



LEADERSHIP STYLE AND ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE IMPLEMENTATION: A STUDY OF NIGERIAN NATIONAL PETROLEUM CORPORATION (NNPC)

Laguo Livingstone Gilbert

Faculty of Management Science, Department of Business Administration,
Federal University Otuoke, Nigeria

Article history:	Abstract:
<p>Received: 26th January 2021 Accepted: 11th February 2021 Published: 1st March 2021</p>	<p>It is generally acknowledged that organisational leaders play important roles in achieving change implementation. However, the type of leadership behaviour needed for adoption in given situations has not been fully understood. The study therefore investigated the impact of leadership styles on organisational change implementation. The study developed an integrated framework combining the direct effect of some leadership styles on organisational change implementation. In order to validate the conceptual framework, empirical research was conducted with a realist perspective. Primary data was collected through a questionnaire from change implementation officials at the Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation (NNPC) headquarters Abuja. The findings from the study reveal that a combination of the values of democratic and transformational leadership styles contribute to change implementation, therefore making the proposed model imperative for adoption.</p>

Keywords: Organisational change implementation, transformational leadership, democratic leadership

INTRODUCTION

Many organisations are yet to understand the impact of leadership and the various leadership styles, and how they influence change implementation in organisations. Pastor and Mayo (2008) believe that failure to adhere to predominant leadership styles such as transformational, democratic or transactional will limit the level of effectiveness and commitment, and consequently reduce change implementation strategies. Northouse (2016) opines that transformational and transactional leadership styles help organisation leaders to build strong ethical values capable of supporting change implementation. More so, studies confirmed that transformational and democratic leadership styles tend to increase subordinates' contributions and commitment to organisational change and success (Avolio & Bass, 2004). This means, exploring the impact of various leadership styles will increase the efficacy and understanding for change implementation. In another development, Pastor and Mayo, (2008) believes that leadership styles have the tendency to either reduce or increase the value of workforce when responding to change. More so, Northouse(2016) is of the view that leadership is always at the centre for organisational change implementation in organisations because it increases psychological support for members.

Studies have explored the impact of leadership on change implementation and conclude that leadership is a critical element for managing change in organisations (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007; Neves & Caetano, 2009). This means, the failure or success of organisational change deeply depends on organisational adoption of a predominant leadership style (Hassan, Prussia, Mahsud, & Yukl, 2018). Therefore, this current study seeks to investigate the effect of leadership on organisational change implementation in the Nigerian Petroleum Corporation of Nigeria. Accordingly therefore, the research effort sought answers to the following questions;

- Does leadership style have a positive and significant effect on organisational change implementation?
- What styles of leadership are capable of leading organisational change implementation?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Organisational Change

Organisational change is defined differently by different authors. While some authors defined it as a process where an organisation is going through a transformation or a change in culture (Sharma & Khokle, 2017), others think that it is a process where an organisation is restructuring itself to meet current demands (Judson, 1991). Similarly, Sengupta *et al.* (2006) defined organisational change as the adoption of a new idea or behaviour, or a way in which an organisation altered its existing structure to increase effectiveness and achieve set objectives. Jick (1993) sees it as a planned or unplanned response to pressures from both inside an organisation and from the external environment. Lewis (2011) defines organisational change as a creation of an effective communication that will lead

the organisation's desired state. The critical issue about these definitions is that, each author keeps referring to the need for organisations to overcome challenges in order to achieve desired objectives. However, in order to overcome such challenges, organisational members must resume process modification by adopting measure of re-engineering business processes and incorporate factors such as leadership which are capable of driving the change process.

Researchers such as Alas and Vadi (2006) and Alsharari (2019) believe that organisations may require modification from time to time in order to ensure stability and predictability, which often leads to restructuring and enhancing change implementation. However, lack of organisational stability when modelling change may lead to confusion and uncertainty which often leads to a state of paralysis (Lewis, 2011). This is why Alas and Vadi (2006) agreed that change involves elements of organisational systems which must sustain and align together in achieving the desired change. The literature on organisational change usually considers a step-by-step approach leading to a successful change, as evidenced in organisational change theories (Grieves, 2010, Andreeva and Ritala 2016). Organisational change implementation is not only a change philosophy or a structure of set of change assumptions (Graetz and Smith, 2010), but a practical way in which organisations adopt and practice change theories in order to make change happen effectively (Hayes, 2010, Thakhathi 2016). Change will only be effective and successful if organisational change processes are followed with due principles and a stated approach (Burnes, 2004). Hayes (2010) viewed that organisational change implementation entails thoughtful planning and sensitive implementation, consulting and effectively involving people in the change process.

The concept of change has attracted new initiatives with critical consideration of the integration of management concepts such as leadership and different leadership styles, as values for developing and expanding people's capacity to effectively participate in change implementation (Grieves, 2010). Studies shows that the integration of change models will improve the understanding and quality of people's involvement in change implementation (Sengupta *et al.*, 2006; Hostetler, 2007; Lewis, 2011 and Gungadeen *et al.* 218). More so, change models have shown the importance of paying attention to critical factors that influence effective change implementation in organisations, such factors are often considered as the necessities for increasing the technicalities involved in change implementation. Bolman and Deal (2003) believe that such management techniques increase opportunities for change and as well reduce barriers such as ambiguities and incompetence. In addition, Brisson-Banks' (2010) study concludes that in an organisation's transition period, change models can be combined to form new models to best fit with current circumstances which could form a unique method and strategies capable of proving additional insights into possible ways of improvement. Brisson-Banks (2010) further stressed that the combination of management techniques increases skills which become extremely valuable to facilitate change in a transition period. Evidence of empirical investigations shows that organisation change implementation is developed from existing change theories (Susanto, 2008; Self and Schraeder, 2009; Senior & Swailes, 2010), and such change theories help to develop frameworks to enhance practical directions for organisational change implementation.

Lewin's (1947, 1952) change theory, which faced numerous criticisms, has been adopted as the basis for developing frameworks capable of increasing the understanding of organisational change implementation. Lewin who is noted to be the first psychologist to work on change, argued that the process of managing change is in three stages which are; (1) unfreezing current behaviour, (2) moving to the process of new behaviour and (3) refreezing the new behaviour. Lewin (1947) relate change with group dynamics and further argued that it is important to emphasise group behaviour to change, rather than focusing on just one individual (Dent and Goldberg, 1999), because the individual is in isolation and is constrained by group pressures to conform. Consequently, Schein (1988) adds that managing change at a group level should focus on factors such as group norms, which relate to accepted types of organisational culture, and interactions/socialisation which are in line with adopting a predominant leadership style.

