

Towards theorising an effective leadership model for Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) in Zimbabwe

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my lovely wife Sophie and our three angels: Tatenda, Tinashe and Takudzwa, whose love and support has made this milestone possible.

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ABSTRACT

While there is consensus that Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) are important to all countries especially developing economies like Zimbabwe, only 15% are expected to survive beyond three years. Scholars have attributed these high failure rates to managerial deficiencies and lack of an appropriate leadership model. As such, the study sought to propose an Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) model for Zimbabwean SMEs. The study was guided by the positivism philosophy and the deductive approach. It adopted a quantitative research design where a survey was conducted using a questionnaire developed by the researcher. Primary data was collected from 241 participants from Bulawayo's Central Business Area (CBA) who were chosen using the proportional stratified sampling technique. The study developed and validated an AEL model and an AEL instrument for Zimbabwean SMEs. It was concluded that effective leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs depends on ubuntu, culture, history of the country and stage of economic development of the country, intermediated by leader characteristics. It was recommended that leaders should lead in line with the philosophy of ubuntu. They should value group solidarity, good social and personal relations and believe in consensus and compromise. Employees should gain the courage to challenge their leaders, demanding accountability and transparency from them. The AEL instrument may be used to measure perceptions of effective leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs. The AEL model may be used to structure leadership such that SMEs in Zimbabwe and beyond are led in an effective way. It may also be used to educate students, budding and seasoned entrepreneurs on how SMEs should be effectively led in order to achieve sustainable success.

Key words: Afrocentric effective leadership; AEL instrument; AEL model; Culture; Effective leadership; History of the country; Leadership; Situational Leadership Theory; SMEs; Stage of economic development of the country; Ubuntu.

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LIST OF ACCRONYMS

AEL	Afrocentric Effective Leadership
APEC	Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
BTS	Bartlett Test of Sphericity
CBA	Central Business Area
CGCZ	Credit Guarantee Company of Zimbabwe
CTL	Contingency Theories of Leadership
CZI	Confederation of Zimbabwe Industries
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
ESAP	Economic Structural Adjustment Programme
EYB	Expand Your Business
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GLOBE	Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness
HTMT	Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio
IFC	International Finance Corporation
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IO	International Organisation
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
MDGs	Millenium Development Goals
MSME	Micro, Small and Medium Enterprise
MSMECD	Ministry of Small and Medium Enterprises and Cooperative Development
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
SIYB	Start and Improve Your Business
SLT	Situational Leadership Theory
SMEs	Small and Medium Enterprises
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa

SYB	Start Your Business
TREE	Training for Rural Economic Empowerment
UDI	Unilateral Declaration of Independence
VCCZ	Venture Capital Company of Zimbabwe
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor
ZIMRA	Zimbabwe Revenue Authority

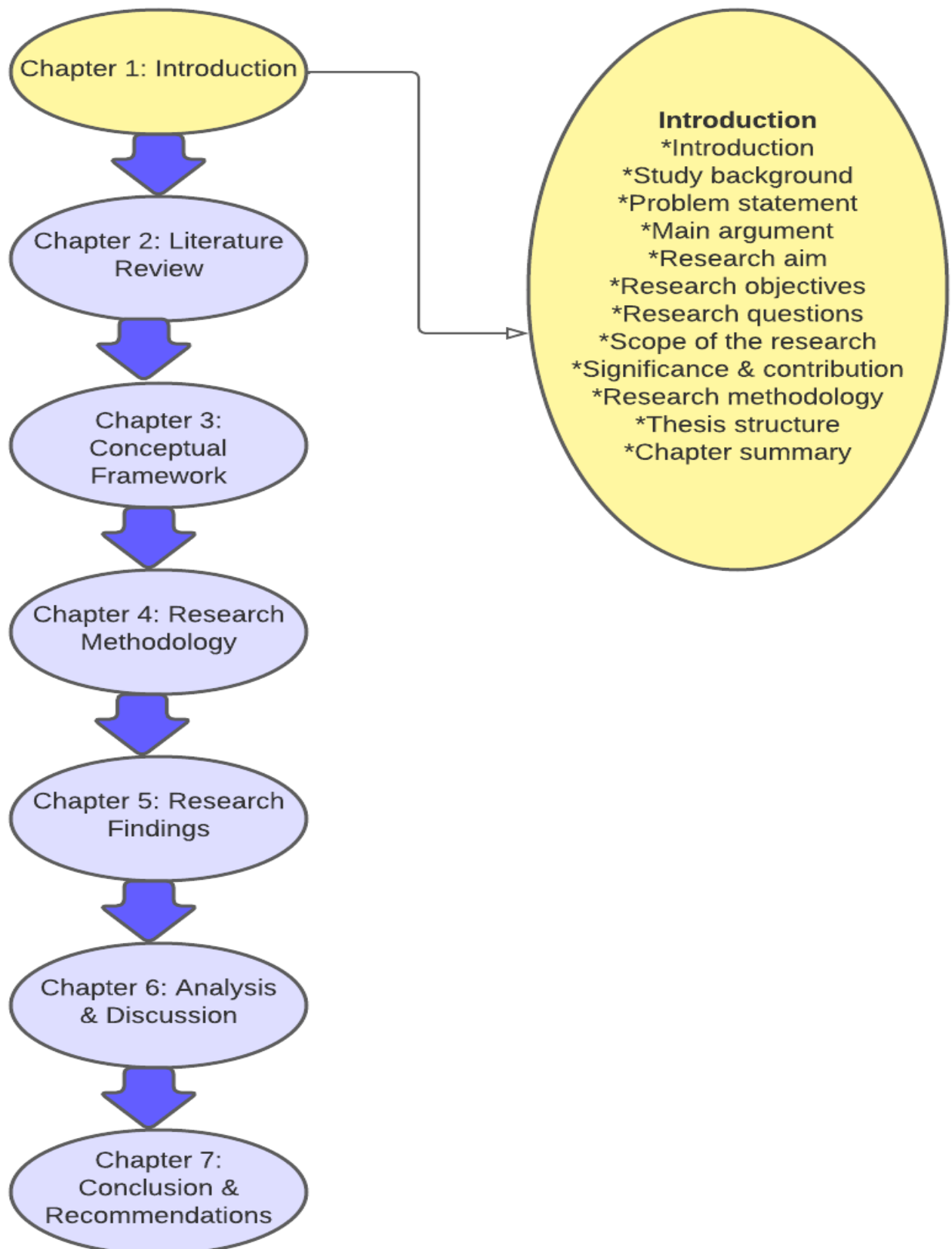
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) play a significant role in a country's economy. While SMEs are important to developed economies, they are even more important to developing economies where deplorable unemployment rates and colossal gaps between the rich and the poor are prevalent. There is consensus among scholars, policy makers and analysts that the future development of any country rests on the shoulders of SMEs. The main argument for the study is that the Western-oriented leadership theories do not apply to Zimbabwean SMEs. The thesis is about theorizing an effective leadership model for SMEs in Zimbabwe with the aim of proposing an Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) model for Zimbabwean SMEs.

This chapter presents the study background leading to the problem statement. Research objectives and research questions will also be outlined. This will be followed by the scope of the study and the significance and contribution of the research. A summary of the study methodology will be highlighted. The chapter concludes by giving an overview of the thesis structure and a chapter summary as shown by the chapter overview flowchart presented in figure 1.1 below.

Figure 1.1: Chapter one overview flowchart



Source: Researcher's compilation

1.2 Study Background

The partition of Africa between 1884 and 1885 resulted in colonialism which was orchestrated with the goal of exploiting the continent's resources for the benefit of the colonial masters. In 1890 colonialists moved into Southern Rhodesia with the hope of finding minerals (Musemwa and Mushunje, 2011). This led to a series of successive events such as self-governing status in 1923 (Moyo and Mafuso, 2017), the Unilateral Declaration of Independence (UDI) in 1965 and the protracted war of liberation which ended in April 1980 when Zimbabwe gained independence.

After independence the new government implemented mainly an interventionist developmental strategy which resulted in an increase in spending on education, health and other social welfare programmes (Chitambara, 2011). Although the country recorded impressive rates of economic growth in 1980 and 1981 of 11% and 10% respectively, it was not long before problems began to emerge. As a result, multilateral institutions, particularly the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) began to pile pressure on the government to implement deregulation and market liberalisation reforms (ibid). In response, Government implemented the IMF led Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) in 1991 in exchange for a \$484 million loan (Ismi, 2004).

After implementing the required measures which included eliminating manufacturing sector protections, deregulating the labour market, reducing trade tariffs and import duties and eliminating foreign currency controls, the economy went into recession in 1992. This resulted in real Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth decreasing from 5% in 1991 to -0.2% in 1995 (Sibanda and Makwata, 2017) and a plethora of companies folding. Approximately 25% of public sector employees were retrenched resulting in massive unemployment and poverty. Exacerbated by the severe droughts of the early 1990s, the implementation of ESAP acted as a catalyst for the development of SMEs (Bomani, Fields and Derera, 2015).

1.2.1 Nature of SMEs in Zimbabwe

It is difficult to find uniform definitions of SMEs among different countries and even within countries because of different socio-economic and cultural patterns (Yon and Evans, 2011). However, SMEs have been long defined in terms of number of employees, turnover levels and total asset values (Mugozhi and Hlabiso, 2017).

Many SMEs were established for subsistence (Karedza, Sikwila, Mpofu and Makurumidze, 2014). After the ESAP induced retrenchments and the severe droughts of the early 1990s, SMEs became an avenue of survival or complementing the household income. As the socio-economic crisis deepened, many graduates from several institutions of higher learning failed to obtain employment, leading them to establish SMEs for survival (Bomani et al., 2015). The HIV/AIDS pandemic also contributed to the proliferation of SMEs. Women and children were 'forced' into establishing SMEs after the demise of the father who had been the family's sole source of survival (Chipangura and Kaseke, 2012). Some of the people who had migrated from the rural areas to the urban areas joined the SMEs sector after failing to get employment (ibid).

The economic crises that arguably started on 14 November 1997, a day commonly referred to as 'Black Friday' as a result of the local currency losing 71.5% of its value against the United States dollar (Kanyenze, Chitambara and Tyson, 2017) forced some of the companies to close down resulting in many employees being retrenched. Multinational companies that had operated in Zimbabwe, employing a lot of people left the country in favour of more habitable environments thereby exacerbating the challenge. In all this, life had to go on, people had to survive, look after their families and send their children to school. This resulted in those who had lost their jobs to leverage on their skills and start SMEs for survival. Dhliwayo (2014) has argued that the growth in the number of SMEs in the manufacturing sector in particular and other sectors in general can be attributed to the de-industrialisation of the economy.

Chipangura and Kaseke (2012) reported that the retail and commercial sector has the largest number of SMEs at 40%. This is followed by SMEs in the manufacturing and service sectors which account for 19% each. Other SMEs are found in Agriculture, which account for 7% of the total number, construction, mining and others at 5% each as shown by table 1.1 below.

Table 1.1: SMEs according to sector

Sector	Percentage
Retail & Commercial	40%
Manufacturing	19%
Services	19%
Agriculture	7%
Construction	5%
Mining	5%
Others	5%

Source: Chipangura and Kaseke (2012)

Albloshi and Nawar (2015) opined that SMEs contribute immensely to economic growth in many countries throughout the world. On a global scale, SMEs contribute 50% of the global GDP and 60% towards employment (Stouraitis et al., 2017; cited in Sibanda, Hove-Sibanda and Shava, 2018). In the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries, SMEs are estimated to account for between 95% and 99% of enterprises and create between 60% and 70% of jobs (Yon and Evans, 2011). In Kenya they account for over 70% of employment in the private sector (Linge, Shikalieh and Asimwe, 2016). In South Africa, 91% of businesses fall in the SMEs category, contributing between 52% and 57% to the country's GDP and 61% of employment (Nyamwanza, Paketh, Makaza and Moyo, 2016).

In Zimbabwe, approximately 5.7 million people are involved in the Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises (MSME) sector either as owners (2.8 million) or employees (2.9 million) (FinScope, 2012). Mangudya (2017) believed that the sector employed more than 5.7 million Zimbabweans, particularly the youths who are below 35 years. 71% of businesses in the MSME category are owned by individual entrepreneurs who do not employ anyone while 24% run micro businesses employing between 1 and 5 employees. 4% of the businesses are categorised as small businesses with employees ranging from 6 to 30/40, depending on the sector and the last 1% are categorised as medium-size businesses employing between 31/41 to 75 people (FinScope). 85% of these businesses operate in the informal sector without having been registered or licensed (Mukorera, 2019). The estimated turnover from this sector in 2012 was US\$ 7.4 billion (FinScope).

The growth of SMEs is key to the sustainable development of developing countries (Mudavanhu, Bindu, Chigusiwa and Muchabaiwa, 2011). SMEs can be a panacea to the socio-economic problems that have bedevilled Zimbabwe for a long time (Nyamwanza et al., 2016). In many economies around the world, growth is driven by SMEs (Jalal-Eddeen, 2015). They are regarded as the backbone of most economies (Rahim, Abidin, Mohtar and Ramli, 2015). SMEs assist in the reduction of unemployment levels because many people are currently employed in that sector (Karedza et al., 2014). They have a strong capacity of boosting a country's exports (Mudavanhu et al., 2011). They enhance competition thereby contributing immensely to the development of the sector and society's standard of living (Chipangura and Kaseke, 2012).

However, there exists a high failure rate in SMEs. Quoting research conducted by SEDCO in 2004, Mudavanhu et al. (2011) reported that 60% of Zimbabwean SMEs fail to celebrate their first anniversary with a further 25% folding within the first 3 years. This leaves only 15% as the likely survivors. In trying to mitigate the high failure rate, the Zimbabwean Government in 2002 crafted the Small, Micro and Medium Enterprises (SMMEs) policy and strategy framework and established the Ministry of Small and Medium Enterprises Development (Zindiye, Chiliya and Masocha, 2012). However, the unfavourable socio-economic and political environment hampered the successful implementation of the policy.

Although Zimbabwe's per capita GDP was approximately the same as those of South Korea and Thailand during the 1950s and 1960s, Kanyenze (2011) reported that by 2003 Zimbabwe's per capita GDP was approximately sixteen times smaller than South Korea's and seven times smaller than Thailand's. Richardson (2006), summarised in Musemwa and Mushunje (2011), contented that of all the countries that were not at war, the economy of Zimbabwe shrank faster than any other country resulting in one of the lowest socio-economic development indexes on the African continent (Schutz, 2018). This was a precursor to the country's economy experiencing deindustrialisation which resulted in deepening informalisation (Kanyenze et al., 2017) and the increase in the number of SMEs. The National Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises policy framework was crafted in 2014 as a successor to the Small, Micro and Medium Enterprises policy to ensure socio-economic and environmental stability among other objectives (ibid).

In addition to the turbulent macro-economic environment, other reasons have been given as possible reasons for a high failure rate. SMEs are constrained from accessing finance from banks because of lack of collateral (Karedza et al., 2014). In cases where they chance in accessing the loans, the cost is exorbitant, negatively impacting on the sustainability of the firm. Other notable reasons include lack of leadership and corporate governance (Lekhanya, 2015), limited managerial capacity (Chipangura and Kaseke, 2012; Mudavanhu et al., 2011), unqualified personnel including the owner (Chivasa, 2014), lack of access to infrastructure (Karedza et al., 2014), lack of government support (Tinarwo, 2016) and high operating costs (Gombarume and Mavhundutse, 2014).

SMEs in Zimbabwe have failed to grow because of a dearth in managerial skills (Bomani et al., 2015; Karedza et al., 2014). In a study about managerial deficiencies in SMEs in the craft industry at Great Zimbabwe, Dumbu and Chadamoyo (2012) found that the SMEs lacked quality leadership and employee motivation. Leadership plays an essential and significant role in the survival and success of any organisation, but more so for SMEs. The difference between success and failure of any SME rests on the leadership model adopted. Lekhanya (2015) opined that survival and growth of SMEs is highly dependent on leadership behaviour and skill. This was supported by Daka, Sandada and Mbasera (2017) who concluded that leadership skills play a positive influence on the success of Zimbabwean SMEs. Above 40% of high growth SMEs found deficiencies in leadership and management competencies as an obstacle to business growth (CIPD, 2014). The extent to which employees in an organisation perform depends to a larger extent on the type of the leader, the way the leader interacts with the employees and the prevailing situation. If SMEs are to succeed and thrive, sound leadership approaches should be adopted (Albloshi and Nawar, 2015).

1.2.2 SMEs and leadership in Africa

The impetus to SMEs thriving and prospering in Zimbabwe is the adoption of a sound and effective leadership model. Leadership behaviour and skills have been identified as the fundamental ingredients that determine SMEs survival and growth (Arham, 2014). Leaders contribute to the success of the SMEs by playing a fundamental role in the modeling of communal norms, assisting the followers they lead to carry out their duties, and coordinating cooperative union to achieve the set goals (Albloshi and

Nawar, 2015). Sakiru et al. (2013) as cited in Albloshi and Nawar (2015, p. 70) argued that the type of leadership that exist in SMEs has a direct impact on the customer satisfaction, staff satisfaction and financial performance of the organisation.

Moghalu (2017) argues that with a few exceptions, African countries have been plagued by a calamity of leadership. This assertion was supported by Bailie (2018) who opined that leadership deficit is one of the fundamental challenges facing the African continent. This is despite the narrative of 'Africa is rising' which has been trumpeted for some time. Zimbabwean SMEs have "failed to drive economic growth" (Nyamwanza and Mavhiki, 2014, p.1) notwithstanding the implementation of Western initiated leadership theories such as transformational leadership, transactional leadership and the Situational Leadership Theory (SLT). That the economy continues to decline while SMEs continue to increase in number (Tinarwo, 2016) may explain the inapplicability of these Western initiated leadership styles. Blunt and Jones (1997) argued that the how and what of leadership is not the same across the world as it varies between regions and cultures. As such the persuasiveness of Western leadership narrative is difficult to resist especially in the absence of local alternatives (ibid).

In a Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness Project (GLOBE) study of 5 sub-Saharan African (SSA) countries namely Nigeria, Namibia, South Africa, Zambia and Zimbabwe, Dorfman, Javidan, Hanges, Dastmalchian and House (2012) found that leadership in SSA is different from leadership elsewhere based on five notable themes. In SSA there is a strong spirit of ubuntu which cherishes the value of human interdependence and there is high loyalty to a person's family, clan or tribe. Leadership is also influenced by patriarchal and patrimonial values which traditionally put males in a dominant position leaving little room for women to lead. This resulted in leadership positions going to male individuals, particularly those who were advanced in age (ibid).

Dorfman et al. (2012) opined that leadership in the region has also been greatly influenced by negative factors such as colonialism, corruption, poverty, tribalism and violence. Gumede (2017) believes that colonialism negatively affected the systems of leadership in Africa. Whyte and Auala (2018) asserted that the history of Africa which includes colonialism, neo-colonialism and global capitalism influences the

management practices found on the continent. An analysis of the pre-colonial history of the continent reveals the existence of indigenous knowledge systems which resulted in effective management (Nkomo, 2011). Masango (2002) postulates that during the African religious era, kings, priests and rulers exhibited powerful leadership. Gumede has also argued that prior to the colonisation of Africa, women were at the centre of many leadership approaches.

1.2.3 Influence of culture on African leadership

National culture has an influence on leadership behaviour (Dorfman et al., 2012). Leaders tend to follow the dictates acceptable in their culture when leading. Successful leadership is dependent on followers' societal and organisational norms, beliefs and values (Whyte and Auala, 2018). Unlike the Western culture which is individualistic, African culture shows a collectivist paradigm that prefers a tightly-knit social framework in which individuals look up to their communities and relatives for loyalty (Pillay, Subban and Govender, 2013). Whereas the African perspective prefers collectivism, the Western worldview favours individualism that worships the individual hero for using independence and courage to save either the community or the organisation (Nell, 2017).

Like most SSA countries, Zimbabwe is a predominantly patriarchal society where gender is an important consideration in the day-to-day interactions whether at work or at home. As such, leadership effectiveness is highly influenced by gender. Wanasika et al. (2011)'s argument that traditional African communities have been characterised by patriarchal and patrimonial predispositions that have given women little room in societal leadership cannot be discarded without serious academic scrutiny. Tribalism is predominant in SSA and as such, leaders emerge and are accepted partly due to their ethnic origin (ibid).

Likewise, in African societies age differences are highly regarded and respected. Wanasika et al. (2011) have argued that in Africa the selection of leaders is partly based on age because culturally age has long been associated with seniority and the accumulation of wisdom. Therefore, the researcher believes there is need to take into consideration age when determining effective leadership. African patterns of leadership such as ubuntu leadership (Meylahn and Musiyambiri, 2017) have been affected by colonisation (Dodo, 2013). As such, the continent should adopt more

Afrocentric perspectives of leadership as a solution (Nkomo, 2011, cited in Galperin, Melyoki, Senaji, Mukanzi and Michaud, 2017).

Whyte and Auala (2018) opined that the substance of African management philosophy should be ubuntu, an important value of African culture. Cited in Brubaker (2013), Ncube (2001) believes that ubuntu can be a panacea to ineffective African leadership that is riddled with discrimination, corruption and scandals. Although pre-colonial leadership was based on ubuntu, post-colonial leadership has been influenced by colonialism and Western oriented education (Mangena, 2011). In line with ubuntu values, organisations are treated as extended families with close relationships which go beyond the professional level (Malunga, 2006).

Calls continue to grow for indigenous and culturally oriented leadership models in Africa since Western theories have not been of much benefit to the continent (Iwowo, 2015). Sanka, Gustafson-Asamoah and Issaka (2018) were of the opinion that the leadership problem bedevilling Africa can only be solved by Africans. If the continent is to claim its rightful place in the modern world, Oloruntoba (2015, p. 16) asserts that “endogenous knowledge production must be given priority over imported knowledge”. The continued dominance of Western-initiated leadership theories in post-colonial Africa may be viewed as “a form of western intellectual hegemony” which continues to perpetuate the ideals of the Berlin conference (Iwowo, 2015, p. 2).

Oppong (2017) and Okantey (2014) are of the view that there should be a revolution in African research aimed at redefining dominant Western approaches which do not suit the African context. After researching on the attributes of leadership effectiveness in East Africa, Galperin et al. (2017, p.17) advised that “future research should further explore indigenised models of leadership which can provide more culturally-oriented models”. This was in support of Bekker (2008) who argued that there exists a desperate necessity for a native, ground-breaking, and values-based leadership approach on the continent that will marshal diverse participants around a shared goal.

1.3 Problem statement

“There is no theory of leadership in postcolonial Africa, except one of ‘muddling through’, learning as we move forward; it is theory: not as articulated, but as lived” (Mkapa, 2008, p.20).

Although there are many leadership theories and styles used worldwide, most of these were developed in the Western world for an environment that is different from the African environment and culture in general and Zimbabwean environment and culture in particular. Blunt and Jones (1997) opined that most contemporary published concepts of leadership have their pedigrees in the West. Kuada (2010) is of the view that leadership styles and behaviours are culture-bound. As such, he called on scholars to research on the types of leadership styles that improve organisational performance in Africa. This has been supported by Nhung-Binh (2020) who argued that the operationalisation of leadership should be viewed as culturally specific. Of the few authors such as Poncian and Mgaya (2015), Nkomo (2011), Mbigi (2005), Ngambi (2004) and Mangaliso (2001) who have researched on African leadership, none has attempted to come up with an Afrocentric leadership model. Therefore, the focus of this study is to propose an Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) model for Zimbabwean SMEs that takes into account the environment, culture, the philosophy of ubuntu and the history of the country.

1.4 Main Argument

The Situational Leadership Theory (SLT) does not apply to Zimbabwean SMEs.

Western-oriented leadership theories do not apply to Zimbabwean SMEs. Although, among the Western-oriented leadership theories, the SLT was close to addressing the African leadership quagmire, Thompson and Glaso (2015) and Shonhiwa (2016) argued that the SLT model does not take into account demographic characteristics such as age, gender, education and experience in measuring follower competence and determining the relationship between the leader and the followers. The contingency theories which are an elaboration of the SLT do not apply entirely to the African context in their current form. Villoria (2016) argued that although some of the Contingency Theories of Leadership (CTL) models have fascinating ideas that can be beneficial in the appropriate context, they are not always useful. The researcher strongly believes that there exists a sufficient gap which warrants either the remodelling of the SLT to suit the African environment where demographic characteristics such as age and education are very vital in the leadership matrix or the development of an Afrocentric leadership model. Leadership in Africa is different from

leadership in the Western world, hence the need for the crafting of an Afrocentric leadership model.

1.5 Research Aim

The aim of the study was to propose an Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) model for Zimbabwean SMEs.

1.6 Objectives

The study was guided by the following objectives:

- i. Identify the predominant leadership styles used by SMEs in Zimbabwe.
- ii. Assess the effectiveness of leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs.
- iii. Evaluate the extent to which the Situational Leadership Theory (SLT) is relevant to Zimbabwean SMEs.
- iv. Develop an Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) instrument to measure perceptions of effective leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs.
- v. Determine the relationship between independent variables (culture, ubuntu, history of the country, stage of economic development of the country) and the dependent variable (effective leadership).
- vi. Develop an Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) model for SMEs in Zimbabwe.
- vii. Validate an Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) model for SMEs in Zimbabwe.

1.7 Research questions

The study was guided by the following questions:

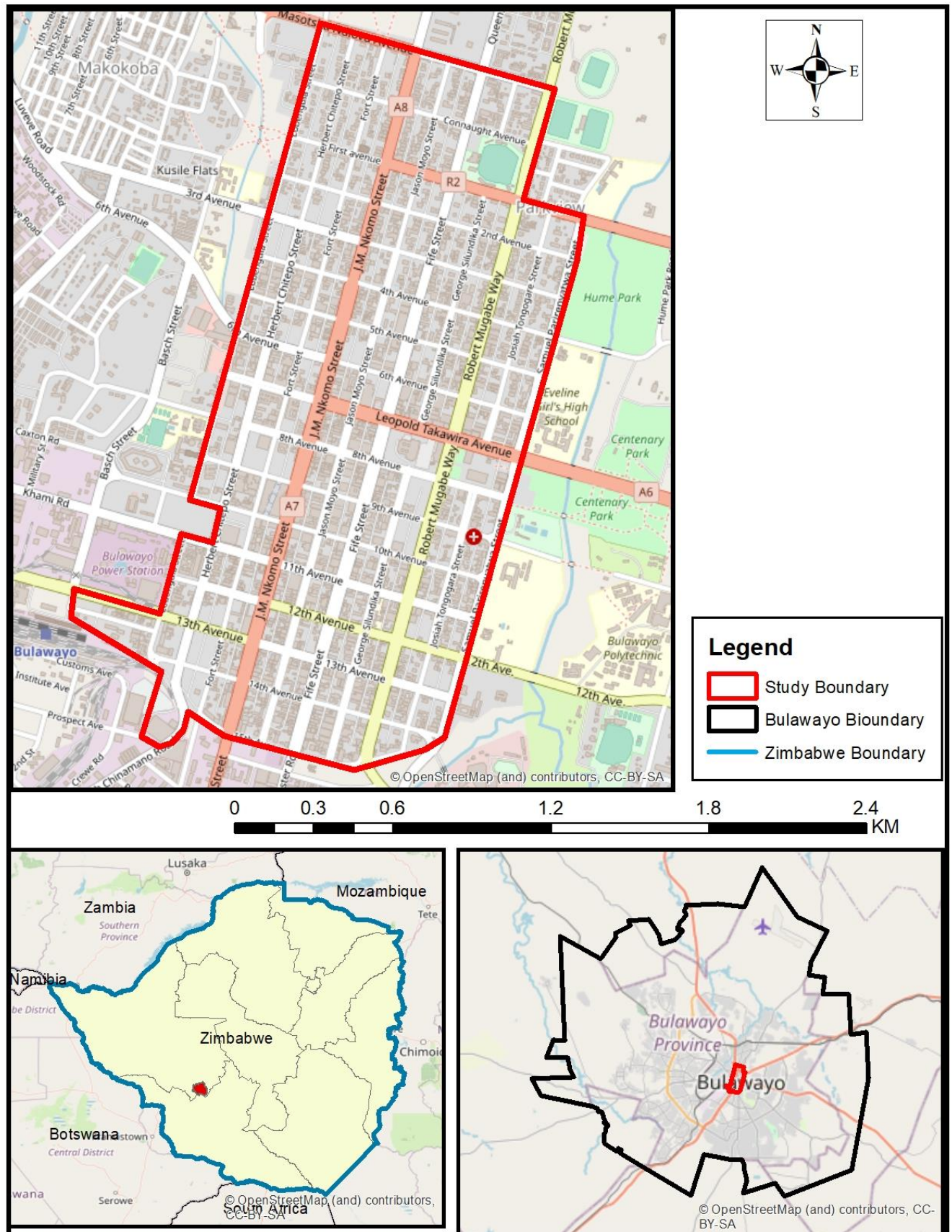
- i. What are the predominant leadership styles used by SMEs in Zimbabwe?
- ii. To what extent is leadership effective in Zimbabwean SMEs?
- iii. How relevant is the Situational Leadership Theory (SLT) to Zimbabwean SMEs?
- iv. How are perceptions of effective leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs measured?
- v. What is the relationship between independent variables (culture, ubuntu, history of the country, stage of economic development of the country) and the dependent variable (effective leadership)?

- vi. How can an Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) model be developed?
- vii. How can an Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) model be validated?

1.8 Scope of research

The study focused on SMEs operating in Bulawayo's Central Business Area (CBA) as highlighted by the study map in figure 1.2 below. The study covered the period between 1991 and 2021. 1991 was the year the Government of Zimbabwe implemented the IMF led Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) which acted as a catalyst for the emergency of SMEs in Zimbabwe. For primary data collection, the study targeted SMEs owner-managers, managers and employees so as to get a complete picture of the leadership phenomenon and dynamics in SMEs.

Figure 1.2: Study Map



Source: Bulawayo City Council, Department of Town Planning

1.9 Significance and contribution of the research

Leadership is essential for the survival and success of SMEs. The study developed a valid and reliable AEL research instrument that was used to measure perceptions of effective leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs. The study developed and validated an AEL model which assisted in understanding how effective leadership should be structured in an Afrocentric environment. This model will assist leaders in different SMEs to structure their leadership so that they lead in an effective way.

Policy makers have tried hard to come up with policies aimed at uplifting SMEs but the greatest drawback has been ineffective leadership. The AEL instrument and AEL model will also be used by policy makers, analysts and other stakeholders to ascertain whether SMEs are effectively led and to recommend interventions that are necessary to engender effective leadership to achieve sustainable success. Universities and development partners will adopt the instrument and model in teaching students, promising and seasoned entrepreneurs on how SMEs should be effectively led in order to achieve sustainable success.

There is a dearth of scholarship focusing on Afrocentric leadership. The study contributed immensely towards the extant literature on the discipline and acted as a catalyst for further research on leadership in SMEs and beyond. The study also acted as a precursor to effective African solutions to African problems. The researcher aspires to contribute to Africa's success through the development of leaders in SMEs and other sectors on the continent. The study equipped the researcher with the necessary skills required to start an Afrocentric Leadership thinktank that will help in the development of African leaders who will not only contribute to the development of the continent but who will also make a distinctive mark on the global stage.

1.10 Research Methodology

This section presents an overview of the research methodology. The overview focuses on research philosophy, research approach, research design, population and sampling, data collection and data analysis. Research credibility and research ethics will also be highlighted. Research methodology is elaborated in chapter four of the study.

1.10.1 Research philosophy

With regards to the development of knowledge, the study adopted the positivism philosophy. The philosophy was chosen because of its emphasis on empirical data collection coupled with effect-oriented analysis (Neuman, 2014). The philosophy was also chosen because it posits that the world is real and scientific methods may be used to find out about these realities (Walliman, 2011).

1.10.2 Research approach

The decision which research approach to choose is fundamental because it leads to the choice of the research design. The study adopted the deductive approach. This approach was chosen because of the capacity to explain causal relationships between variables. It was also chosen because the positivism philosophy adopted is contingent on deductive logic, establishment and testing of hypotheses (Kivunya and Kuyini, 2017).

1.10.3 Research design

The study adopted a quantitative research design because of its association with the positivism philosophy (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016; Neuman, 2014). The design was ideal because it enabled the quantification of opinions, attitudes, behaviours and defined variables (Mohajan, 2020). The survey strategy was used for this research. This strategy was chosen because of its link with the deductive approach and also because it is the widely used approach in the social sciences (Neuman, 2014). The survey strategy was used as it enabled the collection of quantitative data which was analysed statistically (Saunders et al., 2016). In terms of time horizon, the research was a cross sectional survey because data was collected at one point in time (Creswell and Creswell, 2018; Neuman, 2014).

1.10.4 Population and sampling

The population of the study encompassed all non-managers, supervisors, managers and owner-managers of SMEs operating in Bulawayo's CBA. This area was chosen because of the diversity of people owning the SMEs and the diversity of their employees. Proportional stratified sampling technique was used to come up with a representative sample. The technique was ideal because the researcher had prior

knowledge of the population under study (Jawale, 2012) and the technique allowed for generalisations of findings to be made (Saunders et al., 2016).

1.10.5 Data collection

Primary data was collected using a questionnaire developed by the researcher. The questionnaire allowed participants to respond to standardised questions in a prearranged order. The questionnaire contained closed-ended items (Aithal and Aithal, 2020; Jain, Dubey and Jain, 2016) and it was self-administered (Greenfield and Greener, 2016).

1.10.6 Data analysis

Data was analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23 and Smart PLS version 3. Descriptive statistics, inferential statistics, factor analysis and structural equation modelling were used for analysis. Before the analysis of data, appropriate data management principles were followed.

1.10.7 Research credibility

The study endeavoured to achieve reliability and validity so as to produce a useful result (Salkind, 2018). The Cronbach alpha coefficient was used to calculate the extent to which instrument items were consistent in measuring the same construct. Additional measures used to increase reliability included having a large sample and phrasing questions clearly. Content validity was ensured through incorporating the suggestions of experts and pilot testing of the instrument (Creswell and Creswell, 2018). Construct validity was enhanced through exploration factor analysis.

1.10.8 Research ethics

The study was carried out in a way that observed the best interests of research participants (Magwa and Magwa, 2015). Physical access to the different SMEs was appropriately sought. Information was sufficiently given to participants to enable them to reach an informed decision of whether they freely consented to participate in the study (Creswell and Creswell, 2018). Participants were given unconditional assurances concerning anonymity and confidentiality and these guarantees were highly respected throughout the study. Access to completed questionnaires was highly restricted and they were kept in a safe and secure place. These documents will continue to be kept securely for at least five years and thereafter discarded properly.

1.11 Thesis Structure

This thesis comprises of seven chapters.

Chapter one presented the study background leading to the problem statement. Research objectives and research questions were outlined followed by the scope and significance of the study. The chapter also highlighted a summary of the research methodology adopted.

Chapter two presents a comprehensive review of literature pertaining to leadership. After explaining the concept of leadership, the irrelevance of Western-oriented leadership in Africa is highlighted. This is followed by a discussion of ubuntu philosophy as a basis of effective leadership and the influence of culture on leadership. The concept of SMEs is discussed, highlighting their importance, challenges and leadership. Lastly, leadership theories and styles are discussed.

Although the core principles explaining leadership may be universal, effective leadership requires one to consider certain conditions that may be appropriate in a particular environment. As such, chapter three proposes an ideal conceptual framework which takes into account relevant independent and intervening variables necessary to engender effective leadership.

Chapter four presents the procedures used in conducting the research. The research philosophy, approach and design are explained and justified. This is followed by a discussion of the population and sampling, data collection and data analysis. The chapter concludes by outlining a discussion on research credibility and research ethics.

Chapter five presents the empirical findings from the fieldwork. Exploratory factor analysis, descriptive statistics and inferential statistics are used to make predictions from the data. Structural equation modelling is used to quantify and test theories.

Chapter six presents the analysis and discussion of research findings in the context of research objectives and findings.

Chapter seven presents an overview of the study, conclusions and recommendations for SMEs and for future research. The chapter also highlights theoretical, empirical and practical contributions of the study.

1.12 Chapter Summary

This chapter elaborated the study background leading to the problem statement. Research objectives and questions were outlined followed by the scope of the study and the significance and contribution of the research. A summary of the study methodology and an overview of the thesis were also highlighted. The next chapter will critically review what other scholars have written pertaining to the topic.

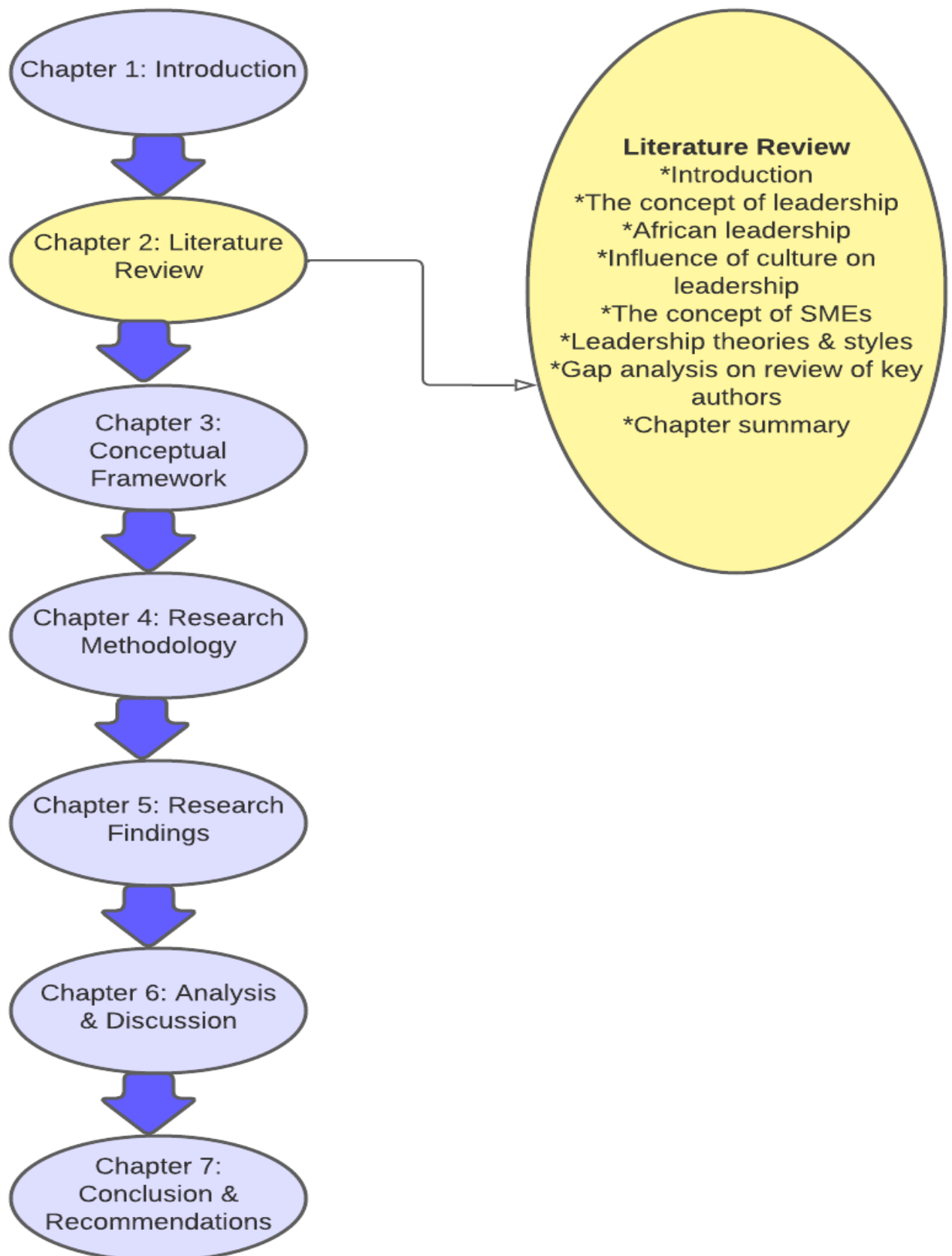
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Chapter one elaborated the study background leading to the problem statement. Research objectives and questions were outlined followed by the scope of the study and the significance and contribution of the research. A summary of the study methodology and an overview of the thesis were also highlighted. This chapter will systematically identify, interpret, analyse and evaluate in a synthesised way what other scholars have written about the topic. It will focus on the theoretical and empirical review of various literatures pertaining to leadership in SMEs.

Themes such as the concept of leadership, African leadership, influence of culture and the concept of SMEs will be systematically analysed and evaluated in line with research questions. Different leadership theories and styles will be identified and analysed as highlighted by the chapter overview flowchart diagram presented in figure 2.1 below. The knowledge gained through the review of literature will be useful in the formulation of a conceptual framework.

Figure 2.1: Chapter two overview flowchart



Source: Researcher's compilation

2.2 The Concept of Leadership

Although leadership ranks among the most fundamental topics in the human sciences, it has been one of the least understood phenomena on earth (Hogan and Kaiser, 2005) resulting in a common model or approach that scholars and practitioners could rally behind and use being elusive (Lyne de Ver, 2009).

2.2.1 Definition of Leadership

The concept of leadership has proved very difficult to define (Silva, 2016; Peretomode, 2012; Klingborg, Moore and Varea-Hammond, 2006) resulting in the proliferation of innumerable definitions and explanations (McCleskey, 2014; Vroom and Jago, 2007). The word 'lead' has its roots in the Anglo-Saxon dialect meaning path (CIMA, 2007). As such leadership may be construed as a "process of providing a path that others follow" (p. 3).

"Leadership is the process of interactive influence that occurs when in a given context, some people accept someone as their leader to achieve common goals" (Silva, 2016, p.3). Northouse (2015, p.3) defined leadership as "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal". Hogan and Kaiser (2005, p.172) defined it as the "ability to build and maintain a group that performs well relative to its competition. Leadership is a desire to impact people's lives in a positive way (Mango, 2018). In the African context, Gilpin-Jackson (2014, p. 2) defined leaders "as those who selflessly serve their communities for a greater good". Masango (2002) opined that in Africa a leader should act as a servant to the clan, tribe or community.

Schenk (1928) cited in Lyne de Ver (2009, p.5) stated that "leadership is the management of men by persuasion and inspiration rather than by the direct or implied threat of coercion". Kotter (1988) cited in Silva (2016, p.2) defined leadership as "the process of moving a group in some direction through mostly non-coercive means". Dwight Eisenhower, the former President of the United States of America (USA) is quoted as having said that "You don't lead by hitting people over the head; that's assault, not leadership" (Axelrod, 2006, p. 120). In this context, Bolden (2004) argued that it becomes difficult to categorise characters such as Hitler, Stalin and Hussein as leaders. Leadership encompasses persuading people to set aside, for a time, their selfish quests and work in support of the collective interest (Hogan and Kaiser, 2005). Although all the definitions cited above appear to be different in terms of wording, they

have one common theme which is the application of influence by one party on the other party towards the achievement of a common goal. This shows that leadership involves the leader, follower, process and the goal if it is to be effective.

2.2.2 Leadership Concept Explained

2.2.2.1 Whether leaders are born or made

Scholars who define leadership based on an individual perspective of focusing on personal traits believe that leadership is innate and as such there are only a few privileged individuals born endowed with the special talent of becoming leaders. This view is in contrast to the position taken by scholars who subscribe to the collective process of focusing on the social processes within group relationships who believe that leadership is contextual and as such everyone is capable of becoming a leader because it can be learnt (Owusu, Kalipeni, Aworthwi and Kiiru, 2015). Juxtaposing the two positions, one can see more merits in the later view than the former.

Basing on the study conducted by the Harvard Business Review of effective leaders, Robinson and O'Dea (2014) argued that leaders are not born but rather they become great throughout the course of their life by taking in experiences and letting the experiences guide them in their leadership style. However, Gumede (2017) takes the centre position by arguing that leadership involves skills that are either inherent or acquired which are necessary to manage, coordinate, facilitate and direct positive change.

2.2.2.2 Leadership and Management compared

Scholars such as Kotter (1990) cited in Owusu et al. (2015) believed that leadership is distinct from management in that while leadership focuses on coping with change, management on the other hand focuses on coping with complexity. Whereas leadership focuses on making sure people have done what needs to be done, management focuses on tasks and processes (Cotae, 2013). In that context, effective leaders are people who are capable of coming up with a creative vision and strategic direction for an organisation, communicating that vision to different stakeholders and inspiring and motivating them to achieve the same vision. Mowson (2001) cited in Uchenwamgbe (2013) believed that leaders do not succeed in management while managers in most instances do not necessarily make great leaders.

Mapunda (2007) claimed that in Africa the majority of the people whom we call leaders are not leaders but managers instead because they display management traits rather than leadership traits. However, scholars such as Mintzberg strongly opposed such distinctions and believed that the roles of managers and leaders are intertwined because managers have to lead and at the same time leaders have to manage (ibid). This narrative has been supported by Rauf (2014) who concluded that it is very difficult to find a difference between leadership and management.

2.2.2.3 The importance of followers in leadership

Leadership is a two-way process between leaders and followers where followers believe in the leader's vision and are inspired to recognise and pursue mutual goals and aspirations with their leaders (Mwangi, 2014; Youssef, 2013; Uchendu, Okpoko and Anugwom, 2010; Killian, 2007).

A leader should have the ability to convince others to follow him in pursuance of an identified goal (El Namaki, 2017). Success at leadership involves taking followers from one level to another level. In order to do that, leaders need to listen to their followers and do everything in their followers' best interest. An effective leader uplifts the lives of followers by responding to their needs and feelings (Mwangi, 2014). Mwangi opined that followers are important in the leadership matrix because they provide the vital feedback and contributions that are necessary for the leaders to effectively accomplish their tasks. The way followers understand and interpret the leader's personality, behaviours and effectiveness significantly affect leadership (Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber, 2009).

Effective leadership demands that leaders exhibit high levels of sensitivity towards their followers (Mwenje, 2015). It is highly critical for a leader to master the art of reading and understanding the people they work and interact with in terms of their needs, interests and attitudes. When leadership is understood as a social process involving the coordination of actions by interacting with individuals to achieve mutual goals, it becomes imperative that the needs and desires of followers should be examined (Van Vugt, 2006). Followers expect that leaders should exhibit higher standards of morality than others. Gabriel (2015) cited in Mango (2018) has concluded that if a leader fails in his/her moral authority the organisation will greatly suffer to an extent that it may be brought down.

Although traditionally leadership was consigned in positions, contemporary leadership is viewed as a role one moves in and out depending on the situation (Klingborg et al., 2006). Employees at every organisational level have begun to share in leadership (Stincelli and Baghurst, 2014). Rauf (2014) asserted that contemporary leaders should be prepared to exit their comfort zones and collaborate with other leaders and subordinates as well if objectives are to be met.

