



Role Modelling for Organisational Citizenship Behaviours in Not-for-Profit Organisations: A Phenomenological Investigation in Tanzania

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to two great Saints of the Catholic Church, St. Theresa of Avila and St. Jude Thaddeus, as well as to the late Rev. Fr. Mathew Chavely Msfs, who spent his life in Tanzania as an exemplary missionary priest.

ABSTRACT

Not-for-profit organisations (NFPOs) rely more on goal attainment and organisational mission than on hierarchy and coercion to obtain cooperation and compliance from their staff.

Leadership's role in these organisations, therefore, involves setting an exemplary model of dedicated service and promoting a service-oriented culture. Organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) significantly promote service-oriented cultures in such organisations. Leaders, both transformational and transactional, influence the behaviours of their followers; transformational leaders, through idealised influence, become role models for their followers, while transactional leaders influence the behaviours of followers through contingent rewards.

This study explored how and to what extent Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) and senior managers promote organisational citizenship behaviours in not-for-profit organisations in Tanzania. The study attempted to find out how role modelling for OCBs influences the subordinate staff's willingness to engage in similar behaviours.

The researcher engaged a phenomenological methodology, using a mixed-method design, to explore the lived experiences of the people involved in NFPOs to find answers to the research questions. Researcher interviewed CEOs, senior managers and subordinate staff to understand their lived experiences. The researcher used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire to understand the transformational and transactional leadership orientations of the CEOs and senior managers.

The study found that CEOs and senior managers promote organisational citizenship behaviours of their subordinates through encouraging specific attitudes and outlook, voluntarism, and collective ownership with boundaries. Role modelling for OCB is effective as a soft influence exerted through showing a good example and walking-the-talk. Subordinate staff emulate the OCB of authentic, competent role models with enthusiasm, consistency, and a positive attitude. Similarly, the idealised influence and proximity of CEOs and senior managers to the subordinates make them effective role models for OCBs. The researcher also found African socio-cultural factors, such as respect for elders and persons in authority, influence role modelling for OCB.

CEOs and senior managers blur the boundaries of leadership styles, leverage on transformational and transactional leadership factors, viz, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, contingent, and non-contingent rewards to promote OCBs. The salient group outcomes of promoting OCB included the organisation gaining capacity for the higher

performance benchmarks, developing a brand name, and facilitating organisational learning and change. Social interactions help role modelling for OCB by facilitating a sense of togetherness, while CEOs/senior managers with a celebrity status become the most influential role model for OCBs.

The study provides some implications for not-for-profit organisations and orientations for future research.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xiv
LIST OF TABLES	xv
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Context of the Study	1
1.2.1 Organisational Management and Leadership	1
1.2.2 Organisational Citizenship Behaviours	3
1.3 Background to the Study	4
1.4 The Need for, and Significance of, this Study	5
1.5 Problem Statement	6
1.6 Aim and Objectives of the Study	7
1.7 Motivation for the Research and Selection of the Topic	8
1.8 Operational Definitions of the Related Themes	8
CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW	12
2.1 Introduction	12
2.2 Themes and Theoretical Review	12
2.2.1 Role Modelling.....	12
2.2.1.1 Role Modelling: What and Why.....	13
2.2.1.2 Social Learning and Role Modelling.....	14
2.2.1.3 Social Interactions and Role Modelling	15
2.2.1.4 Behavioural Change and Role Modelling	16
2.2.1.5 Conditions for Role Modelling.....	17

