that isn't usually linked to traditional university degrees. This is in line with Nelson's (2015) assertion that Aristotle shifts the emphasis of education from an ethical discussion of practice to an epistemological argument of knowing.

Chi-Square tests were performed to investigate the relationship between the Nationality and Age categories. The results indicate that the age and nationality categories do not significantly correlate. We were unable to rule out the null hypothesis because the Pearson Chi-Square association test's p-value was more than 0.05. As a result, the study came to the conclusion that the sample's age group proportions are comparable among the various nationalities. The collection of genuine representative study data will benefit greatly from these descriptive findings.

This demography effectively enables a strong comparison between the two main cultural contexts examined. Additionally, the significant proportion of respondents with over ten years of experience (67%) suggests that the data source on leadership communication is drawn from a skilled and knowledgeable workforce, perhaps enhancing their reliability of perceptions. The profile of sample experience matches some behavioural leadership studies conducted by researchers like Priyashantha et al. (2016) who also focused on tenured employees to obtain data around pre-established leadership contexts.

**Figure 1** Nationality versus Age of Respondents



Source: Field data (2023)

As shown in figure 4.1, the nationality of the UK and South African and other are shown above. According to the study, 134 out of the respondents had at least ten years of experience in their respective industries or businesses, making them the majority in this category with a substantial level of professional expertise. These individuals most likely have a greater understanding of market trends, communication styles in various professional contexts, and a greater amount of experience with a range of workplace situations. Experience may have contributed to the development of their skills, discernment, and leadership qualities. A further indication of the comparatively low level of professional experience among the respondents is the fact that 66 of them had fewer than ten years of experience in their respective industries or businesses. These participants may be recent hires or individuals just beginning their careers. Their little exposure to the intricacies and challenges of the work may have an effect on their

perspectives, skills, and expertise. The findings correspond with works by Nelson (2015), who emphasized that experience—which Aristotle also mentioned—is the first essential attribute that successful leaders need to possess (Nelson, 2015). This suggests that experience counts in today's top positions in education. According to Aristotle et al. (2009), advice from an inexperienced person "will be vain and unprofitable."

#### 4.4 Results of the Reliability Test

**Table 2** *Cronbach's Alpha Test*

| Cronbach's Alpha test            |                  |
|----------------------------------|------------------|
| Items Type                       | Cronbach's Alpha |
| Authoritarian Communication (AC) | 0.656            |
| Participatory Communication (PC) | 0.769            |
| Culture (CE)                     | 0.686            |
| Employee Performance (EP)        | 0.783            |

Source: *Field Data (2023)*

Table 4.2 employed Cronbach's Alpha to assess the internal consistency and conduct a reliability analysis of the variables (AC, PC, CE, and EP). As suggested by Pallent (2007), measurement reliability is considered satisfactory when Cronbach's Alpha values are more than 0.60. The results show that AC (0.66), PC (0.77), CE (0.69), and EP (0.78) all exceeded this cut-off, indicating the validity of the data collected for each variable. By proving the dependability of our data collection process and instilling confidence in the consistency and accuracy of the measurements, this supports the overall quality and validity of our study findings. The findings are coherent with study conducted by Jofreh and Masoumi, (2013) who observed that there is solid evidence connecting organizational culture to performance and that organizational culture has a major impact on a business unit's success. The majority of Japanese

companies find success by first creating an organizational culture and then hiring dedicated employees (Jofreh & Masoumi, 2013).

**Table 3** *Bivariate Correlation Analysis among Variables*

| Pearson Correlation                                          | PC     | AC     | culture | EP |
|--------------------------------------------------------------|--------|--------|---------|----|
| PC                                                           | 1      |        |         |    |
| AC                                                           | .588** | 1      |         |    |
| Culture                                                      | .665** | .480** | 1       |    |
| EP                                                           | .615** | .100** | .889**  | 1  |
| **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). |        |        |         |    |

Source: Field Data (2023)

Correlation in data analysis indicates the strength and direction of a relationship between variables. A moderate and significant association between the variables is indicated by the significant positive correlations ( $r = 0.588$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) between PC and AC in Table 4.3. The robust correlation implies that AC typically rises in tandem with PC. This suggests that those who communicate more participatory also tend to communicate authoritatively more often. Muchiri and Van Breeman's (2021) study on the impact of participative leadership on worker performance yielded similar results. Their correlational study revealed a statistically significant positive relationship between worker performance and autocratic leadership ( $r = .706$ ,  $p < .000$ ).

Furthermore, a close relationship between PC and cultural values has been found, as evidenced by the substantial and statistically significant positive correlation ( $r = 0.665$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) found between PC and culture. It implies that cultural values and participatory communication (PC) in the workplace are closely related. The trend for cultural values to

develop in tandem with PC emphasizes the importance of cultural influences on communication style. The findings are consistent with the research carried out by Quast (2016), which highlighted the need for leaders to provide their employees with an explanation of the reasoning behind encouraging open discussions regarding ideas and points of view. Thus, an organization can do tasks more successfully if its culture promotes critical thinking, information sharing, and staff feedback (Quast, 2016).

The results of the study indicate that PC and EP have a strong and favorable connection ( $r = 0.615$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). This highlights the importance of PC to the EP. Additionally, the significant and positive correlation ( $r = 0.480$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) between AC and culture suggested a moderate relationship between the two. It implies that cultural values rise along with AC. This suggests that the adoption of an authoritarian communication style may be influenced by cultural variables. The results of the study support the literature by Lim (1995), which claims that techniques and results show that culture and performance were seen as consistent. Despite the fact that cultures across nations differ greatly, other supporting literature (Hewlett and Rashid (2010), Northouse (2015), Eden & Forquer Gupta (2017), Moriarty 2019) argued that culture is a motivating factor in female leadership development and women in top management positions.

A very weak but statistically substantial positive association was seen between AC and EP ( $r = 0.100$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). According to this correlation, there is a very slight but statistically significant positive correlation between employee performance (EP) and authoritarian communication (AC). It suggests that there is a slight trend for employee performance to increase when AC rises, albeit less so than in the other correlations. This is in line with research by Muchiri and Van Breeman (2021) which found that respondents were undecided about

whether they actively participate in decision-making on how an authoritarian leadership style affected the output of workers.

The robust and statistically significant positive connection ( $r = 0.889$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) found between culture and EP is especially noteworthy. It implies that when utilizing a PC, employee productivity frequently rises. This demonstrates the link between enhanced employee performance levels and more participatory communication approaches. The significance of cultural values on employee performance is highlighted by this research. Strong correlations exist, and a company's culture can help it obtain a competitive edge. Organizational culture can help uncover obstacles to performance reviews, however as Rousseau (1990) discovered, there is a negative correlation between culture and employee performance because of its negative effects on work output.

These findings imply that these variables have significant relationships with one another, with culture having a particularly strong interaction with PC and EP. As so, the results show how the different factors in the study are related to one another. They assert that there are strong relationships between employee performance, authoritative communication, participatory communication, and cultural values. This is consistent with studies conducted by Brooks (2006), who looked at the relationship between an organization's organizational culture and employee performance. The main operations of an organization are driven by employee performance. The loyalty of an employee is influenced by their comprehension and awareness of the organizational culture.

#### 4.5 Regression Model 1

**Table 4** *Regression Analysis*

| Model Summary | R     | R-Square | Adjusted R-Square |
|---------------|-------|----------|-------------------|
|               | 0.617 | 0.381    | 0.375             |

*Source: SPSS Output Data (2023)*

Table 4.4 presents Regression Model 1 where the model accounts for 38.1% of the variance in employee performance ( $R^2 = 0.381$ ), signifying moderate-to-strong explanatory power. The ANOVA results ( $F(2, 197) = 60.595$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) demonstrated that the model was statistically significant. This means that the influence of participatory and authoritarian communication styles is a meaningful predictor of employee performance. The  $R^2 = 0.381$ , amount of variance explained in employee performance, is a measurable indication of the influence of communication styles, demonstrating the influence of communication style as an important factor, while suggesting there are other variables which are not accounted for in this model that also influence employee performance. The strength of this relationship is analogous with Eagly & Johnson's (1990) meta-analytic findings that identified a positive relationship between leadership behaviour and subordinate performance that is not statistically obvious. However, this refined analysis provides an alternative and more plausible account of the relationship by isolating and quantifying specific communication styles

The model summary presented in Table 4.4 indicates a high degree of confidence regarding the relationship between employee performance and both participative and authoritarian communication styles. With a multiple correlation coefficient (R) of 0.617, employee performance and communication styles appear to be somewhat positively correlated. Furthermore, based on the coefficient of determination (R Square) of 0.381, the independent variables (participatory and authoritarian communication styles) explain approximately 38.1%

of the variance in employee performance. The Adjusted R-Square of 0.375 (37.5%) offers a more precise evaluation of the model's goodness of fit by modifying the R Square value for the number of predictors in the model.

These findings underline the importance of effective communication strategies for raising overall performance outcomes by showing that both communication types considerably contribute to explaining variances in employee performance. The findings are consistent with study by Ruben and Gigliotti (2016), who noted that leadership and communication have always been tightly related.

#### **4.6 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)**

The overall ANOVA table, as shown in Table 4.5, breaks down the variance in employee performance into two parts: residual (unexplained) variability and regression (explained). With two degrees of freedom and a regression sum of squares of 15.891, the mean square value is 7.945. The p-value (Sig.) of 0.000 corresponds to a highly significant F-statistic of 60.595. These results shows a compelling proof that the regression model, which takes into account both participatory and authoritarian communication styles, is statistically significant. Therefore, the study concludes that there is a considerable effect of the chosen communication methods on the performance of individual employees.

This result emphasises the need of developing efficient communication techniques in organizational structures and is crucial for comprehending how communication practices affect employee outcomes. This is consistent with research by Malik (2019), who sought to illustrate the intimate connection between leadership and communication in his study. The author went on to say that leaders utilize communication as a tool to order and influence followers. A



leader's responsibilities include inspiring and supervising others, as well as disseminating the organization's mission and policies (Malik, 2019).

**Table 5** ANOVA Analysis

| ANOVA      |                |     |             |        |      |
|------------|----------------|-----|-------------|--------|------|
| Model      | Sum of Squares | df  | Mean Square | F      | Sig. |
| Regression | 15.891         | 2   | 7.945       | 60.595 | .000 |
| Residual   | 25.831         | 197 | .131        |        |      |
| Total      | 41.722         | 199 |             |        |      |

Source: SPSS Output Data (2023)

The results of this investigation indicate that the regression sum of squares for this investigation is 15.891. The degree to which the elements under consideration or the regression model can explain the variation in employee performance is demonstrated by the regression sum of squares. The F-statistic is defined as the ratio of the square of the mean for the squares in the regression to the squares in the residual. It assesses how well the regression model accounts for employee performance variability as opposed to variability that is not. The F-statistic in this instance is 60.595. To find the mean square, divide the sum of squares by the associated degrees of freedom.

Here, the regression sum of squares' mean square value is 7.945, which is obtained by dividing 15.891 by 2. These findings are in line with research by Mazibuko and Govender (2017), who demonstrated how the positive impacts of diverse recruiting and retention are supported by employee engagement, which is based on workers solving problems, supporting one another, and being happy to work for the organization. The attitude of employee engagement is that workers own change by implementing it. Table 4.6 displays the results of

the regression analysis contrasting the impacts of authoritarian communication style (AC) and participative communication style (PC) on employee performance (EP). The coefficients table contains crucial details about the relationships between the independent variables (AC and PC) and the dependent variable (EP).

**Table 6** *Regression Analysis Authoritarian Communication Style (AC) and Participatory Communication Style (PC)*

| Coefficients |                             |            |                           |       |      |
|--------------|-----------------------------|------------|---------------------------|-------|------|
| Model        | Unstandardized Coefficients |            | Standardized Coefficients | t     | Sig. |
|              | B                           | Std. Error | Beta                      |       |      |
| EP           |                             |            |                           |       |      |
| (Constant)   | .301                        | .234       |                           | 1.288 | .199 |
| PC           | .702                        | .084       | .581                      | 8.379 | .000 |
| AC           | .055                        | .065       | .059                      | .844  | .399 |

Source: SPSS Output (2023)

The SPSS Output on table 4.6 f showed that the employee performance average is represented by the intercept, and that the authoritarian and participatory communication styles (PC and AC) are both zero. The expected average value of employee performance in the absence of any communication techniques is represented by the intercept in this instance, which was 0.301. Additionally, it is expected that for every unit rise in participative communication style (PC), employee performance (EP) will alter by 0.702 of a unit. The expected increase in employee performance is 0.702 units for every unit increase in PC. This indicates that there is a significant relationship between PC and EP, showing that EP usually rises in tandem with PC.

The results align with the research conducted by Babatunde and Ikenga (2015), which illustrates how the relationship between worker productivity and performance served as a metaphor for the organization's goals and objectives. The study conducted in 2015 by Babatunde and Ikenga also demonstrated a strong correlation between leadership style and employee performance. The literature suggests that leaders and followers who communicate in a participative manner are able to put the needs of the group ahead of their own. Then, the leader is told to focus on the needs and recommendations of the followers in order to empower and inspire everyone to take on leadership roles (House & Aditya, 1997).

The average value of employee performance when both the authoritarian and participatory communication styles are zero is represented by the constant (intercept) term, which is 0.301. The coefficient for participative communication style (PC) is 0.702, and its standardized coefficient (Beta) is 0.581. Accordingly, for every unit improvement in PC, employee performance (EP) should increase by 0.702 units. The standardized coefficient (Beta) allows us to evaluate the PC effect size on EP by accounting for the variable scale. The t-value indicates that there is a statistically significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) relationship between participatory communication style and employee performance.

The findings are consistent with a study conducted in 2013 by Dasgupta et al., which found that managers who used an assertive communication style provided their employees with the greatest amount of support. A study by Ibad (2019) confirmed the parameters found in this investigation. The study looked at the relationship between faculty employee performance and leadership communication style in university business schools in Karachi, as well as whether gender had an impact on job satisfaction. Prior research findings demonstrated that enhanced innovation and creativity are predicated on interactive communication. This kind of

leadership's independence creates a welcoming environment for staff members to grow as innovators (Ibad, 2019).

This is corroborated by earlier research by Charles (2022), who claimed that extraordinary things can happen when workers unite to form a collection of innovative minds—as long as the team refrains from engaging in "groupthink."

The standardized coefficient (Beta) of the authoritarian communication style (AC) is 0.059, while its coefficient is 0.055. This suggests that employee performance (EP) and AC have a weakly positive connection. However, the accompanying t-value is not statistically significant ( $p > 0.05$ ), indicating that there is no significant relationship between an authoritarian communication style and employee performance.

The outcomes support the findings of Muchiri and Van Breeman (2021), who found a substantial correlation between employee performance and authoritarian leadership. Employers who use an autocratic leadership style are those who don't solicit input from their staff members and instead tell them what is required of them and how to achieve the desired outcomes. This indicates that effective use of authoritarian leadership styles can significantly improve worker performance, especially for low-motivation workers. Based on a review of the literature, the majority of African leaders are authoritarian; this finding is in line with a prior study by Goren Hyden (1983) that looked at the private and public sector managers' lifestyles.

In addition, PC Standardized Coefficient (Beta): The standardized coefficient (Beta) for PC, which displays the extent of PC's influence on EP, is 0.581 when the variable scale is considered. It implies that PC has a somewhat positive impact on EP. The standardized coefficient makes it possible to compare the effects of various model variables consistently. Similar findings from the research on the effect of leadership styles on employee satisfaction at Infocom Limited in Kampala, Uganda, were previously reported by Adongo (2019).

Objectives of the research were to investigate how an authoritarian leadership style affects worker efficiency, how a democratic method of leadership affects worker effectiveness, and how a laissez-faire manner of leadership affects employee efficiency at Infocom Limited (Adongo, 2019). Less than 50% of respondents said that managers neglected to intervene when agent issues arose and instead left workers to finish tasks unsupervised; conversely, over 66.49% of respondents said that managers supported their desire for training and included them in decision-making (Adongo, 2019). Memon (2014) carried out a study that showed differences in how gender and culture affected the effect of leadership style on worker performance. Nonetheless, the research also demonstrated that communication is a key component of a valuable leadership style.

When examining the importance of PC, the low p-value ( $p = 0.001$ ) of the PC coefficient indicates that the relationship between PC and EP is statistically significant. Put another way, it seems improbable that the observed connection between PC and EP was a coincidence. Furthermore, for every unit increase in Authoritarian communication style (AC), the expected change in worker performance is indicated by the AC coefficient of 0.055 for AC. But according to the t-value ( $p > 0.05$ ), this link is not statistically significant. As a result, there is inadequate information to draw any judgments about the relevance of the link between AC and EP that has been described.

The findings are consistent with a study conducted in South Africa by Govender & Bussin (2020), which sought to ascertain the potential relationship between performance management and employee engagement. The results of the previous study suggest a relationship between employee engagement and performance management. Raising employee engagement has the potential to increase output, which is good for business. According to Feldman and Msibi (2014), the directive leadership style is more appropriate for the

Eurocentric management approach, whereas Afrocentric leadership blends the participative and servant leadership ideologies.

The findings indicate a statistically significant positive correlation between participative communication style (PC) and employee performance (EP). EP is expected to increase by 0.702 units for every unit increase in PC. This is related to research by Osama and Hamzah (2022), who found that more employee loyalty can lead to improved job performance because participative leaders provide employees the chance to participate in decision-making. However, there is a weak and statistically insignificant correlation between EP and authoritarian communication style (AC). The results demonstrate that participative communication style (PC) has a statistically significant impact on employee performance (EP).

This is consistent with research by Al-sada et al. (2017), who discussed how employees benefit from participatory leadership by having a voice and feeling reassured about the companies they work for. The opinions and ideas of the employees are valued under this leadership style. However, there is little to no statistically significant effect of the authoritarian communication style (AC) on employee performance. These findings show how important it is to encourage participative communication strategies in order to raise employee performance within the confines of the business.

Several studies have shown that supervisors are better able to comprehend the key concerns in a given scenario when employees are included in the management-making process (Lythreathis et al., 2019; Raineri, 2017). This leads to higher-quality judgments being made. This shows that when participatory leaders value their perspectives and insights and actively seek out their engagement and recommendations, PC employees are more likely to follow managerial decisions with loyalty (Rana et al. 2019; Khassawneh and Abaker 2022). Research indicates that by promoting knowledge collecting, discussion, engagement, and the pursuit of

new opportunities, participatory leaders help their workforce learn (Benoliel and Barth 2017; Mohammad & Khassawneh 2022). Adongo (2019) asserts that participative leadership comprises collaborating with employees to reach decisions. This shows that employees are given the opportunity to discuss the challenges and that their opinions and concerns are taken into account. Therefore, it's imperative to recognize the significance of effective communication strategies, particularly those that encourage staff involvement and active participation.

#### 4.7 Regression model 2

**Table 7** Results for the R Square Value

| Model Summary | R     | R-Square | Adjusted R-Square |
|---------------|-------|----------|-------------------|
|               | 0.889 | 0.791    | 0.789             |

Source: SPSS Output Data (2023)

The multiple correlation coefficient (R) of 0.889 indicates a strong positive association between the dependent variable (employee performance) and the independent variable (culture). With a value of 79.1%, the coefficient of determination (R Square), which is 0.791, indicates the overall impact of the culture on employee performance. The adjusted R Square score of 0.789 provides a more precise evaluation of the model's goodness of fit by taking the number of predictors into consideration. According to a Bhasin (2017) study, most people realize how important cross-cultural communication is when they're at work. This assertion is backed up by the idea that people should consider the fact that different cultures have distinct norms and regulations, particularly when it comes to the workplace where communication is a key component of commercial relations (Aneas & Sandin, 2009).

A high positive correlation between employee performance and corporate culture is indicated by the study's R value of 0.889. This illustrates the general correlation between higher

cultural values and improved worker performance. The amount of variance in the dependent variable (employee performance) that the independent variable (culture) can account for is shown by the coefficient of determination (R Square). Based on the R Square value of 0.791, cultural values can account for around 79.1% of the variation in employee performance in this instance. Given that they explain approximately 79.1% of the observed variability in the dependent variable, it is likely that worker productivity is significantly influenced by cultural values.

The study's R value of 0.889 indicates that there is a significant positive correlation between employee performance and business culture. This illustrates the typical correlation between improved worker performance and stronger cultural values. The amount of variance in the dependent variable (employee performance) that the independent variable (culture) can account for is shown by the coefficient of determination (R Square). In this scenario, cultural values may explain roughly 79.1% of the variation in employee performance, according to the R Square value of 0.791. Given that cultural values explain approximately 79.1% of the observed variability in the dependent variable, they most likely have a significant effect on worker productivity.

The results demonstrate a strong correlation between worker performance and company culture. Cultural values may explain for about 79.1% of the reported variation in employee performance. The adjusted R Square is an altered version of the R Square that takes the number of predictors (independent variables) in the model into account. It takes into account the potential for overfitting of the model when utilizing several predictors. The modified R Square value in this example, 0.789, suggests that cultural values may account for about 78.9% of the variation in employee performance, which makes sense given the complexity of the model and the number of predictors included. These results imply that, given the environment under study, cultural influences play a major influence in determining employee performance.



Employees in a supportive workplace are less likely to be afraid of failing, which helps them come up with innovative ideas that boost an organization's output as a whole. The corrected R Square value confirms that cultural values have a significant influence on worker performance, which makes sense considering how complex the model is. The findings were consistent with Khoza's (1994) research, which argued that Europe is the main source of inspiration for South Africa's corporate culture. According to Khoza (1994), power ties create Eurocentric decision-making instead of relying on consensus. These relationships foster hostile interactions between supervisors and staff, clients and vendors, and Blacks and Whites.

#### **4.8 ANOVA Test of results**

The findings of the ANOVA table are often given in the model summary with the results, in compliance with standard procedure. Table 4.8 presents the results of the ANOVA test and shows how the overall variance in employee performance is divided into residual (unexplained) and regression (explained) components. The regression's mean square and sum of squares with one degree of freedom are 32.983 and 32.983, respectively. The F-statistic of 747.264 and the associated significance value (Sig.) of 0.000 show that the regression model is highly statistically significant.

**Table 8** *Results of ANOVA Test*

| <b>ANOVA</b> |                |     |             |         |
|--------------|----------------|-----|-------------|---------|
| Model        | Sum of Squares | df  | Mean Square | F       |
| Regression   | 32.983         | 1   | 32.983      | 747.264 |
| Residual     | 8.739          | 198 | .044        |         |
| Total        | 41.722         | 199 |             |         |

*Source: SPSS output Data (2023)*

The researcher may come to the conclusion that employee performance and culture have a significant favourable link. The total regression sum of squares shows how much of the variation in the dependent variable (employee performance) can be explained by the regression model or its predictors. The squared sum of the regression in this thesis is 32.983. The number of independent data points that can be used to test or approximate a parameter is known as the degree of freedom. It usually has to do with the number of predictors or independent variables in the regression model. The regression sum of squares in this case has one degree of freedom.

By dividing the total squares by the appropriate degrees of freedom, one may also compute the mean square. In this instance, the mean square value of the regression sums of squares is also 32.983 because there is just one degree of freedom. The F-statistic is the ratio of the mean square of the regression sum of squares to the mean square of the residual sum of squares. It assesses how well the dependent variable's variability is described by the regression model in comparison to the variance that is left unexplained. The F-statistic for this investigation was 747.264.

The degree of significance (Sig.) related to the F-statistic suggests that the null hypothesis is likely to be true because it is unlikely that the severe F-statistic value could have

been obtained by chance alone in the absence of any correlation between the variables and the dependent variable. This study's significance value is 0.000, indicating that it is extremely small. The model is deemed highly statistically significant if its prediction significance level is below the selected significance threshold, which is usually 0.05.

The results show how highly significant the regression model is statistically significant. A significant portion of the variance in worker performance may be explained by the regression model and its predictors, according to the big F-statistic value and the incredibly small significance value (p-value). It is exceedingly unlikely that such a strong correlation would have developed by chance alone, and the regression model adequately represents the observed variance of the dependent variable.

#### 4.9 Coefficient analysis of Results

The average value of EP when culture is zero is represented by the constant (intercept) term, which is -0.378. According to the study, the standard coefficient (Beta) for the variable culture was 0.889, and its coefficient was 0.925. This means that for every unit that culture is raised, employee performance should increase by 0.925 units.

**Table 9** *Coefficient of Variables*

| Coefficients |                             |            |                           |        |      |
|--------------|-----------------------------|------------|---------------------------|--------|------|
| Model        | Unstandardized Coefficients |            | Standardized Coefficients | t      | Sig. |
|              | B                           | Std. Error | Beta                      |        |      |
| (Constant)   | -.378                       | .119       |                           | -3.176 | .002 |
| Culture      | .925                        | .034       | .889                      | 27.336 | .000 |

Source: SPSS Output Data (2023)

The coefficients in table 4.9 above provide information on the correlation between the independent variable (culture) and the dependent variable (EP). As can be seen, after taking

into consideration the scale of the variables, a standardized coefficient indicates the impact size of culture on EP. This implies that there is a considerable positive correlation between culture and EP. The statistical significance of the associated t-value ( $p < 0.001$ ) indicates that there is a substantial correlation between AC and EP, as indicated in Table 4.9. Cherfan (2016) provides evidence in his literature to suggest that an authoritarian leadership style restricts employee participation. Leaders and managers are more involved in the decision-making process. The autocratic leadership style emphasizes listening to employees and their concerns about numerous issues in the options at hand, even when employees are not very involved in the process.

The constant term in this study represents the average value of employee performance (EP), which is -0.378 when the independent variable "culture" is equal to 0. Put another way, it shows the predicted EP value without accounting for the influence of culture. The independent variable "culture" has a coefficient of 0.925. This coefficient illustrates the projected change in EP for each unit increase in "culture". Put simply, EP is predicted to increase by 0.925 values for every unit of improvement in "culture." Taking into account the scale of the variables, the standardized coefficient (Beta), which is equal to 0.889, represents the influence size of "culture" on EP.

The characteristics and development of the relationship between "culture" and EP are illustrated when the standard deviation of the pertinent variables is taken into account. In this instance, the beta value of 0.889 shows a strong positive correlation between "culture" and EP. The results are in line with research done on the Spector (1997) work satisfaction survey. The results also corroborate Ibad's (2019) findings, which revealed no correlation between gender and job satisfaction, primarily due to faculty support for organizational justice.

Overall, the ANOVA findings demonstrate the significant significance of the regression model. Culture and EP have a strong positive association that accounts for a sizable portion of the variance in EP (about 79.1%). Consequently, the results demonstrate that employee performance (EP) is much enhanced by "culture." It is estimated that for every unit rise in "culture," EP improved by 0.925 units. The standardized coefficient (Beta) of 0.889, which takes into account the magnitude of the variables, validates the significant positive link between the independent variable of "culture" and the dependent variable of employee performance.

The findings show that culture has a significant impact on and shapes employee performance and that there is a positive correlation between higher "culture" values and higher employee performance values. The findings align with Kiggundu's (1998) research, which emphasized the notable power differentials between managers and their subordinates as well as the African managers' distaste for their subordinates making decisions without first seeking their input (Kiggundu, 1988).

#### 4.10 Testing Hypotheses 3 and 4

**Table 10** *Hypothesis Testing*

| Hypothesis | Expected             | Actual               | Whether Supported/Not |
|------------|----------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| H3         | Negative Association | No Association       | Not supported         |
| H4         | Positive Association | Positive Association | Supported             |

*Source: SPSS Output Data (2023)*

Hypothesis 3 is not supported because the beta was .059 and the p-value was 0.399. This suggests that the findings do not support the assertion that an authoritarian style has a statistically significant impact on worker performance. This is relevant to research by Dasgupta et al. (2013), who discovered that autocratic communicators suppress their subordinates'

originality and innovation by prioritizing their own viewpoints above those of their subordinates.

Additionally, because they don't have a significant impact or contribution, employees don't feel responsibility. Employee performance is impacted because they lack the drive to give it their all since they feel undervalued. After that, hypothesis 4 is validated. The acceptance of hypothesis 4 is demonstrated by the beta value of 0.581 and  $p < 0.001$ . As a result, employee performance is positively statistically significant when communicating in a participatory manner.

#### **4.11 Quantitative discussion of results**

It is possible to infer that the data do not support hypothesis 1, which proposed that an authoritarian communication style would have a statistically significant impact on employee performance, based on the findings of both correlation and regression analyses. The data shows no connection at all between the performance of individual employees and an authoritarian communication style. Accordingly, the study's findings did not support the existence of an authoritarian leadership style among female leaders.

The performance and leadership style findings align with earlier research findings. Priyashantha et al. (2016), for instance, examined the relationship between leadership styles and employee outcomes and reached similar findings. In a similar vein, Eagly's (1990) study highlighted the need for additional research in this area by examining how challenging it is to understand how various leadership philosophies impact staff performance. As a result, the fourth hypothesis's findings provided compelling evidence for the predicted relationship between participative communication style and employee performance. Both the regression and correlation studies demonstrated a significant and positive relationship between these variables.

This demonstrates the vital role that participatory communication style has in affecting employee performance in an organizational setting and validates the study premise. The findings on communication and leadership styles are consistent with earlier studies. For instance, Sulaiman et al.'s (2023) study showed how participatory communication increases employee motivation and engagement, which in turn leads to better performance outcomes. The outcomes align with the findings of Gunawardhana and Gamage (2022), who highlighted the importance of inclusive leadership in promoting organizational success and elevating worker productivity. Then, workers would be free to realize their full potential, experience a sense of belonging, and give the organization their best.

#### **4.12 Qualitative findings**

This section presents textual findings collected from interviews with women leaders from South Africa and UK. There was no specific sample size for interviews as data was collected until data saturation. The results showed the distribution of the participants' places of birth for the Skype interviews. Qualitative evidence from the 30 interviewed women leaders was utilized in the analyses to assess Hypothesis 1. The results show that a high proportion of the leaders (24 out of 30 - 80%) stated that their cultural background, early upbringing, values, and customs were the driving influences of their communication styles. The leaders noted the necessity of adapting their communication to different audience members. In contrast, a small percentage of the leaders (6 out of 30 - 20%) stated that their communication style was influenced by current context (i.e., the specific country and the organization). These female leaders might be able to provide new perspectives and experiences to the table as well as contribute to global thinking. Making sure that their staff members feel included and accepted, as well as providing support and resources to help them get past any potential hurdles to communication or culture, may be extremely important for women leaders.