When followers are respected and seen as trustworthy, they can exert an enormous level of influence over the leadership process than formal leaders (Harris, 2005, cited in Stincelli and Baghurst, 2014). In such instances the follower will serve as an informal leader. A study exploring informal leadership qualities as perceived by employees and managers in small organisations discovered that employees perceived confidence, good communication, situational requirements, and being in touch with other employees as some of the qualities of informal leaders while managers perceived knowledge, skill and ability as the key qualities of informal leaders (ibid).

Although for a considerable period of time stakeholders have recognised informal leadership within an organisation, there still exists a dearth of literature pertaining to the attributes surrounding effective informal leadership (Stincelli and Baghurst, 2014). Owusu et al. (2015) claimed that a leadership evolution has taken place over the last century focusing on the style of leadership. Leadership has shifted from being hierarchical to non-hierarchical such that the roles of the leader and follower are no longer fixed or ranked. The implications are that anyone in a group can be either of the two.

Unfortunately, the quagmire of bad leadership cannot be solely blamed on the leaders themselves. Followers should squarely shoulder part of the blame, especially in Africa where Poncian and Mgaya (2015) opined that they are passive when it comes to holding their leaders accountable. Kets de Vries, Sexton and Parker Ellen 111 (2016) claimed that for destructive leadership to flourish the presence of a susceptible follower is a necessity. In such instances the leader will capitalise on the follower's unmet needs he/she can provide or ambition he/she can advance.

In order for followers to keep the leader in check, Uchendu et al. (2010) advocated for certain qualities such as being enlightened, educated and confident. However, in Africa, in addition to respecting leadership, followers are expected to exhibit humility

and an attitude of service in line with the spirit of ubuntu (Nell, 2017). Rather than challenging the decisions, followers exhibit an inherent trust and faith in the conduct of leaders. This expectation may negatively affect their capacity to demand accountability from leaders. This section has clearly articulated the importance of followers in the leadership process and as such the current study will take into consideration the role played by followers in proposing an effective leadership model for SMEs in Zimbabwe.

2.2.2.4 Attributes of effective leadership

Leadership ranks among one of the critical components of an organisation that determines whether the organisation succeeds or not (Kumar and Matheen, 2019). Since the universe is bedevilled with many socio-economic problems, many of which are a direct result of greed, Nicolaides and Duho (2019) postulated that organisations need strong leaders who are ethical themselves and support ethical conduct in their organisations.

Nkomo (1998) cited in Makaudze (2017) believed that leadership is a calling rather than a marketable commodity. It is characterised by human factors such as commitment, skill, capability, ability and accountability. Uchendu et al. (2010) described credibility, accountability, vision, integrity, selflessness, initiative, self-discipline, transparency, tolerance and readiness to serve as some of the most critical attributes that give birth to effective leadership.

Masango (2002) brings an interesting dimension into the leadership debate when he opines that leadership is earned by demonstrating compassion, justice and competency. In support of Masango's assertion that leadership is earned, Monjur (2015) observed that in accordance with the dictates of Islamic leadership, leadership comes to the leader rather than the leader seeking after it. A person who goes around seeking for leadership is automatically disqualified. Rather than seeing leadership as an end in itself, Uchenwamgbe (2013) views it as a means to an end.

Summarising Means (1989), Mwenje (2015) gives four attributes associated with effective leaders. Firstly, leaders are known to be active listeners who passionately desire to understand the needs of their followers. Secondly, they assemble a cohesive team through allowing participation and nurturing followers. Effective leaders after

understanding their followers' needs, reward and build them to their full capacity and lastly create a balance between individual, group and job priorities.

Leaders should have the courage to do what is right, although sometimes what is right might not be popular (Mango, 2018). Courage does not mean that leaders will not fear like other human beings. If leaders are to be successful and move their agenda forward, they need strong convictions (ibid). Those convictions should be based on moral beliefs that are socially and culturally acceptable.

Leavy (2003) cited in Mango (2018, p. 125) has asserted that "leadership that truly transforms is deeply rooted in values, convictions and principles of a more transcendent nature". This has been supported by Nicolaides and Duho (2019) who opined that effective leaders should act as inspirational role models of virtue, and principled and with moral leadership. However, scholars such as Kellerman (2004) believed that leadership is not a moral concept and as such to categorise all leaders as good people will be myopic and dangerous to the understanding of effective leadership.

The leader's personality is crucial in the leadership matrix (Bishop, 2012). Havaleschka (1999) cited in Bishop opined that the personality of the leader determines whether the organisation succeeds or fails. CIMA (2007) postulated that the effectiveness of a leader depends on the nature of the organisation he/she leads together with his/her personality. The leadership style chosen depends to a large extent on the personality of the leader (ibid).

Masango (2002) described an effective leader as one who is caring, supportive and does not exhibit tendencies of controlling others. Ali (2012) believed a good leader should act as a catalyst. Although the leader is kept informed, he/she does not interfere at all. When effective leaders are absent, things will not get done well. However, when success is achieved, they do not take credit and because they behave like that, credit is always with them (ibid). Effective leaders should have a lot of energy and drive (Mwenje, 2015). The ability of leaders to exhibit endurance and stamina by working long hours and investing their energy in a single direction which benefits the organisation without being distracted is highly valued.

Ali (2012) equates an effective leader with an orchestral conductor. A leader should be able to assemble potentially talented and different people, some of whom may have

strong personalities so that they work together to achieve a common goal. Klingborg et al. (2006) proposed ability to articulate and communicate a shared vision, communication, insight and self-awareness and ability to recruit motivated followers as the ingredients of effective leadership.

Effective leadership should respect different cultures while at the same time acknowledging that cultures are not static (Gumede, 2017). CIPD (2014) argued that the ability of individual leaders to apply their skills effectively depends on internal and external factors such as culture, structures and the wider economic and regulatory environment notwithstanding individual capabilities. Leaders are pivotal in nurturing the development of strong work cultures (Ardichvili, Natt och Dag and Manderscheid, 2016).

In a LEAD research project conducted in the east African countries of Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania, participants described effective leaders “as people who are visionary, goal-oriented and results-oriented” (Galperin et al., 2017, p. 15). In a study conducted in Botswana by Jones et al. (1995) cited in Blunt and Jones (1997), effective leaders were seen by public sector managers as those who provided a clear direction and targets together with a paternalistic and supportive management style. Galperin et al. were of the view that effective leaders should exhibit both directive and supportive behaviour in line with cross-cultural leadership literature. Without effective leadership, Kotter (1990) cited in Koech and Namusonge (2012) predicted the occurrence of two things; the increase in the chances of mistakes occurring and the reduction in the opportunities for success.

For principled and effective leadership, the power required to influence must go beyond the normally acknowledged sources such as legitimate or positional, referent or expert power (Mango, 2018). The ultimate authority must be moral authority. Mango argued that when morals are removed from the leadership matrix, it becomes extremely difficult to differentiate between good and bad leaders because even bad leaders will be effective in what they do.

One easy way of judging the effectiveness of leaders is to assess the size of the followers they are able to gather. Ali (2012) observed that if that standard of measure is used, people like Adolf Hitler were effective leaders at some point in their leadership journey although the effectiveness had been achieved through coercive techniques

and delusional promises. This goes on to show that leadership that is good and beneficial to society is not only about effectiveness but being effective doing the right thing. This principle is fundamental and will guide the current research as it proceeds further.

Effectiveness in leadership is not only dependent on the leader's characteristics as enunciated by the traits approach to leadership but also on the characteristics of the situation they find themselves in (Vidal, Campdesuner, Rodriguez and Vivar, 2017). This was supported by Grobler and Singh (2018) who referred to context as a fundamental component of leadership. Sharma and Jain (2013) asserted that in most instances the situation has a greater effect on the actions of the leader rather than his or her traits. For example, the quality of leaders any society can have depends to a large extent on the society from which the leaders emerge (Gumede, 2017). A society predicated on violence will find it very difficult to produce non-violent leaders.

Although most people trumpet the most commonly cited traits such as charisma, intelligence and uncompromising reason as the important factors in leadership success, Badaracco (2002) argued that it is actually the unconventional quiet skills such as persuasion, negotiation and people skills that matter most in leadership. Having charisma or intelligence does not guarantee that one will become an effective leader. Despite intelligence and personal charm, General Ibrahim Babangida did not succeed as a military head of state. Ebegbulem (2012) argued that his transition was the most expensive transition in Africa which produced no positive results at the end.

Effective leadership results in employees being satisfied (Dalluay and Jalagat, 2016; Albloshi and Nawar, 2015). A study by Popli and Rizvi (2016) showed a significant correlation between leadership and employee engagement. Effective leadership will result in engaged employees who are involved and exhibit greater enthusiasm for work. These employees will be excited to come to work and provide their all. Effective leadership results in employees who are motivated (Nyanga, 2013). Such employees will be committed to their work (Naile and Selesho, 2014). However, when leadership is ineffective, employees will exhibit less enthusiasm and will be detached from organisational activities (Gabriela and Dorinela, 2017). Such employees will not be willing to assume any additional responsibilities should they arise.

Effective leadership encompasses supporting employees in career development (Litano and Major, 2016). An effective leader is one who assists employees to reach the highest possible degree of personal development (Nyanga, 2012). Leaders who assist in the development of employees engender job satisfaction on the part of employees (Yoon, Chang, Sadique and Balushi, 2021). This will in turn bring in superior results (Mourao, 2018).

Effective leaders should continuously look for superior ways to influence employees to consistently achieve organisational goals (Igbaekemen, 2014). Leadership can only be seen as effective if it brings superior performance that results in the organisation achieving its goals consistently (Madanchian and Taherdoost, 2017). A study by Su and Baird (2017) found that effective leaders play a prominent role in enhancing the achievement of organisational goals. This is because effective leaders inspire employees to work hard to accomplish organisational goals (Meraku, 2017).

A number of attributes responsible for effective leadership have been discussed above. Although there is no consensus among scholars as to the most important attributes, the literature will be important for the current study in helping to identify the attributes exhibited by SME leaders in Zimbabwe, comparing them with attributes highly desired and favoured by followers and assessing their effectiveness before proposing an effective leadership model.

2.2.2.5 The critique of leadership as a concept

Although the majority of scholars believe in the importance and necessity of leadership, there are other scholars, though in the minority, who have shown some scepticism. Advancing the view of the critical-theorist, Kirk and Bolden (2006) described leadership as an idea created and disseminated by academics and practitioners aligned to the capitalist ideology to create an organising principle aimed at preserving power imbalances in work organisations and other social systems.

Alvesson and Sveningsson (2003) cited in Kirk and Bolden (2006) believed that descriptions about the nature of leadership are just a facade. Instead of probing for the truth about the concept which is a deceptive exercise, scholars should begin to seriously consider that leadership as a separate phenomenon is non-existent. Their argument is that there is nothing really called leadership beyond the use of the language. However, rather than totally rejecting the existence of leadership, Kirk and

Bolden believed that leadership is subjective. As such it should never be forgotten that leadership is an organic process that should always be reformed and perfected wherever it is practiced (Anyanwu, 2010).

The researcher failed to agree with Alvesson and Sveningsson and believed that leadership as a separate phenomenon is real. It is the reason why organisations and nations succeed while others fail. As Kirk and Bolden argued, it is subjective and open to different and sometimes conflicting interpretations. As such it is open to reform rather than outright dismissal.

2.3 African Leadership

2.3.1 The irrelevance of Western-oriented leadership in Africa

Ugwuegbu (2001) cited in Littrell, (2011) asserted that the underdevelopment of organisations in many African countries stems from problems of leadership. The capacity of Africa to develop globally has been negatively impacted by the continent's penchant adoption of Western management and leadership practices (Nwagbara, 2011). This is despite the fact that scholars such as Okantey (2014), Nkomo (2011) and Ngambi (2004) have argued against the applicability and effectiveness of Western leadership practices in Africa due to differences in culture and context.

However, the application of Western leadership approaches continues unhindered as a result of a dearth in leadership research coming out of the African continent (Ngunjiri, 2016). Most leadership publications originated in the West (Blunt and Jones, 1997) and most leadership studies were conducted and tested in Western contexts (Aktas, Gelfand and Hanges, 2016). Non-Western perspectives including African voices are silent in leadership and management theories (Jack & Westwood, 2009). When it comes to the English-speaking literature on leadership, Metz (2018) was of the view that native African philosophies are under-represented.

In management textbooks, African leadership and management is largely invisible. Poncian and Mgaya (2015) bemoaned the fact that most literature about Africa has been produced by non-Africans and whenever Africans try to write their own story, it has been "dismissed as nationalist historiography worth nothing other than trying to revive the dead past" (p. 109). However, this does not mean that the whole blame

should be put squarely on the doorstep of the Western researchers for forcing their narrative on Africa, the continent should shoulder part of the blame.

Analysing Graham and Ojanpera (2015)'s analysis based on data obtained from SAGE Publications Limited, Oppong (2017) reported that out of 53 African countries, only 13 submitted papers to management and organisational studies journals. Of the 13 countries with submissions, only 4 had papers accepted. In support of the narrative that management research in Africa is limited, George et al. (2016) reported that approximately 2% of authors are based on the continent. The dearth of empirical sophistication in the ideas developed has negatively affected an intense desire of theorising leadership in Africa (Eyong, 2017). This showed that there exists a gap of literature focusing on leadership in Africa emanating from African scholars. The current study will contribute to the literature and play a meaningful role in helping to close that gap.

Since Western theories have not been of much benefit to the continent, scholars such as Eyong (2017); Iwowo (2015); Oloruntoba (2015); Nkomo (2011); Mbigi (2005); Ngambi (2004); and Mangaliso (2001) have advocated for the establishment and institutionalisation of indigenous leadership models supported by endogenous knowledge production as compared to imported knowledge. In support of the above assertions, the current study endeavours to propose an Afrocentric leadership model for SMEs in Zimbabwe.

2.3.2 Traditional African leadership as a basis for contemporary effective leadership.

The continent of Africa boasts of a rich heritage of leadership although it is not uniform across (Masango, 2002). This has been supported by scholars such as Makahamadze, Grand and Tavuyanago (2009) and Dodo (2013), all cited in Haang'andu and Be'land (2019) who have acknowledged that although Zimbabwe like all other Southern African countries boasted of a tradition of pre-colonial ethnic leadership that could be characterised as rich, the emergence of colonialism changed the landscape. Colonisation was aimed at the economic control of the continent by the colonial masters.

However, economic control was not going to be complete without both political and cultural control hence the demonisation of the ways of life of the indigenous people by

the coloniser (Makaudze, 2017). However, this does not mean that African leadership as practiced before colonisation was perfect. Although it had its own flaws, for a start it existed. As such, the current study will use it as a basis for developing an Afrocentric leadership model for SMEs in Zimbabwe.

Rather than being invested in one person, leadership in Africa was shared by all community members although in some instances this custom was violated through dictatorship (Masango, 2002). This sharing was such that one could be a leader in a certain context while being a follower in another. Eyong (2017) opined that for certain events such as communicating with the gods or pouring libation, leadership passed from the appointed leader to certain respected individuals in the community. The widely cherished management concept of decentralisation was also practiced in Africa. Since the Ndebele state was big it could not be managed centrally hence power was decentralised (Ndlovu and Dube, 2012). This was also a mechanism to prevent the king from abusing power.

Although Western and Confucian traditions recommend consultation with employees, Afro-communal leadership demands consensual democracy when taking decisions. Democratic ideals, consultation and inclusivity constitute the foundation of the African philosophy (Nicolaidis and Duho, 2019). Democracy in Africa preceded the Western democracy model (Poncian and Mgaya, 2015). Instead of being based on the majority principle, the African model was based on the principles of unanimity and consensus.

Metz (2018) explained that advocates of African leadership such as Rukuni, (2009); Boon (2007); Bhengu (2006); and Mbigi & Maree (2005) have strongly advocated for the use of ritual, prayer, song and dance as a way of bringing people closer together on an emotional level so as to realise the value of communion. Mbigi (2007) claimed that productivity and profitability increased vividly at Eastern Highlands Tea Estates in Zimbabwe after introducing 'Dandaro' procedures to employee and management education. Mbigi explained Dandaro as "a night ceremony or vigil accompanied by trance dancing, music, collective singing and drumming around a key strategic theme, punctuated by insights from psychic visioning experiences" (p. 6).

The fact that leadership styles and behaviours exhibited in Africa may be conspicuously different from those exhibited in other parts of the world does not render them ineffective (Kuada, 2010). As a warning, Nkomo, Zoogah and Acquah (2015)

asserted that indigenous theories should not be underestimated irrespective of the domination of Western management theories. In support, Oppong (2017) advocated for the deconstruction of the Western narrative of Africa which has been necessitated by centuries of colonisation.

Scholars such as Nicolaides and Duho (2019); Makaudze (2017); Okantey (2014); Msila (2014); Nwagbara (2011); and Naidoo (2009) have exhorted the continent to take a journey back to its roots and adopt relevant neglected practices based on the African culture and traditions since mainstream management literature can be enriched by these indigenous and traditional concepts. However, so far there are no known studies that have been undertaken to ascertain the effect of traditional leadership practices on Zimbabwean organisations and it constitutes a gap that the current study endeavours to fill.

Ngunjiri (2016) believed that although being dependent on Western leadership approaches in Africa is not the solution, the continent should not throw away everything that comes from the Anglo-American context but extract what is relevant to the African context. Blunt and Jones (1997) postulated that Western concepts may be difficult to resist when local alternatives are absent. The researcher agrees with Ngunjiri's assertion and believes that instead of discarding everything that is non-African, the continent should embrace what is applicable to its leadership discourse. As such the current study will propose an AEL model by embracing and including concepts that are non-African but applicable.

Although critics have argued against the practicality of adopting the traditional African leadership which was largely ethnic-specific, in the context of today's modern and pluralistic society, Haang'andu and Be'land (2019) have argued that the major goal is not to impose one cultural identity over others but to draw progressive lessons from pre-colonial values and norms of leadership and model contemporary institutions around these. Gumede (2017) explained that going back does not mean that Africa should replicate exactly what was being done centuries ago before colonisation because situations have changed.

Although it may be difficult to revive and adopt traditional leadership practices in their entirety because of changed circumstances partly driven by globalisation and modernity, the current study will adopt and use those practices that are still relevant

to the 21st century leadership discourse. These relevant practices will be used prominently in the development of an AEL model for SMEs in Zimbabwe.

2.3.3 Ubuntu Philosophy as a basis of effective leadership

Ubuntu is a native African concept (Ambrosio, 2018), a way of life among the people of sub-Saharan Africa (Koenane and Olatunji, 2017) that has kept communities together due to its tenets and practices (Nzimakwe, 2014). It cherishes the importance of community, harmony, sharing and caring. It offers moral guiding values in leadership (Meylahn and Musiyambiri, 2017). Ubuntu is predicated on the principle of cherishing the humanity and dignity of each person notwithstanding the differences in social identities (Tutu, 1999). Broodryk (2006, p.2) cited in Muller, Smith and Lillah (2019, p.2) defined ubuntu as “an African worldview based on the primary values of intense humaneness, caring, sharing, respect, compassion and associated values, ensuring a happy and qualitative human community life in the spirit of family”. Nzimakwe (2014, p.31) defined it as “humaneness, a pervasive spirit of caring and community, harmony and hospitality, respect and responsiveness that individuals and groups display for one another”.

Ubuntu can act as a basis of leadership development and practice in Africa which is more contextually and culturally relevant (Galperin and Alamuri, 2017; Ngunjiri, 2016; Msila, 2015). Most scholars and researchers according to Brack et al. (2003) cited in Nzimakwe (2014) are of the view that if managers and leaders are to obtain buy in from those that they endeavour to assist, organisations and institutions should be modelled around the philosophy of ubuntu.

Quoting scholars such as Sigger et al. (2010), Inyang (2008) and Mangaliso (2001), Pio, Waddock, Mangaliso, McIntosh, Spiller, Takeda, Gladstone, Ho and Syed (2013) reported that research carried out in a number of African countries which included Malawi, Senegal, South Africa, Tanzania and Zimbabwe showed that companies that had adopted philosophies that were human centered such as ubuntu performed beyond the norm. Companies such as SABMiller and Cashbuild Cash and Carry were highlighted. Ubuntu and other African values have the potential to act as a positive force in the African workplace (Nzimakwe, 2014). This proves that including ubuntu principles in management provides superior approaches to managing organisations and institutions.

In a study conducted by Brubaker (2013) in Rwanda to ascertain the relationship between ubuntu-related leadership and leadership effectiveness, it was found that ubuntu-related leadership is strongly and positively related to leader effectiveness. If people who value and practice the ubuntu philosophy dominate corporate structures such as the board of directors, chief executive officer positions and management, there is high potential that such organisations will implement good corporate governance principles through their influence thereby benefiting the entire community (Magang and Magang, 2017).

However, although ubuntu is a noble philosophy, it has also received its fair share of criticism. Brubaker (2013) highlighted the lack of meaningful research on ubuntu outside South Africa and that most of the studies have been conceptual and qualitative rather than quantitative. Although the current study is not about ubuntu per se, it will propose it as an essential variable affecting effective leadership thereby contributing to the enrichment of literature on ubuntu outside South Africa.

Matolino and Kwindigwi (2013) believed that the notion of ubuntu is outdated such that its revival will bring more dangers than benefits. However, this assertion has been strongly opposed by Koenane and Olatunji (2017) who argued that in calling for the end of ubuntu without proffering an alternative, Matolino and Kwindigwi did not offer adequate reasoning to authenticate their position. However, rather than calling for an end to ubuntu as espoused by Matolino and Kwindigwi and partially supported by Chimakonam (2016), it might be more prudent to work on its transformation so as not to lose all the benefits accruing from such a noble philosophy.

2.4 The Influence of Culture on Leadership

Organisational studies and cross-cultural literature have lately recognised the link between culture, organisational performance and employee behaviour and attitudes (Warrick, 2017) and between culture and leadership (House, Javidan, Hanges and Dorfman, 2002). This proved culture to be a significant factor in understanding leadership in organisations (Nwadike, 2011). As such leadership styles and behaviours cannot be understood without taking into consideration society's culture (Kuada, 2010). However, culture is different. While cultures of some societies accept autocratic leadership, other cultures accept nothing short of participatory leadership behaviour (ibid). Hence it becomes difficult to discern the universal ingredients of a

good leader, especially in the light of incompatible value systems around the world (Metz, 2018).

Although culture was first defined by Edward B. Taylor in 1871 in his seminal work titled *Primitive Culture*, social scientists have failed to come up with a universal definition (House et al, 2002). As such there are as many definitions as the scholars who have shown interest in the phenomenon (Idang, 2015). Culture includes peculiar traits such as language, religion, music, dressing, dancing, work and arts and also values, social norms and taboos which separates a particular society from other societies (Idang). Roberts (1970) cited in Kuada (2010, p. 13) viewed culture as “the shared values and norms that bind members of a society or organisation together as a homogenous entity”. Kisau (2018, p. 10) without differing much from the others defined it as “the sum total of beliefs, values, behaviour, and objects that together define people’s way of life”. From the three definitions given above, one can conclude that culture distinguishes a group of people from other human societies. This study will adopt and use Kisau’s definition.

Dorfman et al. (2012) observed that leadership behaviours are directly influenced by national cultures through expectations that societies have of leadership. It is highly unlikely to find managers behaving in a manner that is not consistent with leadership models sanctioned within their cultures. The ability to match expectations and leadership behaviour determines whether leaders are effective or not. For example, in societies that value group solidarity such as in SSA, leaders who engender high levels of effort and commitment amongst their subordinates are the ones who exhibit those attributes.

Management effectiveness is also hard to increase when managers are taught theories that oppose their cultures (Lutz, 2009). In a study to investigate the effect of cultural dimensions on entrepreneurial performance of SMEs in Zimbabwe, Munyanyi, Chiromba, Diza, Magweva and Muzvidziwa (2018) found a significant and positive influence between cultural dimensions and entrepreneurial performance. Haniffa and Cooke (2002) cited in Magang and Magang (2017) postulated that traditions followed by a nation are inculcated in the population and might help explain why things appear as they do.

However, contrary to conventional wisdom, Dorfman et al. (2012) discovered that national culture does not directly predict leadership behaviour but only acts as an antecedent influencing leadership expectation. However, national culture has an effect of shaping the leadership styles exhibited by the nation's citizens as a result of its effect on the development of generally held leadership theories in that nation (ibid). For example, leaders working in societies that value participatory leadership will to a larger extent exhibit participatory predisposition while those operating in societies that cherish humane leadership will act accordingly.

2.4.1 Culture in the context of Africa

Although there are many different ethnic nationalities inhabiting Africa, Idang (2015) observed that inhabitants of the continent share some similar values and central traits within their belief system that makes them distinct from other peoples of the world. This assertion has been supported by Wanasika et al. (2011) who opined that countries in the SSA region can be viewed as a single entity because of many cultural and historical similarities. In contrast, Dorfman et al. (2012) opined that as a result of the co-existence of opposing cultural characteristics such as individualistic and collective predispositions, egalitarian and hierarchical institutions and tribal and modern societies, SSA is a thought-provoking region for the study of leadership. However, despite all this, when it comes to leadership development, African culture is either ignored completely or seen as a hindrance to effective leadership (Malunga, 2006).

Africa as a continent differs from all the other continents (Thwala, 2018). In a study by Hofstede in 1980, SSA showed analogous cultural characteristics which are different from the other parts of the world (Oppong, 2017). Oppong gives features which are important in developing leaders such as “communal spirit, belief in ancestral spirits and deities, rurality, informal settlements, respect for the elderly” as the differentiators between Africa and the rest of the world in socio-culture (p. 242). Unfamiliarity with the African culture can lead one to be mistaken about what counts as a good leader (Metz, 2018).

An analysis of the extant literature on the relationship between African culture and leadership showed that scholars have divergent views pertaining to how culture influences leadership on the continent (Kuada, 2010). While other scholars welcome

African culture as the basis of the distinctiveness of the leadership styles practiced across the continent, others project African culture as the reason for leadership ineffectiveness. These divergent views are not only limited to African culture and leadership but to the relationship between culture and leadership in general. House et al. (2002) noted that there exist some scholars who believe that certain facets of leadership transcend cultural boundaries and as such may be acceptable in all the cultures while other scholars greatly oppose that thesis.

After a careful analysis of the two perspectives on the relationship between African culture and leadership, Kuada (2010) concluded that there are aspects of African culture that promote and enhance positive leadership behaviour while at the same time there exists aspects that also inhibit effective leadership and management practices. As such he passionately advocated for the rescinding of some of the established traditions and the challenging of long held assumptions that have never been scrutinized for centuries. In proposing a leadership model for Zimbabwean SMEs, the current study will leverage on aspects of African culture that promote and enhance positive leadership behaviour while at the same time leaving out those aspects that impede effective leadership.

Wanasika et al. (2011) observed strong power distance relationships in SSA which are based on gender, age and status. Age and experience are the basis of gaining authority in high power distance cultures with the authority being enforced through centralisation of power (Magang and Magang, 2017). Because of the paternalistic nature of the leaders in high power distance cultures, employees find it very hard to disagree with their superiors. This may be explained by the fact that subordinates fear their superiors and endeavour not to offend them (Mittal and Elias, 2015).

Management and leadership practices in Africa emphasise on deference to authority, importance of commitment, sharing, compromise and consensus, and good social and personal relations (Kuada, 2010). However, the deference to authority found in African societies is misconstrued as authoritarian when viewed through Western lenses (April and Ephraim, 2010).

When it comes to decisions in African organisations especially among peers, they are characterised by protracted discussions and negotiations resulting in consensus (Littrell, 2011). Kisau (2018) opined that the accommodation layer in the African culture

sometimes does not allow one to say no even in circumstances where no will be the appropriate response. This is the reason someone agrees to something but unfortunately does nothing at all or does the opposite of what they agreed upon.

In an era of employee empowerment and creativity, Kuada (2010) observed that African employees are micro-managed rather than motivated as expected in other societies. This has been necessitated by the fact that post-independence leadership styles in Africa, both in the private and public organisations have largely remained autocratic, dictatorial and incompetent (Nwankwo and Richards, 2001, cited in Kuada). This has all resulted in employees exercising extreme caution in the exercise of their duties and responsibilities so that they will by all means avoid mistakes that may anger their superiors. However, the ensuing challenge is that without making mistakes, there will also be corresponding minimum learning taking place as the old adage says 'we learn from our mistakes'. Although African leaders display autocratic tendencies towards their employees, Kuada (2010) observed that in order to sustain superior-subordinate relationships, those who are closest to them and subservient to their interests are provided with special opportunities and privileges.

As a result of the presumed relationship between age and wisdom, elders are deeply respected in African societies (Beugre and Offodile, 2001; cited in Littrell, 2011; Wanasika et al., 2011). Dorfman et al. (2012) discovered that in SSA countries, individuals who were male and advanced in age were given more respect and leadership positions. This has been corroborated by von Rueden and van Vugt (2015) who opined that in small-scale societies there exists a correlation between leadership and age. The reason being that age has always been associated with seniority and the accumulation of wisdom (Wanasika et al., 2011).

In African culture, elders are given the highest status because they are considered to have lived a purposeful life that authorises them to give the much-desired wisdom (Kisau, 2018). This is because Africans believe that as men grow older, they gain wisdom and earn respect (Littrell, 2011). However, in order to exercise their responsibilities well, the elders should be above politics and religion. However, Malunga (2006) postulated that if not taken carefully, respect for elders may unintentionally lead to blind loyalty for old ideas that may not be relevant anymore.

Wanasika et al. (2011) observed that a culture of tribalism is sturdily entrenched in the social fabric of most SSA countries and plays an important role in how people think and socialise. This has negatively resulted in leaders emerging and being accepted based on their ethnic origins in both social and organisational contexts. Juxtaposed with corruption, poverty and violence, these factors have played a pivotal role in the advent of the archetypal 'African strong man' type of leader with rent seeking tendencies who uses whatever means possible to retain their power. Adjeboye (2018) argued that nepotism affects leadership succession in most African organisations. Most leaders blinded by ethnic and religious inclinations prefer to be succeeded by their kinsmen or kinswomen irrespective of whether they are suitable or not. This might be the reason why a number of organisations in Africa fail or regress in performance after leadership transition.

In a LEAD project on East African countries Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania, it was found that leadership styles that are in line with communal values are preferred in the region rather than leadership styles that are consistent with individualistic traits found mostly in Western countries (Galperin et al., 2017). The results of the LEAD project were in line with the results of the GLOBE survey on the Autonomous leadership dimension. SSA's score was 3.63 which was in the lowest group of the culture cluster scores for GLOBE (Wanasika et al., 2011). The conclusion was that independent and individualistic (Autonomous) leadership inhibited outstanding leadership. Taking the results of the LEAD project as the foundation, the current study will try to ascertain whether leadership styles found in Zimbabwean SMEs are in line with communal values.

2.4.2 Culture in the context of Zimbabwe

In countries with relatively high-power distance cultures such as Zimbabwe, children exhibit utmost respect and deference towards the father because they have learnt that the father is the ultimate authority in the family (Dorfman et al., 2012). Employees in such cultures readily accept autocratic leadership styles because just like children they believe the manager (father) knows what is best for the organisation (family) and will make good decisions for that organisation. In addition, they are prepared and ready to comply and follow the decisions made by the manager. Although there is no guarantee that older people will be better leaders as compared to younger employees, the current

study will explore further the role played by age in leadership in the context of Zimbabwean SMEs.

In Zimbabwe, leaders were traditionally believed to have been selected or approved by the ancestors since sacred leadership entailed a connection between the leader, ancestors and God (Huffman, 2000). It was believed that a leader's power rested on the belief that his ancestors had a responsibility of interceding for him for the benefit of both the land and his subjects. The importance of religion in African society, irrespective of the type of religion, has been supported by Idang (2015) who postulated that every activity in African society revolves around religion. Since religion is important and occupies an eminent role in African lives, the current study will take it into consideration when proposing an effective leadership model for SMEs in Zimbabwe.

In African culture, women have for a long time been taken to be inferior to men (Dlamini, Mathabela and Mazibuko, 2018). Ngunjiri (2016) believed that the problem is that most African men were raised in the belief that women are inferior and men superior. This is aptly captured in the ESwatini culture where women are occasionally referred to as the children of their husbands (Dlamini et al). As such men are regarded as the heads of their families and act as breadwinners, taking care of the security and economic needs of their families (Wanasika et al., 2011; Littrell, 2011). Dlamini et al. believed that the ideology of male superiority has discouraged many women from aspiring for leadership positions in African society.

Women in Lupane, Matabeleland North, Zimbabwe have argued that their culture does not allow them to be assertive with men (Chitsike, 2000). This is the reason why most women fell prey and are swindled by men in their SMEs in large numbers. Dlamini et al. (2018) observed that many women fail to assert themselves the same way as men do hence some of these barriers are self-imposed. Chitsike believed that women in Zimbabwe have been traditionally socialised to associate money making with immorality hence the Shona saying *anoda mari sehure* (she loves money like a prostitute). Looking at how women have been disadvantaged and sidelined in leadership matters as a result of cultural beliefs, there is need for empirical evidence on whether such cultural aspects are valid or need to be discarded in the best interest of effective leadership.

However, although women have had little role to play in leadership, Heffernan (2008) cited in Matar (2015) believed that they create better organisational cultures that are appropriate for the contemporary economy because they are values-oriented, less ego-driven and more flexible than their male contemporaries. Fondas (1997) cited in Knopik and Moerer (2008) opined that from the perspective of transformational leadership behaviours, women are more effective than men. This was supported in research by Carless (1998) cited in Nwadike (2011) of female metropolitan branch managers who saw themselves as likely to use transformational leadership more than male managers. The leadership style exhibited by women entrepreneurs is distinct from the one exhibited by male entrepreneurs (Kuppusamy, Ganesan and Rosada, 2010). Women create relationships that are based on trust with employees coupled with open communication, decentralisation and empowerment.

A leadership style preferred in a collectivist culture is different from the one predominantly used in an individualistic culture. A directive and supportive leadership style is mostly used in African collectivist cultures where the interest of the group takes precedence over that of the individual and where greater prominence is placed on group relations and follower well-being. This is in contrast with Western, individualistic cultures where participative leadership style is highly favoured (Galperin et al., 2017). However, this is in direct contrast to Feldman and Msibi (2014)'s postulation that participative and servant leadership styles are associated with Afrocentric leadership while directive leadership is more consistent with Eurocentric leadership.

In a GLOBE study of 5 SSA countries namely Nigeria, Namibia, South Africa (black sample), Zambia and Zimbabwe, Wanasika et al. (2011) found the region to be high in assertiveness and power distance as compared to other GLOBE countries. Similarly, in the Thomas and Bendixen (2000) project reported in Littrell (2011), black South African samples were found to be higher in power distance and collectivism than the white and Asian samples. However, the high-power distance experienced in most SSA countries has been found to have likely limited the propensity of leaders to involve subordinates in crafting and implementing decisions (Wanasika et al). GLOBE results are in contrast with Feldman and Msibi (2014)'s assertion that Afrocentric leadership is more participative and support Galperin et al. (2017)'s postulation that African collectivist cultures favour directive and supportive leadership style.

Humane Orientation and Uncertainty Avoidance were found to be moderate (Wanasika et al., 2011). This was despite respondents indicating that they preferred the region to have more Humane Orientation in leadership consistent with traditional cultural expectations and more Uncertainty Avoidance probably as a way of seeking protection from endemic corruption and violence experienced in certain parts of the region. Humane Oriented leadership encompasses behaviours by leaders that are considerate and supportive and is consistent with the philosophy of ubuntu.

Zimbabwe scored a mean score of 5.18 which was slightly higher than the mean score for the SSA region of 5.16 in the GLOBE survey. However, it is worth noting that among the five SSA countries sampled in the study, Zimbabwe was third with Nigeria leading with 5.49. Wanasika et al. (2011) observed the importance of Humane Oriented leadership dimension in outstanding leadership especially in the context of poverty, corruption and violence ubiquitous in the region. Mittal and Elias (2015) proposed rules, norms and procedures as solutions to uncertainty experienced in a high-uncertainty organisational setting.

Respondents from Zimbabwe and Namibia regarded Charismatic/Value-Based leadership as significant for outstanding leadership (Wanasika et al., 2011). Zimbabwe had the highest mean score of 6.11 as compared to the region's average score of 5.79. On Team Oriented leadership, Zimbabwe had the highest mean score of 5.97 compared to 5.70 which was SSA's average mean score. This showed that Zimbabwe regarded leadership emphasising on effective team building and implementation of a communal purpose among team members as important for outstanding leadership.

An analysis of culture in general and in Africa and Zimbabwe specifically has shown that culture contains aspects that are both positive and negative. As such, Idang (2015) proposed that positive dimensions of African culture should be practiced and passed on to subsequent generations while the negative aspects should be dropped so that a progressive and modern society is built. In line with Idang's proposal, the current study will adopt the positive aspects of the Zimbabwean culture and leave out the negative aspects when proposing the conceptual framework for leadership in SMEs.

2.5 The Concept of SMEs

SMEs are key to the growth and sustainable development of every country and can be regarded as a springboard to industrialisation (Muriithi, 2017). They are viewed as an authentic mechanism of economic growth and poverty alleviation (Dumbu, 2014), hailed as the seedbed for the development of big organisations and the life blood of economic sustainability in a turbulent environment (Chivasa, 2014). Chipangura and Kaseke (2012, p. 40) correctly viewed them as “the seedbed of entrepreneurship development”. In an effort to create jobs and improve economies, many governments have taken active steps to encourage the establishment and growth of SMEs (Yon and Evans, 2011).

2.5.1 Definition of SMEs

Wickham (2004) cited in Mamman, Kanu, Alharbi and Baydoun (2015) opined that when it comes to SMEs, it is rather easy to describe than define them. According to the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), there exists a diversity of definitions that can be given to SMEs around the globe (Yon and Evans, 2011). The definition depends to a larger extent on the country and economy they operate in and the development of the businesses and economy within that country (ibid). As such there is no consistency of definitions across different nations. In support, Chivasa (2014) stated that there is no agreement on the definition of SMEs such that it is not unusual to find varying definitions used within the same country.

SMEs have been long defined in terms of number of employees, turnover levels and total asset values (Mugozhi and Hlabiso, 2017). Yon and Evans (2011) opined that the most common used indicator when defining SMEs is the number of people employed in the organisation because it is the easiest to measure and collect. Mamman et al. (2015) observed that when classifying SMEs using number of employees, countries with larger populations such as China and India will have a higher cut-off point as compared to countries with smaller populations such as Swaziland and Botswana. While in the Chinese manufacturing and construction sector, an enterprise with less than 2000 employees is categorised as a SME, in Sierra Leone an enterprise with less than 20 employees is classified as a SME (ibid).

In the European Union (EU), enterprises with no employees are categorised as self-employed businesses while those with between 2 and 9 are referred to as micro

businesses (Yon and Evans, 2011). Those that employ between 10 and 49 employees are categorised as small businesses and those with between 50 and 249 employees are medium businesses. The International Finance Corporation (IFC) defines SMEs as “registered businesses with less than 250 employees, which contribute heavily to employment and GDP, grow in ways linked to the formalisation of an economy, and often have great difficulty accessing financial services in many emerging markets” (Yon and Evans, 2011, p. 4).

According to the Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC), a business employing between 5 and 19 employees is categorised as a small business while those employing between 20 and 99 employees are categorised as medium sized businesses (USAID, 2007, cited in Yon and Evans, 2011). In the OECD, micro enterprises are defined as those organisations with less than 10 employees while small organisations employ less than 50 employees (Mugozhi and Hlabiso, 2017).

SEDCO without differentiating between a small and a medium enterprise defined a SME as an organisation that employs less than 100 people and achieves a maximum sales turnover of US\$ 830 000 (Tinarwo, 2016; Bomani et al, 2015). The Confederation of Zimbabwe Industries (CZI) in 2010 defined a small business as one that employed between one and twenty employees while generating an annual turnover below US\$4 million (Chipangura and Kaseke, 2012). A medium scale enterprise was defined as a business which generates an annual turnover between US\$4 million and US\$4.5 million while employing between twenty-one and thirty-five employees (ibid).

According to the Small Enterprises Development Corporation Amendment of 2011 MSMEs are defined by the number of employees including individual entrepreneurs who employ no one, micro businesses with between 1 and 5 employees, as well as small businesses employing 6 to 30/40 employees – depending on the sector - and lastly medium size businesses with 31/41 to 75 employees (FinScope, 2012, p. 6) as shown by table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1: Examples of classifications of MSMEs

Sector	Micro (24%)	Small (4%)	Medium (1%)
Agriculture	1 – 5	6 – 30	31 – 75
Manufacturing	1 – 5	6 – 40	41 – 75
Retail	1 – 5	6 – 30	31 – 75

Source: FinScope (2012)

Zimbabwe Revenue Authority (ZIMRA) has managed to combine employment levels, annual turnover and gross value of assets in coming up with the definition of SMEs (Mugozhi and Hlabiso, 2017) as shown by table 2.2 below. Factors A, B, and C are added together for every enterprise and any enterprise with a total score below 7 is automatically categorised as a SME.

Table 2.2: ZIMRA'S point conversion table

Base	Range	Point	Factor
Employment Levels	Up to 5 employees	1	A
	6 to 40 employees	2	A
	41 to 75 employees	3	A
	76 and above	4	A
Annual Turnover	Up to \$50,000	1	B
	\$50,001 to \$500,000	2	B
	\$500,001 to \$1,000,000	3	B
	\$1,000,001 and above	4	B
Gross value of assets	Up to \$50,000	1	C
	\$50,001 to \$1,000,000	2	C
	\$1,000,001 to \$2,000,000	3	C
	\$2,000,001 and above	4	C

Source: Mugozhi and Hlabiso (2017)

Since information about the number of employees and the value of sales is not always readily available, Yon and Evans (2011) observed that in some countries the size of loans taken by organisations of a certain size from financial institutions is used although it might lack validity as the other measures. Van de Vaart and Gibson (2008) cited in Mgeni (2016) observed that some countries use the formulae criteria in

defining SMEs. In that case any organisation with an annual turnover in US dollars of between 10 and 1000 times the mean per capita gross national income, at purchasing power parity, of the nation in which it is domiciled will constitute a SME. This study will adopt the ZIMRA point conversion table in categorising SMEs.

2.5.2 The Emergence of SMEs in Zimbabwe

The number of business start-ups has grown in Zimbabwe over the past twenty years (Tinarwo, 2016). Machipisa (2008) summarised by Tinarwo estimated that Zimbabwe had approximately ten thousand SMEs controlling 65% of the total corporate purchasing power. Chivasa (2014) opined that if the economy is to witness an increased growth in SMEs, government should make sure that nurturing and mentoring SMEs is part of the macroeconomic policy.

Evidence has proved that SMEs contribute immensely towards GDP, employment creation and the number of businesses operating in many countries around the world. In the OECD, SMEs account for between 95% and 99% of enterprises and are responsible for generating between 60% and 70% of employment (Yon and Evans, 2011). In the United Kingdom (UK) 62% of the population is employed in SMEs while 25% of national GDP is generated by SMEs (Day, 2004; cited in Muriithi, 2017). In China, 80% of the urban population is employed in SMEs while the sector contributes 60% towards GDP (Sham, 2014; cited in Muriithi, 2017). SMEs employing less than 500 employees are the key drivers of the USA economy, providing employment to approximately half of the nation's workforce (Chinembiri, 2011).

In Africa, SMEs account for 90% of businesses that are operational, employing 50% of the populace and contributing 50% towards the continental GDP (Tinarwo, 2016). In South Africa, SMEs account for almost 60% of employment creation and contribute between 51% and 57% towards GDP (Kongolo, 2010 cited in Chinembiri, 2011) while in Kenya they contribute 40% towards national GDP and 80% towards employment (Mwarari and Ngugi, 2013).

However, Chinembiri (2011) observed that national statistics on economic indicators such as GDP, particularly in developing nations, do not show the true picture of the contribution by SMEs because although most of them are improperly defined as informal they are actually in formal business, operating just like any other business in the country. Chinembiri has a point because while most SMEs contribute immensely

to their nations, their contributions are mostly unaccounted for as a result of many factors including regulatory challenges. In Saudi Arabia, Albloshi and Nawar (2015) observed that although SMEs account for the largest number of businesses in the country, the sector's contribution to economic development is relatively negligible.

In Zimbabwe, approximately 5.7 million people are involved in the MSME sector either as owners (2.8 million) or employees (2.9 million) (FinScope, 2012) with the sector contributing an estimated 70% towards the country's GDP (RBZ, 2011 cited in Chinembiri, 2011). Mangudya (2017) believed that the MSME sector employed more than 5.7 million Zimbabweans, particularly the youths who are below 35 years. No recent studies have been carried out to ascertain the number of MSMEs currently operating in Zimbabwe. There is need for current studies which are national in outlook to determine the true nature of MSMEs in Zimbabwe.

85% of MSMEs operate in the informal sector without having been registered or licensed (Mukorera, 2019). The estimated turnover from this sector in 2012 was US\$ 7.4 billion (FinScope, 2012) though the actual figure may be high taking into account that the majority are informal and unregistered. The majority of MSME owners are situated in the rural areas and they engage mainly in agriculture, retail and wholesale related activities (ibid). These statistics revealed that Zimbabwe as an economy is highly dependent on the MSME sector both in terms of employment and GDP. Although SMEs lead in terms of employment and number of companies established in both developed and developing nations, Chinembiri (2011) claimed that their potential is yet to be fully realised.

Categorising MSMEs by province in Zimbabwe, Manicaland boasts of the highest number of individual entrepreneurs with 84.8% as compared to 71.6% for the entire country while Masvingo commands the highest percentage of micro businesses at 37.8% in comparison to 23.8% for the entire country. The highest proportion of small businesses is found in Mashonaland West province with 6.2% of businesses as compared to 3.9% for the whole nation while Bulawayo boasts of the highest number of medium-sized businesses at 3.8% in comparison to 0.7% for the whole nation (FinScope, 2012. p. 19).

Many SMEs were established for subsistence (Karedza et al., 2014). A survey conducted by FinScope (2012) found that Zimbabwean SMEs are survivalist rather

than opportunity based. After the ESAP induced retrenchments and the severe droughts of the early 1990s, SMEs became an avenue of survival or complementing the household income. Mavengere (2015) asserted that as deindustrialisation gave birth to a loss of formal employment, the country experienced a growth in SMEs. Bomani et al. (2015) have also credited ESAP with the creation of an environment that was conducive for the establishment of SMEs.

Chivasa (2014) asserted that the deregulation that followed the adoption of ESAP led to the burgeoning of SMEs with local authorities setting aside land reserved for SMEs such as Siyaso Home Industry in Harare and Makokoba Home Industry in Bulawayo. This has been corroborated by Zindiye et al. (2012) who argued that economic reforms of 1991 were the impetus for the change in attitude by the Zimbabwean government towards SMEs. Chipangura and Kaseke (2012) opined that SMEs were to benefit from ESAP through access to once restricted markets and reductions in tariffs, tax and labour costs.