2.2.2 Leadership Styles and Role Modelling for OCBs	19
2.2.3 The Motivation for Following a Role Model and Engaging in OCB	25
2.2.2 Organisational Citizenship Behaviours	28
2.2.2.1 Importance and Benefits of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours	28
2.2.2.2 Voluntarism and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	31
2.3 Empirical Review	32
2.3.1 Role Modelling for OCBs	32
2.3.1.1 Effectiveness of Role Modelling for OCBs.....	32
2.3.1.2 Social Interactions and Role Modelling	37
2.3.2 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour.....	40
2.3.2.1 Promoting Organisational Citizenship Behaviours	40
2.3.2.2 Transformational and Transactional Leadership Styles and Group Outcomes	43
2.3.2.3 Contingent and Non-contingent Rewards and OCBs.....	44
2.3.2.4 Group outcomes of Promoting OCB	45
2.3.2.5 Voluntarism and Organisational Citizenship Behaviours	47
2.3.2.6 Measures of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours	48
2.4 Synthesis.....	51
CHAPTER 3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	59
3.1 Introduction	59
3.2 Research Questions	59
3.3 The Philosophical Foundation.....	59
3.4 Research Design.....	61
3.4.1 The Methodological Approach	61
3.4.2 Reliability and Validity in Mixed-Method Research.....	63
3.5 Part One - Quantitative Research.....	64
3.5.1 Sample Design.....	64

3.5.2 Sampling Techniques	64
3.5.3 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria	65
3.5.4 Research Instrument Used.....	66
3.5.4.1 The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire	66
3.5.4.2 Validity and Reliability	68
3.5.5 Negotiating Access and Administering the Questionnaire	68
3.5.6 Storing of Data	70
3.5.7 Quantitative Data Analysis	70
3.6 Part Two: Qualitative Research	73
3.6.1 The Phenomenological Approach to the Qualitative Method	74
3.6.2 Validity and Reliability.....	75
3.6.3 Qualitative Sample Design.....	77
3.6.4 Sampling Techniques	77
3.6.5 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria	78
3.6.6 Negotiating Access to Not-for-Profit Organisations	79
3.6.7 Qualitative Data Collection	79
3.6.8 Research Instruments Used	80
3.6.8.1 Interview Schedule	80
3.6.8.2 Checklist.....	82
3.6.8.3 Memos	82
3.6.8.4 Retrospective Data	83
3.6.9 Storing the Data.....	83
3.6.10 Analysing the Data	83
3.7 Research Ethics, Scope and Limitations	84
CHAPTER 4 RESEARCH FINDINGS.....	86
4.1 Introduction	86

4.2 Research Findings: Quantitative Data	86
4.2.1 The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Survey	86
4.2.2 Leadership Orientations of the CEOs and Senior Managers.....	89
4.2.2.1 Transformational Leadership Orientation.....	89
4.2.2.2 Transactional Leadership Orientations	91
4.2.2.3 Passive/Avoidant Behaviours	92
4.2.3 Outcome of Leadership	93
4.2.4 Scores for CEOs and Senior Managers	94
4.2.5 Results of Inferential Analysis of Leadership Scales of MLQ.....	99
4.2.5.1 Results of Mann Whitney U Test	99
4.2.5.2 Results of Friedman ANOVA Test for Dimension Variations	104
4.2.5.3 Results of Cronbach’s Alpha Reliability Analysis	111
4.3 Research Findings: Qualitative Data.....	113
4.3.1 Attitude and Outlook Promoting OCBs	124
4.3.1.1 Being Empathetic	124
4.3.1.2 Equality and Respect	125
4.3.1.3 Transparency	125
4.3.2 Collective Ownership with Boundaries.....	126
4.3.2.1 A Sense of Collective Ownership, Usefulness and Responsibility	126
4.3.2.2 Organisational Democracy	127
4.3.2.3 The Organisational Family Culture	129
4.3.2.4 Organisational Team Culture.....	131
4.3.3 Promoting OCBs through Voluntarism	134
4.3.3.1 Selective Recruitment and Coaching for NFPO Values	134
4.3.3.2 Focusing on Job Outcomes: Doing Good for Humanity	136
4.3.4 Transformational and Transactional Leadership Factors Aiding OCBs.....	138