The nationalities of the Skype interviews, aside from their place of birth. The vast majority of interviews were native to that country, suggesting that people from that country make up the majority of the organisation. The underrepresentation of individuals from different countries or cultures could potentially affect the company's efforts to promote diversity and equitable treatment. Consideration of how to attract and retain individuals from diverse backgrounds may be essential for women leaders in order to promote a diverse and inclusive work environment.

The amount of time that the participants have resided in South Africa or the United Kingdom found that women leaders interviewed had lived in South Africa or the United Kingdom and only few indicated that they had lived in other nations. The majority of participants stated that they have lived in South Africa or the UK for at least ten years, which suggests that the group may have a well-defined requirement of long-term residents. These female leaders may have extensive understanding of the local social dynamics, customs, and culture. They may also have strong social networks and be well-known in their neighbourhoods. In her literature, Chin (2016) presents female leaders as either soft-spoken and ineffectual or cunning and powerful. The way that racial and ethnic distinctions interact further reinforces this notion.

The leadership experience of Skype interviewees varies, majority claimed to have 10 or more years of experience, while some claimed to have one to five years. Eleven participants claimed to have between six and nine years of experience. Over half of the participants indicated having more years of leadership experience, suggesting that there may be a fairly consistent core of experienced executives in the company. The findings indicates that leaders were seasoned experts with extensive training in leadership positions. They might also be a great resource for less seasoned workers in need of guidance and mentorship. These findings



provide insight into the distribution of leadership experience among women. This suggests that by examining the distribution of leadership experience, women leaders can more effectively tailor their leadership development programs and activities to the needs of different groups of leaders.

#### **4.13 Testing Hypothesis 1**

*Culture has an influence on the communication styles used by women leaders from South Africa and the United Kingdom.*

In order to determine if a woman's leadership style is more shaped by her cultural background or by the nation and environment she now lives in, questions concerning this topic are posed to female leaders. The following are the comments from female leaders who were questioned over Skype.

The reasons given by female leaders for believing that culture has an impact on their communication methods are as follows.

*Cultural influences on communication techniques and affect how leaders convey their messages, build relationships, and inspire their employees, so communication styles are influenced by culture, leaders can enhance their effectiveness in conveying their ideas and ensure that they are comprehended by a range of audiences. (Female leader U.K).*

*Cultural influences on communication styles.... Culture can affect how people understand and respond to communications. Leaders may enhance teamwork, promote mutual understanding, and bridge communication gaps by being aware of these cultural differences. (Female leader U.K)*

*"....Leaders who value different cultural communication methods foster a sense of community and give people the freedom to share their thoughts and opinions without restraint." (Female leader S.A)*

According to the opinions expressed by those who participated in the interviews, female leaders from South Africa and the United Kingdom believed that their cultural background influenced their communication style, whereas some believed that their current environment had a greater influence. It was discovered that a greater number of female leaders derived their leadership style from their cultural upbringing, or from the nation and context in which they currently find themselves.

The hypothesis's findings suggest that the communication techniques of female leaders from South Africa and the UK are greatly influenced by their cultural backgrounds. By recognising and respecting these cultural differences, businesses may provide a more effective and diverse work environment that supports the growth and success of women leaders from a range of cultural backgrounds. Every culture has its own unique set of values, therefore it stands to reason that cultural conventions, beliefs, and communication methods all have a significant influence on how people interact and understand one another. These are a few ways that communication styles might be influenced by culture. The findings are consistent with research by Gordon (2008) and Satyendra (2021) that indicates cultural influences shape communication habits.

An organisation's survival strategies are determined by its culture, which encourages personal growth and integration. The research by Satyendra (2019), which asserts that culture serves as a mechanism of "meaning and control," forming and influencing employee attitudes and behaviour, is consistent with the findings. Organizational culture has a big impact on a business unit's success, and there's a lot of evidence showing culture and performance are positively associated. According to Jofreh and Masoumi (2013), the development of an organizational culture and dedicated employees are the keys to success for most Japanese organizations. It was also discovered that the people who work for an organization influence its culture. This implies that an employee's loyalty is determined by how well they understand and are accustomed to the company culture, which encourages moral behaviour.

The result that culture explains 79.1% of the variance in employee performance ( $R^2 = 0.791$ ) was expected in direction, but remarkable in magnitude. It confirms in strong support the foundational tenets associated with cross-cultural management (Hofstede, 1980) and serves to remind us that we cannot and should not understand organizational outcomes in a vacuum, where culture is not taken into account. This study extends Hofstede's work by empirically

establishing the simple magnitude of the influence of culture on a consequential performance metric. It moves culture from a background variable to being an explanatory variable in its own right and its position at the core of any model of international organizational behaviour is warranted.

This compelling qualitative result asserts rather strong support for the tenets of Human Capital Theory (HCT). The leaders' accounts conceptualized their cross-cultural communication capabilities not as a fixed characteristics but as a type of strategic human capital, developed through experience and deliberate adaptation. This is consistent with Hofstede et al. (2010) but extends further than his broad dimensions by showcasing how leaders are active agents deploying this cultural capital in situ for purposes of effective communication. However, the finding that 20% of leaders were more responsive to their immediate organizational context offers an important caution, suggesting a potential limitation of overly deterministic cultural frameworks, and expresses the idea of situated cultural agency, that is, leaders acting and adapting within the dynamic intersectionality of national culture and organizational micro-cultures, a perspective significantly less examined in the cross-cultural literature (see Taras, et al., 2010).

#### **4.14 Testing Hypothesis 2**

*Women leaders from South Africa have a more authoritarian communication style concerning employees and women leaders from the United Kingdom have a more participatory communication style concerning employees.*

When asked which leadership style they preferred, women leaders responded. As can be seen from the data below, the twelve out of fifteen acknowledged they favoured participative leadership, whilst just some leaders said they preferred autocratic leadership.

The assessment of preferences for leadership communication styles found a high level of preference exhibited for participative communication. In particular, 22 of the 30 women leaders (or 73.3% of those surveyed) preferred the participative communication style. Conversely, a small number of participants (or 8 out of 30, 26.7% of the sample) expressed a preference for an authoritative or autocratic communication style. The results of the hypothesis indicate that interactive communication techniques are preferred by most female leaders in South Africa and the UK. Interactive communication strategies foster empowerment, involvement, and engagement among employees.

This suggests that when female leaders involve women in decision-making and value their contribution, their employees feel more committed and ownership-driven, which lead to increased output, a better working environment, and increased job satisfaction. The leaders' communication styles have a big impact on the culture of the entire organization. Employees feel valued and participated when there is a participatory communication style that promotes an atmosphere of honesty, confidence, and transparency. This implies that encouraging employee participation in communication, firms can develop a culture that supports creativity, innovation, and job satisfaction.

It was determined that the majority of female leaders favoured an interactive communication approach, while a minority favoured an authoritative communication style. The findings are consistent with Prossack (2018) publications, which argued that one of the most important leadership skills is the ability to modify one's communication style to suit the circumstances. A leader who employs effective communication strategies can help their team reach peak performance. This is in line with the argument made by Bojic (2022) that, despite certain correlations between a leader's communication style and leadership style, a leader's communication style is not always determined by the method employed. The feminine

empathic understanding capacity gives rise to the stereotype that women are inherently more relationship-focused and compassionate (Sandberg, 2013).

The consensus toward participative styles is consistent with current leadership literature that is supportive of inclusive and transformational approaches (Eagly & Carli, 2018). One interpretation is based on the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM): employees are more likely to 'accept' and 'use' a leader's direction when they believe it is useful and easy to use, both of which participative communication typically accomplishes. The finding also pushes against regionally stereotyped associations with authoritarianism. In the case of women leaders in this study, effective leadership communication may be converging on participative norms as a result of the organizational cultures of globalisation.

Yet, the significant minority (26.7%) preference toward authoritarian style is a critical finding. It is cautioning against universalist prescriptions of leadership style. Their rationales—i.e., efficiency and habitual respect—indicates that the facilitating condition as a point of UTAUT moderation (i.e. organizational crisis or normative conditions the industry) can trigger a strategic shift in communication styles. Together, this demonstrates an important nuance to the gendered leadership discussion; women leaders are choosing from a strategic repertoire of styles, rather than simply taking on a singular 'feminine' style.

#### **4.15 Participatory communication style**

As stated in the results of Hypothesis 2, the results reveal that; 73.3% of female leaders (22 out of 30) perceived the use of this leadership style as participative. The explanatory quotes of the female leaders below demonstrate the rationale;

*“...As for me I prefer participatory leadership style because it promote a more inclusive which enhance idea sharing and innovation through different views from subordinates.” (Female leader U.K).*

*“...I think as a leader I must adopt a more participatory communication style to encourage employee engagement and participation. (Female leader U.K)*

*“...for equality, I prefer participatory leadership style that values employee input and engagement.” (Female leader U.K)*

According to the aforementioned opinions, women leaders' participatory leadership style prioritises teamwork, inspiration, and empowerment. It is also frequently successful in fostering innovation, creativity, and employee engagement. This could be explained by the fact that a participatory leader gives her team members autonomy and gives them the freedom to decide for themselves. As a result, motivated staff members put in even more effort to achieve the goals that their manager has set forth. The findings are consistent with other research by Eagly & Carli (2018), Cao & Li (2020), and Kark, Shamir, & Chen (2022) which found that female executives are more likely to use participatory or transformational leadership styles, which place a premium on empowerment, motivation, and collaboration.

When a leader adopts this method, they inspire and develop their team members while also igniting a shared vision and set of values. It is important to keep in mind that generalizations about leadership styles can be problematic because different people have different leadership styles, which are influenced by a wide range of intricately related factors, including their work environments, cultural backgrounds, and personal histories. Eagly & Carli (2018), who emphasized how it could be difficult for female leaders to obtain honor and respect in organizations where men predominate, support this. They might also run into obstacles to advancement. However, by utilizing a participatory leadership strategy, they can develop close ties with their staff members, inspire cooperation and teamwork, and motivate success within their groups.

It was expected that there would be a strong preference (73.3% of leaders) and a considerable positive influence of participatory communication on employee performance, providing solid validation of a significant volume of leadership literature (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Eagly & Carli, 2018). This finding supports transformational and relational leadership

models that are commonly linked to women leaders and confirms their effectiveness in improving engagement and productivity. This study extends the existing knowledge by demonstrating the performance impact ( $\beta = 0.581$ ,  $p < .001$ ) in a direct cross-cultural comparison and therefore adds to the existing literature by going beyond stylistic preference to demonstrate an evidence-based performance rationale for participatory communication in both the UK and South Africa.

#### **4.16 Autocratic communication style**

Although it was less frequent, a different cluster of 8 out of 30 female leaders (26.7%) preferred an autocratic leadership style. This was confirmed by the following statements;

*“...Yeah, autocratic management has a track record of success because it instils confidence in the manager- one person makes all the decisions for the group, this type of leadership facilitates fast decision-making.” (Female leader S.A)*

*“...As a female leader, you might be forced to communicate in a more authoritative or direct manner in order to get respect and maintain.” (Female leader S.A)*

*“...One reason I always prefer autocratic leadership style is that it is useful when immediate and quick decisions and performance are required to solve problem and decision are made without delay as happens with participatory when the leader has to consult bureaucracy first.” (Female leader S.A)*

There is also the hypothesis that the leadership philosophies of women leaders may have been shaped by the historical and social context of each country. It's possible that South Africa's history of apartheid and racial segregation led to the development of a more authoritarian leadership style to maintain order. The results are consistent with a previous study by Schaubroek et al. (2017), which emphasized that staff morale declines as a result of the mistrust that leaders cultivate among their subordinates. Autocratic leaders exhibit behaviors like a rigid communication style and a reluctance to share information with their subordinates. However, a research by Esser et al. (2018) claimed that the pressure women face to conform

to social expectations when they become mothers strengthens their collaborative, creative, revitalizing, and empathic leadership styles.

As a result, an authoritarian boss frequently attributes failure to their followers while downplaying the roles that their followers had in attaining success. However, if a leader abuses their position of power, it eventually distort output. This contradicts study by Borgerson (2018), who stated that although male leaders tend to be more task-oriented, female leaders are able to overcome adversity due to their “*emotional-related aptitude*.”

The findings that authoritarian communication did not demonstrate a statistically significant association with performance was unexpected. This is inconsistent with some past research (for example, Muchiri & Van Breeman, 2021), and the concept that authoritarianism may function in certain particular contexts, especially in non-Western settings.

In applying UTAUT, we would theoretically argue that while authoritarian communication may score high on 'Performance Expectancy' in the leaders' mind (i.e., fast decisions), it would score lower on employees 'Effort Expectancy' (i.e., it is hard/difficult/disempowering to use), ultimately negating its overall effectiveness. In addition, the weak correlation between AC and PC suggests that they are not opposite ends of one measure however employees perceive them to be distinct constructs and that PC appeared more prevalent for performance. This finding compels a sharp re-thinking of leadership development programs. It suggests that training solely aimed at clarity and direction (which could be potential components of AC) is insufficient to lead to performance, and must be supplemented and integrated with training on inclusive and empowering participatory approaches to lead to performance.

#### **4.17 Tactics used to improve employee performance from subordinates**



Interviews with women leaders found that female leaders used a range of strategies to improve their staff members' work performance. The interviews with women executives produced a number of ideas, some of which were to set clear expectations, offer chances for training and growth, give incentives and prizes, create a happy work environment, offer constructive criticism, and set attainable targets.

### **1. Setting clear expectations**

Another theme that merged was setting clear expectations for subordinates is essential for improving employee performance, according to female executives. This is because it makes sure that employees know their roles and what has to be done to meet the organization's goals. The following quotes were taken directly from female participants:

*"...It is my belief that motivated individuals are more likely to deliver quality work when they are aware of what is required of them. So clear expectations can help employees is need help them to improved performance."* (Female leader U.K)

*"...For me I think clear expectations help to establish accountability for employees in order for staff members to understand expectations and be more inclined to take responsibility for their work and be accountable for their actions."* (Female Leader U.K)

*"...Misunderstandings can occur, leading to confusion and conflict due to unclear expectations. I think setting clear expectations can reduce the likelihood of misunderstandings and ensure that everyone is on the same page"* (Female leader U.K)

*".... obviously, as a leader when expectations are clear, employees are more likely to ask questions and seek clarification, which can help to improve communication and prevent misunderstandings."* (Female leader S.A)

The aforementioned findings demonstrate that female executives proposed that when clear expectations are provided, staff members may plan and prioritize their job more effectively. Workers can more efficiently organize their jobs and concentrate on their most crucial work when they are aware of what is expected of them. To improve employee performance, leaders must set clear expectations for those who report to them. Clear objectives, targets, and performance indicators must be shared in order to achieve this. Regular feedback on accomplishments and potential improvement areas must also be given. The findings run

counter to those of Ibad (2019), who found no connection between job satisfaction and gender. The main reason for this is the faculty's commitment to organizational justice.

## **2. Provide training and development opportunities**

Another theme emerged was the idea of having female executives provide staff development and training also came to light. The opinions of the participants were as follows:

*“I think as a leader it good to provide opportunities for training and development can also help foster innovation within an organization.” (Female leader S.A)*

*“...yeaah huh, enveloping employees' skills can also help me as a leader to identify potential future leaders within the organization...leaders can groom employees for leadership roles and ensure a smooth transition when current leaders retire or leave the organization” (Female leader S.A)*

*“....As a female leader I think providing options for training and development can help raise retention rates among staff members. Employee retention is higher in companies that support their personal and professional development.”(Female leader U.K)*

Sentiments above female leaders mentioned that it is vital for leaders to create opportunities for learning and progress for those beneath them since employee abilities and expertise improvement through adequate training may result in enhanced efficiency at workplace.. Consequently, there may be an increase in output, better-quality work, and happy clientele. By providing employees with opportunities for training and development, you may raise their performance. They will be able to pick up new skills and information as a result. This category of activities can include job-specific training, mentoring, coaching, and structured training programs. The results support Borgerson's (2018) claim in the literature that female leaders can improve the performance of multinational teams, especially as women often handle crisis circumstances better than male counterpart do.

## **3. Offer incentives and rewards**

Female executives who were interviewed also emphasised how important it is for them and for all leaders, for that matter-to give their employees incentives and prizes. The quotes from women leaders were as follows:

*“...by offering rewards for achieving specific milestones or targets, can make sure that everyone is pursuing the same goals and that things are moving forward. (Female leader S.A)*

*“...Incentives and rewards can be powerful motivators for employees. As a leader I encourage my subordinates to work harder.... increased productivity and better performance overall.” (Female leader U.K)*

The results above suggest that incentives and rewards can help to improve worker productivity and performance. When employees are motivated to work for a particular reward or incentive, they may be more likely to put in extra effort and go above and beyond their regular obligations. Employees who are motivated to work toward a particular reward or incentive may be more likely to put in extra effort and go above and beyond their regular obligations, according to the research. Better results and more success could come from this. Success and better outcomes may follow from this. The findings are associated with the ideas of Unsar (2014), who argued that leadership and communication are intimately intertwined. Communication and leadership are important.

Thus, according to Ross (1993), Northouse (2013), and Martin (2006), the two realms are complementary to one another. A positive workplace culture can help to motivate and engage people. Leaders can create a positive work atmosphere by valuing and celebrating the successes of their employees, as well as by promoting open communication and teamwork.

#### **4. Provide constructive feedback**

Another theme that emerged was that providing regular and constructive feedback is critical to improving employee performance. Leaders should provide feedback that is specific, timely, and focuses on areas for improvement, while also recognizing and reinforcing good performance. The following were sentiments from interviewed women leaders;

*“..In modern leadership it is good that, subordinates are provided with constructive feedback. This can be especially helpful when it comes to addressing areas where employees may be struggling or making mistakes and leaders can help their subordinates.” (Female leader U.K)*

*“...When leaders provide feedback that is both constructive and supportive, they can help their subordinates grow and develop in their roles.” (Female leader U.K)*

*“..yeah, leaders can ensure that their subordinates understand what is expected of them and how they can improve their performance through feedback. This can help prevent misunderstandings and improve overall communication within the team.” (Female leader S.A)*

The results shows that one tactic used by women leaders is providing feedback to their subordinates and this can assist in holding workers accountable for their work. Employees are more likely to take ownership of their performance and make improvements when leaders provide them clear and detailed feedback. A more responsible and accountable staff may result from this. For this reason, it is rational to accept the claim made by Hackman & Johnson (2013) that "Being a leader, foremost, constitutes a communication-based task". Making comments can motivate staff members to participate more. Employee commitment and engagement are higher at work where they perceive their bosses to be interested in their achievement and development. This may result in greater efficiency, satisfaction with one's work, and overall success.

## **5. Set achievable goals**

Women leaders interviewed suggested that setting achievable goals can help employees feel motivated and focused on their work. Women leaders who were interviewed agreed that leaders should work with their subordinates to set goals that are challenging but attainable and provide help them to achieve their goals. The following verbatim were from women leaders;

*“...ummmh when employees understand what they need to accomplish and have a clear path to achieving it, they are more likely to be focused and productive.” (Female leader U.K)*

*“...setting achievable goals can also be a powerful motivator for employees. I think when employees have a clear target to work towards.” (Female leader U.K)*

*“...personally I think when goals are clearly defined and measurable, leaders can monitor progress and make adjustments as needed. This can help the team is making progress towards larger objectives.” (Female leader S.A)*

The above quote verbatim suggests that by setting realistic goals, female leaders can enhance worker performance and support the growth of their staff members' skills and expertise. This means that leaders may motivate their staff to take on new duties and learn new abilities by setting goals that are tough yet realistic. Increased self-assurance, professional satisfaction, and overall career success can result from this. The results align with Satyendra (2019) found that authoritarian communication makes it simpler to monitor performance and pinpoint areas wherein efficiency may be lacking when goals are specific, measurable, and well-defined. This can help managers ensure that employees are meeting expectations and promptly resolve performance-related issues.

#### **4.18 Whether women leaders tactics adapt to the culture of an employee or do you implore a one size fits all tactic.**

##### **1. Tactics adapt to the culture of an employee**

When asked if they alter their tactics to the culture of the employee the vast majority of leaders (26 out of 30 (86.7%)) indicated that they tailor the leadership tactics to the culture and needs of individual employees. The following sentiments confirmed this tactic;

*“...every individual has unique personality traits, work styles, and cultural backgrounds that shape their expectations and reactions to different management styles.” (Female leader S.A)*

*“...cultural differences can also play a role in how employees respond to different management tactics.” (Female leader S.A)*

Most female leaders agreed that they fit into any workplace culture and their tactics were adopted based on culture of employees. Given the actuality that every employee has unique requirements and choices, and what works for a certain worker might not work for another, this demonstrates that women executives are compassionate. This is consistent with research: whether intentionally or accidentally, Africans have assiduously absorbed Western culture to the point that it is now essentially an integral part of their existence (Sibani, 2014). Effective managers are aware of this, and they know that there is no one management strategy

that works for all employees. Employees may feel undervalued and disengaged if a one-size-fits-all approach results in a lack of tailored attention and assistance. Madi (1995) asserts that South African corporate culture is influenced by both American and European cultures. Following 1994, afrocentric (black) management approaches became prevalent in South African enterprises due to the leadership styles of the nation (Binedell, 1992). Because of the nation's history of colonization. Workers may also believe that their original ideas and efforts are not valued, which can lead to a lack of initiative, creativity, and innovation.

## **2. One size fits all tactic**

Unlike most, only 4 out of 30 (13.3%) of the leaders reported that they mainly use a 'one size fits most' approach to their leadership, citing the consistency and simplicity of this method as their qualifications. These were their thoughts on the matter;

*“..the reason why I use one size fits all approach is that it can provide me with consistency in management practices because, there is less room for confusion or miscommunication about expectations and processes.” (Female leader S.A)*

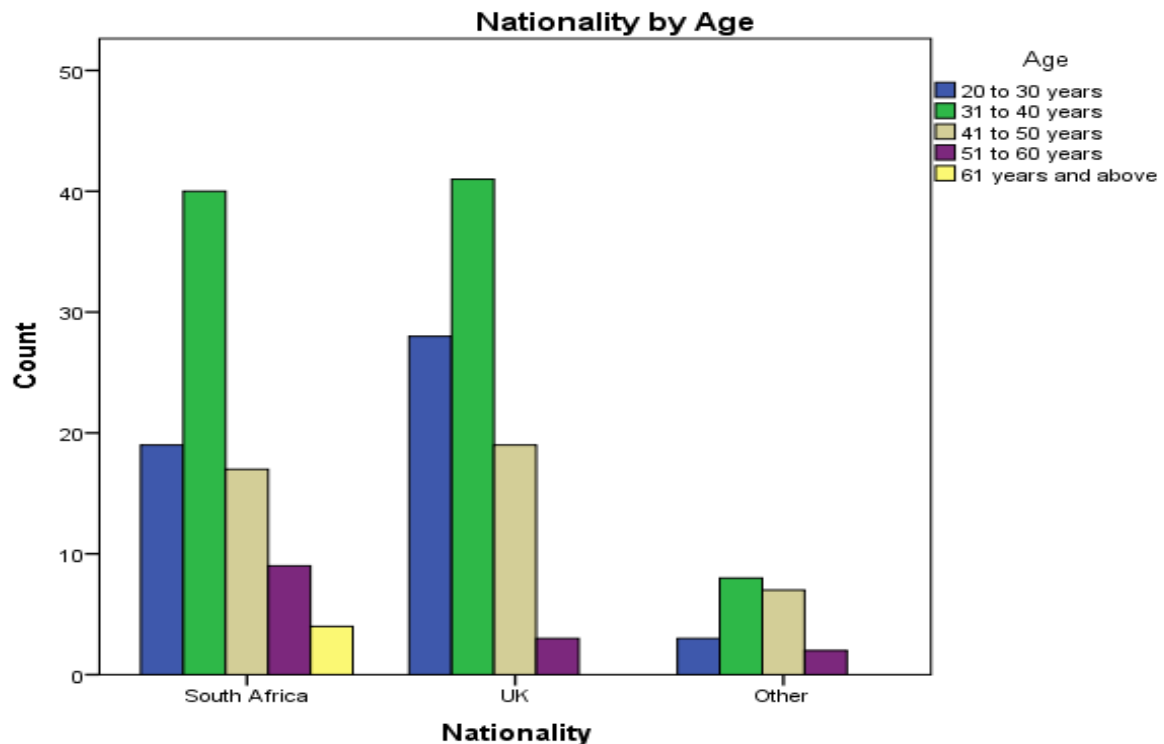
*“... uhhh! The one size fit all is simpler and easier to implement, especially in smaller organisations where there are fewer employees and less complexity in job roles and responsibilities.” (Female leader S.A)*

Making ensuring that everyone is held to the same standards and expectations can also be accomplished with a one size fits all strategy. Given that it may lead to a lack of tailored care and support, which may result in disengagement, poor morale, and loss of staff, this is at odds with the research. It can also be detrimental to creativity and innovation for workers to feel that their unique ideas and contributions are not valued or appreciated. The findings are consistent with a study by Qureshi, et al., (2011) that examines the relationship between cultural backgrounds and leadership philosophies. The authors also look into how disparities in leadership styles and the actions of male and female executives inside an organisation are influenced by culture.

## 4.19 Evaluation of findings

### 4.19.1 Demographics of respondents

#### 1. *Relationship between nationality and age categories*



Within each nationality group, there are some variations in the age group distribution. The Chi-Square test results indicate that there is no statistically significant relationship between the sample's age groups and nationality. This demonstrates that the distribution of age groups is similar between cultural backgrounds. Important to understand is that a relationship discovered in the sample may not be statistically significant, but this does not necessarily mean that there is no correlation. The sample's diverse national makeup is evidenced by the inclusion of individuals from South Africa, the United Kingdom, and other nations. This variety improves the findings' generalizability and enables for comparisons across diverse cultural backgrounds. The sample includes persons from various educational backgrounds. Most participants (132 in

total) have academic training, indicating that they have completed formal education programs at academic institutions. The remaining respondents (68) have general training, which indicates they learned and practiced information and abilities outside of formal education. This range of educational backgrounds enriches the sample by bringing in people with a variety of viewpoints and expertise on communication styles.

This conclusion implies that the proportions of age categories are comparable across cultural backgrounds. It is crucial to emphasize, however, that the lack of a significant relationship does not imply the absence of any relationship. Other factors not examined in the investigation could alter the association between nationality and age groups. Furthermore, the findings are restricted to a small sample and may not be generalizable to the full population. Based on professional experience, the survey found two separate groups: those with at least ten years of experience (134 respondents) and those with fewer than ten years of experience (66 respondents). This conclusion emphasizes the existence of individuals with varying degrees of skill and implies that the sample contains a mix of seasoned and relatively inexperienced experts. When evaluating data, this diversity of professional expertise can bring significant insights and viewpoints.

#### **4.19.2 Hypothesis 1**

***H1:*** *There is a statistically significant relationship between the national culture (South Africa vs. United Kingdom) of women leaders and their predominant communication styles.*

This hypothesis was answered by qualitative data from interviewed women who were in leadership roles. Majority women leaders interviewed felt that their communication methods were influenced by their cultural background, as indicated by the findings presented in the previous section. This suggests that a significant part of their leadership communication is influenced by their cultural background, upbringing, values, and customs. These leaders



understand the significance of tailoring their communication styles to various audiences with diverse cultural backgrounds to ensure that their ideas are properly understood. The hypothesis's findings imply that cultural background has a major influence on the communication styles of female leaders. A lesser proportion of women leaders (6 out of 30) responded that their communication methods are influenced more by the country and place in which they work. This implies that elements such as company culture, cultural standards, and the dynamics of the environment in which they function influence their communication styles. The outcomes are consistent with the study carried out by Gordon (2008) and Satyendra (2019), which indicates that communication styles are influenced by cultural background. An organisation's survival strategies are shaped by its culture, which promotes integration and personal achievement. Most the research's female leaders feel that their cultural background—including their heritage, upbringing, values, and customs—influences their communication styles.

The thoughts revealed by the female leaders reinforce the idea that culture has a substantial impact on communication styles, hence, understanding and adapting to varied communication methods influenced by culture. Multicultural leaders can improve efficacy in communicating messages, creating relationships, and inspiring employees. The study also found that the underlined cultural differences in communication styles can influence interpretations and reactions to messages, and that leaders can encourage collaboration, understanding, and a sense of community by recognising and accepting these differences. The findings, which show that the majority of women leaders in South Africa and the United Kingdom choose participative communication techniques, are broadly consistent with existing literature on leadership styles and gender disparities in leadership.

The findings are consistent with Satyendra (2019) who asserted that culture functions as a system with authority and interpretation that shapes and directs workers' attitudes and

actions. Additionally, as this study suggests, there is a strong and statistically significant positive correlation between PC and culture ( $r = 0.665$ ,  $p 0.01$ ). This suggests that PC and the environment's cultural values are closely related. Cultural values tend to rise as PC rises, suggesting the effect of cultural elements on communication style. This research emphasizes the interdependence of participatory communication and cultural values, underlining the significance of taking cultural contexts into account in communication processes. The researcher can conclude that culture has a substantial beneficial link with employee performance. The findings on the influence of culture on the communication styles used by women leaders from South Africa and the United Kingdom were generally expected based on the tested hypothesis and the literature.