In addition, Musanzikwa (2014) opined that the closure of large corporations in Zimbabwe after the government initiated fast track land reform programme in 2000 contributed to the establishment of SMEs. As the socio-economic crisis deepened, many graduates from several institutions of higher learning failed to obtain employment, leading them to establish SMEs for survival (Bomani et al., 2015). The HIV/AIDS pandemic also contributed to the proliferation of SMEs. Women and children were 'forced' into establishing SMEs after the demise of the father who had been the family's sole source of survival (Chipangura and Kaseke, 2012). A number of people who had migrated from the rural areas to the urban areas joined the SMEs sector after failing to get employment (ibid).

The Zimbabwean government has acknowledged that SMEs can act as a catalyst for economic development. This has been shown by the prioritisation of the sector in government policies (Tinarwo, 2016), the establishment of institutions mandated with facilitating the establishment and growth of SMEs such as SEDCO and the establishment of the Ministry of Small and Medium Enterprises and Cooperative Development (MSMECD) (Chivasa, 2014). Since SMEs are important contributors to the economic growth of the nation, government has made a lot of effort in promoting them into the mainstream of the economy (Musanzikwa, 2014). Chivasa (2014) has

commended the MSMECD for negotiating with financial institutions on behalf of SMEs for micro financing which has created an avenue for SMEs to access capital for varying business ventures. However, Nyamwanza et al. (2016) have observed that the government has done little to support SMEs and accord them the priority that enables them to contribute to the development of the economy.

Before the establishment of the ministry in 2002, government had earlier established SEDCO, Venture Capital Company of Zimbabwe (VCCZ) and the Credit Guarantee Company of Zimbabwe (CGCZ) with the mandate of enabling access to finance by SMEs (Chivasa, 2014). Other organisations have actively participated in supporting Zimbabwean SMEs. EMPRETEC supports SMEs through training of entrepreneurs and potential entrepreneurs, equipping them with managerial, bookkeeping, human resource, marketing and communication skills (Zindiye et al., 2012).

The International Labour Organisation (ILO) has been involved in training and supporting SMEs through programmes such as Start Your Business (SYB), Start and Improve Your Business (SIYB) and Expand Your Business (EYB) (ibid). In an effort to transfer technology to SMEs, the Indo-Zimbabwe project between India and Zimbabwe was established (Bomani et al., 2015). In addition to providing SMEs with access to machinery and spare parts, the project was also meant to assist in product development and training facilitated by Indian experts (ibid).

Other foreign financial institutions that have assisted Zimbabwean SMEs include China Development Bank (CDB) which extended a credit facility of USD30 million; PROPARCO, a French financial development institution owned by the French Development Agency (FDA) and private shareholders, which provided loan facilities to different Zimbabwean financial institutions for SMEs support worth USD20 million and the Arab Bank for Economic Development in Africa (BADEA) which provided a loan facility of USD5 million (Bomani et al., 2015).

After the promulgation of the Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment Act in 2008, further financing initiatives were availed to SMEs such as the youth fund which was administered by the Commercial Bank of Zimbabwe (CBZ), Kurera/Ukondla fund administered through CABS and the Meikles Youth Empowerment facility (GOZ, 2008; cited in Chivasa, 2014). Additional mechanisms such as the Training for Rural Economic Empowerment (TREE) meant to improve the skills of entrepreneurs and the

quality of products produced with the aim of enhancing competitiveness in the domestic, regional and international market were initiated (Kasukuwere, 2013; cited in Chivasa, 2014). This showed that financial support for SMEs was forthcoming from diverse partners who included both Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and International Organisations (IOs), in addition to what the government was availing.

Although there are many policies and strategies that have been crafted by government to assist the establishment and growth of SMEs, Bomani et al. (2015) noticed that the efforts were largely uncoordinated and piece meal. In other instances, there was duplication of effort which resulted in unnecessary wastage of scarce resources. Nyamwanza and Mavhiki (2014) bemoaned the inability of Zimbabwean SMEs to drive economic growth despite government support meant to support them while Chipangura and Kaseke (2012) also observed that SMEs operating at the Glenview Furniture Complex continued to exhibit insignificant growth notwithstanding the support they received. The inability of SMEs to significantly grow and drive economic growth despite support shows that there are other factors affecting the sector. This resonates well with the argument advanced by the current study that ineffective leadership is at the centre of the problems bedevilling SMEs.

2.5.3 Importance of SMEs

While SMEs are important to developed economies, they are even more important to developing economies where deplorable unemployment rates and colossal gaps between the rich and the poor are prevalent. After large organisations have failed to stimulate meaningful employment and industrial development, many African governments have shifted their focus towards SMEs as the panacea (Tinarwo, 2016).

SMEs have been categorised as the largest creators of new and decent jobs that the poor will not otherwise have (Yon and Evans, 2011). The World Bank has observed that one third of the world's workforce is employed in SMEs (Mugozhi and Hlabiso, 2017). The challenge of unemployment that Zimbabwe has been facing for a considerable period can be remedied by the establishment and growth of SMEs (Maseko and Manyani, 2011). Tinarwo (2016) asserted that as a result of SMEs acting as an effective mechanism for employment creation, they actively reduce poverty for both the entrepreneur and their employees. The MSMEs sector plays an invaluable role in poverty alleviation as the businesses act as a cushion against sliding into

deeper poverty thereby reducing vulnerability at both the individual and household level (FinScope, 2012).

SMEs are an effective vehicle for absorbing a large number of school leavers and university graduates being produced yearly (Karedza et al., 2014). Musanzikwa (2014) opined that employment creation by SMEs is important because it helps to reduce crime levels in society. As compared to large businesses, SMEs have the capacity of spreading employment to rural areas of Zimbabwe (Zindiye et al., 2012) which have been traditionally marginalised economically (Dumbu and Chadamoyo, 2012). However, other scholars such as Brown et al. (1990) cited in Mamman et al. (2015) suggested that larger organisations may be better than SMEs when it comes to employment creation because they are able to provide stable and quality employment, higher salaries and more benefits resulting in higher standard of living. Although large organisations may be better in certain circumstances, in an economy like Zimbabwe where their numbers are negligible, SMEs take the lead in employment creation. Also, it should be taken into consideration that most large organisations were once SMEs which developed into large businesses.

SMEs act as a nursery for larger firms that are necessary in the future (Yon and Evans, 2011). Chipangura and Kaseke (2012) observed that both government and NGOs that support SMEs do so with the objective of developing and growing them into large organisations. As in other countries like USA, Japan and the UK, Zimbabwean SMEs have the potential of acting as the nursery from which larger organisations can grow (Chinembiri, 2011). Mamman et al. (2015) postulated that the objective of SMEs is not to remain perpetually small but to develop and grow into large organisations. However, if SMEs are to grow into large organisations there is need to make sure that relevant and effective leadership has been developed and institutionalised.

Chidoko et al. (2011) cited in Karedza et al. (2014) argued that SMEs are vital to the Zimbabwean economy because they have the capacity to accelerate ownership of the resources in the economy by indigenous people. The enactment of the Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment Act obligated government departments and other organisations to procure at least 50% of their requirements from companies owned by Black Zimbabweans (Bomani et al., 2015) of which the majority of them are SMEs.

SMEs are able to withstand economic downturns better than larger firms because they are flexible and dynamic and have a propensity to adapt fast (Yon and Evans, 2011). Mugozhi and Hlabiso (2017) opined that because they are flexible and innovative, SMEs are quick to adapt when production techniques and consumer tastes and preferences change. Chinembiri (2011) believed that the major advantage of SMEs in Zimbabwe is that they are flexible and can easily adapt to changes in market tastes and preferences. SMEs are capable of making decisions faster (Idowu, 2012). This is made easier by the fact that the owner in most instances knows customers and suppliers personally.

Stronger and vibrant SMEs in an economy have been found to strengthen the country's resilience through expansion and diversification of the economy (Mugozhi and Hlabiso, 2017). This has an effect of lowering susceptibility to sector-specific shocks. SMEs have a capacity to stimulate healthy competition within the industry thereby improving efficiency, driving prices down and offering better services to customers. To support the point, Chinembiri (2011) gave an example of the furniture industry in Harare's Glenview suburb where quality has improved immensely and prices have gone down because of many SMEs participating in the industry.

SMEs are at the forefront of innovation of new ideas (Muriithi, 2017). They provide an avenue for pre-incubation, incubation and commercialisation of innovative ideas. Entrepreneurs as risk takers identify opportunities, take advantage of those opportunities by developing workable products, testing them and introducing them into the market before the new knowledge disseminates to large enterprises (ibid). Although SMEs are an avenue of innovation because of their flexibility and sensitivity to shifts in demand better than larger firms which enables them to readily shift their production in the face of changing demand, Chinembiri (2011) observed a lack of overwhelming evidence when it comes to Zimbabwean SMEs.

They can be started with less capital (Yon and Evans, 2011; Maseko and Manyani, 2011). This has been corroborated by Zindiye et al. (2012) who opined that Zimbabwean SMEs require low start-up capital. In a FinScope (2012) survey it was found that 58% of the MSME owners required less than US\$100 to start their businesses while 23% required between US\$ 101 and US\$ 500. It was further reported

that only 6% required more than US\$1000 to start their business ventures. This proved that it is less expensive to start a SME business in Zimbabwe.

As compared to larger organisations, SMEs have an advantage of providing tailor-made products to communities in suitable sizes and quantities (Mugozhi and Hlabiso, 2017). They operate closer to the market which drives transport and marketing costs down, ultimately lowering prices for the customers (ibid). In addition to being a source of income and employment, Muriithi (2017) opined that SMEs particularly in Africa offer products and services at affordable prices and reasonable terms.

Most SMEs depend on local raw materials, skills and production techniques (Mugozhi and Hlabiso, 2017). This serves as an advantage in terms of foreign currency preservation and the exploitation of local resources for both the domestic and export markets. Craft ware originating from Zimbabwean SMEs has excelled in international top galleries from Cape Town to Cologne (Ngwenya, 2006 cited in Zindiye et al, 2012).

Countries such as China, South Korea and Malaysia have achieved major economic growth based on a concerted drive of SME establishment and growth (Tinarwo, 2016; Dumbu and Chadamoyo, 2012). The efficacious turnaround of Asian and other developing nations has shed light on the role that SMEs play in the recovery of nations (Mugozhi and Hlabiso, 2017). In countries such as the United States and Japan, SMEs have been the greatest source of inventions (Chinembiri, 2011). Chinembiri highlighted that SMEs were the main drivers of Japanese reconstruction after the Second World War. There is need for research on how these SMEs managed to drive the turnaround of their economies since there are invaluable lessons that Zimbabwean SMEs can learn thereby benefiting the economy in turn.

2.5.4 Challenges faced by SMEs

As governments particularly in developing countries look for ways of improving the efficiency of SMEs, obstacles hindering the development and growth of SMEs have become a topical issue (Karedza et al., 2014). Different studies have shown that there exists a higher failure rate of SMEs. In Africa five out of seven new SMEs fail in their first year (Adcorp, 2014; cited in Muriithi, 2017). In research conducted by SEDCO in 2004, 60% of Zimbabwean SMEs fail to celebrate their first anniversary with a further 25% folding within the first 3 years. This leaves only 15% as the likely survivors (Mudavanhu et al., 2011). In Kenya it has been observed that 60% of SMEs also fail

in their first year of operation (Bowen et al., 2009 cited in Chege, Wachira and Mwenda, 2015). In South Africa, SME failure rate ranges between 70% and 80% (Adeniran and Johnston, 2011, cited in Fatoki, 2014). According to Chartered Management Institute (CMI) (2015) 56% of SMEs survive their first three years in the UK. Statistics highlighted above showed that although many SMEs are established every year, failure rates are high especially in Africa warranting serious considerations both at operational and policy level.

It is very difficult for SMEs to access capital because of the stringent requirements demanded by financial institutions such as collateral (Gombarume and Mavhundutse, 2014). As such, most SMEs tend to be self-financing (Mudavanhu et al., 2011) or rely on family and friends (Muriithi, 2017). After the adoption of the multi-currency regime in 2009, 62% of SMEs reported that they had used their own sources to fund their operations while 8% had received loans from either friends or relatives (SEDCO, 2010 cited in Chinembiri, 2011). This was in contrast with 3% who reported that they had accessed loans from banks. According to the FinScope (2012) survey, 43% of MSME owners do not employ any financial products or services in managing their business finance. The implications are that if they decide to borrow, they do so either from family or friends and if they decide to save, they save at home.

Karedza et al. (2014) observed that banks are not interested in financing SMEs because they are deemed to lack security in the form of collateral. Mugozi and Hlabiso (2017) added that financial institutions lack capacity to follow up on SMEs. Financial institutions have also bemoaned the high cost of administering small loans to SMEs which reduces their profits (Muriithi, 2017). However, in rare instances where they decide to finance them, the cost in terms of interest rates paid is exorbitant (Zindiye et al., 2012; Chipangura and Kaseke, 2012).

Although most entrepreneurs believe providers of capital are unwilling to give them the essential finance, financial institutions in defence assert that they are ready and willing to lend to SMEs that are investment ready (Fatoki, 2014). Instead, financial institutions believe that poor management contributes more to SMEs failure than inability to access finance from institutions. Juxtaposing SMEs owned by Asian immigrants and those owned by natives in the USA, Robb and Fairlie (2008) cited in Fatoki observed that although SMEs owned by Asian immigrants are less likely to

obtain external finance, their survival rates and profits are higher than firms owned by native Americans.

Karedza et al. (2014) observed that shallow knowledge of the market has negatively affected SMEs in that they fail to satisfy the needs of the customers. This compounded by a lack of marketing skills hinders SMEs from effectively attracting and retaining customers. Zindiye et al. (2012) believed that lack of sufficient information and intelligence about market opportunities and market trends constitutes a significant constraint facing Zimbabwean SMEs. Chipangura and Kaseke (2012) attributed the limited access to markets experienced by SMEs to excessive control of the distribution networks by larger firms.

Shortage of critical infrastructure such as land, buildings and machinery has negatively affected the ability of SMEs to carry their business activities (Karedza et al., 2014). Production in SMEs is hampered by a shortage of critical utilities such as water and electricity (ibid). The World Bank Enterprise survey conducted in 2010 found lack of electricity as the top hindrance to African SMEs (Muriithi, 2017). The majority of SMEs lack shelter to protect their finished products from rain or excessive sunlight. However, SEDCO has managed to construct shelter for furniture manufacturers in Glenview, Harare (Musanzikwa, 2014) and provide factory space at Nyika Growth Point, Gweru, Chitungwiza and Gazaland in Harare (Bomani et al., 2015).

The poor performance of Zimbabwean SMEs has been blamed on the hostile regulatory environment (Karedza et al., 2014). Due to lack of decentralisation in regulatory management, SMEs particularly those located in remote areas lose a lot of vital and scarce resources travelling to provincial capitals in search of business documents and permits (Mugozhi and Hlabiso, 2017). Zindiye et al. (2012) bemoaned an assortment of regulatory requirements such as the business registration process and the process of acquiring the obligatory licences as major constraints that Zimbabwean SMEs face. The Doing Business in Zimbabwe study which was conducted by the World Bank revealed a cumbersome and costly registration exercise involving an average period of 90 days and a minimum cost of US\$685 (FinScope, 2012). It is worth noting that the US\$685 does not include travelling costs and all the other costs that might be necessary. Taking into consideration that 81% of MSME owners require less than US\$500 as capital to start their businesses, US\$ 685

becomes too much for them to spend on registration alone hence most of them opt to operate with unregistered enterprises.

The market has a negative perception of the products and services emanating from SMEs (Muriithi, 2017). Customers believe that SMEs are unable to provide high quality products and services when compared to large businesses. Chipangura and Kaseke (2012) believed that SMEs fail to grow because in most cases they offer unknown brands or have a limited range of products to offer. Corruption has been cited as a major challenge faced by African businesses (Muriithi, 2017). SMEs are forced to spend money outside their budgets to finance corrupt activities so that services can be rendered to them.

SMEs suppliers are constrained from effectively doing their job because of lack of managerial and technical skills (Musanzikwa, 2014). A study carried out by Chivasa (2014) to ascertain the entrepreneurship culture among Bulawayo SMEs revealed that 53% of the SMEs were managed by their owners irrespective of whether they had the requisite qualifications or not. Most of the remaining SMEs were led by individuals who were related to the owner without relevant qualifications such that the propensity to pursue family interests instead of business interests was high (ibid).

In a study to investigate the challenges faced by SMEs operating at Gazaland in Harare Zimbabwe, Tinarwo (2016) found that the major challenges included lack of managerial skills and training, lack of capital for expansion, lack of government support, lack of knowledge on the latest technology and unfair treatment by the local authority. A number of studies have observed that most SMEs owners do not prioritise acquisition of managerial skills and are unwilling to shoulder even a small proportion of their training costs (Zindiye et al., 2012). Although most local authorities have begun accommodating SMEs, Chingwenya and Mudzengerere (2012) cited in Mugozi and Hlabiso (2017) observed that initially they employed a militaristic approach in dealing with the SMEs. In most Zimbabwean cities and towns, it is not unusual to see municipal police playing a cat and mouse scenario with vendors, who constitute part of the MSME group.

In a study carried out by Karedza et al. (2014) analysing obstacles affecting the success of SMEs in Chinhoyi, Zimbabwe, limited access and cost of finance, lack of access to infrastructure, lack of marketing skills and market knowledge, lack of

information, inadequate management skills and exorbitant local authority rates were found to be some of the obstacles hampering the growth of SMEs. A study conducted by FinScope (2012) focusing on MSMEs in Zimbabwe found that the greatest impediments hampering MSMEs from realising their full potential and contributing to sustainable development of the nation were “limited access to affordable finance, lack of adequate skills and market information and poor management skills” (p. 14).

Shane and Stuart (2002) cited in Gombarume and Mavhundutse (2014) have observed a relationship between a dearth of managerial skills and new business failure. In a study by Gombarume and Mavhundutse to assess the challenges faced by SMEs in Chitungwiza, Zimbabwe, it was found that there was rampant management deficiency in the SMEs which contributed to their collapse emanating from poor decision making. Karedza et al. (2014) observed that growth and expansion of SMEs was greatly limited by lack of appropriate management skills to run the businesses which was compounded by lack of training.

The high failure rate of SMEs has been blamed on inappropriate leadership style (Saasongu, 2015; Jalal-Eddeen, 2015). Madanchian and Taherdoost (2017) blames deficient and weak leadership skills as the main causes of SMEs failure. As SMEs owners reach an ‘executive limit’ where it becomes difficult for them to manage the enterprises, failure to replace them with a professional manager might be deleterious for the organisation (Fatoki, 2014). Dumbu and Chadamoyo (2012) conducted research on managerial deficiencies in the SMEs in the craft industry operating at Great Zimbabwe and found that the SMEs lacked quality leadership and employee motivation.

Although SMEs are a vital part of every nation’s economy because of the enormity of advantages realised from them, their growth however, is militated by poor management and leadership. For these SMEs to be successful and prosper, there is need for owners and managers to be capacitated with managerial skills and relevant and effective leadership. One challenge SMEs might be facing is implementing leadership models which are not appropriate to the environment and conditions they are operating in thereby failing to get the intended results. This study’s aim is to come up with an appropriate leadership model that Zimbabwean SMEs can adopt and use.

2.5.5 Leadership in SMEs

Behaviour and attitude of employees in an organisation are influenced to a large extent by the leadership exercised in that organisation (Uchenwamgbe, 2013). Whether SMEs survive and grow depends on good business leadership and corporate governance employed (Lekhanya, 2015). Unfortunately, many leadership studies have focused on large-scale societies and organisations neglecting small-scale societies and organisations (von Rueden and van Vugt, 2015). This assertion has been supported by scholars such as Barnard (2019); Madanchian and Taherdoost (2017) and Franco and Matos (2013) who opined that there exists a dearth of literature pertaining to leadership in SMEs despite a myriad of studies focusing on the discipline of leadership in general.

Mwangi et al. (2013) opined that either the scholars of leadership do not see any distinctiveness of leadership in SMEs necessitating varied attention from other organisational frameworks or if they do, they see a narrow context that does not necessitate any distinct handling. Mwangi et al. further observed that SMEs research in East Africa focused more on why the businesses failed rather than on what the successful ones were doing to succeed. Although the extant literature showed a number of studies that had focused on leadership in SMEs, a dearth of literature is still prevalent in Zimbabwe when it comes to the same. As such the current study will contribute to the expansion and enrichment of literature pertaining to leadership in SMEs by focusing on an effective leadership model.

Leadership has been found to be the most significant aspect contributing to the performance of an enterprise (Rahim et al, 2015). Employing right leadership behaviours has been found to enhance the viability and success of SMEs (Arham, Boucher and Muenjohn, 2013). Nave (2006) cited in Lekhanya (2015) asserted that the leadership style employed in an organisation determines whether it will succeed or fail. Leadership style that provides clear goals for employees and avails essential resources and inspiration motivates employees to go an extra mile and give their best (Akoma, Adeoye, Binuyo and Akinwole, 2014). Right leadership behaviour placates an organisation from failure and ensures superior performance (Madanchian and Taherdoost, 2017).

Basing on the resource-based view perspective, leadership is a valuable intangible resource that enables SMEs to be innovative, risk taking and proactive so that they survive and achieve sustainable success (Mwangi et al., 2013). A robust leadership skill is a fundamental dynamic capability necessary to drive higher performance in organisations operating in turbulent environments prevalent in contemporary times (Kihara, Bwisa and Kihoro, 2016). For sustainable development to take place, strong leadership is a prerequisite (Szczepanska-Woszczyna and Kurowska-Pysz, 2016). However, the skills and experience of the individuals heading the organisation determine the quality of leadership found in SMEs (CIPD, 2014). One thing we can infer from the above authors is that leadership is key and fundamental to the success of SMEs. This is the guiding philosophy of the current study.

Scholars such as Beaver (2003) cited in Arham et al. (2013) postulated that the failure of many SMEs can be attributed to poor leadership. In a study to assess the effectiveness of leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs, Daka (2016) found that SMEs lacked effective leadership capacity to grow their businesses. Uchenwamgbe (2013) has found that most SMEs are led by authoritarian leaders who exhibit a personalised style of leadership. Unfortunately, most of these leaders also lack merit (ibid). SMEs were found to have reactive leadership due to lack of resources to finance training (Okwachi, Gakure and Ragui, 2013). As such leadership occupies an essential position in the management of SMEs (Franco and Matos, 2013).

Most SMEs have traditionally followed the heroic leadership notion which is typically individualistic (Cope, Kempster and Parry, 2011). This notion is mostly fuelled by the employees who romanticise the SME owner as a hero who took considerable risk to start the enterprise and steers it through different crises (ibid). Rahim et al. (2015) encouraged SMEs leaders to espouse entrepreneurial leadership style so as to enhance the performance of their enterprises. From the argument of Cope et al. we can conclude that most SMEs subscribe to the great man theory which believes that SME owners are blessed with heroic capacities and innate abilities which separate them from the rest and enable them to start and lead their organisations.

Nyamwanza and Mavhiki (2014) observed that most owners of Zimbabwean SMEs preferred directional leadership style that left little discretion for the employees. Some SME owners who were interviewed testified that they were in the habit of withholding

critical information about projects from employees because of fear that some employees may steal the information for their own personal gain. These findings were corroborated by Dumbu and Chadamoyo (2012) who also found that owners of SMEs in the craft industry at Great Zimbabwe were unwilling to share critical business information with employees because they feared that employees might copy their business ideas. As a result of this pervasive fear of losing control of the business, Okwachi et al. (2013) found leadership in most SMEs to be deficient.

The nature of leadership required in SMEs changes as the organisation grows in size (CIPD, 2014). While directive leadership style may be necessary during the early stages of the enterprise, decision making should be devolved to junior managers and employees as the organisation matures and grows in size (ibid). As SMEs grow there is need for a distributed leadership approach where, because of the distributed nature of expertise, the leader will begin to delegate tasks, encourage teamwork, employ democratic decision making and high levels of communication with subordinates (Jones and Crompton, 2009 cited in Cope et al., 2011).

CIPD (2014) opined that as the SME business matures there might be a need for the business to be led by a different leader who might not be as close to the business as the founder. However, the challenge is that entrepreneurs may fail to find suitable employees to share leadership with. In situations where the leadership of the organisation is distributed to more than one leader, the performance of the organisation might suffer if different leaders fail to agree about what to do and when to do it.

Based on a mixed methodology study to understand the leadership styles prevalent in Portuguese SMEs, Franco and Matos (2013) found no specific leadership style being religiously followed by the SMEs. However, the best leadership result was achieved in instances where the transactional leadership style was used. In separate studies, Mkheimer (2018) and Chandrakumara, De Zoysa and Manawaduge (2009) found that at least two leadership styles were used in SMEs. Gross (2016) believed that leaders of SMEs should use different leadership styles for different employees based on differing needs and situations since there exist no one universal way of leading. Different situations experienced by SMEs require different leadership styles. This is why Franco and Matos postulated that the ideal leadership style for SMEs depends

on its sector, the region it is domiciled and the characteristics of the environment it operates in. The current study is predicated on the same belief that there is no one universal leadership style that all SMEs worldwide may adopt and use.

Mwangi et al. (2013) found that successful Kenyan and Ugandan SMEs stimulated and sustained employee commitment through empowering employees, cultivating family-like relationships with them and communicating with them frequently. If employees strongly believe that their contributions are highly valued by the organisation, they will exhibit supreme commitment. SMEs leaders treated employees as part of their family through giving fatherly advice, actively taking part in social events such as funerals and weddings and helping employees to pay fees for their dependents (ibid). The effect of such benevolent acts was that employees were prepared to go an extra mile in their work without corresponding additional pay and exhibit high loyalty to the leader and the organisation even in instances where the company was unable to pay salaries on time because of cashflow problems. These actions by leaders resonate well with the philosophy of ubuntu highly cherished in Africa and as such will be considered in the current study. A study conducted by Goe and Martey (2020) concluded that there exists a direct relationship between effective leadership and employee commitment in SMEs. Employees who were of the opinion that leadership was effective were also committed to the decisions of their superiors.

When leaders exhibit care, concern and respect for employees, their interest in work is aroused leading them to put extra effort which will engender superior performance and job satisfaction (Ojokuku, Odetayo and Sajuyigbe, 2012). Akoma et al. (2014) observed that most employees are comfortable with a leader who creates a conducive environment and maintain a close relationship with them. When there is a solid emotional bond between the leader and employees in SMEs, employees will be stimulated to develop and share knowledge that will benefit the organisation (Rawung, Wuryaningrat and Elvinita, 2015).

Okwachi et al. (2013) discovered SMEs to have robust mechanisms of communicating vision and direction. Visionary leadership has been found to correlate with commitment, trust, inspiration and high levels of unity which will ultimately influence performance in a positive way (Zhu et al., 2005 cited in Saasongu, 2015). Successful entrepreneurs in Kenya and Uganda were found to be able to come up with an

inspiring vision for the enterprise, articulate that vision to different stakeholders and motivate and rally them towards the achievement of that vision (Mwangi et al., 2013). Maladzhi, Yan and Makinde (2012) observed that in SMEs where leaders shared their vision with employees, a common understanding of organisational purpose and culture was created.

Mwangi et al. (2013) found successful SMEs leaders to be flexible. In the organisations they led, employees were allowed to make mistakes so as to learn from them. When undesirable things occurred, leaders were ready to accept and shoulder the blame. The scholars also observed that successful and effective leaders were good at anticipating and eradicating potential obstacles that hindered employees from effectively dealing with situations as they arose.

Comparing the autocratic and democratic styles of leadership, Idowu (2012) found that the autocratic style of leadership was more popular in SMEs than the democratic leadership style. However, in Adamawa State, Nigeria, Jalal-Eddeen (2015) found participative democracy as the dominant leadership style employed by SMEs. Akoma et al. (2014) discovered that high productivity, good communication and camaraderie among employees were enhanced when the democratic style of leadership was used while conflicts were the order of the day when the autocratic style was employed.

Chege et al. (2015) recommended that SMEs should use autocratic leadership style when their focus is on the task while the democratic style is suitable for complex decisions that require the involvement of both managers and employees. Laissez-faire leadership style is only recommended for circumstances where employees are skilled and able to work on their own. The findings cited above showed that the situation determines the leadership style that will be appropriate. In some situations, the democratic style may be appropriate while in other situations autocratic style may be desirable.

In Malaysian SMEs both transformational and transactional leadership styles were used (Arham et al., 2013). However transformational leadership style was found to be the predominant one. These findings were supported by Paladan (2015) who found that both transformational and transactional leadership styles were used by Bicolano SMEs although the use of the transformational style tended to outweigh that of the transactional style. When the business is relatively new, the dominant leadership style

will be transactional which will gradually shift to transformational as they succeed and continue in business (ibid).

Winkle et al. (2014) opined that leaders who espoused servant leadership behaviour were found to be good at empowering employees. In a study to ascertain the relationship between servant leadership behaviours of supervisors and the employees' perceptions of being empowered in SMEs, Winkle et al. found strong correlation between servant leadership behaviours and the perceptions of followers that they were both structurally and psychologically empowered.

Scholars believed there exists a correlation between leadership and organisational performance (Albloshi and Nawar, 2015). If organisations are hunting for efficient ways of outcompeting rivals, Mehra et al. (2006) cited in Saasongu (2015) opined that the best way will be to concentrate on the effects of leadership. Matzler et al. (2008) cited in Yanney (2014) believed that leadership behaviours exhibited by senior managers of SMEs strongly impact on the performance and innovation of the organisation.

Organisational performance is closely related to the leadership styles exhibited by leaders in the organisation (Chege et al., 2015; Aziz, Abdullah and Tajudin, 2013). Most studies conducted have shown a significant relationship between leadership style and organisational performance (Wang, Chich-Jen and Mei-Ling, 2010). However, some leadership styles will exhibit a positive correlation while other styles will exhibit a negative correlation with performance (ibid). In order to drive people in the right direction so that organisations achieve their mission, efficient leaders are a pre-requisite. Arham et al. (2015) opined that right leadership behaviour is also necessary to avert organisational failure.

Mgeni (2016) in a study of SMEs in Tanzania found a strong and positive relationship between transformational leadership style and organisational performance. The researcher further observed that transformational leadership style was a strong and significant predictor of organisational performance variations of SMEs in Tanzania. These findings were consistent with the findings of Kihara et al. (2016) who found a positive and significant relationship between transformational leadership style and the performance of SMEs in Kenya.

In contrast, a study conducted by Albloshi and Nawar (2015) to assess the impact of leadership styles on organisational performance of Saudi private SMEs found

transactional leadership as the best placed style to achieve organisational effectiveness. A positive correlation between transactional leadership and the willingness of employees to exert extra effort was also established. The study further found that transactional leadership improved employee effectiveness and resulted in better job satisfaction (ibid).

A study conducted by Obiwuru et al. (2011) on the effects of leadership style on organisational performance of SMEs in Lagos State of Nigeria found that transactional leadership style had a significant positive effect on performance while transformational leadership had an insignificant effect. The authors speculated that since employees of SMEs were not skilled or experienced professionals, contingent recognition and reward was a better motivator and inducer to higher performance rather than charisma, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation and individualised consideration. As such SMEs were recommended to adopt transactional leadership as it was more appropriate in inducing performance (ibid).

These findings were similar to those of Franco and Matos (2013) who found transactional leadership style to be more effective when compared to transformational leadership style. The findings obtained in these studies were supported in a study by Saasongu (2015) on the effects of leadership style on organisational performance of SMEs in Benue State, Nigeria. A positive but insignificant effect between transformational leadership and employee performance was found while a positive and significant effect between transactional leadership and performance was established. However, recommending SMEs to adopt transactional leadership without taking into consideration situational factors might be misleading as the style might work well in one situation and fail dismally in another situation.

In a study to determine the relationship between transactional leadership and SMEs growth in Kenya, Asiimwe et al. (2016) found a positive and significant relationship between transactional leadership and growth. Employees were prepared to work hard to achieve more sales because they knew that if they achieved more sales, they would be compensated appropriately and they were closely monitored for mistakes and corrective action was immediately taken when mistakes were discovered. Transactional leadership style may work well in Zimbabwe where employees are motivated more by monetary rewards they receive from their employer. Leaders may

use the contingent reward perspective where they give extrinsic motivators to employees in exchange for employees attaining a preferred outcome.

Participative democracy as a leadership style has been found to have a significant correlation with employee performance (Jalal-Eddeen, 2015). SMEs led by managers who followed McGregor's theory Y assumptions were found to outperform those SMEs who were led by managers who believed in theory X (Arslan and Staub, 2013). In another study, Koech and Namusonge (2012) did not find any significant relationship between laissez-faire leadership style and organisational performance. Wang et al. (2010) concluded that if organisations desire to promote organisational performance, the first step should be to adjust the leadership style.

The suitable innovation and entrepreneurship climate in an organisation are engendered by the leadership style (Bhattacharyya, 2006). This has been supported by Maladzhi et al. (2012) who opined that leadership over the years has proved to be an essential element in the creation of an innovative culture within an organisation. The leadership behaviours exhibited by top leaders of SMEs are positively correlated to the degree of innovation experienced and the performance of the firm (Arham et al., 2015). Whether an SME innovates depends with the leaders' ability to strategise and mobilise the critically needed resources (Abdullah, Hamid, Shamsuddin and Wahab, 2014).

A study carried out by Saad and Mazzarol (2010) on the impact of leadership on innovation in Malaysian SMEs found transformational leadership as a significant influencer of both product and process innovation. The significant relationship between transformational leadership and product innovation was substantiated in a study by Abdullah et al. (2014) on SMEs in Johor, Malaysia. In order to engender creativity and innovation, managers must encourage employees to volunteer ideas and not criticise the ideas in a way that crushes the creativity spirit. SMEs leaders must be passionate, enthusiastic and committed when it comes to creativity and innovation.

Saasongu (2015) has also asserted that in addition to leadership having a positive effect on financial performance, studies have concluded a positive correlation between leadership and both employee and customer satisfaction. Hurduzeu (2015) opined that an appropriate leadership style stimulates growth and prosperity for both the organisation and employees. This clearly shows that leadership employed in SMEs

determines whether both customers and employees will be satisfied in addition to the financial performance of the organisation.

Although several studies have indicated that the leadership style employed determines the performance of employees, on the contrary, Barrow (2006) cited in Asiimwe et al. (2016) believed that it is actually the performance of employees that influences the way the leader behaves. If the employees perform well the leader will be less autocratic, less punitive and inclined to be more considerate towards employees. However, if the leader leads poor performing employees, chances are high that the leader will become autocratic, punitive and task oriented (ibid).

Although some scholars believe that leadership boosts organisational performance while others believe that contemporary results are inconclusive and hard to interpret, direct comparisons are difficult as a result of different leadership concepts being used in different studies (Saasongu, 2015). As such there still exists gaps and unanswered questions when it comes to the type of leadership that engenders higher performance in SMEs. The current study aims to participate in closing that gap by contributing to literature on an effective leadership model applicable to Zimbabwean SMEs.

2.6 Leadership Theories and Styles

2.6.1 Leadership Theories

Although Mendez et al. (2013) believed that leadership theories can be classified into three main categories, Silva (2015) classified them into two main complementary groups. These are theories focused on the leader as an individual and those focused on the relationship between the leader and followers. However, other categorisations such as descriptive versus prescriptive and universal versus contingency have been proffered (Yukl, 2006; cited in Silva).

In addition to existing theories, new ones are being proposed every year making it difficult to understand the world of leadership (Silva, 2015). The current study endeavours to propose a leadership model relevant to SMEs operating in Zimbabwe thereby also contributing to literature on leadership theories. Most leadership theories we have today were stimulated by observation of leadership in military, business and political bureaucracies of contemporary industrialised societies (von Rueden and van Vugt, 2015). Although many leadership theories have emerged over the last seventy

years, mechanisms of determining their scientific credentials through testing have remained elusive (Blunt and Jones, 1997). Although there are many leadership theories, this study will only focus on those theories that are outstanding in literature and relevant to the effective management of SMEs. This part of literature will actively assist in determining questions that will enable the fulfilment of the first objective of identifying the predominant leadership styles used by SMEs in Zimbabwe.

2.6.1.1 Great man theory

The Great man theory focused on the leader as a hero (Kumar and Matheen, 2019). This heroism emanated from “social systems like blood lineage, heredity or just passage of time” (p. 15). It viewed leaders as gifts from God sent to the world to offer the lightening necessary for the upliftment of the human race (Spector, 2016). The decisions and actions of these leaders, who were extraordinary individuals, were capable of changing the course of history (Zaccaro, 2007).

It assumed that when needed, leaders are destined to rise to leadership (Amanchukwu, Stanley and Ololube, 2015). According to the great man theory, men who are blessed with heroic capacities will rise to become leaders (Ali, 2017). Analysing the theory showed that only a few privileged individuals possessed such innate abilities which separated them from non-leaders.

The term great man was used because traditionally, especially in the military, leadership was seen as a preserve of men (Amanchukwu et al, 2015). The name given to the theory itself testifies to the fact that women were not seen as capable of becoming leaders (Jogulu and Wood, 2006). Kumar and Matheen (2019) observed that there are contemporary business and political leaders who are still seen as heroes. An example is the search of a hero in the corporate world to ‘save’ a failing organisation (Spector, 2016).

The great man theory is often ignored by scholars because it is more of a statement of faith rather than a leadership theory (Spector, 2016). As such when it comes to the demanding scholarly theory and research that underpin contemporary leadership discourse, it is found wanting. The theory evolved into the trait theory after being challenged as unscientific.

2.6.1.2 Trait Theory

This theory believes that leaders can be differentiated from non-leaders on the basis of the physical traits and personality characteristics they possess (Ali, 2017). Two categories of traits namely emergent traits, which depend on heredity such as height, intelligence and self-confidence, and effectiveness traits such as charisma which are based on experience were identified. The trait theories were premised on the belief that leaders possessed common traits which were different from those possessed by non-leaders (Silva, 2015). Although traditionally traits have been equated with personality characteristics, Zaccaro (2007) opined that qualities that separate leaders from non-leaders include values, expertise, motives, social and problem-solving skills, and cognitive abilities, in addition to personality attributes.

Post 1940s researchers began to question the belief that traits were sufficient explanations for effective leadership (Jogulu and Wood, 2006). Their main argument was that effective leadership was also a product of the interaction between leaders and followers, and a number of situational factors. Although the trait approach to leadership was central in the early stages of leadership research, it was later despised for not taking into consideration situational differences in leadership behaviour and failing to differentiate clearly between leaders and non-leaders (Zaccaro, 2007).

The trait studies failed to come up with a conclusive set of leadership traits that were necessary for organisational success (Henkel and Bourdeau, 2018). In other words, not all leaders have been found to possess these traits (Mendez et al., 2013; Amanchukwu et al., 2015). There are many leaders in the Zimbabwean context who have excelled but either without these traits or with some but lacking the other traits. Additionally, if there are traits that differentiate leaders from non-leaders, the dilemma is how do we explain people who possess those traits but are not leaders or have never been leaders.

The trait theories have been criticised because they ascribe success to an individual leader whereas success is a collaborative effort of the collective (Mwangi et al., 2013). As such the theory does not take into consideration the influence of followers (Mendez et al., 2013). Stogdill asserted that followers were pertinent to the emergence and effectiveness of leaders. Following that thesis, it was highly unlikely that one would become a leader by merely possessing a combination of certain traits but there must

be some connection between the leader's personal characteristics and the characteristics, goals and activities of followers.

A review of more than 100 trait theory articles conducted by Stogdill in 1948 concluded that personality traits were not sufficient for one to become a leader and as such a person does not become a leader by merely having those traits (Silva, 2015). Stogdill also believed that the skills, characteristics and qualities of leaders were determined largely by the demands of the situation, and as such an acceptable examination of leadership involved a study of situations in addition to the study of leaders (Australian Public Service Commission, 2018). This belief resonates well with the approach adopted by the current study of looking at leadership from the perspective of leaders, followers and the situations they find themselves in.

However, Northouse (2013) cited in Wedlock (2016) believed that the trait approach is still relevant in certain circumstances. A number of scholars have found that contemporary leaders in the corporate world have traits that are considered necessary for leadership which they demonstrate in numerous leadership styles (ibid). Zaccaro (2007) believed that leader traits are still important causes of differences in leadership effectiveness and as such called for a renewed contemplation of leader traits in leadership discourse. The current study will not totally discard the traits approach but will look at the different traits in the context of the different situations that leaders face in proposing an effective leadership model for SMEs.

2.6.1.3 Behavioural Theories

The dissatisfaction with the trait theory gave birth to the behavioural theories (Vroom and Jago, 2007). They focused on how leaders behaved when executing their duties (Mendez et al., 2013). The theories are grounded on the belief that effective leaders are not born but are made (Amanchukwu et al., 2015). For leaders to be effective, it depends on their behaviour (Khan, Bhat and Hussanie, 2017). Whereas the trait theory focused on what a leader is, the behavioural theories focused on what a leader does (Mendez et al., 2013).

A group of researchers from the university of Iowa looked at three leadership styles namely democratic, autocratic and laissez faire leadership styles in a quest to find out which among the three was the most effective (Robbins and Coulter, 2012; Jogulu and Wood, 2006). Initially the Iowa studies found the democratic style to be ideal, both in

terms of quantity and quality of work, although later studies between the democratic and autocratic styles indicated mixed results (ibid). However, it was discovered that employees favoured the democratic style (Khan et al., 2017) because it resulted in them being more satisfied than they were when working under an autocratic leader (Robbins and Coulter, 2012).

Leadership studies conducted at the Ohio State University were premised on examining the behaviour of the leader when they were in charge of employees (Henkel and Bourdeau, 2018). Two leader behaviour dimensions were identified from more than one thousand dimensions (Robbins and Coulter, 2012). Consideration referred to leaders who exhibited friendly relationships with followers that were characterised by trust and respect while initiating structure referred to leaders who attempted to organise either work or work relationships (Khan et al., 2017). Leaders who scored high in consideration were friendly and approachable such that it was easy for followers to discuss their personal problems with them (Robbins and Coulter, 2012). The studies found that high group task performance and high group member satisfaction were associated mostly, but not always with leaders who exhibited high in both initiating structure and consideration (ibid). This showed that effective leadership is not only a matter of leaders being friendly and approachable but making sure that tasks are performed well.

The University of Michigan studies identified two leadership behaviour dimensions that were associated with performance effectiveness as employee-oriented and production-oriented (Robbins and Coulter, 2012). Employee-oriented leaders emphasised more on interpersonal relationships while production-oriented leaders emphasised more on achieving the task (ibid). It was concluded that high group productivity and high group member satisfaction were achieved by employee-oriented leaders (Jogulu and Wood, 2006). Studies conducted at the University of Michigan differed from those conducted at Ohio State University in that the Michigan studies positioned the behaviour dimensions on a continuum while the Ohio studies considered the behaviour dimensions independent of each other (Henkel and Bourdeau, 2018).

The managerial grid, which is a two-dimensional grid used for evaluating leadership styles, was developed based on the behavioural dimensions of the Ohio State studies

and the University of Michigan studies (Robbins and Coulter, 2012). Concern for production involved performance and results while concern for people involved employees (Khan et al., 2017). The leader's use of these two behaviours was assessed and ranked on a scale ranging from 1 – 9, with 81 potential leadership styles being identified, although only five were named (Robbins and Coulter). A high concern for production and high concern for people (9,9) was found to engender creativity, high productivity and follower satisfaction (Khan et al.). As such it was deemed the most effective leadership behaviour (Villoria, 2016). However, although the grid provided a basis for conceptualising leadership style, it failed to clarify on what made a leader effective.

Behavioural theories were an attempt to discover one leadership style that could be effective in all situations (Henkel and Bourdeau, 2018). However, just like the trait leadership theory, the behavioural leadership theories failed to achieve their objective, which led to the emergence of the contingency leadership theories (ibid). Looking at the four behavioural theories explained above showed lack of consensus in what is necessary to achieve high productivity and high follower satisfaction. The Ohio studies showed that effectiveness was a product of showing concern for employees and emphasising on achieving the task while the Michigan studies showed that effectiveness was a result of showing concern for employees. The managerial grid resonates well with the Ohio studies in that leadership effectiveness is a function of exhibiting both concern for employees and the task.

2.6.1.4 Contingency Theories

The contingency theories of leadership were developed from the systems theory and its influence on the organisational and administrative theory (Khan et al., 2017). Villoria (2016) opined the behavioural school and McGregor's theory X and Y as the most significant theoretical backgrounds of the theory. According to the contingency theories, there is no one leadership style which is suitable for all the situations (Amanchukwu et al., 2015). This means that a leader may succeed in a given situation but fail to succeed as the factors surrounding the situation change irrespective of the fact that the leader will still be occupying the same position in the same organisation.

The difference between contingency theories and behavioural theories of leadership is that the contingency theories postulate that a certain behaviour will not always lead

to effective leadership because the behaviour should be appropriate to the situation. The challenge with contingency approaches is that they are many and different from each other (King, 1990). Each of the approaches seem to have part of the answer to the leadership quagmire but none of them has all the answers required. However, since situations differ, contingency theories are better placed to deal with modern leadership effectiveness issues.

2.6.1.4.1 Fiedler's Contingency Model

Fiedler (1954) has been regarded as the pioneer when it comes to contingency theories of leadership (Silva, 2015). Fiedler believed that leaders were either relationship-oriented or task-oriented (Henkel and Bourdeau, 2018) and that performance depended not only on the leader's style but also on the situational factors influencing the leader (Khan et al., 2017). He theorised that the effective performance of the group was based on achieving a match between the leader's style and the amount of control and impact in the situation (Robbins and Coulter, 2012). Fiedler proposed that instead of settling for any one best leadership style, leaders would be effective if they identified the most effective style for a specific situation (Ionesu & Negrusa, 2007, cited in Henkel and Bourdeau).

Leadership effectiveness depends on whether there is fit between the leadership style demanded by a particular situation and the qualities of the leader (Amanchukwu et al., 2015). In other words, since different leaders have different styles, effectiveness is dependent upon whether there is congruence between the styles and the different contexts (Ali, 2017). To achieve outstanding performance either the leader should fit to the situation or the situation should fit to the leader (Khan et al., 2017).

The leader's style was measured using the least preferred co-worker questionnaire, where the leader was asked to describe the one person, they had least enjoyed working with on 18 pairs of contrasting adjectives (Robbins and Coulter, 2012). If the least preferred co-worker was rated positively, the leader's style was relationship oriented while task oriented if the least preferred co-worker was rated negatively.

Fiedler's contingency theory concluded that task-oriented leaders were effective in very favourable situations and very unfavourable situations while relationship-oriented leaders were effective in situations that were moderately favourable (Henkel and Bourdeau, 2018; Robbins and Coulter, 2012). As such leaders were expected to

operate in situations in line with their skills for them to be effective (Landis, Hill and Harvey, 2014). Since the leader's style was fixed, effectiveness could be improved by either changing the leader or changing the situation to fit the leader (Robbins and Coulter).