Lewin who adopted action research to develop his theoretical position about change stressed that change can only be achieved by helping individuals to reflect on new insights into the existing situation (Smith, 2005). Schein's (1996) work reflected on Lewin's theoretical thought that 'one cannot understand an organisation without trying to change it' (p 64). This means it is more important in understanding the processes and procedures that could result in change from the individuals and groups' perspectives. Furthermore, it was stressed that for change to be effective, it must involve the participation and collaboration of all those concerned about the change (Lewin, 1947; French and Bell, 1990; Day *et al.*, 2002). Lewin believes that for change to be effective the following are necessary:

- Step 1, *unfreezing*: That human behaviour is based on a quasi-stationary equilibrium supported by a complex field of forces. Meaning, before an old behaviour can be discarded (either unlearned) and new behaviour successfully adopted, the equilibrium needs to be destabilized (unfrozen). Although, Lewin did not believe that this would be easy or that the same techniques could be applied in all situations. Hence it was further noted that 'unfreezing' the present level may involve different problems in different cases (Lewin, 1947).
- Step 2, *moving*: Unfreezing is not an end in itself, it does 'create a motivation to learn but does not necessarily control or predict the direction' (Schein, 1996: 6). Lewin (1947) viewed that it is necessary to take into account all the forces at work to identify and evaluate the available options to enable people to move to a more acceptable set of behaviours.
- Step 3, *refreezing*: This seeks to stabilize the situation at a new quasi-stationary equilibrium in order to ensure that new behaviours are relatively safe from regression (Lewin, 1947). The new behaviour must be to some degree matched with the rest of the behaviour either adapting to some kind of related change

practices (Schein, 1996). This is why effective change must require organisational culture, social norms, policies and practices capable of establishing and consolidating change (Cummings & Worley, 2001).

Lewin's theory has been criticised over time; for example, Burnes (2004) argued that Lewin's theory is only suitable for small change projects, and it ignores organisational powers and politics identified in Morgan's (1986) study which viewed organisational politics as a metaphor or critical factors that influence the organisational change process. Morgan (1986) believes that organisations are rational systems and can find ways to overcome limitations however, over reliance on some metaphors can increase organisational politicisation. But, Lippitt *et al.* (1958) adds that after the unfreezing phase, there is a need to establish a change relationship, and after the refreezing phase, there is the terminal relationship. In order to support this claim, Lippitt established a stage change model which reclassified organisational change into three stages of such as (1) clarification or diagnosing the problem, (2) examination of alternative routes and goals and establishment of goals and intentions for action and (3) the transformation of intentions into actual change efforts.

After reviewing Lewin's three steps change model, Schein (1980) came up with a new way to describe the situation surrounding unfreezing and freezing in organisations. Schein viewed that the way to unfreeze an organisation is either, to move the organisation from the current status quo to a future state and freeze the changes, that for unfreezing to work well, members of the organisation would need to embrace change and see the need for such change. Schein equally noted that the need to be dissatisfied with the current status quo must be observed, and once such perception is introduced people will then see the gap between what has been and what should be. Then, this will be conceptualized to motivate people in order to reduce implementation gaps in order to achieve desired change. However, Schein (1980) did not offer a clear step by step change conceptualisation as indicated in Kotter's (1996) study which shows a chronological order of the organisational change implementation process as follows:

1. **Establish a sense of urgency:** change means uncertainty about what the future looks like (Alas *et al.*, 2011); uncertainty makes people uncomfortable hence people would prefer the status quo. Furthermore, people tend to mistrust things about which they are uncertain (Smith, 2011). Therefore people need to be encouraged about the need to make change happen (Kotter, 1996).
2. **Form a powerful high level coalition to guide and lead the change:** a group is needed with enough power and influence to be responsible to effect change in an organisation. Kotter (2002) posited that such group should be surrounded by people with vision and a sense of what is happening outside the organisation, credibility within the organisation, knowledge, and good communication skills. Some people may exemplify more than one of these qualities, but each of these qualities should be essential for developing a strong vision and communicate clearly such vision to the rest members. More so, the members need to work together and commit fully to the perceived change.
3. **Create a vision of the organisation's future:** to help focus and direct the change (Kotter, 1996). It is important to develop a vision that reflects in line with an understanding of organisational culture and what its members value (Kotter, 1996), as well as creating the strategies for achieving the vision that will help expedite the change (Kotter, 1996, 1998).
4. **Communicate that vision widely, repeatedly and consistently:** from the leadership level down through all organisational levels, in language and in actions and behaviours (Kotter, 1996).
5. **Empower people in the organisation to act on the vision:** either removing obstacles to change, improve processes and systems, encourage and enable people to take risks, engage in non-traditional thinking and activities (Kotter, 1996).
6. **Plan for visible short-term performance improvements:** enable these to occur and recognise people's achievement and the work of those who have enabled that achievement (Kotter, 1996).
7. **Consolidate improvements and produce more change:** as change takes effect, build on the credibility and confidence of that results, extending the reform or structures, systems and processes and encouraging and growing change agents in the organisation (Kotter, 1996).
8. **Institutionalise new approaches:** clearly articulate the connections between the new ways of working towards organisational successes and encourage change leadership and anchor the changes into the organisational culture (Kotter, 1996).

Authors such as Appelbaum *et al.* (2012) argue that Kotter's (1996) change model lacks rigorous fundamentals, and did not show who is coordinating the change process. However, it was an instantaneous success at the time it was advocated and it still remains a key reference in the field of change management (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2012). Kotter's book titled *Leading Change* has been used to support conceptual frameworks in order to assist change management and implementation (Buchanan *et al.*, 2005). Kotter's organisational change model has been cited in recent academic textbooks such as Langton *et al.* (2010) and has contributed to several articles on organisational change and management (Jansen, 2004; Todnem, 2005; Lines; 2007; Sidorko, 2008; Zakariasen *et al.*, 2008; Brisson-Banks, 2010; Farkas, 2013). For example, Parker *et al.* (2013) adopted Kotter's (1996) change management principles to construct what they called Alignment of PRINCE2 and change management activities, to identify key stakeholders that could influence the success of a project change. Accordingly, Alignment of PRINCE2 and change management activities are used to enhance change activities such as creating a sense of urgency, form a powerful coalition, create and communicate a vision, assessing the readiness for change and capacity for change, building the understanding

for change, and developing the potential necessary for implementing change. Brisson-Banks (2010) confirmed that most successful business change models of recent times are based on Kotter's (1996) change model, and it has been the key mechanism for leading organisational change (Kouzes and Posner, 2007). Also, Alas *et al.*'s (2012) study shows that the steps in the process of change in Chinese and Estonian organisations were analysed on the basis of the steps contained in Kotter's change model. Farkas (2013) found that Kotter's (1996) change model provides a pragmatic structure for change culture through behavioural change and change leadership regardless of positional authority in an organisation. Mitchell's (2013) argument suggests that change can only be effective when organisations adopt a predominant leadership style capable of leading the change effectively, however recent researchers have over time raised concerns about what types of leadership is necessary for effective change implementation. Thus, this study views leadership as a critical variable for change implementation and measure the existing gap between leadership types and change implementation.

Leadership

Experts in the study of leadership have given numerous meanings to leadership, for example, some scholars view leadership as a process of influencing people to achieve an organisational objective in a way that makes it more coherent and cohesive (Bennis & Namus, 1985). Others view leadership as a process of leading people in the right direction in order to achieve set objectives, as another group of scholars view leadership as a process that ensures successfully accomplishing desired goals through motivating people to excel in specific areas (Crawford *et al.*, 1997; Northouse, 2010). Yukl (2013) define leadership as an attempt to equip, train, and influence subordinates who have diverse gifts, abilities, and skills, to focus on organisational mission and objectives. Yukl (2013) further noted that leaders are enthusiastic people who ensure that subordinates are emotional and physically coordinated to achieve the organisational mission and objectives.