#### **4.19.3 Hypothesis 2**

***H2:** Women leaders in South Africa demonstrate a statistically significant higher use of an authoritarian communication style, while women leaders in the United Kingdom demonstrate a statistically significant higher use of a participatory communication style.*

According to the qualitative results, majority of women leaders from both South Africa and the United Kingdom preferred participatory communication styles, whereas 8 preferred authoritative or autocratic communication styles. According to findings, most female leaders in South Africa and the United Kingdom favour a participative communication approach. Employee engagement, involvement, and empowerment are promoted through participatory communication approaches. Women leaders can build a sense of ownership and dedication among their workforce by actively including staff members in decision-making procedures and honouring their viewpoints. Increased job satisfaction, a more favourable work atmosphere, and increased productivity can all arise from this. According to studies conducted by Cao and Li (2020), and Kark, Shamir, and Chen (2003), found that female leaders are more likely to embrace participative or transforming leadership ideologies that prioritize cooperation,

empowerment, and inspiration. These outcomes agree with what they discovered. These leadership ideologies emphasise open communication, collaboration, and staff involvement—all aspects of collaborative interaction. A corporate culture that prioritizes openness, honesty, and transparency can also benefit from a participatory communication approach. It creates an environment where workers feel appreciated and included, which encourages innovation, creativity, and general well-being. The findings are consistent with Prossack (2018) who argued that modifying communication style to the situation is one of the most critical talents leaders must have. A leader can assist their team achieve peak performance by employing the appropriate communication strategies.

This result highlights how participatory communication style is most preferred than authoritarian inclinations by women from both cultural backgrounds. This aligns with Bhasin (2017) research, which indicated that the majority of people frequently need cross-cultural communication at work. This means that there is need for individuals to recognise that various cultures have distinct customs and legal frameworks lends credence to this assertion, particularly in the workplace because communication plays a crucial role in the outcome of business dealings (Aneas & Sandin, 2019). These results demonstrate the significance of interactive communication in the leadership philosophies of female leaders. This implies that using a participative approach, women leaders can create an environment that emphasizes collaboration, teamwork, and shared decision-making. This tactic enhances decision-making and problem-solving skills while also empowering staff members through the exchange of ideas and points of view. .. It is crucial to remember that not every female leaders or executives across the board may have the same preferences as those listed by the study's female participants. Individual preferences for communication styles might change depending on past experiences, the environment of the business, and other elements. The ability of women to empathise lends credence to the notion that they are often more caring and relationship-focused

(Sandberg, 2013). The findings, however, highlight the potential benefits of a participatory communication style in creating a pleasant workplace culture and provide insight into the communication styles of the women leaders surveyed.

The opinions of the female leaders who selected an authoritarian style of leadership emphasize a few variables that contributed to their choice. These justifications include the notion that an autocratic leadership style promotes quick decision-making, helps preserve respect and order, and enables prompt problem-solving without delays brought on by bureaucracy or consultation. It is stated that the socioeconomic and historical context of every nation may have an impact on the leadership ideologies of women executives. In the case of South Africa, it is thought that the nation's history of apartheid and discrimination based on race contributed to the development of a more authoritarian leadership style with the goal of preserving power. The findings cited research presenting various viewpoints on women's leadership styles. An intriguing theory is that South African women leaders may communicate more authoritatively because of the country's history of racial segregation and apartheid. To further understand the precise components that influence leadership styles in various circumstances, it is crucial to approach this theory cautiously and do additional study.

The findings of a prior study conducted by Schaubroek et al. (2017) demonstrate that employees of autocratic leaders cultivate a culture of mistrust, communicate rigidly, and are reluctant to share information with them. All these behaviours are linked to poor employee performance. This is in line with studies demonstrating the propensity of female leaders to have empathy, regenerative, cooperative, and creative leadership styles may be influenced by societal expectations. However, another study claims that male CEOs are more often associated with authoritarian leadership approaches. Although these sentiments and the research results offer some useful insights, they must be considered in the context of broader leadership styles and their consequences. A top-down, autocratic leadership style with little room for employee

involvement can have both advantages and disadvantages. Contrarily, participatory leadership stresses inclusivity, empowerment, and collaboration, which can increase employee happiness. The presence of some female leaders who stated a preference for an authoritarian leadership style is one of the study's unexpected or contradictory findings. This is because although it could speed up decision-making, it can also foster a climate of mistrust, discourage employee participation, and hinder creativity.

#### 4.19.4 Hypothesis 3

***H3:** There is a statistically significant positive relationship between an authoritarian communication style and employee performance (Turton, 2015).*

Hypothesis 3 predicted the authoritarian communication style will have a positive statistical significance on employee performance. The regression results, presented in Table 4.6, reveal a non-significant coefficient ( $\beta = 0.055$ ,  $p = 0.399$ ). With a p-value larger than the 0.05 alpha level, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. Thus, the alternative hypothesis (H3) is not supported. This finding shows that an authoritarian communication style, within the confines of this study, does not have a statistically significant relationship with employee performance.

For the purposes of testing the internal consistency of the variables AC, PC, CE, and EP, Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were computed. All of the measured values—AC = 0.66, PC = 0.77, CE = 0.69, and EP = 0.78—exceeded the allowable cut-off point of 0.60. This implies that each variable's measurements are accurate and dependable. The results acceptable reliability shows that the tools employed to measure these variables are giving reliable results. The coefficient of 0.055 for AC represents the projected change in employee performance for each unit of rise in AC. The t-value, however, demonstrates that this association is not statistically significant ( $p > 0.05$ ), despite the claim. This suggests that, based on the presented results, there is not enough evidence to draw any inferences about the relevance of the

relationship between AC and EP. The variables were supposed to be positively associated, according to the predicted hypothesis.

The actual results, however, show that there is no correlation between the variables and the relationship was negative. This indicates that the data did not confirm the proposed theory. Since Beta was .059 and the p-value was 0.399, hypothesis two cannot be substantiated. This suggests that the idea that an authoritarian communication style affects employee performance in a way that is significant in statistical terms is unsupported by data.

The relationship between PC and AC was positively correlated ( $r = 0.588$ ,  $p = 0.01$ ), showing a link between these variables. This shows that those who communicate more authoritarian behaviours also tend to communicate more participatory. According to the results, there is a very slight but highly significant positive correlation ( $r = 0.100$ ,  $p = 0.01$ ) between AC and EP. The findings were not expected based on the initial hypothesis because this suggests that AC and EP have a tenuous relationship. It implies that there is a minor trend for employee performance to climb as authoritarian communication grows, however less so than in other interactions. Dasgupta et al. (2013)'s literature, which claims that an authoritarian communication style is infamous for forcing decisions on employees, supports the findings. People are less likely to be imaginative and creative when their bosses prioritize their own preferences above those of their staff members. This finding challenges the claim made by Turton (2015), and differs from the result found by Muchiri and Van Breeman (2021) which found a positive relationship. The contrast may be due to differences in context, or simply the result of a change in workplace expectations that preferred empowerment over command-and-control strategies. It suggests that organizations need to move away from authoritarian approaches to achieve performance.

However, given the tiny correlation, it seems likely that other factors, rather than AC alone, have a higher influence on employee performance. A weak positive correlation between authoritarian communication style (AC) and worker performance is indicated by the coefficient of 0.055. The predicted result of the relationship was a negative relationship between the variables, but the t-value for this relationship shows that it is not statistically important ( $p > 0.05$ ). This suggests that the influence of AC on employee performance is not considered significant in this study. The actual results, however, reveal no correlation between the variables. As a result, the actual outcome does not confirm the expected hypothesis.

#### 4.19.5 Hypothesis 4

**H4:** *There is a statistically significant positive relationship between a participatory communication style and employee performance (Sagie, 2009; Turton, 2015).*

Hypothesis 4 posited that participative communication style has positive statistical significance on employee performance. The findings in Table 4.6 indicate a significant positive coefficient ( $\beta = 0.581$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Since our p-value was less than 0.05 we rejected the null hypothesis, and therefore we support the alternative hypothesis (H4). These results strongly support the theoretical relationship between participative leadership and employee performance. The results are consistent with Sagie (2009) and Al-sada et al. (2017) who highlight the practical need for leaders to exercise inclusive communication methods to enhance employee performance.

It can be evaluated that participatory Communication (PC) and Employee Performance (EP) were shown in the study to have a high and substantial positive correlation ( $r = 0.615$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). The multiple coefficient of correlation of 0.617 indicates that employee performance and participatory communication strategies are moderately positively connected. This suggests that PC and EP have a significant relationship. According to the findings, employee performance

tends to rise along with an increase in PC. This illustrates how essential it is for worker performance to be encouraged at higher levels through participatory communication. Through taking into consideration the scale of the variables, the standardized coefficient (*Beta*) of 0.581 makes it possible to estimate the impact size of PC on employee performance. According to the *t-value*, the association between PC and employee performance is statistically significant ( $p < 0.001$ ). The positive statistical significance of the correlation between PC and employee performance (EP) is indicated by the low *p*-value ( $p < 0.001$ ) linked to the PC coefficient. This implies that it is improbable that the apparent relationship between PC and EP could have developed by accident. As a result, there is compelling data to back up the claim that PC use significantly affects employee performance. When the size of the factors is considered, this shows how much of an impact PC usage has on employee performance. It suggests that the use of PCs improves employee performance only somewhat. This is consistent with the discussion by Al-Sada, et al. (2017), who highlighted how employee input and assurance to the concerned organisations are made possible by participative leadership. Employee opinions and ideas are not suppressed by this style of leadership. The projected hypothesis indicated that a positive correlation between the variables was expected. The final result, which demonstrates a positive correlation between the variables, supports the projected hypothesis. This suggests that the variables are in fact positively related, as the results corroborate the initial hypothesis.

The value of the correlation coefficient indicates the general direction and degree of the relationship between the independent variable (communication techniques) and the dependent variable (employee performance). The somewhat positive correlation demonstrates that staff performance frequently increases in tandem with advancements in communication strategies. According to the relationship of 0.702, for every unit improvement in participatory communication style (PC), employee performance is projected to climb by 0.702 units on average. This implies a high positive relationship between PC and employee performance,



demonstrating that employee performance tends to rise as PC does. Studies have indicated that the involvement of employees in the decision-making process enhances the quality of decisions made because they help the supervisor identify the primary obstacles in each situation (Lythreatis et al., 2022; Raineri, 2017). This demonstrates that when leaders who participate cherish their opinions and insights and actively seek out their criticisms and ideas, employees are more inclined to stick by leadership choices with loyalty (Rana et al. 2019; Khassawneh and Abaker 2022). According to Benoliel and Barth (2017) participatory leaders help their employees learn through gathering information, discussing it, connecting with others, and searching for new opportunities. Then, hypothesis 4 is expected. This is proved by the beta value was 0.581 and  $p < 0.001$ , hypothesis 4 is accepted.

It is vital to promote appropriate communication methods within organizational structures and the influence of effective communication practices on employee outcomes are highlighted by this study. This relates to the findings of Osama and Hamzah (2022), who observed that when managers include staff members in decision-making procedures, employee loyalty can increase, and job performance can rise as a result. These results align with previous research on communication and leadership styles. Sulaiman et al. (2023), for example, demonstrated the advantages of participatory communication for employee engagement and motivation, which ultimately resulted in improved performance outcomes. However, it's crucial to consider the study's limitations, such as the unique environment and sample used, and to interpret the findings with caution. The comprehension of these correlations and the generalizability of the study would be strengthened by additional research and replication of the study in various circumstances. Future research should consider additional variables that were not included in the model because they might possibly have an impact on employee performance. The factors were expected to be positively associated, which was the expected hypothesis. The actual results support a favourable correlation between the factors. As a result,

the actual outcome confirms the hypothesis that was suggested. Based on the initial hypothesis, the result was to be expected.

#### **4.20 Overall Scholarly Contribution**

The present study has made a number of unique contributions to the literature on cross-cultural management and leadership communication: First, it demonstrates how to leverage theories of human capital and technology adoption (HCT, TAM, UTAUT...), within a framework of a much, more subtle relationship than the simple correlational and descriptive studies within the extant literature; a multi-layered model of deployment, investment and willingness to receive the communication. The second contribution, addressed above, is highlights how much quicker we can nuance and delineate cross-cultural leadership, than oversimplifying their own leadership approaches to a national stereotype. Female leaders in both the UK and South Africa, predominantly favour participatory styles. However, the performance communications revealed discussion beyond a national stereotype, the authors introduced the critical concept of situated cultural agency, by which leaders are able to straddle, or negotiate a pathway, with both national and organizational cultural tensions. The third contribution clarifies the vital link to performance, providing ample empirical support to establish participative communication benefits employees and improves performance, while authoritarian communication has no performance benefit or contribution in these case study contexts. This evidence or data driven positions creates a slightly less ambiguous way for organizations to which to develop their leadership programs and assist with prioritizing development in participative style or competency. Finally, the fifth contribution adds to the gender and leadership discourse, presenting women leaders as strategically agile, both active agency and proactive and intentional repertoire of communication style across a range of stakeholders. Although there is a small minority to suggest advocates of secure authoritarian styles in certain contexts, this

complicates the narrative of a singular frame of 'feminine' style of leadership framing, justifying continuous location and context to what it means to enact certain styles of leadership, especially under a feminine style of leadership style.

#### **4.21 Summary**

This thesis sought to investigate the relationship between communication style and employee performance through a cross-cultural examination of female leaders in South Africa and the United Kingdom. The sample included 89 participants from South Africa, 91 participants from the UK, and 20 participants from other nationalities, indicating a diverse representation of nationalities. This diversity offers credibility to the evaluation. The sample also includes 132 adults with academic training and 68 persons with general training. Academically trained people have completed formal education programs at academic institutions, whereas generally trained participants have gained knowledge and skills outside of formal education. The qualitative data was collected until data saturation from key informants were born in South Africa, United Kingdom other nations. This distribution implies that the women leaders in the study have an international footprint, as they have drawn individuals from different cultures. The fact that only six individuals were born outside of South Africa, or the United Kingdom implies that most of them of participants had a connection.

The results indicate that either women leaders from South Africa and the United Kingdom were more prevalent in the sample, or that the study concentrated primarily on women leaders from the two countries. Women leaders have a responsibility to make sure staff members from all backgrounds feel welcomed and included because of the multicultural mix of the participants. Encouraging an inclusive work environment where employees feel appreciated and valued regardless of their cultural background is essential. The study's conclusions highlight the prevalence of female leaders throughout the world and their ability

to advance global ideas. The findings emphasize the necessity of fostering an inclusive workplace and supporting people from varied cultural backgrounds. Women leaders can harness their workers' varied perspectives and experiences to generate innovation and achievement inside their firms by promoting multiculturalism and tackling any hurdles.

Hypothesis 1 tested that culture has an influence on the communication styles used by women leaders from UK and South Africa. The results emphasise the importance of culture in influencing women leaders' communication styles. Recognising and embracing cultural differences in communication approaches can help varied team members communicate, collaborate, and understand one other more effectively. Leaders must be aware of these effects and change their communication techniques accordingly to promote inclusion and foster an environment in which multiple points of view are welcomed and accepted. It was also determined that culture is the backbone of an organization and that employee performance drives it. The study's female leaders' thoughts reinforce the premise that culture has a substantial impact on communication patterns. Results underlined the need of recognizing and adapting to varied communication styles influenced by culture to improve message transmission and relationship development effectiveness. It was also determined that culture is the backbone of an organization and that employee performance drives it.

The hypothesis 2 tested that women leaders from South Africa have a more authoritarian communication style concerning employees and women leaders from the United Kingdom have a more participatory communication style concerning employees. The findings indicate that most the study's female leaders supported a participatory communication approach, highlighting the value of employee engagement, involvement, and empowerment. Through active participation, female leaders may help create an inclusive and encouraging work environment that fosters innovation, imagination, and employee satisfaction. While some female executives favoured authoritarian leadership styles, the majority preferred participative

communication styles. The attitudes and study findings offered provide some insight into the reasons behind these choices, but it is vital to evaluate the benefits and drawbacks of various leadership styles, as well as the necessity for flexibility in leadership methods. The findings were expected and are consistent with the tested hypothesis and current research on the impact of culture on communication styles. They emphasize the significance of cultural settings and adapting communication to varied cultural backgrounds for successful leadership and organizational performance.

Hypothesis 3 tested that the authoritarian communication style has a statistical significance on employee performance. There is not enough information to make any conclusions on the applicability of the connection between AC and EP. The anticipated hypothesis assumed that the variables were positively associated. On the other hand, the actual data show that the variables have a negative relationship and no relationship. The results of both regression and correlation analysis refute hypothesis 3, which stated that an authoritarian style of communication would statistically significantly affect employee performance. According to the findings, there is no conclusive link between an authoritarian communication style and specific employee performance. Therefore, based on the present data, we are unable to confirm the existence of an autocratic leadership style among women leaders. In the absence of any communication methods, or when authoritarian communication styles are zero, the intercept value of 0.301 shows the expected average value of employee performance.

Hypothesis 4 tested that the participatory communication style has a statistical significance on employee performance. The findings show significant relationships between the variables culture, PC, authoritative communication (AC), and EP. Culture has a very close association with PC and EP. These findings highlight the interdependence of these variables and imply that cultural values, communication techniques, and employee performance are all linked. The results provide proof of the connections between the variables under study. The

substantial association between culture and EP indicates the importance of cultural values on worker productivity. Furthermore, the positive association between PC and EP underscores the necessity of participative communication in promoting higher levels of performance among employees. The relationships between cultural values, communication styles, and employee performance imply that these factors should be considered in organizational contexts to improve performance and encourage effective communication practices. The findings demonstrate a substantial and statistically significant beneficial relationship between participatory communication style and employee performance. This demonstrates the high correlation between these variables. This highlights how important it is for employees to participate to influence their performance in the workplace. Communication, especially participative communication, has the potential to enhance employee performance. These results support past research on performance and leadership styles. Priyashantha et al. (2016) found similar results when they looked into the connection between results for staff and leadership styles. Eagly and Johnson (1990) study further emphasizes the need for more research in this field by emphasizing how challenging it is to ascertain the effects of various leadership philosophies on worker performance.

The findings indicate that employee performance is statistically significantly impacted by participative communication style (PC), but it is ambiguous how authoritarian communication style (AC) and employee performance are related. It is important to understand that there could be a number of reasons for the lack of statistical significance for AC, such as a small sample size or the particulars of the study. Employee performance (EP) and participatory communication style (PC) have a statistically significant relationship, according to the findings beneficial relationship. For every unit increase in PC, EP is expected to rise by 0.702 units. The relationship between EP and authoritarian communication style (AC) is, however, modest and statistically negligible. The results demonstrate that employee

performance (EP) is statistically significantly impacted by participative communication style (PC). As a result, it is critical to realize the importance of successful communication techniques, particularly those that encourage employee active participation and engagement. The fourth hypothesis' findings indicated significant evidence in favour of the predicted association between participatory communication style and employee performance. There is a strong and significant positive link between these parameters, as shown by both regression and correlation analysis. This supports the study hypothesis and emphasizes the critical importance of participatory communication style in improving employee performance within the framework of the business.

According to the results of the hypothesis test, hypothesis 3 was not supported according to expectation and hypothesis 4 was supported as expected. The results refute any connection between an authoritarian communication style and the performance of an employee. Therefore, the results of this study do not support the notion that female leaders have an authoritarian leadership style. It is critical to investigate and comprehend the reasons for the unexpected finding for H3, as well as potential factors that may have influenced the observed results. To further understand the relationship between the issues under examination, more investigation and research could be needed. These results highlight the intrinsic complexity of interactions between variables and the value of careful investigation and analysis. Further investigation, including the examination of potential moderating or mediating variables, can assist throw light on the unexpected findings and provide an improved comprehension of the relationship among the variables of interest. As a result, the study concludes that the chosen communication methods do have a major impact on individual employee performance. This study is crucial for understanding the effect of communication styles on shaping employee results, and it emphasizes the need of developing effective communication styles within organizational structures.

Based on the findings of the strategies employed by female leaders, do their approaches adjust to the workplace culture or do they adopt a universal approach? According to the survey, female executives employ a range of strategies to raise employee performance. These tactics consist of setting clear expectations, offering opportunities for growth and training, giving incentives and prizes, offering helpful criticism, and establishing realistic objectives. By implementing these techniques, female leaders can enhance employee motivation, create a positive work environment, and boost productivity. Most female executives emphasized how important it is to identify the unique personality traits, work styles, and cultural backgrounds of their staff members and modify management tactics accordingly. Female leaders stressed the importance of various levels of assistance and direction, as well as presenting different incentives and rewards based on individual preferences. However, a few female leaders reported employing a one-size-fits-all approach in specific situations. Most female leaders recognized the disadvantages of a one-size-fits-all strategy, which can lead to a lack of personalized attention and support, disengagement, low morale, and a negative influence on creativity and innovation. They stated that it might give uniformity in management techniques, save time and money, and be easier to implement, especially in smaller firms with fewer employees and lower job complexity.



## **CHAPTER 5: IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, FUTURE RESEARCH AND CONCLUSIONS**

### **5.1 Introduction**

This thesis was centred on how communication styles affect how women leaders in South Africa and the UK are presented, with a particular emphasis on cross-cultural study. The study emphasizes the value of excellent communication in leadership and how it affects worker motivation and output. Organisational leaders have primary responsibility for promoting cultural fairness and striking a balance in communication. The problem statement highlights the observation that a considerable proportion of company executives understand that better staff communication is necessary to boost morale and output. A sizable portion of corporate executives understand that better staff communication is necessary to boost morale and output. It highlights how important it is for management practices to support communication as a means of fostering a stronger bond between leaders and staff and making task completion easier.

The statement also emphasises the necessity of efficient communication channels to increase productivity and overall organisational performance and names ineffective communication as one of the primary causes of ineffective leadership. The benefits of leaders communicating effectively, including how it inspires, motivates, and encourages followers is emphasised. It recognizes that, because of globalization, cross-cultural communication is becoming more and more important, and that multinational firms must know how to engage with people from varied cultural backgrounds. The dearth of research on cross-cultural communication amongst female leaders in corporate contexts is another issue noted in the problem statement. It acknowledges the growing impact of female leaders across cultures and

emphasizes the need to investigate the ways in which female leaders in Western and African cultures affects employee performance.

The phrase brings up the subject of colonisation's dominance of Western culture over indigenous African culture, which has affected African economic growth and cultural identities. It draws attention to the growth of global corporations in Africa and stresses the significance of integrating local workers and foreign nationals in these establishments. Consequently, the issue statement provides a comprehensive overview of the study topic, highlighting the knowledge gaps and the significance of investigating cross-cultural communication among female leaders in the UK and South Africa. It highlights the need for additional research on the relationship between communication style and worker performance in these kinds of environments.

The study's objective was to investigate the relationship between worker performance and communication style, with a focus on female leaders from two different cultural backgrounds: Western and African. The study set out to find out how the communication methods of female leaders in diverse cultures impact the productivity of their employees. The study looked at how women leaders from Western and African cultures communicated and how that affected worker performance. It focused on Deetz's managerialism theory and Weber's traditional organisational theory of fixed structures, using a questionnaire to gather data. Employees under female executives in South Africa and the United Kingdom who were selected to represent African and Western cultures, respectively, made up the study's population.

There are several limitations to the study that need to be considered. First off, employing qualitative research techniques makes it more difficult to undertake a thorough study of the situation, explain unintended repercussions of actions, address underlying tensions

within organisations and society, or completely comprehend historical development. Qualitative research is more concerned with investigating viewpoints, experiences, and meanings than it is with proving causality or offering clear-cut answers to difficult problems.

The difficulty of selecting samples from large-scale data sets is another drawback. It sometimes takes quite a bit of time and money to gather, interpret, and analyse data using qualitative research methodologies, even though the study claims to have employed massive data sets. This could result in a smaller sample size and limited results ability for generalisation. Furthermore, the study's emphasis on female leaders from cultural contexts—South Africa and the United Kingdom—may have limited the findings' applicability in other cultural settings. Cultural variables have a big impact on communication patterns and behaviours, therefore, to get a more complete picture, it's critical to consider a wider range of cultural backgrounds.

Additionally, the study's reliance on questionnaires that ask participants to self-report may include biases or mistakes in their responses. The participant responses that are influenced by social desirability bias or their own subjective interpretations of the questions. Finally, the design of the study is mainly concerned with investigating the communication styles and how they affect worker performance. It might not adequately account for additional elements like personality variations, company culture, or outside circumstances that can affect employee performance. Considering these supplementary factors may yield a more thorough comprehension of the subject matter being studied. The study that is being discussed shows a significant dedication to ethical considerations in both its planning and execution. One can identify several important ethical dimensions.

Prior to participation, individuals gave their informed consent, as guaranteed by the study. In addition to receiving thorough information about the study, participants were given the chance to clarify any doubts they may have had. They were made aware of their rights,

including the freedom to end the study at any time and without repercussions. The study implemented protocols to safeguard the privacy and identity of its subjects. Participant names were not recorded and replies to online surveys were kept private. Further protecting participant identities the researcher used codes and IDs in place of private information. In addition, the researcher stressed that only individuals directly participating in the study would have access to the data.

The study acknowledged the significance of data security, especially when managing private information on the internet. To preserve data, the researcher recognised the necessity of technological proficiency and enlisted the help of an internet-savvy individual. To protect participant data, steps including password-protected files and encryption during data transmission were used. The study reduced any possible hazards or negative effects while emphasizing participant well-being. Participants received assurances that dropping out of the study would have no consequences and that their responses would not be considered. To prevent participants' daily commitments from being disrupted, the study also limited the amount of time that they had to dedicate to it. The significance of adhering to ethical guidelines and federal legislation when conducting research was recognized by the study. It referred to a university's research ethics committee and the researcher's adherence to their guidelines. This highlights a commitment to ensuring that the study aligns with ethical principles and regulations. The researcher recognised the position of avoiding professional bias throughout the study. Measures such as following ethical guidelines, maintaining clear objectives, recording detailed study processes, and including all results in the final report were mentioned to mitigate potential biases.

It was determined that there is a need to better understand how women executives from diverse cultural backgrounds communicate with one another and how that affects employee performance. The study's goal was to investigate this subject using qualitative research

techniques, such as Skype interviews and online questionnaires. The study's limitations were noted, including the results' cultural specificity and the possible biases in the self-report measures. Ethical considerations like participant confidentiality, informed permission, and well-being were given a lot of importance in the study's design. This set the stage for the implications, recommendations, and conclusions derived from the thesis results.

## **5.2 Implications for practice**

The study concentrated on female leaders from multicultural and international companies in South Africa and the United Kingdom. This made it possible to have a diversified sample, but it was possible that the results would not apply to other cultural situations or geographical areas. The results may not be as broadly applicable as they could be due to the cultural quirks and communication styles unique to these two nations. Self-report methods, including online surveys and Skype interviews, were used in the study. Biases, such as memory recall or social desirability biases, might affect self-report statistics. Should the participant's responses not precisely mirror their actual behaviours or experiences, the results could not be totally accurate.

For the online survey, 100 participants from every nation participated, and for the Skype interviews, data saturation was used to collect data from female leaders. The findings' applicability to a larger population of women executives in multinational/multicultural enterprises may be hampered by the small sample size. Over the course of 48 hours, participants had a maximum of one hour to finish the online survey. The length and calibre of their answers might have been affected by this time restriction. The validity of the results may be impacted by individuals who hurried through the questionnaire, maybe providing incomplete or thoughtless replies. The research was dependent on participants giving their consent to fill out the online survey and take part in Skype interviews. This raises the prospect of nonresponse

bias, in which participants may differ from opportunistic individuals in terms of traits or viewpoints.

The results indicated a significant relationship between culture and employee performance. The study indicates that around 79.1% of the variation in employee performance may be attributed to cultural values. This strong connection is supported by the adjusted R Square value of 0.789, which takes the complexity of the model and the number of factors into consideration. This implied that cultural values have a major influence on employees' performance in the examined situation. These results are in line with the goals of the study and the conceptual framework, which emphasizes the importance of cultural influences on worker performance. The results were notable because they provided concrete evidence of the significant impact that cultural values have on workers' productivity. This implied that reiterating the notion that supportive cultures-which are marked by an openness to innovation and a lack of fear of failure-can increase overall productivity in firms, they add to the body of current studies.

The results also line up with the research reviewed who contended that European norms and power dynamics had a significant influence on South Africa's corporate culture. This decision-making process that is Eurocentric may encourage adversarial relationships between supervisors and staff, clients and vendors, and various racial groups. The study's conclusions provide empirical support for the claims made in the literature regarding the influence of cultural values on employee performance. The results were largely expected because business culture has been shown to have an impact on employee performance on a regular basis in the literature. The substantial portion of employee performance variance attributable to cultural values is consistent with the body of research already in existence. It is crucial to keep in mind, though, that different organizational contexts, particular cultural variables looked at, or other unconsidered elements may provide surprising or contradictory outcomes. These theories could

be investigated further to have a more thorough knowledge of the connection between worker performance and cultural values.

Employee performance (EP) and culture, on the other hand, have a strong and statistically significant positive correlation, which means that EP typically increases as culture improves. The results aligns with the purpose of the study and the conceptual framework by highlighting the influence of cultural values on worker performance. It emphasises how crucial a participative communication strategy is for motivating workers to achieve at higher levels. A negative correlation between employee performance and culture presents an opposing viewpoint. Variations in organizational environments, industry-specific dynamics, or the metrics employed to evaluate authoritarian communication and employee performance could account for the surprising or contradictory outcomes. It draws attention to how intricately cultural values, communication approaches and employee performance differ across different settings and circumstances. It draws attention to the intricate interplay that exists between cultural norms, communication styles, and worker performance-all of which can vary depending on the situation.

Regarding practical applications in the context of applied degrees, the study emphasizes the need of creating a culture that is encouraging and supportive of creativity and taking calculated risks. This implies that using this knowledge, organizations can improve performance by modifying their cultural norms and creating an environment where employees feel free to express their original ideas. The survey also emphasizes how crucial it is that companies aware of potential cultural variables, such power disparities, that could impede collaboration and cooperation at work. There are two ways in which this may affect practice in the setting of applied degrees. Firstly, given the substantial correlation found between participatory communication (PC) and employee performance (EP), the study highlights the significance of using a participatory communication approach to improve employee

performance. Businesses can leverage this knowledge to develop communication strategies and leadership practices that simplify employee participation and engagement.