The major criticism that has been levelled against Fiedler's contingency model is the assumption that the leadership style is fixed (Australian Public Service Commission, 2018). This is in addition to the suggestion that instead of leaders adjusting their style to suit the situation, the situation can be manipulated to suit the leader's natural style. Robbins and Coulter (2012) believed that effective leaders are capable of changing their leadership style to suit the situation and as such it becomes highly impractical to think that a leader cannot change his/her style. The least preferred co-worker questionnaire has been described as impractical and the situation variables were found to be difficult to evaluate (Robbins and Coulter).

2.6.1.4.2 Situational Leadership Theory (SLT)

The major criticism of the early leadership theories is their one-size-fits-all approach. Western (2008) cited in Owusu et al. (2015) argued that they ignored gender, race and facets of cultural diversity. By taking a middle road position, the SLT argued that there is no perfect style of leadership but the style used by the leader depends on the situation at hand (Uchenwamgbe, 2013). In other words, one leadership style may be effective in a certain situation and ineffective in another different situation. Effective Leadership depends on whether the leader is able to diagnose and understand the situation followed by whether they are able to adopt an appropriate style to deal with each context (Koech and Namusonge, 2012).

Leadership is a function of the leader, follower and the situation (Khan et al., 2017). The theory puts emphasis on the followers because it is them that either accepts or rejects the leader (Robbins and Coulter, 2012). According to the SLT, effectiveness of the organisation depends on the actions of the followers notwithstanding the actions of the leader. The theory endeavours to link the leadership style with the developmental level of the individual (Ebere and Fragouli, 2015). Given that followers are an important variable in the leadership process, there is need to explore further on the role they play in making leadership effective since most studies have focused more on leaders than followers. Some of the limitations of Fiedler's contingency model were

addressed by the SLT (Gilstrap, 2009, cited in Henkel and Bourdeau, 2018). However, it has been polished and reviewed a number of times since its first publication (Shonhiwa, 2016; Ebere and Fragouli, 2015).

The situation is defined by the maturity of followers and whether the leader is task or relationship focused (Australian Public Service Commission, 2018). Maturity refers to the ability (competence) and willingness (commitment) of followers to perform a given task (Robbins and Coulter, 2012). Competence refers to whether followers have task-relevant knowledge and skills while commitment refers to the motivation and confidence exhibited by the follower (Thompson and Glaso, 2018). Task-relevant knowledge and skills can be acquired through either conventional education like going to universities or colleges, on the job training and experience.

The leadership style used is dependent upon the job and psychological maturity of employees (McCleskey, 2014). Instead of settling for one leadership style, effective leaders are expected to change their style on the basis of employee needs and experience (Ali, 2017). As the maturity level of followers increases, the leader should depend more on relationship behaviour and less on task behaviour (Khan et al., 2017).

Since situations are different, effective leadership requires leaders to be flexible and adjust their leadership style appropriately (Bishop, 2012). Since people are different, the leader should first analyse the maturity of employees before settling for the leadership style suitable for the situation (Henkel and Bourdeau, 2018). Instead of leadership determining the situation, on the contrary, the situation determines leadership (Wedlock, 2016). The leader should provide the follower with the essential direction and support to move along the developmental continuum (Ebere and Fragouli, 2015).

SLT is popular, easy to understand, and practical, and is used often by businesses to develop effective leaders (Shonhiwa, 2016). Unlike other leadership theories, it is prescriptive in nature. It prescribes what a leader should do in certain circumstances, for example when employees are not competent, the manager should employ a directive leadership style.

Graeff (1983) and Yukl (1989) both cited in Shonhiwa (2016) have questioned the authenticity of the questionnaires that were used for SLT model. The scholars believed that since the responses to the best leadership style for each of the various work

situations respondents analysed were predetermined into directing, coaching, supporting and delegating, respondents had fewer options and as such bias was introduced in favour of situational leadership. Zigarmi and Roberts (2017) observed that the telling leadership style prescribed by the model for followers who are low in competence but high in commitment was used intermittently in modern organisations. The current study will empirically test whether SMEs use the telling leadership style erratically or more often before proposing a leadership model.

Lack of internal consistency, conceptual contradictions and ambiguities were mentioned by Bass (2008) cited in McCleskey (2014) as criticisms of the SLT. These limitations have also been corroborated by Vidal et al. (2017). Problems of measurement, content and research design have been mentioned by Vroom and Jago (2007) and Thompson and Glaso (2015). The Hersey and Blanchard model has been criticised for lacking theoretical or logical justification (Australian Public Service Commission, 2018). Thompson and Glaso (2018) bemoaned the limited empirical evidence of the model's descriptive precision. Despite its popularity and appeal in the academic circles, Robbins and Coulter (2012) advocated for caution when it comes to the endorsement of the theory.

The theoretical basis of the SLT is compromised by a dearth of a robust body of research (Shonhiwa, 2016). There has not been enough empirical justification of the assumptions and propositions enunciated in the approach. In support, Thompson and Glaso (2018) opined that there is lack of empirical testing of the SLT prescriptive principles despite its popularity over many decades. The few peer-reviewed studies that have been published have presented a mixed support for the model (Papworth, Milne and Boak, 2009). There is need to empirically test the validity and applicability of the SLT model especially when it comes to Afrocentric contexts and suggest variations where possible.

There is lack of consistence when it comes to follower's developmental levels in the earlier version of the model and the revised version. There is no clarity on how commitment and competence are combined together to come up with the four levels of development (Yukl, 1989, cited in Shonhiwa, 2016). The earlier version of the model defined the four levels of maturity as unable and unwilling (level 1), unable and willing (level 2), able and unwilling (level 3) and able and willing (level 4) while in the revised

model, the four development levels are defined as low competence and high commitment (D1), some competence and low commitment (D2), high competence and variable commitment (D3), and high competence and high commitment (D4). Vroom and Jago (2007) also observed that the maturity of followers as enunciated by Hersey and Blanchard ignored significant features of the situation within which the leader – follower interaction takes place. There is need to identify the significant features that Vroom and Jago have observed and incorporate them in a revised model to make it more applicable and relevant.

Shonhiwa (2016) bemoaned that the authors of the model failed to explain the theoretical basis upon which the changes in the composition of the developmental levels were based and how competence and commitment were conceptualised and weighted for each development level. In order to address the quagmire of objectively measuring follower competence and development, Thompson and Glaso (2015) proposed that measures such as job experience, educational level and age be used. This was after some progress pertaining to these objective indices had been noticed in studies conducted by Vecchio and Boatwright (2002) and Franklin (2009) prompting Thompson and Glaso to call for further research along those lines. The current research is an indirect response to Thompson and Glaso's call and will consider measures such as age, educational level and experience, among others in coming up with a model relevant to SMEs in Zimbabwe.

In Thompson and Glaso (2018)'s study, few followers were found to be either low on competence but high on commitment and low to moderate competence and low commitment. This could be explained by the strong positive correlation between competence and commitment identified through measurements by both leaders and followers and the reality of modern organisational recruitment practices where leaders avoid recruiting demotivated employees with modest competency skills.

Thompson and Glaso (2015) raised an interesting issue concerning the measurement of follower competence and commitment. Their bone of contention was the use of subjective measures such as ratings done by the supervisor or self-ratings by the follower which may result in attribution bias. There is also danger that leaders may think that since a follower is good in one attribute, they will also be good in the other attribute, for example, Thompson (2008) cited in Thompson and Glaso gives an

example of a leader assuming that a competent follower is also committed. However, Thompson and Glaso believed that where the assessment by the leader and the self-assessment by the follower are consistent, the predictions of the model are likely to be true.

The SLT has been criticised for failing to take into account the role of demographic characteristics such as age, gender, experience and level of education in influencing the leader-follower relationship. In a study conducted by Vecchio and Boatwright (2002) cited in Shonhiwa (2016), older employees were found to have a preference for structure than younger employees and the leadership styles preferred by men were different from those preferred by women. This may signal that although the demographic characteristics were not included in the model, they may play a prominent role in the leadership style preferred by employees. As such the current study will incorporate demographic variables in coming up with either a revised model of the SLT or a completely new model relevant to SMEs in Zimbabwe.

The SLT has failed to clarify whether a leader should match his leadership style to the maturity or developmental level of each member in a group or to the overall maturity or developmental level of the group (Shonhiwa, 2016). Although other scholars have proposed that leaders should match their leadership style to the maturity of the group since groups go through developmental stages that are similar to the ones experienced by individuals, the question of how individuals with different developmental levels will be affected if the leader matches his/her style to the mean developmental level of the group still remains. As such, there is need for more research on how a leader can adapt his/her style to the maturity level of the individual members of the group and the entire group at the same time.

2.6.1.5 Servant Leadership

Although servant leadership is found in the Western literature pertaining to leadership, it is the dominant theme in the African literature relating to leadership (Metz, 2018). Msila (2014) has articulated that although it was developed in the West, servant leadership has a semblance of African models. Although it was Greenleaf who popularised the model of servant leadership, Hannay (n.d.) observed that its origins are in the bible, particularly the stories of Jesus Christ.

Before a leader can contribute to the well-being of people and society, he/she should become a servant first, highlighting the importance of serving first before leading (Msila, 2014). This means that their drive is to serve first rather than to lead first (Hannay, n.d.). Servant leaders strive to meet the needs of others (Kgatlé, 2018). It places great emphasis on the needs of the follower rather than on the self-interest of the leader (Laub, 1999; cited in Mwenje, 2015). However, servant leadership is a paradox since being a servant and being a leader are regarded as opposite terms (Volmink, 2019).

Instead of getting others to do what he wants or thinks best, a servant leader is focused on doing more to help others (Metz, 2018). Servant leadership stimulates a cohesive spirit in the community (Msila, 2014). It prepares people for change, either as change managers or as change agents. The model of servant leadership is effective where team spirit is cultivated between the leader and the followers (Hannay, n.d.). Success in organisations demands cooperation between leaders and followers and between leaders themselves.

Using GLOBE's construct of Humane Orientation and the African cultural philosophy of Ubuntu, servant leadership theory has been shown to be a global rather than a Western model (Winston and Ryan, 2008). As such Africans are recommended to include servant leadership in leadership development (ibid). In a study by Brubaker, Bocarnea, Patterson and Winston (2015) a strong relationship was deduced between servant leadership and perceived leader effectiveness in Rwanda. Rather than only focusing on the espousal of servant leadership behaviours, the development of leaders should also focus on moral reorientation – that is - the proper understanding by leaders of authority, power and purpose. This will ensure that the use of servant leadership behaviours as an instrument for manipulation and exploitation will be avoided.

Empowerment of followers is a key concept in servant leadership (Hannay, n.d.). Great leaders are the ones who are prepared to share power with followers by involving them in planning and decision making. Servant leadership cherishes the principle of accountability (Kgatlé, 2018). This ensures that leaders become accountable to their followers. The success of servant leadership should see followers becoming healthier, wiser and servants themselves (Avolio et al., 2009).

The slow rate of acceptance of the servant leadership model and the problems of operationalising it have been made possible by the fact that servant leadership was conceptualised as a philosophy rather than a technique (Parris and Peachey, 2012 cited in Winkle, Allen, DeVore and Winston, 2014). Smith (2005) opined that the major undoing of the servant leadership theory is its lack of empirical validation since it continues to be grounded in philosophical theory. There is need for studies to be conducted focusing on whether servant leadership is applicable to SMEs in Zimbabwe in particular and Africa in general. Although the current study is not focusing on servant leadership specifically, some of the major principles underlying the principle will be empirically tested even though in an indirect way thereby contributing to the literature on servant leadership.

Some scholars have questioned the applicability of the servant leadership theory with its collectivist aspirations in the modern world where the emphasis has increasingly gravitated towards individualism and performance (Smith, 2005). However, these scholars make a biased assumption that the entire world is individualistic without taking into consideration regions that are highly collectivist in line with the aspirations of servant leadership such as SSA.

2.6.2 Leadership Styles

Leadership style has been defined as a pattern of behaviour which is relatively consistent and which characterises a leader (Dubrin, 2001, cited in Asiimwe, Kavoo-Linge and Sikalieh, 2016). They are the tactics that leaders utilise in order to motivate their followers (Amanchukwu et al., 2015). Since there are no pure leadership styles (Franco and Matos, 2013) that can be categorised as universal (Amanchukwu et al., 2015) researchers have proposed many different styles over a period of time. The assertion by Franco and Matos, and Amanchukwu proves that it is the situation that determines the most effective leadership style since there is no one leadership style that is universally effective.

2.6.2.1 Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership involves inspiring and motivating followers through the use of personal vision and energy (Indermun, 2013). The leader articulates a vision that stimulates the followers' imagination, redirects their actions and motivate them to greater efforts (Nikezic, Doljanica and Bataveljic, 2013). A transformational leader

stimulates and inspires followers to achieve extraordinary results (Robbins and Coulter, 2012) and encourages them to act beyond expectation (Akbar, Sadegh and Chehrazi, 2015).

True transformational leadership results in leaders focusing on the interests of their followers rather than on their own self-interests (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999; cited in Mwenje, 2015). Instead of focusing only on either the leader's needs or the follower's needs, transformational leadership focuses on both needs which is central in the leadership process. Burns (1978) explained the four dimensions of transformational leadership as idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration. Nikezić, Purić and Purić (2012) believed that there is a link between transformational leadership and Max Weber's charismatic leadership approach where leaders are seen as individuals with innate characteristics not found in ordinary human beings. This belief is in line with the explanations of the great man theory and the traits approach.

There is strong evidence to suggest that transformational leadership is positively correlated to workplace outcomes such as higher productivity, employee satisfaction, creativity, lower turnover rates (Eisenbeiß and Boerner, 2013), employee morale (Arzi and Farahbod, 2014) and employee commitment (Fasola et al., 2013). Riaz and Haider (2010) supported by Ahmad et al. (2014) argued that transformational leadership is related to positive employee conduct such as organisational citizenship behaviour.

Mwenje (2015) gives two criticisms of transformational leadership. Firstly, there are overlaps which do not provide clear distinctions especially when it comes to the four behavioural components that make up transformational leadership. It also covers a wide range of activities hence it lacks clarity. In support, McCleskey (2014) has observed an overlap between idealized influence and inspirational motivation, which are two constructs of transformational leadership. Ket de Vries (1995) cited in Owusu et al. (2015) after studying the dark side of leadership claimed that some of the characteristics associated with transformational leaders may spell disastrous consequences for organisations. However, Ket de Vries failed to articulate the characteristics that can negatively affect organisations. In order to enrich literature on

transformational leadership, researchers should dig deeper and articulate the characteristics of transformational leaders that may be negative for organisations.

2.6.2.2 Transactional Leadership

Rather than using either legitimate power or coercive power to get employees to do what they want, most managers engage in a transaction with their subordinates (Bass, 1985). Transactional leadership also known as managerial leadership involves the exchange of tangible rewards (Indermun, 2013), praises and promises (Fasola et al., 2013) for the work and loyalty of followers. Nikezic et al. (2013) posited that followers are rewarded for meeting pre-defined standards and performance. It is worth noting that the rewards are not limited to financial and may be either positive or negative (Asiimwe et al., 2016). These leaders are focused on preserving the status quo. Hargis, John and Chris (2010) believed that transactional leaders are concerned with processes rather than forward thinking ideas.

Transactional leadership expound behaviour from three perspectives namely; contingency reward, management by exception (passive) and management by exception (active) (Dartey-Baah, 2015). Contingency rewards explain the embracing of a reward system which lead to extrinsic motivation by leaders in exchange for followers attaining a preferred outcome. Passive management by exception entails giving followers space to carry out their functions without unnecessary intervention. The leader will only intervene when there are deviations concerning performance standards. Active management by exception results in the leader adopting a micromanaging approach which involves paying strict attention to followers' activities to ensure strict adherence to procedures and correcting deviances when they occur.

Through the linking of job performance and rewards, transactional leadership assists an organisation in achieving its objectives (Albloshi and Nawar, 2015). McCleskey (2014) opined that it may lead to short term exchange relationship between the leader and the follower. However, this means that the style may be ideal where employees are on a short-term contract and are meant to deliver on specific assignments. As such it may not be ideal where employees are required on a long-term basis and where they are expected to be creative and innovative.

The relationship between transactional leaders and followers is not based on emotions and tend to be brief (Albloshi and Nawar, 2015). Rawung et al. (2015) views it as a

joint-venture relationship devoid of any emotional bond. Some of the measures associated with transactional leadership may demotivate employees (Asiimwe et al., 2016). Employees may not be inspired to go beyond the basic requirements and may settle for the minimum performance just to avoid penalties attached.

Many scholars have criticised transactional leadership for proposing a one-size-fits-all general approach that does not take into account situational and contextual factors (McCleskey, 2014). If the promised rewards are delayed or not accomplished, it will nullify the relationship (Aziz et al., 2013; Asiimwe et al., 2016). Most transactional leaders have been found to be risk averse and excel in stable and predictable situations (Bass, 1990 cited in Arham et al., 2015). Transactional leadership is associated with masculine personalities because it encourages employees to compete for rewards thereby encouraging aggression and assertion (Matar, 2015). This means that transactional leadership style may not flourish in a situation where feminine personalities are dominant and where aggression is an anathema.

The use of transactional leadership in Saudi Arabian SMEs was found to have resulted in managerial problems such as high employee turnover and stagnant profits (Albloshi and Nawar, 2015). Asiimwe et al. (2016) opined that transactional leadership erroneously assumes that all employees are motivated by rewards whereas other employees may be motivated by personal growth and skills development. As such, this style may lead to high employee turnover and continuous employee recruitment which may prove to be expensive for the organisation.

Although some scholars believe in the superiority of transformational leadership over transactional leadership, others maintain that both styles may be relevant under different situations (Baskarada, Watson and Cromarty, 2016). Although striking differences exist between transformational and transactional leadership, effective leaders should be encouraged to use both styles in different situations and at different times rather than being either transformational or transactional.

2.6.2.3 Laissez-Faire Leadership

With laissez-faire leadership, employees are given complete freedom to make decisions (Indermun, 2013) and determine their own deadlines (Amanchukwu et al., 2015). Khan et al. (2017) and Mwenje (2015) categorised laissez-faire leadership as the absence or the avoidance of leadership. This is because the leaders lack

confidence in their capacity to manage and supervise employees (Jogulu and Wood, 2006).

Rauf (2014) categorised the laissez-faire leadership style as a fairly modern approach because it affords employees a free rein to accomplish their work as they think best. The autonomy given to employees can lead to increased job satisfaction and productivity (Amanchukwu et al., 2015). However, it becomes disastrous when team members lack skills, knowledge and motivation to perform their job tasks effectively.

It works well in situations where employees are highly capable and motivated and they do not require close monitoring and constant supervision (Indermun, 2013). Goodnight (2011) cited in Amanchukwu et al. (2015) believed laissez-faire can be a good or bad leadership style depending on what happens. It becomes effective if the leader is prepared to monitor performance and offer regular feedback to team members.

2.6.2.4 Autocratic Leadership

Autocratic leaders make decisions without consulting followers (Dyczkowska and Dyczkowski, 2018; Indermun, 2013). They do not allow employees to participate in the decision-making process (Khan et al., 2017). In most instances they are firm and they supervise employees meticulously, ensuring that procedures are strictly followed (Jogulu and Wood, 2006). They have been found to be confident and comfortable about the decision-making responsibility (Iqbal et al., 2015).

On the positive side, autocratic leadership style is efficient (Amanchukwu et al., 2015). Decisions are quick and soon after the decision has been made, implementation can begin. Authoritarianism is highly desirable when an organisation is embroiled in a crisis (Iqbal, Anwar and Haider, 2015; Rauf, 2014) which requires quick decisions (Indermun, 2013) made without any dissent (Amanchukwu et al., 2015).

Although autocratic leadership may give a clear business direction, the manager may ignore or belittle contribution from employees (Iqbal et al., 2015). In actual fact little opportunity is availed to employees to make contributions or suggestions even in instances where they may be beneficial to the organisation or team (Amanchukwu et al., 2015). Akoma et al. (2014) postulated that the autocratic style does not permit employees to exercise their initiative at work resulting in them losing confidence. As such a lot of mistakes are experienced resulting in wastage of materials.

Although autocratic style may exhibit great results in the short term, Iqbal et al. (2015) believed that its excessive use may distort productivity in the long term. Michael (2010) cited in Ojokuku et al. (2012) believed that followers of autocratic leaders do not follow them wholeheartedly but can be characterised as bidding their time waiting for the day failure will be visible and the leader will be removed.

2.6.2.5 Democratic Leadership

Although democratic leaders make the final decision, they incorporate employees in the decision-making process (Amanchukwu et al., 2015). They view feedback as a mechanism they can use to coach employees (Robbins and Coulter, 2012). Democratic leadership allows employees to be creative and innovative and, in the process, benefiting the organisation (Mwenje, 2015). Employees are also allowed to freely speak their mind and offer suggestions (Khan et al., 2017).

In situations where the problem is complex requiring different perspectives, democratic leadership becomes ideal (Mwenje, 2015). Mwenje postulated that this type of leadership is ideal with strong leaders who can remain positive while maintaining performance and control. The benefits of democratic leadership are that employees may experience high job satisfaction and be productive because of the involvement in decision making processes (Amanchukwu et al., 2015).

However, with democratic leadership, employees may believe that they have the right to veto decisions by managers and become lax in their behaviour at work (Uchenwamgbe, 2013). The processes are slow and require a great amount of effort (Ojokuku, 2012). In instances where there is high need for speed and efficiency such as in a crisis situation, democratic leadership may fail as more time is spent gathering input from members (Amanchukwu et al., 2015). It can be concluded that involving employees in decision making may only be ideal and beneficial if employees have the requisite knowledge and expertise to provide quality input.

The leadership styles discussed above are not exhaustive. It is clear from the literature that no one style is ideal for all the situations that organisations face. As such organisations should choose the best style for the situation at hand. Leadership theories and styles discussed above will form part of the literature that will be used to construct questions about the predominant leadership styles used by SMEs in

Zimbabwe and the effectiveness of leadership in those SMEs in line with the first and second objectives of the current study.

2.7 Gap analysis on review of key authors

From the literature review conducted above, the following key authors have been selected as relevant to the study topic:

Table 2.3: Gap analysis on review of key authors

Author(s)	Key points covered	Gaps (what is not covered)	Remarks
Okantey (2014); Nkomo (2011)	Inapplicability and ineffectiveness of Western leadership in Africa	What is applicable and relevant in Africa	The study seeks to develop a leadership model relevant to SMEs in Zimbabwe
Galperin and Alamuri (2017); Ngunjiri (2016); Msila (2015)	Making ubuntu the basis of leadership development and practice in Africa	The suitability and applicability of ubuntu in Zimbabwe	The study will measure the suitability and applicability of ubuntu in Zimbabwe before adopting the philosophy.
Kuada (2010)	Aspects of African culture that support leadership effectiveness and aspects that inhibit leadership effectiveness	Failed to categorise which aspects support and which ones inhibit leadership effectiveness	The study will identify aspects that support effective leadership and adopt them in the conceptual framework
Dorfman et al. (2012); Wanasika et al. (2011)	Correlation between age and leadership in SSA	Evidence that older people will be better leaders	The study will explore further the relationship between age and leadership

Nyamwanza and Mavhiki (2014)	Inability of SMEs to drive economic growth despite government support	What should be done for SMEs to drive economic growth	The study proposes an Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) model as the solution
Saasongu (2015); Jalal-Eddeen (2015)	Inappropriate leadership style causes high SMEs failure rate	Which one is the appropriate leadership style for SMEs	The study will propose an appropriate leadership model for Zimbabwean SMEs
Thompson and Glaso (2018); Henkel and Bourdeau, (2018); Shonhiwa, (2016); Vroom and Jago (2007)	Relevance of the SLT	Whether SLT in its prescriptive form is relevant to Zimbabwean SMEs	The study will assess whether the SLT is relevant to Zimbabwean SMEs

2.8 Chapter Summary

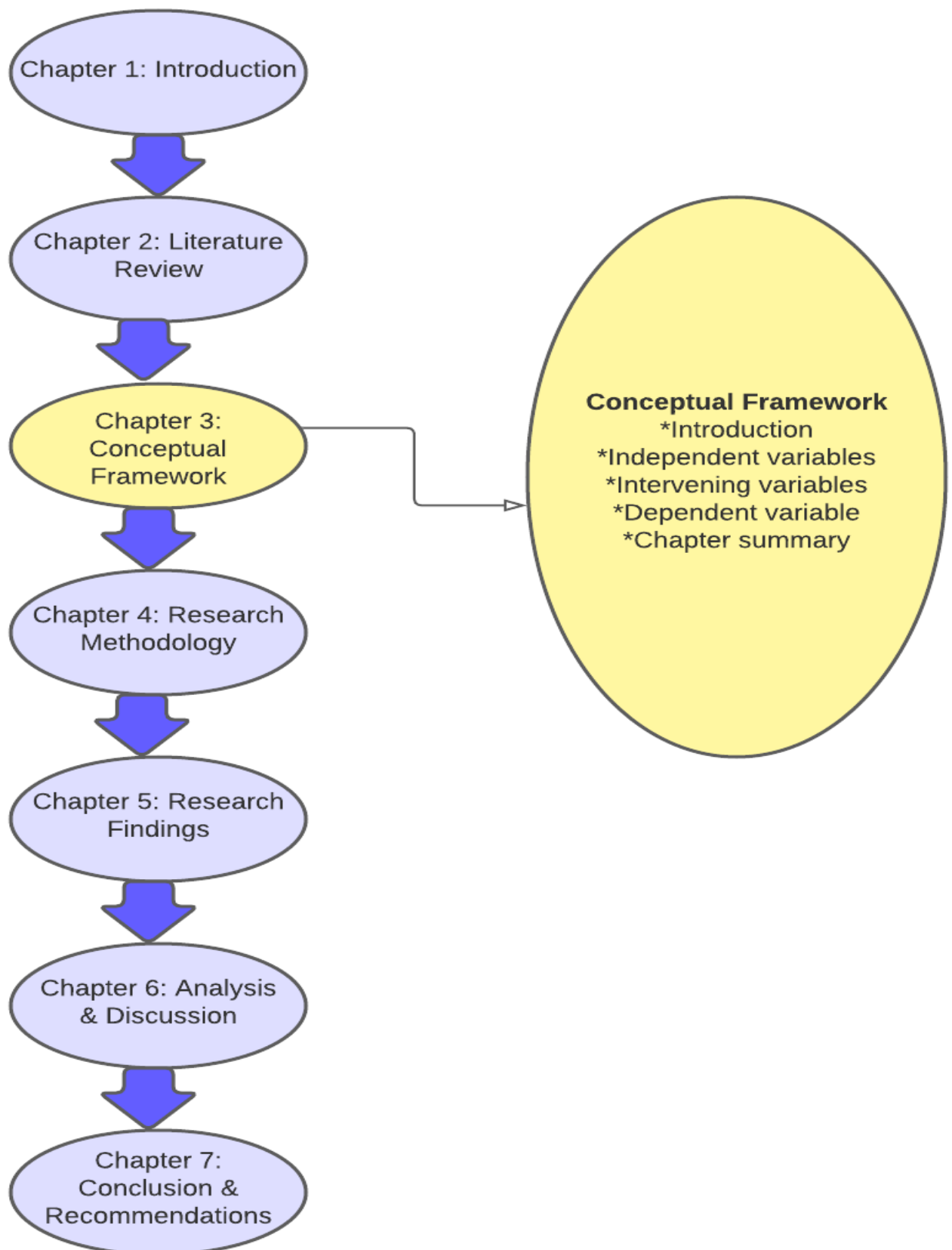
In this chapter, the researcher explained the concept of leadership and argued that Western-oriented leadership may be irrelevant in Africa given the differences in context between Africa and the West. The chapter also positioned ubuntu philosophy as a basis of effective leadership in Africa before looking at the influence of culture on leadership. SMEs in Zimbabwe were analysed, covering their emergence, importance, challenges and leadership. Lastly, the chapter looked at leadership theories and styles in general. The next chapter will present in detail the conceptual framework proposed for SMEs in Zimbabwe.

CHAPTER THREE: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

Chapter two identified, interpreted, analysed and evaluated what scholars have written about leadership in SMEs. The researcher explained the concept of leadership and argued that Western-oriented leadership may be irrelevant in Africa given the differences in context between Africa and the West. Ubuntu philosophy was positioned as a basis of effective leadership and the chapter also looked at the influence of culture on leadership. After adequately analysing the emergence, importance, challenges and leadership of SMEs in Zimbabwe, different leadership theories and styles were identified and analysed. This chapter presents the conceptual framework proposed for SMEs in Zimbabwe. The proposed conceptual framework was both in a graphical and narrative format exhibiting the relationship between key independent, intervening and dependent variables as highlighted by the chapter overview flow diagram shown in figure 3.1 below.

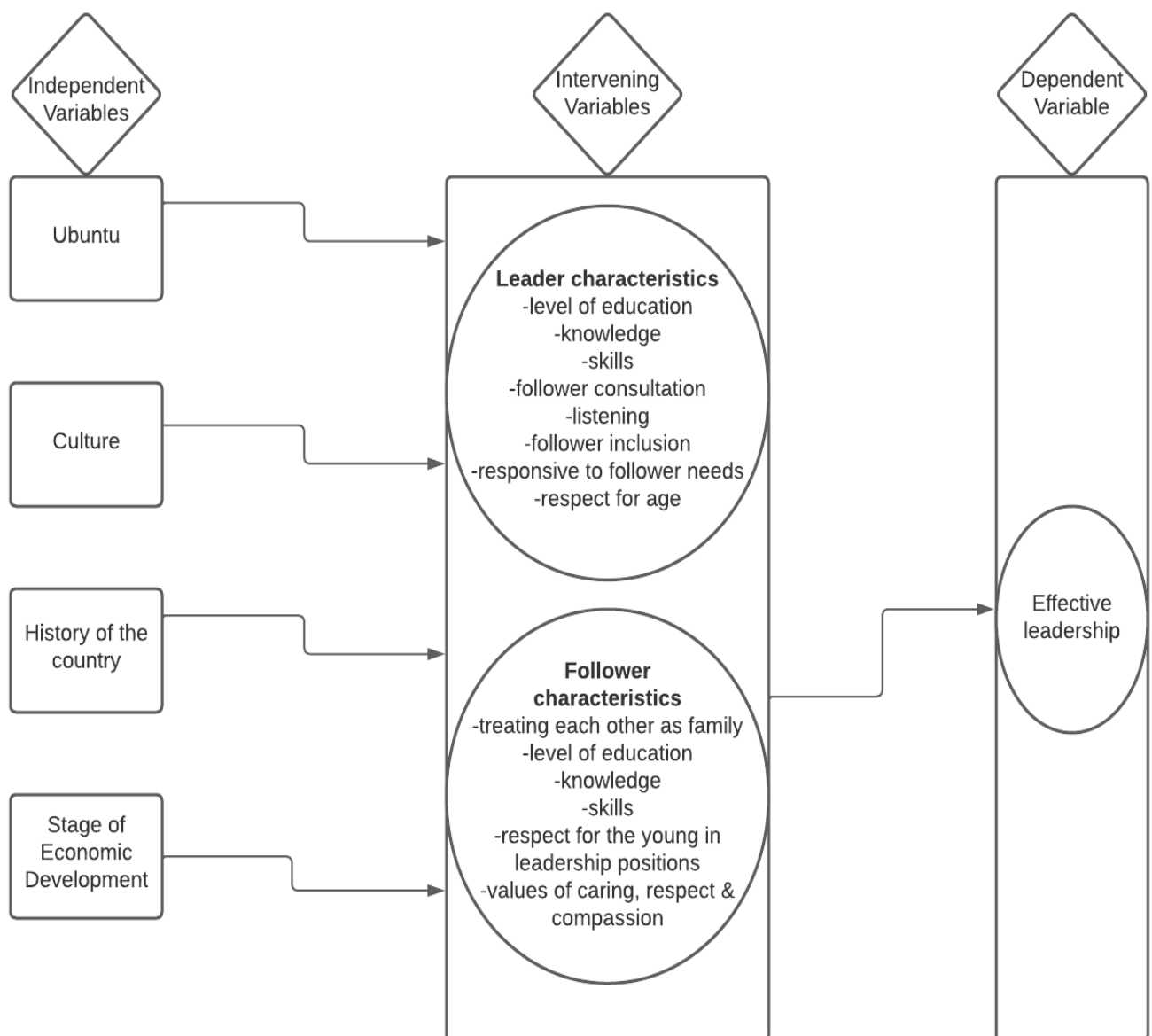
Figure 3.1: Chapter three overview flowchart



Source: Researcher's compilation

Effective leadership depends on a number of variables which differ from region to region, and also sometimes from country to country. Some variables that create effective leadership in Africa are different from variables that engender effective leadership in other continents, although there are other variables that are common. Effective leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs largely depends on four independent variables namely ubuntu, culture, history of the country and stage of economic development of the country. In order for these independent variables to engender effective leadership, they work in collaboration with leader characteristics and follower characteristics as intervening variables as shown in figure 3.2 below.

Figure 3.2: Conceptual framework



Source: Researcher's compilation

3.2 Independent variables

3.2.1 Ubuntu

Most of the countries south of the Sahara, Zimbabwe included, cherish the philosophy of ubuntu as part of what makes society successful. Given the widespread acceptance of ubuntu in Zimbabwe, it is inconceivable that leadership can be effective without taking into consideration this philosophy. In trying to link ubuntu with leadership, Regine (2009) cited in Nzimakwe (2014) prophesied that in the twenty first century great leaders will have ubuntu. These leaders will be happy and cherish other people's success, knowing fully well that the success of others translates to everyone's success and by the same token the failure of others will be everyone's failure. Ubuntu inspired leaders will encourage others to participate, share and support each other and in the process creating cooperative and collaborative work environments. Even if these leaders command incredible power, they will build relationships based on mutual trust and respect.

In the African context, the leader should work with followers in an inclusive and collective manner, making sure that the interests of all the parties involved are well respected. This is in line with the postulation of Nzimakwe (2014) that Afrocentric leadership is predicated on the ubuntu based value system that is inclusive and recognises the collectivist concept of the interdependence of people at work.

Leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs should be based on the values of humaneness, caring, sharing, respect, compassion, honesty, tolerance and hospitality in line with ubuntu. Modelling leadership around this philosophy will ensure that leaders get the necessary buy in from their followers. When ubuntu is incorporated into leadership, peaceful and harmonious relationships are cultivated such that effectiveness becomes inevitable.

Effective leadership should cherish the humanity and dignity of each person irrespective of the differences in social identities as enunciated by Tutu (1999). This means that whether an individual is a leader or a follower, they should be respected and afforded the dignity they deserve as a person. People by nature are interconnected and should treat each other as part of the extended family irrespective of whether one is a leader or a follower. For leadership to thrive, there should be an

interdependency between the leader and the followers and also between the followers themselves.

In line with the principles of ubuntu, leaders should care for their followers and followers should also care for their leaders. However, this caring of others should be done in such a way that the autonomy and self-respect of others is respected. Leaders and followers should walk together in such a way that they both achieve their purpose in the relationship. The value of compassion should be central in the leadership matrix.

For effective leadership to be rooted in countries such as Zimbabwe, there is need to institute a leadership model that is in line with communal values. The interests of the group or team should take precedence over the interests of the individual hence directive and supportive leadership may be ideal. As such, greater prominence should be placed on group relations and follower well-being.

3.2.2 Culture

Effective leadership depends on the culture of the different parties involved in the leadership process. It also depends to an extent on the culture of the country. Since in African culture there are both aspects that inhibit effective leadership and those that promote and enhance effective leadership, the envisioned leadership model for SMEs in Zimbabwe leverage on those aspects of African culture that promote and enhance positive leadership behaviour while at the same time leaving out those aspects that impede effective leadership.

Since researchers such as Metz (2018); Nwadike (2011); Kuada (2010) and House et al. (2002) have recognised and written about the influence of culture on leadership, it is very difficult to understand leadership styles and behaviours without taking into consideration the culture of a particular society. Leadership behaviours are greatly influenced by national cultures through the expectations that societies have of leadership (Dorfman et al., 2012). As such, if any leadership model is to be effective, it should be able to match leadership behaviour and those expectations. Effective leadership in the context of Zimbabwe should be able to value group solidarity, commitment, sharing, compromise and consensus, and good social and personal relations.

In SSA countries which include Zimbabwe, there exists high power distance relationships which are based on age and status (Wanasika et al., 2011). This has been supported by Magang and Magang (2017) who opined that age and experience are the basis of gaining authority in high power distance cultures, with the authority being enforced through centralisation of power. In Zimbabwe which is generally regarded as a high-power distance nation, there is an expectation and acceptance that power is distributed unequally. It is accepted that managers possess more power than subordinates and that the subordinates are expected to comply with the managers' requests. The issue only comes on how the leaders use the unequal power that they have over their followers. In line with cultural expectations of compromise, consensus and good social and personal relations, leaders should not abuse or misuse the power that they have over their followers.

The relationship between the leader and his/her followers in Zimbabwean SMEs should be modelled according to cultural expectations. Culture determines what people accept or reject and also how they model their behaviour. As such it is necessary that culture should be at the centre of how people are led. Culture determines behaviours that are expected from both the leader and the follower and accepted by society.

3.2.3 History of the country

Every country has a history which shapes contemporary developments. There are certain historical developments that leave indelible marks on countries in such a way that future events and developments cannot be framed in isolation of the historical developments regardless of the timeframe. Zimbabwe like most of the countries in Africa was affected by the partitioning of the continent in such a way that contemporary events cannot be adequately understood without referring to the colonisation of the country.

Before colonisation, leadership and management systems which had proved to be effective were in place as evidenced by Pillay et al. (2013) who argued that the history of Africa showed that the indigenous knowledge systems that existed during the pre-colonial era resulted in effective management. This has been corroborated by Ngara (n. d) who opined that the existence of things such as the monuments of Great

Zimbabwe and the pyramids of Egypt proves that strong leadership existed well before settlers came to Africa.

Like most African countries, Zimbabwe went through a period of colonisation where indigenous people were dominated by the colonialists. The people of African descent were also discriminated against and made to feel inferior. A number of changes pertaining to leadership took place during this period with great bearing on contemporary effective leadership in Zimbabwe. One such development was an inclination on the part of colonialists to either completely ignore or to downgrade traditionally established leadership systems as reported by Duke 11, (2010), cited in Okantey, (2014). The ways of life of the indigenous people including leadership systems were demonised by the coloniser (Makaudze, 2017). People's attitudes and mindsets were also significantly changed during colonialism.

Most of the returning exiles who later became leaders of the state and public and private organisations after the end of colonisation had spent considerable time outside Africa, mostly in the West (Smith, 2003). They had been educated in the West and were more inclined to follow western-oriented leadership models they had learnt and been accustomed to for a very long time. This shaped their thinking and practice and made them adopt western approaches to leadership without paying any regard to traditional and effective leadership practices that had existed and sustained the continent. As a result of the unfortunate behaviours exhibited by colonialists being deeply entrenched, these same behaviours were assumed and perpetuated by African leaders and passed to successive generations of leaders post the colonial period. This is the reason why Ocheni and Nwankwo (2012) believed that some of the selfish behaviours exhibited by leaders in contemporary Africa can be ascribed to the effects of colonialism. This is also the reason why Nkomo (2011) has postulated that the corrupt and ineffective management of many contemporary African organisations can be traced back to colonialism.

Contemporary leadership in Zimbabwe has been greatly affected by colonialism such that traditional systems that used to work and still can work in modern times are easily regarded as backward and retrogressive. Colonialism was meant to subjugate the natives in such a way that they would view themselves and their ways as inferior to the ways and systems of the colonial masters. Leadership development in Africa

should take into consideration the indelible mark of inferiority that was left by colonialism concerning traditional ways and systems. There is need to resurrect some of the noble practices and systems that had existed and used effectively by local people.

This is the reason why scholars such as Nkomo (2011) have called for the reclaiming and reinstitutionalisation of indigenous African leadership and management in order to solve developmental challenges that have bedevilled the continent. While scholars argued for the reclaiming and reinstitutionalisation of indigenous African leadership and management systems, there is need to take into cognisance the fact that we are living in a modern and different era. As such the conceptual framework will adopt those traditional systems that are still relevant as they are and modernise the others for them to apply to the 21st century and beyond. This was the thinking of Poncian and Mgaya (2015) when they opined that invaluable lessons can be learnt irrespective of the differences between the circumstances and conditions of the pre-colonial era and the 21st century era.

Any modern leadership framework for Africa in general and Zimbabwe in particular needs to include tried and tested characteristics from the pre-colonial era such as the sharing of leadership; where one could be a leader in a certain context and a follower in another context. Other notable leadership features that should be learnt from the pre-colonial leadership include decentralisation, consultation, unanimity and consensus.

3.2.4 Stage of economic development of the country

The stage of economic development of a country affects leadership. The way both leaders and followers behave and interact with each other is partly determined by the level of economic development of a nation, and so is the context in which leadership takes place. There are certain things that are necessary for leadership to be effective in a developing nation which are not necessary or fundamental in a developed nation. Level of economic development affects the resources which are available and also the level of enlightenment of the generality of the people. In a developed nation for instance, technology is more accessible than in a less developed nation. At the same time, information is widely available to most people in real time in developed countries

than in developing countries. This in turn shapes the development of people in general and ultimately leadership.

Zimbabwe has been undergoing a prolonged period of economic challenges spanning more than two decades. Although the economic development of the country had been promising the first decade after independence, things began to change with the adoption of the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) policies in 1991. As a result, a number of companies closed resulting in high unemployment (Mavengere, 2015). Although hope had been restored with the adoption of the multi-currency system in 2009, the situation has continued to deteriorate over the years, exacerbated by a number of additional factors. This has seen the development of the country regressing with the standard of living of the majority continuing to plummet. This has resulted in employees desisting from any action that they may feel will negatively affect their job security such as challenging their managers and demanding accountability and transparency.

The way followers from a developing nation engage their leaders is different from the way followers from a developed nation engage their leaders. Followers living in a developing nation are more likely to hesitate to engage their leaders on an equal level and are less likely to challenge their leaders or demand accountability and transparency. This is more so if there is a wide economic gap between the leader and the followers. This is also because in a less developed nation followers are mostly concerned with survival hence challenging the leader or demanding accountability and transparency may be deemed as a dangerous adventure which may result in a follower losing their job. If followers lose their current jobs, it will be difficult for them to find alternative jobs because the less developed a country is the fewer job opportunities are available in the market.

3.3 Intervening variables

3.3.1 Leader characteristics

A leader is an individual who influences others towards the achievement of either group or organisational goals. Leaders play an important role in engendering effective leadership. The leader's characteristics, competencies and behaviours such as the leader's level of education, knowledge and skills that the leader possess, the extent to which the leader consults and listens to followers when making decisions, the extent

to which the leader is inclusive of followers, the extent to which the leader is responsive to the needs of followers and the extent to which the leader has respect for age affects their level of effectiveness.

For leaders to effectively lead, they need education, whether it is formal or informal. Studies by scholars such as Bell et al. (2015) found education to be associated with effective leadership. Education is necessary for the leader to effectively discharge his/her responsibilities. The leader should endeavour to acquire knowledge in relevant areas and skills such as communication, problem solving, conflict resolution, emotional intelligence and decision making for them to effectively lead. Bell et al. believed that attributes that are necessary for effective leadership such as emotional intelligence, intelligence and self-confidence can actually be increased through education. Every leader should improve his/her leadership and this can only be made possible through the acquisition of knowledge. As leaders improve their education, their leadership styles and effectiveness will also improve. As leaders improve their level of education, they gain vital knowledge and skills necessary for them to effectively lead their followers. The world is not static but dynamic and ever-changing necessitating the acquisition of new and relevant knowledge to replace outdated and obsolete knowledge that leaders might have.

Being a leader does not make one to have monopoly over knowledge. As a result of that fact, leaders should cultivate a culture of consulting their followers when making decisions. Consultation and inclusivity are the foundations of African philosophy as postulated by Nicolaides and Duho (2019). In line with the philosophy of ubuntu, leaders should work with followers in an inclusive and collective manner thereby building relationships that are based on mutual trust and respect. By consulting and including followers, the leader is guaranteed that quality decisions will be made and the followers will accept the ultimate decision and support its implementation wholeheartedly.

Not only should the leader consult and include followers, but also should listen to them and do everything in their best interest. An effective leader should be an active listener who passionately desires to understand the needs of his/her followers thereby uplifting their lives by responding to their needs and feelings. Leaders must be good at reading and understanding the needs of their followers and responding to those needs in a

way that makes the followers satisfied and ready to travel the leadership journey with the leader.

In Zimbabwe like many SSA countries, age is an important factor in societal relationships. Age has always been associated with the accumulation of wisdom and authority as explained by Wanasika et al. (2011) hence the deep respect accorded to elders. As such engendering effective leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs requires leaders who have high respect for age. An effective leader should understand the dynamics associated with age in an African context and lead accordingly. The way that the leader should interact with followers older than him/her should be different from the way he/she interacts with younger followers. This should be evidenced in the way the leader either issues instructions to followers or reprimands them.

Although traditionally in SSA countries including Zimbabwe, males who were advanced in age were given respect and leadership positions, contemporary circumstances have changed such that even younger people are also assuming leadership positions and in some instances with followers much older than them. However, even in those circumstances there is need to take into consideration age in the way that young leaders lead older followers and in the way that older leaders lead young followers. For instance, if the leader is younger than the followers, the way that he/she interacts with the followers will be greatly influenced by their age difference. The age of the leader versus the age of the follower together with the context in which the relationship takes place can determine how they interact and ultimately the end results.

3.3.2 Follower characteristics

Effective leadership should be a two-way process between the leader and his/her followers. In the same way that leaders play an important role in engendering effective leadership, followers are a vital and significant constituent in effective leadership. The followers' characteristics and behaviours such as the ability to treat each other as part of the extended family; exhibiting values such as caring, respect and compassion; respect for the young in positions of leadership; and level of education, knowledge and skill play a momentous role in engendering effective leadership.

For leadership to be effective, followers should treat each other as part of the extended family and motivate their leaders to work with them in an inclusive and collective

manner. When they treat each other as part of the family, they will genuinely love each other, show unity of purpose and work collaboratively towards the achievement of common goals and objectives. When followers treat their co-workers as part of their family, they will be prepared to resolve conflicts amicably whenever they arise.

Followers should exhibit values of caring, respect and compassion. When they do that, they will create an environment where everyone will freely and happily contribute towards the achievement of the common goals. When that happens even the leader will not be left behind and will become part of the organisational family. Effective followers should not only expect to be cared for by their leaders or care for each other, they should also care for their leaders.

Followers just like leaders should have respect for age, particularly respect for the young in positions of leadership. In order to create harmony and understanding at work, followers must take into consideration their age versus the age of their leader. For instance, the way followers interact with a leader younger than them should be such that it does not create impressions that they are using age as a basis for belittling or taking advantage of the leader. Followers being led by a younger leader should treat the leader with mutual respect and create an environment that allows the leader to flourish in his/her responsibilities.