4.3.4.1 Intellectual Stimulation and Inspirational Motivation.....	138
4.3.4.2 Contingent and Non-Contingent Rewards	141
4.3.4.3 Considering Personal and Socio-cultural Factors	144
4.3.5 Group Outcomes of Promoting OCBs	147
4.3.5.1 Higher Organisational Benchmarks and Brand Name	147
4.3.5.2 Organisational Learning, Unity, Optimism and Willingness to Change	149
4.3.6 Characteristics and Conditions: Role Modelling for OCBs	150
4.3.6.1 Authentic Model vs. Perfect Model.....	150
4.3.6.2 Enthusiasm, Consistency and Routine	151
4.3.6.3 Idealised Influence of the Leader	152
4.3.6.4 Visibility and Proximity	154
4.3.7 Effectiveness of Role Modelling for OCBs	155
4.3.7.1 Role Modelling as Soft Influence.....	155
4.3.7.2 Influencing by Showing a Good Example and ‘Walking-the-Talk’	156
4.3.7.3 Influencing through Harnessing Organisational and Socio-Cultural Factors.	158
4.3.8.1 Celebrity Status	161
4.3.8.2 Sense of Togetherness	161
4.3.9 Challenges and Bottlenecks for Role Modelling for OCBs	164
CHAPTER 5 ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION.....	167
5.1 Introduction	167
5.2 Attitudes and Outlook.....	177
5.2.1 Being Empathetic	177
5.2.2 Equality and Respect.....	177
5.2.3 Transparency	178
5.3 Role Modeling Affecting Attitudes and Outlooks.....	178
5.3.1 An Authentic role model Versus a Perfect Role Model.....	179

5.3.2 Enthusiasm, Consistency and Routine	179
5.3.3 Idealised Influence of a Leader	180
5.3.4 The Visibility and Proximity of the Role Model	181
5.4 Collective Ownership with Boundaries	181
5.4.1 Ownership, Usefulness and Responsibility	181
5.4.2 Organisational Democracy	183
5.4.3 The Organisational Family Culture	184
5.4.4 The Organisational Team Culture	185
5.5 Promoting OCBs through Voluntarism.....	187
5.5.1 Selective Recruitment and Coaching	187
5.5.2 Focusing on Job Outcomes, Doing Good for Humanity	187
5.6 Effectiveness of Role Modelling to Promote OCBs	188
5.6.1 Role Modelling as a Soft Influence	188
5.6.2 Showing a good Example and ‘Walking-the-Talk’	189
5.6.3 Harnessing Organisational and Socio-cultural Factors	190
5.7 Group Outcomes of Promoting OCBs.....	192
5.7.1 Higher Organisational Benchmark and Brand Name.....	192
5.7.2 Organisational Learning, Unity, Optimism and Willingness to Change	192
5.8 Social Interaction and Role Modelling for OCBs.....	194
5.8.1 Celebrity Status	194
5.8.2 Sense of Togetherness	194
5.9 Transformational and Transactional Factors Aiding OCBs.....	196
5.9.1 Intellectual Stimulation and Inspirational Motivation	196
5.9.2 Contingent and Non-Contingent Rewards	198
5.9.3 Considering Personal and Socio-Cultural Factors	199
5.10 Mitigating the Challenges and Bottlenecks.....	200