The conflicting findings regarding the relationship between culture and employee performance highlight the need for additional study and contextual factor analysis. Although prior research indicated a negative correlation between culture and worker performance, the current study highlights a positive correlation. This suggests that there is a complex relationship that can change based on unique organizational situations and other influencing factors between culture and employee performance. As a result, practitioners need to evaluate their organizational culture thoroughly, considering any obstacles to performance reviews and pinpointing areas where cultural fit might enhance worker productivity.

Cronbach's Alpha results illustrated on in Table 4.2 show satisfactory internal consistency for the variables of organizational culture (AC), communication effectiveness (CE), perceived performance (PC), and employee performance (EP). The values achieved for AC (0.66), PC (0.77), CE (0.69), and EP (0.78) all surpass the acceptable threshold of 0.60, as suggested by Pallent (2007). This enhances the overall quality and validity of the research findings and verifies the accuracy of the data gathered for each variable. The findings accord with the literature examined in Chapter 2 where the favourable association between organizational culture and performance was discussed. With a focus on the part played by Japanese firms in creating a strong organizational culture and fostering employee loyalty, their research demonstrated the importance of organizational culture in attaining success. The present study's findings extend the corpus of literature by emphasizing the significance of corporate culture and its relationship to employee performance and communication effectiveness. The results were anticipated given the literature's alignment and highlight the volume of prior study on the subject. The study offers actual data that improves our comprehension of the connection between worker performance, corporate culture, and



communication efficacy. The results validate the importance of these variables and how they interact in multinational/multicultural organizations, which adds to the conceptual framework. Practice in an applied context was significantly impacted. The findings underscore the need of cultivating an affirmative workplace culture that facilitates efficacious communication. Employers can use this information to create plans and actions that may improve employee performance through increased communication effectiveness. Organisations can foster a culture that is welcoming and inclusive while still encouraging high performance and employee dedication. While the outcomes are consistent with previous research, it's crucial to remember that unanticipated or contradictory findings can surface in such inconsistencies may be explained by variances in analytical approaches, cultural variables, or organizational circumstances. Future, researchers should continue examining these topics in order to gain a deeper understanding of the complex relationship that exists between company culture, effective communication, and employee success. Therefore, the study conclusions are consistent with the body of research demonstrating a connection between effective communication, organizational culture, and employee performance.

The results add to the conceptual framework, show how important these variables are, and offer insightful information to companies looking to improve performance by building a solid organisational culture and efficient communication methods. The contradictory findings, however, about the relationship between culture and worker performance emphasize the need for more investigation to determine the underlying processes and contextual elements influencing this relationship. Subsequent studies ought to explore other industry domains, organizational settings, and cultural traits in order to fully understand the complex interplay among culture, communication styles, and productivity. As a result, by providing concrete evidence of the relationships between cultural values, worker performance, and communication styles, the study's findings advance our understanding.

The study broadens our knowledge on the subject and offers useful recommendations for businesses looking to improve worker performance through positive workplace cultures and efficient communication techniques. This finding supports the body of data that was examined and emphasizes the connection between culture and performance. By highlighting how cultural influences impact communication styles-particularly the adoption of an authoritarian communication style-the findings contribute to the body of research. This study contributes to the body of existing research by offering empirical data that shows the strong association between worker performance and cultural values within the framework of the literature review. The results address the research question, are consistent with the study's objectives, and are noteworthy due to the notable difference in employee performance described for by cultural values. The study adds to the body of research on this subject by bolstering the notion that corporate culture plays a critical role in influencing employee behaviour and performance.

The results did not support hypothesis 3, which predicted a high link between an authoritarian communication style and employee performance, according to the results of the correlation and regression analyses. The statistics show no statistically significant relationship between an authoritarian communication style and an employee's performance. Therefore, the study's results refuted the notion that female CEOs have an authoritarian leadership style. Authoritarian communication (AC) and employee performance (EP) show a very weak and substantial positive correlation in the study, suggesting a weak relationship between these variables. According to this research, there may be a little tendency for employee performance to rise as AC rises, but it has little bearing on other correlations that were looked at. This was coherent with the results who described neutral responses from respondents regarding their active involvement in decision-making processes under autocratic leadership. Organisations should not believe that an authoritarian communication style would inevitably result in greater

employee performance when it comes to practice in the setting of applied degrees. Rather, they ought to think about implementing a more inclusive and participatory communication strategy that promotes worker engagement and participation in decision-making. This study highlighted how vital it is for firms to review their communication and leadership philosophies to promote an environment that is positive and rewarding for employees. These results addressed the research dilemma by offering factual data that defies the original theory. They are incompatible with the study's objectives, which were to investigate the connection between worker performance and communication styles. This means that autocratic communication styles had limited impact on employee performance.

Although there was a possibility of a positive relationship between these variables at first, the conceptual framework is brought into doubt because there is no substantial association discovered between employee performance and authoritarian communication style. It is important to keep in mind, though, that the absence of a significant association does provide valuable information on its own and broadens the corpus of existing knowledge on the topic. This means that examining the relationships between worker performance, cultural values, and communication styles within the parameters of the literature review, this study contributes to the body of knowledge. The results addressed the research question, align with the goals of the investigation, and demonstrate significance through statistically significant correlations.

The thesis offers insights into how cultural values and participatory communication affect worker performance. A number of factors could account for the surprising or contradictory outcomes. It's probable that the precise metrics employed in the study to evaluate employee performance and authoritarian communication style failed to adequately represent the subtleties or complexity of these concepts. Contextual elements may also have affected the outcomes, including individual participant characteristics, industry dynamics, and company culture. It is imperative to consider that the existing body of literature about the correlation

between employee performance and an authoritarian communication style may have produced inconsistent results, perhaps exacerbating the observed discrepancies.

The anticipated character of these findings aligns with the body of literature, since earlier research has demonstrated the interaction among culture, communication styles, and performance outcomes. The present study contributes to the existing body of literature by providing empirical evidence in the context of women in leadership positions and the growth of female leadership. These findings support the literature review and broaden the body of information already known about the topic. In the context of female leadership development and women in top management positions, this study thus contributes to the body of research in the context of the literature review by offering empirical evidence of the relationships between communication styles, cultural values, and performance outcomes. The study contributes to the body of knowledge by providing new insights and emphasizing the importance of these variables in organizational contexts.

There are important practical ramifications, especially when considering an applied degree. The study emphasises how crucial it is to support an interactive communication style in order to improve worker performance. Using this understanding, organisations can create leadership and communication training programs that encourage the use of participatory communication techniques. The results also demonstrate how cultural values influence communication methods, underscoring the need for cultural sensitivity and flexibility in leadership and communication strategies. This is in line with past research that found a positive relationship between worker performance and authoritarian leadership. These results add to the body of research previously available and reinforce the link between worker performance and communication methods. This implies that contextual factors, such as differences in cultural values, organizational circumstances, or gender dynamics, may provide explanations for unexpected or contradictory outcomes. To fully comprehend the complexity involved in the

interaction between communication styles, cultural values, and performance results, future study should investigate these issues in more detail.

The thesis conclusions show a substantial and positive association between employee performance (EP) and participatory communication (PC), suggesting that as PC rises, EP also tends to rise. This supports the conceptual framework, which emphasises the importance of communication styles in influencing worker performance, and is in line with the study's goals. The results contribute to the literature by providing empirical evidence for the positive association between PC and EP. Furthermore, the study discovered a strong positive correlation between PC and culture, indicating a tight bond between PC and cultural values. This conclusion bolsters the literature examined, demonstrating the necessity of encouraging employees' ideas and opinions in a culture that values knowledge and critical thinking. Additionally, the study found a substantial positive association between PC and culture, suggesting a close relationship between PC and cultural values. This result bolsters the literature reviewed, highlighting the significance of promoting employees' ideas and opinions in a culture that values knowledge and critical analysis.

The thesis further stresses the interaction between participatory communication and cultural values and the impact of cultural elements on communication styles, these studies contribute to the conceptual framework. The results are in line with the literature, as prior research has shown that autocratic leadership, employee performance, and participative communication are positively correlated. The present research contributes to this corpus of knowledge by preparing empirical data in the particular setting of multicultural and multinational corporations. Contextual factors, such as variances in organizational cultures, industry-specific dynamics, or even individual differences among participants, could provide possible reasons for unexpected or contradictory outcomes. To fully comprehend the

complexity involved in the interaction between communication styles, cultural values, and employee performance, future study should investigate these aspects in more detail.

There are important practical ramifications, especially when considering an applied degree. The results underscore the need of cultivating communication strategies that promote staff involvement and idea exchange. Employers can use this information to create leadership and communication plans that encourage employee participation and lead to higher worker productivity. This means that firms can establish a successful environment by matching communication techniques with cultural norms that encourage critical analysis and information exchange.

The thesis conclusions thereby address the research problem, align with the conceptual framework and research purpose, demonstrate relevance through strong positive correlations, and contribute to the corpus of existing knowledge on the topic. The findings highlight the significance of communication styles and cultural values, as well as their influence on worker performance, and are in line with the anticipated conclusions from the literature. By presenting empirical data within the framework of multinational/multicultural enterprises, the study adds to the body of existing research and provides insightful information for both practice and future research projects.

### **5.3 Recommendations for practice**

In light of the thesis results, several recommendations for the implementation of female leadership and communication styles from a business standpoint can be made. The recommendations are presented within the body of current literature and are supported by the research results.

The study demonstrated a participative communication style (PC) was the most robust and significant predictor of employee performance ( $\beta = 0.581$ ,  $p < .001$ ) while there was no effect of authoritarian communication (AC). Sixty-five percent of leaders qualitatively articulated their endorsement of this style based off it being connected to innovation and engagement. This result was consistent with Eagly and Johnson's (1990) meta-analysis interpreting the predilection of women leaders toward more democratic style decision making, but extends this concept forward to operationalize the quantitative effect on performance. Additionally, it operationalizes the principles of Human Capital Theory by framing communication abilities as a strategic performance investment with a measurable return on performance.

This implies that the research offers strong proof of the positive correlation between worker productivity and a participative communication style. This thesis recommends employers to assist leaders in adopting a participatory strategy in two ways: by creating transparent and welcoming channels of communication and by involving employees in decision-making processes. This is in line with the finding that higher motivation and commitment among workers through engaged interaction leads to improved performance outcomes. This could lead to improved work performance and increased employee loyalty. The research supports the idea that participatory leaders can enhance worker performance by appreciating worker feedback and providing opportunities for employee engagement. This is consistent with studies Eagly and Johnson's (1990) showing how authoritarian methods of communication negatively impact staff retention, creative thinking, and innovation. Therefore, female led firms can create an atmosphere that recognizes employee input, encourages imaginative thinking, and boosts performance by encouraging a participative communication approach.

The study showed that 80% of leaders indicated their communication style was due to their cultural background and the regression model suggested that culture explains 79.1% of the variance in performance ( $R^2 = 0.791$ ). Among the leaders observed, 20% demonstrated

what is called “situated cultural agency,” in which they were deliberate when communicating or acting in their organizational situation. This challenge the limitations of static cultural models (e.g. Hofstede, 1980) both Franklin (2007) and Bird et al. (2010) argued were lacking in addressing the complexities surrounding comprehending different cultures. This supports the idea of cultural competence, which is described by Gandolfi (2012) as having the ability to incorporate new knowledge and be able to view an event from other’s perspective.

The study recommends that in order to create an atmosphere within the workplace where employees are inspired to work hard and fulfil their potential, engagement in leadership is essential. According to the survey results, businesses should prioritize fostering an atmosphere where staff members feel respected, empowered, and free to voice their ideas. Participatory communication strategies are strongly associated with a collaborative and empowered culture. Participatory leadership and efficient communication techniques improve worker performance. As a result, businesses ought to promote an environment that values collaboration, collaborating on decisions, and cooperation. Leaders ought to enable staff members by giving them independence, accountability, and chances to share their thoughts and viewpoints. Workers are more inclined to be inspired and provide the highest quality work when they feel appreciated and accountable.

Equally important, based on the quantitative findings, there's a simple business case: participative communication improves performance while authoritarian communication does not. To take action on this, we need to measure it. This action implements what Radu & Ramona (2014) theorized as the relationship between communication and performance. This action follows what the UTAUT theorists suggested regarding "Facilitating Conditions" (organizational support and infrastructure) being key consideration within the determinants of technology/or behaviour being used and enhanced or at least utilized as originally intended.



Hence, the study recommends that women led organisations should give priority to training programs that teach leaders how to communicate in a participatory manner. Workshops for the training of leaders ought to be funded by firms because it might be difficult to understand how various approaches to leadership impact employee performance. Through the development of a variety of communication styles and skill sets, these programs assist women leaders in adapting their approach to various situations and individuals. The results highlight the need for leadership development as there is no discernible link between worker performance and an autocratic communication style. Effective communication is necessary while using a participatory communication style. Organisations must offer development and training opportunities to help leaders become better communicators. This can entail learning how to facilitate receptive debate, offer positive feedback, and practice attentive listening.

This implies that by giving leaders outstanding interpersonal abilities, businesses can promote a participative communication style that raises staff performance. These programs can help leaders understand the importance of open dialogue while equipping individuals with the skills they require to communicate with employees in a productive way. The literature study emphasizes the value of participatory leaders in fostering learning, gathering information, and seeking out novel opportunities. Therefore, this study recommends that companies support programs for developing leadership that focus on improving participants' ability to lead and communicate effectively.

The results showed how important it is to have a supportive company culture in order to promote a communicative style of communication. An organization's primary goal need to create an environment that values contribution from workers, promotes inclusiveness, and encourages open communication. This can be accomplished with the support of initiatives like transparent communication guidelines, employee recognition campaigns, along with possibilities for input during decisions being made. Performance among workers benefits from

participatory interpersonal interaction, which is reinforced by a supportive and encouraging culture. Effective interpersonal interaction is essential for both leadership and workforce success. Businesses should promote a feedback-driven culture where managers interact with teammates on a regular schedule and offer constructive comments. Such can increase transparency and assist employees comprehend what is required of them while also making them feel more connected and in in charge of their job duties.

Given the significance of communicating across cultures in work environments, organisations lead by women should prioritize providing workers with high-quality interpersonal abilities. Offering seminars, training sessions, and other resources that promote understanding of cultures and interpersonal comprehension can help achieve this. Previous studies such as Tang, (2024) and Nadeem and Gasmi (2024) emphasised the importance of interaction between cultures during work hours and the role that culturally norms and regulations play in business interactions.

In addition, the study found a strong relationship between culture and employee performance. This study recommends that organisations, especially those influenced by the dynamics of power, should take steps to address power imbalances and promote accessible decision-making processes. This could mean promoting a range of opinions, offering venues for open dialogue, and enacting laws that promote fairness and equal treatment. This means that staff input can be obtained through frequently occurring mechanisms including suggestion boxes, open-door policies, and staff surveys. Leaders should actively seek out the perspectives that workers have and involve them in decision-making procedures. Therefore, the study recommends that companies regularly solicit feedback from staff and take appropriate action to maintain a participatory communication approach. This demonstrates a commitment to listening to and acting around employee opinions, fostering self-assurance, and emphasizing the value of employee involvement.

Participation of employees when making decisions improves understanding of important issues and decision quality. Participatory leaders who value employee opinions and encourage education and knowledge exchange can enhance employee productivity. This implies that by proactively dealing with feedback from staff members, businesses can further enhance their results for performance. As a result, the report advises businesses to foster an atmosphere that values and encourages employee suggestions and contributions.

In addition, the thesis found a significant relationship between employee performance and culture. The study further recommends that organisation should make an effort to build a varied, pluralistic society that values people from various backgrounds, conditions, and different points of view. This can be accomplished with the support of initiatives like training for diversity, mentoring initiatives, and equitable decision-making processes. This can also include collaborative efforts that encourage participation and idea sharing, brainstorming sessions, and ongoing team conferences. Although an authoritarian leadership style limits employee involvement, a supportive atmosphere encourages engagement and pleasure among staff members. This study suggests that organisations should make an effort to include employees from a range of cultural origins in decision-making processes.

The study established a strong correlation between culture and worker performance. Businesses should work to create a diverse, pluralistic society that respects individuals with a range of experiences, backgrounds, and viewpoints. This promotes diversity and ensures that a variety of perspectives are taken into account while making important decisions. There are numerous moments in the global corporate era that stress the importance of empathy and cooperation across diverse teams, as well as maintaining the value of effective interaction between cultures. A substantial amount of research supports the importance of cultural aspects in communication.

This suggest that women leaders need to develop their cultural competency because there is a substantial positive correlation between worker productivity and culture. It is critical for leaders to recognize and value the cultural differences among their staff and to approach them with grace and adaptability. This can be achieved through encouraging candid dialogue, providing a platform for staff members to express their thoughts and worries, and maintaining open lines of contact. Effective communication is an essential tool that executives use to motivate employees, communicate the objective of the company, and monitor output. Employers may enhance their ability to navigate culturally different workplaces and foster an enjoyable place to work by providing cultural competency training and tools.

The study finds that a happy work environment encourages employees to take risks and think creatively, which increases productivity. Companies ought to promote an environment where individuals are inspired to think creatively and aren't scared to make mistakes. This can be achieved through supporting an atmosphere that is emotionally sound, providing resources for innovation, and recognizing and applauding innovative ideas. Managers need to be well-versed in interaction between cultures in order to lead effectively in an increasingly globalized setting. These recommendations stress the need of developing communication skills, creating an open and supportive work environment, and continuously improving techniques for communicating in order to boost worker efficiency.

The thesis further revealed a strong positive relationship between culture and participatory interaction, suggesting that PC is associated with a rise in social norms. This outcome is in line with the study that emphasizes how important it has become for leaders to convey to their employees the importance of allowing employees to express their thoughts and views. Therefore, this study recommends that businesses create a space where employees feel free to voice their thoughts, ideas, and recommendations. This can be accomplished with the aid of regular discussions of ideas, team meetings, and sharing thoughts websites. A cooperative

workplace fosters the growth of creative ideas. Accordingly, the study proposes that in a business with diverse cultures, leaders should deliberately foster great collaboration as well as communication.

This research also recommends companies encourage diversity and cross-cultural collaboration in order to fully benefit from different cultural perspectives. This can be achieved through putting together diverse teams and providing opportunities for colleagues from different cultural backgrounds. Companies that embrace diversity and promote collaboration might help employees perform better overall by using the strengths of cultural beliefs. A substantial amount of research highlights the value of cultural elements in workplace environments and the motivational role that culture plays in developing leaders. This means that female CEOs should stress the need of courteous and open cross-cultural communication while encouraging their staff to share their thoughts and viewpoints. This can be facilitated by creating forums for intercultural conversations and implementing cross-cultural communication training courses. The research emphasizes the value of equity and communication in fostering staff satisfaction and contends that work engagement and gender are unrelated in organisations which adhere to equal treatment.

The findings showed that different staff leaders may respond differently to various forms of communication. Helping leaders modify their communication style to suit the requirements and preferences of their employees is essential. Some staff members might function well in a more participatory setting, whereas others would do better in an authoritarian one with explicit guidance. A proficient leadership approach can improve employee productivity. To maximize culture's beneficial influence on worker productivity, companies should develop plans for incorporating a variety of cultural ideas and practices. This may mean creating teams with different backgrounds, supporting programs for cultural interchange, and offering opportunities for intercultural collaboration. Through implementing cross-cultural

integration, companies can take advantage of the combined skills and perspectives of their varied staff, leading to innovation and creativity.

Organisations should regularly assess the social environment of their company and inquire about the views and experiences of their employees. Cultural evaluations are a useful tool for pinpointing problem areas and directing the creation of focused interventions. This means that encouraging employee engagement and addressing cultural challenges, businesses can potentially create a more positive and supportive culture that enhances employee performance. Companies may take advantage on the beneficial impact of culture on worker efficiency and create a work environment that is accepting of variances in culture through executing these tips into reality. There is more proof that it is important to include cultural factors when creating organizational policies and techniques for leadership. Consequently, the report recommends that businesses regularly assess their culture and implement the necessary adjustments to align with evolving labor market conditions and the demographics of the staff. This could mean doing cultural evaluations, seeking feedback from staff members, and implementing change management strategies. Through regularly altering it, companies can ensure that their corporate culture is relevant and effective in raising morale among workers.

The thesis found that participatory communication style (PC) and EP have a significant positive correlation. Therefore, this study recommends that companies consider putting into practice a well-rounded communication approach that combines elements of the two method. When necessary, this can mean issuing clear directives and establishing standards in an authoritative manner, nevertheless it can also mean fostering staff participation and engagement in a participatory way. Employee performance can be enhanced by managers who can effectively find the right equilibrium between becoming helpful and demanding. The report recommends that female executives in businesses establish forums and mentoring initiatives that encourage knowledge exchange and cross-cultural cooperation among

employees from different countries and educational backgrounds. In this manner, more experienced professionals can teach their less experienced counterparts their expertise and insights. This helped to reduce the knowledge gap that exists between employees with no previous experience versus those with extensive professional skills. More seasoned professionals can help less experienced employees navigate complex work environments and get advice on effective communication techniques. In discussing and emphasizing the benefits of having expertise in positions of leadership, Aristotle's works highlight the abilities of experienced individuals to make judgments and provide sage advice.

This might be accomplished through group projects, seminars, or mentorship initiatives that encourage dialogue and idea exchange. This means that through encouraging collaboration between people from different backgrounds, organisations can get access to a larger variety of thoughts and knowledge, which may enhance skills in problem-solving and communication. In his writings, Munoz (2017) emphasizes the importance of different points of view in interpersonal relationships.

Furthermore, since globalisation has accelerated and employees are no longer restricted by national boundaries, it might be beneficial for modern organisations to create opportunities for sharing knowledge and cooperation between workers from various origins. The study found that leaders from cross-cultural settings prefer different communication styles and cross-generational teamwork projects or initiatives that promote education and dialogue among employees with varying levels of employment history can help achieve this. Companies can enhance communication and raise understanding of culture by fostering cross-generational cooperation and utilizing the diverse viewpoints and professional backgrounds of their workforce. These recommendations aligns with the results, which show that respondents with varying levels of work experience may have distinct abilities, viewpoints, and experience.

The study provides examples of how cultural factors may affect methods of communication. There were individuals from South Africa, the UK, and other nations in the sample, which was diverse. The broad sample of participants, all of whom have different educational degrees, supports the idea of forming teams with various functions to use the expertise and expertise of people with unique backgrounds in training. The thesis recommends that companies should provide awareness and sensitivity to cultures education opportunities to help employees better understand and respect individuals from various cultural backgrounds. Through these classes, staff members can modify their communication techniques to accommodate various traditions and beliefs while learning how to communicate with people from various cultural backgrounds. Organizational communication is a developing topic that recognizes the significance of cultural concerns in communication. Leaders can therefore learn to modify their communication patterns to interact with co-workers from diverse cultural backgrounds by developing their level of cultural awareness. Cooperation may lead to enhanced interpersonal efficacy generally, decreased miscommunication, and improved teamwork. These recommendations can assist companies in developing a productive and high-performing workplace. These suggestions, which highlight the importance of supportive leadership, ongoing feedback, and participative communication in raising employee performance, are based on study findings that have been covered in the literature. The study's findings support the recommendations to adopt a communicative style that is participative and to foster a culture that is empowered, cooperative, and open-minded. These recommendations align with the corpus of thesis that emphasised the positive impacts of participatory communication on productivity among employees and the negative consequences of autocratic communication techniques.



#### **5.4 Recommendations for future research**

Some advice for organisations that might find the research findings useful are given in this section. These recommendations might be made for further research based on the research findings and body of current literature. The majority of respondents (134), as indicated by the study's findings, had at least 10 years of experience in the businesses or industries they were involved in, indicating a high level of professional experience. These individuals most likely possess a greater depth of experience in managing a greater variety of work environments, as well as a deeper understanding of market trends and communication techniques in various professional settings. Their talents, judgment, and leadership qualities may have developed because of their significant experience. In the future, studies that are longitudinal in nature could be conducted to investigate how cross-cultural communication skills improve.

The result that authoritarian communication was ineffective was surprising considering some of the literature. While the qualitative data was only provided by a small minority (26.7%) that preferred authoritarian communication, the reasons given included "crisis" and "need for rapid decisions".

This is the specific scenario in which there contradicts Muchiri and Van Breeman (2021), and suggested that a more sophisticated understanding of Situational Leadership Theory is necessary (this was suggested but not engaged with in Chapter 2). It would be warranted to take more contextual application of Situational Leadership Theory and to understand with more precision when (if ever) authoritarian approaches to communication could be contingently considered effective. Therefore future studies may consideration of a qualitative- or experimental-based study looking solely at leaders that adopt an authoritarian style, exploring the context they believe it is important, organizational or industry context, or situational

context, in which they believe it is justified and their impacts in the medium- and longer-term on team dynamics, morale, and innovation.

Future studies could look at how leaders' cross-cultural communication abilities change over time through longitudinal study. This would shed light on how experience and career advancement affect the efficacy of communication. According to the study, 66 respondents had less than ten years of experience, which is a small percentage of respondents with professional expertise. People who are just starting their careers or have recently entered the workforce may make up this category. Their knowledge, skills, and viewpoints might be impacted by their limited experience to the intricacies and difficulties of their various employment. These results are consistent with literature, which highlighted the value of experience as a critical quality for leaders. Nelson cited Aristotle when he said, "*One who has experience is qualified to judge*" and emphasised the consequence of experience in educational leadership positions.

Aristotle believed that someone without experience could give unwise and inefficient advice. Thus, future studies might compare the communication styles and tactics used by women leaders from various cultural backgrounds and broaden the scope of the research to encompass a wider spectrum of cultures. Subsequent investigations could lead to a more thorough comprehension of the dynamics of cross-cultural communication. This would offer deep insights into people's viewpoints and experiences inside the framework of the organization.

The analysis's findings showed that this cut-off was exceeded by AC (0.66), PC (0.77), CE (0.69), and EP (0.78), indicating that the data obtained for each variable was reliable. This shows how reliable the procedure for gathering data is, giving comfort about the precision and consistency of the measurements. The results align with the study that emphasised the crucial role that organizational culture plays in a business unit's achievement. Their research showed

a positive correlation between performance and corporate culture. Therefore, this study suggests that mediation analysis be applied in further studies to examine the role that organizational culture plays as a mediator in the relationship between leadership communication and employee performance.

Consequently, researchers may investigate additional mediating components in order to gain a deeper understanding of the relationship between participative communication style (PC) and employee performance (EP). Examine, for instance, how factors like job engagement, motivation, and employee happiness influence the link between PC and EP. Gaining knowledge of these mediating mechanisms helped the researcher to understand the underlying mechanisms that participatory communication style uses to affect employee performance. Thus, studies on how communication styles affect team dynamics and output might be carried out in the future. This study might examine the ways in which various communication philosophies support cooperation, teamwork, and the efficacy of the team. This would offer a more profound comprehension of the fundamental processes by which various variables impact one another.

The results demonstrated a high association between participatory communication style (PC) and employee performance (EP), with EP projected to vary by 0.702 units for every unit increase in PC. EP typically rises in tandem with PC. This shows that employee performance outcomes may benefit from a more participatory communication strategy. These findings are consistent with the reviewed literature, which highlights the relationship between worker performance and productivity as well as the impact of leadership style on the latter.

According to the literature, a participative communication style can help leaders create an atmosphere where followers' needs and recommendations are given priority, enabling and motivating them to assume leadership roles themselves. It could be necessary for future studies

to take a different approach and look into the role that employee engagement plays as a mediator in the performance and communication styles relationship. This research could look at the connection between communication styles and worker engagement as well as how engagement affects output.

These results emphasize how important good communication techniques are to improving overall performance results. They align with the body of research which highlights the close relationship between leadership and communication. Future research may be carried out to learn more about the impact of additional contextual factors, such as industry type, organizational size, or geographic location, on the association between employee performance and communication styles, as shown by this study. Future studies may therefore be carried out in many contexts, each of which may have its own dynamics that affect how well a given communication style drives performance outcomes. These kinds of research could broaden the scope to include team performance results. Examine the effects that a participative communication style has on teamwork, creativity, and performance of individual employees as well. This study can provide insight into how communication style affects organisations more broadly and how it helps create high-achieving teams.

The results of the study demonstrated a strong and significant positive correlation between PC and EP ( $r = 0.615$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), underscoring the importance of participatory communication for employee performance. According to this research, there is a positive correlation between increased participative communication and improved employee performance. This is in line with literature that highlights the connection between culture and performance. Further proof of the influence of culture on women in senior management positions and leadership development is offered by the research. Future study on the relationship between employee performance in different cultural contexts and authoritarian and

participatory communication styles, as well as cultural values, should do a cross-cultural examination.

This would provide a deeper comprehension of the ways in which cultural factors affect communication styles and how those influences affect worker performance. The study concluded that its findings would be helpful to a number of professional and academic organizations. The study's conclusions might help organizations that promote leadership development, such the International Leadership Association (ILA) and the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM), better understand how to facilitate effective cross-cultural communication among female leaders. These groups prioritize the development of exceptional leadership and stand to gain knowledge on how cultural variables affect the communication style of leaders. Future studies may therefore investigate the efficacy of leadership development initiatives that concentrate on developing cross-cultural communication abilities. It might be necessary to conduct more research to see whether staff performance can be enhanced by communication training and development programs in diverse backgrounds. The impact of focused treatments meant to improve communication techniques and abilities inside organisations may be investigated in this study. These studies could evaluate how these programs affect employee performance and the efficacy of leadership in various organizational settings.

Also, a relatively substantial positive correlation ( $r = 0.480$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) was found between culture and AC, indicating a connection between cultural values and authoritarian communication. The implication of this finding is that adopting an authoritarian communication style aligns with cultural values in general. Consequently, this study implies that more investigation into the connections among culture, gender, and leadership styles might be required.