Related research on leadership shows that leadership exists in the minds of both the leaders and those led (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 2004). Hofstede *et al.* (2010) confirm that statements from those who are led are a better reflection of the actual meaning of leadership. Carlyle (2007) also argued that the understanding of leadership can best be summarised in terms of an interdependent relationship between structure, process and outcome. Similarly, Gill (2006) posits that leadership entails having the skills and capabilities of creating a vision for inspiring trust, including team building and emotional intelligence.

The literature on leadership evidences that leaders accomplish their tasks through an innovative flexible means of education, training, support, and protection that provide subordinates with what they need within the reason and scope of the organisation's resources to accomplish objectives (Bass, 1985). Leadership has over the years evolved as a crucial aspect of management for stimulating subordinates to change their motives, beliefs, values and capabilities so that their own interests and personal goals become congruent with organisational change processes, which make leadership very interesting, important and effective (Bass, 1985; Gill, 2006; Hofstede *et al.*, 2010). This makes leadership very important in maintaining organisational success (Crawford *et al.*, 1997). But, leadership often fails when organisational leaders fail to identify and adopt a leadership style capable of leadership change implementation (Northouse, 2010). Studies in the area of leadership have shown that leadership styles such as democratic, autocratic, transformational and transactional have been identified to either increase or reduce organisational change implementation (Avery, 2004; Bratton *et al.*, 2005; Zastrow & Kirst-Ashman, 2009; Sapru, 2013).

The study at *Iowa University* conducted by *Lewin* and his associates explores three leadership behaviour types namely; autocratic leadership, democratic or participative and laissez-faire to have influence people's behaviour in change participation (Avery, 2004). For example, autocratic leadership style: where leaders have absolute power over subordinates or a team shows that, employees have little or no contributions in decision making even where such decisions would create an opportunity for them (Sapru, 2013). The leader centralised authority, dictated methods of work and limited employees' suggestions (Avery, 2004), this leadership style usually leads to high staff turnover or absenteeism. Unlike the autocratic leadership style, the democratic leader tends to involve subordinates and hence, considers their suggestions in decision making. Accordingly, in democratic leadership, delegating authority is encouraged as a fair level of participation in deciding on work methods and goals. Sapru (2013) agrees that democratic behaviour encourages feedback and gives opportunity for training or coaching. Avery (2004) equally affirms that it increases job satisfaction and enables skills development. Self-confidence is enhanced among employees. More so, employees are ensured of feeling in control of their own destiny and able to promote what they want. With this type, workers are motivated to effectively and efficiently engage with their job well by more than just a financial reward (Avery, 2004). In another development, Jordan and Troth's (2011) study shows that democratic leadership style enables organisational leaders to actively engage subordinates in organisational development by encouraging them to increase their inputs and participation as one family. Spence (2009) study further shows that democratic leadership behaviour was better at enhancing feedback and increasing work alignment among employees.

In another development, Stone *et al.*'s (2004) view that transformational leaders improve the process where leaders and followers engage in a mutual process of raising one another to a high level of morality and motivation. Transformational leadership style has been described as a process through which leaders effect a radical change in the behaviour of subordinates (Jabnoun & Rasasi, 2005). Transformation and transaction leadership styles have become popular concepts in recent times (Northouse, 2010). Stone *et al.* (2004) state that researchers and

practitioners around the World have adopted both styles in a variety of organisations; either changing the management focus or were used to correct a particular situation. Cardona (2000) sees transactional leadership as an economically based exchange relationship which promotes uniformity by providing extrinsic (positive or negative) rewards to co-workers, whilst transformational leadership style enhances a work-based exchange relationship that promotes teamwork and team building by providing fairer extrinsic rewards which appeal to the intrinsic motivation of the collaborators.

Transactional leadership style on the other hand focuses on the basic management process of controlling, organising, and short team planning and encourages exchange of awareness, motivation and self-interest rather than self and organisational interest (Northouse, 2010). Transactional leaders are often influential because it is in the interest of subordinates to do what the leader wants (Avery, 2004) by interaction and negotiable agreement. Avery (2004) further states that transactional leadership is dependant to a great extent on the leader's skill, confidence in choosing direction and obtains the followers' cooperation to be effective. More so, leaders with transactional theory motivate, direct, control, develop and teach followers with relevant skills (Bratton *et al.*, 2005). But, transformational leadership style focuses on creating changes in followers' values, self-perceptions, and psychological needs for organisational development (Pastor & Mayo, 2008). This suggests that transformational and transactional theories may add value to workers' relationships at the workplace. But, while the transactional leader looks into promoting economic and social justice of employees, transformational leaders promote an articulated and compelling vision for the future and establish the difference between success and failure (Avery, 2004).

Crawford (2005) noted that where organisational leaders do not identify a dominant leadership style capable of leading they face problems of innovation, and the inability to manage information and knowledge. Crawford and Strohkirch's (2002) study of the relationship between leadership styles and organisation change implementation suggests that leadership requires further investigation based on 'problems perfection'. Other major limitations of leadership styles include communicating clear expectations about effectiveness, effort and commitment to the task at hand (Pastor & Mayo, 2008). In addition, another challenge associated with leaders is where leaders' failed to show concern for their followers' welfare. Such leaders should have engaged their followers in frequent dialogue on improving strategies and moving the organisation forward. Doing so may help followers reframe problems and approach old situations in innovative ways, enhancing teamwork rather than criticizing individual members' for their mistakes (Pastor & Mayo, 2008). Davis (2006) noted that other challenges associated with leaders in organisations also include ethics and values which are the platform for developing the transformational process and trust. Despite the challenges faced by organisational leaders, studies have proven that the relevant styles are characterized with leader/subordinate's connections (Walumba *et al.*, 2007). Thus the leaders' interaction and relationship with their subordinates are guided by mutual goals of improved performance, development and accomplish change implementation. This can be achieved through commitment from followers when leaders attend to emotions, values, ethics, and long-term goals when there is management organisational change.

EMPIRICAL REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Studies have affirmed that transformational leadership style is associated with visioning, empowerment, and individual consideration as elements of sustaining organisational change implementation (Pastor & Mayo, 2008). Avery (2004) agreed that transformational leaders promote and encourage vision for the future and establish the difference between success and failure. While the literature on organisational change has focused on change leadership behaviours, the leadership literature posits that transformational leadership has been characterised for particularly being effective in driving organisational change (Bass, 1998; Nemanich & Keller, 2007; Raoprasert & Islam, 2010). Studies on transformational leadership did not investigate leader behaviours in terms of a particular change (Herold, *et al.*, 2008), however they assume that transformational leaders are naturally good at handling any kind of change especially implementing organisational change (Nemanich & Keller, 2007; Herold *et al.*, 2008; Caldwell *et al.*, 2009). Also, studies that compared variations in leadership styles found that the elements of transformational leadership style have a relationship with organisational change implementation (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Detert & Burris, 2007; Herold *et al.*, 2008), and generally influenced subordinates' attitude and behaviour in responding to implementing organisational change. Other researchers believe specifically that, transformational leaders are able to transform subordinates' beliefs and values by creating a vision of the future and inspire them to work toward achieving organisational change (Cardona, 2000; Ivey & Kine, 2010).