CHAPTER 6 KEY RESEARCH FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH	202
6.1 Introduction	202
6.2 Summary of Research Findings	202
6.3 Promoting OCBs in NFPOs	204
6.3.1 Promoting OCBs through Attitudes and Outlooks	204
6.3.2 Promoting OCBs through Collective Ownership with Boundaries	204
6.3.3 Promoting OCBs through Voluntarism	205
6.4 Effectiveness of Role Modelling for OCBs	205
6.5 Transformational and Transactional Leadership Factors and Group Outcomes	206
6.6 Use of Contingent and Non-Contingent Rewards to Promote OCBs	207
6.7 Subordinate Staff Emulating the OCBs of CEOs and Senior Managers	207
6.8 Social Interactions and Role Modelling for OCBs	207
6.9 Conclusion and Implications of the Study	208
6.10 Limitations and Future Considerations	217
References	221
Appendix 1: Research Ethics Form	255
Appendix 2: Informed Consent Form	256
Appendix 3: Interview Protocol/Schedule.....	257
Appendix 4: MLQ Questionnaire sample and Permission to use.....	260
Appendix 5: MLQ Manual percentile sample	264
Appendix 6: Examples of Memos, Drawings, and Sketches.....	267
Appendix 7: Audit Trail and Example of ATLAS.ti report	269

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CR	Contingent Reward
EE	Extra Efforts
EFF	Effectiveness
EM	Employee
HRM	Human Resource Management
IC	Individual Consideration
II B	Idealised Influence Behaviour
II A	Idealised Influence Attributed
IM	Inspirational Motivation
IS	Intellectual Stimulation
LF	Laissez-faire
MBEA	Management by Exception (Active)
MBEP	Management by Exception (Passive)
MLQ	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
NFPO	Not-for-Profit Organisation
NGO	Non-governmental Organisation
NGDOs	Non-governmental Development Organisations
OCB	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
SAT	Satisfaction
SM	Senior Manager
STEM	Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics

LIST OF TABLES

<i>Table 1: Comparison of Research Approaches</i>	<i>62</i>
<i>Table 2: Details of the Participants in the MLQ Survey</i>	<i>65</i>
<i>Table 3: Details of the Interview Participants</i>	<i>78</i>
<i>Table 4: MLQ Results for all Participants (CEOs and SMs)</i>	<i>88</i>
<i>Table 5: MLQ Results for CEOs.....</i>	<i>95</i>
<i>Table 6: MLQ Results for Senior Managers</i>	<i>96</i>
<i>Table 7: Internal consistency of leadership scales for CEOs</i>	<i>99</i>
<i>Table 8: Internal consistency of leadership scales for senior managers (SMs).....</i>	<i>99</i>
<i>Table 9: Dimension variations for leadership styles (CEOs & SMs).....</i>	<i>104</i>
<i>Table 10: Pair-wise comparisons for the transformational leadership scales – CEOs.....</i>	<i>105</i>
<i>Table 11: Summary of dimension variations for the transformational leadership scales – CEOs</i>	<i>105</i>
<i>Table 12: Pair-wise comparisons for the transformation leadership style – SMs</i>	<i>107</i>
<i>Table 13: Summary of dimension variations for the transformational leadership scales – SMs</i>	<i>108</i>
<i>Table 14: Pair-wise comparisons for the transactional leadership style – CEOs</i>	<i>110</i>
<i>Table 15: Pair-wise comparisons for the transactional leadership style – CEOs</i>	<i>110</i>
<i>Table 16: Relationship Matrix – Role Modelling for OCBs.....</i>	<i>168</i>
<i>Table 17: Comparative Analysis of OCB Characteristics and the Effectiveness of Role Modelling</i>	<i>208</i>

LIST OF FIGURES

<i>Figure 1: Bar Graph: Leadership Orientations for all Participants</i>	<i>93</i>
<i>Figure 2: Leadership Outcome of CEOs and SMs - Pie Chart.....</i>	<i>94</i>
<i>Figure 3: Bar Graph: MLQ Results for CEOs alone (All raters)</i>	<i>97</i>
<i>Figure 4: Bar Graph: MLQ Results for Senior Managers alone (All raters).....</i>	<i>97</i>

Figure 5: Pie Chart: Leadership Outcomes -CEOs alone..... 98
Figure 6: Pie Chart: Leadership Outcomes Senior Managers alone 98

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This study lies within the broad spectrum of organisational management and leadership, but focuses specifically on the organisational management and leadership of not-for-profit organisations (NFPOs) promoting organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs). The research venue was the United Republic of Tanzania, East Africa.