A very weak but statistically significant positive correlation ( $r = 0.100$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) was identified between AC and EP. Based on this weak relationship, there may be a little tendency for employee performance to increase with an increase in authoritarian communication. This finding is consistent with studies that highlighted the negative effects of authoritarian leadership styles on employee performance. It should be highlighted, nonetheless, that study's respondents had no opinion about actively participating in decision-making, suggesting a more complex relationship between authoritarian communication and worker performance. The results of this research suggest that future investigations should focus on potential mediating and moderating factors that might have an impact on the relationships between worker performance, cultural norms, and communication modalities (PC and AC). This could include things like leadership philosophies, company culture, workforce motivation, or individual characteristics. Future studies could add to the corpus of information already available on the theory that these factors can provide a more complete understanding of the dynamics at play.

There was a significant positive association ( $r = 0.889$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) between EP and culture, according to the thesis results. This finding implies that overall employee performance tends to improve when employee communication engagement increases. It emphasizes how important cultural values are in figuring out how well workers function. This is in line with studies on how organizational culture affects performance, which emphasize how strong an organizational culture is a key factor in how well employees perform. Therefore, while taking into consideration many facets of culture, future research in this field may look at how corporate culture affects employee performance.

Deeper exploration of cultural norms, attitudes, and practices that most significantly impact employee performance results could be the focus of this study. Future research may also compare various organisations—not in South Africa or the UK, but in other nations with distinct cultural settings, such the Middle East or America—to look at how diverse

communication styles and cultural values affect worker performance. This study may provide insight into the ways that cultural factors and communication styles interact to affect performance outcomes in various settings.

The study emphasizes how intricately communication methods, leadership philosophies, and worker performance are related. The research findings may be of relevance to universities and research institutions that provide programs in intercultural communication, leadership studies, or organizational behaviour. They might incorporate the findings into their current research projects or curricula to gain a deeper understanding of the dynamics of cross-cultural communication in leadership roles. Thus, the study suggest that future research look into how organizational culture and environment affect the connection between worker performance and communication styles. Gaining knowledge about how context influences the efficacy of various communication modalities can be extremely beneficial for improving organizational procedures. Therefore, the study further suggested that more research is necessary to examine similar dynamics in various industries, demographics, and organizational situations.

The study conclusions may be very important to businesses, and programs that support diversity and gender equality in leadership roles may benefit from them. The study sheds light on the experiences of female leaders in various cultural situations and provides insights into the difficulties they encounter as well as their approaches to communication.

This thesis had qualitative research on the lived experiences of female leaders in many cultures, as well as their difficulties and methods for successful cross-cultural communication, may be done in the future. Rich, in-depth insights into the nuances of cross-cultural leadership communication would result from this. Future research can examine the precise processes by which communication styles affect worker performance in greater detail, considering extra

elements including situational settings, individual traits, and corporate culture. Future research may additionally examine the potential moderating effects of gender and culture on the relationship between participative communication style (PC) and employee performance (EP). Future investigations could examine the potential differences in the effects of PC on EP between genders and cultural contexts. This study can provide light on the subtle differences in communication and leadership styles that are specific to culture and gender and affect worker performance.

These results offer compelling proof that the only two communication philosophies that significantly affect individual employee performance are participative and authoritarian. The present study recommends more research delving into how communication technology influences the correlation between employee performance and communication styles. Organisations can get significant insights by comprehending the impact of various communication technologies on employee performance, particularly with the growing prevalence of digital communication platforms. This means that further research can build on the present findings, add to our understanding of leadership communication in various organizational settings, and help create evidence-based strategies for better employee performance and cross-cultural communication.

Future studies could extend the study's area and compare how leadership communication affects worker performance in other cultural contexts, as this one does. This study made recommendations for additional longitudinal research that could shed light on whether the link is sustainable over time and whether PC's beneficial effects on EP are long-lasting or alter with time. Studies of this kind can help clarify any possible delayed or lag effects of PC on EP. These research could look at the long-term impacts of communication styles and how those effects evolve on performance outcomes. This would explain the cultural peculiarities and variances in the effectiveness of leadership communication strategies. A



moderate and significant association between these variables is indicated by the positive correlation between PC and AC. AC typically rises in tandem with PC. It would seem from this that those who communicate more participatory also communicate more authoritarian. This results is consistent with research showing a significant beneficial relationship between authoritarian leadership and worker performance. The idea that autocratic leadership styles may influence worker performance is supported by the association found between PC and AC. Thus, it can be recommended that future studies assess leadership development initiatives that try to improve participative communication abilities and promote an environment of cooperation and transparency. This study could evaluate how these strategies affect worker productivity and organizational outcomes.

Additionally, the tight relationship between participatory communication and cultural values in the current environment is suggested by the strong and statistically significant positive association between PC and culture ( $r = 0.665$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Alongside PC, cultural values also appear to be rising. This outcome is in line with studies that emphasize how important it is for managers to create a work environment where workers feel free to voice their ideas. Organizations can achieve their objectives with the support of a culture that values critical analysis, feedback, and information sharing. Future research on the mediating role of cultural values in the relationship between participatory communication and employee performance is suggested by the study. This would provide a deeper understanding of the ways in which communication styles impact performance outcomes and how culture influences those relationships.

These results offer compelling proof that the chosen communication philosophies significantly affect each worker's performance. This emphasizes how crucial it is for organizational structures to have efficient communication methods to favourably affect employee results. This is consistent with the literature which highlights the intimate connection

between leadership and communication. Communication is a tool that leaders use to inspire, direct, and convince others. This helps them shape corporate goals, procedures, and job allocations. The study recommends that future research be done on various organizational contexts or industries to investigate the generalizability of the association between employee performance and communication styles. These studies could examine the potential variations in the effects of communication styles on performance outcomes between various industries and environments.

### **5.5 Conclusions**

This study aimed to explore the complex relationship between communication styles, cultures, and employee performance among women leaders in the United Kingdom and South Africa. The research problem was based on the increasing globalization of business and the distinctive challenges women leaders face in traversing cultural spaces, which is an area of empirical, comparative evidence that is lacking. The mixed-methods research not only provided a clear voice to answer this problem but as well a contribution to theory and practice. The findings confirm previous research that cultural background shapes leaders' communication significantly, and have shown the participative communication style was the preferred style among women leaders in both countries, although it was demonstrated to differing extents, based on their unique histories and socio-cultural contexts.

They demonstrate that national culture is not simply something to consider, but rather a predominant influence which accounts for an astonishing 79.1% of the variance in employee performance. This provides empirical evidence for the essential role of cultural context that was suggested in the research problem. Additionally, this research also identifies the specific communication levers that affect performance in these settings: participative communication is a strong and universally positive driver; on the other hand, authoritarian communication has no discernable benefit in modern organizations, showing that authoritarian styles of

communication are ineffective here. This also clearly answers the research question: what communication styles do work (in that participative communication works), and how do these modes of communication interact with culture? The quantitative data provided strong evidence on the significant positive relationship between participative communication and employee performance, while also demonstrating a non-significant or negative relationship between authoritarian communication and employee performance. In this final chapter, the findings are summarized to articulate the study's primary theoretical contributions, as well as the practical implications for leaders.

The study's findings show that there is no statistically significant correlation between the age groups and nationalities of the sample. This suggests that the distribution of age groups is consistent across cultural backgrounds. But the important to keep in mind that the absence of a meaningful relationship does not mean that none at all. There may be other factors influencing the association between age groups and nationality that were not included in this study. People from a range of nationalities, such as South Africa, the UK, and other nations, made up the sample, offering a varied representation of ethnicities. By doing this, the results become more broadly applicable and facilitate cross-cultural comparisons.

These findings have significance on many levels. The study provides, with statistical generalizability, some of the few quantitative evidence on the impact of leadership communication on performance across cultures, advancing the field beyond anecdotal or qualitative claims. The findings also document, through their accounts, the complex voices of women leaders by demonstrating that while albeit distinct cultural background is the primary influence (for 80% of leaders), importantly, a large minority (the other 20%) engage in "situated cultural agency" in their decision-making, purposefully adapting to fit their surrounding organizational context. This represents a challenge to refinement about

deterministic cultural models and with a reified understanding of the complexities of leadership in a globalizing world.

Furthermore, those who participated in the research had a range of educational backgrounds. Most respondents indicated that they had finished formal education programs at academic institutions by virtue of their academic training. As evidenced by their general training, the remaining individuals obtained their knowledge and abilities outside of a formal educational setting. The inclusion of people with a range of viewpoints and levels of communication style skill in the sample is enhanced by the variance in educational backgrounds.

It is imperative to acknowledge the limitations of the study. The results might not fairly represent the entire population due to the small sample size. Moreover, there may be other unknown factors that influence the relationship between age groups and nationality. The results of the study show that there is no significant correlation between the age groups and nationalities of the sample. The amount of information already known about age demographics and cultural variances is increased by this research. Nevertheless, to confirm and build on these results, more study involving bigger and more varied sample sizes is required. The study highlights how crucial it is to take educational and cultural backgrounds into account when analysing communication patterns. These results can help improve our understanding of the variables influencing communication behaviours in various contexts.

The qualitative information gathered until saturation from women in leadership positions who participated in interviews leads to the conclusion that the cultural backgrounds of South African and British female leaders have a big impact on their communication methods. The majority of women executives surveyed stated that cultural background, upbringing, norms, and values greatly impact their communication style as leaders. They understand how critical it is to

modify their communication approaches for a range of audiences with varying cultural backgrounds to guarantee that their thoughts are understood. A lesser percentage of female executives did, however, say that their communication styles are more influenced by the nation and work environment in which they are employed. This implied that elements like workplace dynamics, cultural norms, and company culture of the work environment also shape their communication styles.

These findings support previous studies showing the influence of culture on communication styles. The study underlines how essential culture is in shaping communication patterns and how crucial it is for leaders to know and adjust to the numerous ways that culture influences communication. The perspectives offered by the female leaders lend credence to the idea that communication methods are significantly influenced by culture. Comprehending and adapting to these cultural distinctions can improve communication efficacy, foster connections, and motivate staff members. The study also showed that cultural differences in communication techniques can affect how people read and respond to messages. This implies that acknowledging and embracing these differences, leaders can promote cooperation, understanding, and a feeling of community. Additionally, the results show that most South African women leaders and women leaders from the United Kingdom prefer participative communication techniques, which aligns with existing literature on leadership styles and gender disparities in leadership.

Furthermore, a high positive association between culture and participatory communication (PC) is seen in the study, indicating that cultural values rise along with PC. This emphasizes how participatory communication and cultural values are interdependent and how crucial it is to take cultural contexts into account when communicating. The study concludes that employee performance and culture are significantly and favourably correlated. The thesis study's findings contribute to the corpus of knowledge by providing factual

information about how women leaders' communication styles are influenced by culture. The results underscored the significance of cultural contexts in communication procedures and provide leaders with recommendations on how to effectively navigate cultural disparities in communication approaches. This research broadens our knowledge of organisational culture and leadership dynamics and in organisations and can inform practice by promoting culturally sensitive and inclusive communication strategies.

The thesis conclusions show that most female leaders from the UK and South Africa prefer participatory communication styles, with a lesser percentage favouring authoritative or autocratic ones. This inclination for interactive communication is consistent with earlier studies and beliefs regarding gender differences in leadership and leadership styles. Participatory communication strategies foster empowerment, involvement, and engagement among staff members. A sense of possession and commitment among workers can be fostered by women executives by actively including them in decision-making processes and appreciating their ideas. This can therefore result in more output, a happier workplace, and a higher level of job satisfaction.

Female leaders are more likely to favour transformational or participative leadership styles that place an emphasis on empowerment, motivation, and teamwork. These leadership philosophies place a high importance on open communication, teamwork, and employee involvement—all components of participatory communication. Participatory communication practices also support an open, honest, and transparent work environment. It creates an environment where workers feel appreciated and included, which encourages innovation, creativity, and general well-being. That results were in line with the body of research that emphasizes the need of situational communication style adaptability as a critical leadership skill.

The thesis emphasised how women leaders from both cultural backgrounds value participatory communication above authoritarian inclinations. This highlights the necessity of cross-cultural communication in the workplace because cultural norms and regulations vary and have an impact on effective communication. The results highlight how important interactive communication is to women leaders' leadership philosophies. This means that women leaders can foster an environment that values collaboration, teamwork, and shared decision-making by using a participative approach.

The study concluded that, depending on a variety of circumstances, including the corporate climate, prior experiences, and others, individual preferences for communication styles may differ among women leaders and leaders in general. However, the study sheds light on the communication preferences of the female executives who were polled and highlights the potential benefits of using participatory communication to foster a positive workplace culture. By providing empirical data on the communication styles that female leaders from South Africa and the UK find most appealing, the current dissertation study contributes to the body of literature. The findings emphasize the value of participative communication in leadership and its positive impacts on engagement, company culture, and performance. These realizations can influence leaders' decision-making by motivating them to use communication techniques.

According to the study, some of the female executives surveyed indicated that they preferred an authoritarian leadership style, claiming benefits including prompt decision-making, upholding order and respect, and effective problem-solving without the need for lengthy bureaucracy. These leaders think that in some circumstances, an autocratic style can work well. An authoritarian leadership style may be influenced by the historical and social circumstances of any nation, especially South Africa's history of apartheid and racial segregation. It is crucial to proceed cautiously with these results and look into the specific elements that affect leadership philosophies in various situations. Even though the study offers

some fascinating possibilities, more investigation is required to completely comprehend how historical background, societal expectations, and leadership styles relate to one another.

The study also draws attention to earlier studies showing that authoritarian leaders frequently have strict communication methods, are reluctant to provide information to subordinates, and cultivate a distrusted environment, all of which can contribute to below-average work output from their staff. This is in line with research suggesting that societal expectations may have an impact on women leaders' propensity toward more collaborative, creative, regenerative, and compassionate leadership styles. It is noteworthy to acknowledge that certain studies have established a correlation between male leaders and authoritarian leadership ideologies. These divergent opinions and study findings highlight the necessity of taking a comprehensive approach when evaluating leadership styles and their overall effects. There are benefits and drawbacks to an autocratic leadership style that is defined by top-down decision-making and little employee input.

The study reveals an unexpected finding: female executives who stated a preference for an authoritarian leadership style are present. While there are certain advantages to this style, such as speeding up decision-making, it may also foster mistrust, discourage employee involvement, and stifle creativity. This doctoral study offers insightful information about the preferences and rationalizations of female leaders when it comes to authoritarian and participatory communication methods. The results draw attention to how intricate leadership styles are and how social and historical settings may have an impact on them. They also stress the significance of considering the benefits and drawbacks of various leadership philosophies as well as how they affect worker engagement and output.

The thesis results add value to the body of literature by providing a more complex picture of female leaders' communication choices and illuminating the possible impacts of



various leadership philosophies. They emphasize the necessity for leaders to carefully analyse the context and repercussions of their chosen communication styles, offering insightful information for both theory and practice. This knowledge may help organisations create inclusive, successful, and culturally sensitive communication strategies and can also inform leadership development programs.

The study findings showed that the measured variables-participatory communication (PC), employee performance (EP), communication effectiveness (CE), and authoritarian communication (AC)-exhibited acceptable levels of internal consistency, as indicated by Cronbach's Alpha coefficients that were higher than the 0.60 cut-off point. This implies that the thesis measurement instruments produced accurate and dependable data. Nevertheless, the results of the analysis of the link between AC and EP refuted the notion. The predicted impact of AC on employee performance had a coefficient of 0.055, however this association was not statistically significant ( $p > 0.05$ ), suggesting that there is insufficient data to make judgments regarding its applicability. The actual results, in contrast to the theory, revealed no link between AC and EP, and the relationship appeared to be negative. As a result, the thesis came to the conclusion that the hypothesis, which suggested a link between employee performance and authoritarian communication, could not be supported by the data. This assertion was not supported by statistically significant evidence in the data.

Based on the results, it is unclear how authoritarian communication style (AC) and worker performance are related. Given that there was no statistically significant association found between AC and EP, the study concluded that it was unable to demonstrate any influence on the outcome. It is crucial to take into account reasonable research limits, such as sample size and contextual factors, among others. The small Beta coefficient of 0.059 and the p-value of 0.399 indicate that there isn't any statistically significant evidence to support this claim. Conversely, a moderate and statistically significant positive connection was discovered

between PC and AC ( $r = 0.588$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), indicating that people who behave in more authoritarian ways also tend to communicate more participatory.

This points to a little pattern, while not as strong as it would be in other interactions, that more authoritarian communication results in higher worker performance. The study's findings are in line with earlier research that highlights the negative aspects of an authoritarian communication style, such as pressuring employees to make decisions and disregarding their concerns. This may stifle originality and inventiveness. But given the poor link between AC and EP, it's possible that other factors—rather than just AC—have a bigger bearing on worker performance.

The results imply that employee performance may not be significantly improved by authoritarian communication. In order to improve worker performance, it is probably more vital to promote interactive communication and take other factors into consideration. Given this discovery, the dissertation study provides insights into the relationship between worker performance and communication styles—in particular, participatory and authoritarian styles. The results indicate that, in contrast to the anticipated positive correlation between AC and EP, there was either a weak or negative connection between the variables. These insights contribute to existing literature by highlighting the need to take into account several factors influencing employee performance and the limited influence of authoritarian communication alone.

The study emphasizes the value of good communication in leadership roles as well as the possible drawbacks of an authoritarian communication approach. The takeaway message, then, is that encouraging interactive communication and considering variables other than communication style might have a greater influence on improving worker performance. These revelations highlight the significance of developing a cooperative and empowered communication climate in businesses.

The thesis study's results provide significant insight into the relationship between participatory communication (PC) and employee performance (EP). The results of the study show that PC enhances worker performance in a positive and statistically significant way. The study's findings demonstrated a strong and positive correlation between PC and EP, suggesting that when PC increases, employee performance usually improves as well. This is consistent with past research that stress the significance of employee participation in decision-making, participatory leadership, and building a climate of communication that promotes engagement and feedback from staff members. By providing empirical evidence of the positive association between PC and EP, the findings contribute to the existing body of research. The importance of good communication techniques in organizational structures as well as how they affect worker results. This means that participatory leaders can improve worker loyalty and job performance by actively seeking out employee perspectives, appreciating them, and maintaining open lines of communication.

The research indicates a noteworthy correlation between employee performance (EP) and participatory communication style (PC). The results show a strong and statistically significant positive association between these variables. This implies that to improve employee performance, firms should emphasize and support participative communication techniques. Organisations can also benefit practically from the findings. They stress how crucial it is to encourage interactive communication to raise worker productivity. According to the study's findings, managers and other leaders can gain from implementing a communication style that respects staff opinions, promotes teamwork, and gives people agency. Long-term performance may improve as a result of increased employee motivation and engagement. But it's crucial to take into account the study's limitations, including the particular context and sample that were employed. In order to validate these results in various contexts and with a range of demographics, more study is required. Further research may examine additional elements that

impact employee performance in order to have a more comprehensive picture of the components involved.

These findings demonstrate the beneficial effects of participatory communication on worker performance in this study. The findings provide credence to the theory that PC positively and statistically significantly affects EP. This implies that emphasising the value of participative leadership and effective communication strategies, this study advances our understanding. Additionally, it offers helpful guidance to organizational executives who want to improve employee performance through improved communication methods. The findings corroborate other studies on the beneficial effects of interactive communication on worker outcomes. Thus, offering actual proof of the connection between PC and EP, this thesis adds to the corpus of existing material and broadens our understanding of effective business communication strategies. Given that employee performance is greatly improved by participative communication style, the results underscore the importance of supporting effective communication strategies in firms. Further research is required to fully understand the influence of cultural values and the potential influence of other factors on these relationships.

#### **5.5.1 Theoretical Contributions**

This research advances the theoretical domain of cross-cultural leadership and organizational communication in a few important ways:

The research provides significant empirical demonstration of the cross-cultural applicability of participative leadership theory. By quantitatively demonstrating a positive relationship between participative communication and employee performance in a Western (UK) and an African (South Africa) context, the study not only supports the theoretical proposition that

empowering communication can be a positive leadership communication style, but it also provides cultural context and exploration of why cultural differences matter.

In addition, the study the theoretical assumption of authoritarian leadership as universally effective. The finding that authoritarian communication has no significant positive relationship with employee performance in modern, multicultural organizational contexts raises questions for the refinement of leadership theory. It implies that authoritarian leadership styles may be context-dependent, and may reach a point of diminishing efficacy even of its leadership authority is derived from the cultural background of the member of staff.

Moreover, the development of a conceptual lens exploring communication styles through the dual lenses of Human Capital Theory (as an investment) and reception through UTAUT (with cultural moderators as Social Influence and Facilitating Conditions) provides a new multi-dimensional theoretical model. The integration of both of these perspectives can form a more nuanced model for analysing leadership communication beyond the mere analysis of the behaviour itself, and can frame the impact of communication of a leadership as strategic asset that has effects that are filtered through cultural and perceptual factors. This inquiry advances the literature on gender and leadership beyond reductionist stereotypes. It substantively reinforces a general preference for participative styles among female leaders, while also identifying a minority of leaders who choose to use an authoritarian style in certain contexts as a strategic choice, thus illustrating that leadership communication is a nuanced dynamic of gender, context, and individual strategic choice.

### **5.5.2 Practical Implications**

The outcomes of this thesis provide clear, actionable recommendations for organizations and leaders seeking to improve performance in a globalizing world:

Organizations need to develop leadership development programs focused on training managers, even in cross-cultural settings, using participative communication approaches, including actively listening, running inclusive meetings, and collaboratively making decisions. These programs must give cultural context and support developing informed decisions about how to use these techniques in the specific cultural context, including unique socio-historical context such as South Africa or the UK.

Human Resource functions could consider including measures of communication effectiveness as part of the performance appraisal process. While it should not become a reflection of performance appraisal itself, leaders engaged in participative communication could reward behavior to facilitate measureable communication effectiveness that benefits employee performance and engagement.

Organizations can provide participative leadership through conditions that facilitate participative communication as presented in UTAUT. This may include flattening hierarchy, creating transparently mediated communication, and developing an organizational culture that advocates for psychological safety for employees to feel able to contribute their ideas in a non-reprisal way.

For multinational corporations, findings can be applied toward strategic leader appointments. Identifying leaders possessing highly developed participative and cross-cultural communication skills and appointing them to culturally rich contexts, such as South Africa and the UK will offer the greatest dividends in team cohesion and productivity.

When leaders must use more hierarchical style of leadership, leaders can be trained to use a more hierarchical style prudently and transparently with a discussion about why it is the best option for the group or leading.

## REFERENCES

- Absolute Internship. (2021). *East vs West: Cultural differences international students need to know*. <https://absoluteinternship.com/blog/east-vs-west-5-cultural-differences-internations-student-should-know/>
- Abugre, J.B. (2018), Cross-cultural communication imperatives: Critical lessons for Western expatriates in multinational companies (MNCs) in sub-Saharan Africa, *Critical Perspectives on International Business*, 14 (2/3), pp. 170-87  
<https://doi.org/10.1108/cpoib-01-2017-0005>
- Ader, H., Mellenbergh, G.J. and Hand, D. (2008). *Advising on research methods: A consultant companion*. Johannes Van Kessel Publ.
- Adhikari, M, (2019). *Risk of disaster*.  
<https://www.massey.ac.nz/massey/expertise/phd-student-profiles/doctoral-my-story.cfm?studid=F%2Bstb1zczdA%3D>
- Agle, B. R., and Caldwell, C. B. (1999). Understanding research on values in business: A level of analysis framework. *Business and Society*, 38326386.<http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/000765039903800305>
- Agrawal, A., & Rook, C. (2013). *Global leaders in east and west – Do all global leaders lead in the same way?* 10.1108/S1535-120320140000008015.
- Agresti, A. (1990). *Categorical data analysis*. John Wiley and Sons, New York.
- Alloy, E. (2003). *An introduction the sacred order in Nigeria*. Uyo: Hannah-Torex.

- Al-sada, M., Al-esmael, B., and Faisal, M. N. (2017). Influence of structure culture and leadership vogue on worker satisfaction, commitment and motivation within the academic Sector in Qatar, *EuroMed Journal of Business*, 12 (2), 163-188.
- American Psychological Association. (2002). Ethical principles of psychological and code Of conduct. *American Psychologist*, 57, (12).
- Anshika, S. (n.d.). *Functions of Leadership: 14 Major Functions of Leadership*. Retrieved from <http://economicsdiscussion.com>.
- Apuke, O.D. (2017). Quantitative Research Methods: A Synopsis Approach, *Kuwait Chapter of Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review*, 6 (10),40-47.
- Aritz, J. and Walker, R.C. (2014). Leadership styles in multicultural groups: Americans and East Asians working together. *International Journal of Business Communication*, 51 (1),72-92.
- Arinze, A. (2006). *The impact of Westernism on Nigerian culture*. In N. Ojiakor and I. Oj (Eds.). *Readings in Nigerian Peoples and Culture*. 114-125.
- Aristotle & Roberts, W. R. (2004). *Rhetoric*. Mineola, N.Y.: Dover Publications.
- Aristotle, Ross, W. D., and Brown, L. (2009). *The Nicomachean ethics*. Oxford University Press.



- Arowolo, D. (2010). The effects of western civilisation and culture on Africa. *Afro- Asian Journal of Social Sciences*. <https://www.simplypsychology.org/apa-reference-page.html> Asian Journal of Social Sciences. Retrieved from <https://www.simplypsychology.org/apa-reference-page.html>.
- Babatunde, O., and Ikenga, E.M. (2015). The impact of leadership style on employee's performance in an organization, *Public Policy and Administration Research*, 5, 193-205.
- Babbie, E. and Mouton, J. (2001). *The practice of social research*. South Africa Oxford University Press, CapeTown.
- Babbie, E. R. (2010). *The practice of social research*. 12th ed. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Cengage.
- Barnes-Hardern, A. (1984). Cross- cultural understanding among peoples of African descent: African continuities as a unifying agent. *Journal of Black Studies*, 15 (1), 31-40.
- Barker, J. R. (1993). Tightening the iron cage: Concertive control in self-managing teams. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 38 (3), 408–437. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2393374>
- Barnes-Hardern, A. (1984). Cross- cultural understanding among peoples of African descent: African continuities as a unifying agent. *Journal of Black Studies*, 15, (1), 31-40.
- Barnlund, D.C. (2008). *A transactional model of communication*. Routledge, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition
- Baracchi, C. (2008). *Aristotle's ethics as first philosophy*. Cambridge University Press.

- Bass, B., M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. Free Press: New York, N.Y.
- Bass, B.M. (1997). Does the transactional–transformational leadership paradigm transcend organizational and national boundaries? *American Psychologist*, 52 (2), pp.130-139.
- Bass, B. M., and Avolio, B. J. (1997). *Full range leader development: Manual for the multifactor leadership questionnaire*. Palo Alto, CA: Mind Garden.
- Bass, B. M. (1990). From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision. *Organizational Dynamics*, 18, (1932). [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0092616\(90\)90061-](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0092616(90)90061-)
- Baxter, J., & Wright, E. O. (2000). The glass ceiling hypothesis: A comparative study of the United States. Sweden and Australia. *Gen. Soc.* 14 (2), 275–294.
- Benoliel, P., & Barth, A. (2017). The implications of the school's cultural attributes in the relationships between participative leadership and teachers job satisfaction and burnout. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 55, 640-656. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JEA-10-2016-0116>
- Bergman, C., Dellve, L., & Skagert, K. (2016). Exploring communication processes in workplace meetings: A mixed methods study in a Swedish healthcare organization. *Work*, 54(3), 533-541. <https://doi.org/10.3233/WOR-162366>

- Bevans, R. (2019). *Hypothesis testing a Step-by-Step guide with easy examples*.  
<https://www.studocu.com/row/document/addis-ababa-university/basic-statistics/hypothesis-testing-a-step-by-step-guide-with-easy-examples-1616256017823/17963081>
- Bhandari, P. (2020). *What is quantitative research: Definition, uses and methods?*  
<https://www.scribbr.com/methodology/quantitative-research/>
- Bhasin, H. (2017). *Management planning process- All you should know*.  
<https://www.marketing91.com/management-planning-process/>
- Beugelsdijk, S& Welzel, C. (2018). Dimensions and dynamics of national culture : Synthesizing Hofstede with Ingelhart. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*. 49 (10), 1469-1505
- Beugelsdijk, S., Maseland, R. and Van Hoorn, A. (2015). Are scores on Hofstede's dimensions of national culture stable over time: A cohort analysis? *Global Strategy Journal*, 5(3), 223–240.
- Belbin, R. M. (2010). *Team roles at work*. eBook, English edition: 2nd edn Publisher: Butterworth-Heinemann, Oxford, 2010.
- Berdahl, J. (1996). Gender and leadership in work groups: Six alternative models. *Leadership Quarterly*, 7, 21-40.
- Bhasin, H. (2017). Management planning process—All you should know. <https://www.marketing91.com/management-planning-process/>
- Bhat, N. & Sisodia, R. (2016). *Shakti leadership: Embracing feminine and masculine power in business*. Oakland, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

- Bird, A., Mendenhall, M., Stevens, M., and Oddou, G. (2010). Defining the content domain of intercultural competence for global leaders. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 25(8), 810-828.
- Blaxter, L., Hughes, C., & Tight, M. (2010) *How to research*, 4<sup>th</sup> edition, England: Open University Press.
- Bolden R, Gosling J, Marturano A, & Dennison P (2003) *Leadership theory and competency frameworks*. University of Exeter Centre for Leadership Studies, Exeter.
- Borgatti, S.P., & Foster P, C (2003). The network paradigm in organizational research: A review and typology. *Journal of Management*, 29 (6):991-1013. doi:10.1016/S0149-2063\_03\_00087-4
- Borgerson, J. L. (2018). *Caring and power in female leadership: A philosophical approach*. Newcastle, UK: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Born, A., Raneyhill, E. & Sandberg, A. (2018). A man's world? – The impact of a maledominated environment on female leadership. *Working Papers in Economics*, 744.
- Bovee, C.L., & Thill, J.V. (1992). *Business Communication Today*. NY, NY: McGraw-Hill
- Bracciale, R., & Martella, A. (2017). Define the populist political communication style: the case of Italian political leaders on Twitter. *Information, Communication and Society*, 20 (9), 1310-1329.

- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2), 77–101. <https://doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp063oa>
- Brooks, I. (2006). *Organizational behavior: Individuals, groups and organization*. Essex: Pearson Education Limited.
- Broverman, I. K., Vogel, S. R., Broverman, D. M., Clarkson, F. E., & Rosenkrantz, P. S. (1972). Sex-role stereotypes: A current appraisal. *Journal of Social issues*, 28(2), 59-78.
- Bruzzese, A. (2015). *How to avoid group think*.  
<https://www.quickbase.com/blog/6-ways-to-avoid-groupthink>
- Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2019). *Business research methods* (5th ed.). Oxford University Press.
- Bulmer, M., Bales, K., & Sklar, K. (1991). *The social survey in historical perspective, 1880–1940*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Burnett, M.J., & Dollar, A. (1989). *Business Communication: Strategies for success*. Houston, Texas: Dana.
- Business Bliss Consultants FZE. (November 2018). *The impact of cultural diversity on the workforce performance in a London-based NHS*. <https://ukdiss.com/>
- Buvinic, M., Furst-Nichols, R., & Pryor, E. (2013). Women, work, and the economy: Macroeconomic gains from gender equity. *World Development*, 67, 1-14.
- Cai, D. A., & E. L. Fink (2002). Conflict Style differences between individualists and collectivists. *Communication Monographs*, 69, 67-87.

- Calori, R., and Sarnin, P. (1991). Corporate culture and economic performance: a French study. *Organisation Studies*, 12(1), 497-4. <https://doi.org/10.1177/01708406910120010>.
- Cao, Y. & Li, Y. (2020). Interpretation of culture-loaded words from the perspective of ecolinguistics-based on Translator's Adaptation and Choice. *Youth*, (4), 17-18.
- Carr, D. (1988). The cardinal virtues and Plato's moral psychology. *The Philosophical Quarterly* (1950), 38(151), 186–200. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2219923>
- Cassell, C., & Walsh, S. (1997). Organizational cultures, gender management strategies and women's experience of work. *Feminism and Psychology*, 7, 224-230.
- Chappell, K, Craft, A, Rolfe, L & Jobbins, V. (2012). Chappell, Kwith Craft, A., Rolfe, L., and Jobbins, V. (2012) International Journal of Education and the Arts Editors Humanizing Creativity: Valuing our Journeys of Becoming. *International Journal of Education and the Arts*. 13.
- Charles, E. (2022). *How can groupthink affect your organisation?*  
<https://www.dalecarnegie.com/blog/how-can-groupthink-affect-your-organization>
- Charteris-Black, J. (2014). Analysing political speeches: Rhetoric, discourse and metaphor. *Journal of Language and Politics*, 17(3), 447–449.
- Chen, C.C. and Lee, Y.T. (2008). *Leadership and management in China*, Cambridge University Press, New York.

Chen, G.M. (2015). Theorizing global community as cultural home in the new century.

*International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 46, 73-81.

Cherfan, J. J. (2016). *Preferred leadership communication styles across cultures: Graduate*

*theses and dissertations*. <https://scholarworks.uark.edu/etd/1721n>

Chiaburu, D. S., and Harrison, D. A. (2008). Do peers make the place? Conceptual synthesis

and meta-analysis of co-worker effects on perceptions, attitudes, OCBs, and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(5), 1082–1103.

<https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.93.5.1082>

Cho, Y. I., Fuller, A., File, T., Holbrook, A. L., and Johnson, T. P. (2006). *Culture and*

*survey question answering: A behavior coding approach*. *American Statistical Association 2006 Proceedings of the section on survey research methods*. Washington, DC: American Statistical Association.

Chulu, J. (2015). *Africa is largely influenced by foreign culture especially western culture*.

*Has Africa now sacrificed her own culture on the altar of expediency?* Available.

Cicek, M.A. & Sadik.A. (2019). Teacher's and students' opinions about students' attention

problems during the lesson. *Journal of Education and Learning*, 8 (6) 15-30.

CIPD (2014), Land D: *New challenges, new approaches*.

[https://www.cipd.co.uk/binaries/l-and-d\\_2014-new-challenges-new-approaches.pdf](https://www.cipd.co.uk/binaries/l-and-d_2014-new-challenges-new-approaches.pdf)

CIPD (2015), *Diversity in the workplace: an overview*.

<http://www.cipd.co.uk/hr-resources/factsheets/diversity-workplace-overview.aspx>

Cleave, P. (2021). *Advantages of questionnaires in online research*.

<https://www.smartsurvey.co.uk/blog/advantages-of-questionnaires-in-online-research>

Cleary, T. (2000). *The Art of War*, Shambhala, Boston

Cnaff, A., and Wright, W. (2013). Anxiety: Counseling the job insecure client. *Journal of*

*Employment Counseling*. [12] Daft, Richard, L., and Steers, R. M. (1990).

Coleman, V. (2013). Social media as a primary source: A coming of age. *Educause Review*, 48, 60-61.

Conger, J. A., & Xin, K. R. (2000). Executive education in the 21st century: The challenges of new business realities and changing practices. *Academy of Management Executive*, 14(3), 126-134.

Converse, J. (1987). *Survey research in the United States: Roots and Emergence, 1890–1960*.

Berkeley, CA: University of California Press

Corbetta, P. (2003). *Social research: Theory, methods and techniques*. London: SAGE.

Cook, A. and Glass, C. (2011). Leadership Change and Shareholder Value: How Markets

React to the Appointments of Women, *Human Resource Management*, 50,4, 501–519.

Cox, T. (2001), *Creating the Multicultural Organisation: A Strategy for Capturing the*



*Power of Diversity*. John Wiley and Sons, Inc. New York, 2001

Creswell. J. W. (2006). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. London: Sage Publications.

Cross, R. & Cummings, J. (2004) Tie and networks correlates of individual performance in knowledge-intensive work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47, 928-937 <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/20159632>

Daniel, I.O.A. (2013). Communication as socio-cultural meaning exchange. The example of Richard Wright's Black Boy. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, 2, 5:173-177.

Dasgupta, S.A., Suar, D.& Singh, S. (2013). Impact of managerial communication styles on employees' attitudes and behaviours. *Employee Relations*, 35, (2), 173-199. <https://doi.org/10.1108/01425451311287862>

Davidson, J. (2016). *The origins of revisionist and status-quo states*. Springer. pp. 1– ISBN 9781137092014

Davis, B., & Miller, T. (1996). Job preparation for the 21st century: A group project learning model to teach basic workplace skills. *Journal of Education for Business*, 72, 62-73.

- Davis, G.F., & Stout, S.K. (1992). Organization theory and the market for corporate control: A dynamic analysis of the characteristics of large takeover targets, 1980-1990. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 37, 605.
- Davis, L. S., & Williamson, C. R. (2016). Culture and the Regulation of Entry. *Journal of Comparative Economics*, 44, 1055-1083. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jce.2016.09.007>
- Davison, H. K., & Burke, M. J. (2000). Sex discrimination in simulated employment contexts: A meta-analytic investigation. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 56(2), 225–248. <https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.1999.1711>
- Dawadi, S. (2020). *Thematic analysis approach: A step-by-step guide for ELT practitioners*. <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED612353>.
- Dawn, E., & Tyler, E. D. (2016). Communication behaviors of principals at high performing Title I elementary schools in Virginia: School leaders, communication, and transformative efforts. *Creighton Journal of Interdisciplinary Leadership*, 2, 2-16.
- Deaux, K., & Lewis, L. L. (1984). Structure of gender stereotypes: Interrelationships among components and gender label. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 46(5), 991.
- DeFranco, S. E. (2022). *4 types of survey research*. <https://www.snapsurveys.com/blog/4-main-benefits-survey-research/>
- Denison Consulting. (2009). *Overview of the 2009 DOCS normative Database*. Ann Arbor MI: Author.

- Denscombe, M. (2010). *The good research guide for small-scale social research projects*. 4th edition, Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Denison, D. R, Janovics, J. E., & Young, J. L. (2004). *Diagnosing organizational cultures: Validating a Model and Method*. Ann Arbor: Denison Consulting.
- Denison, D.R. (1984). Bringing corporate culture to the bottom line. *Organizational Dynamics*, 13 (2), 4 -22.
- Denison, D. R. (1990). *Corporate culture and organizational effectiveness*. New York Wiley and Sons.
- Denison, D. R. & Mishra, A. K. (1995). Toward a theory of organizational culture and Effectiveness. *Organization Science*, 6(2), 204-223.
- Denison & Spreitzer, G. M. (1991). *Organizational culture and structure development: a Competitor values approach* analysis: In structure amendment and Development, 1 sd 21.
- Denison, D. R., Haaland, S., & Goelzer P. (2003). Corporate culture and structure: Is Asia completely different from the remainder of the globe? *Organizational Dynamics*, 33(1), 98-109. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2003.11.00>
- Desvaux, G., Devillard-Hoellinger, S., & Meaney, M. C. (2008). A business case for women. *The McKinsey Quarterly*, 4, 26-33.
- Diamond, L. (1999). *Developing democracy: Toward consolidation*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Dubois, B.L. (1989). Ethics in research,” in guidelines for preparing a thesis or dissertation.

Las Cruces: New Mexico State University Graduate School

Dudovskiy, J. (2013) Consumer Decision Making Process: A Detailed Analysis. *Business Research Methodology*.

Dudovskiy, J. (2018). *Research methodology*.

<https://research-methodology.net/research-methodology/research-types/>

Dulebohn, J. H., Bommer, W. H., Liden, R. C., Brouer, R. L., & Ferris, G. R. (2012). Meta-analysis of antecedents and consequences of leader-member exchange: Integrating the past with an eye toward the future. *Journal of Management*, 38(6), 1715-1759.

Eagly, A.H., Makhijani, M.G., and Klonsky, B.G. (1992). Gender and the evaluation of leaders: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 111, 3-22.

Eagly, A. H. (1995). The science and politics of comparing women and men. *American Psychologist*, 50(3), 145–158. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.50.3.145>

Eagly, A. H. & Johannesen-Schmidt, M. C. 2001. The leadership styles of women and men. *Journal of Social Issues*, 57 (4): 781 – 797.

Eagly, A. H., & Karau, S. J. (2002). Role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders. *Psychological Review*, 109(3), 573-598.

- Eddleston, K., Veiga, J.F., & Powell, G. (2006). "Expanding the traditional view of managerial career satisfiers: Beyond sex differences. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(2), 437-444.
- Eden, L. & Gupta, S.F. (2017) Culture and context matter: Gender in international business and management. *Cross-Cultural and Strategic Management*, 24,194-210. <https://doi.org/10.1108/CCSM-02-2017-0020>
- Egan, T. M., Yang, B., & Bartlett, K. R. (2004). The Effects of structure learning culture and job satisfaction on motivation to transfer learning and turnover intention. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 15(3), 279-301. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.1104>
- Eisenbeiss, S. A., Knippenberg, D. V., and Boerner, S. (2008). Transformational leadership and team innovation: Integrating team climate principles. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(6), 1438-1446.
- Elson, D., and Pearson, R. (2019). Globalization and gender equality: A critical analysis. *Gender and Development*, 27(1), 1-17.
- Enago Academy. (2019). *The Importance of Sampling Methods in Research Design* <https://www.enago.com/academy/the-importance-of-sampling-methods-in-research-design/>
- Engen, M. L., Leeden, R., and Willemsen, T. M. (2001). Gender, context and leadership styles: A field study. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 74(5), 581-598.

Eringa, K., Caudron, L., Rieck, K. X. F., & Gerhardt, T. (2015). How relevant are Hofstede's dimensions for inter-cultural studies? A replication of Hofstede's research among current international business students. *Research in Hospitality Management*, 5(2), 187-198. <https://doi.org/10.1080/22243534.2015.11828344>

Erciyes, E. (2019). *Good Old Days and Future of Leadership Theories*.

<https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/ijls/issue/50848/647743>

Esser, A., Kahrens, M., Mouzoghi, Y. and Eomois, E. (2018). A female leadership competency framework from the perspective of male leaders. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 33 (2), 138-166.

Evans, D. (2010). Aspiring to leadership... a women's world? An example of developments in France. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal*, 17 (4): 347 – 367.

Explorable. (2009). *Quantitative and qualitative research*.

<https://explorable.com/quantitative-and-qualitative-research>

Farmer, L. (2012). Situational Leadership: A model for leading telecommuters. *Journal of Nursing Management*.

Fay, M.J. (2011) Informal communication of co-workers: A thematic analysis

of messages: Qualitative research in organisations and management: *An*

*International Journal*, 6, 212-229. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/17465641111188394>

- Fay, M. J., & Kline, S. L. (2011). Coworker relationships and informal communication in high-intensity telecommuting. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, 39(2), 144–163. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00909882.2011.556136>
- Flanagan, G. (2020). *Understanding cultural Influence on communication styles*.  
<https://devtechsys.com/insights/2020/09/01/understanding-cultural-influence-on-communication-styles/>
- Franklin, P. (2007). The end of the road for Hofstede's cultural dimensions: The rise of a new paradigm. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 38(8), 1475-1484.
- Fritsche, M., & De Lange, F. P. (2009). Reference repulsion is not a perceptual illusion. *Cognition*, 184, 107–118. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2018.12.010>
- Frost, J. (2021). *How to calculate sample size needed for power*.  
<https://statisticsbyjim.com/hypothesis-testing/sample-size-power-analysis/>
- Fullan, M. (2014). *The principal: Three keys to maximizing impact*. John Wiley and Sons.
- Gaille, L. (2018). *Twenty-five advantages and disadvantages of qualitative research*.  
<https://brandongaille.com/25-advantages-disadvantages-qualitative-research/>
- Gallego, A., Francoeur, C., Labelle, R., Laffarga, J. & Barbadillo, E.(2015). Appointing women to boards: Is there a cultural bias? *Journal of Business Ethics*.129. 429.  
10.1007/s10551-014-2166-z.

Garthoff, J. (2018) The dialectical activity of becoming just in Mark LeBar (ed.) *Justice, The Virtues* New York, 2018; online edn, Oxford Academic, 23 Aug. 2018

<https://doi.org/10.1093/oso/9780190631741.003.0008>

Gartzia, L. and Van Engen, M. L. (2012). Are (male) leaders „feminine enough? Gendered traits of identity as mediators of sex differences in leadership styles: Gender in Management. *An International Journal*, 27 (5): 296 – 314.

Gawlikowski, K and Loewe, M. (1993). *Sun tzu ping far*. In Loewe, Michael (ed.). *Early Chinese Texts: A Bibliographical Guide*. Berkeley, CA: Society for the Study of Early China; Institute of East Asian Studies, University of California, Berkeley. pp. 446–55. ISBN 978-1-55729-043-4

González, F., & Mitjáns, A. *The personality. Your education and development*. Havana, Cuba: *Editorial Pueblo and Education*, 1999.

Gandolfi, F. (2012). A conceptual discussion of transformational leadership and intercultural competence. *Revista De Management Comparat International*, 13(4), 522- 534.

Gibson, J.W., & Hodgetts, R.M. (1990). *Business communication: Skills and strategies*. NY, NY: Harper and Row.

Giffin, K. & B. R. Patten. (1976). *Basic Readings in Interpersonal Communication: Theory and application*. New York: Harper and Row.

Giles (2013). *Sun Tzu on the art of war*. Abingdon, Oxon: Routledge.



GK Today (2015). *Plato's cardinal rules*.

<https://www.gktoday.in/topic/platos-cardinal-virtues/>

Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R., and McKee, A. (2002). Primal leadership: Realizing the power of emotional intelligence. *Harvard Business Review*, 80(12), 42-51.

Goleman, D. (2013). The focused leader: Harvard Business Review.

<https://hbr.org/2013/12/the-focused-leader>.

González, F., & Mitjáns, A. (1999). *The personality: Your education and development*.

Havana, Cuba: Editorial Pueblo and Education.

Gordon, L. (2008). Writing and good language learners. In C. Griffiths (Ed.), *Lessons from good language learners* (pp. 244-254). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Gossett, L. M. Falling between the cracks: Control challenges of a contingent workforce. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 19 (2006). pp. 376–415.

Govender, M., & Bussin, M.H. (2020). Performance management and employee engagement: A South African perspective. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*

Greenleaf, R.K. (1977). *Servant leadership: A journey into the nature of legitimate power and greatness*. Mahwah, NJ: Paulist Press.

Griffith, S.B. (1971). *Sunzi: The Art of War*, Oxford University Press, Oxford

Grimsley, S. (2021). *Communication defined*. <http://study.com>.

Gronau, N, Röchert-Voigt, T. and Proske, N. (2011). *Knowledge management for the protection of critical infrastructures*. 13-21. 10.2495/SAFE110021.

- Gross, A.G (2010). *Systematically distorted communication: An impediment to social and political change. Informal Logic*. 30 (4), 2010, pp. 335-360.
- Grown, C., & Valodia, I. (2010). Women's economic empowerment as a strategy for global growth. *Feminist Economics*, 16(3), 1-24.
- Gulati, P.M (2009) Research management: Fundamental and applied research. Global India Publications.
- Gunawardhana, T & Gamage, P. (2022). Impact of Participatory Leadership Style and Organizational Commitment on Employee Productivity at Samson Rubber Industries (PVT) Ltd. 61.
- Habermas, J (1984). *The Theory of Communicative Action: Reason and rationalization of Society*. Volume 1. Boston: Beacon press, 1984.
- Halcrow, N. (2019). *Navigating millennials' cross- cultural differences in West Africa*.  
  
<https://www.rw-3.com/blog/navigating-millennials-cross-cultural-differences-in-west-africa>
- Haradhan, M. (2020). Quantitative research: A successful investigation in natural and social sciences. *Journal of Economic Development, Environment and People*, 9, (4), 52-79.
- Hart, P. T (1990). *Groupthink in government: A study of small groups and policy failure*, Leyden University: Ph.D. Thesis (Rev. ed., Amsterdam: Swets and Zeitlinger 1990)
- Hartnell, C. A., Ou, A. Y., & Kinicki, A. (2011). Organizational culture and organizational effectiveness: A meta-analytic investigation of the competing values framework's theoretical suppositions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96(4), 677-694.

- Heifetz, R. A., and Linsky, M. (2002). *Leadership on the line: Staying alive through the dangers of leading*. Harvard Business Review Press.
- Henley, N., & Kramarae, C. (1991). Gender, power, and miscommunication. In N. Coupland, H. Giles, and J. Wieman (Eds.), *"Miscommunication and problematic talk"* (pp.18-43). Newbury, CA: Sage.
- Herlinger, C. (1992). *Culture clash*. Scholastic Update 20 March, 16-17.
- Herzfeld, T and Weiss, C (2003). Corruption and legal (In) - effectiveness: an empirical investigation. *European Journal of Political Economy*, 19: 621-632.
- Hewlett, S.A. & R. Rashid (2010), 'The battle for female talent in emerging markets', *Harvard Business Review*, 88, 101–105.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage.
- Hofstede, G. (2011). Dimensionalizing cultures: The Hofstede model in context. *Online Readings in Psychology and Culture*, 2(1). <https://doi.org/10.9707/2307-0919.1014>
- Hollander, E.P. & Offermann, L.R. (1990). Power and leadership in organisations. *American Psychologist*, 45(2), pp.179-189.
- Hollander, E.P. (1995). Ethical challenges in the leader-follower relationship. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 5(1), pp.55-65.
- Holmes, J., and Marra, M. (2004). Relational practice in the workplace: Women's talk orgendered discourse? *Language in Society*, 33(3), 377–398.  
<https://doi.org/10.1017/S0047404504043039>
- Holter, N.C., & Kopka, D.J. Developing a workplace skills course: Lessons learned." *Journal of Education for Business*. 2001. 138-143. Print

- Holtzhausen, D. (2002). The effect of divisionalised and decentralized organisational structure on a formal internal communication function in a South African organisation, *Journal of Communication Management*, 6, (4), 323-339.
- Hooijberg, R., & DiTomaso, N. (1996). Leadership in and of demographically diverse organizations. *Leadership Quarterly*, 7, 1-19.
- Hoole, C., & Bonnema, J. (2015). Work engagement and meaningful work across generational cohorts. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*. 13. 10.4102/sajhrm.v13i1.681.
- House, R., & Aditya, R. (1997). The social scientific study of leadership: Quo Vadis? *Journal of Management*, 23, 409-474.
- House, R. J., & Shamir, B. (1993). *Toward the integration of transformational, charismatic, and visionary theories*. M. M. Chemers, and R. Ayman (Eds.), *Leadership theory and research: Perspectives and direction*, 81–107
- House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., & Gupta, V. (Eds.). (2004). *Culture, leadership, and organisations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage
- Houston, M. (1992). The politics of difference: Race, class, and women's communication. In L. E Inglehart, R. (2018). *Cultural evolution. People's motivations are changing and reshaping world*. Cambridge University Press
- Human Resources Development Quarterly (2020). *Annual report*.  
<https://ores.su/en/journals/human-resource-development-quarterly>,
- Hunter M., L. (1993). Natural fire regimes as spatial models for managing boreal forests. *Biol. Conserv.* 65: 115–120.

Hyden, G. (1983). *Beyond Ujamaa in Tanzania*. Heinemann.

Ibad (2019). *International scientific research congress*.

<https://www.kongreuzmani.com/4-international-scientific-research-congress-ibad-2019.html>

Jacob, S, Dawson, E. J., & Brashers, D. (1996). Information manipulation theory: A replication and assessment". Communication monographs. *Ebsco Publishing*, 63, pp.70-82.

Janis, I. L. (1972). *Victims of groupthink*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin

Jofreh, M., & Masoumi, S. E. (2013). Diagnosing organizational culture: An empirical investigation. *Management Science Letters*, 3, 2461-2466. <https://doi.org/10.5267/j.msl.2013.08.018>

Johansson, C., & Stohl, C. (2012). Cultural competence and institutional contradictions:

The hydropower endum. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, 40(4), 329-349.

Joiner, B., and Josephs, S. A. (2007). *Leadership agility: Five levels of mastery for anticipating and initiating change*. Jossey-Bass.

Jouany, V and Martic, K. (2020). 11 comms experts on their priorities as employees return to the workplace. <https://blog.smarp.com/organizational-communication-9-steps-tocreate-a-successful-strategy>

Judge, T. A., and Piccolo, R. F. (2004). Transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(5), 755-768.

Juneja, S. (2015). *Importance of communication in an organization*.

<https://managementstudyguide.com/importance-of-communication.htm>

- Kaasa, A., Vadi, M. & Varblane, U. (2014). Regional cultural differences within European countries: Evidence from multi-country surveys. *Management International Review*, 54(6), 825–852.
- Kahneman, D., & Klein, G. (2009). Conditions for intuitive expertise: A failure to disagree. *American Psychologist*, 64(6), 515-526.
- Kaplan, R. S., and Norton, D. P. (2005). The balanced scorecard: Measures that drive performance. *Harvard Business Review*, 83(7/8), 172-180.
- Kapur, R. (2020). *Understanding barriers to effective communication*.  
[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/346560408\\_Understanding\\_Barriers\\_to\\_Effective\\_Communication](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/346560408_Understanding_Barriers_to_Effective_Communication)
- Karitawangi, D., & Dahesihisari, R. (2020). *Organizational communication responses to Covid-19: strategies and practices*.  
[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/347806128\\_Organizational\\_Communication\\_Responses\\_to\\_Covid-19\\_Strategies\\_and\\_Practices](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/347806128_Organizational_Communication_Responses_to_Covid-19_Strategies_and_Practices)
- Kark, R., Shamir, B., & Chen, G. (2003). The two faces of transformational leadership: Empowerment and dependency. *J. Appl. Psychol.* 88, 246–255. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.88.2.246
- Kellerman, B. (2012). *The end of leadership*. Harper Collins.
- Kelley, P (2015). *Deception among organizational leader: Impacts on employee perceptions of supervisor credibility, power and trust*. Master Thesis. University of Tennessee, 2015.

- Khassawneh, O, Mohamed-Osman S., & Abaker M. (2022). Human resource management in the United Arab Emirates: Towards a Better Understanding. In *HRM in the Global South*. Cham: Palgrave Macmillan, pp. 103–28.
- Khassawneh, O and Hamzah E. (2022). The effect of participative leadership style on employees' performance: The contingent role of institutional theory. *Administrative Sciences*, MDPI, 12(4).
- Khoza R. (1994). *In African management: Philosophies, concepts and applications* (Eds Christie, Lessem and Mbigi). Randburg: Knowledge Resources.
- Kieh, P. and Agbese, P (2004). *The military and politics in Africa from engagement to democratic and constitution control*. Ashgate
- Kiggundu, M.N. (1988), "Africa", in Nath, R. (Ed.), *Comparative management: A regional view*. Ballinger, Cambridge, MA.
- Kim, S. & Shin, M (2017). The effectiveness of transformational leadership on empowerment. The roles of gender and gender dyads. *Cross Cultural and Strategic Management*, 24(2): 271 – 287.
- Kindle. (2009). *Leadership: theory and practice*. Kindle Edition.
- King, F. & Stevenson, H. (2017). Generating change from below: what role for leadership from above? *Journal of Educational Administration*. 55. 10.1108/JEA-07-2016-0074.
- Koburtay, T., Syed, J. and Haloub, R. (2019). Congruity between the female gender role and The leader role: a literature review. *European Business Review*, 31 (6): 831 – 848.
- Koch, T. & Denner, N. (2022). Informal communication in organisations: work timewasted at the water-cooler or crucial exchange among co-workers? *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 27(3), 494-508. <https://doi.org/10.1108/CCIJ-08-2021-0087>
- Kolb, J. (1997). Are we still stereotyping leadership? A look at gender and other predictors of leader emergence. *Small Group Research*, 28, 370-393.

Kong, D. T., & Xu, Y. (2017). Ethical leadership and employee moral voice: The mediating role of moral efficacy and the moderating role of leader–follower value congruence. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 141(1), 47-57.

Krackhardt, D and Hanson, J. (2000). Informal Networks the Company behind the Charts. *Harvard Business Review*. 78.

Kruse, K. (2013). *What is leadership?*

<https://www.forbes.com/sites/kevinkruse/2013/04/09/>.

Kumar, K., Boesso, G., & Yao, J. (2017). Cultural values, institutional arrangements and stakeholder management culture: A cross-national study. *Review of International Business and Strategy*, 27(4), 450-465. <https://doi.org/10.1108/RIBS-03-2017-0029>

Laskovaia, A., Shirokova, G., & Morris, M. H. (2017). National culture, effectuation, and newventure performance: global evidence from student entrepreneurs. *Small Business Economics*, 49(3), 687–709. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11187-017-9852-z>

Layne, J. (2021). *20 Intense pros and cons of quantitative research*.

Lauterbach, K. & Weiner, B. (1996). Dynamics of upward influence: How male and female managers get their way. *Leadership Quarterly*, 7, 87-107.

Luthar, H. (1996). Gender differences in evaluation of performance and leadership ability: Autocratic vs. democratic managers. *Sex Roles*, 35, 337-361.

<https://www.ablison.com/interesting-pros-and-cons-of-quantitative-research/>

Leaper, C. (1991). Influence and involvement in children's discourse: Age, gender, and partner effects. *Child Development*, 62,797-811.

Leedy, P. D. & Ormrod, J. (2001). *Practical research: planning and design* (7th Ed.).

Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill Prentice Hall. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications



- LeeKim, S., and Yu, K. (2004). Corporate Culture and structure Performance. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 19(4), 340-359. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940410537927>
- Lenneberg, E.H. (1967). *Biological foundations of language*. Wiley.
- Lewis, R. D. (1996). *When cultures collide: Managing successfully across cultures*. London, N. Brealey Pub.
- Lim, B. (1995) Examining the organizational culture and organizational performance link. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 16, 16-21.
- Lincoln, Y.S., & Guba, E.G. (1997). *Competing paradigms in qualitative research*. In Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. *Handbook of qualitative research*, 3rd Edn. (pp. 105 – 117). California: Sage.<http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/01437739510088491>
- Linton, I. (2017). *The importance of expatriates in organisations*. <https://bizfluent.com/info-12072421-importance-expatriates-organisations.html>
- Littlejohn, S, Foss, K & Utomo, E. (2011). *Theories of human communication*.
- Lord, R. G., & Maher, K. J. (1991). Leadership and information processing: Linking perceptions and performance. *Academy of Management Review*, 18, 153.
- Lord, C. (2000). A note on Sunzi. *Comparative Strategy*, 19(4), 301 – 307. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/01495930008403217>
- Lustig, M. W. & Koester, J. (2010). *Intercultural competence: Interpersonal communication across cultures*. 6th ed., Boston, New York: Allyn and Bacon.
- Lythreathis, S, El-Kassar, A.N., Smart, P. & Ferraris, A. (2022). Participative leadership, ethical climate and responsible innovation perceptions: evidence from South Korea. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*. 10.1007/s10490-022-09856-3.

- MacDougall, C., & Baum, F. (1997). The devil's advocate: A strategy to avoid groupthink and stimulate discussion in focus groups. *Qualitative Health Research*, 7(4), 532–541. <https://doi.org/10.1177/104973239700700407>
- Machokoto, W., & Dzvimbo, M. (2020). The employee voice behaviours in african context: The case of Zimbabwe. *Asian Journal of Interdisciplinary Research*. 3. 10.34256/ajir2019
- Maher, K. (1997). Gender related stereotypes of transformational and transactional leadership. *Sex Roles*, 37, 209-225
- Mahoney, J & Goertz, G. (2006). A tale of two cultures: contrasting quantitative and qualitative research. *Political Analysis*. 14. 10.1093/pan/mpj017.
- Maina, D. (2021). Importance of cultural awareness in the workplace: How to become more culturally aware. <https://www.easylama.com/blog/importance-of-cultural-awareness>
- Mair, V., H. (2007). *The art of war: Sun Zi's military methods*. New York: Columbia.
- Majeed, M., & MacDonald, R. (2010), *Corruption and the military in politics: Theory and evidence from around the world*, No 2010-91, SIRE Discussion Papers, Scottish Institute for Research in Economics (SIRE).<https://EconPapers.repec.org/RePEc:edn:sirdps:222>.
- Malik, M. (2019). Estimation of measurement uncertainty of seafloor acoustic backscatter. Doctoral Dissertations. 2492. <https://scholars.unh.edu/dissertation/2492>

Marcon, T., & Gopal, A. (2005). *Uncertain knowledge, uncertain time*. Toronto: ASAC.