Followers just like leaders have a responsibility to acquire knowledge whether in a formal or informal way. Through the acquisition of knowledge, followers can improve the way they interact with their leaders thereby contributing to effective leadership. If followers are to be consulted and included in decision making, they should have the requisite knowledge and skills for them to contribute meaningfully such that the leader will find it beneficial to include them in decision making. Acquisition of knowledge on the part of the followers will make them qualified and ready to share leadership with the leader in certain instances. Having relevant knowledge and requisite skills will enable followers to hold their leaders to account in an effective and beneficial manner.

3.4 Dependent variable

3.4.1 Effective leadership

For SMEs in Zimbabwe to achieve sustainable success, leadership should be effective. Effective leadership plays an important role in the growth and success of

SMEs (Daka et al., 2017; Lekhanya, 2015). When leadership is effective in Zimbabwean SMEs, employees will be excited to come to work and provide their all. When leaders are effective, employees will be satisfied (Dalluay and Jalagat, 2016; Albloshi and Nawar, 2015). When they are satisfied, they will be excited to come to work and put in maximum effort. Effective leadership results in employees being motivated to assume additional responsibilities whenever they arise. When leadership is effective, employees become more enthusiastic and attached to organisational activities (Gabriela and Dorinela, 2017). Employees will be committed to their work (Naile and Selesho, 2014) such that they will willingly go an extra mile and work beyond what their traditional job descriptions prescribe.

Effective leadership is shown by employees being committed to the decisions of their superiors. When leaders are effective, subordinates will have confidence in them and as a result be committed to the decisions they make (Goe and Martey, 2020). Effective leaders support their subordinates in career development (Litano and Major, 2016). They assist them to reach the highest possible degree of personal development (Nyanga, 2012). Assisting employees in career development will result in satisfied employees who will in turn influence superior performance. One way that may be used to judge the effectiveness of leadership is whether organisational goals are consistently achieved. It is the responsibility of effective leaders to find superior ways to influence subordinates to consistently achieve organisational goals (Igbaekemen, 2014). Leadership can only be categorised as effective if it results in superior performance that enables the organisation to achieve its goals consistently (Madanchian and Taherdoost, 2017).

3.5 Chapter Summary

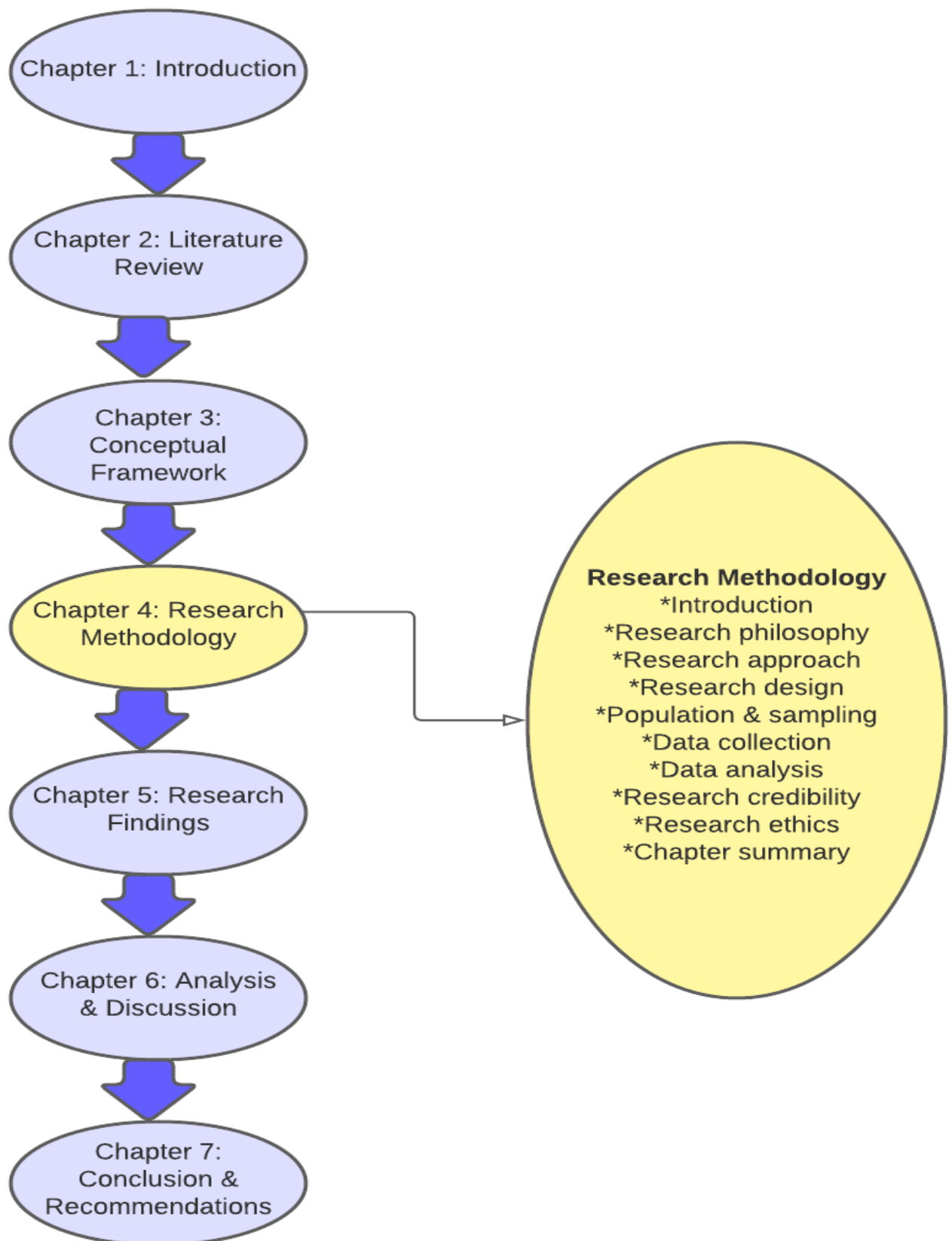
This chapter presented the conceptual framework proposed for effective leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs. The framework was presented both in graphical and narrative format exhibiting key variables and concepts to be studied and their theoretical relationships. The next chapter will discuss the research methodology used for the study.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

Chapter three presented the conceptual framework proposed for SMEs in Zimbabwe. The proposed framework was presented both in a graphical and narrative format exhibiting the relationship between key independent, intervening and dependent variables. The current chapter presents the research methodology guided by different themes. Themes such as research philosophy, research approach and research design are presented. These are followed by population and sampling, data collection, data analysis, research credibility and research ethics as shown by the chapter overview flowchart in figure 4.1 below.

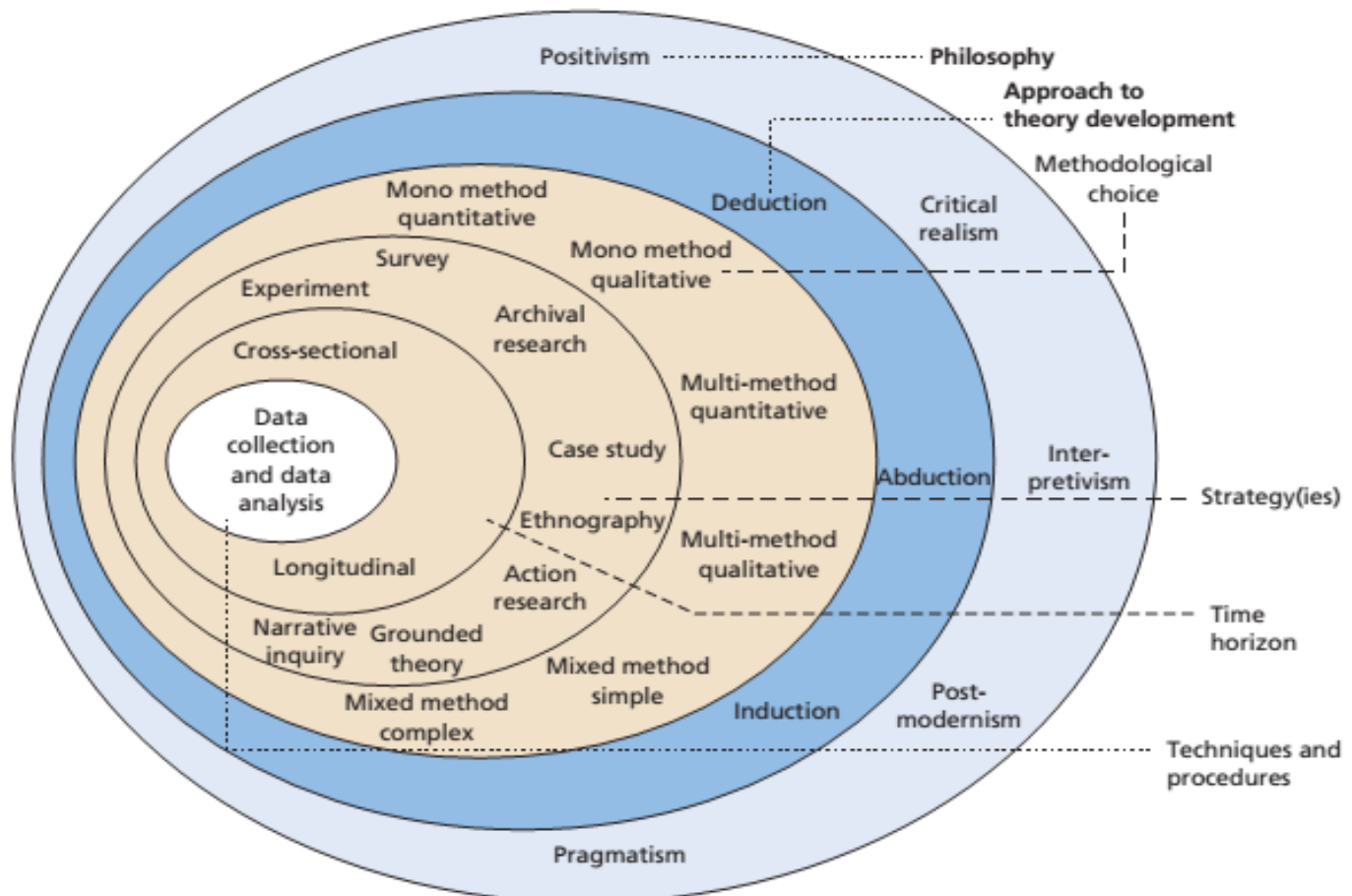
Figure 4.1: Chapter four overview flowchart



Source: Researcher compilation

The purpose is to select a method or methods that permit reliable, substantiated and germane data to be collected in order to meet research objectives. The study's methodology construction was based on the theoretical 'research onion' propounded by Saunders et al. (2016) as shown in figure 4.2 below.

Figure 4.2: Research onion



Source: Saunders et al. (2016)

4.2 Research Philosophy

Every research is concerned with the development of knowledge in a particular field and the nature of that knowledge (Saunders et al., 2016). Despite the fact that philosophical ideas remain hidden in research, they are fundamental because of the influence they have in the practice of research and as such they need to be identified (Creswell and Creswell, 2018). Research philosophy plays a critical role in determining the research design that is most applicable and the reason why it is most applicable (Easterby-Smith et al., 1999 cited in Al-Ababneh, 2020). Research philosophy is the

system of beliefs and assumptions concerning the development of knowledge (Zukauskas, Vveinhardt and Andriukaitiee, 2018).

The researcher's ontological position was that of the objectivist. This choice was motivated by the desire to discover the truth about leadership through the medium of observable and quantifiable facts from which we can draw law-like generalisations about leadership in the African context.

Although there are a number of philosophies such as positivism, realism, interpretivism, transformative and pragmatism which researchers may embrace with regards to the development of knowledge, this study adopted the positivism research philosophy. Positivism places greater emphasis on empirical data collection and effect-oriented analysis (Neuman, 2014). The philosophy believes that the world we inhabit is real and researchers can find out about these realities through scientific methods (Walliman, 2011). As such the role of the researcher who should be neutral is to offer an objective explanation of any chosen phenomenon.

The philosophy was chosen because it places emphasis on the importance of objectivity and evidence while searching for the truth. The philosophy was also selected because it enabled objective and value-free inquiry which allowed the researcher to distance himself from any impact on research findings. Saunders et al. (2016) opined that the stringently scientific empiricist method of the positivist is intended to produce pure data and facts that are not influenced by human interpretation and bias. With positivism, when data has been collected there is little that can be done to modify the substance of the data. Additionally, the philosophy has been chosen with the aim of developing a unique and sophisticated explanation of leadership in the Zimbabwean context that is true irrespective of what people think as advocated by Walliman (2011).

Positivism philosophy has been chosen because of its ability to search for cause-and-effect relationships as postulated by Kivunya and Kuyini (2017). The researcher's aim was to provide explanations and to make predictions based on measurable outcomes as enunciated by the positivism philosophy. These measurable outcomes are undergirded by four assumptions namely determinism, empiricism, parsimony and generalisability. In line with the assumption of determinism the researcher believed that the events observed about leadership in an African context were caused by other

factors. In line with the assumption of empiricism, in order to investigate the research problem, verifiable empirical data was collected which supported the theoretical framework chosen for the research. This enabled the testing of the hypotheses formulated.

The positivist philosophy was chosen to enable the researcher to explain the leadership phenomenon in the most economical way possible in line with the parsimony assumption explained by Kivunya and Kuyini (2017). The chosen philosophy enabled results from the research to be generalised to other contexts by inductive inferences in line with the generalisability assumption. The researcher opted for the positivism philosophy because it afforded the opportunity to use a highly structured methodology so as to facilitate replication as argued by Gill and Johnson (2010) cited in Saunders et al. (2016).

The survey strategy adopted in this research for primary data collection is related to the positivism philosophy. As such, it became logical and easier to adopt this philosophy for this study as advocated by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011). The positivist philosophy allowed for the development of hypotheses which were tested and either confirmed or refuted.

4.3 Research Approach

Normally the approach to theory development is implied by the research philosophy adopted (Melnikovas, 2018). The choice of a research approach is important because it precedes the choice of the study's design. There are three key approaches to theory development namely deductive, inductive and abductive approaches (Saunders et al., 2016). The study adopted the deductive approach. With deductive approach, a theory is developed and then rigorously tested through a series of propositions (ibid).

The deductive research approach chosen started with a tentative idea that leadership in an African context in general and in Zimbabwean SMEs in particular is different from leadership practiced in a non-African context. This was followed by the development of a set of hypotheses to form a theory. Using existing literature and setting conditions under which the theory was expected to hold, a number of testable propositions were deduced as advocated by Saunders et al. (2016). Appropriate data was then collected to measure and analyse the variables.

Deduction was chosen because of the ability to explain causal relationships between variables. The approach was ideal because it allowed concepts to be operationalised in a manner that enabled facts to be measured quantitatively. The study opted for the deductive approach because there existed a wealth of literature pertaining to leadership from which the researcher could define a theoretical framework and hypotheses.

Saunders et al. (2016) opined that deductive research maybe quicker to complete provided that time is devoted to setting up the study before data collection and analysis. Additionally, although there are risks such as the non-return of questionnaires, deduction can be a lower-risk strategy (ibid). Deduction as a strategy was also chosen because most managers are more likely to have faith in the conclusions emanating from the approach as they are familiar with the approach. A deductive approach compliments the positivism philosophy which was adopted for this research. In a bid to come up with objective conclusions, a positivism philosophy depends on deductive logic, development and testing of hypotheses (Kivunya and Kuyini, 2017).

Choosing the most appropriate research approach was important for this study because it empowered the researcher to take an informed decision about research design. Understanding the research approach assisted the researcher in identifying the research strategies that worked for the study and those that did not as argued by Saunders et al. (2016). Knowledge of the chosen research approach and the other approaches helped the researcher in adapting the research design to take into consideration constraints.

4.4 Research Design

Every research study should have a clearly spelt out general plan of how the researcher will go about answering research questions (Saunders et al., 2016). Research design is subdivided into four layers namely methodological choice, nature of research, research strategy and time horizon.

4.4.1 Methodological choice

Creswell and Creswell (2018) and Neuman (2014) categorised research design as either quantitative, qualitative or mixed. The current study adopted a quantitative

research design. There is an association between positivism philosophy and quantitative research especially when it is used with predetermined and highly structured data collection techniques (Saunders et al., 2016). This has been corroborated by Neuman (2014) who opined that quantitative research relies more on positivist philosophy and use a language of variables and hypotheses. As such, the design was chosen because the emphasis of the study was on measuring variables and testing hypotheses. Quantitative research was appropriate because the focus of the research was on using data to test theory in line with the deductive approach.

Quantitative research was opted so as to analyse relationships between variables which were measured numerically and analysed using statistical techniques as enunciated by Saunders et al. (2016). This type of research design is used to quantify opinions, attitudes, behaviours and defined variables (Mohajan, 2020). Neuman (2014) opined that quantitative research relies on the principle of replication, adhere to standardised procedures, measure with numbers and analyse the collected data with statistics. This is done so as to either eliminate or minimise subjective human factors in the research.

The research used a survey strategy which was conducted through the use of a questionnaire which resulted in numerical data that was analysed quantitatively (Apuke, 2017; Saunders et al., 2016; Greener, 2008). Since quantitative research emphasises on numbers and figures in the collection and analysis of data, it saves time and resources (Eyisi, 2016).

Quantitative research was chosen because it proceeds in a clear, logical and fixed sequence of steps allowing the research to move in a direct way toward a conclusion as explained by Neuman (2014). With quantitative research, results obtained from one group maybe generalised to other groups because of the use of scientific methods for data collection and analysis (Mohajan, 2020; Eyisi, 2016). The research may also be replicated at any time or any place (ibid).

4.4.2 Nature of research

Every research follows an exploratory, descriptive or explanatory purpose or a blend of these (Neuman, 2014) which should be guided by the research questions. The purpose of the current study was to both describe and explain the leadership phenomenon. This is what Saunders et al. (2016) referred to as descripto-explanatory

studies. The study first described leadership in an African setting and how it differed from leadership in other non-African contexts. The study endeavoured to provide a highly precise depiction of leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs. In doing that, the study located new data that contradicted previously held assumptions that looked at leadership in a universal way. After describing leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs and how it was different, the study further explained the causes and reasons why it was different. The study provided an explanation of what effective leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs should be like and supported the notion with empirical evidence.

4.4.3 Research Strategy

A research study should succinctly outline the plan the researcher will follow in answering the research question(s). Denzin and Lincoln (2005) cited in Saunders et al. (2016) understood the research strategy as a methodological link between the research philosophy and the ensuing choice of the methods used to collect and analyse data. There are many strategies such as experiment, survey, case study, ethnography, action research and grounded theory, among others, from which the researcher may select depending on whether the research is quantitative or qualitative. Neuman (2014) observed that most researchers in social sciences use the survey strategy as a data gathering technique. For the purposes of this study a survey strategy was employed. This strategy goes hand in hand with a deductive research approach and is regarded as a common and popular strategy in business and management research (ibid).

The study opted to use the survey strategy so that standardised data could be collected from research participants in a cost-effective way which allowed for easy comparison. Saunders et al. (2016) explained that surveys are perceived as authoritative and are easy to explain and understand as compared to other strategies. The survey was used so that information could be legitimately generalised from a few respondents to the entire population at a lower cost and data could be presented in graphs, charts and tables and analysed statistically. Neuman (2014) explained that surveys could be used in both descriptive and explanatory studies. In addition, data emanating from a survey strategy may be used to propose likely reasons for particular relationships between variables and create models of these associations.

The survey strategy was the ideal strategy to follow for this research because it allowed for the collection of quantitative data which was analysed statistically with the use of both descriptive and inferential statistics as postulated by Saunders et al. (2016). Neuman (2014) has also opined that the survey strategy is ideal for gathering descriptive data and testing multiple hypotheses in a single study which was the focus of the current study. The strategy was chosen because it gave the researcher control over the research process.

4.4.4 Time horizon

Research can either be a cross-sectional or a longitudinal study (Saunders et al., 2016). Cross-sectional is when data for the study is collected at one point in time while longitudinal is when the data is collected over time (Creswell and Creswell, 2018; Neuman, 2014). This research followed a cross-sectional survey as data was collected at one point in time. To allow respondents sufficient time to respond, a four-week period was allowed and was eventually extended to six weeks. The extension was necessitated by the Covid-19 restrictions which were in place. The time period given was considered enough for respondents to go through the questionnaire and respond accordingly.

4.5 Population and Sampling

Research uses either primary or secondary data (Jain et al., 2016; Greener, 2008). Secondary data constitutes data which already exists because it has been collected for another purpose while primary data constitutes data that is collected for the first time (Salkind, 2018). The current research used primary data and as such a sample design was necessary for the collection of the data. The following section discusses the population of the study.

4.5.1 Population

The population for the study comprised all the non-managerial employees, supervisors, managers and owner-managers of SMEs operating in Bulawayo's Central Business Area (CBA) as highlighted by the study map (see section 1.8). Bulawayo's CBA was selected because of the diversity of people operating SMEs in the area and also the diversity of their employees. This was done so that it becomes convincing and practical to generalise the findings that came from the research to

other areas. According to the register maintained by the Zimbabwe statistics office, there were 1784 SMEs operating in Bulawayo's CBA (ZimStats, 2015). These SMEs were categorised as shown by table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1: Bulawayo CBA SMEs according to sector

Sector	Percentage
Retail & Commercial	45%
Services	24%
Manufacturing	10%
Agriculture	6%
Mining	6%
Construction	5%
Others	4%

Source: ZimStats (2015)

4.5.2 Sampling

Sampling is a process of selecting a number of research units from a defined population for the purpose of collecting research data (Jain et al., 2016; Walliman, 2011). Any research study has to choose from two options; whether to collect data from the entire population or to collect from a sample representing the entire population (Saunders et al., 2016). It is inconceivable in many instances that the researcher collects data from all the elements constituting the population (Salkind, 2018). When conceiving a sample design, decisions such as identification of the population and sample, the sample size and sampling technique have to be considered. The following section discusses the sample size ideal for the study.

4.5.2.1 Sample size

The sample size deals with the number of research participants to be surveyed (Gerber and Hall, 2017). There is no clear-cut prescription regarding the sample size. An ideal sample size depends on the purpose of the research and the structure of the population under study (Cohen et al., 2011). However, the larger the number of participants constituting the sample, the more reliable the results will be (Jackson, 2009). Saunders et al. (2016) suggested a sample size of 322 for a population of 2000 at a 95% confidence level, observing a 5% margin of error.

According to Gerber and Hall (2017) the ideal sample size can be determined from the number of questions in the questionnaire and making use of the rule of thumb. For the purposes of this study the researcher multiplied the 5-point Likert scale with the quantity of items in the questionnaire. Using the formula $5(n)$ where n represents the quantity of items in the questionnaire as highlighted by Gerber and Hall, the ideal sample size was calculated as 5×53 which gave 265. 265 became the minimum number of respondents expected to respond to the research instrument. The researcher added 35 participants to cater for respondents who might fail to respond and questionnaires that might be returned without sufficient information to include them in the analysis. As such the sample of the study was 300.

4.5.2.2 Sampling technique

Proportional stratified sampling technique, where the population is divided into strata based on one or more attributes, was used (Greenfield and Greener, 2016). This was done with the aim of obtaining a representative sample for the study. Firstly, SMEs operating in Bulawayo's CBA were divided into relevant and significant strata based on the sector in which the SME operated. Seven sectors were identified. After putting the different SMEs into homogeneous and mutually exclusive segments, a random sample was drawn from the different strata proportional to the relative size of the stratum in the target population as shown by table 4.2 below. The samples that were collected from the different strata were combined into a single sample.

Table 4.2: Sample distribution by sector

Sector	% Share	Non-managerial	Supervisor	Manager	Owner-manager	Total
Retail & Commercial	45%	81	36	9	9	135
Services	24%	43	19	5	5	72
Manufacturing	10%	18	8	2	2	30
Agriculture	6%	11	5	1	1	18
Mining	6%	11	5	1	1	18
Construction	5%	9	4	1	1	15
Other	4%	7	3	1	1	12
Total	100%	180	80	20	20	300

Source: Researcher's compilation

According to Walliman (2011) proportional stratified sampling is used when cases in a population fall into noticeably diverse groups of a known proportion of that population. The sampling technique was chosen because the researcher possessed knowledge concerning the population under study (Jawale, 2012). Proportional stratified sampling technique was chosen because it improved the representativeness of the sample in relation to the population (Saunders et al., 2016). With the chosen sampling technique, human bias is reduced in the selection of cases to be included in the sample (Sharma, 2017).

Proportional stratified sampling was chosen because it allowed generalisations to be made from the sample to the population (Saunders et al., 2016). Sharma (2017) believed that such generalisations are likely to have external validity. The technique has also been found to yield smaller margins of error in approximating population parameters as compared to simple random sampling (ibid). The sample emanating from the chosen technique reflected the structure of the population (Greenfield and Greener, 2016). The sampling technique was also chosen because it allowed the researcher to make statistical conclusions from the data collected that were valid. The technique was economical since the list of relevant strata was available (Saunders et al., 2016).

4.6 Data collection

After determining the sample and the sample size, the next stage was to ascertain how data was to be collected. There are many ways that maybe used to collect primary data which include observations, interviews, questionnaires and experiments. For the purposes of this study, primary data was collected using a questionnaire that the researcher developed. Saunders et al. (2016) opined that a questionnaire is mostly used to collect primary data in business and management researches that use a survey strategy.

The questionnaire was ideal so that research participants respond to standardised questions in a predetermined order. The questionnaire allowed standardised questions to be interpreted the same way by respondents. It was also the preferred data collection instrument because of its flexibility and that it was easy and convenient for respondents as articulated by Walliman (2011). It also proved to be inexpensive

and fast to administer. The following sections describe how the instrument used in this research was developed.

4.6.1 Research instrument

A questionnaire has been found to be efficient in collecting responses from a large sample before quantitative analysis (Saunders et al., 2016). A questionnaire can be self-administered, where respondents answer the instrument, they would have received or it can be interviewer-administered, where respondents are asked questions by the interviewer and respond openly to those questions (Greenfield and Greener, 2016; Kazi and Khalid, 2012).

Self-administered questionnaires were used for the research. The questionnaires were delivered to the respondents as hard copies, completed and collected later. Hard copies were opted as compared to distributing them through emails because most SMEs targeted did not provide their employees with emails and where the employees had their own personal emails, the cost of data was prohibitive to many such that a low response rate might have been the end result. Additionally, the city was experiencing electricity load shedding that would last a couple of hours each day which made it difficult for potential respondents to access their emails.

Kazi and Khalid (2012) believed that self-administered questionnaires cover a large sample size, a wide geographical spectrum and topics which are perceived to be sensitive. With self-administered questionnaires, respondents remain anonymous (Neuman, 2014). It is also an economical way of collecting data (Arora, Sinha, Malhotra and Ranjan, 2017). However, they suffer from low response rate and lack of clarity concerning some issues in the questionnaire. In order to improve the response rate, the researcher made sure the questions were brief and also made some follow ups with the respondents. In order to improve on clarity, the questionnaire was simplified, validated by a group of experts and piloted before it was distributed. The design of the questionnaire which was used for the research is described below.

4.6.2 Instrument design and construction

The structure of the questionnaire and the design of the questions determines the response rate, internal validity and reliability of the data collected (Saunders et al., 2016). Neuman (2014) has argued that the results obtained from the study depends

to a larger extent on the design of the instrument. If an instrument is designed well, it will enable the collection of accurate data which will measure the intended concepts. There is need for a logical and structured approach when developing a questionnaire (Arora et al., 2017).

A questionnaire may have either open-ended or closed-ended questions (Aithal and Aithal, 2020; Jain et al., 2016; Kazi and Khalid, 2012). With closed-ended questions the respondent chooses from a set of answers provided while the respondent has freedom to answer freely when it comes to open-ended questions (Walliman, 2011). For the purposes of this study, closed-ended questions were used where respondents were given alternatives to choose from (Greenfield and Greener, 2016).

Although open-ended questions allow respondents to respond using their own words (Saunders et al., 2016; Kazi and Khalid, 2012), their analysis is difficult and other respondents might find it difficult to fully express themselves, which leads to loss of information (Kumar, 2011). Closed-ended questions were used so that information collected was quantified for easy analysis (Muller, 2014). Banerjee (2015) observed that closed-ended questions lead to consistent answers because they are easy to understand. This also results in quick responses because respondents choose from a given set of answers (Walliman, 2011) and they do not require respondents to engage in considerable thinking process (Jain et al., 2016).

In coming up with questions, slang, jargon, abbreviations and acronyms were avoided as they had the potential to confuse research participants. Questions that were vague and also those with a potential to confuse participants were avoided. The researcher used neutral language in coming up with questions and avoided words with emotional connotations. Neuman (2014) opined that when a researcher uses words with emotional 'baggage', instead of respondents reacting to the substantive issues, they may react to the emotional words. Double-barrelled questions were avoided because they made it difficult to understand the respondent's intention.

In structuring the questionnaire, questions were made to flow in such a way that they were logical to respondents (Saunders et al., 2016). Related questions were grouped together (Gerber and Hall, 2017; Greenfield and Greener, 2016). Layout of the questionnaire was done in such a way that questions were easily read and respondents found it easy to fill in their responses as postulated by Saunders et al.

(2016). Instrument items used only addressed a single issue and the researcher made sure that the language used was familiar to the research participants as postulated by Aithal and Aithal (2020). Each sampled participant was assigned an identification number which was captured on the questionnaire (Neuman, 2014). However, the questionnaire had no names or any identifying marks (Jain et al., 2016). This was made so as to preserve the anonymity of respondents.

The instrument development features discussed above were adopted in the construction and design of the instrument for collecting primary data. In line with the suggestions of Aithal and Aithal (2020); Saunders et al. (2016); Greenfield and Greener (2016); Jan et al. (2016); Neuman (2014) the instrument was validated by experts in the field and then pilot tested so as to increase its reliability. Expert review and pilot testing are discussed in sections 4.6.3.3 and 4.6.3.4 respectively. The following section discusses the refinement of the instrument.

4.6.3 Instrument refinement

When designing a questionnaire in research, it passes through numerous iterations. As the instrument is designed, Kumar (2011) advises that it is important that it is linked to the research aim and questions. The questions constructed should cover all the concepts linked to the research aim (Jain et al., 2016; Greenfield and Greener, 2016). As such the researcher used literature theory to develop the instrument items. The questionnaire items were aimed at answering research questions highlighted in section 1.7 and assist in the attainment of research objectives highlighted in section 1.6.

4.6.3.1 Structure of the AEL survey instrument

The following section describes how the survey instrument was structured. The instrument was divided into two sections to improve clarity and aid in the achievement of the study objectives. The sections are discussed below.

Section A: Demographic data

Statements aimed at obtaining demographic information were developed. For demographic data, information sought included the position of the respondent in the organisation (non-managerial, supervisor, manager, owner-manager); gender (male, female); age (18 – 25 years, 26 – 34 years, 35 – 44 years, 45 years and above); level

of education (below ordinary level, ordinary level, advanced level, certificate level, diploma level, degree level, post graduate level); and tenure with the organisation (5 years and below, 6 – 10 years, 11 – 20 years, 21 years and above). Initially marital status (single, married, separated/divorced, widowed) had been included before it was removed in line with the suggestions of the panel of experts (see section 4.6.3.3).

Section B: Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) statements

The second section in the AEL instrument had 53 statements that were used to ascertain the respondents' perception of effective leadership from an Afrocentric perspective. The section was subdivided into nine constructs with each having varying statements as shown by table 4.3 below.

Table 4.3: AEL statements per construct

Construct	Number of items
Leadership style	8
Effectiveness of the SLT	3
Leader characteristics	8
Follower characteristics	7
Culture	4
Ubuntu	9
History of the country	6
Stage of economic development of the country	3
Effective leadership	5
Total	53

Source: Author's own compilation

4.6.3.2 Description of the scale

A 5-point Likert scale was used for the research. Likert scales are popular tools that are used to measure respondents' opinions, attitudes and feelings in surveys (Amidei, Piwek and Willis, 2019; Batterton and Hale, 2017). With Likert scale, participants indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement with a series of statements (Taherdoost, 2019; Croasmun and Ostrom, 2011). When using a Likert scale, likely responses to item statements must be presented in a straight line (Saunders et al., 2016).

A 5-point Likert scale was chosen because it is easy to develop and has a potential of generating a reliable scale (Taherdoost, 2019). From the perspective of research participants, it is easy to read and complete. However, it may result in central tendency bias when respondents avoid extreme response categories (ibid). Croasmun and Ostrom (2011) believed that although there exist debate concerning the ideal number of choices in a Likert scale, the mostly adopted one consists of 5 categories ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

The research participants were asked to rate the 53 items from the instrument by selecting the most appropriate choice on the 5-point Likert scale which was arranged as follows:

- ❖ Strongly disagree – this indicated that the respondent was in strong disagreement.
- ❖ Disagree – this indicated that the respondent disagreed to some extent.
- ❖ Neutral – this indicated that the respondent neither agreed nor disagreed.
- ❖ Agree – this indicated that the respondent agreed to some extent.
- ❖ Strongly agree – this indicated that the respondent was in strong agreement.

4.6.3.3 Expert Review

Researchers who opt for survey strategy normally ask a team of experts to validate questionnaires so that various problems with instrument items may be identified (Olson, 2010). Two primary objectives of expert review are to expose problems with the survey instrument so that they are corrected before data is collected and also arrange items into groups that are likely to show measurement errors (ibid). Experts assess whether every item included in the instrument is representative and significant to the construct concerned (Elangovan and Sundaravel, 2021). They also help in identifying items that should be included or deleted and the logical sequence of those items (ibid). Arora et al. (2017) have observed that expert review results in the questionnaire becoming expressive, dependable and relevant. In cases where different respondent subgroups are targeted, the review eliminates favouritism to any subgroup (ibid).

Since the instrument used for this research was new, it became imperative to involve a panel of experts for comments, feedback and recommendations focusing on whether the instrument items were appropriate and representative as suggested by Saunders

et al. (2016). The experts also checked for the existence of errors such as double-barrelled, confusing and leading questions (Elangovan and Sundaravel, 2021).

In choosing the experts, the major consideration was on identifying individuals with the ability to provide vital information to enable research objectives to be met as argued by Kumar (2011). Four individuals were selected into the expert panel. The ideal number of expert reviewers range from two to twenty expert methodologists (Olson, 2010). However, scholars such as Saunders et al. (2016), Kothari (2012) and Greener (2008) agree that the sample of experts should be small but informative.

The standard that was used in selecting the experts was expertise in leadership particularly focusing on SMEs. The experts were expected to have at least five years' experience in leadership focusing on SMEs and a post graduate qualification. The experts were contacted through email, with follow up telephone calls, provided with the objectives of the study and asked to participate in the research instrument refinement process. Before the review, the experts were given a participant information sheet (see Appendix A1) and a participation consent form (see Appendix B1) to sign. Table 4.4 below shows information about the members of the expert panel in terms of their field of expertise, job titles, experience and qualifications.

Table 4.4: Expert panel participants

Expert	Field of Expertise	Job Title	Experience (years)	Qualifications
Expert 1	Leadership (SMEs)	Consultant	5 years	PhD; MCom; BCom; Diploma in Management.
Expert 2	Leadership and Management	Senior Lecturer	9 years	DPhil; MBA; BCom
Expert 3	SMEs Growth and SMEs leadership.	Consultant	11 years	MSc; MBA; BCOM; PGDM
Expert 4	Management of SMEs	Entrepreneur, Manager and Part-time lecturer	7 years	PhD; MBA; BTech; Diploma in Business Leadership

Source: Author's own compilation

The expert reviewers were provided with the original instrument (see Appendix C1). A comment box was provided for general comments pertaining to the demographic section where the experts were expected to indicate what they proposed the researcher would include, exclude or amend to improve the instrument. A section was also added to the 55 statements where the experts indicated whether the items were essential or not and clear or not. A comment section was also included for general comments aimed at improving the instrument. The responses from the experts were emailed to the researcher.

Expert review feedback

On demographic data the experts were of the view that marital status was not adding any value to the study and as such the researcher removed it.

Essential/Not essential

After going through the suggestions and comments from the panel of experts, there were certain instrument items that were deemed not to be essential. Item 2 under leadership style which read as *“the leader makes all the decisions”* was deemed not to be essential as it measured the same thing from an opposite perspective with item 1 which read as *“employees participate in decision making”* and was deleted. Item 10 which read as *“leadership style used in our organisation affects its viability”* was deemed to be a leading question and was removed. Item 45 under the history of the country which read as *“our leaders consult us when making decisions”* was viewed as a duplication to item 17 under leader characteristics which read as *“leaders seek advice from employees when making decisions”* and was removed.

Clear/Not clear

From the experts' comments and suggestions, item 11 under effectiveness of the situational leadership theory was amended to read as *“our leader gives us freedom to decide what, how, when and where to do tasks”*. Item 12 under the same construct which read as *“our leader is patient and helpful when giving instructions”* was deemed to be a double-barrelled statement and was amended to read as *“our leader is patient when giving instructions”*. The experts suggested the addition of at least one additional item under the stage of economic development construct and one item which read as *“employees are afraid to demand transparency from their leaders”* was added.

4.6.3.4 Pilot study

After the experts have validated the instrument, it can be piloted. Pilot study refers to the practice of pre-testing the research instrument on few people before it is used in the actual study (Walliman, 2011). Pilot testing is done to check face validity (Saunders et al., 2016), to increase the instrument's content validity (Creswell and Creswell, 2018) and to check the instrument's comprehensibility and legibility (Jain et al., 2016). Aithal and Aithal (2020) postulated that piloting is conducted to assess the effectiveness of the proposed research instrument prior to its use with the aim of improving it.

Pilot testing was done on the research instrument with the purpose of refining it so that respondents faced no problems in responding to the questionnaire and that there were no problems in recording the data as enunciated by Saunders et al. (2016). It was also done to assess the duration it took on average for participants to complete the questionnaire as explained by Creswell and Creswell (2018). It also helped the researcher to understand the thinking and problems faced by participants as they responded to questions from the questionnaire which acted as a basis for refining the questionnaire before it was administered to the proper research participants as enunciated by Neuman (2014).

In addition, in line with the thinking of scholars such as (Jain et al., 2016; Saunders et al., 2016; Bhattacharjee, 2012; Kazi and Khalid, 2012) pilot study was conducted to check if instructions were clear such that participants understood and followed them and to align the understanding of the researcher and of the research participants. It was also done to validate the structure and layout of the questionnaire.

For a person to participate in the pilot study they were supposed to be involved in SMEs as non-managerial employees, supervisors, managers or owner-managers. Convenience sampling was used to recruit the respondents who participated in the pilot study. A total of 30 respondents participated and they were distributed as follows; 18 non-managerial employees, 8 supervisory employees, 2 managers, and 2 owner-managers. This number represented 10% of the intended sample of actual respondents. Saunders et al. (2016) while giving a minimum number of 10 respondents for a pilot study, advised that the number should be enough to include

major variations in the population that may affect responses. Aithal and Aithal (2020) advocates for 10% of the intended respondents involving all the subgroups.

Pilot study feedback

Most of the respondents who participated in the pilot study were of the view that 20 minutes were sufficient to complete the questionnaire. The researcher's assessment was that the majority of the respondents finished between 13 and 17 minutes. Only four finished in 20 minutes. Therefore 20 minutes were considered sufficient to complete the questionnaire. The respondents agreed that they understood the questions and the instructions were clear and understandable. Respondents were also comfortable when completing the questionnaire.

4.6.4 Administration of the instrument

If there is any need, the output from a successful pilot study is amended before data is collected from the sampled population (Bhattacharjee, 2012). According to Molenbergs (2010) data should be collected in a similar way for all respondents. For this study, the questionnaires were distributed as hard copies because of the reasons highlighted in section 4.6.1. All ethical considerations (discussed in section 4.9) and Covid-19 protocols were observed in the administration of the instrument. The questionnaire had a cover letter detailing the title of the research and summarising the rights the participants enjoyed. Contact details of both the researcher and the academic supervisors were also included (see Appendix C2). Before distributing the questionnaire, the researcher made a presentation detailing the purpose of the research and assuring participants that their responses would remain anonymous and confidential. After the presentation, the participants were given a participant information sheet (see Appendix A2) and invited to sign informed consent forms (see Appendix B2). The participants were informed of the time frame in which they were expected to have completed the questionnaires and advised not to give the completed questionnaire to anyone other than the researcher.

4.7 Data Analysis

For any research data to be useful it must be analysed and interpreted (Saunders et al., 2016). The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23 and Smart PLS version 3 were used to analyse the data. Data analysis processes and

approaches used in this study included the following; data management, descriptive statistics, inferential statistics, factor analysis, and structural equation modelling. In order to prepare for data analysis, the researcher did an online course on introduction to statistical analysis offered jointly by Commonwealth Educational Media Centre for Asia (CEMCA) and Kalinga Institute of Social Science.

4.7.1 Data management

It is fundamental to establish the type of data collected (such as interval, nominal or ordinal) because the type of data determines the type of statistical test which is appropriate (Saunders et al., 2016; Greener, 2008). Data was recorded using numerical codes before being entered into the computer. This enabled the researcher to enter the data fast and also made succeeding analyses straightforward. After coding and data entry, the data was checked for errors through identifying illegitimate codes and illogical relationships. All the errors that were identified were corrected. A code book showing how the chosen codes related to the questionnaire was kept. The following section describes the descriptive statistics used.

4.7.2 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics permit the researcher to describe and compare variables numerically (Saunders et al., 2016; Neuman, 2014). For descriptive statistics, frequency distributions were used to show the frequency of occurrence of each possible outcome. Descriptive statistics summarised the data that had been measured. They allowed the researcher to have an appreciation of how the data looked as postulated by Salkind (2018). When looking at measures of central tendency and dispersion, apart from the mode, all the other measures may not be interpreted sensibly when it comes to ordinal data (Saunders et al., 2016). However, most research reports do not report about the mode (Salkind, 2018). Since the data collected for this research was ordinal, measures of central tendency and dispersion were not used. The section below discusses the inferential statistics that were employed in this research.

4.7.3 Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics allow the researcher to make predictions from the data. They assist in coming up with explanations for a situation or phenomenon (Chin and Lee,

2008). Inferential statistics afford a quantitative technique to ascertain if the null hypothesis should be rejected (Marino, 2017).

Spearman correlation analysis

A Spearman correlation coefficient was calculated in order to quantify the strength of the relationship between the independent variables (culture, ubuntu, traditional leadership, history of the country, stage of economic development of the country) and the dependent variable (effective leadership). A correlation is used to confirm that a relationship exists between variables (Gerber and Hall, 2017). When one of the variables is ordinal, the Spearman rank-order correlation coefficient becomes the appropriate correlation coefficient (Saunders et al., 2016; Jackson, 2009).

Correlation coefficient values range from -1 to +1 (Neuman, 2014). A value of +1 denotes a perfect positive relationship which means that when one variable increases, the other variable also increases while a value of -1 denotes a perfect negative relationship which means that when one variable increases the other variable decreases (Saunders et al., 2016). According to Hair et al. (2006) cited in Saunders et al. (2016) any value below 0.35 is considered to be a weak relationship while values between 0.35 and 0.6 are considered as moderate relationships. Values between 0.6 and 0.8 are considered as strong while those above 0.8 are considered as very strong relationships. The following section discusses exploratory factor analysis.

4.7.4 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

Factor Analysis is an interdependence technique that is designed to define the fundamental structure among variables in the study. Factor analysis is done so as to summarise data so that patterns and relationships are understood and interpreted and variables may be regrouped into reduced cluster sets (Gie and Pearce, 2012). EFA was used in this study for the purposes of data summarisation and reduction. A set of steps were followed before arriving at the final factors that were adopted.

The first step was to determine whether it was viable to conduct EFA on the items on the instrument (Gerber and Hall, 2017). This was done using the Bartlett Test of Sphericity (BTS) and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO). The BTS tests for the existence of correlations among the variables (Hair et al., 2014). This test provides the statistical significance of the existence of significant correlations among some of the variables in

the correlation matrix (ibid). The BTS is considered significant and relevant when $p < 0.05$ (Gie and Pearce, 2012; Cohen et al., 2011). KMO was calculated to measure sampling adequacy and the appropriateness of EFA (Gerber and Hall, 2017). Although KMO values range from 0 to 1, the recommended value that shows that variables combine well is 0.5 and is the value that was used in this study (Gerber and Hall., 2017; Hair et al., 2014; Gie and Pearce, 2012).

The principal components analysis method was used since the primary concern was on data reduction (Hair et al., 2014). Only factors which had latent roots or eigenvalues that were greater than 1 were considered significant and retained in line with the latent root criterion. In coming up with the final factor rotated matrix, the VARIMAX orthogonal factor rotation was used and all items that had low factor loadings (< 0.4) and those that had cross loadings were eliminated. The adopted criterion for this research was to group at least three items per factor hence all factors that had less than three items were excluded. According to Hair et al. (2014) a factor loading of 0.4 is considered ideal to achieve significance for a sample of at least 200 participants. Since the research had a sample of 300, factor loading of 0.4 was considered ideal. The internal consistency of the responses to the items that were combined in the research instrument to measure a particular concept was measured using Cronbach alpha coefficient. A value of 0.7 and above indicates that items combined in the instrument measure the same thing (Saunders et al., 2016). The following section discusses structural equation modelling.

4.7.5 Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

SEM, a statistical and arithmetic modelling procedure that integrates regression path analysis and factor analysis (Weston, 2018) was used in this research. The technique was used as a comprehensive way of quantifying and testing theories. SEM is ideal for examining a sequence of dependence relationships at the same time (Hair et al., 2014). SEM was used in this research as a way of showing the interrelationships amongst the different variables and validating the hypothesised relationships among the variables from the data collected. This statistical technique permits models with linear relationships to be specified and estimated (Maware and Adetunji, 2019a). This allows for the testing of relationships among multiple predictors and measure variables

and building unobservable latent variables. The following sections discuss the various tests that were used to assess and validate the model.

4.7.5.1 Composite reliability

Composite reliability was used to measure the internal uniformity of the data (Firmansyah and Maemunah, 2021). Composite reliability also known as construct reliability measures the internal consistency of items in a scale. Composite reliability scores should be between 0.7 and 0.95 (Hair, Howard and Nitzl, 2020; Maware and Adetunji, 2019a; Hamid, Sami and Sidek, 2017).

4.7.5.2 Convergent validity

Average Variance Extracted (AVE) was used to determine convergent validity, which is the extent to which a measure has positive correlations with alternative measures of the construct (Kuo and Lin, 2020). By means of a domain sampling model, indicators of a reflective construct were treated as alternative approaches to measure the same construct (Hair et al., 2017). As such, measures of a reflective construct should converge or share a high proportion of variance. AVE values should exceed 0.5 (Schuberth, 2020; Hamid et al., 2017) which means that the latent variable should explain at least 50% of each indicator's variance (Hair et al., 2017).