Modern organisations can be broadly categorised into for-profit and not-for-profit organisations. While the aim of for-profit organisations is to maximise shareholders' profit, NFPOs focus on maximising the provision of goods and services to their stakeholders without expecting a profit. OCBs are beneficial to both for-profit and NFPOs and their members. This study focused on how, and to what extent, the Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) and senior managers (SMs) in NFPOs in Tanzania promote OCBs, as well as the effectiveness of role modelling for OCBs.

1.2 Context of the Study

The study context is organizational management and leadership. This section introduces the concept of organisational citizenship behaviours within this context.

1.2.1 Organisational Management and Leadership

An organisation is a group of people who come together in a structured manner for a particular purpose under a legal framework (Katz & Gartner, 1988). Organisations can be classified into various types, such as corporations, governments, non-governmental organisations, political organisations, international organisations, military organisations, charitable organisations, not-for-profit corporations, partnership organisations, cooperatives and educational organisations. All organisations, irrespective of their types and classification, always have a well-defined structure to facilitate their proper functioning and governance.

Organisational management involves getting people to work together to achieve a common or pre-defined goal, with the optimal use of resources. Organisational management functions include planning, organising, managing time and motivation, staffing, leading and controlling. Managers at various managerial levels coordinate these functions. According to Mintzberg

(1990), there are five parts of an organisation, namely: 1) the strategic apex comprising the leaders of the organisation; 2) the middle line comprising managers at a lower level; 3) the operating core comprising workers of the lowest level, who directly engage in production or service provision; 4) the techno-structure, who are the analysts in the organisation; and 5) the support staff, who help other members of the organisation to perform their functions. According to the levels of management, we can summarise them into top-level, middle-level, and front-line management. Mintzberg (1990) also grouped the managerial roles into three categories of interpersonal, informational and decisional roles. The interpersonal role includes being a figurehead, leader and liaison; the informational role includes being a monitor, disseminator and spokesperson; and the decisional role includes being an entrepreneur, disturbance handler, negotiator and resource allocator.

An overlapping and connected, yet distinct, concept is that of organisational leadership. From the 1930s to the 1950s, leadership approaches focused on traits and the group approach, and considered leadership to be a relationship that developed shared goals. This approach changed to behavioural approaches in the 1960s, before moving to the organisational-behaviour approach in the early 1970s. In the 1980s, transformational leadership gained momentum in the leadership scholarship circle. In the 21st century, notable leadership approaches included authentic leadership, spiritual leadership, servant leadership and adaptive leadership.

Whatever the approaches are, leadership and management are somewhat overlapping concepts, i.e., they have similarities and differences (Dinh et al., 2014; Homer, 1997). Organisational leadership is a process whereby one individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal in an organisation (Adeyemi-Bello, 2001). Leadership as a process resembles management, for example, both management and leadership influence others. Likewise, both management and leadership are concerned with goal attainment. Nevertheless, leadership distinctively differs from management. Kotter (1990) argued that the focus of the management function is the provision of order and consistency, while leadership produces change and movement. Similarly, management seeks order and stability, while leadership produces adaptive and constructive change. Empirical studies have shown an overlap between management and leadership (Anderson & Sun, 2017; Simonet & Tett, 2013), but this depends on how a leader, or manager, influences a group to attain a goal. Leadership can be described as the act of influencing others to work toward a goal (Carpenter, Bauer, & Erdogan, 2018); leaders influence by giving direction, providing inspiration, building teams and setting an

example to be followed (Adair & Thomas, 2004), while managers influence through planning, organising, staffing and controlling.