Marine Corps Professional Reading Program (2022). *U.S. Marine Corps application of the art of war in Marine Corps operations: Analytical essay*.

<https://edubirdie.com/examples/application-of-the-art-of-war-in-marine-corps-operations-analytical-essay/>

Martínez, A., & Nosnik, A. (1998). *Practical organizational communication: Management manual*. Mexico City, Mexico: Editorial Trillas.

Mason, E. S. (1994). Gender differences in job satisfaction. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 135, 143-151.

Mayfield, M. & Mayfield, M. (2017), Leadership communication: Reflecting, engaging, and innovating. *International Journal of Business Communication*, 54 (1), 2017, pp.3-11.

Mazibuko, J.V., & Govender, K.K. (2017). Exploring workplace diversity and organisational effectiveness: A South African exploratory case study. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 15(0), 865.

<https://doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v15i0.865>

McGregor, D. M. (2003). *The human side of enterprise*. New York: McGraw-Hill

McLean, S. (2003). *The basics of speech communication*. Allyn & Bacon.

McLean, S. (2005). *The basics of interpersonal communication*. Allyn & Bacon.

McLeod, S. (2019). *Sampling methods: Types and methods explained*.

<https://www.simplypsychology.org/sampling.html>

McNeilly, M. R. (2001). *Sun Tzu and the art of modern warfare*, Oxford University Press, ISBN 978-0-19-513340-0.

McSweeney, B. (2009). Dynamic diversity: Variety and variation within countries. *Organization Studies*. 30. 933-957. 10.1177/0170840609338983.

- Melero, E. (2011). Are workplaces with many women in management run differently? *Journal of Business Research*, 64(4), 385–393.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2010.01.009>
- Memon, K. (2014). Effects of Leadership Styles on Employee Performance: Integrating the Mediating Role of Culture, Gender and Moderating Role of Communication. *International Journal of Management Sciences and Business Research*. 3. 63-80.
- Metcalf, M. (2017). *Deception is the Chinese way of war*.  
<https://www.usni.org/magazines/proceedings/2017/february/deception-chinese-wtes>  
 Military Website (n.d). Marine Corps mission and value. Retrieved from  
<https://www.military.com/join-armed-forces/marine-corps-mission-values.html>.
- Merchant, K. (2012). *How men and women differ: Gender differences in communication styles, influence tactics, and leadership styles*.  
[https://scholarship.claremont.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1521andcontext=cmc\\_theses](https://scholarship.claremont.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1521andcontext=cmc_theses)
- Migration Translators (2022). *East vs West*.  
<https://www.migrationtranslators.com.au/east-vs-west-cultural-differences/>.
- Miles, M.B., & Hubermann, M.A. (1994) *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook*, (2nd ed.), Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, CA, US
- Miller, B. (2019). *Nineteen advantages and disadvantages of quantitative research methods*. <https://greengarageblog.org/19-advantages-and-disadvantages-of-qualitative-research-methods>
- Miller, M. (2012). *The secrets: What great leaders know and do*. (J. Mellado, Interviewer.)  
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=obdzWZG1yRE&t=75s>

- Miller, C.J., Smith, S., N & Pugatch, M. (2020). Experimental and quasi- experimental designs in implementation research. *Psychiatry Res.* doi: 10.1016/j.psychres.2019.06.027
- Mintzberg, H., Raisinghani, D., & Theoret, A. (1976). The structure of "unstructured" decision processes. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 21(2), 246-275.
- Miriam-Collegiate Webster's Dictionary (1996) *Temperance*.  
<https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/temperance>
- Mohammad, T. & Khassawneh, O. (2022). The impact of humour on work efficiency at workplace: An empirical examination in tourism and hospitality sector in The United Arab Emirates. *Journal of Business Strategy Finance and Management*, 4, 91–110.
- Montgomery, E (2020). *Kill 'em all? Denial strategies, defence planning, and deterrence failure*. <https://warontherocks.com/2020/09/kill-em-all-denial-strategies-defense-planning-and-deterrence-failure/>
- Moon, H. (2018). *Extended strategies. In the art of strategy: Sun Tzu, Michael Porter, and beyond* (pp. 185-207). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Moran, J. (2005) *How the Ruden works*. In: Moran, J., Ed., *Tropical dairy farming: Feeding management for small holder dairy farmers in the humid tropics*. Landlinks Press, Melbourne, 41-49.
- Moran, R.T., Harris, P.R. and Moran, S.V. (2007). *Managing cultural differences: Global leadership strategies for the 21st century* (7th Ed.). Boston, MA: Elsevier/Butterworth- Heinemann.

Moriarty, R. (2019). *What cultural challenges do women in leadership positions face?*

*Forbes*.

<https://www.forbes.com/sites/robinmoriarty/2019/10/23/what-cultural-challenges-do-women-in-leadership-positions-face/#15a981571121>; 23.04.2020.

Morris, C. D., Bransford, J. D., & Franks, J. J. (1977). Levels of processing versus transfer appropriate processing. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, 16(5), 519–533. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-5371\(77\)80016-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-5371(77)80016-9)

Morrison, J. (2019). *Assessing questionnaire reliability – select statistical consultants*.

<https://select-statistics.co.uk/blog>

Moss, S., & Kent, R. (1996). Gender and gender-role categorization of emergent leaders: A critical review and comprehensive analysis. *Sex Roles*, 35, 79-96.

Muchiri, R., & Van Breeman, R.B. (2021). Affinity selection-mass spectrometry for the discovery of pharmacologically active compounds from combinatorial libraries and natural products. *J Mass Spectrom*, 5, 56.

Mufune, P. (2003). African culture and managerial behaviour: clarifying the connections.

*South African Journal of Business Management*, 34, 17-28.

Mujis, D. (2010). *Doing quantitative research in education with SPSS*. 2nd edition. London:

SAGE Publications

Mumby, D. K. (2015) Theorizing resistance in organization studies: A dialectical approach.

*Management Communication Quarterly*, 19. pp. 19–44.

Munene, J. (1985). Organisational theory and bhaviour: An African perspective. New York:

Longmans, 1983. *African Studies Review*, 28(4), 112-114. doi:10.2307/524530

Murphy, C. S (2021). *Stratified random sampling; Advantages and disadvantages*.

<https://www.incestopia.com/ask/answers/041615/what-are-advantages-and-disadvantages-stratified-random-sampling.asp#toc-disadvantages-of-stratified-random-sampling>

- Nekhili, M., Chakroun, H. & Chtioui, T. (2018). Women's leadership and firm performance: Family versus nonfamily firms. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 153: 291 – 316.
- Nelson, M. (2015). *Aristotle and leadership*. <https://www.universityofthecumberlands>
- Nemali, A. (2019). *Three ways companies can use diversity to reduce groupthink*. <https://medium.com/@arunnemali/3-ways-companies-can-use-diversity-to-reduce-groupthink-cb7a444d700e>.
- Neuling, I. (1999). *Differences in communication styles between cultures*. <https://www.grin.com/document/104380>.
- Neuman, W. L. (2014). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches* (7th ed.). Pearson.
- Nisbett, R. E. (2003). *The geography of thought: How Asians and Westerners Think differently ... and why*. Free Press.
- Nneji, N., & Professor, A. (2021). Organizational culture and organizational performance: A review of literature. 3. 361-372. 10.35629/5252-0301361372.
- Norris J. M., Hecker K. G., Rabatach L., Noseworthy T. W., White D. E. (2017). *Development and psychometric testing of the clinical networks engagement tool*. PLoS One, 12, e0174056. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0174056
- Northouse, P. G. (2013). *Leadership: Theory and practice* (6th ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- Northouse, P.G. (2015). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks. Nowell
- Northouse, P. G. (2018). *Leadership: Theory and practice* (8th ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- Ochieng, P.A (2019). *An analysis of the strengths and limitations of qualitative and quantitative research paradigms*. [https://www.scientiasocialis.lt/pec/files/pdf/Atieno\\_Vol.13.pdf](https://www.scientiasocialis.lt/pec/files/pdf/Atieno_Vol.13.pdf)
- Odiye, M. (2018). Cross-cultural communication for business in era of globalization, *Studies in Media and Communication*, 6(1), 53-62.
- Okon, J. J. (2016). *Political tension in Africa*. Uyo: Akpan-Akpan publishers.

- O'Leary, V. E. (1974). Some attitudinal barriers to occupational aspirations in women. *Psychological Bulletin*, 81(11), 809.
- O'Reilly, C. A., Chatman, J., & Caldwell, D. F. (1991). People and organizational culture: A profile comparison approach to assessing person-organization fit. *Academy of Management Journal*, 34(3), 487-516
- Oyserman, D., Coon, H. M. & Kemmelmeier, M. (2002). Rethinking individualism and collectivism: Evaluation of theoretical assumptions and meta-analyses. *Psychological Bulletin*, 128:1 3-72.
- .
- Papamichail, K. & Robertson, I. (2005). Integrating decision making and regulation in the management control process. *Omega*. 33. 319-332. 10.1016/j.omega.2004.05.002.
- Parboteeah, K. P., Hoegl, M. and Cullen, J. B. (2008). Managers' gender role attitudes: a country institutional profile approach. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 39:5: 795-813.
- Parry, K. W., & Bryman, A. (2006). *Leadership in organisations*. In Stewart R. Clegg, Cynthia Hardy, Thomas B. Lawrence, and Walter R. Nord (eds.), The SAGE
- Pathak, D.S, Meinhold, J.M & Fisher, D. J. (1980) Research design: Sampling techniques. *American Journal of Hospital Pharmacy*, 37, 7, 998 -100
- Pawirosumarto, S., Sarjana, P. K., & Gunawan, R. (2017). *The impact of labour setting, leadership style, and organizational culture towards job satisfaction*.
- Payne, K., & Cangemi, J. (1997). Gender differences in leadership. *IFE Psychologia: An International Journal*, 5, 22-43.
- Pearson, J., & Nelson, P. (2000). *An introduction to human communication: understanding and sharing*. McGraw-Hill.



- Pels, D. (2012). *The new national individualism - Populism is here to stay*. In Meijers (Ed), Populism in Europe (25–46), Linz, Planet.
- Perrigo, E.M., & Gaut, D.R. (1994). Is Academia in sync with the business world? *Journal of Career Planning and Employment*. 54 (3), 58-60.
- Perry, M. L. (1993). *Sun Tzu and the art of war for executives: Ancient wisdom for today's business professional*. Avon Books.
- Peterson, C, & Seligman, M. E. P. (2004). *Character strengths and virtues: A handbook and classification*. American Psychological Association; Oxford University Press  
<https://artpetty.com/2010/06/17/4>
- Petty, A. (2010). *4 ideas for avoiding groupthink on your team*.  
<https://artpetty.com/2010/06/17/4-ideas-for-avoiding-groupthink-on-your-team/>
- Pew Research Center. (2019). *Women and leadership*  
<https://www.pewsocialtrends.org/2018/09/20/women-and-leadership-2018/>
- Point Park University (2021). *Top 8 cultural differences in non-verbal communication*.  
<https://online.pointpark.edu/business/cultural-differences-in-nonverbal-communication/>
- Powell, G. N., & Butterfield, D. A. (2015). Gender and managerial stereotypes: Have the times changed? *Journal of Management*, 41(4), 1103-1124.
- Pratch, L. (1996). Gender, motivation, and coping in the evaluation of leadership effectiveness. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 48, 203-220.
- Prentice, W. (2004). Understanding leadership. *Harvard Business Review*. 82. 102-9.
- Priyashantha, K.G. and Win, K. (2016). *The impact of leadership styles on employee performance: analysis of the intervening effect of employee retention to the relationship of leadership styles and employee performance*.  
10.13140/RG.2.2.24206.64327.

- Prossack, A. (2018). *These six communication styles should be in every leader's toolbox*. Forbes. Web.
- Quast, L. (2016). *Groupthink: 7 tips to prevent disastrous decisions*.  
<https://www.forbes.com/sites/lisaquast/2016/04/18/groupthink>
- Qureshi, M. I, Zaman, K, & Bhatti, M. (2011). The impact of culture and gender on leadership behavior: Higher education and management perspective. *Management Science Letters*. 1. 531-540. 10.5267/j.msl.2011.05.008.
- Radu, R and Ramona, R. (2014). Leadership and management. *School and Behavioural Sciences*, 149808 – 812.
- Rahman, M.S. (2017). The advantages and disadvantages of using quantitative and qualitative approaches and methods in language “testing and assessment” research: A literature review, *Journal of Education and Learning*, 6,1, 102-112.
- Rahman, M. A. (2018.) Influence of female leadership styles and organization culture on locus of control and job satisfaction. *Integrated Journal of Business and Economics*, 2 (2): 123 – 134.
- Raineri, A. (2017). Linking human resources practices with performance: the simultaneous mediation of collective affective commitment and human capital. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*. 28. 3149-3178.  
 10.1080/09585192.2016.1155163
- Rana, R., George K., & Kirubi, M. (2019). *Influence of supportive and participative path-goal leadership styles and the moderating role of task structure on employee performance*. <http://erepo.usiu.ac.ke/11732/5046> (accessed on 1 November 2022).
- Raz, O., & Gloor, P. (2007). Size really matters—New insights for start-ups' survival. *Management Science*. 53. 169-177. 10.1287/mnsc.1060.0609.
- Red Tangerine (2020). *The Lewis model*.  
<https://www.redtangerine.org/agile-around-the-world/the-lewis-model/>

- Regoli, N. (2019). *Advantages and disadvantages of multilingualism*. ConnectUS.  
<https://connectusfund.org/6-advantages-and-disadvantages-of-multilingualism>
- Reiter, S., Stewart, G. & Bruce, C. (2010). *Integrating qualitative and quantitative approaches in cross-cultural research*. 16th Americas Conference on Information Systems 2010, AMCIS 2010. 6. 562.
- Ren, T and Li, W, (2013) Sun Tzu's art of war: Collected expositions (Beijing: PLA Press, 2013), 27-28.
- Rice, P. L., and Ezzy, D. (1999). *Qualitative research methods: A health focus*. South Melbourne (Australia): Oxford University Press.
- Riger, S., & Galligan, P. (1980). Women in management: An exploration of competing paradigms. *American Psychologist*, 35(10), 902.
- Risk Management Studio (2014). *Risk management and group think*.  
<https://www.riskmanagementstudio.com/risk-management-and-groupthink/>.
- Robbins, S.F., & Judge, T.A. (2007). *Organizational Behavior*. (12th ed.). Pearson Education Inc.
- Rodee, C. C. (1983). *Introduction to political science*. Japan: McGraw-Hill Book Company
- Rogers, R. (2012). Leadership communication styles: a descriptive analysis of health care Professionals. *J Health Leadersh*, 4, 47-57. <https://doi.org/10.2147/JHL.S30795>
- Rohner, R, & Katz, L. (2009). Testing for validity and reliability in cross- cultural research. *American Anthropologist*, 72. 1068 - 1073. 10.1525/aa.1970.72.5.02a00060.
- Rost, J. C. (1993). *Leadership for the twenty-first century*. Santa Barbara, CA: Greenwood Publishing Group.

- Rousseau, D.M. (1990) New hire perceptions of their own and their employer's obligations: A study of psychological contracts. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 11, 389-400. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/job.4030110506>
- Rudman, L. A., & Glick, P. (2001). Prescriptive gender stereotypes and backlash toward agentic women. *Journal of Social Issues*, 57(4), 743-762.
- Rudman, L. A., Moss-Racusin, C. A., Phelan, J. E., & Nauts, S. (2012). Status incongruity and backlash effects: Defending the gender hierarchy motivates prejudice against female leaders. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 48(1), 165–179. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2011.10.008>
- Rupp, D. E., & Cropanzano, R. (2002). The mediating effects of social exchange relationships in predicting workplace outcomes from multifoci organizational justice. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 89(1), 925-946.
- Russo, J. E., and Schoemaker, P. J. (1992). Managing overconfidence. *Sloan Management Review*, 33(2), 7-17.
- Safir, S. (2017). *The listening leader: Creating the conditions for equitable school transformation*. Jossey-Bass.
- Sagie, A. (2009). *Effects of leader's communication style and participative goal setting on performance and attitudes*.  
[https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1207/s15327043hup0901\\_3](https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1207/s15327043hup0901_3)
- Sakata, K. (1996). Sex differences on leadership processes: A review. *Japanese Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 36, 114-130.

Sales, B.D., & Folkman, S. (Eds.). (2000). *Ethics in research with human participants*.

Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Sandberg, S. (2013). *Lean in women, work and the will to lead*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf.

Sands, L (2021). *Why informal communication is so important*.

<http://www.breathehr.com/en-gb/blog/topic/company-culture/why-informal-communication-is-so-important>.

Satyendra, R. (2021). *Impact of organizational culture on employee performance*.

<https://www.ispatguru.com/impact-of-organizational-culture-on-employee-performance/>

Sawyer, R. D. (2007). *The seven military classics of ancient China*. New York: Basic Books, ISBN 978-0-465-00304-4.

Savela, T. (2018). The advantages and disadvantages of quantitative methods in school scape. *Research, Linguistics and Education*, 44, 31-44.

Stainbach. S. (1996). *Conversational styles around the globe: Bowling, basketball and rugby*. Fluent American English Video Series. Davis, USA

Schaltegger, S., & Wagner, M. (2011). Sustainable entrepreneurship and sustainability innovation: Categories and interactions. *Business Strategy and the Environment*, 20(4), 222-237.

Schaubroeck J. M., Shen Y., & Chong S. (2017). A dual-stage moderated mediation model linking authoritarian leadership to follower outcomes. *J. Appl. Psychol*, 102, 203–214. 10.1037/apl0000165 [PubMed] [CrossRef] [Google Scholar]

Schein, E. (2010). *Organizational culture and leadership* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). Jossey-Bass A Wiley Imprint, USA. <https://www.Amazon.com/Organizational-Culture-Leadership-Edgar-Schein/> dp/0470190604

Schoder, D & Fischbach, K. (2003). Peer-to-peer prospects. *Commun. ACM*. 46. 27-29. 10.1145/606272.606294.

- Schreuder, H. T., Gregoire, T. G., & Weyer, J. P. (2001). For what applications can probability and nonprobability sampling be used? *Environmental Monitoring and Assessment*, 66(3), 281-291.
- Serra, D. (2006). Empirical determinants of corruption: a sensitivity analysis. *Public Choice*, 126, pp. 225–256.
- Sempane, M. E., Rieger, H. S., & Roodt, G. (2002). Job satisfaction in relation to organisational culture. *Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 28(2), 23-30. <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v28i2.49>
- Sen, A. (2008). Violence, identity and poverty. *Journal of Peace Research*, 45(1), 5-15. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022343307084920>
- Sent, E.M., & Kroese. A. L.J. (2020). Commemorating Geert Hofstede, a pioneer in the study of culture and institutions. *Journal of Institutional Economics (JOIE)*, online first. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S174413742000051X>
- Serra, D. (2006). Empirical determinants of corruption: a sensitivity analysis. *Public Choice*, 126, pp. 225–256.
- Sharma, S. (2011). *Women leader and situation of women in South Asia*. New Delhi: Roli Books, p.76
- Shulman, M. (2005). *Sun Tzu for execution: How to use the art of war to get results*. Adams Media Corporation.
- Sibani, C. M. (2014). *Fundamentals of religion and culture in African society*. Enugu: Frankpana.
- Staksrud. E (2016). *Children in the online world: Risk, regulation, rights*. Routledge. p. 47. ISBN 978-1-317-16783-9.
- Spector, P. E. (1997). *Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, causes, and consequences*. Sage Publications, Inc.

Stainbach, S. (1996). *Conversational styles around the globe: Bowling, basketball and rugby*.

Fluent American English Video Series. Davis, USA.

Steffens, M. C., Viladot, M. A. & Scheifele, C. (2019). Male majority, female majority, or gender diversity in organisations: How do proportions affect gender stereotyping and women leaders' well-being? *Frontiers in Psychology*, 10, 1037.

Stobierski, T. (2019). *How to improve cross- cultural communication in the workplace*.

<https://www.northeastern.edu/graduate/blog/cross-cultural-communication/>.

Stone, D. (2019). East vs. West: 10 corporate cultural differences all interns abroad should know. <https://www.goabroad.com/articles/intern-abroad/east-vs-west-corporate-cultural-differences-for-interns-abroad>

Storey, D. (2016). *Understanding the small business sector*.

<https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315544335>

Strauss, A.L., & Corbin, J.M. (1998). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory*, (2nd ed.), Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, CA, US.

Stumpfegger, E. (2017). *Trustworthiness of research*. Munich Business School,

<https://www.munich-businessschool.de/insights/en/2017/trustworthinessof-research/>

Sulaiman, T. T., Mahomed, A. S. B., Rahman, A. A., & Hassan, M. (2023). *Understanding antecedents of learning management system usage among university lecturers using an integrated TAM-TOE Model* [Article]. *Sustainability (Switzerland)*, 15(3), Article 1885. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su15031885>

Sulaiman, N., Abdullah, Z., & Man, N. (2023). *The effects of employee communication and engagement on organisational performance: A conceptual study*. 233-251. 10.55573/IJAFB.084616.

Swanson, J. W. (2004). Sun Tzu and the art of modern warfare. *Comparative Strategy*, 23(1), 1-17.

- Takala, T. (1998) Plato on leadership. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 17, 785–798  
<https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1005789531144>
- Tanneau, C & Mc Loughlin, L. (2021). Effective global leaders need to be culturally competent. <https://hbr.org/sponsored/2021/06/effective-global-leaders-need-to-be-culturally-competent>
- Taras, V., Kirkman, B. L., & Steel, P. (2010). Examining the impact of culture's consequences: A three-decade, multilevel, meta-analytic review of Hofstede's cultural value dimensions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(3), 405-439.
- Taush, A. (2009). *What 1.3 billion muslims really think: An answer to a recent gallup study, based on the world values survey*. Nova Science Publishers. p. 128. ISBN 978-1-60692-731-1.
- Tenembaum, Yoav J. (2012). *International Relations: It's time to revise how we talk about revisionist powers*. Oxpul: The Oxford University Politics Blog.
- Tingguang, R & Li Weiguo (2013). *Sun Tzu's art of war: Collected expositions*. Beijing: PLA Press
- The Choice Team (2020). *4 benefits of cultural diversity in the workplace*.  
<https://thechoice.escp.eu/choose-to-lead/4-benefits-of-cultural-diversity-in-the-workplace/>
- Thomas, M. (2007). Gurus on leadership: A guide to the world's thought-leaders in leadership. *Human Resource Management International Digest*, 5  
<https://doi.org/10.1108/hrmid.2007.04415eae.002>
- Thompson, S. (2019). *Sun Tzu approach to management*.  
<https://yourbusiness.azcentral.com/sun-tzu-approach-management-21285.html>.
- Tompkins, P. K., & Cheney, G. (1985). *Communication and unobtrusive control in contemporary organisations*. In R. D. McPhee, ed. and P. K. Tompkins (Eds.), *Organizational communication: Traditional themes and new directions* (pp. 179–210). Sage.



- Treisman, D (2000). The causes of corruption: a cross-national study. *Journal of Public Economics*, 76: 399-457.
- Trompenaars, F., & Hampden-Turner, C. (1997), *Riding the waves of culture: Understanding cultural diversity in business*. Second Edition, London and Santa Rosa, Nicholas Brealey Publishing Limit.
- Tung, R.L., & Verbeke, A. (2010). Beyond Hofstede and GLOBE: Improving the quality of cross-cultural research. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 41, 1259-1274.
- Turner M. E. and Pratkanis A. R. (1997). *Mitigating groupthink by stimulating constructive conflict*. In de Dreu C. W. K. Van de Vliet E. (Eds.), *Using conflict in organisations* (pp. 53–71). London: Sage. 10.4135/9781446217016.n5
- Turner M. E. and Pratkanis A. R. (1998). A social identity maintenance model of group think. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 73(2), 210–235. 10.1006/obhd.1998.27579705803
- Turner M. E. and Pratkanis A. R. (1998b). Theoretical perspectives on groupthink: A twenty-fifth anniversary appraisal. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 73(2-3), 103–104. 10.1006/obhd.1998.27689705797
- Turner M. E. & Pratkanis A. R. (1998c). Twenty-five years of groupthink theory and research: Lessons from the evaluation of a theory. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 73(2), 105–115. 10.1006/obhd.1998.27569705798
- Turton, K. (2015). *The impact of participative communication on organisational cultural change: Two local government cases of change*.  
<https://ro.ecu.edu.au/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=2687&context=theses>
- Tushman, M. L., and O'Reilly, C. A. (2007). Ambidextrous organisations: Managing evolutionary and revolutionary change. *California Management Review*, 38(4), 8-30.
- Ubani, N. C. (2007). *Christian marriage: Crises and divorce*. Enugu: Osita Press.
- Uchida, A. (1997). Doing gender and building culture: towards a model of women's intercultural communication, *The Howard Journal of Communication*, 4, 41-76.
- Uhl-Bien, M. (2006) Relational leadership theory: Exploring the social processes of leadership and organizing. *Leadership Quarterly* 17, (2006), pp.654-676.

- Unal, C. (2017). *Impact of the national culture on female leadership styles: How do Turkish culture impact on female leadership styles in Turkey?* <https://www.diva-portal.org/smash/get/diva2:1104461/FULLTEXT01.pdf>
- United Nations. (2021). *Unprecedented number of women leaders, but parity still far off.* <https://news.un.org/en/story/2021/03/1086952>
- Venkatesh, N. K. (2012). *The problems and prospects of languages in Africa*. Accra: Youyoo Publishers.
- Ventureburn (2012). *Who are South Africa's top businesswomen and entrepreneurs?* <http://ventureburn.com/2012/08/who-are-south-africas-top-business-women->
- Virick, M. and Greer, C. R. (2012). Gender diversity in leadership succession: Preparing for the future. *Human Resource Management*, 51 (4): 575 – 600.
- Vogt, W.P. (2005). *Dictionary of statistics and methodology: A nontechnical guide for the social sciences*. SAGE.
- Wang, F.-J., Shieh, C., & Tang, M. (2010). Effect of leadership style on organizational performance as viewed from human resources management strategy. *African Journal of Business Management*, 14, 3924-3936.
- Wang, G., Law, K. S., Hackett, R. D., Wang, D., and Chen, Z. X. (2005). Leader-member exchange as a mediator of the relationship between transformational leadership and followers' performance and organizational citizenship behavior. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48(3), 420-432.
- Warkentin, M., Charles- Pauvers, B., & Chau, P.Y.K. (2017). Cross-cultural IS research: perspectives from Eastern and Western traditions. *European Journal of Information Systems*, 24 (3), 229 – 233.

- Wayne, S. J., Shore, L. M., and Liden, R. C. (1997). Perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange: A social exchange perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, 40(1), 82-111.
- Whyte, G. (1989). Groupthink reconsidered. *Academy of Management Review*, 14, 40-56.
- Wieczorek, D., & Manard, C. (2018). Instructional leadership challenges and practices of novice principals in rural schools. *Journal of Research in Rural Education*, 34(2), 1-21.
- Wiersbe, W. W. (1989). *The Bible exposition commentary*. Wheaton, IL: Victor Books.
- Williams, J. E., & Best, D. L. (1982). *Measuring sex stereotypes: A thirty-nation study*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage publications.
- Gordon, C. (2008), "Cashing in on corporate culture", *CA Magazine*, 14(1) 49-50.
- Williamson, O. E. (2009). *Opening the black box of firm and market organization: 'Antitrust'*, in Bjuggren, P.-O. and Mueller, D. C. (eds.), *The modern firm, corporate governance and investment*. Northampton, MA: Edward Elgar, pp. 11–42.
- Willman, P. (2014). *Understanding management: The social science foundations*. Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/9780198716921>
- Wiltshire, E. D. (2011). *Temperance and organizational leadership; control yourself before trying to control other*. [https://www.regent.edu/wpcontent/uploads/2020/12/MoralLeadConf2011\\_Wiltshire\\_Temperance.pdf](https://www.regent.edu/wpcontent/uploads/2020/12/MoralLeadConf2011_Wiltshire_Temperance.pdf)
- Wise, S (2016). Can a team have too much cohesion? The dark side to network density. *European Management Journal*, 32 (5), 703-711.
- Wodak, R. (2015). *The politics of fear: What right-wing populist discourses mean*. London: Sage.
- Wong, G. (2014). *Research questions*. In V. Wright-St Clair, D. Reid, S. Shaw and J. Ramsbotham (Eds.), *Evidence-based Health Practice*. South Melbourne: Oxford University Press.
- Wood, J. T (1996). *Gendered lives: Communication, gender and culture* (2nd ed). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

World Bank (1980). *Annual report*.

<https://documents.worldbank.org/en/publication/documents>.

World Bank (2011). *Annual report*. Retrieved from

<https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/2378>.

World Bank (2020). *Globalization's impact on gender equality: Whats happened and what's needed*. <https://gsdrc.org/document-library/globalizations-impact-on-gender-equality-whats-happened-and-whats-needed/>

Wu, R.S., Wu, X.L. and Lin, W.S. (2001). *Sunzi: The art of war; Sun Bin: The art of war*.

Foreign Languages Press, Beijing.

Wu, M. Y., Taylor, M., & Chen, M. J. (2001). Exploring societal and cultural influences on

Taiwanese public relations. *Public Relations Review*, 27(3), 317-336.

Wyse, S. (2011). *What is the difference between qualitative research and quantitative research?* <http://www.snapsurveys.com/blog/what-is-the-difference-between-qualitative-research-and-quantitative-research/>

Xenikou, A., & Simosi, M. (2006). Organizational culture and transformational leadership as

predictors of Business unit performance. *Journal of Social Control Science*, 21(6), 566-579. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940610684409>

Yakuda, Y. (1986), *Language inequality and distortion in intercultural communication: A critical theory approach*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing.