4.7.5.3 Discriminant validity

This refers to the degree to which a construct is distinctively and accurately different from other constructs due to observed empirical standards (Hamid et al., 2017). Hence launching discriminant validity implies that a construct is unique in capturing phenomena not characterised by other constructs in the model (Hair et al., 2017). Two measures of discriminant validity were used by the researcher namely Fornell-Larcker criterion and Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) ratio. The following sections discusses the two measures.

Fornell-Larcker criterion

The criterion suggests that discriminant validity is recognised if a latent variable accounts for more variance in its associated indicator variables than it shares with other constructs in the same model (Henseler, Ringle and Sarstedt, 2015). Each construct's AVE was compared with its squared correlations with other constructs in the model. The square root of the AVE values is compared with the latent variable

correlations (Kuo and Lin, 2020; Hair et al., 2017; Hamid et al., 2017). The square root of each construct's AVE must be greater than its highest correlations with any other construct (Kuo and Lin, 2020). This means that a latent construct should explain better its own indicator's variance rather than the other latent construct's variance (Hamid et al., 2017).

Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) ratio

The HTMT emerged as a result of the weaknesses of the traditional approaches such as the Fornell-Larcker criterion (Hair et al., 2017; Voorhees et al., 2016; Henseler et al., 2015). It is the “average of the heterotrait-heteromethod correlations (i.e., the correlations of indicators across constructs measuring different phenomena), relative to the average of the monotrait-heteromethod correlations (i.e., the correlations of indicators within the same construct)” (Henseler et al., 2015, p. 121). Kline (2011) suggested a threshold of 0.85 while Gold et al., (2001) cited in Hamid et al., (2017) suggested 0.90. If HTMT value is higher than the threshold, it signifies a lack of discriminant validity.

4.7.5.4 Variance Inflation Factor (VIF)

VIF is used to detect the possible existence of multicollinearity (Salmeron-Gomez, Garcia-Garcia and Garcia-Perez, 2020). Collinearity is a linear relationship between two independent variables while multicollinearity is a situation where two or more independent variables in a multiregression model are related to each other and also related with the dependent variable (Akinwande, Dikko and Samson, 2015). VIF was used to measure the collinearity of the latent variables. VIF values should be higher than 0.2 but lower than 5 (Hair et al., 2017). If the VIF value is lower than 5, it shows that the model has no collinearity problems (Maware and Adetunji, 2019b).

4.7.5.5 Coefficient of determination (R^2)

The coefficient of determination (R^2) is the square of the correlation of definite and predicted values of the model. R^2 makes use of all the data that will have been used during model estimation so that the predictive power of the model is measured and judged (Hair et al., 2014). R^2 shows the amount of the dependent variable explained by all the independent variables that are associated with it (Hair et al., 2017; Maware

and Adetunji, 2019b). According to Hair et al. (2014) a higher coefficient of determination means a better prediction of the dependent variable.

4.7.5.6 Effect size (f^2) analysis

The effect size (f^2) describes the variation in R^2 value for the dependent variable due to the omission of a certain exogenous variable (Maware and Adetunji, 2019b; Famiyeh, Adaku, Amoako-Gyampah, Asante-Darko and Amoatey, 2018). The f^2 values were calculated using the Cohen f^2 formula:

$$f^2 = \frac{R^2_{included} - R^2_{excluded}}{1 - R^2_{included}}$$

R^2 excluded and R^2 included signifies the R^2 values of the endogenous variables when a certain exogenous variable is excluded and included respectively. f^2 values of 0.02, 0.15 and 0.35 are regarded as small, medium and high respectively (Maware and Adetunji, 2019b; Hair et al., 2017). f^2 values of less than 0.02 shows no effect.

4.7.5.7 Stone-Geisser's (Q^2) analysis

The Stone-Geisser's (Q^2) analysis was used to further regulate the accuracy of the model by showing its predictive relevance (Famiyeh et al., 2018). In order to come up with Q^2 the blindfolding procedure was performed using Smart PLS version 3. If Q^2 value is less than 0, it means that the independent variables are not able to explain the dependent variable and the model will be lacking predictive relevancy (Firmansyah and Maemunah, 2021). Values greater than 0 depict the predictive relevance of the model for the selected variable.

4.7.6 Research Hypotheses formulation

A research hypothesis is a “tentative statement about a relationship” (Neuman, 2014, p. 68). Saunders et al. (2016) explained it as a testable proposition which states that there is a relationship between variables. There are two types of research hypotheses namely null hypothesis and alternative hypothesis. Whereas the null hypothesis predicts the non-existence of a relationship between the variables, the alternative hypothesis predicts the existence of a relationship between the variables (Salkind, 2018; Saunders et al., 2016). The following research hypotheses shown in table 4.5 below were formulated.

Table 4.5: Research hypotheses formulated

Research objective	Research hypotheses		Statistical methods
Determine the relationship between culture and effective leadership.	Ho1	There is no relationship between culture and effective leadership	Spearman rho t-statistics p-values
	Ha1	There is a relationship between culture and effective leadership	
Determine the relationship between ubuntu and effective leadership.	Ho2	There is no relationship between ubuntu and effective leadership	Spearman rho t-statistics p-values
	Ha2	There is a relationship between ubuntu and effective leadership	
Determine the relationship between traditional leadership and effective leadership.	Ho3	There is no relationship between traditional leadership and effective leadership.	Spearman rho t-statistics p-values
	Ha3	There is a relationship between traditional leadership and effective leadership.	
Determine the relationship between the history of the country and effective leadership.	Ho4	There is no relationship between the history of the country and effective leadership.	Spearman rho t-statistics p-values

	Ha4	There is a relationship between the history of the country and effective leadership.	
Determine the relationship between the stage of economic development of the country and effective leadership.	Ho5	There is no relationship between the stage of economic development of the country and effective leadership.	Spearman rho t-statistics p-values
	Ha5	There is a relationship between the stage of economic development of the country and effective leadership.	

Source: Researcher's compilation

Key: Ho: Null hypothesis; Ha: Alternative hypothesis

4.8 Research Credibility

Research does not produce a result that is useful unless the measurements used are valid and reliable (Salkind, 2018). As such every research study should endeavour to achieve reliability and validity. The following sections discusses how reliability and validity were achieved in the current research.

4.8.1 Reliability

Reliability of a research instrument refers to the consistency of survey findings (Tsang, Royse and Terkawi, 2017). It shows the ability of different researchers to use the same instrument to measure the same thing and obtain consistent results (Salkind, 2018; Gerber and Hall, 2017; Neuman, 2014). A study is deemed to be reliable if its data collection techniques and analytic procedures produce the same results if replicated by another researcher or repeated on a different occasion (Saunders et al., 2016).

Internal consistency, test-retest reliability, inter-rater reliability, parallel form reliability and split-half reliability are used to determine and evaluate the reliability of a research instrument (Aithal and Aithal, 2020). Internal consistency which reflects the extent to which instrument items are consistent in measuring the same construct was adopted and used in this study. The Cronbach alpha coefficient was calculated for the different constructs (Tsang et al., 2017). A score of 0.7 and above shows that the items combined in the instrument measure the same thing (Saunders et al., 2016; Hair et al., 2014).

Following Salkind (2018) and Saunders et al. (2016) suggestions, the researcher also adopted the following measures to increase reliability in this research. A large sample of 300 participants was adopted. This large sample was likely to be a representation of the population. Questions were phrased clearly; unclear items were removed and instructions standardised so as to engender understanding from participants. Scoring measures were consistently maintained by the use of the identical 5-point Likert scale.

4.8.2 Validity

Validity looks at whether a research instrument measures what it is supposed to measure (Salkind, 2018; Arora et al., 2017; Tsang et al., 2017). When looking at a survey instrument, two aspects of validity should be guaranteed before its use namely content validity and construct validity (Aithal and Aithal, 2020; Saunders et al., 2016). Validity improves a questionnaire's usability and credibility (Arora et al., 2017) such that it becomes better in terms of straightforwardness and accuracy. It also assesses the instrument items for their dependability (Aithal and Aithal, 2020). The following sections discuss content validity and construct validity for the current research.

4.8.2.1 Content validity

Content validity looks at the extent to which instrument items are representative of the theoretical constructs they are expected to measure (Aithal and Aithal, 2020; Tsang et al., 2017; Arora et al., 2017). In order to ensure content validity in the research, extant literature was used in coming up with instrument items. A panel of experts was used to assess whether instrument items were essential or not, clear or not and whether they measured the intended constructs. Suggestions and comments of the experts were incorporated in coming up with the final instrument (see section 4.6.3.3).

Pilot testing of the research instrument was done to increase the instrument's content validity (Creswell and Creswell, 2018).

4.8.2.2 Construct validity

Construct validity looks at whether the instrument items measure the presence of the constructs the researcher intended to measure (Saunders et al., 2016). It is viewed as the most important form of validity in research (Creswell and Creswell, 2018). This is because if an instrument lacks construct validity, the interpretation of results from the questionnaire will be a challenge and it will be difficult to infer from the instrument responses to a behaviour domain (Tsang et al., 2017). Plessis (2018) believes that assessing content validity of an instrument arguments its construct validity. As this study initially considered content validity, this enhanced the study's construct validity. EFA conducted in the study also supported construct validity.

4.9 Research Ethics

Like any other field, research is guided by ethics which act as its moral principles (Qamar, 2018). The purpose of these principles is to govern research from beginning to end, and even beyond. The principles also guarantee that the research study is carried out responsibly (Zhang, 2017). Following the thinking articulated by Magwa and Magwa (2015), the guiding principle of the study was to ensure that the best interests of the research participants were observed.

In order to collect primary data for the study, physical access to the different SMEs involved was properly sought. In line with what different scholars have postulated, this study viewed access as a continuing process rather than a single event. Since the respondents from which data was collected were sometimes different from the SMEs management from whom initial access was sought, initial access was sought from management to include the different SMEs as part of the research and secondly consent and acceptance was sought from the individual participants from which the data was collected. This is what Saunders et al. (2016) referred to as cognitive access.

Sufficient information was availed to potential participants through a participant information sheet (see Appendix A2) to enable them to reach an informed decision of whether they freely wanted to participate in the research. In addition, participants were also given an opportunity to ask questions and sufficient time to consider their intended

participation without unnecessary pressure. In order to facilitate potential participants reaching an informed consent, sufficient information was availed to all of them in a language they knew and understood so that they first understood the potential implications of their participation, their rights and how data was to be analysed and reported before they freely and voluntarily gave their informed consent. This free and voluntary consent was given without the application of pressure or coercion. This was in line with the argument advanced by Creswell and Creswell (2018) and Neuman (2014) that participation in a research study should be voluntary and no one should be coerced into participating.

Prior to informed consent being given through the signing of a participant consent form (see Appendix B2), categorical assurances about anonymity of participants and confidentiality of data were given through the introductory letter that was given to each participant (Saunders et al., 2016). Expected benefits to the discipline of leadership and the body of knowledge were clearly articulated to the research participants. Raw data collected was not shared with anyone or presented in a way that made it recognisable or identifiable. Further, data collected was only used for the academic purpose for which it was collected. High levels of anonymity ensured that no one was able to know the identity of the participants who had taken part in the research and also no one was able to identify the source of any response given. The rights of all participants were duly recognised and their dignity esteemed.

The study was structured and conducted in such a way that any harm to participants including embarrassment, discomfort, stress, anxiety, pain or conflict and any material disadvantage was avoided (Greener, 2008). The research method chosen was used in a non-intrusive way such that mental or social pressure causing anxiety or stress was avoided. All potential legal issues were carefully considered when the study was designed such that any legal harm to research participants arising from their participation in the study was avoided. Assurances given to participants concerning confidentiality and anonymity were religiously respected and no participant was harassed or discriminated in any form. Salkind (2018) believed that limiting the number of people who either see or handle the data was the best way of maintaining confidentiality. During data collection, the researcher collected the data accurately and completely without being subjective in its recording so as to maintain objectivity

(Creswell and Creswell, 2018). Additionally, all research participants were treated the same way.

During the coming up of questions, demeaning, prejudiced and offensive questions were avoided and participants were made aware of their right not to answer any question or set of questions, and when exercised, this right was religiously respected. In addition, participants who opted to withdraw at various points of the research study were allowed to do so without any penalty.

The researcher used data strictly collected from respondents for analysis and reporting and the data was not altered in any way. Results were not falsified and findings were reported fully, accurately and truthfully irrespective of whether they contradicted expected outcomes or were contrary to research objectives. Creswell and Creswell (2018, p. 147) postulated that good quantitative research “should reflect the statistical tests and not be underreported”. As such the statistical accuracy of the data for the research was not misrepresented.

Copies of completed questionnaires and signed consent forms were kept in a restricted, secure and safe place. Data collected and used for the study was and will continue to be kept for a reasonable period of time and after that be discarded appropriately to permanently avoid unauthorised access. Sieber (1998) cited in Creswell and Creswell (2018) proposed that research material should be kept secure for a minimum of five years and then be appropriately discarded. Walliman (2011) proposed that documents accumulated as a result of research should be shredded. This was and will be done to ensure that ethical principles of confidentiality, anonymity, respect of participants’ privacy and avoidance of harm to participants will continue to be cherished beyond the end of the research project as advocated by Saunders et al. (2016). This has been supported by Zhang (2016) who postulated that the relationship formed with the researched community during the study should go beyond the research process and should be included in the researcher’s ethics of care.

4.10 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the research methodology was presented guided by different themes. Themes such as research philosophy, research approach and research design were presented. These were followed by population and sampling, data collection, data analysis, research credibility and research ethics. The following chapter will focus on

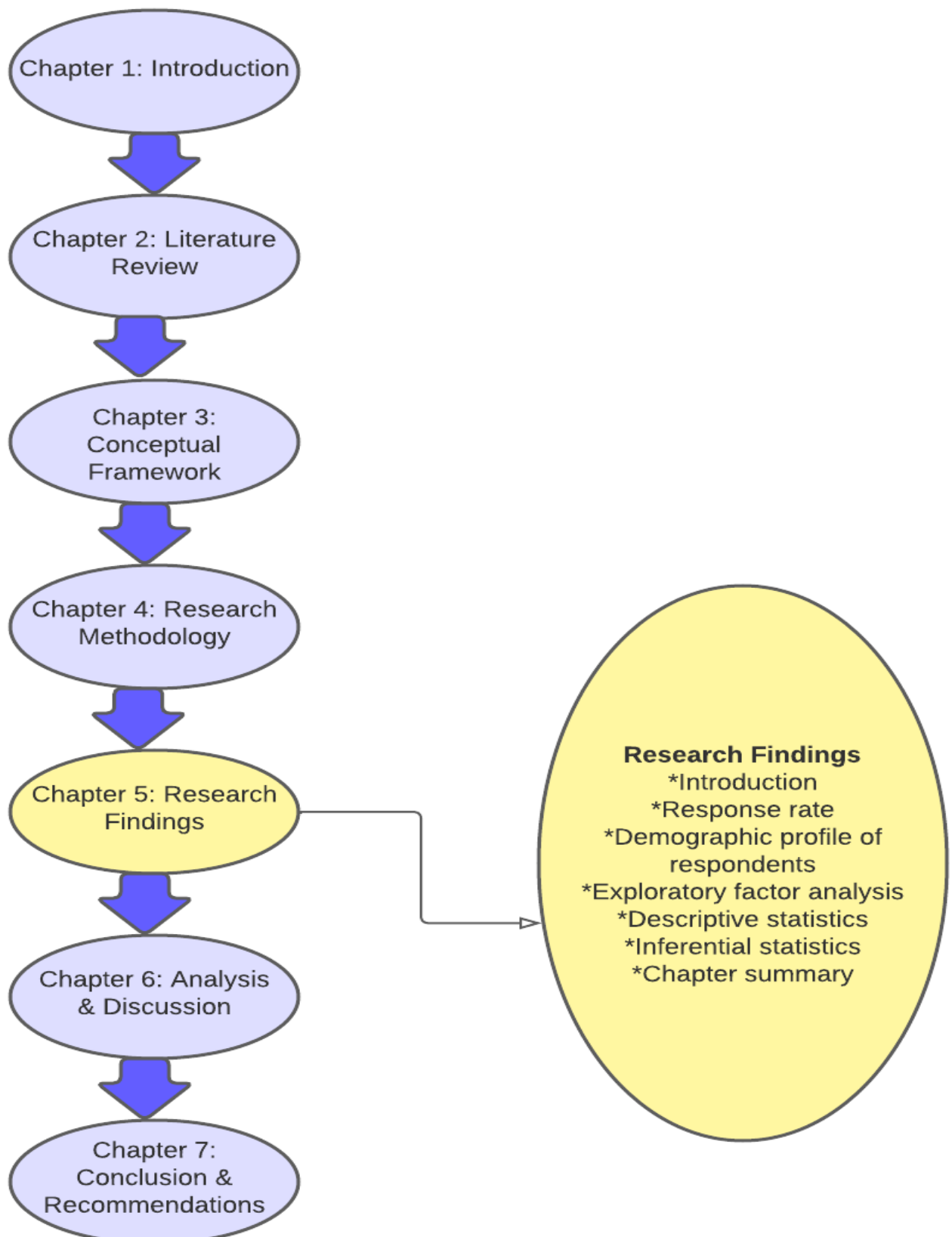
the presentation of research findings necessary to answer research questions and meet research objectives.

CHAPTER FIVE: RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

Guided by the positivism philosophy, the study sought to theorise an effective leadership model for SMEs in Zimbabwe with the aim of proposing an Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) model. Chapter four presented the research methodology whose construction was based on the 'research onion' propounded by Saunders et al. (2016). The current chapter presents research findings necessary to answer research questions and meet research objectives. The demographic profile of respondents will be articulated followed by Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). In order to understand the responses from the study, descriptive statistics in the form of frequencies will be outlined followed by inferential statistics as shown by the chapter overview flowchart in figure 5.1 below.

Figure 5.1: Chapter five overview flowchart



Source: Researcher's compilation

5.2 Response rate

Out of 300 questionnaires that were distributed, 241 were returned. This gave a response rate of 80.3% as shown by table 5.1 below. The returns were enough to allow for statistical analysis of data (Saunders et al., 2016; Cohen et al., 2011).

Table 5.1: Response rate.

Respondent Category	Questionnaires Distributed	Questionnaires Analysed	Percentage (%)
Non-Managerial	180	150	83.3
Supervisors	80	63	78.8
Managers	20	12	60.0
Owner-Managers	20	16	80.0
Total	300	241	80.3

Source: Fieldwork

5.3 Demographic profile of respondents

The demographic profile of respondents was analysed using five characteristics namely position in the organisation, gender, age, level of education and tenure with the organisation. The demographic profiles are presented in table 5.2 below.

Table 5.2: Demographic characteristics of respondents

Demographic characteristic	Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Position	Non-managerial	150	62.2
	Supervisor	63	26.1
	Manager	12	5.0
	Owner-manager	16	6.6
	Total	241	100
Gender	Male	136	56.4
	Female	105	43.6
	Total	241	100
Age	18 – 25 years	24	10
	26 – 34 years	89	36.9
	35 – 44 years	95	39.4
	45 years & above	33	13.7
	Total	241	100
Level of education	Below Ordinary level	8	3.3
	Ordinary level	13	5.4
	Advanced level	5	2.1
	Certificate level	16	6.6
	Diploma level	73	30.3
	Degree level	108	44.8
	Post Graduate level	18	7.5
	Total	241	100
Tenure	5 years & below	92	38.2
	6 – 10 years	115	47.7
	11 – 20 years	30	12.4
	21 years & above	4	1.7
	Total	241	100

Source: Fieldwork

The majority of respondents (62.2%) were non-managerial employees followed by 26.1% who were supervisory employees. In terms of gender, 56.4% were male while 43.6% were female. The highest number of respondents (39.4%) were aged between 35 and 44 years followed by 36.9% who were aged between 26 and 34 years. In terms of level of education, 44.8% of the respondents had attained degree level education

while 30.3% had attained diploma level education. The highest number of respondents (47.7%) had been with their respective organisations for a period between 6 and 10 years followed by 38.2% who had been with their respective organisations for 5 years and below.

5.4 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

EFA was used as a tool aimed at defining the fundamental structure among the variables in the study. The analysis was used for the purposes of data summarisation and data reduction. A set of steps were followed before arriving at the final factors which were adopted. Firstly, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test of sphericity (BTS) were conducted.

5.4.1 Sample adequacy and Sphericity

KMO and BTS were used to test for sample adequacy and sphericity. The KMO and BTS values are depicted in table 5.3 below.

Table 5.3: Sample adequacy and significance

KMO and Bartlett's test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.915
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	13541.836
	df	1128
	Sig.	0.000

The KMO value of 0.915 is above the threshold value of 0.50. This shows that the sample was adequate and appropriate for EFA as postulated by Hair et al. (2014). Furthermore, the BTS of 0.000 for overall statistical significance showed that the sample was statistically significant for the conduct of EFA.

5.4.2 Rotated component matrix

The final 10 factor rotated matrix shown in table 5.4 below was arrived at after eliminating all items that had very low factor loadings (<0.4). Also excluded were factors that had less than 3 items since the adopted criterion was to group at least 3 items per factor.

Table 5.4: Rotated component matrix

Item Number	Rotated Component Matrix ^a									
	Factor									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Q6	0.889									
Q4	0.869									
Q3	0.851									
Q8	0.837									
Q18	0.816									
Q17	0.789									
Q7	0.761									
Q5	0.743									
Q2	0.731									
Q16	0.723									
Q23	0.596									
Q9		0.858								
Q10		0.662								
Q11		0.642								
Q13			0.940							
Q12			0.920							
Q14			0.908							
Q19			0.761							
Q25				0.993						
Q24				0.992						
Q26				0.992						
Q22				0.779						
Q27					0.773					
Q28					0.772					
Q30					0.655					
Q29					0.583					
Q36						0.906				
Q31						0.889				
Q32						0.886				
Q38						0.853				
Q35						0.830				
Q39						0.623				
Q34						0.463				
Q44							0.783			
Q45							0.727			
Q43							0.689			
Q1							0.444			
Q40								-0.638		
Q41								-0.619		
Q42								-0.540		
Q46									0.912	
Q47									0.912	
Q48									0.873	
Q51										0.853
Q49										0.844
Q50										0.809
Q52										0.779
Q53										0.693

Eleven items were successfully loaded in factor 1 and were aimed at understanding the predominant leadership style used. Three items successfully loaded in factor 2

and aimed at understanding the effectiveness of the SLT. Four items successfully loaded in factor 3 and were aimed at understanding leader characteristics necessary to engender effective leadership while another four items also loaded successfully in factor 4 aimed at understanding follower characteristics necessary to engender effective leadership. Four items successfully loaded in factor 5 aimed at understanding the role played by culture in effective leadership. Seven items loaded successfully in factor 6 and the items looked at the role of ubuntu in engendering effective leadership. Four items successfully loaded in factor 7 aimed at understanding the role traditional leadership plays in effective leadership. Three items successfully loaded in factor 8 and factor 9 respectively. Factor 8 aimed at understanding how the history of the country affects effective leadership while factor 9 aimed at understanding how the stage of economic development of the country affects effective leadership. The last 5 items successfully loaded in factor 10 and were aimed at understanding whether leadership was effective.

5.4.3 Instrument reliability

Table 5.5: Cronbach alpha values

Theme/ Dimension	Number of items	Cronbach alpha
Leadership style (LS)	11	0.957
ESLT	3	0.804
Leader characteristics (LC)	4	0.702
Follower characteristics (FC)	4	0.878
Culture (C)	4	0.902
Ubuntu (U)	7	0.944
Traditional leadership (TL)	4	0.815
History of the country (HC2)	3	0.766
SEDC	3	0.961
Effective leadership (EL)	5	0.896
Total	48	

In order to measure the internal consistency of the research instrument, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was used. The instrument was subdivided into the following themes; leadership style (LS), effectiveness of the situational leadership theory (ESLT), leader characteristics (LC), follower characteristics (FC), culture (C), ubuntu (U), traditional

leadership (TL), history of the country (HC), stage of economic development of the country (SEDC) and effective leadership (EL). The Cronbach alpha values are shown in table 5.5 above. The ten Cronbach alpha values were all above 0.7 which indicated a strong and solid item covariance as argued by Saunders et al. (2016) and Gerber and Hall (2017). This showed that the instrument was reliable for the study.

5.5 Descriptive statistics

In order to understand responses from the study, frequency analysis was used and the frequencies were grouped according to the selected themes namely leadership style, effectiveness of the situational leadership theory, leader characteristics, follower characteristics, culture, ubuntu, traditional leadership, history of the country, stage of economic development of the country and effective leadership.

5.5.1 Leadership style

In order to understand the predominant leadership styles that were followed by the different SMEs, eleven statements were presented to respondents for them to rate the extent to which they agreed with those statements and the results are presented in table 5.6 below.

Table 5.6: Responses on leadership style

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Our leader motivates and inspires us.	19.1	64.7	3.7	10.8	1.7
Leaders in this organisation show concern for employees.	5.4	75.1	6.6	11.2	1.7
Leaders in this organisation are approachable.	2.1	75.9	7.1	12.0	2.9
Employees are rewarded when they do what is expected of them.	63.1	20.3	10.4	5.0	1.2
Leaders are responsive to the needs of employees.	14.5	69.3	11.2	4.6	0.4
In our organisation, leaders listen to their employees.	7.5	72.6	16.2	2.9	0.8

Our leader pays special attention to our individual needs.	22.8	63.9	8.3	4.1	0.8
Employees are given authority to carry out specific tasks.	2.9	75.1	13.7	7.5	0.8
Employees receive clear and precise instructions from their superiors.	0.8	67.6	12.4	17.4	1.7
Our leader works with us in an inclusive manner.	3.7	72.6	20.3	2.1	1.2
Leadership in this organisation is shared with educated employees.		69.3	12.4	17.4	0.8

Source: Fieldwork

Results from table 5.6 above showed that the majority of the respondents either strongly disagreed or disagreed with all the eleven statements that were presented to them. Between 68.4% and 86.7% either strongly disagreed or disagreed with the statements.

5.5.2 Effectiveness of the Situational Leadership Theory (SLT)

In order to assess the effectiveness of the SLT, three statements were presented to the respondents for them to rate the extent to which they agreed with the statements and the results are shown in table 5.7 below.

Table 5.7: Responses on the effectiveness of the Situational Leadership Theory

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Our leader gives us freedom to decide what, how, when and where to do tasks.	55.6	41.1	0.8	2.5	
Our leader is patient when giving instructions.	34.9	53.1	5.0	6.2	0.8
Our leader decreases control when we show that we are responsible.	59.3	31.5	2.5	5.8	0.8

Source: Fieldwork

Table 5.7 above shows that the majority of respondents either strongly disagreed or disagreed with the three statements that were presented to them to assess the effectiveness of the SLT.

5.5.2.1 Freedom to decide what, how, when and where to do tasks in relation to organisational position

An analysis was done on '*our leader gives us freedom to decide what, how, when and where to do tasks*' in relation to organisational position and results are shown in table 5.8 below.

Table 5.8: Freedom to decide what, how, when and where to do tasks in relation to position

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Non-managerial	64.7	33.3	0.0	2.0	
Supervisor	47.6	46.0	1.6	4.8	
Manager	16.7	83.3	0.0	0.0	
Owner-manager	31.3	62.5	6.3	0.0	

Source: Fieldwork; (*chi-square* = 25.582, *df* = 9, *p*<0.01)

Table 5.8 above shows that the majority of non-managerial (98%), supervisory (93.6%), managerial (100%) and owner-managerial respondents (93.8%) either strongly disagreed or disagreed that the leader gave freedom to employees to decide what, how, when and where to do tasks.

5.5.2.2 Freedom to decide what, how, when and where to do tasks in relation to level of education

An analysis was done on '*our leader gives us freedom to decide what, how, when and where to do tasks*' in relation to level of education and the results are shown in table 5.9 below.

Table 5.9: Freedom to decide what, how, when and where to do tasks in relation to level of education

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Below Ordinary level	75.0	25.0			
Ordinary level	76.9	23.1			
Advanced level	60.0	20.0		20.0	
Certificate level	43.8	50.0		6.3	
Diploma level	60.3	38.4		1.4	
Degree level	50.9	46.3		2.8	
Post graduate level	50.0	38.9	11.1		

Source: Fieldwork; (*chi-square* = 22.167, *df* = 18, *p*>0.05)

Table 5.9 above shows that the majority of respondents who had attained below ordinary level (100%), ordinary level (100%), advanced level (80%), certificate level (93.8%), diploma level (98.7%), degree level (97.2%) and post graduate level of education (88.9%) either strongly disagreed or disagreed that the leader gave freedom to employees to decide what, how, when and where to do tasks.

5.5.2.3 Decrease in control when employees are responsible in relation to organisational position

An analysis was done on ‘*our leader decreases control when we show that we are responsible*’ in relation to organisational position and the results are shown in table 5.10 below.

Table 5.10: Decrease in control when employees are responsible in relation to position

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Non-managerial	68.0	25.3	0.7	5.3	0.7
Supervisor	61.9	30.2	1.6	4.8	1.6
Manager	8.3	83.3	8.3		
Owner-manager	6.3	56.3	18.8	18.8	

Source: Fieldwork; (*chi-square* = 50.519, *df* = 12, *p*<0.01)

Table 5.10 above shows that the majority of non-managerial (93.3%), supervisory (92.1%), managerial (91.6%) and owner-managerial respondents (62.6%) either

strongly disagreed or disagreed that the leader decreased control when employees showed that they were responsible.

5.5.2.4 Decrease in control when employees are responsible in relation to level of education

An analysis was done on '*our leader decreases control when we show that we are responsible*' in relation to level of education and the results are shown in table 5.11 below.

Table 5.11: Decrease in control when employees are responsible in relation to level of education

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Below Ordinary level	62.5	37.5			
Ordinary level	61.5	38.5			
Advanced level	60.0	20.0			20.0
Certificate level	50.0	18.8		31.3	
Diploma level	61.6	35.6		2.7	
Degree level	63.9	29.6	3.7	2.8	
Post graduate level	27.8	33.3	11.1	22.2	5.6

Source: Fieldwork; (*chi-square* = 45.930, *df* = 24, *p*<0.01)

Table 5.11 above shows that the majority of respondents who had attained below ordinary level (100%), ordinary level (100%), advanced level (80%), certificate level (68.8%), diploma level (97.2%), degree level (93.5%) and post graduate level of education (61.1%) either strongly disagreed or disagreed that the leader decreased control when employees showed that they were responsible.

5.5.3 Leader characteristics

In order to understand leader characteristics necessary to engender effective leadership, respondents were presented with four statements and asked to rate the extent to which they agreed with the statements. Results are presented in table 5.12 below.

Table 5.12: Responses on leader characteristics.

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Knowledgeable leaders effectively lead their followers.		0.4	0.4	84.2	14.9
The level of education contributes to the way leaders discharge their responsibilities.		0.4	1.2	82.6	15.8
Skilled leaders effectively lead their followers.		0.4	0.4	82.2	17.0
Our leader shows respect to followers who are older than him/her.		2.9	2.1	52.7	42.3

Source: Fieldwork

Table 5.12 above shows that the majority of respondents (ranging from 95.0% to 99.2%) either agreed or strongly agreed with the four statements that were presented to them in order to understand leader characteristics necessary to engender leadership effectiveness.

5.5.3.1 Leader showing respect to followers older than him/her in relation to age

An analysis was done on '*our leader shows respect to followers who are older than him/her*' in relation to age and the results are shown in table 5.13 below.

Table 5.13: Leader showing respect to followers older than him/her in relation to age

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
18 – 25 years				45.8	54.2
26 – 34 years				52.8	47.2
35 – 44 years				50.5	49.5
45 years & above		21.2	15.2	63.6	

Source: Fieldwork; (*chi-square* = 78.964, *df* = 9, *p*<0.01)

Table 5.13 above shows that 21.2% of respondents who were aged 45 years and above disagreed that their leader showed respect to followers who were older than

him/her while 15.2% were neutral. There were no respondents from the other age categories who either disagreed with the statement or were neutral.

5.5.4 Follower characteristics

In order to understand follower characteristics necessary for effective leadership, respondents were presented with four statements and asked to rate the extent to which they agreed with them. The results are presented in table 5.14 below.

Table 5.14: Responses on follower characteristics

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Employees in our organisation respect each other.	2.1	54.4	15.4	27.8	0.4
Employees in our organisation care for each other.	2.1	54.4	13.3	29.9	0.4
Employees in our organisation feel for another.	2.1	54.4	13.7	29.5	0.4
Employees with the requisite knowledge and skills contribute meaningfully to the organisation.		0.8	2.9	89.6	6.6

Source: Fieldwork

Table 5.14 above shows that the majority of respondents (54.4%) disagreed with the first three statements that were presented to them to understand follower characteristics necessary for effective leadership, while the majority (89.6%) agreed with the fourth statement that employees with the requisite knowledge and skills contribute meaningfully to the organisation.

5.5.5 Culture

In order to understand whether leaders appreciated the role played by culture in engendering effective leadership, respondents were presented with four statements and asked to rate the extent to which they agreed with the statements. Results are presented in table 5.15 below.

Table 5.15: Responses on culture

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Our leaders value group solidarity.	0.4	79.7	11.2	7.5	1.2
Our leaders value good social and personal relations.		78.8	11.6	8.3	1.2
Our leaders believe in consensus.	42.3	46.9	5.0	5.8	
Our leaders believe in compromise.	42.3	48.5	5.8	2.9	0.4

Source: Fieldwork

Table 5.15 above shows that the majority of respondents (ranging from 78.8% to 90.8%) either strongly disagreed or disagreed with the four statements that were presented in order to understand whether leaders appreciated the role played by culture in engendering effective leadership.

5.5.6 Ubuntu

In order to understand whether the role played by ubuntu in effective leadership was valued, respondents were presented with seven statements and asked to rate the extent to which they agreed with those statements. Results are shown in table 5.16 below.

Table 5.16: Responses on ubuntu

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Our leaders care for us.	8.3	74.7	2.5	12.4	2.1
Our leaders exhibit the value of humaneness.	1.7	79.3	5.8	11.6	1.7
Our leaders respect the dignity of their employees.	8.3	73.0	3.3	14.1	1.2
We are free to express our opinions.	5.0	78.4	10.0	5.8	0.8
Leaders in our organisation tolerate divergent views.	3.7	79.7	11.2	4.1	1.2

In our organisation the interests of the group take precedence over the interests of individuals.	0.4	78.8	11.2	8.3	1.2
In our organisation we stand together as a group.		36.9	50.6	10.8	1.7

Source: Fieldwork

Table 5.16 above shows that the majority of the respondents (ranging from 79.2% to 83.4%) either strongly disagreed or disagreed with the first six statements while 50.6% were neutral concerning whether in their organisations they stood together as a group.

5.5.7 Traditional leadership

In order to understand whether traditional leadership practiced before the colonisation of the country has an effect on effective leadership, respondents were presented with four statements and asked to rate the extent to which they agreed with the statements. Results are presented in table 5.17 below.

Table 5.17: Responses on traditional leadership

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Employees participate in key activities such as planning.	2.1	81.3	4.6	10.8	1.2
Decision making is distributed.	2.1	89.2	4.1	3.3	1.2
Leaders make decisions based on the agreement and consent of all.	2.1	90.9	4.6	1.7	0.8
Employees participate in decision making.	2.1	89.2	4.6	2.5	1.7

Source: Fieldwork

Table 5.17 above shows that the majority of the respondents (ranging from 83.4% to 93%) either strongly disagreed or disagreed with all the four statements which were aimed at understanding whether traditional leadership which had been practiced before the colonisation of the country had an effect on effective leadership.

5.5.8 History of the country

In order to understand how the history of the country has an effect on contemporary effective leadership, respondents were presented with three statements and asked to rate the extent to which they agreed with the statements. Results are shown in table 5.18 below.

Table 5.18: Responses on history of the country

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Our leaders are domineering.	0.8	3.3	5.8	88.8	1.2
Our leaders discriminate against us.	3.3	3.7	8.3	84.2	0.4
Our leaders make us feel inferior.	3.7	8.3	6.6	80.5	0.8

Source: Fieldwork

From table 5.18 above the majority of the respondents (ranging from 81.3% to 90%) either agreed or strongly agreed with the three statements meant to understand how the history of the country had an effect on contemporary effective leadership.

5.5.9 Stage of economic development of the country

In order to understand the effect that the stage of economic development of a country has on effective leadership, respondents were presented with three statements and asked to rate the extent to which they agreed with the statements. Results are shown in table 5.19 below.

Table 5.19: Responses on stage of economic development of the country

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Employees are afraid to challenge their leaders.	1.7	6.6	5.4	72.6	13.7
Employees are afraid to demand accountability from their leaders.	1.7	6.6	5.0	70.1	16.6
Employees are afraid to demand transparency from their leaders.	0.8	3.7	7.5	74.7	13.3

Source: Fieldwork

Table 5.19 above shows that the majority of the respondents (ranging from 86.3% to 88%) either agreed or strongly agreed with the three statements aimed at understanding the effect that the stage of economic development of the country had on effective leadership.

5.5.10 Effective leadership

In order to understand whether leadership practiced in the different SMEs was effective, respondents were presented with five statements and asked to rate the extent to which they agreed with the statements. Results are shown in table 5.20 below.

Table 5.20: Responses on effective leadership

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Employees are excited to come to work and provide their all.	7.1	71.8	13.7	6.6	0.8
Employees are motivated to take on additional responsibilities.	7.1	66.0	15.4	11.2	0.4
Employees are committed to the decisions made by their superior.	5.4	61.4	22.4	10.0	0.8
Managers assist employees in career development.	1.2	83.0	11.6	3.7	0.4
The goals of the organisation are consistently met.	0.8	81.3	12.9	4.1	0.8

Source: Fieldwork

From table 5.20 above it can be deduced that the majority of the respondents (ranging from 66.8% to 84.2%) either strongly disagreed or disagreed with all the five statements aimed at understanding whether leadership practiced in the different SMEs was effective.

5.6 Inferential statistics

5.6.1 Spearman correlation

To quantify the strength and direction of the monotonic relationship between the proposed independent variables (culture, ubuntu, traditional leadership, history of the country, stage of economic development of the country) and the dependent variable (effective leadership) a spearman correlation test was conducted. The results are shown in table 5.21 below.

Table 5.21: Spearman correlation matrix values

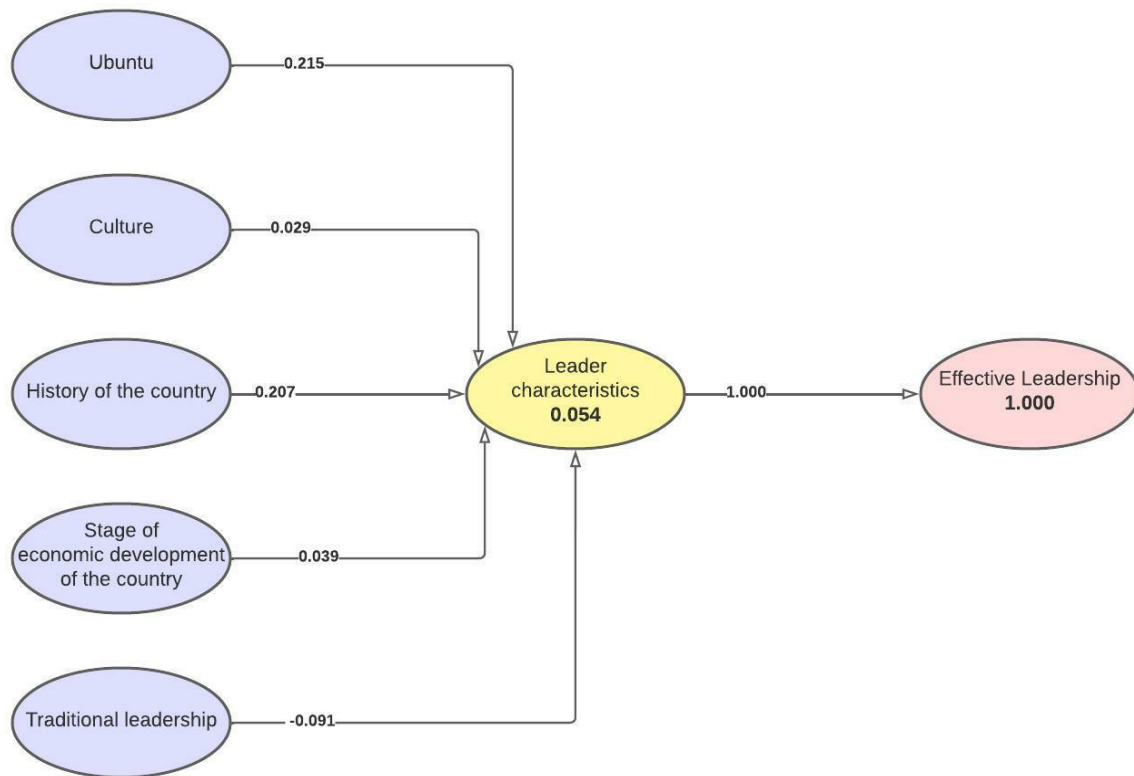
Dimension	Effective leadership
Culture Sig N	0.391 0.000 241
Ubuntu Sig N	0.487 0.000 241
Traditional leadership Sig N	0.192 0.003 241
History of the country Sig N	-0.484 0.000 241
Stage of economic development of the country Sig N	-0.377 0.000 241

Table 5.21 above shows that the correlation coefficients for culture, ubuntu and traditional leadership were all positive, ranging from 0.192 to 0.487 while the coefficients for history of the country and stage of economic development of the country were negative, ranging from -0.377 to -0.484. The findings also showed that culture, ubuntu, traditional leadership, history of the country and stage of economic development of the country were all significant at 5% level of confidence.

5.6.2 Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

SEM, a statistical and arithmetic modelling procedure that integrates regression path analysis and factor analysis (Hair et al., 2017) was used to validate the proposed model using data that was collected from the respondents and the model results are shown in figure 5.2 below.

Figure 5.2: Structured model adapted from Smart PLS



Source: Smart PLS version 3

Figure 5.2 above shows that four independent variables namely culture, ubuntu, history of the country and stage of economic development of the country had a positive influence on effective leadership mediated by leader characteristics while traditional leadership had a negative influence on effective leadership mediated by leader characteristics.

5.6.3 Model assessment

5.6.3.1 Composite reliability

In order to measure the internal uniformity of the data obtained, composite reliability tests were done and the results are shown in table 5.22 below.

Table 5.22: Composite reliability results

	Composite reliability	Evaluation
Culture	0.91	High internal consistency
Ubuntu	0.955	High internal consistency
History of the country	0.966	High internal consistency
Traditional leadership	0.874	Moderate internal consistency
Stage of economic development	0.958	High internal consistency

Results from table 5.22 above indicated that obtained values ranged from 0.874 to 0.966 which showed that the data had high internal consistency and was eligible for further analysis.

5.6.3.2 Convergent validity

To evaluate the convergent validity of the reflective constructs for the model, the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) method was used and the results are shown in table 5.23 below.

Table 5.23: AVE values

	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)	Validity evaluation
Culture	0.629	Valid and Good
Ubuntu	0.659	Valid and Good
Traditional leadership	0.563	Valid
History of the country	0.509	Valid
Stage of economic development	0.757	Valid and Good

Results from table 5.23 above shows that the AVE values were all above 0.5 which showed that the convergent validity was satisfied.

5.6.3.3 Discriminant validity

In order to measure the degree to which a construct was uniquely and truly different from other constructs due to observed empirical standards, two measures namely Fornell-Larcker criterion and Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) ratio were used.

Fornell-Larcker Criterion

The Fornell-Larcker criterion was done by comparing the square root of the AVE values with the latent variable correlations as suggested by Hair et al. (2014) and Kuo and Lin (2020). The values obtained for the research model are shown in table 5.24 below.

Table 5.24: Fornell-Larcker criterion values

	Culture	Ubuntu	History of the country	Stage of economic development	Traditional Leadership
Culture	0.784				
Ubuntu	0.606	0.767			
History of the country	0.598	0.633	0.677		
Stage of economic development	0.654	0.412	0.523	0.661	
Traditional Leadership	0.671	0.367	0.486	0.455	0.604

The Fornell-Larcker values shown in table 5.24 above showed that the square root of four constructs namely culture, ubuntu, history of the country and stage of economic development of the country were greater than their highest correlations with the other constructs. However, the square root of traditional leadership was lower than its highest correlation with culture.

Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) ratio

As a remedy to the shortfalls of the Fornell-Larcker criterion, the between-trait correlations to the within-trait correlations were calculated and the values are shown in table 5.25 below.

Table 5.25: HTMT values

	Culture	Ubuntu	History of the country	Traditional Leadership	Stage of economic development
Culture					
Ubuntu	0.818				
History of the country	0.717	0.8552			
Traditional Leadership	0.672	0.676	0.782		
Stage of Economic development	0.544	0.539	0.452	0.771	

Results from table 5.25 above showed that the HTMT values for the model were all less than 0.9 (Hamid et al., 2017).

5.6.3.4 Variance Inflation Factor (VIF)

VIF was used to measure the collinearity of the latent variables and the values are shown in table 5.26 below.

Table 5.26: VIF values

	Culture	Ubuntu	History of the country	Traditional leadership	Stage of economic development
Culture					
Ubuntu	1.011				
History of the country	1.011	1.002			
Traditional Leadership	2.015	2.010	1.00		
Stage of economic development	1.011	1.003	1.053	1.030	

The VIF values for the model shown in table 5.26 above ranged from 1 to 2.015. The values are all greater than 0.2 but lower than 5 which showed that the model had no collinearity problems (Hair et al., 2017).

5.6.3.5 Coefficient of determination (R^2)

The coefficient of determination which is the square of the correlation of definite and predicted values of the model was calculated and the results are shown in table 5.27 below.

Table 5.27: Coefficient of determination values.

	R Square	R Square Adjusted
Culture	0.873	0.805
Ubuntu	0.804	0.798
History of the country	0.679	0.600
Traditional leadership	0.402	0.377
Stage of economic development	0.875	0.784

The coefficient of determination (R^2) values for the model shown in table 5.27 above ranged from 0.402 to 0.875. The values for all the variables were above 0.26 which showed that they were substantial according to Maware and Adetunji (2019a).

5.6.3.6 Effect size (f^2) analysis

The effect size (f^2) which describes the variation in R^2 value for the dependent variable due to the omission of a certain exogenous variable was calculated. The f^2 values calculated using the Cohen f^2 formulae are shown in table 5.28 below.

Table 5.28: Effect size values

	Culture	Ubuntu	History of the country	Traditional leadership	Stage of economic development
Culture					
Ubuntu	0.684				
History of the country	0.744	0.667			
Traditional leadership	0.709	0.671	0.673		
Stage of economic development	0.687	0.561	0.568	0.443	

The effect size values for culture, ubuntu, history of the country, traditional leadership and stage of economic development of the country presented in table 5.28 above ranged between 0.443 and 0.744. The values for the model were all greater than 0.35.