Researchers have demonstrated that transactional leadership style has both direct and indirect impact on employee involvement in strategic decisions towards organisational success (Gu *et al.*, 2012). However, it was specifically reported that transformational leadership style has a greater impact than transactional leadership when it comes to employee's behavioural integration towards decision making leading to change (Gu *et al.*, 2012), and plays a significant role in mediating organisation change. Riaz and Haider (2010) found that transactional leaders provide vision and model organisational business units, but could not motivate employee's involvement and participation in organisational change implementation compared to the transformational leaders. More so, another study found that the transactional leader does focus on employees' innovation but centres more on the role of supervision and group performance which is dominated by exchange between leader and subordinates and only motivated by rewards (Walumba *et al.*, 2007). James's (2005) study equally confirmed this position and added that transactional leaders

focus more on contingent reward when the job is completed. This is further confirmed in the work of Eid *et al.* (2008) which shows that transactional leaders only pay attention to reward in the form of getting the work done.

A comparison of transactional and transformational leadership styles suggest that both add value to the workplace environment, but the transformational leader is better because there is more attempt to provide subordinates with opportunity to contribute to workplace improvement and change implementation (Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008). This position is contained in James (2005) when he concluded that the transactional leader only recognises employees after tasks are completed. This clearly shows that both transactional and transformational leadership styles are important, but the arguments empirically evidenced that the transactional leadership style may have lesser impact on organisational members compared to transformational leaders especially when engaged in change implementation. Based on the foregoing, the following hypotheses are formulated:

- **Ha:** Transformational leadership style has positive and significant effect on organisational change implementation.
- **Hb:** Transactional leadership style has positive and significant effect on organisational change implementation than transformational leadership style.

The leadership literature also compared democratic and autocratic leadership styles and confirmed that participative leaders are more associated with democratic leadership behaviour, while despotic leaders are more autocratic in nature (Marshall, 1986; Alder *et al.*, 1995). Also known as authoritarian leadership style, autocratic behaviour is said to have absolute powers over team members (Oyster, 1992). Either the subordinate has little or no contributions in decision making even where such decisions would create an opportunity for them (Sapru, 2013). Vito *et al.* (2011) posit that autocratic leaders often obtain and maintain power. The leader is always at the centre of authority, dictating methods of work and limiting employees' suggestions. Oshagbemi and Ocholi (2006) add that this leadership style usually leads to high staff turnover or absenteeism. Other studies equally viewed that managers adopting autocratic style force or impose changes on organisational members with insufficient or no consultation, taking action without considering the effects on the members (Ellinger *et al.*, 2008). This category of leaders are seen as uncaring, self-serving management/undermining, with depriving and intimidating behaviour who always omit giving recognition or praise for the good work of their subordinates (Ellinger *et al.*, 2008). In spite of these views, the autocratic leadership style is recommended in a bureaucratic culture as it helps leaders to achieve results (Awan and Mahmood, 2010).

Unlike the autocratic style, the democratic leaders are more compliant and consider the views and suggestions of other members of the organisation in decision making. Sapru (2013) confirmed this when he concluded that democratic leadership style encourages feedback and gives opportunity for training or coaching. Oshagbemi and Ocholi (2006) affirm this and added that democratic leadership style increases employee's satisfaction and enables skills development, which often leads to self-confidence and passion to accomplish organisational goals. Avery's (2004) view is in conformity with this when he confirmed that organisational members who are associated with democratic leadership style are better motivated and can effectively and efficiently engage with their job

Another critical observation of the impact of democratic leadership style shows that it encourages a situation where a team is guided by leaders who allow all individuals to be involved in the decision making process that determines the future of the organisation (Erwin and German, 2010). More so, democratic leadership style is believed to enable organisational members to share managerial skills in order to bring the best out of them (Saame *et al.*, 2011). This position supports the view that the democratic leader attempts to organise and discipline their subordinates in the right direction, whereas the autocratic leader is undisciplined and poorly organised with less attention paid to developing skilful subordinates (Moore *et al.*, 2005; Weyer, 2007). Autocratic leadership is further linked to a situation where the leader achieves the organisational objectives through people (Bourantas and Papalexandris, 1990; Eagly and Carli, 2003; Moore *et al.*, 2005; Weyer, 2007), whereas the democratic leader achieves goals with people (Eagly and Johnson, 1990; Savery, 1993; Oshagbemi and Ocholi, 2006; Stephens and Greer, 1995; Miramontes, 2008). This empirical position which is equally confirmed by Northouse (2010) suggests that democratic leadership style is characterised with more organisational member's participation in organisational change implementation than autocratic leadership styles. Based on this empirical position the following hypotheses are formulated:

- **Hc:** Democratic leadership style has positive and significant effect on organisational change implementation.
- **Hd:** Autocratic leadership style has positive and significant effect on organisational change implementation.

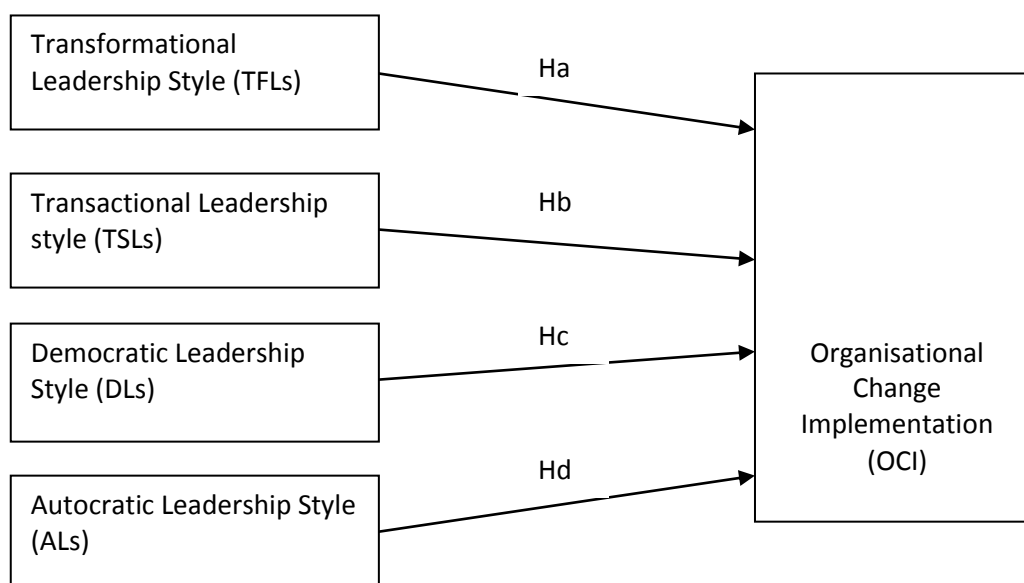


Figure 1: Leadership Style and Organisational Change Model

As demonstrated above, the model collectively brings all the research hypotheses together in one location and assumes that for an organisation to successfully implement change there must be a high emphasis of leadership capable of leading the change. It assumes that organisational members must be equipped to have the required leadership behaviour in order to participate in the change implementation. Theories of organisational change suggest that people make change happen and not that changes make people happen. Based on this premise, we further postulate that to increase the degree and intensity of change implementation, organisations should adopt leadership styles such as transformational, transactional, democratic or autocratic. In this sense, the above framework seeks to provide explanations of the adoption of a predominant leadership style for understanding organisational change implementation. Also, it seeks to provide explanations on the effect of each leadership style on organisational change implementation. Therefore, it is envisaged that this framework would make a novel contribution by giving a more refined understanding to the relationship between leadership styles and organisational change implementation.