Yukl, G., (2013). How leaders influence organizational effectiveness. *Leadership Quarterly*, 19, 708 - 722.

Zaleznik, A. (2004). Managers and leaders: Are they different? *Harvard Business Review*. <https://hbr.org/2004/01/managers-and-leaders-are-they-different>

Zambo, D. (2004). Using qualitative methods to understand the educational experiences of students with dyslexia. *The Qualitative Report*, 9(1), 80-93. <https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2004.1938>.

## APPENDICES

## Appendix A: Consent form – Debriefing of Participants



UU\_IC - Version 2.1



## Informed Consent Form

## Part 1: Debriefing of Participants

Student's Name: Tafadzwa Marowa

Student's E-mail Address: taphie2001@gmail.com

Student ID #: R2001D10172855

Supervisor's Name: Dr Mary Mutete Mwanzia

University Campus: Unicaf University Zambia (UUZ)

Program of Study: UUZ: PhD Doctorate of Philosophy

Research Project Title: THE EFFECTS OF COMMUNICATION STYLE ON EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE: A CROSS-CULTURAL ANALYSIS OF WOMEN LEADERS IN SOUTH AFRICA AND THE UNITED KINGDOM

Date: 31-Oct-2022

Provide a short description (purpose, aim and significance) of the research project, and explain why and how you have chosen this person to participate in this research (maximum 150 words).

This study aims to recognize and comprehend how communication style affects worker performance. The study will contrast workers reporting to female executives from Western and African cultural backgrounds. Since achieving gender equality remains difficult there is a pressing need to acknowledge the significance of women leaders from various cultural backgrounds in recent years and how their organizational communication influences the productivity of their staff. This study will benefit academic and industrial experts. The research will show how women in leadership roles from different cultural backgrounds use their knowledge, experiences, and backgrounds to boost worker performance. Because globalization is now the norm, the study will focus on the differences and similarities between Western and African civilizations. This study's findings could be useful for organizational strategy in global and cultural organizations.

The above named Student is committed in ensuring participant's voluntarily participation in the research project and guaranteeing there are no potential risks and/or harms to the participants.

Participants have the right to withdraw at any stage (prior or post the completion) of the research without any consequences and without providing any explanation. In these cases, data collected will be deleted.

All data and information collected will be coded and will not be accessible to anyone outside this research. Data described and included in dissemination activities will only refer to coded information ensuring beyond the bounds of possibility participant identification.

I, Tafadzwa Marowa, ensure that all information stated above is true and that all conditions have been met.

Student's Signature: T MAROWA

## Appendix B: Certificate of Consent



UU\_IC - Version 2.1

### Informed Consent Form

#### Part 2: Certificate of Consent

**This section is mandatory and should to be signed by the participant(s)**

|                                  |                                                                                                                                               |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>Student's Name:</b>           | Tafadzwa Marowa                                                                                                                               |
| <b>Student's E-mail Address:</b> | taphie2001@gmail.com                                                                                                                          |
| <b>Student ID #:</b>             | R2001D10172855                                                                                                                                |
| <b>Supervisor's Name:</b>        | Dr Mary Mutete Mwanzia                                                                                                                        |
| <b>University Campus:</b>        | Unicaf University Zambia (UUZ) <input type="text"/>                                                                                           |
| <b>Program of Study:</b>         | UUZ: PhD Doctorate of Philosophy                                                                                                              |
| <b>Research Project Title:</b>   | THE EFFECTS OF COMMUNICATION STYLE ON EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE: A CROSS-CULTURAL ANALYSIS OF WOMEN LEADERS IN SOUTH AFRICA AND THE UNITED KINGDOM |

I have read the foregoing information about this study, or it has been read to me. I have had the opportunity to ask questions and discuss about it. I have received satisfactory answers to all my questions and I have received enough information about this study. I understand that I am free to withdraw from this study at any time without giving a reason for withdrawing and without negative consequences. I consent to the use of multimedia (e.g. audio recordings, video recordings) for the purposes of my participation to this study. I understand that my data will remain anonymous and confidential, unless stated otherwise. I consent voluntarily to be a participant in this study.

Participant's Print name:

Participant's Signature:

Date:

**If the Participant is illiterate:**

I have witnessed the accurate reading of the consent form to the potential participant, and the individual has had an opportunity to ask questions. I confirm that the aforementioned individual has given consent freely.

Witness's Print name:

Witness's Signature:

Date:

## **Appendix C: Interview Guide**

### Interview Questions

#### SECTION A

1. What country were you born in?
2. Do you hold any other nationality besides from your birth country?
3. How many years have you lived in South Africa/United Kingdom?
4. How any years have you lived in South Africa/ United Kingdom?
5. How many years have you been a leader in this organisation?

#### SECTION B

1. What is your preferred leadership style?
2. Does your leadership style derive from your cultural background or does it derive from the country and environment you are in now? Please explain
3. What tactics do you use to improve employee performance from your subordinates?
4. Do your tactics adapt to the culture of an employee or do you implore a one size fits all tactic?

## Appendix D: Questionnaire

---

# EMPLOYEE QUESTIONNAIRE

**The Effects of Communication Style on Employee Performance:  
A Cross-Cultural Analysis of Women Leaders in South Africa and the United  
Kingdom**



### Details of the study

Because organizations depend on their members' effective communication skills and real communication, the discipline of organizational communication has garnered interest recently. Effective oral and written communication abilities are among those that directors of organizations most desire, according to studies. There is a lack of study comparing cross-cultural communication in African and Western organizations, particularly those led by women, even though communication inside Western organizations has been thoroughly examined. The purpose of this study is to recognize and evaluate the communication strategies used by female leaders in Western and African organizations. A microcosm of Africa and the West are represented by South Africa and the United Kingdom.

Please tick all the boxes below:

|    |                                                                                                     |                          |
|----|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. | I have read and understood the information about the project, as provided in the description below. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. | I have been given the opportunity to ask questions about the project and my participation.          | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. | I voluntarily agree to participate in the research.                                                 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. | I have understood and signed the separate Informed Consent Form                                     | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Once you have ticked all the boxes above and signed the separate **Informed Consent Form**, you may start completing the questionnaire below.

## Section A

Some information about yourself (for statistical purposes):

- a. Are you:
  1. Male
  2. Female
  3. Other
  4. Prefer Not to State
  
- b. How old are you?
  1. 20 to 30 years
  2. 31 to 40 years
  3. 41 to 50 years
  4. 51 to 65 + years
  
- c. How many years of formal school education (or their equivalent) did you complete (starting with high school)?
  1. Less than 10 years
  2. More than 10 years
  
- d. If you have or have had a paid job, what kind of job is it / was it?
  1. No paid job (includes full-time students)
  2. Unskilled or semi-skilled manual worker
  3. Generally trained office worker or secretary
  4. Vocationally trained craftsperson, technician, IT-specialist, nurse, artist or equivalent
  5. Academically trained professional or equivalent (but not a manager of people)
  6. Manager of one or more subordinates (non-managers)
  7. Manager of one or more managers
  
- e. What was your nationality at birth and what is your nationality now (if different)?

---

## QUESTIONNAIRE

### Section B

Please tick or circle one number in each line which best applies to you for the statements below

- 1 = strongly agree with the statement on the left  
 2 = agree with the statement on the left  
 3 = undecided with both statements (on the left and on the right)  
 4 = agree with the statement on the right  
 5 = strongly agree with the statement on the right

|                                                                                               |           |                                                                                          |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| In a company/organization, people must be able to create their own place/function             | 1 2 3 4 5 | All people in an organization or company have clearly defined roles                      |
| People must not take the boss decisions for granted. Always question the actions of the boss. | 1 2 3 4 5 | The boss takes all decisions, everybody in a organization/company accept and respect him |
| People have strong loyalty to the group(s) they belong to                                     | 1 2 3 4 5 | People choose their friends based on common likes/dislikes/interests                     |
| The conventions/rules of the group I belong to influence my behaviour                         | 1 2 3 4 5 | I have full personal freedom                                                             |
| I am concerned with what the others think about me                                            | 1 2 3 4 5 | I am concerned only with my own rules and objectives                                     |
| People are promoted/recognized based on their loyalty and age                                 | 1 2 3 4 5 | People are promoted based on competence, no matter their age                             |
| It is immoral for a boss not to offer a job to a relative                                     | 1 2 3 4 5 | It is immoral for a boss to offer a job to a relative                                    |
| At work, I am motivated by a relaxed, friendly atmosphere                                     | 1 2 3 4 5 | At work, I need to have clear objectives and an evaluation system for what I accomplish  |
| Decisions at work must be based on consensus                                                  | 1 2 3 4 5 | Conflict is positive and productive                                                      |
| People who can move in different environments are appreciated in society                      | 1 2 3 4 5 | High competence and expert leadership are appreciated in society                         |
| People should always have to carry an ID                                                      | 1 2 3 4 5 | People should always have an ID                                                          |
| It is improper to express feelings in public                                                  | 1 2 3 4 5 | It is ok to show feelings in public, at the right place and time                         |
| Society has very few rules                                                                    | 1 2 3 4 5 | There are some rules and customs that all people must respect                            |

## QUESTIONNAIRE

### Section C

To extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements? (please circle one answer in each line across):

- 1 = strongly agree
- 2 = agree
- 3 = undecided
- 4 = disagree
- 5 = strongly disagree

- |                                                                                                                                                                |                       |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. One can be a good manager without having a precise answer to every question that a subordinate may raise about his or her work                              | 1    2    3    4    5 |
| 2. Persistent efforts are the surest way to results                                                                                                            | 1    2    3    4    5 |
| 3. An organization structure in which certain subordinates have two bosses should be avoided at all costs                                                      | 1    2    3    4    5 |
| 4. A company's or organization's rules should not be broken - not even when the employee thinks breaking the rule would be in the organization's best interest | 1    2    3    4    5 |

**This is the end of the questionnaire. Thank you for your participation.**

## Appendix E: Letter of Permission to Conduct Study (UK)

Tel: +44 7360161592  
 Email: [info@valuebasedrecruitment.co.uk](mailto:info@valuebasedrecruitment.co.uk)  
 Registration No.: 14827074



04 August 2023

Tafadzwa Marowa

21 Moorgate Road Mount Pleasant

Harare

Dear Tafadzwa

**Subject: Permission to Conduct a Study at Value Based Recruitment Ltd.**

I am writing in response to your letter dated 02 August 2023, in which you requested permission to conduct a study titled "*The Effects of Communication Style on Employee Performance: A Cross-Cultural Analysis of Women Leaders in South Africa and the United Kingdom*" at our organization.

I am pleased to inform you that we have reviewed your request and are delighted to grant you permission to conduct the proposed study at our organization. We understand that the study will involve collecting data through surveys and interviews with employees at different levels within the organization. We appreciate your commitment to adhering to ethical guidelines and ensuring the confidentiality of all data collected. We will work closely with you to safeguard the privacy and anonymity of our employees who participate in the study. We look forward to the insights and recommendations that your study will provide.

Yours sincerely

Felix Effiong

Compliance Coordinator

Value Based Recruitment Ltd.

120 plough way surrey quays

London  
 SE16 2LT

Phone: +44 7360161592

Email: [info@valuebasedrecruitment.co.uk](mailto:info@valuebasedrecruitment.co.uk)

120 Plough Way Surrey Quays London, se16 2lt

## Appendix F: Letter of Permission to Conduct Study (SA)

21 Moorgate Road  
Mount Pleasant  
Harare

19 March 2023

Mogano Medical Suites  
125 2<sup>nd</sup> Street  
Wynberg, Johannesburg  
South Africa

Dear Sir/Madam

**Dr M.H Mogano**  
General Practitioner  
MBChB (UL), DMD (Stell)  
Dip HIV Man (SA), DA (SA)  
Pr No 0688436  
MP No: 0770264

**Subject: Request for permission to conduct a study at your organisation.**

My name is Tafadzwa Marowa, student number, R2001D10172855. I am a student for PhD Doctorate of Philosophy at UNICAF University Zambia (UUZ). I hope this letter finds you in good health and high spirits. I am writing to seek permission to conduct a study titled "*The Effects of Communication Style on Employee Performance: A Cross-Cultural Analysis of Women Leaders in South Africa and the United Kingdom*"

The objective of this study is to examine the impact of communication style on the performance of employees, with a specific focus on women leaders in two different cultural contexts, South Africa and the United Kingdom. I believe that investigating this topic will contribute valuable insights to the field of organizational behavior and cross-cultural management.

The study will involve collecting data through surveys and interviews from employees at different levels within the organization. The data collected will be analyzed using statistical methods and qualitative techniques to identify patterns and trends. It is important to note that all information gathered will be treated with the utmost confidentiality and will be reported in aggregate form to ensure the anonymity of participants.

I understand that your organization's time and resources are valuable, and I assure you that I will make every effort to minimize any inconvenience caused during the research process. Additionally, I am committed to adhering to ethical guidelines and ensuring the confidentiality of all data collected.

Thank you for considering our request. I sincerely hope that Mogano Medical Suites will support and contribute to this important research endeavour. I am confident that the

findings of this study will provide valuable insights that can benefit both academia and the organization.

Please do not hesitate to contact me at +263 771 924 064 or [taphie2001@gmail.com](mailto:taphie2001@gmail.com) should you require any further information or clarification. I look forward to your positive response.

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Sincerely

Tafadzwa Marowa,  
*Researcher*

**Dr M.H Mogano**  
General Practitioner  
MBChB (U.K.), DMD (S.A.)  
Dip HIV Man (SA), DA (SA)  
Pr No 0686436  
MP No: 0770264



## Appendix G

### Research Ethics Committee Decision – Stage 1



UREC Decision, Version 2.0



#### Unicaf University Research Ethics Committee Decision

**Student's Name:** Tafadzwa Marowa

**Student's ID #:** R2001D10172855

**Supervisor's Name:** Dr Philip Ephraim

**Program of Study:** UU-DOC-900-1-ZM

**Offer ID /Group ID:** O29101G30015

**Dissertation Stage:** DS 1

**Research Project Title:** THE EFFECTS OF COMMUNICATION STYLE ON EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE: A CROSS-CULTURAL ANALYSIS OF WOMEN LEADERS IN SOUTH AFRICA AND THE UK

**Comments:** No comments

**Decision\*:** A. Provisionally approved without revision or comments

**Date:** 30-Sep-2021

\*Provisional approval provided at the Dissertation Stage 1, whereas the final approval is provided at the Dissertation stage 3. The student is allowed to proceed to data collection following the final approval.



## Appendix H

### Research Ethics Committee Decision – Stage 3



UREC Decision, Version 2.0



#### Unicaf University Research Ethics Committee Decision

|                                |                                                                                                                                               |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>Student's Name:</b>         | Tafadzwa Marowa                                                                                                                               |
| <b>Student's ID #:</b>         | R2001D10172855                                                                                                                                |
| <b>Supervisor's Name:</b>      | Dr Mary Mutete Mwanzia                                                                                                                        |
| <b>Program of Study:</b>       | UUZ: PhD Doctorate of Philosophy ▼                                                                                                            |
| <b>Offer ID /Group ID:</b>     | O45832G47277                                                                                                                                  |
| <b>Dissertation Stage:</b>     | 3 ▼                                                                                                                                           |
| <b>Research Project Title:</b> | The Effects of Communication Style on Employee Performance: A Cross-Cultural Analysis of Women Leaders in South Africa and the United Kingdom |
| <b>Comments:</b>               | No comments.                                                                                                                                  |
| <b>Decision*:</b>              | A. Approved without revision or comments ▼                                                                                                    |
| <b>Date:</b>                   | 10-Jan-2023                                                                                                                                   |

\*Provisional approval provided at the Dissertation Stage 1, whereas the final approval is provided at the Dissertation stage 3. The student is allowed to proceed to data collection following the final approval.

## Appendix I

## Research Ethics Application Form (REAF)



REAF\_DS - Version 3.1



| UNICAF UNIVERSITY<br>RESEARCH ETHICS APPLICATION FORM<br>DOCTORAL STUDIES |                                                                                                                                               | UREC USE ONLY:<br>Application No: _____<br>Date Received: _____ |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------|
| Student's Name:                                                           | TAFADZWA MAROWA                                                                                                                               |                                                                 |
| Student's E-mail Address:                                                 | taphie2001@gmail.com                                                                                                                          |                                                                 |
| Student's ID #:                                                           | R2001D10172855                                                                                                                                |                                                                 |
| Supervisor's Name:                                                        | DR MARY MWANZIA MUTETE                                                                                                                        |                                                                 |
| University Campus:                                                        | Unicaf University Zambia (UUZ) <span style="float: right;">▼</span>                                                                           |                                                                 |
| Program of Study:                                                         | UUM: PhD Doctorate of Philosophy - Business Administration <span style="float: right;">▼</span>                                               |                                                                 |
| Research Project Title:                                                   | THE EFFECTS OF COMMUNICATION STYLE ON EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE: A CROSS-CULTURAL ANALYSIS OF WOMEN LEADERS IN SOUTH AFRICA AND THE UNITED KINGDOM |                                                                 |

1. Please state the timelines involved in the proposed research project:

Estimated Start Date: 01-Apr-2020

Estimated End Date: 31-Dec-2023

2. External Research Funding (if applicable):

2.a. Do you have any external funding for your research?

☐

YES

☒

NO

If YES, please answer questions 2b and 2c.

2.b. List any external (third party) sources of funding you plan to utilise for your project. You need to include full details on the source of funds (e.g. state, private or individual sponsor), any prior / existing or future relationships between the funding body / sponsor and any of the principal investigator(s) or co-investigator(s) or student researcher(s), status and timeline of the application and any conditions attached.

N/A

2.c. If there are any perceived ethical issues or potential conflicts of interest arising from applying or and receiving external funding for the proposed research then these need to be fully disclosed below and also further elaborated on, in the relevant sections on ethical considerations later on in this form.

N/A

### 3. The research project

#### 3.a. Project Summary:

In this section fully describe the purpose and underlying rationale for the proposed research project. Ensure that you pose the research questions to be examined, state the hypotheses, and discuss the expected results of your research and their potential.

It is important in your description to use plain language so it can be understood by all members of the UREC, especially those who are not necessarily experts in the particular discipline. To that effect ensure that you fully explain / define any technical terms or discipline-specific terminology (use the space provided in the box).

The purpose of this study is to appreciate and understand the effects of communication style on employee performance. The study will compare employees working under women leaders from two cultural backgrounds i.e., Western and African cultures. The differences that are expected to be found are that there will be key variances in the communication styles shown by women leaders from western cultures and African cultures.

The objectives of this study are:

1. To identify various communication styles employed by women leaders in South Africa and the United Kingdom to document cultural differences i.e. African and Western organisational communication.
2. To analyse the effects of communication style and culture on employee performance.
3. To compare data from South Africa and the United Kingdom to gain deeper insights into African and Western leadership styles.
4. To establish the relationship between Western and African culture and employee performance.
5. To establish if women's leadership is underrepresented in today's world.

The hypotheses formulated for this study are:

H1 Culture has an influence on the communication styles used by women leaders from South Africa and the United Kingdom.

- a. Women leaders from South Africa have a more authoritarian communication style concerning employees.
- b. Women leaders from the United Kingdom have a more participatory communication style concerning employees.

H2 The authoritarian communication style has a substantial impact on employee performance (Turton, 2015).

H3 The participatory communication style has a substantial impact on employee performance (Sagie, 2009; Turton, 2015).

### 3.b. Significance of the Proposed Research Study and Potential Benefits:

Outline the potential significance and/or benefits of the research (use the space provided in the box).

Experts in academia and industry will gain from this research. The study will demonstrate how women in leadership positions from various cultural backgrounds use their expertise, experiences, and backgrounds to improve employee performance. The study will emphasize the distinctions and similarities between Western and African civilizations because globalization is now the norm. Organizational strategies in international and cultural organizations may benefit from this study and its conclusions.

### 4. Project execution:

#### 4.a. The following study is an:

- ☒ experimental study (primary research)
- ☐ desktop study (secondary research)
- ☐ desktop study using existing databases involving information of human/animal subjects
- ☐ Other

If you have chosen 'Other' please Explain:

N/A

**4.b. Methods.** The following study will involve the use of:

| Method        | Materials / Tools                                         |
|---------------|-----------------------------------------------------------|
| Qualitative:  | <input type="checkbox"/> Face to Face Interviews          |
|               | <input type="checkbox"/> Phone Interviews                 |
|               | <input type="checkbox"/> Face to Face Focus Groups        |
|               | <input type="checkbox"/> Online Focus Groups              |
|               | <input type="checkbox"/> Other *                          |
| Quantitative: | <input type="checkbox"/> Face to Face Questionnaires      |
|               | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Online Questionnaires |
|               | <input type="checkbox"/> Experiments                      |
|               | <input type="checkbox"/> Tests                            |
|               | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Other *               |

\*If you have chosen 'Other' please Explain:

Online interviews will be a supplementary tool for the study. The online interviews will be conducted through Skype where a group of women leaders from South Africa and women leaders from the United Kingdom will be asked a series of questions to do with their leader communication styles based on their national culture scores from Geert Hofstede's dimensions. These questions will bring more weight in accepting or rejecting the hypotheses as well as have input from both women leaders and employees perspectives.

**5. Participants:**

**5 a. Does the Project involve the recruitment and participation of additional persons other than the researcher(s) themselves?**

- ☐ YES If YES, please complete all following sections.
- ☒ NO If NO, please directly proceed to Question [7](#).

### 5 b. Relevant Details of the Participants of the Proposed Research

State the number of participants you plan to recruit, and explain in the box below how the total number was calculated.

Number of participants

A sample size of at least 100 people (per country which is 100 from South Africa and 100 from United Kingdom) is required for this investigation. The majority of statisticians agree that a sample size of 100 is necessary for any significant result. If there are less than one hundred persons, the entire population must be surveyed.

Describe important characteristics such as: demographics (e.g. age, gender, location, affiliation, level of fitness, intellectual ability etc). It is also important that you specify any inclusion and exclusion criteria that will be applied (e.g. eligibility criteria for participants).

Age range      From       To

Gender      ☒ Female  
☒ Male

Eligibility Criteria:

- Inclusion criteria
- Exclusion criteria

Disabilities

Other relevant information (use the space provided in the box):

N/A



**5 c. Participation & Research setting:**

Clearly describe which group of participants is completing/participating in the material(s)/ tool(s) described in 5b above (use the space provided in the box).

By conducting a search for multinational/multicultural organizations in South Africa and the United Kingdom, the participants will be found. Potential participants will only be approached after gaining permission from the organizations, who will provide a database of their employees' email addresses. For this study, an online questionnaire-style survey that will be distributed via email will be used. In order to avoid interfering with daily obligations and responsibilities, the online questionnaire can only be finished in a maximum of one hour over a period of 48 hours.

**5 d. Recruitment Process for Human Research Participants:**

Clearly describe how the potential participants will be identified, approached and recruited (use the space provided in the box).

100 (50 male, 50 female) participants will be recruited from multinational/multicultural organisations in United Kingdom and 100 (50 male, 50 female) participants from multinational/multicultural organisations will be recruited from South Africa. A reasonable number of organizations from both countries will be found through the use of extensive search engines. A reasonable number of organizations from both countries will be found through the use of extensive search engines. Potential participants will only be approached after gaining permission from the organizations which will be gained through contact of the Gatekeeper.

**5 e. Research Participants Informed Consent.**

Select below which categories of participants will participate in the study. Complete the relevant Informed Consent form and submit it along with the REAF form.

| Yes                                 | No                                  | Categories of participants                                  | Form to be completed           |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>            | Typically Developing population(s) above the maturity age * | Informed Consent Form          |
| <input type="checkbox"/>            | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | Typically Developing population(s) under the maturity age * | Guardian Informed Consent Form |

\* Maturity age is defined by national regulations in laws of the country in which the research is being conducted.

**5 f. Relationship between the principal investigator and participants.**

Is there any relationship between the principal investigator (student), co-investigators(s), (supervisor) and participant(s)? For example, if you are conducting research in a school environment on students in your classroom (e.g. instructor-student).

☐ YES ☒ NO

If YES, specify (use the space provided in the box).

**6. Potential Risks of the Proposed Research Study.**

**6 a. i. Are there any potential risks, psychological harm and/or ethical issues associated with the proposed research study, other than risks pertaining to everyday life events (such as the risk of an accident when travelling to a remote location for data collection)?**

☐ YES ☒ NO

If YES, specify below and answer the question 6 a.ii.

**6 a.ii Provide information on what measures will be taken in order to exclude or minimise risks described in 6.a.i.**

N/A



## 6 b. Choose the appropriate option

|       |                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                     | Yes                                 | No                                  |
|-------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| i.    | Will you obtain written informed consent form from all participants?                                                                                                                                                                                                                                | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>            |
| ii.   | Does the research involve as participants, people whose ability to give free and informed consent is in question?                                                                                                                                                                                   | <input type="checkbox"/>            | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> |
| iii.  | Does this research involve participants who are children under maturity age?<br>If you answered YES to question iii, complete all following questions.<br>If you answered NO to question iii, do not answer Questions iv, v, vi and proceed to Questions vii, viii, ix and x.                       | <input type="checkbox"/>            | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> |
| iv.   | Will the research tools be implemented in a professional educational setting in the presence of other adults (i.e. classroom in the presence of a teacher)?                                                                                                                                         | <input type="checkbox"/>            | <input type="checkbox"/>            |
| v.    | Will informed consent be obtained from the legal guardians (i.e. parents) of children?                                                                                                                                                                                                              | <input type="checkbox"/>            | <input type="checkbox"/>            |
| vi.   | Will verbal assent be obtained from children?                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                       | <input type="checkbox"/>            | <input type="checkbox"/>            |
| vii.  | Will all data be treated as confidential?<br>If NO, explain why confidentiality of the collected data is not appropriate for this proposed research project, providing details of how all participants will be informed of the fact that any data which they will provide will not be confidential. | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>            |
| viii. | Will all participants /data collected be anonymous?<br>If NO, explain why and describe the procedures to be used to ensure the anonymity of participants and/or confidentiality of the collected data both during the conduct of the research and in the subsequent release of its findings.        | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>            |

|                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                  | Yes                                 | No                                  |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| ix. Have you ensured that personal data and research data collected from participants will be securely stored for five years?                                                                                                                    | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>            |
| x. Does this research involve the deception of participants?<br>If YES, describe the nature and extent of the deception involved. Explain how and when the deception will be revealed, and who will administer this debrief to the participants: | <input type="checkbox"/>            | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> |

6 c. i. Are there any other ethical issues associated with the proposed research study that are not already adequately covered in the preceding sections?

☐ Yes ☒ No

If YES, specify (maximum 150 words).

6.c.ii Provide information on what measures will be taken in order to exclude or minimise ethical issues described in 6.c.i.

N/A

6 d. Indicate the Risk Rating.

☐ High ☒ Low

### 7. Further Approvals

Are there any other approvals required (in addition to ethics clearance from UREC) in order to carry out the proposed research study?

☒ YES ☐ NO

If YES, specify (maximum 100 words).

Approvals are required from the multinational organisations to gain access to their mailing lists for the study to be carried out. This will be done through the Gatekeeper.

### 8. Application Checklist

Mark ✓ if the study involves any of the following:

- ☐ Children and young people under 18 years of age, vulnerable population such as children with special educational needs (SEN), racial or ethnic minorities, socioeconomically disadvantaged, pregnant women, elderly, malnourished people, and ill people.
- ☐ Research that foresees risks and disadvantages that would affect any participant of the study such as anxiety, stress, pain or physical discomfort, harm risk (which is more than is expected from everyday life) or any other act that participants might believe is detrimental to their wellbeing and / or has the potential to / will infringe on their human rights / fundamental rights.
- ☐ Risk to the well-being and personal safety of the researcher.
- ☐ Administration of any substance (food / drink / chemicals / pharmaceuticals / supplements / chemical agent or vaccines or other substances (including vitamins or food substances) to human participants.
- ☐ Results that may have an adverse impact on the natural or built environment.

### 9. Further documents

Check that the following documents are attached to your application:

|   |                                                                                                                                                                                                                             | ATTACHED                            | NOT APPLICABLE                      |
|---|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1 | Recruitment advertisement (if any)                                                                                                                                                                                          | <input type="checkbox"/>            | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> |
| 2 | Informed Consent Form / Guardian Informed Consent Form                                                                                                                                                                      | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>            |
| 3 | Research Tool(s)                                                                                                                                                                                                            | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>            |
| 4 | Gatekeeper Letter                                                                                                                                                                                                           | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>            |
| 5 | Any other approvals required in order to carry out the proposed research study, e.g., institutional permission (e.g. school principal or company director) or approval from a local ethics or professional regulatory body. | <input type="checkbox"/>            | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> |

#### 10. Final Declaration by Applicants:

- (a) I declare that this application is submitted on the basis that the information it contains is confidential and will only be used by Unicaf University for the explicit purpose of ethical review and monitoring of the conduct of the research proposed project as described in the preceding pages.
- (b) I understand that this information will not be used for any other purpose without my prior consent, excluding use intended to satisfy reporting requirements to relevant regulatory bodies.
- (c) The information in this form, together with any accompanying information, is complete and correct to the best of my knowledge and belief and I take full responsibility for it.
- (d) I undertake to abide by the highest possible international ethical standards governing the Code of Practice for Research Involving Human Participants, as published by the UN WHO Research Ethics Review Committee (ERC) on <http://www.who.int/ethics/research/en/> and to which Unicaf University aspires to.
- (e) In addition to respect any and all relevant professional bodies' codes of conduct and/or ethical guidelines, where applicable, while in pursuit of this research project.



I agree with all points listed under Question 10

Student's Name: TAFADZWA MAROWA

Supervisor's Name: DR MARY MWANZIA MUTETE

Date of Application: 12-Dec-2022

#### Important Note:

Save your completed form (we suggest you also print a copy for your records) and then submit it to your UU Dissertation/project supervisor (tutor). In the case of student projects, the responsibility lies with the Faculty Dissertation/Project Supervisor. If this is a student application, then it should be submitted via the relevant link in the VLE. Please submit only electronically filled in copies; do not hand fill and submit scanned paper copies of this application.