5.6.3.7 Stone-Geisser's (Q^2) analysis

The Stone-Geisser's (Q^2) analysis was used to further regulate the accuracy of the model by showing the predictive relevance of the model. The Q^2 values of the variables are shown in table 5.29 below.

Table 5.29: Stone-Geisser values

	SSO	SSE	Q^2
Culture	645	401.933	0.386
Ubuntu	501	308.145	0.376
History of the country	357	256.140	0.511
Traditional leadership	476	208.112	0.189
Stage of economic development	410	278.934	0.460

The Q^2 values of culture, ubuntu, history of the country, traditional leadership and stage of economic development of the country mediated by leader characteristics depicted in table 5.29 above are all above 0, ranging from 0.189 to 0.511 indicating that the model has high predictive relevancy (Firmansyah and Maemunah, 2021).

5.6.3.8 Model fit

Table 5.30 below shows the model fit statistics for the Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) model.

Table 5.30: AEL model fit values

Fit index	Prescribed threshold	Obtained value	Acceptable fit Yes / No
Relative Chi-square (CMIN/DF)	<3 = Good <5 = Sometimes permissible	1.347	Yes
Root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA)	<0.05 = Good Fit <0.08 = Acceptable fit	0.017	Yes
Chi-square difference	$p > 0.05$	0.129	Yes

Table 5.30 above shows that the relative chi-square (CMIN/DF) for the model was 1.347 and was less than the prescribed threshold of 3 while the root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA) was 0.017 and was less than the prescribed threshold of 0.05. The chi-square difference for the model was 0.129 which was greater than 0.05.

5.6.4 Research Hypotheses

Five hypotheses were formulated in chapter four and table 5.31 below shows the t-statistics and the p-values for the hypotheses and whether the hypotheses were supported or not by empirical findings. The hypotheses that culture, ubuntu, history of the country and stage of economic development of the country contributed to effective leadership were supported by research findings. However, study findings failed to support the hypothesis that traditional leadership contributes to effective leadership.

Table 5.31: Hypotheses results

	Original Sample	Sample Mean	Standard Deviation	t-statistics	p-values	Hypothesis	Decision
Culture contributes to effective leadership	0.678	0.377	0.138	2.734	0.011	H1	Accepted
Ubuntu contributes to effective leadership	0.564	0.127	0.043	2.952	0.021	H2	Accepted
Traditional leadership contributes to effective leadership	0.345	0.377	0.344	1.0945	0.126	H3	Not Accepted
History of the country contributes to effective leadership	0.553	0.354	0.109	3.251	0.030	H4	Accepted
Stage of economic development of the country contributes to effective leadership	0.424	0.882	0.278	3.174	0.046	H5	Accepted

Table 5.31 above showed that the t-statistics values for H1, H2, H4 and H5 were greater than 1.96, ranging between 2.734 and 3.251. However, the t-statistics value for H3 was 1.0945, which was less than 1.96. The p-values for H1, H2, H4 and H5 were less than 0.05 while the p-value for H3 was greater than 0.05.

5.7 Chapter summary

The current chapter presented research findings and their statistical analysis necessary to answer research questions and meet research objectives. Firstly, the demographic profile of respondents was articulated, followed by EFA. In order to understand the responses from the study, descriptive statistics in the form of frequencies were outlined followed by inferential statistics such as Spearman correlation, SEM and related tests to assess and validate the model. The next chapter

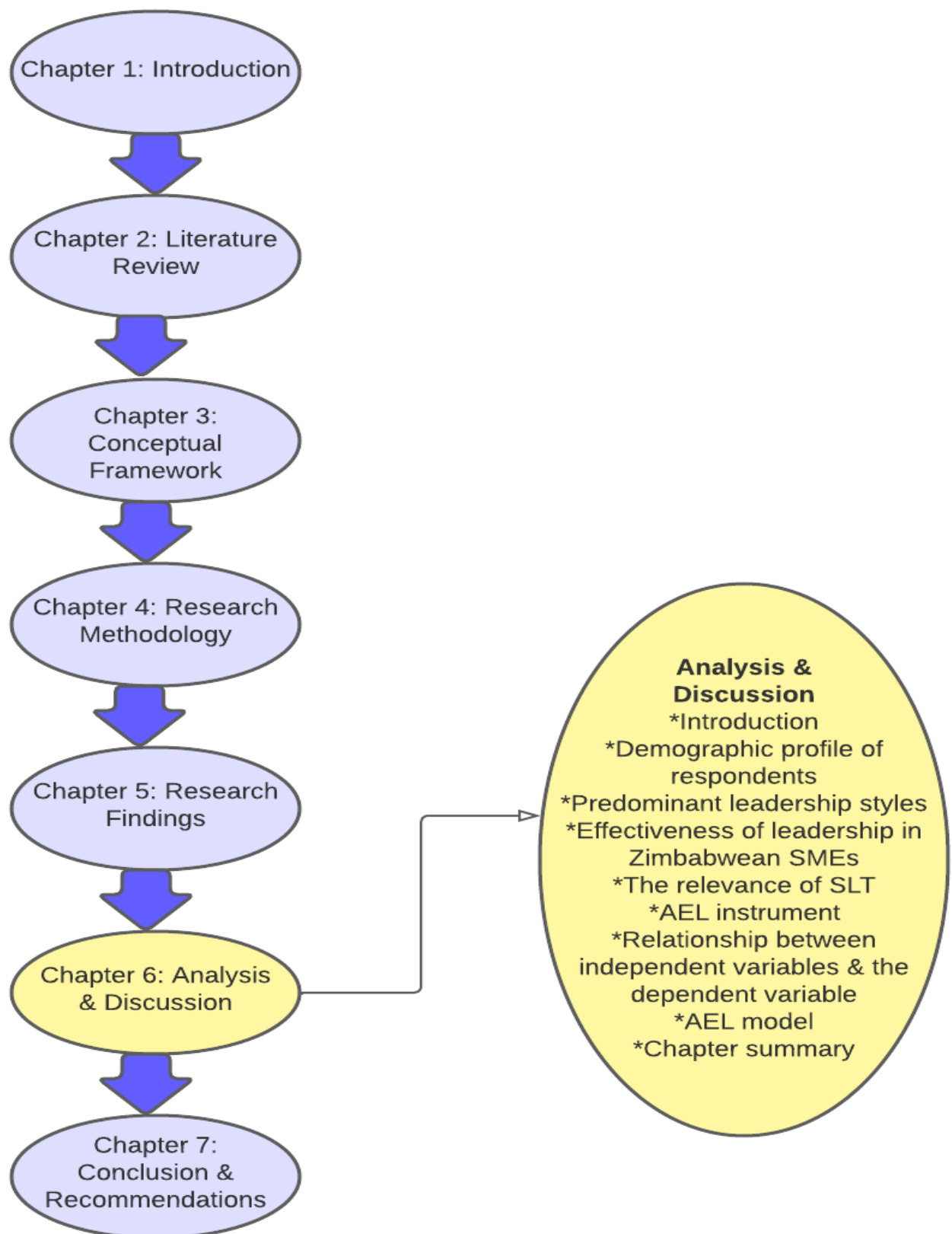
will analyse and discuss the research findings in relation to research objectives and the extant literature.

CHAPTER SIX: ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

6.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter presented research findings necessary to answer research questions and meet research objectives. The current chapter presents the analysis and discussion of the research findings outlined in the previous chapter. The analysis and discussion will be guided by seven research objectives outlined in chapter one. The first objective was to identify the predominant leadership styles used by SMEs in Zimbabwe while the second one was to assess the effectiveness of leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs. The third objective was to evaluate the extent to which the SLT is relevant to Zimbabwean SMEs while the fourth sought to develop an Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) instrument used to measure perceptions of effective leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs. The fifth objective sought to determine the relationship between independent variables and the dependent variable while the sixth objective sought to develop an Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) model for Zimbabwean SMEs. The last objective of the study sought to validate an Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) model for Zimbabwean SMEs. The synopsis of the chapter is highlighted by the chapter overview flowchart shown in figure 6.1 below.

Figure 6.1: Chapter six overview flowchart



Source: Researcher's compilation

6.2 Demographic profile of respondents

Five characteristics, namely organisational position, gender, age, level of education and tenure with the organisation were used to analyse the demographic profile of respondents. From the findings it can be deduced that the majority of the respondents (62.2%) were non-managerial followed by supervisors (26.1%), owner-managers (6.6%) and lastly managers (5.0%). Having more non-managerial followed by supervisory respondents reflects and is consistent with the composition of most organisations. Owner-managers were more than managers because many entrepreneurs in Zimbabwe start their businesses and become actively involved in those businesses which is consistent with the findings of FinScope (2012). Male respondents were more than female respondents. This is consistent with the expectations in an African culture where males are regarded as breadwinners and assume the responsibility of taking care of their families. However, it is worth noting that at 56.4% male versus 43.6% female, the gap was increasingly closing as a result of a shift in how contemporary families viewed traditional roles.

Research findings showed that the highest number of respondents (39.4%) were aged between 35 and 44 years. This was followed by 36.9% who were aged between 26 and 34 years. This proved that Zimbabwean SMEs were resourced by people who are considered to be in their prime age. The fact that 75.1% of the respondents had attained either a degree level or a diploma level of education showed that SMEs were resourced by relatively educated personnel who had the capacity to contribute meaningfully to their respective organisations. This scenario could also have been a result of high unemployment levels being experienced in the country which made it relatively difficult for educated people to get jobs in large organisations. This is consistent with the findings of Mugozi and Hlabiso (2017); Tinarwo (2016); Karedza et al. (2014); Maseko and Manyani (2011). This meant that fewer opportunities were available for educated people outside SMEs because of the closure of large organisations as argued by Musanzikwa (2014). Research findings showed that 14.1% of the respondents had been with their respective organisations for 11 years and above while 85.9% had been with their organisations for 10 years and below. The fact that people were not staying for a relatively very long time with one organisation could be explained by relatively frequent movements from one organisation to another in search of greener pastures.

6.3 Predominant leadership styles used by SMEs in Zimbabwe

The analysis of research findings showed that non-managerial and supervisory respondents had differing views from managers and owner-managers when it came to whether leaders were motivating and inspiring employees. The majority of non-managers (94%) and supervisory respondents (96.8%) were of the view that leaders were not motivating and inspiring their employees while the majority of managers (83.3%) and owner-managers (81.3%) believed that leaders were indeed motivating and inspiring their employees as shown by appendix D1. This showed that the majority of managers and owner-managers were of the view that they were following the transformational leadership style while the majority of non-managerial and supervisory respondents were of the view that leaders were not following the transformational leadership style. We can therefore deduce from the findings that leaders did not understand how they should motivate and inspire employees. This is the reason why managers and owner-managers believed they were motivating and inspiring followers while the followers disputed that. Since it is the followers who experience the leadership style, we can infer from the findings that leaders were not following the transformational leadership style. With transformational leadership, leaders are expected to motivate and inspire followers into novel ways of doing things and opportunities (Albloshi and Nawar, 2015; Saasongu, 2015; Indermun, 2013). When that happens, followers will be fully aware of such developments.

Research findings revealed that although the majority of non-managerial respondents (94%) and supervisory respondents (84.1%) were of the opinion that leaders in their respective organisations were not showing concern for employees, the majority of managers (66.7%) and owner-managers (87.6%) believed that they showed concern for employees as shown by appendix D2. These findings demonstrated that managers and owner-managers did not fully understand what it means to show concern for employees. This is the reason why although the majority of the leaders were of the view that they were showing concern towards followers, the followers were of a different view. Leaders who show concern for employees exhibit a supportive leadership style (Mourao, 2018). We can infer from the findings that leaders were not supportive. Findings also exhibited that the majority of managers (75%) and owner-managers (87.5%) were of the view that leaders were approachable. This was in contrast to the view of the majority of non-managerial respondents (92%) and

supervisory respondents (79.4%) who believed that leaders in their respective organisations were not approachable as shown by appendix D3. From these findings we can deduce that leaders did not understand what it is they were expected to do for them to be seen as approachable. It also showed that leaders were not self-aware hence they thought that they were approachable while followers believed they were not approachable.

An analysis of the study findings revealed that although the majority of non-managerial respondents (95.3%) and supervisory respondents (92.1%) were of the opinion that employees were not rewarded when they did what was expected of them, the majority of managers (83.3%) and owner-managers (62.5%) were neutral as shown by appendix D4. 16.7% of managers and 37.5% of owner-managers agreed that employees were rewarded when they did what was expected of them. These findings demonstrated that the majority of managers and owner-managers were not sure whether employees were rewarded or not. As a result, we can deduce that although the reward might have been there, it was not consistent. Transactional leadership style involves managers exchanging tangible rewards for the work and loyalty of employees (Indermun, 2013). As a result, we can infer from the findings that leaders were not following the transactional leadership style.

Research findings showed that non-managerial and supervisory respondents on one end and managers and owner-managers on the other end had differing perceptions on whether employees were given authority to carry out specific tasks. The majority of non-managerial respondents (90%) and supervisory respondents (84.1%) were of the view that employees were not given authority to carry out specific tasks while the majority of managers (83.3%) and owner-managers (68.8%) were neutral as shown by appendix D5. However, a minority of managers (16.7%) and owner-managers (31.3%) agreed that authority was given to employees to carry out specific tasks. These findings demonstrated that there were managers and owner-managers, though in the minority, who believed in participative leadership. The fact that the majority of managers and owner-managers were not sure whether authority was given to employees may be interpreted to mean that the majority of leaders in the different SMEs did not understand what participative leadership entails. We can therefore deduce from the findings that leaders lacked skills in delegating authority to subordinates.

An analysis of the results also showed that the majority of managers (66.7%) and owner-managers (81.3%) agreed that leadership was shared with educated employees while the majority of non-managerial respondents (78.7%) and supervisory respondents (71.4%) were of the view that leadership was not shared with educated employees as shown by appendix D6. Findings also revealed that 50% of respondents who had attained post graduate level of education agreed that leadership was shared with educated employees. 8.2% of those who had attained diploma level education and 18.5% of those who had attained degree level education also agreed as shown by appendix D7. 50% of those who had attained post graduate level of education were either non-managerial or supervisory respondents as shown by appendix D8. The findings revealed that there was selective participation of educated employees. However, the same findings also showed that not all educated employees were involved in leadership activities since 76.7% of those who had attained diploma level, 69.4% of those who had attained degree level and 38.9% of those who had attained post graduate level of education disagreed that leadership was shared with educated employees (see appendix D7). As a result, we can deduce that in addition to level of education, leaders had other factors they considered before including employees in leadership activities. As such we may infer that selective participatory leadership style was followed in the different SMEs.

Findings revealed that 83.3% of managers and 75% of owner-managers agreed that employees were given clear and precise instructions as shown by appendix D9. Although this is contrary to what the majority of non-managerial (76.7%) and supervisory (79.4%) respondents believed, it showed that managers and owner-managers preferred directional leadership style although they did not take time to understand whether the instructions were clear and understood from the perspective of the subordinates. Findings also revealed that the majority of non-managerial (98%) and supervisory (100%) respondents were of the view that employees were not participating in decision making (see Appendix D10). 50% of managers and 25% of owner-managers were of the same view while 41.7% of managers and 31.3% of owner-managers were neutral. 95.3% of non-managerial and 66.7% of supervisory respondents were of the view that employees did not also participate in key activities such as planning. The majority of managers (66.7%) and 50% of the owner-managers were also of the same view as shown by appendix D11. Findings discussed in section

6.5 below showed that 96.7% of all the respondents were of the view that leaders did not give freedom to employees to decide what, how, when and where to do tasks. Analysed in the context of organisational position, 98% of non-managerial, 93.6% of supervisory, 100% of managers and 93.8% of owner-managers believed that employees were told what, how, when and where to do tasks. These findings buttress the view that leaders in SMEs preferred the directional leadership style. Directional leadership entails employees being allocated tasks with little discretion while they are also minimally involved in organisational activities (Nyamwanza and Mavhiki, 2014).

An analysis of research findings showed that the majority of non-managerial (93.3%) and supervisory respondents (84.1%) believed that leaders in their respective organisations did not listen to their employees while the majority of managers (91.7%) and owner-managers (75%) were neutral as shown by appendix D12. However, 8.3% of managers and 25% of owner-managers were of the opinion that leaders listened to their employees. Only 2% of non-managerial and 1.6% of supervisory respondents agreed that leaders listened to their employees. The fact that the majority of the managers and owner-managers were neutral may be interpreted as showing that leaders in SMEs were not democratic and this is consistent with selective participatory leadership involving more of the educated.

Research findings showed that the majority of non-managerial respondents (94%) and supervisory respondents (68.3%) were of the view that leaders were not working with employees in an inclusive manner while the majority of managers (91.7%) and owner-managers (93.8%) were neutral as shown by appendix D13. However, 8.3% of managers and 6.3% of owner-managers agreed that leaders worked with employees in an inclusive manner although they were in the minority. On the other hand, 2.6% of non-managerial and 3.2% of supervisory respondents were also of the same view. The fact that the majority of managers and owner-managers did not want to commit themselves to a clear position of whether leaders were inclusive may be interpreted as demonstrating that leaders were not inclusive. These findings may also be consistent with the selective participation of a few employees especially the educated ones in leadership activities.

Research findings to identify the predominant leadership styles used by SMEs in Zimbabwe identified two leadership styles used, namely selective participation style

and directional leadership style. These findings are consistent with the findings of Mkheimer (2018) and Chandrakumara et al. (2009) who also found that at least two leadership styles were used in SMEs. Findings also showed that of the two styles, the directional style was the predominant leadership style. This finding supports the findings of Nyamwanza and Mavhiki (2014) and Dumbu and Chadamoyo (2012).

6.4 Effectiveness of leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs

The second objective of the study was to assess the effectiveness of leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs. Research findings showed that the majority of the respondents were of the view that employees were not excited to come to work and provide their all. This could have been as a result of a number of reasons which include employees not being rewarded when they did what was expected of them, leaders not showing concern for employees and leaders being unapproachable. An analysis of the findings showed that both employees and managers were of the view that employees were not excited to come to work. For instance, 84% of non-managerial, 63.5% of supervisory, 100% of managers and 75.1% of owner-managerial respondents either strongly disagreed or disagreed that employees were excited to come to work and provide their all as shown by Appendix E1. 23.8% of supervisors and 25% of owner-managers decided to remain neutral. The nature of leadership employed in an organisation determines whether employees are happy to come to work and provide their all. Effective leadership style impacts positively on employees' satisfaction (Dalluay and Jalagat, 2016; Albloshi and Nawar, 2015). When employees are satisfied, they will happily come to work and provide their all. Effective leadership will result in engaged employees who are involved and exhibit greater enthusiasm for work (Popli and Rizvi, 2016). These employees are excited to come to work and provide their all. We can infer from the findings that leadership was ineffective hence employees were not excited to come to work and provide their all.

An analysis of research findings demonstrated that employees were not motivated to take on additional responsibilities. All the managers and 81.3% of the owner-managers were of the view that employees were not motivated to take on additional responsibilities. The majority of non-managerial (78.7%) and supervisory respondents (52.4%) were also of the same view as depicted by Appendix E2. Leadership style and leader characteristics can be blamed for lack of employee motivation (Nyanga,

2013). We can infer from the findings that the reason why employees were not motivated to take on additional responsibilities was because of ineffective reward systems. Employees were not rewarded when they did what was expected of them which means that even if they took additional responsibilities, there was little benefit for them. Effective leaders will come up with novel ways of keeping employees motivated, engaged and committed even in harsh economic circumstances. Ineffective leadership may result in employees feeling less enthusiastic and detached from organisational activities (Gabriela and Dorinela, 2017). Implementing an effective leadership style will motivate employees to be committed to their work (Naile and Selesho, 2014) which will result in them accepting additional responsibilities.

Research findings showed that employees were not committed to the decisions made by their superiors. The majority of managers (91.7%) and owner-managers (68.8%) believed that employees were not committed to the decisions of their superiors as shown by Appendix E3. 72% of non-managerial and 49.2% of supervisory respondents were of the view that they were not committed to the decisions of their superiors. 22.7% of non-managerial and 27% of supervisory respondents were neutral. When leadership is effective and employees have confidence in their leaders, they will be committed to the decisions that are made by their leaders (Goe and Martey, 2020). We can infer from the findings that ineffective leadership was the reason why employees were not committed to the decisions of their superiors.

An analysis of research findings showed that managers were not assisting employees in career development. The majority of managers (83.3%) and owner-managers (62.5%) were of the view that as managers they were not assisting employees in career development as shown by Appendix E4. The majority of non-managerial (90.6%) and supervisory respondents (74.6%) were also of the same view. From the findings we can infer that leadership was not effective because leaders were not fulfilling their responsibility of assisting employees in career development. Effective leadership involves assisting employees in career development (Mourao, 2018; Litano and Major, 2016; Nyanga, 2012).

Research findings showed that the majority of the respondents were of the view that the goals of the organisation were not consistently met. The majority of non-managerial (88.6%) and supervisory respondents (74.6%) were of the view that

organisational goals were not consistently met as shown by Appendix E5. Also, the majority of managers (75%) and owner-managers (56.3%) were of the same opinion. 25% of managers and 18.8% of owner-managers were neutral. Only 4.9% of the total respondents were of the view that the goals of the organisation were consistently met. Leadership is effective when it brings superior performance that results in the organisation consistently achieving its goals (Madanchian and Taherdoost, 2019; Su and Baird, 2017; Meraku, 2017). As such we can infer that leadership was ineffective.

When leadership is effective, employees will be excited to come to work and provide their all. They will also be motivated to take on additional responsibilities and be committed to the decisions that are made by their superiors. This will ultimately lead to organisations consistently meeting their goals. Research findings demonstrated that leadership was not effective in Zimbabwean SMEs. These findings are consistent with the findings of Daka (2016); Saasongu (2015); Jalal-Edden (2015); Gombarume and Mavhundutse (2014); Karedza et al. (2014).

6.5 The extent to which the SLT is relevant to Zimbabwean SMEs

The third objective of the study was to evaluate the extent to which the Situational Leadership Theory (SLT) was relevant to Zimbabwean SMEs. An analysis of research findings showed that the majority (96.7%) of respondents were of the view that freedom was not given to employees to decide what, how, when and where to do tasks. Further analysed in terms of organisational position, the findings revealed that 98% of non-managerial, 93.6% of supervisory, 100% of managerial and 93.8% of owner-managerial respondents were of the opinion that employees were told what, how, when and where to do tasks irrespective of their level of maturity. This proved that both leaders and followers were of the view that managers told all employees what, how, when and where to do tasks without taking into consideration the level of the employees' maturity according to the dictates of the SLT as articulated by Henkel and Bourdeau (2018) and Shonhiwa (2016).

Looking at the level of education that respondents had attained, there was unanimity that leaders told subordinates what, how, when and where to do tasks. For instance, all the respondents who had attained below ordinary level and ordinary level education either strongly disagreed or disagreed with the assertion that subordinates were given freedom to decide what, how, when and where to do tasks. Additionally, 97.2% of

those who had attained degree level and 88.9% of those who had attained post graduate level of education also either strongly disagreed or disagreed with the statement. This proved that employees were told what, how, when and where to do tasks irrespective of their level of education. We can infer from the findings that managers were not taking into consideration the level of maturity of employees as advocated by Henkel and Bourdeau (2018).

Research findings showed that the majority of non-managerial (95.3%) and supervisory respondents (93.6%) were of the view that leaders were not patient when they were giving instructions. This showed that non-managerial and supervisory respondents were clear that leaders were not patient when giving out instructions. When it came to managers, 50% disagreed that they were patient while 33.3% agreed. The remaining 16.7% were neutral as shown by appendix F1. This showed that the majority of the managers were not confident that they were patient when giving instructions. The highest number of owner-managers (43.8%) were neutral while 31.3% agreed. The remaining 25.1% either strongly disagreed or disagreed that they were patient when giving subordinates instructions. These findings showed that fewer managers and owner-managers believed that they were patient when giving subordinates instructions. We can infer from the findings that generally leaders were not patient with subordinates when they gave instructions.

An analysis of research findings showed that the majority of respondents were of the view that leaders were not decreasing control when subordinates showed that they were responsible. This was evidenced by 93.3% of non-managers, 92.1% of supervisors, 91.6% of managers and 62.6% of owner-managers who either strongly disagreed or disagreed that leaders decreased control. This proved that those who were expected to decrease control in the form of supervisors, managers and owner-managers were not decreasing control even when subordinates showed that they were responsible. This could have been caused by fear that if they decreased control, things could go wrong. When analysed in terms of level of education attained, the findings showed that all the respondents who had attained below ordinary level and ordinary level education were of the view that control was not decreased when employees proved that they were responsible. 93.5% of those who had attained degree level and 61.1% of those who had attained post graduate level of education were also of the same opinion. This showed that both respondents who had attained

lower levels of education and those who had attained higher levels of education did not believe that leaders decreased control when subordinates showed that they were responsible. These findings were consistent with the findings that most leaders followed a directional leadership style. This could have been necessitated by the desire of SME owners who are mostly active in the running of their businesses to keep a tight control over the business.

Findings also showed that the majority of the respondents irrespective of their organisational position believed that employees with the requisite knowledge and skills contributed meaningfully to their organisations. One way that employees gain competence is through education (Thompson and Glaso, 2018) and there is high chance that educated employees have the requisite knowledge and skills to contribute meaningfully to their organisations. As such one would expect that as employees become competent and ultimately responsible, the leaders would substitute directive behaviour with supportive behaviour. If leaders were not decreasing control with subordinates who had attained high levels of education, it showed that their reluctance to decrease control might have been as a result of reasons not associated with the responsibility levels of employees. One plausible reason could have been that since most SME leaders were owner-managers, they feared to lose control of their businesses. Research also showed that the majority of respondents believed that the leader should take into consideration age and respect followers who are older than him or her. As such, certain demographic characteristics such as education and age which the SLT did not take into consideration were important factors to consider in the current study consistent with the findings of Vecchio and Boatwright (2002).

Findings showed that subordinates were treated the same irrespective of their maturity levels which is contrary to the dictates of the SLT that subordinates must be treated differently based on the task at hand and their level of maturity and that leaders must search for opportunities to assist their employees to learn new skills so that they become confident in their work (Thompson and Glaso, 2018; Shonhiwa, 2016). SLT calls for both directive and supportive behaviour depending on employee competence and commitment (Thompson and Glaso, 2018; Shonhiwa, 2016) but findings showed that managers were only interested in directive behaviour. Supportive behaviour in the form of listening to subordinates, being responsive to their needs and soliciting for their input was absent. Although, the SLT might have been applicable in other settings

(Hawkinson, 2016), the current study found that the SLT is not applicable to Zimbabwean SMEs in its prescriptive state. Findings from the current study are consistent with the findings of Ebere and Fragouli (2015).

6.6 Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) instrument used to measure effective leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs.

The fourth objective of the study was to develop an AEL instrument used to measure perceptions of effective leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs. In order to realise this objective, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted for the purposes of data summarisation and data reduction as articulated by Hair et al. (2014). Before EFA was conducted, it was determined through KMO and BTS that it was viable to conduct it. A KMO value of 0.915 was achieved and was above the threshold value of 0.5 which showed the presence of a strong correlation structure. This proved that the sample was adequate for EFA to proceed (Maguraushe, Da Veiga and Martins, 2020; Gerber and Hall, 2017; Hair et al., 2014; Gie and Pearce, 2012). The large KMO scores signified that factor analysis undoubtedly extracted reliable and distinguishable factors. It also demonstrated the existence of a relatively compact correlation pattern. The BTS value of 0.000 for overall statistical significance showed that the sample was statistically significant and relevant since $p < 0.05$. This proved that there existed correlations among the variables and that an appropriate and meaningful factor analysis was done as highlighted by Hair et al. (2014).

In coming up with the final factor rotated matrix, one item which read as *'leaders seek advice from employees when making decisions'* was eliminated because it had a factor loading less than the adopted factor loading threshold of 0.4 as suggested by Hair et al. (2014). Two items which read as *'employees in this organisation treat each other as family'* and *'employees in this organisation treat the young who are in positions of leadership with respect'* successfully loaded on one factor. Two additional items which read as *'in this organisation, we cooperate with each other'* and *'in this organisation we work together in harmony'* also successfully loaded on one other factor. These four items were eliminated in line with the adopted criterion of grouping at least three items per factor. The internal consistence of the responses was measured using Cronbach alpha. All the ten factors had Cronbach alpha coefficients above 0.7. This indicated a strong and solid item covariance (Gerber and Hall, 2017; Saunders et al., 2016). These values were suitable and adequate for the objective of this research. Banerjee

(2015) has argued that for newly developed instruments, a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.6 is suitable and adequate. These findings proved that the AEL instrument was reliable for the study.

6.7 Relationship between independent variables and the dependent variable.

The fifth objective sought to determine the relationship between independent variables (ubuntu, culture, history of the country, stage of economic development of the country, traditional leadership) and the dependent variable (effective leadership). A Spearman correlation test was conducted to establish the monotonic relationship between these variables and validate the different hypotheses.

6.7.1 Ubuntu

A Spearman coefficient (ρ) of 0.487 showed that Ubuntu is positively related to effective leadership and is also significant at 5% level of significance. A ρ of 0.487 showed that the relationship between Ubuntu and effective leadership was moderate (Saunders et al., 2016). Findings of this study are consistent with the findings of Brubaker (2013). An analysis of the findings showed that leaders were not leading their followers in line with the philosophy of Ubuntu. This finding however, is in contrast to the findings of Muchiri (2011) who found that successful managers in Southern and Eastern African organisations practised Ubuntu. Out of the seven statements that had been presented to respondents to assess whether the role played by Ubuntu in engendering effective leadership was valued, between 79.2% and 83.4% of the respondents answered in the negative on six of the statements. Out of the five statements that had been presented to respondents to assess whether leadership was effective, the majority of the respondents, between 66.8% and 84.2% were of the view that leadership was not effective. These findings can be interpreted to mean that leadership was not effective because leaders were not leading in line with the philosophy of Ubuntu. Findings showed that leaders were not respecting the dignity of their followers and were not caring for them. Employees were not free to express their opinions and divergent views were not tolerated by leaders. Findings also showed that the interests of individuals took precedence over the interests of the group. As such, we can infer that as the practice of Ubuntu increases, so does effective leadership.

This is in line with calls for Ubuntu to be included in leadership practices on the African continent (Galperin and Alamuri, 2017; Ngunjiri, 2016; Msila, 2015).

The study tested the hypothesis that there is a relationship between Ubuntu and effective leadership. The p-value for Ubuntu on effective leadership was 0.021 and was less than 0.05 (Firmansyah and Maemunah, 2021). The t-statistic was 2.952 and was greater than 1.96 (Nawanir, Teong and Othman, 2013). As such the hypothesis was accepted and it was concluded that Ubuntu has a positive relationship with effective leadership. The current study has partly addressed the weaknesses of Ubuntu highlighted by Brubaker (2013) that most studies were conceptual, qualitative and confined to South Africa. The current study adopted a quantitative design and focused on SMEs in Zimbabwe which assisted in broadening the scope of Ubuntu outside South Africa.

6.7.2 Culture

A Spearman coefficient (ρ) of 0.391 revealed that culture is positively related to effective leadership and is also significant at 5% level of significance. A ρ of 0.391 showed that the relationship between culture and effective leadership was moderate (Saunders et al., 2016). An analysis of the findings showed that leaders did not value the role played by culture in engendering effective leadership. 80.1% of the respondents were of the view that leaders were not valuing group solidarity while 78.8% were of the view that leaders were not valuing good social and personal relations. The majority (89.2% and 90.8%) of the respondents were also of the view that leaders did not believe in consensus and compromise respectively. As a result of this analysis, we can infer that this was the reason why leadership was not effective. The findings support the assertion by Kuada (2010) that leadership and management practices in Africa must emphasise on compromise and consensus. The study tested the hypothesis that there is a relationship between culture and effective leadership. A p-value of 0.011 was achieved and was less than 0.05 (Firmansyah and Maemunah, 2021). The t-statistic for culture on effective leadership was 2.734 and was above 1.96 (Nawanir et al., 2013). As such the hypothesis was accepted and it was concluded that culture has a positive influence on effective leadership. As leaders value group solidarity and good social and personal relations, effective leadership will increase.

Additionally, as leaders believe in consensus and compromise, effective leadership will also increase.

6.7.3 History of the country

A Spearman coefficient (ρ) of -0.484 revealed a negative correlation between history of the country and effective leadership. The relationship was significant at 5% level of significance. A ρ of -0.484 showed a moderate relationship between history of the country and effective leadership (Saunders et al., 2016). An analysis of the findings showed that the majority (90% and 84.6%) of the respondents believed that leaders were domineering and discriminated against followers respectively. The majority (81.3%) were also of the view that leaders made followers feel inferior. The findings agree with Kuada (2010) who found that leaders in African organisations discriminate followers by providing special opportunities and privileges to followers closest to them and subservient to their interests. It can be inferred from the findings that as leaders decrease domineering behaviour and begin not to discriminate against followers, effective leadership will increase. Additionally, as leaders desist from making followers feel inferior, effective leadership would also increase.

Zimbabwe like most African countries underwent a protracted period of colonisation. During this dark period colonialists dominated indigenous people. They also discriminated against and made indigenous people feel inferior with long lasting effects. Unfortunately, because these behaviours were deeply ingrained, they were adopted and perpetuated by African leaders after the end of colonisation and passed on to subsequent generations of leaders. This is the reason why Ocheni and Nwankwo (2012) have argued that some of the selfish behaviours exhibited by leaders in Africa can be attributed to the effects of colonialism. As a result of the harmony of interest between the African petty bourgeoisie and the colonialists, African leaders across the board have continued to lead in the same manner as the colonialists did (ibid). The study tested the hypothesis that there existed a relationship between the history of the country and effective leadership. The p-value was 0.030 and was less than 0.05 (Firmansyah and Maemunah, 2021). The t-statistic for history of the country on effective leadership was 3.251 and was above 1.96 (Nawanir et al., 2013). As such the hypothesis was accepted and it was concluded that history of the country has a significant effect on effective leadership.

6.7.4 Stage of economic development of the country

A Spearman coefficient (ρ) of -0.377 revealed that stage of economic development of the country is negatively correlated to effective leadership and is significant at 5% level of significance. A ρ of -0.377 showed that the correlation between stage of economic development of the country and effective leadership was moderate (Saunders et al., 2016). Research findings showed that 86.3% of the respondents believed that employees were afraid to challenge their leaders while 86.7% were of the view that employees were afraid to demand accountability from their leaders. 88% of the respondents believed that employees were afraid to demand transparency from their leaders. An analysis of the findings showed that as fear of followers to challenge their leaders and demand accountability and transparency increases, effective leadership decreases. These findings support the assertion by Kuada (2010) that when African employees are at work, they are cautious because they are afraid to invite the anger of their superiors. This goes to the extent of employees being reluctant to question certain things at work that might be in the best interest of the organisation (ibid).

Zimbabwe has been undergoing a protracted period of economic challenges spanning more than two decades. Although the economic development of the country had been promising the first decade after independence, things began to change with the adoption of the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) policies in 1991. As a result, a number of companies closed resulting in high unemployment (Mavengere, 2015). Although hope had been restored with the adoption of the multi-currency system in 2009, the situation has continued to deteriorate over the years, exacerbated by a number of additional factors. This has seen the development of the country regressing with the standard of living of the majority continuing to plummet. This has resulted in employees desisting from any action that they may feel will negatively affect their job security such as challenging their managers and demanding accountability and transparency.

It can be inferred that as fear of followers to challenge their leaders and demand accountability and transparency decreases, effective leadership will increase. This is because the more developed a country is, the more job opportunities are available on the market. As such, employees will challenge their leaders, demand accountability

and transparency because they do not fear to lose their jobs. The study tested the hypothesis that there is a relationship between the stage of economic development of a country and effective leadership. A p-value of 0.046 was achieved and was less than 0.05 (Firmansyah and Maemunah, 2021). The t-statistic for the stage of economic development of the country on effective leadership was 3.174 and was above 1.96 (Nawanir et al., 2013). As such the hypothesis was accepted and it was concluded that the stage of economic development of the country has a significant influence on effective leadership.

6.7.5 Traditional leadership

A Spearman coefficient (ρ) of 0.192 showed that although traditional leadership was positively related to effective leadership, the relationship was weak (Saunders et al., 2016). The hypothesis that there is a relationship between traditional leadership and effective leadership was rejected. This was because a p-value of 0.126 was achieved and was greater than 0.05 (Firmansyah and Maemunah, 2021). The t-statistic for traditional leadership on effective leadership was 1.0945 and was less than 1.96 (Nawanir et al., 2013). As such it was concluded that traditional leadership has a minimal effect on effective leadership. As such the study did not validate the call by Nicolaides and Duho (2019) to take a journey back to the continent's roots and adopt neglected practices based on African traditions.

6.8 Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) model for Zimbabwean SMEs

The last two objectives of the study were to develop and validate an AEL model for Zimbabwean SMEs. This was done using Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). The Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values for the model ranged between 1 and 2.015. The values were all greater than 0.2 but lower than 5 (Hair et al., 2017). This showed that the model had no collinearity problems (Maware and Adetunji, 2019b). The coefficient of determination (R^2) values of the model for culture, ubuntu, history of the country, traditional leadership and stage of economic development of the country were 0.873, 0.804, 0.679, 0.402 and 0.875 respectively. The R^2 value for traditional leadership was the lowest at 0.402. The results indicated that the model explained the association between the factors more precisely. The higher the coefficient of determination, the better the model because a higher coefficient means a better prediction of the

dependent variable (Hair et al., 2014). Therefore, it means that the AEL model had a higher degree of predictive accuracy. As such culture, ubuntu, history of the country and stage of economic development of the country had good influence on effective leadership.

The effect size (f^2) values for the model ranged between 0.443 and 0.744. The results indicated that the effect size values were all above 0.35 indicating high effects (Maware and Adetunji, 2019b; Hair et al., 2017). The Stone-Geisser's (Q^2) values for the model were all above 0, ranging from 0.189 to 0.511. The lowest (Q^2) value for the model (0.189) was for traditional leadership. These results showed that the AEL model had relatively high predictive relevancy (Firmansyah and Maemunah, 2021). The Fornell-Larcker criterion values for the model showed that discriminant validity was achieved. This was because four variables namely culture, ubuntu, history of the country and stage of economic development of the country accounted for more variance in their associated indicator variables than they shared with other constructs in the same model (Henseler et al., 2015). This showed that the four variables explained better their own indicators' variance as compared to the other latent constructs' variances (Hamid et al., 2017). The HTMT values for the model were between 0.452 and 0.818. These values were all below the suggested threshold of 0.90 (Hamid et al., 2017) which showed that discriminant validity was achieved by the model. This demonstrated that measures of constructs that were found to be highly related were indeed supposed to be highly correlated.

Analysis of the findings showed that four factors namely ubuntu, culture, history of the country and stage of economic development of the country had positive influences on effective leadership given leader characteristics. Traditional leadership had a negative influence on effective leadership given leader characteristics. The contribution of ubuntu was highest at 21.5% and was followed by history of the country at 20.7%. It can be inferred from the analysis that effective leadership is dependent on culture, ubuntu, history of the country and stage of economic development of the country intermediated by leader characteristics.

Based on the fit indices obtained for the AEL model, the following can be concluded. The model had a relative chi-square (CMIN/DF) of 1.347 which was within the acceptable threshold of <3. This is good and acceptable for the model (Hooper et al.,

2008). A Root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA) value of 0.017 was obtained and is within the acceptable good fit threshold of <0.05 (Hair et al., 2014). The chi-square difference for the model was 0.129 and was above the acceptable threshold value of $p>0.05$ which symbolises a good fit for the model. The model satisfied all the fit indices that were tested for the final AEL model and as such the AEL model is considered acceptable and validated.

6.9 Chapter summary

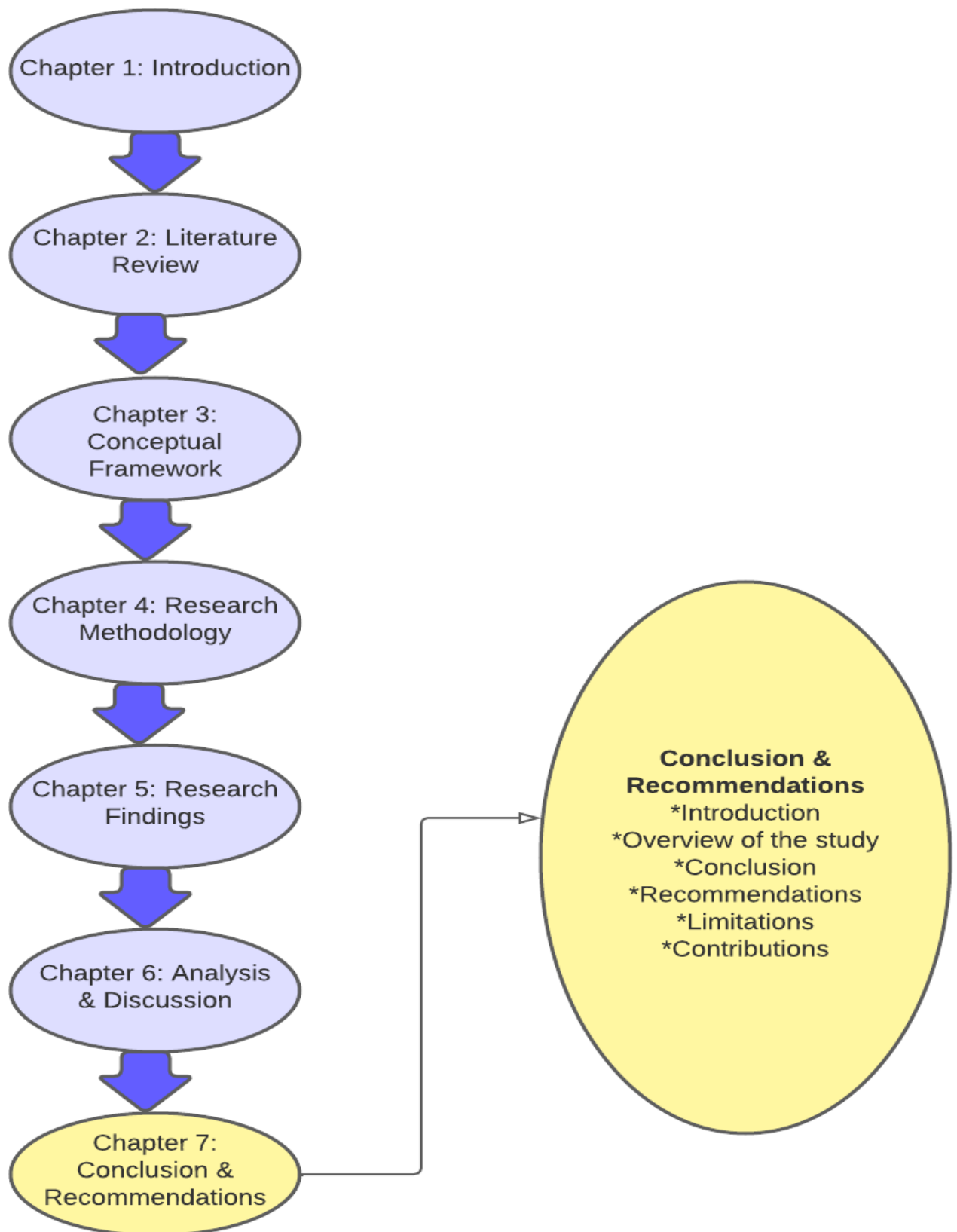
The current chapter analysed and discussed research findings guided by the seven objectives of the study. The analysis and discussion permitted the researcher to interpret research findings and align them with the extant literature. The following chapter will present the study conclusions, limitations and recommendations.

CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter presented the analysis and discussion of the research findings. The analysis and discussion were guided by the seven objectives which were highlighted in chapter one. The current chapter presents conclusions, recommendations, limitations and contributions as shown by the chapter overview flowchart in figure 7.1 below. Firstly, the chapter outlines an overview of the research. This will be followed by conclusions which are based on the empirical findings. An outline of recommendations for SMEs and for future research will be given. This will be followed by limitations. Lastly, the chapter will highlight the theoretical, empirical and practical contributions that the study has made.

Figure 7.1: Chapter seven overview flowchart



Source: Researcher's compilation

7.2 Overview of the study

The study sought to theorise an effective leadership model for SMEs in Zimbabwe with the aim of proposing an Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) model. It was guided by seven empirical objectives highlighted in chapter one. The first objective was to identify the predominant leadership styles used by SMEs in Zimbabwe while the second sought to assess the effectiveness of leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs. The third objective sought to evaluate the extent to which the Situational Leadership Theory (SLT) was relevant to SMEs in Zimbabwe while the fourth objective sought to develop an Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) instrument used to measure perceptions of effective leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs. The fifth objective sought to determine the relationship between independent variables (ubuntu, culture, history of the country, stage of economic development of the country, traditional leadership) and the dependent variable (effective leadership) while the sixth objective sought to develop an Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) model for SMEs in Zimbabwe. The last objective sought to validate an Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) model for SMEs in Zimbabwe.

In order to find answers to questions pertaining to relationships between independent variables and the dependent variable, the study tested five hypotheses. The first hypothesis sought to determine whether a relationship existed between ubuntu and effective leadership, and the nature of the relationship while the second one sought to determine whether a relationship existed between culture and effective leadership and also its nature. The purpose of the third hypothesis was to determine the existence and nature of the relationship between history of the country and effective leadership while the fourth one sought to ascertain the existence and nature of the relationship between the stage of economic development of the country and effective leadership. The last hypothesis sought to determine the relationship between traditional leadership and effective leadership and the nature of the relationship. The following section presents study conclusions in the context of empirical findings.

7.3 Conclusions

7.3.1 Objective 1: Predominant leadership styles used by SMEs in Zimbabwe

The first objective of the study was to identify the predominant leadership styles used by SMEs in Zimbabwe. The study concluded that the predominant leadership style

that was used by SMEs in Zimbabwe was the directional style although there were isolated cases of selective participation. This is evidenced by employees being told what, how, when and where to do tasks and being given clear and precise instructions on what to do. In addition, employees were not participating in decision making or key activities such as planning.

7.3.2 Objective 2: Effectiveness of leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs

The second objective of the study sought to assess the effectiveness of leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs. The study concluded that leadership was not effective in Zimbabwean SMEs. This is because employees were not excited to come to work and provide their all and were not motivated to take on additional responsibilities. The study also concluded that leadership was not effective in Zimbabwean SMEs because employees were not committed to the decisions of their superiors. Leadership was also not effective as evidenced by managers not assisting employees in career development and the goals of the organisations not being consistently met.

7.3.3 Objective 3: The extent to which the Situational Leadership Theory (SLT) is relevant to Zimbabwean SMEs

The third objective sought to assess the extent to which the SLT was relevant to Zimbabwean SMEs. The study concluded that SLT was not relevant to Zimbabwean SMEs because leaders were not taking into consideration the maturity level of employees when leading them as prescribed by the theory. This was evidenced by employees being told what, how, when and where to do tasks irrespective of their maturity level and leaders not decreasing control when subordinates proved that they were responsible.