ASSESSING THE INSTRUMENTS

Holt *et al.* (2007) reviewed 32 instruments that measure organisational change. The instruments collectively measure aspects of organisational change which are the change content, change process, internal context and the individual characteristics. This was further used to define a comprehensive attitude that influences all the factors. The first perspective, which is the change content, refers to initiatives being introduced in the organisation in either of the ways of adapting to behaviours leading to organisational change. Content is characteristically directed towards the administrative, procedural, technological, or structural characteristics of the organisation. Holt *et al.* (2007) come to a conclusion that change is the extent to which organisational members believe that they qualify and are capable of implementing perceived organisational change projects successfully if the right attitude and behaviour is established alongside other strategies of implementing the change. According to Holt *et al.* (2007) change instruments measure the intervening role of organisational members and their level of participation in organisational change implementation.

In order to assess the impact of leadership style on organisational change implementation Jogulu (2010) adopted the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) to link the impact of leadership styles on organisational effectiveness. Bass and Avolio (1994) have recommended the adoption of the MLQ for accessing leadership behaviour especially in a situation where the behaviour of a team is the unit of analysis. Kirkbride’s (2006) study used the MLQ to study leadership styles with the full range leadership development intervention in organisations. This has been used to assess leadership implication for organisational success and effectiveness. For example, Darvish and Pour (2013) used the MLQ to measure employee job satisfaction and outcome of leadership style and conclude that leadership is a strong predictor to organisational job satisfaction. However, critics view the MLQ to predominantly focus on the impact of leadership on organisational effectiveness (Epstein, 1999), and hence emphasized the need to develop a leadership instrument for creativity through competencies. More so, Northouse’s (2010) Leadership Styles Questionnaire was added to combine different leadership styles when measuring different leadership styles in a single study. Hence, adopting both instruments will benefit this study and most especially, help to measure organisational member’s attitude to change in line with leadership behaviour.

METHODOLOGY

Exploring the impact of leadership on organisational change implementation requires a realist perspective, however, a comparison of realism, interpretivism and positivism will help draw a conclusion of the understanding of the research philosophy necessary for exploring the factors affecting other factors in business research (Saunders *et al.*, 2009; Bryman & Bell, 2011). Densin and Lincoln (2008) relate positivism to natural science and observable social reality. Hence most researchers who assume the positivistic paradigm are able to collect experimental observable data for statistical analysis (Collis & Hussey, 2003). Saunders *et al.* (2009) viewed that the interpretivism paradigm is more of a qualitative approach which enables researchers to discover hidden details of the phenomenon, hence it is recommended for research in the business and management areas. But, Galliers (1990) argued that a realist perspective as a paradigm will impact more on business research since it enable researchers formulate hypothesis testing, quantify variables and inference, which can be drawn from population samples. Scholars such as Saunders *et al.* (2009) and Sekaran and Bougie (2010) linked the realist perspective with quantitative and qualitative research design which enables researchers to use a questionnaire to collect a large amount of data. Considering the nature of the current study which requires a large sample and data collection, the realist perspective will be a better fit as it will enable us collect quantitative data from the NNPC, and explore the impact of leadership style on change implementation.

Employees in the NNPC were given the opportunity to participate in this study. The participants who are change implementation personnel received the questionnaire with an attached letter explaining the purpose of the study. In order to encourage the participants, notice of three weeks was given to the participants to complete the questionnaire and return appropriately. Also, contained in the covering letter was a plea for the participants to participate objectively, freely, frankly and impartially to the questionnaire. Confidentiality for data collection was strictly assured. A total of 196 questionnaires were returned and five missing cases recorded amounting to 9.8 percent of missing data.

RELIABILITY AND CONSTRUCT VALIDITY

In order to validate the conceptual model presented in Figure 1, the measure covers each aspect on a six-point Likert scale: Cronbach’s coefficient alpha was used to measure and estimate the degree of the internal consistency of all constructs (Field, 2013). All the scales have a high reliability and values of Cronbach’s alpha derived for the constructs ranging from 0.769 to 0.889. Field (2013) posits that Cronbach’s Alpha (α) is the most common measure of scale reliability. Authors have considered that Cronbach’s Alpha should not drop below 0.7, and that an alpha value of 0.7 or more signifies reliable measures (de Vaus, 2002; Shah, 2011; Mueller *et al.*, 2012). We assessed the construct validity of each construct by using a principal components factor analysis (Pallant, 2010). Our result shows that all factors loaded and Cronbach’s Alpha was acceptable (see Table 1).

Table 1: Reliability and Validity of Instruments

	Numbers of Items	Factor Loading	Percentage of Variance explained	Value of Cronbach’s Alpha
OCI	10	0.783 – 0.890	69.373	0.889
TFLs	10	0.656 – 0.839	61.721	0.790
TSLs	10	0.726 – 0.919	75.449	0.855
DLs	10	0.633 – 0.899	67.841	0.839
ALs	10	0.699 – 0.816	59.646	0.769

FINDINGS

Regression Analysis Result

As indicated in Table 3 the regression analysis shows that transformational and democratic leadership style were better contributing to organisational change implementation. As indicated, transformational leadership style was found to have the highest positive and significant impact with organisational change implementation ($\beta = 0.353, p < .001$). Consequently, *Ha* is supported and retained in this study. The regression analysis shows a lesser impact of transactional leadership style on organisational change implementation ($\beta = 0.093, p = 0.430$), indicating support for *Hb* which viewed that transformational leadership style have a lesser impact on organisational change implementation than transactional leadership style. Also, the regression analysis shows that democratic leadership style is impacting positively with organisational change implementation ($\beta = 0.338, p < 0.001$). *Hc* is supported and retained. Finally, the regression analysis indicated a negative impact of autocratic leadership style on organisational change implementation ($\beta = -0.103, p = 0.128$). This result shows that *Hd* is rejected.

Table 3: Multiple Regression Result

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficient	T- test	Sig	Model Summary
		B	S.E	B			Sig of F = .000
Model							
	Dependent Variable	TFLs	.360 .093	.353	3.875	.000	
		TSLs	.095 .117	.093	.791	.430	
		DLs	.342 .098	.338	3.485	.001	
OCI	ALs	-.117 .076	-.103	-1.503	.128		Adjusted R ² = .648

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATION

The results obtained from these analyses show that transformational and democratic leadership styles were the most supportive leadership styles necessary for increasing the impact of organisational change implementation. The regression analysis result indicates that transformational leadership style has a positive effect on organisational change implementation ($\beta = 0.353, p < .001$) and the positive impact of democratic leadership with organisational change implementation ($\beta = 0.338, p < 0.001$) shows that transformational and democratic leadership styles have a better influence on organisational change implementation in this study. Therefore, a modification of the proposed conceptual framework as illustrated in Figure 1 became necessary to empirically show the results of the data analysis and hypotheses testing. Thus, the revised conceptual framework presented in Figure 2 shows the empirical evidence of the findings from the study.

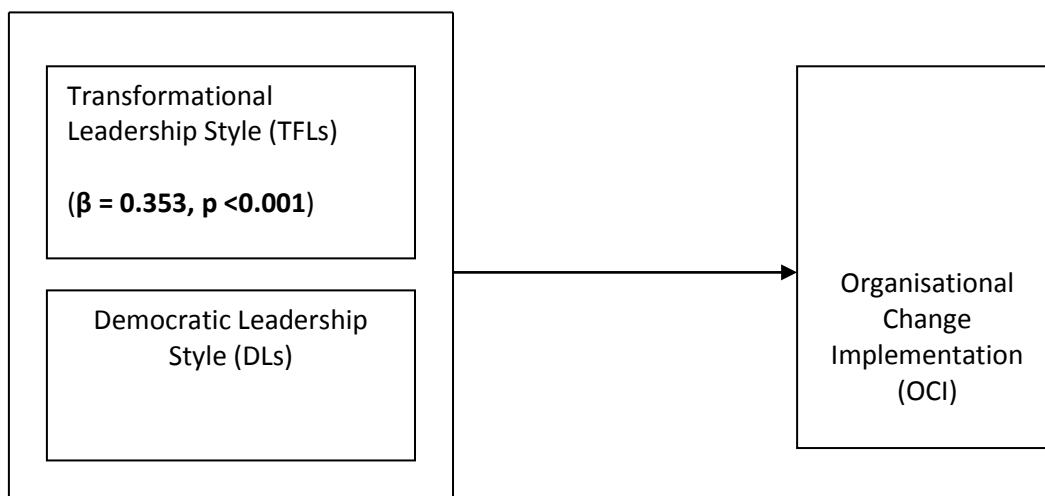


Figure 2: Validated Conceptual framework

This means that our study found transformational and democratic leadership styles as an associate factor capable of impacting better to organisational change implementation and concluded that in order to portray effective leadership style organisational leaders need to be conversant with the values of transformational and democratic leadership characteristics. The findings further indicate that by emphasising on the values of democratic and transformational leadership styles, organisational leaders would better encourage organisational members’ ability to contribute maximally in the workplace as well as accomplish organisational goals. Also that, a reliance on the values of democratic and transformational leadership styles will improve organisational member’s judgment in making a good decision and be creative when faced with change implementation problems. While democratic leaders enhance higher productivity which enables them to provide solutions based on group participation and contributing to change implementation, transformational leaders on the other hand reduce the tension of a one man show but increase the level of members’ participation by inspiring and motivating them with the sense of overcoming organisational challenges when engaged with the change implementation process. The findings in this study have empirically shown that transformational and democratic leadership styles are better adopted to cope with organisational turbulent periods, for example, when individuals, or groups as well as the organisation as a whole face difficult times, transformational or democratic leadership style can be used to influence and change the situation due to the fact that leaders with such characteristics are more decisive and can inspire confidence and trust on members when carrying out responsibilities. Unlike other leadership styles, transformational and democratic leaders are more likely to

encourage their subordinates by stimulating them to develop creative solutions to problems while opposing issues relating to resistance to change. This is in alignment with Bass and Riggio (2006), and Loon *et al.* (2012) who viewed that leaders with the characteristics of transformational/democratic styles are better with the capacity of managing organisational crises, but providing opportunities to foster and inspire courage and stimulate enthusiasm for organisational members to see the need to recognise growth and achieve change implementation results.

Therefore, we support the argument that transformational and democratic leadership styles are the best supportive leadership style for increasing people's readiness for change as well as increasing the impact of organisational change implementation. This is because both leadership styles better direct organisational members' attention towards the requirements for change implementation as indicated in our analysis. We also support the argument that transformational and democratic leadership styles better boost subordinates' involvement in decisions that are critical for organisational success and change implementation (Caldwell *et al.*, 2009), and the argument that transformational and democratic leadership styles will better support performance feedback and improve opportunities which are major requirements to increase employee's readiness for change and organisational change implementation (Herold, *et al.*, 2008; Caldwell *et al.*, 2009; Raoprasert & Islam, 2010; Larsson & Eid, 2012).

Based on our findings, we argue that organisations that associate with the values of democratic and transformational leadership styles are better for increasing members' readiness for change and contribute more towards change implementation. We conclude that the characteristics of democratic and transformational leadership styles are better associated with high organisational change implementation as both leadership styles provides organisational members with a more friendly environment necessary for inspiring, motivating, stimulating and encourage organisational members to be actively involved in change implementation. The findings of this study have contributed to the existing literature of organisational change management by developing and validating a conceptual framework for explaining the relationship between leadership styles and organisational change implementation.

CONCLUSION

We investigated the role and impact of leadership on organisational change implementation, and our empirical research revealed that transformational and democratic leadership styles are the effective leadership styles increasing the impact of organisational change implementation. Therefore, organisational members who ranked their organisations high with the values of transformational and democratic leadership behaviour will participate more on change implementation, while those who rank their organisations low on transformational and democratic leadership behaviour may resist change implementation. So, organisational leaders such as the NNPC must ensure that the characteristics of transformational and democratic leadership behaviour are emphasized in order to inspire member's interest and increase their level of participation in change implementation programs as this may lead to unfreezing current behaviour but refreezing new behaviour capable of increasing the level of change implementation.

REFERENCES

1. Alas, R., Sun, W., & Gao, J (2012) The implementation of organizational changes during the transition in China and Estonia, *Baltic Journal of Management*, 7 (1): 86-102.
2. Alas, R & Vadi, M (2006) The employees' attitudes and their connections with the organisational culture in the process of change in the Estonian organisations, *Baltic Journal of Management*, 1 (1): 49-66.
3. Alder, S., Laney, J. & Packer, M. (1995) *Gender and Education: Managing Women*, , Buckingham: Open University Press.
4. Appelbaum, S.H., Habashy, S., Malo, J & Shafiq, H (2012) Back to the future: revisiting.
5. Avery, G.C. (2004) *Understanding Leadership*, London: Sage
6. Avolio, B.J. & Bass, B.M. (2004) *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire: Third Edition and Sampler Set*, Redwood City, CA: Mind Garden.
7. Awan, M.R & Mahmood, K (2010) Relationship among leadership style, organisational culture and employee commitment in university libraries, *Library Management*, 31 (4/5): 253-266.
8. Barriere, M.T., Anson, B.R., Ording, R.S. & Rogers, E. (2002) Culture transformation in a healthcare organisation: a process for building adaptive capabilities through leadership development, *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 54 (2): 116-30.
9. Bass, B.M. (1985) *Leadership and Performance beyond Expectations*, New York, NY: Free Press
10. Bass, B.M. & Avolio, B.J. (1994) *Improving Organisational Effectiveness through Transformational Leadership*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications,
11. Bass, B. M., & Riggio, R. E (2006) *Transformational leadership* 2nd Ed, Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
12. Bennis, W. & Nanus, B. (1985) *Leaders: the strategies for taking charge*, New York: Harper & Row.
13. Bratton, J., Gting K & Nelson D.L (2005) *Organisational leadership*, US: Thomson.
14. Brisson-Banks, C.V (2010) Managing change and transitions: a comparison of different models and their commonalities, *Library Management* 31 (4/5): 241-252.
15. Bolman, L.G. & Deal, T.E. (2003) *Reframing Organisations: Artistry, Choice, and Leadership*, 3rd Ed. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
16. Bourantas, D. & Papalexandris, N. (1990) Sex differences in leadership styles and subordinate satisfaction, *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 5 (4): 7-12.