7.3.4 Objective 4: Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) instrument used to measure perceptions of effective leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs

The fourth objective was to develop an AEL instrument to measure perceptions of effective leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs. The study concluded that the AEL instrument developed was valid and reliable. In order to meet this objective, a number of steps were taken to develop the instrument. The development was based on the conceptual framework and the extant literature. The instrument developed contained closed ended items (Aithal and Aithal, 2020) and was self-administered (Greenfield and Greener, 2016). It used a 5-point Likert scale and was distributed as hard copies

to respondents. After the instrument items had been developed, they were subjected to validation by a panel of experts and piloted to increase content validity (Creswell and Creswell, 2018).

The AEL instrument was validated using factor analysis. The 53 items instrument was tested for sample adequacy through KMO and BTS and it was satisfactory for factor analysis to proceed (Hair et al., 2014). After a total of five items had been eliminated for different reasons ranging from low factor loading (Hair et al., 2014) and having less than three items per factor, a total of ten new factors resulted. These factors were named leadership style, effectiveness of the situational leadership theory, leader characteristics, follower characteristics, culture, ubuntu, traditional leadership, history of the country, stage of economic development of the country and effective leadership. The internal consistency of the instrument was measured using Cronbach alpha coefficient and all the alpha values for the ten factors were above 0.7 (Gerber and Hall, 2017).

7.3.5 Objective 5: Relationship between independent variables and the dependent variable

The fifth objective of the study sought to determine the relationship between independent variables (ubuntu, culture, history of the country, stage of economic development of the country, traditional leadership) and the dependent variable (effective leadership) as spelt out in the hypotheses presented above.

7.3.5.1 First hypothesis: Ubuntu in relation to effective leadership

The study concluded that ubuntu has a significant effect on effective leadership because of the positive moderate relationship existing between the two variables. The study concluded that leadership was not effective because leaders did not care and respect the dignity of their employees. It was also not effective because employees were not allowed to freely express their opinions and divergent views were not tolerated. The study also concluded that leadership was not effective because organisational members were not standing together as a group and the interests of individuals took precedence over the interests of the group. In summary, the study concluded that leadership was not effective because leaders were not leading their employees in line with the philosophy of ubuntu.

7.3.5.2 Second hypothesis: Culture in relation to effective leadership

The study concluded that culture has a significant influence on effective leadership because of the positive moderate relationship existing between the two variables. The study concluded that leadership was not effective because leaders were not valuing group solidarity and also good personal and social relations. Leadership was also not effective because leaders did not believe in compromise and consensus. In summary, the study concluded that leadership was not effective because leaders did not value the role played by culture in stimulating effective leadership.

7.3.5.3 Third hypothesis: History of the country in relation to effective leadership

The study concluded that history of the country has a significant effect on effective leadership because of a negative moderate relationship existing between the two variables. The study concluded that leadership was not effective because leaders were domineering and discriminated against employees. It was also ineffective because leaders made employees to feel inferior. Zimbabwe like many African countries was colonised. During that period, colonialists used to dominate and discriminate against indigenous people. They also did many things that made Africans to feel inferior with long lasting effects. Since these behaviours were profoundly entrenched, they were assumed and continued by African leaders after the end of colonisation and passed to succeeding generations of leaders. As such, contemporary leaders in Africa have continued to imitate the way colonialists led resulting in ineffective leadership.

7.3.5.4 Fourth hypothesis: Stage of economic development of the country in relation to effective leadership

The study concluded that stage of economic development of the country has a significant influence on effective leadership because of the negative moderate relationship existing between the two variables. The study concluded that leadership was ineffective because employees were afraid to challenge their leaders. It was also ineffective because employees were afraid to demand transparency and accountability from their leaders. As a result of the economic challenges the country has undergone, employees are afraid of taking any action that may put their job security in jeopardy. This is because they will be afraid that if they lose their current

jobs, it will be difficult for them to find alternative jobs. The less developed a country is, the fewer job opportunities will be available on the market. As such, in order to preserve the current jobs, they have, employees will not challenge their leaders even in instances where they have to for the good of the organisation.

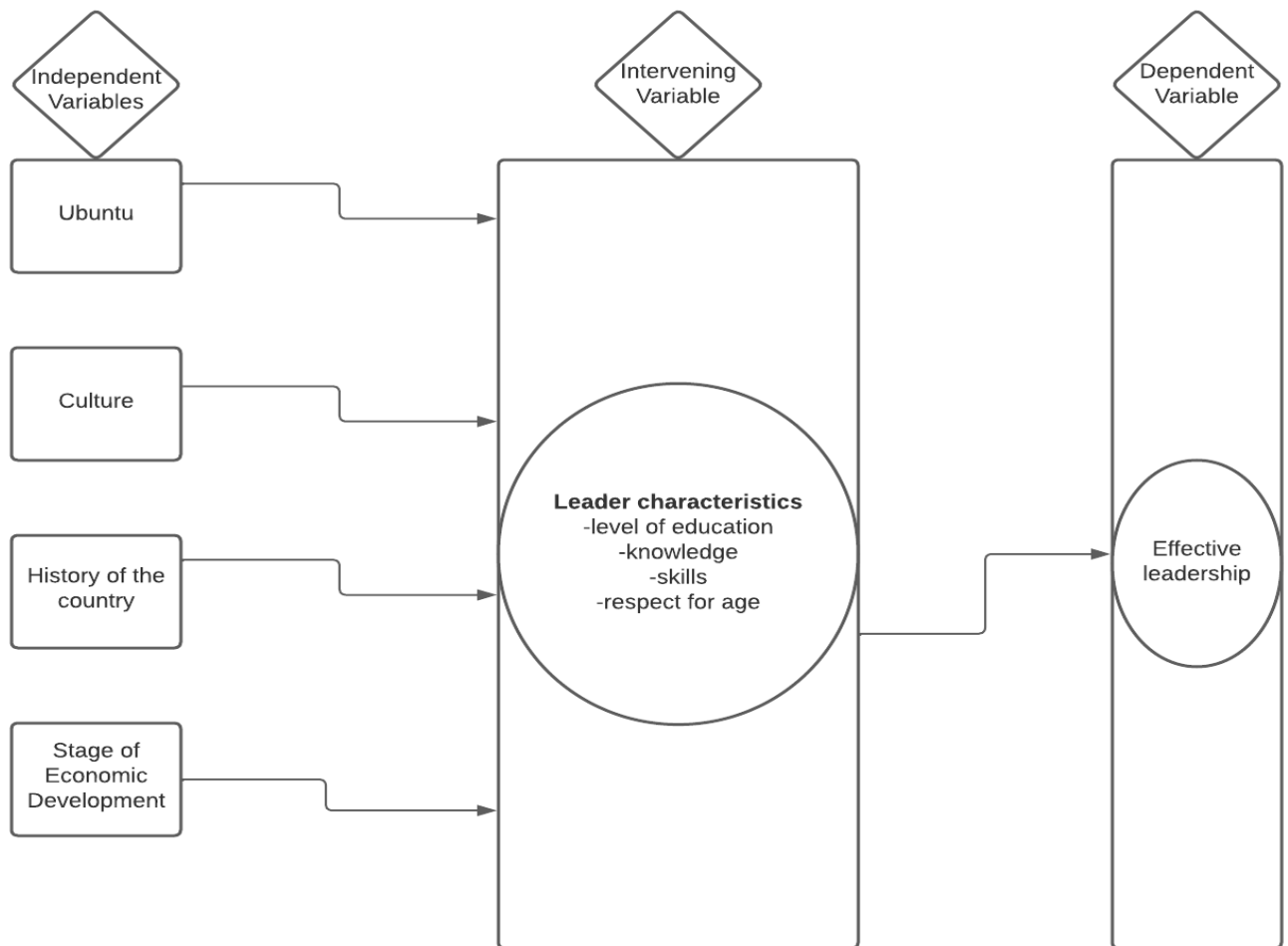
7.3.5.5 Fifth hypothesis: Traditional leadership in relation to effective leadership

The study concluded that traditional leadership has a minimal effect on effective leadership because the relationship between traditional leadership and effective leadership was weak, although it was positive.

7.3.6 Objectives 6 and 7: Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) model for Zimbabwean SMEs

The last two objectives of the study were to develop and validate an AEL model for SMEs in Zimbabwe. Structural equation modelling was used to develop and validate the model. The following conclusions were made in relation to the AEL model. A relative chi-square (CMIN/DF) of 1.347 was achieved and was good and acceptable for the model (Hooper et al., 2008). A root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA) of 0.017 was attained and was within the satisfactory good fit threshold of <0.05 (Hair et al., 2014). The chi-square difference of 0.129 was obtained and was greater than the tolerable threshold of $p>0.05$. The study concluded that the AEL model shown in figure 7.2 below is acceptable and validated because it satisfied all the fit indices that were tested.

Figure 7.2: AEL Model



Source: Researcher's compilation

The study concluded that effective leadership is dependent on ubuntu, culture, history of the country and stage of economic development of the country, intermediated by leader characteristics. Effective leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs requires that leaders lead in line with the philosophy of ubuntu. This requires that leaders should care for their employees and respect their dignity. They should allow employees to freely express their opinions without any fear of negative retribution and when the opinions are expressed, leaders should embrace the divergent views that emerge. Organisational members should stand together as a group with the interests of the group taking precedence over the interests of individuals. Above all, leaders should always exhibit the value of humaneness.

In order to engender effective leadership, leaders should value group solidarity together with good social and personal relations. Leaders should also believe in

consensus and compromise. Effective leadership requires that leaders become less dominant and avoid unnecessarily discriminating employees for reasons other than their performance. Leaders should also desist from doing things that make employees feel inferior. Effective leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs requires that employees should gain courage to challenge their leaders where necessary, demanding transparency and accountability from them. Leaders should in turn understand that it is not a crime for employees to challenge them, demand transparency and accountability. As such, leaders should desist from instilling fear in employees or engaging in retributive behaviour.

However, in order for all this to materialise effectively, leaders should continuously improve their level of education and engage in programmes and strategies that are aimed at improving their knowledge and skills. They should always respect employees who are older than them irrespective of their positions.

7.4 Recommendations

Based on the study findings and conclusions, the following section presents recommendations for SMEs and for future research.

7.4.1 Recommendations for SMEs

In order to achieve effective leadership, SME leaders should respect the dignity of their employees. They should genuinely care for their employees so that employees are excited to come to work and provide their all. When leaders care for their employees, the two will walk together resulting in each becoming the best version of themselves.

For effective leadership to be realised in SMEs, the interests of the group must take precedence over the interests of individuals. When the needs of the group are met, it will automatically result in the needs and desires of individuals within the organisation being met. In addition, SME leaders must espouse the value of group solidarity.

Employees should be allowed to freely express their opinions without any fear of retribution. When employees freely express their opinions, leaders should be prepared to tolerate the divergent views that result.

Decisions in Zimbabwean SMEs should be characterised by discussions and negotiations resulting in consensus. This will improve the quality of the decisions and increase morale among employees.

In order to engender effective leadership, leaders in SMEs must establish and maintain good personal and social relationships with their employees. Having good personal and social relationships between leaders and followers will cultivate a harmonious environment resulting in the parties having mutual confidence and trust in each other.

Leaders in SMEs should decrease their domineering behaviour. Reducing dominance will cultivate trust between leaders and followers and ensure that employees willingly follow their leaders.

They should also avoid unnecessarily discriminating against employees and making them to feel inferior. Although employees may be discriminated on the basis of performance, desisting from unnecessary discrimination will cultivate a harmonious working environment where employees cooperate with both their leaders and colleagues. In order to engender effective leadership, leaders should instil confidence in employees and make them feel valued.

Employees should develop confidence to challenge their leaders whenever they feel that leaders are not leading in the best interests of their employees and the organisation. They should also be prepared to demand accountability and transparency from their leaders. Leaders on the other end should desist from instilling fear in their subordinates or doing things that make employees timid. Timid employees are not in the best interest of the organisation because they will be afraid to challenge leaders and demand transparency and accountability.

Leaders should take a keen interest in the careers of their employees and implement measures that are aimed at assisting employees to advance their careers. They should understand that one of the responsibilities of effective leaders is to assist employees in career development.

Leaders of SMEs are encouraged to continuously improve their level of education. This is one way they can gain the vital knowledge that they need to improve in leading employees effectively. They should also embrace different programmes that are aimed

at increasing their knowledge such as adopting a culture of reading, attending seminars and workshops and interacting with other leaders.

Although leaders are generally encouraged to respect all their employees, they should pay particular attention to the way they interact with employees who are older than them. The way they give instructions and reprimand older employees should exhibit respect because this is what the African culture demands.

7.4.2 Recommendations for future research

The current study was conducted in Bulawayo's Central Business Area (CBA). Future research may be conducted encompassing other geographical areas in Bulawayo and other cities in Zimbabwe. It may also be prudent to extend the research to other African settings.

The study was quantitative in nature. Future researchers may do a qualitative study or a mixed methods study so that findings are compared to establish whether the model can be validated from either a qualitative or a mixed methods approach.

Since the study focused on SMEs, future researchers may try to extend the AEL instrument to other sectors outside SMEs and also assess the applicability and validity of the AEL model outside SMEs.

7.5 Limitations

The following section presents study limitations.

7.5.1 Lack of contemporary research in SMEs

There were no recent studies which were national in outlook that had been conducted to ascertain the true nature of SMEs in Zimbabwe. The availability of contemporary studies about the number of SMEs registered in each Province, the sectors in which they operate and the number of people employed could have enhanced the research. However, at the time of concluding the study, ZimStats, a government agency with the authority to confirm and designate statistics in the country as official was conducting a national study to ascertain the true nature of SMEs in Zimbabwe.

7.5.2 Empirical study limitations

The study focused on Bulawayo's Central Business Area (CBA). This could have limited the representativeness of SMEs in Zimbabwe. In future, it may be prudent to include other geographical areas so that the findings are more representative of a wider population.

7.6 Contributions

The study sought to theorise an effective leadership model for SMEs in Zimbabwe. The information that was collected for the study led to contributions at three levels. The following sections present the theoretical, empirical and practical contributions of the study.

7.6.1 Theoretical contributions

The study proposed a theoretical framework that may be used to theorise effective leadership in SMEs. This framework was a result of the knowledge that was gained from the extant literature. The literature gave insight into the independent variables (ubuntu, culture, history of the country, stage of economic development of the country) and the intervening variable (leader characteristics) that are essential for effective leadership in SMEs.

The study contributed to the broadening of the scope of ubuntu philosophy outside South Africa. Brubaker (2013) had observed that most studies about ubuntu were conceptual, qualitative and confined to South Africa thereby narrowing its literature scope. The current study was quantitative and focused on SMEs in Zimbabwe. Although the current study was not entirely about ubuntu, the philosophy was an integral part of the study as ubuntu was found to be one of the independent variables that have a significant effect on effective leadership.

7.6.2 Empirical contributions

The research made an invaluable contribution by developing a valid and reliable research instrument for measuring perceptions of effective leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs. The AEL instrument was developed in line with the effective instrument design principles (Aithal and Aithal, 2020; Arora et al., 2017; Jain et al., 2016) and validated using factor analysis (Gerber and Hall, 2017; Hair et al., 2014; Gie and Pearce, 2012).

The instrument may be used to measure perceptions of the existence of effective leadership in SMEs.

The research made another vital contribution by developing and validating an AEL model for Zimbabwean SMEs. The AEL model showed that Afrocentric effective leadership depends on ubuntu, culture, history of the country and stage of economic development of the country, intermediated by leader characteristics. This model will assist in understanding how effective leadership should be structured in an Afrocentric setting.

7.6.3 Practical contributions

The study developed a valid and reliable AEL instrument to measure perceptions of effective leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs. In addition to the instrument being used in Zimbabwean SMEs, it may also be extended to SMEs domiciled in other African countries.

The study developed and validated an AEL model for Zimbabwean SMEs. The model may be used by leaders in the different SMEs to structure their leadership so that they lead in an effective manner. The model may also be extended to other SME leaders in other African environments outside Zimbabwe so that they also improve their leadership effectiveness.

The AEL model may also be used by different stakeholders such as policy makers, analysts and employees of SMEs to ascertain whether SMEs are being effectively led. Universities, scholars and other development partners may use both the AEL instrument and model to educate students, budding and seasoned entrepreneurs on how SMEs should be effectively led in order to achieve sustainable success.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Participant Information Sheet

Appendix A1: Participant Information Sheet (Expert Panel & Pilot Study Participants)

Title: Towards theorising an effective leadership model for SMEs in Zimbabwe

Dear Prospective Participant

My name is Paul Nemashakwe and I am doing research under the supervision of Dr A. Z. Zinyemba and Dr S. M. Gumbe, towards a Doctor of Philosophy in Business Management and Leadership at the Catholic University of Zimbabwe. I am inviting you to participate in a study titled “Towards theorising an effective leadership model for SMEs in Zimbabwe”.

NATURE OF THE RESEARCH

The research is about theorising an effective leadership model for SMEs in Zimbabwe with the aim of proposing an Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) model. The study is undertaken in accordance with the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Business Management and Leadership at the Catholic University of Zimbabwe. Three groups of participants will take part in the research. The first group comprises a panel of 4 experts who will participate in checking and validating the questionnaire before it is used. The second group constitutes 30 participants comprising of non-managers, supervisors, managers and owner-managers who will participate in the pilot study. The last group comprises of research participants comprising of non-managers, supervisors, managers and owner-managers from Bulawayo's Central Business Area (CBA) who will participate in the survey.

REASON FOR PARTICIPATING

Two groups will participate in the evaluation of the questionnaire while the third group will participate in the actual survey. The first group is an expert panel and the second group will take part in the pilot survey. The panel of experts will comprise of 4 people,

chosen on the basis of their expertise in the field of leadership and management of SMEs. 30 people comprising of non-managers, supervisors, managers and owner-managers will take part in the pilot study. These members will be chosen from Bulawayo's CBA on the basis of their involvement in SMEs.

NATURE OF PARTICIPATION

The study involves a survey whereby the participant must complete a questionnaire. The expected review time for the expert panel is 2-3 weeks. During this time the expert panel will be given an opportunity to review the questionnaire and give input. The expected timeframe for the pilot group to complete the questionnaire is 1 week. In both incidences, participation in this survey will not take up more than 20 minutes of the participant's time.

IMPLICATION OF PARTICIPATION

Participating in this study is voluntary and you are under no obligation to consent to participate. If you do decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a written consent form. You have a right to decline to answer a question or set of questions and you are free to withdraw from the study at any time and without giving a reason. The survey is developed to be anonymous, meaning that we will have no way of connecting the information that you provide to you personally.

BENEFITS OF PARTICIPATING

You will not benefit from your participation as an individual. However, it is envisioned that the findings of this study will improve the way SMEs are led so that they achieve sustainable success and result in stakeholder satisfaction. It is anticipated that the information we gain from this survey will help us to develop a leadership model that will be used by leaders to structure their leadership so that they lead in an effective way. The instrument and model from this study may also be used to teach students and entrepreneurs, both budding and seasoned, on how SMEs could be effectively led to achieve sustainable success.

NEGATIVE CONSEQUENCES OF PARTICIPATING

We do not foresee that you will experience any negative consequences by completing the survey. The survey is anonymous and no personal identifiable information will be collected.

CONFIDENTIALITY AND ANNONYMITY

Your name will not be recorded anywhere and no one will be able to connect you to the answers /input you give. Your answers will be assigned a code number and you will be referred using that code number in the data, any publications, or other research reporting methods such as conference proceedings.

By completing this survey, the anonymous information you provide may be used for research purposes, including dissemination through peer-reviewed publications and conference proceedings. Articles of the study may be submitted for publication, but individual participants will not be identifiable.

DATA PROTECTION

Hard copies of the questionnaires will be stored by the researcher for a minimum period of five years in a locked cupboard/filing cabinet; electronic information will be stored on a password protected computer. Future use of the stored data will be subject to necessary approval. Hard copies will be shredded and data will be permanently deleted from the survey database files and hard drive of the computer through the use of a relevant software application.

INCENTIVES FOR PARTICIPATING

You will not benefit from your participation as an individual. However, it is envisioned that the findings of this study will improve the way SMEs are led. You will not be reimbursed or receive any incentives for your participation in the survey.

INFORMATION ABOUT FINDINGS/RESULTS

If you would like to be informed of the final research findings, please contact Paul Nemashakwe on +263 785 467 726 or email: paulnemashakwe@cuza.ac.zw. The findings are accessible for a period of 5 years. Should you require any further information or want to contact the researcher about any aspect of this study, please contact Paul Nemashakwe on +263 785 467 726 or email: paulnemashakwe@cuza.ac.zw.

Should you have concerns about the way in which the research has been conducted, you may contact Dr A. Zinyemba on +263 772 323 849 or alicezzinyemba@gmail.com. and Dr S. M. Gumbe on +263 773 411 639 or smgumbe@gmail.com.

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet and for participating in this study.



Mr. Paul Nemashakwe

Appendix A2: Participant Information Sheet (Research Participants)

Title: Towards theorising an effective leadership model for SMEs in Zimbabwe

Dear Prospective Participant

My name is Paul Nemashakwe and I am doing research under the supervision of Dr A. Z. Zinyemba and Dr S. M. Gumbe, towards a Doctor of Philosophy Degree in Business Management and Leadership at the Catholic University of Zimbabwe. I am inviting you to participate in a study titled “Towards theorising an effective leadership model for SMEs in Zimbabwe”.

NATURE OF THE RESEARCH

The research is about theorising an effective leadership model for SMEs in Zimbabwe with the aim of proposing an Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) model. The study is undertaken in accordance with the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Business Management and Leadership at the Catholic University of Zimbabwe. Participants in the survey include non-managers, supervisors, managers and owner-managers of SMEs operating in Bulawayo’s Central Business Area (CBA).

NATURE OF PARTICIPATION

The study involves a survey whereby the participant must complete a questionnaire. The expected completion time for participants is 4 weeks and the survey is expected not to take up more than 20 minutes of the participant's time.

IMPLICATION OF PARTICIPATION

Participating in this study is voluntary and you are under no obligation to consent to participate. If you do decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a written consent form. You have a right to decline to answer a question or set of questions and you are free to withdraw from the study at any time and without giving a reason. The survey is developed to be anonymous, meaning that we will have no way of connecting the information that you provide to you personally.

BENEFITS OF PARTICIPATING

You will not benefit from your participation as an individual. However, it is envisioned that the findings of this study will improve the way SMEs are led so that they achieve sustainable success and result in stakeholder satisfaction. It is anticipated that the information we gain from this survey will help us to develop a leadership model that will be used by leaders to structure their leadership so that they lead in an effective way. The instrument and model from this study may also be used to teach students and entrepreneurs, both budding and seasoned, on how SMEs could be effectively led to achieve sustainable success.

NEGATIVE CONSEQUENCES OF PARTICIPATING

We do not foresee that you will experience any negative consequences by completing the survey. The survey is anonymous and no personal identifiable information will be collected.

CONFIDENTIALITY AND ANNONYMITY

Your name will not be recorded anywhere and no one will be able to connect you to the answers /input you give. Your answers will be assigned a code number and you will be referred using that code number in the data, any publications, or other research reporting methods such as conference proceedings.

By completing this survey, the anonymous information you provide may be used for research purposes, including dissemination through peer-reviewed publications and conference proceedings. Articles of the study may be submitted for publication, but individual participants will not be identifiable.

DATA PROTECTION

Hard copies of the questionnaires will be stored by the researcher for a minimum period of five years in a locked cupboard/filing cabinet; electronic information will be stored on a password protected computer. Future use of the stored data will be subject to necessary approval. Hard copies will be shredded and data will be permanently deleted from the survey database files and hard drive of the computer through the use of a relevant software application.

INCENTIVES FOR PARTICIPATING

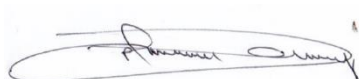
You will not benefit from your participation as an individual. However, it is envisioned that the findings of this study will improve the way SMEs are led. You will not be reimbursed or receive any incentives for your participation in the survey.

INFORMATION ABOUT FINDINGS/RESULTS

If you would like to be informed of the final research findings, please contact Paul Nemashakwe on +263 785 467 726 or email: paulnemashakwe@cuza.ac.zw. The findings are accessible for a period of 5 years. Should you require any further information or want to contact the researcher about any aspect of this study, please contact Paul Nemashakwe on +263 785 467 726 or email: paulnemashakwe@cuza.ac.zw.

Should you have concerns about the way in which the research has been conducted, you may contact Dr A. Zinyemba on +263 772 323 849 or alicezzinyemba@gmail.com and Dr S. M. Gumbe on +263 773 411 639 or smgumbe@gmail.com.

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet and for participating in this study.



Mr. Paul Nemashakwe

Appendix B: Consent Form

Appendix B1: Consent Form for Expert Panel & Pilot Study Members

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE STUDY EXPERT PANEL & PILOT STUDY MEMBERS

TITLE OF RESEARCH

Towards theorising an effective leadership model for SMEs in Zimbabwe.

I..... (Participant's name) confirm that I have read and understood the participant information sheet for the study and have had the opportunity to ask questions. I also confirm that the researcher has explained to me about the nature, procedure, potential benefits and anticipated inconvenience of participation.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without penalty.

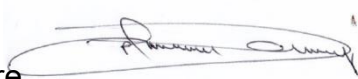
I am aware that the findings of this study will be processed into a research report, journal publications and/or conference proceedings, but that my participation will be kept confidential unless otherwise specified.

I agree to the recording of my feedback for the review of the questionnaire.

Participant Name & Surname..... (please print)

Participant Signature..... Date.....

Researcher's Name & Surname: **PAUL NEMASHAKWE**

Researcher's signature..... Date: **03-09-2021**

Appendix B2: Consent Form for Research Participants

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE STUDY RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

TITLE OF RESEARCH

Towards theorising an effective leadership model for SMEs in Zimbabwe.

I..... (Participant's name) confirm that I have read and understood the participant information sheet for the study and have had the opportunity to ask questions. I also confirm that the researcher has explained to me about the nature, procedure, potential benefits and anticipated inconvenience of participation.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without penalty. I also understand that my participation will be kept confidential.

I agree to take part in the study.

Participant Name & Surname..... (please print)

Participant Signature..... Date.....

Researcher's Name & Surname: **PAUL NEMASHAKWE**

Researcher's signature..... Date: **30-10-2021**

Appendix C: Questionnaire

Appendix C1: Expert Panel Questionnaire

Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) Questionnaire

Please make sure that you have read the participant information sheet and signed the consent form prior to completing the questionnaire.

Information section

It is fully acknowledged that you receive many requests to participate in surveys as a professional in your field. Therefore, your participation in this survey is sincerely appreciated.

The questionnaire consists of two sections, namely section one where information about the expert panel is requested and section two with the instrument items. We require the expert panel to indicate for each question whether they believe the item is essential to include or not and whether it is clear or not.

On the next page please find the questionnaire.

Section 1: Expert panel information

We require some background information about the experts involved in reviewing the questionnaire and would appreciate if you can please complete the questions below.

- i. What is your field of expertise?
- ii. What is your current job title?
- iii. How long have you been in your field of expertise?
- iv. What is your highest qualification?

The research being conducted is titled “*Towards theorising an effective leadership model for SMEs in Zimbabwe.*”

Instructions

Please provide your review responses, starting on the next page.

Section 2A: A comment box is provided in section 2A for general comments about the demographic data section which the expert panel would like the researcher to consider or amend in order to improve the questionnaire.

Section 2B: Section 2B comprises of 55 statements. Indicate with a tick (✓) as to whether you believe the statement is essential to include or not and whether it is clear or not.

A comment box is provided at the end of section 2B for general comments about the statements which the expert panel would like the researcher to consider or amend in order to improve the questionnaire.

Section 2: AEL Instrument items

Instructions

Place a tick in the appropriate box

SECTION 2A: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA							
Position in the organisation	Non-managerial		Supervisor		Manager		Owner-manager
Gender	Male				Female		
Age	18-25 years		26-34 years		35-44 years		45 years and above
Marital status	Single		Married		Separated/Divorced		Widowed
Level of education	Below Ordinary level	Ordinary level	Advanced level	Certificate level	Diploma level	Degree level	Post Graduate level
Tenure with the organisation	5 years and below		6 – 10 years		11 – 20 years		21 years and above

Expert panel feedback for Demographic section

SECTION 2B: QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS									
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Not essential	Essential	Item is unclear	Item is clear
Leadership Style									
1. Employees participate in decision making.									
2. The leader makes all the decisions.									
3. Employees receive clear and precise instructions from their superiors									
4. Leaders in this organisation are approachable.									
5. Leaders in this organisation show concern for employees.									
6. Employees are given authority to carry out specific tasks.									
7. Our leader motivates and inspires us.									

8. Our leader pays special attention to our individual needs.									
9. Employees are rewarded when they do what is expected of them.									
10. Leadership style used in our organisation affects its viability.									
Effectiveness of the Situational Leadership Theory (SLT)									
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Not essential	Essential	Item is unclear	Item is clear
11. Our leader tells us what, how, when and where to do tasks.									
12. Our leader is patient and helpful when giving instructions.									
13. Our leader decreases control when we show that we are responsible.									
Leader Characteristics									

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Not essential	Essential	Item is unclear	Item is clear
14.The level of education contributes to the way leaders discharge their responsibilities.									
15.Knowledgeable leaders effectively lead their followers.									
16.Skilled leaders effectively lead their followers.									
17.Leaders seek advice from employees when making decisions.									
18.Our leader works with us in an inclusive manner.									
19.In our organisation, leaders listen to their employees.									
20.Leaders are responsive to the needs of employees.									
21. Our leader shows respect to followers who are older than him/her.									

Follower Characteristics									
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Not essential	Essential	Item is unclear	Item is clear
22. Employees in this organisation treat each other as family.									
23. Employees in this organisation treat the young who are in positions of leadership with respect.									
24. Employees with the requisite knowledge and skills contribute meaningfully to the organisation.									
25. Leadership in this organisation is shared with educated employees.									
26. Employees in our organisation care for each other.									
27. Employees in our organisation respect each other.									

28. Employees in our organisation feel for another.									
Culture									
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Not essential	Essential	Item is unclear	Item is clear
29. Our leaders value group solidarity.									
30. Our leaders value good social and personal relations.									
31. Our leaders believe in compromise.									
32. Our leaders believe in consensus.									
Ubuntu									
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Not essential	Essential	Item is unclear	Item is clear
33. Our leaders exhibit the value of humaneness.									

34. Our leaders respect the dignity of their employees.									
35. In this organisation, we cooperate with each other.									
36. In our organisation we stand together as a group									
37. Leaders in our organisation tolerate divergent views.									
38. Our leaders care for us.									
39. In this organisation, we work together in harmony.									
40. We are free to express our opinions.									
41. In our organisation the interests of the group take precedence over the interests of individuals.									
History of the country									
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Not essential	Essential	Item is unclear	Item is clear
42. Our leaders are domineering.									

43.Our leaders discriminate against us.									
44.Our leaders make us feel inferior.									
45.Our leaders consult us when making decisions.									
46.Leaders make decisions based on the agreement and consent of all.									
47.Employees participate in key activities such as planning.									
48.Decision making is distributed.									
Stage of economic development of the country									
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Not essential	Essential	Item is unclear	Item is clear
49.Employees are afraid to challenge their leaders.									
50.Employees are afraid to demand accountability from their leaders.									

Effective leadership									
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Not essential	Essential	Item is unclear	Item is clear
51. Employees are motivated to take on additional responsibilities.									
52. Employees are committed to the decisions made by their superiors.									
53. Employees are excited to come to work and provide their all.									
54. Managers assist employees in career development.									
55. The goals of the organisation are consistently met.									

Expert panel feedback (e.g., items to be amended, revised, or added etc.)

End of Questionnaire (Thank you)

Appendix C2: Questionnaire Distributed

QUESTIONNAIRE

Number---

Dear Research Participant

I am a student working towards a Doctor of Philosophy degree in Business Management and Leadership with the Catholic University of Zimbabwe. I am therefore conducting research titled "*Towards theorising an effective leadership model for SMEs in Zimbabwe*". I cordially invite you to participate in the research by completing this questionnaire.

The decision to take part in the survey is voluntary. You have the right not to answer any question and to withdraw from the research at any point without penalty. Your identity as a participant will not be revealed under any circumstances and high levels of confidentiality will be maintained. All the information collected will be kept confidential and will be strictly used for academic purposes and for this research only.

When completing the questionnaire please answer the questions in the space provided and also do not include your name or address anywhere on the questionnaire.

If you have any questions or would like additional information, please do not hesitate to contact me on +263 785 467 726 or email me at paulnemashakwe@cuz.ac.zw or you may get in touch with any of my academic supervisors.

Dr A Z Zinyemba: alicezzinyemba@gmail.com (+263 772 323 849)

Dr S M Gumbe: smgumbe@gmail.com (+263 773 411 639)

Thank you for your assistance.



Paul Nemashakwe (Mr)

Researcher

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Place a tick in the appropriate box

1. Position in the organisation

Non-managerial	
Supervisor	
Manager	
Owner-Manager	

2. Gender

Male	
Female	

3. Age

18 – 25 years	
26 – 34 years	
35 – 44 years	
45 years & above	

4. Level of education

Below Ordinary level	
Ordinary level	
Advanced level	
Certificate level	
Diploma level	
Degree level	
Post Graduate level	

5. Tenure with the organisation

5 years & below	
6 – 10 years	
11 – 20 years	
21 years & above	

SECTION B

Use the scale provided to rate the extent to which you agree with each of the given statements.

Rating scale:

Strongly Disagree (1), Disagree (2), Neutral (3), Agree (4), Strongly Agree (5).

Dimension	1	2	3	4	5
A. Leadership style					
1. Employees participate in decision making.					
2. Employees receive clear and precise instructions from their superiors.					
3. Leaders in this organisation are approachable.					
4. Leaders in this organisation show concern for employees.					
5. Employees are given authority to carry out specific tasks.					
6. Our leader motivates and inspires us.					
7. Our leader pays special attention to our individual needs.					
8. Employees are rewarded when they do what is expected of them.					
B Effectiveness of the Situational Leadership Theory (SLT)					
9. Our leader gives us freedom to decide what, how, when and where to do tasks.					
10. Our leader is patient when giving instructions					
11. Our leader decreases control when we show that we are responsible.					
C Leader Characteristics					
12. The level of education contributes to the way leaders discharge their responsibilities.					
13. Knowledgeable leaders effectively lead their followers.					
14. Skilled leaders effectively lead their followers.					
15. Leaders seek advice from employees when making decisions.					
16. Our leader works with us in an inclusive manner.					
17. In our organisation, leaders listen to their employees.					
18. Leaders are responsive to the needs of employees.					
19. Our leader shows respect to followers who are older than him/her.					
D Follower Characteristics					
20. Employees in this organisation treat each other as family.					
21. Employees in this organisation treat the young who are in positions of leadership with respect.					

22. Employees with the requisite knowledge and skills contribute meaningfully to the organisation.					
23. Leadership in this organisation is shared with educated employees.					
24. Employees in our organisation care for each other.					
25. Employees in our organisation respect each other.					
26. Employees in our organisation feel for another.					
E Culture					
27. Our leaders value group solidarity.					
28. Our leaders value good social and personal relations.					
29. Our leaders believe in compromise.					
30. Our leaders believe in consensus.					
F Ubuntu					
31. Our leaders exhibit the value of humaneness.					
32. Our leaders respect the dignity of their employees.					
33. In this organisation, we cooperate with each other.					
34. In our organisation we stand together as a group					
35. Leaders in our organisation tolerate divergent views.					
36. Our leaders care for us.					
37. In this organisation, we work together in harmony.					
38. We are free to express our opinions.					
39. In our organisation the interests of the group take precedence over the interests of individuals.					
G History of the country					
40. Our leaders are domineering.					
41. Our leaders discriminate against us.					
42. Our leaders make us feel inferior.					
43. Leaders make decisions based on the agreement and consent of all.					
44. Employees participate in key activities such as planning.					
45. Decision making is distributed.					
H Stage of economic development of the country					
46. Employees are afraid to challenge their leaders.					
47. Employees are afraid to demand accountability from their leaders.					
48. Employees are afraid to demand transparency from their leaders.					
I Effective leadership					
49. Employees are motivated to take on additional responsibilities.					
50. Employees are committed to the decisions made by their superiors.					
51. Employees are excited to come to work and provide their all.					
52. Managers assist employees in career development.					
53. The goals of the organisation are consistently met.					

End of Questionnaire: Thank you

Appendix D: Leadership style

Appendix D1: Leader motivating and inspiring employees in relation to organisational position.

D1: Leader motivating and inspiring employees in relation to organisational position

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Non-managerial	22.0	72.0	2.0	2.7	1.3
Supervisor	20.6	76.2	1.6		1.6
Manager			16.7	83.3	
Owner-manager			18.8	75.0	6.3

Source: Fieldwork; (*chi-square* = 138.177, *df* = 12, *p*<0.01)

Appendix D2: Leaders showing concern for employees in relation to organisational position.

Table D2: Leaders showing concern for employees in relation to organisational position

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Non-managerial	8.7	85.3	2.7	2.0	1.3
Supervisor		84.1	9.5	4.8	1.6
Manager			33.3	66.7	
Owner-manager			12.5	81.3	6.3

Source: Fieldwork; (*chi-square* = 135.782, *df* = 12, *p*<0.01)

Appendix D3: Leaders being approachable in relation to organisational position

Table D3: Leaders being approachable in relation to organisational position

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Non-managerial	3.3	88.7	3.3	2.7	2.0
Supervisor		79.4	11.1	6.3	3.2
Manager			25.0	75.0	

Owner-manager			12.5	75.0	12.5
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Source: Fieldwork; (*chi-square* = 122.781, *df* = 12, *p*<0.01)

Appendix D4: Employees being rewarded when they do what is expected in relation to organisational position.

Table D4: Employees being rewarded when they do what is expected in relation to organisational position

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Non-managerial	74.0	21.3	1.3	2.0	1.3
Supervisor	65.1	27.0	4.8	1.6	1.6
Manager			83.3	16.7	
Owner-manager			62.5	37.5	

Source: Fieldwork; (*chi-square* = 137,525 *df* = 12, *p*<0.01)

Appendix D5: Employees being given authority to carry out specific tasks in relation to organisational position.

Table D5: Employees being given authority to carry out specific tasks in relation to organisational position

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Non-managerial	4.0	86.0	4.0	5.3	0.7
Supervisor	1.6	82.5	9.5	6.3	
Manager			83.3	16.7	
Owner-manager			68.8	25.0	6.3

Source: Fieldwork; (*chi-square* = 109,686 *df* = 12, *p*<0.01)

Appendix D6: Leadership is shared with educated employees in relation to organisational position.

Table D6: Leadership is shared with educated employees in relation to organisational position

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Non-managerial		78.7	12.0	8.7	0.7
Supervisor		71.4	14.3	12.7	1.6
Manager		25.0	8.3	66.7	
Owner-manager		6.3	12.5	81.3	

Source: Fieldwork; (*chi-square* = 61,236 *df* = 9, *p*<0.01)

Appendix D7: Leadership is shared with educated employees in relation to level of education.

Table D7: Leadership is shared with educated employees in relation to level of education

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Below Ordinary level		75.0		25.0	
Ordinary level		76.9	7.7	15.4	
Advanced level		80.0		20.0	
Certificate level		56.3	18.8	25.0	
Diploma level		76.7	15.1	8.2	
Degree level		69.4	12.0	18.5	
Post graduate level		38.9	11.1	38.9	11.1

Source: Fieldwork; (*chi-square* = 27,562 *df* = 18, *p*>0.05)

Appendix D8: Position in the organisation in relation to level of education.

Table D8: Position in the organisation in relation to level of education

Dimension	Below Ordinary Level %	Ordinary Level %	Advanced Level %	Certificate Level %	Diploma Level %	Degree Level %	Post Graduate Level %
Non-managerial	87.5	76.9	80.0	81.3	68.5	58.3	16.7
Supervisor		15.4	20.0	12.5	27.4	29.6	33.3
Manager		7.7			1.4	8.3	5.6
Owner-manager	12.5			6.3	2.7	3.7	44.4

Source: Fieldwork; (*chi-square* = 49.777, *df* = 18, *p*<0.01)

Appendix D9: Employees receiving clear and precise instructions in relation to organisational position.

Table D9: Employees receiving clear and precise instructions in relation to organisational position

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Non-managerial	0.7	76.0	11.3	11.3	0.7
Supervisor	1.6	77.8	11.1	7.9	1.6
Manager			16.7	83.3	

Owner-manager			25.0	62.5	12.5
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Source: Fieldwork; (*chi-square* = 83,611 *df* = 12, *p*<0.01)

Appendix D10: Employees participate in decision making in relation to organisational position.

Table D10: Employees participate in decision making in relation to organisational position

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Non-managerial	1.3	96.7	0.7	1.3	
Supervisor	4.8	95.2			
Manager		50.0	41.7		8.3
Owner-manager		25.0	31.3	25.0	18.8

Source: Fieldwork; (*chi-square* = 88.445 *df* = 12, *p*<0.01)

Appendix D11: Employees participating in key activities such as planning in relation to organisational position.

Table D11: Employees participating in key activities such as planning in relation to organisational position

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Non-managerial	2.0	93.3	0.7	3.3	0.7
Supervisor	3.2	63.5	9.5	20.6	3.2
Manager		66.7	16.7		
Owner-manager		50.0	12.5	37.5	

Source: Fieldwork; (*chi-square* = 47,757 *df* = 12, *p*<0.01)

Appendix D12: Leaders listening to their employees in relation to organisational position.

Table D12: Leaders listening to their employees in relation to organisational position

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Non-managerial	7.3	86.0	4.7	1.3	0.7
Supervisor	11.1	73.0	14.3		1.6
Manager			91.7	8.3	
Owner-manager			75.0	25.0	

Source: Fieldwork; (*chi-square* = 121,695 *df* = 12, *p*<0.01)

Appendix D13: Leader working with employees in an inclusive manner in relation to organisational position.

Table D13: Leader working with employees in an inclusive manner in relation to organisational position

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Non-managerial	6.0	88.0	3.3	1.3	1.3
Supervisor		68.3	28.6	1.6	1.6
Manager			91.7	8.3	
Owner-manager			93.8	6.3	

Source: Fieldwork; (*chi-square* = 130,537 *df* = 12, *p*<0.01)

Appendix E: Effective leadership

Appendix E1: Employees are excited to come to work and provide their all-in relation to organisational position.

Table E1: Employees are excited to come to work and provide their all-in relation to organisational position

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Non-managerial	6.0	78.0	9.3	5.3	1.3
Supervisor	4.8	58.7	23.8	12.7	
Manager	33.3	66.7			
Owner-manager	6.3	68.8	25.0		

Source: Fieldwork; (*chi-square* = 28.807 *df* = 12, *p*<0.01)

Appendix E2: Employees are motivated to take on additional responsibilities in relation to organisational position.

Table E2: Employees are motivated to take on additional responsibilities in relation to organisational position

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Non-managerial	4.7	74.0	12.7	8.0	0.7
Supervisor	4.8	47.6	25.4	22.2	
Manager	50.0	50.0			
Owner-manager	6.3	75.0	12.5	6.3	

Source: Fieldwork; (*chi-square* = 39.639 *df* = 12, *p*<0.01)

Appendix E3: Commitment of employees to the decisions made by their superiors in relation to organisational position.

Table E3: Commitment of employees to the decisions made by their superiors in relation to organisational position

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Non-managerial	4.7	67.3	22.7	4.0	1.3
Supervisor	3.2	46.0	27.0	23.8	
Manager	25.0	66.7	8.3		
Owner-manager	6.3	62.5	12.5	18.8	

Source: Fieldwork; (*chi-square* = 32.582 *df* = 12, *p*<0.01)

Appendix E4: Managers assisting employees in career development in relation to organisational position.

Table E4: Managers assisting employees in career development in relation to organisational position

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Non-managerial	1.3	89.3	6.7	2.0	0.7
Supervisor		74.6	17.5	7.9	
Manager	8.3	75.0	16.7		
Owner-manager		62.5	31.3	6.3	

Source: Fieldwork; (*chi-square* = 21.282 *df* = 12, *p*<0.01)

Appendix E5: Goals of the organisation are consistently met in relation to organisational position.

Table E5: Goals of the organisation are consistently met in relation to organisational position

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Non-managerial	1.3	87.3	8.0	2.0	1.3
Supervisor		74.6	20.6	4.8	
Manager		75.0	25.0		
Owner-manager		56.3	18.8	25.0	

Source: Fieldwork; (*chi-square* = 24.205 *df* = 12, *p*<0.01)

Appendix F: Effectiveness of the Situational Leadership Theory.

Appendix F1: Our leader is patient when giving instructions in relation to organisational position.

Table F1: Our leader is patient when giving instructions in relation to organisational position

Dimension	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
Non-managerial	42.0	53.3	0.7	3.3	0.7
Supervisor	31.7	61.9	3.2	1.6	1.6
Manager		50.0	16.7	33.3	
Owner-manager	6.3	18.8	43.8	31.3	

Source: Fieldwork; (*chi-square* = 72.843, *df* = 12, *p*<0.01)

Appendix G: Published work from the thesis

1. **Nemashakwe, P.**, Zinyemba, A. Z. & Gumbe, S. M. (2023), 'Development of an Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) Model for Zimbabwean SMEs'. *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Business Innovation*. [Online] AB Journals 6 (1), pp. 21-36. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.52589/IJEBI-4BPRAF3I>.
2. **Nemashakwe, P.**, Zinyemba, A. Z. & Gumbe, S. M. (2023), 'Predominant Leadership Styles Used by SMEs in Zimbabwe: A Case of Bulawayo's Central Business Area'. *British Journal of Management and Marketing Studies*. [Online] AB Journals 6 (1), pp. 17-30. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.52589/BJMMS-5WGHIM1J>.
3. **Nemashakwe, P.**, Zinyemba, A. Z. & Gumbe, S. M. (2022), 'Development of an Afrocentric Effective Leadership (AEL) Instrument for Zimbabwean SMEs.' *The Fountain: Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies*. [Online] 6 (1), pp. 23-47. Available from: <https://journals.cuz.ac.zw/index.php/fountain>.
4. **Nemashakwe, P.**, Zinyemba, A. Z. & Gumbe, S. M. (2022), 'Assessment of the effectiveness of leadership in Zimbabwean SMEs.' *International Journal of Multidisciplinary Research and Growth Evaluation*. [Online] 3 (6), pp. 338-343. Available from: <https://www.allmultidisciplinaryjournal.com>.
5. **Nemashakwe, P.**, Zinyemba, A. Z. & Gumbe, S. M. (2022), 'The Relevance of the Situational Leadership Theory to Zimbabwean SMEs: A Case of Bulawayo's Central Business Area'. *International Journal of Economics, Commerce and Management*. [Online] 10 (9), pp. 367-381. Available from: <http://ijecm.co.uk/volume-x-issue-9/>.