17. Bryman, A. & Bell, E. (2011), *Business Research Methods*, 3rd, Oxford-UK: Oxford University Press.
18. Buchanan, D., Fitzgerald, L., Ketley, D., Gollop, R., Jones, J.L. & Saint Lamont, S. (2005) No going back: a review of the literature on sustaining organisational change, *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 7 (3): 189-205.
19. Burnes, B. (2004) Kurt Lewin and the planned approach to change: a re-appraisal', *Journal of Management Studies*, 41 (6): 977-1002.
20. Cardona, P (2000) Assistant Professor, IESE International Graduate School of Management, University of Navarra, Spain, *the Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 21 (4): 201-206.
21. Carlyle, T (2007) *Sartor Resartus and On Heroes, Hero-Worship, and the Heroic History*, Echo Library.
22. Caldwell, S. D., Roby-Williams, C., Rush, K., & Rieke-Keily, T. (2009) Influences of Context, Process and Individual Differences on Nurses' Readiness for Change to Magnet Status, *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 65 (7): 1412 – 1422.
23. Crawford, A., Harbridge, R. & Hince, K. (1997), Unions and union membership in New Zealand: Annual Review for 1996, *New Zealand Journal of Industrial Relations*, 22 (2): 209-16.
24. Collis, J. & Hussey, R. (2003) *Business Research*, Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan
25. Crawford, C.B. & Strohkirch, C.S. (2002) Leadership education and management of knowledge organisations: an overview', *Journal of Leadership Education*, 1 (2):18-33.
26. Cummings, T.G. & Worley, C.G. (2001) *Organisation Development and Change*, 7th Ed: South-Western College Publishing, Mason, OH.
27. Eagly, A.H. & Johnson, B.T. (1990) Gender and leadership style: a meta-analysis', *Psychological Bulletin*, 108, 233-56.
28. Eagly, A.H & Carli, L.L (2003) The female leadership advantage: An evaluation of the evidence', *The Leadership Quarterly*, 14: 807-834.
29. Eid, J., Johnsen, B. H., Bartone, P. T., & Nissestad, O. A (2008) Growing transformational leaders: exploring the role of personality hardiness, *Leadership and Organisation Development Journal*, 29 (1): 4-23.
30. Ellinger, A. D., Hamlin, R. G. & Beattie, R. S. (2008) 'Behavioural indicators of ineffective managerial coaching, A cross national study', *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 32(4): 240-257.
31. Epstein, R. (1999) Generativity Theory Retrieved April 19, 2013, from http://drrobertepstein.com/pdf/Epstein-Generativity_Theory_Encyclopedia_of_Creativity-1999.pdf
32. Erwin, D.G & German, A.N (2010) Resistance to organizational change: linking research and practice, *Leadership and Organisation Development Journal*, 31 (1): 39-56.
33. Darvish, H & Shirazi Pour, M.S (2013) 'Measuring Employees Job Satisfaction as Outcome of Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Leadership Styles: An Empirical Study', *Reef Resources Assessment and Management Technical Paper*, 38 (5): 622-627.
34. Day, C, Elliott, J. Somekh, B. & Winter, R. (eds) (2002) *Theory and Practice in Action Research: Some International Perspectives*, Symposium Books, Oxford.
35. Denzin, N. K. and Lincoln Y. S (2008) *Collecting and interpreting qualitative materials* 3rd Ed, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
36. Dent, E. B. & Goldberg, S.G. (1999) 'Challenging resistance to change', *Journal of Applied Behavioural Science*, 35 (1): 25-41.
37. Detert, J. R., & Burris, E. R. (2007) Leadership behaviour and employee voice: Is the door really open? *Academy of Management Journal*, 50 (4): 869-894.
38. Farkas, M.G (2013) Building and sustaining a culture of assessment: best practices for change leadership', *Reference Services Review*, 41 (1): 13-31.
39. Field, A (2013) *Discovering statistics: using IBM SPSS statistics*, 4th Ed, London: Sage
40. French, W.L. & Bell, CH. (1990) *Organisation Development*, 4th Ed: Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
41. Galliers, R.D. (1990) Choosing appropriate information systems research approaches: a revised taxonomy, paper presented at the *Information Systems Research Arena of the 1990s*, The IFIP TC. 8 WG. 8.2, 14-16 Des. 1990, Copenhagen, Denmark.
42. Gill, R. (2006) *Theory and practice of leadership*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
43. Graetz, F and Smith, A.C.T (2010) 'Managing Organisational Change: A Philosophies of Change Approach', *Journal of Change Management*, 10 (2): 135-154.
44. Grieses, J (2010) *Organisational Change: Themes and issues*, Oxford: University Press.
45. Gu, J., Weng, Q & Xie, F (2012) Leadership, team and decision speed: empirical study using cross-provincial data, *Chinese Management Studies*, 6 (4): 598-609.
46. Hassan, S., Prussia, G., Mahsud, R. & Yukl, G. (2018), How leader networking, external monitoring, and representing are relevant for effective leadership', *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 39 (4): 454-467.
47. Hayes, J (2010) *The theory and practice of change management*, 3rd Ed, New York: NY. Palgrave Macmillan.
48. Hostetler, E. (2007) Safety at the center: a model that accelerates learning', *Organisational Development Journal*, 25 (4): 63-6.

49. Holt, D. T., Armenakis, A.A, Field, H. S. & Harris, S. G. (2007) Readiness for Organisational Change: The Systematic Development of a Scale, *The Journal of Applied Behavioural Science*, 43 (2): 232-255.
50. Ivey, G. W & Kline, T. J B (2010) Transformational and active transactional leadership in the Canadian military, *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 31 (3): 246-262.
51. James, W (2005) The impact of corporatisation and national competition policy: An exploratory study of organisational change and leadership style, *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 26 (4): 289-309.
52. Jick, T.D. (1993), *Managing Change Cases and Concepts*. Irwin: Homewood, IL
53. Jabnoun, N. & AL Rasasi, A. J (2005) Transformational leadership and service quality in UAE hospitals, *Managing Service Quality*, 15 (1): 70-81.
54. Jogulu, U. D. (2010) Culturally-linked leadership styles, *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 31(8): 705-719.
55. Jordan, P.J & Troth, A (2011) Emotional intelligence and leader member exchange: The relationship with employee turnover intentions and job satisfaction, *Leadership & Organisation Development Journal*, 32 (3): 260-280.
56. Judson, A. (1991) *Changing Behaviour in Organisations: Minimising Resistance to Change*, Basil Blackwell, Cambridge, MA.
57. Kirkbride, P (2006) Developing transformational leaders: the full range leadership model in action, *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 38 (1): 23-32.
58. Kotter, J.P. (1998) *Leading Change Why Transformation Efforts Fail*, Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press: 1-20.
59. Kotter, J.P (1999) Change leadership, *Executive Excellence*, 16 (4): 16-17.
60. Kotter, J.P. (2002) *The Heart of Change: Real-Life Stories of How People Change Their Organisations*, Cambridge, MA: Harvard Business School Press:
61. Kouzes, J. and Posner, B. (2007) *The Leadership Challenge*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass (John Wiley and Sons, Inc.),
62. Herold, D. M. Fedor, D. B., Caldwell, S. D., & Liu, Y. (2008) 'The effects of transformational leadership and change leadership on employees' commitment to a change: A multi-Level study', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93 (2): 346-357.
63. Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G.J. & Minkov, M. (2010) *Cultures and Organisations: Software of the Mind*, revised and expanded 3rd Ed. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill,
64. Langton, N., Robbins, S.P. & Judge, T.A. (2010) *Organizational Behaviour: Concepts, Controversies, Applications*, 5th Ed, Canadian ed, Toronto: Pearson Canada Inc
65. Lewin, K. (1947) *Frontiers in group dynamics*, *Human Relations*, 1, 5-41.
66. Lewin, K. (1952), *Field Theory in Social Science: Selected Theoretical Papers* by Kurt Lewin, Ed. Dorwin.
67. Lewis, L.K (2011) *Organisational change: creating change through strategic communication*, 1st Ed: John Wiley & Sons.
68. Lippitt, R., Watson, J. & Westley, B. (1958) *The Dynamics of Planned Change*, New York: Harcourt, Brace and World.
69. Limsila, K., & Ogunlana, S.O (2008) Performance and leadership outcome correlates of leadership styles and subordinate commitment, *Engineering, Construction and Architectural Management*, 15 (2): 164-184.
70. Lines, R. (2007) Using power to install strategy: the relationships between expert power, position power, influence tactics and implementation success, *Journal of Change Management*, 7 (2): 143-70.
71. Loon M., Lim, Y.M., Lee, T.H & Tam, C.L (2012) Transformational leadership and job-related learning, *Management Research Review*, 35 (3/4): 192-205.
72. Marshall, C. (1986) *Women Managers: Travellers in a Male World*, Wiley, Chichester.
73. Miramontes, G. (2008) *A qualitative study examining leadership characteristics of Mexican leaders*, unpublished doctoral dissertation, Pepperdine University, Malibu, CA.
74. Mitchell, G (2013) Selecting the best theory to implement planned change, *Nursing Management*, 20 (1): 1-37.
75. Moore, S., Grunberg, L. and Greenberg, E. (2005) Are female supervisors good for employee job experiences, health and wellbeing?, *Women in Management Review*, 20 (2): 86-95.
76. Morgan, G. (1986) *Images of Organisation*, Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications Inc.
77. Nemanich, L. A., & Keller, R. T. (2007) Transformational leadership in an acquisition: A field study of employees, *Leadership Quarterly*, 18, 49-68.
78. Neves, P., & Caetano, A. (2009) Commitment to Change: Contributions to Trust in the Supervisor and Work Outcomes, *Group and Organisation Management*, 34, 623-644.
79. Northouse, P.G (2016) *Leadership: Theory and practice*, 7th Ed, Thousand Oaks CA: Sage.
80. Oyster, C.K. (1992) 'Perceptions of power', *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 16 (44): 527-33.
81. Oshagbemi, T & Ocholi, S.A (2006) Leadership styles and behaviour profiles of managers, *Journal of Management Development*, 25 (8): 748-762.
82. Pallant, J (2010) SPSS survival manual: a step by step guide to data analysis using the SPSS, 4th Ed, McGraw-Hill House: England.

83. Parker, M.G (2013) Building and Sustaining a Culture of Assessment: Best Practices for Change Leadership', *Reference Services Review*, 41, (1) 13-31.
84. Pastor, J.C. & Mayo, M. (2008) Transformational leadership among Spanish upper echelons: The role of managerial values and goal orientation', *Leadership & Organisation Development Journal*, 29 (4): 340-58.
85. Raoprasert, T. & Islam, S.M.N. (2010) *Designing an efficient management system: Structural equation modelling of convergence factors*. In Physica: Contributions to Management Science. Springer, Heidelberg.
86. Riaz, A & Haider, M.H (2010) Role of transformational and transactional leadership on job satisfaction and career satisfaction, *BEH - Business and Economic Horizons*, 1 (1): 29-38.
87. Saame, I., Reino, A & Vadi, M (2011) Organisational culture based on the example of an Estonian hospital, *Journal of Health Organisation and Management*, 25 (5): 526-548.
88. Sapru, R.K (2013) Administrative theories and management thought, 3rd Ed, PHI: Learning Pvt.
89. Savery, L.K. (1993) Difference between perceived and desired leadership styles, *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 6, 28-32.
90. Saunders, M., Lewis, P & Thornhil, A (2009) *Research Methods for Business Students*, 5th Ed. Pitman.
91. Sekaran, U. & Bougie, R. (2010) *Research methods for business: A skill building approach* 5th Ed, West Sussex, UK: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.
92. Schein, E.H. (1996) Kurt Lewin's change theory in the field and in the classroom: notes towards a model of management learning, *Systems Practice*, 9 (1): 27-47.
93. Schein, E.H. (1988) *Organisational Psychology*, 3rd Ed. London: Prentice-Hall,
94. Sengupta, N., Bhattacharya, M.S & Sengupta, R.N (2006) *managing change in organisations*, 1st Ed: HHI Learning Pvt.
95. Senior, S. & Swailes, S. (2010) *Organisational change*, 4th Ed: Prentice Hall.
96. Self, D.R & Schraeder, M (2009) 'Enhancing the success of organisational change: Matching readiness strategies with sources of resistance', *Leadership & Organisation Development Journal*, 30 (2): 167-182.
97. Sidorko, P.E. (2008) 'Transforming library and higher education support services: can change models help?', *Library Management*, 29 (4/5): 307-18.
98. Smith, I. (2005) Achieving Readiness for Organisational Change, *Library Management*, 26, (6/7): 408-412.
99. Spence, L.A (2009) *Preferences for leader traits and leadership communication styles among members of different generational cohorts*, Thesis: Gonzaga University.
100. Stephens, G. & Greer, C. (1995) Doing business in Mexico: understanding cultural differences, *Organisational Dynamics*, 24 (1): 39-55.
101. Stone, A. G., Russell, R. S. & Patterson, K. (2004) Transformational versus servant leadership: a difference in leader focus, *The Leadership and Organisation Development Journal* 25 (4): 349-361.
102. Susanto, A. B. (2008) Organisational Readiness for Change: A Case Study on Change Readiness in a Manufacturing Company in Indonesia, *International Journal of management perspective*, 2 (1): 50-61.
103. Vigoda-Gadot, E (2007) Leadership style, organizational politics, and employees' performance: An empirical examination of two competing models, *Personnel Review* 36 (5): 661-683.
104. Todnem, R. (2005) Organisational change management: A critical review, *Journal of Change Management*, 5 (4): 369-80.
105. Walumba, F.O., Lawler, J.J. & Avolio, B.J. (2007) Leadership, individual differences, and work-related attitudes: a cross-cultural investigation' *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 56 (2): 212-30.
106. Weyer, B. (2007) Twenty years later: explaining the persistence of the glass ceiling for women leaders, *Women in Management Review*, 22 (6): 482-96.
107. Vito, G., Suresh, G., & Richards, G. (2011) 'Emphasising the servant in public service: The opinions of police managers', *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management*, 34(4): 674-686.
108. Yukl, G. (2013) leadership in organisations, 8th Ed, Englewood: Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall,
109. Zakariasen, K., Victoroff, K.Z & Karegyeya, G (2008) 'Developing a public health leadership graduate program responsive to a global perspective', *Leadership in Health Services*, 21 (4): 267-277.
110. Zastrow, C.H., & Kirst-Ashman, K.K. (2009) *Understanding Human Behaviour and the Social Environment* 8th Ed, Belmont, CA: Brooks/Cole