1.2.2 Organisational Citizenship Behaviours

Irrespective of organisational types and leadership styles, OCBs, as non-enforceable, voluntary and unrewarded actions that drive individuals to support their co-workers and promote the organisation's goals, have gained momentum as an essential human behaviour in the workplace. The importance of OCBs became clear from the proliferation of studies across different disciplines, such as human resource management (Snape & Redman, 2010; Foote & Tang, 2008; Morrison, 1996), business marketing (Harper, 2015; MacKenzie et al., 1993; Moorman & Blakely, 1995), hospital management (Bolon, 1997), psychology (Beauregard, 2012; Bolon, 1997; Penner et al., 1997), and leadership (Connell, 2005; Guay & Choi, 2015; Nahum-Shani & Somech, 2011; Jiao, Richards, & Zhang, 2011; Nahum-Shani & Somech, 2011; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006).

Organ (1988) defined OCBs as the discretionary behaviours of individuals that are not rewarded directly or indirectly, but promote organisational effectiveness. The salient features of Organ's definition of OCBs are its discretionary and non-enforceable character, as it is not an integral part of a job description, and that OCBs contribute positively to overall organisational effectiveness.

Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990) developed a five-factor structure of OCBs using the dimensions of altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtue, which became the building block for further research on OCBs. The dimensions of OCBs vary from scholar to scholar, however the majority now agree on seven: helping behaviours (altruism), sportsmanship, organisational loyalty, organisational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtues and self-development (Dávila & Finkelstein, 2010; Hui, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005; Podsakoff et al., 2014; Podsakoff et al., 2009).

Studies found OCBs to be beneficial in promoting organisational operations and effectiveness (Nemeth & Staw, 1989; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Similarly, OCBs enhance the employee experience in the organisation, and lower turnover intention and actual turnover (Podsakoff, Podsakoff, Whiting, & Blume, 2009). Other benefits of OCBs include a sense of purpose and meaningfulness at work, a feeling of control

(Abdullah & Akhar, 2016), a renewed sense of vigour from doing good for others, improving job performance, and engaging early career workers (Connell, 2005). Promoting OCBs is thus imperative for organisational performance and effectiveness, however it is more significant for not-for-profit organisations because of their sector-specific challenges (Edwards & Fowler, 2002).

1.3 Background to the Study

NFPOs are organised, voluntary, non-governmental, self-governing entities that operate under non-distribution constraints (that is, the profits are utilised only for the mission) to provide social benefits to the public (Salamon, 1994; Salamon & Anheier, 1999). Other terminologies used for NFPOs include 'non-profit', 'voluntary', 'civil society', 'third or independent sector', and 'non-governmental organisations' (Salamon, 1994).

CEOs and senior managers in NFPOs often have diverse leadership roles, functions and sector-specific management challenges. The diverse roles, for instance, include deciding on appropriate organisational design, maintaining leadership competency, appropriate HRM management, managing external relationships, resource mobilisation, measuring organisational performance (Edwards & Fowler, 2002), providing a personalised, rational and aspirational leadership for employees (Hailey, 2006; Hailey & James, 2004), using good technical, interpersonal, conceptual and communication skills to promote the organisational mission and vision (Kearns et al., 2015), spearheading strategic planning for organisational performance, organisational learning, organisational change and promoting innovation within the organisation (Phipps & Burbach, 2010).

There is no consensus regarding which management strategies are best suited for NFPOs to manage the sector-specific challenges and debates are ongoing. Some assert that NFPOs are like for-profit institutions as they employ salaried staff, engage in multinational operations, struggle for resources, and promote corporate accountability. This school of thought proposes the adoption of for-profit management approaches to manage NFPOs (Fernando, Enrique, & Antonio, 2009; Haas & Robinson, 1998; Lindenberg, 2001). Another school of thought argues for different governance and management techniques for NFPOs, as they believe that NFPOs should have a management style and policy of their own because of their unique attributes (Billis & Harris, 1996; Mason, 1996). A third line of thinking is that these two previous debates are not conflicting, but complementary. They call for copying for-profit management systems,

with particular consideration of the unique not-for-profit organisational culture (Jackson, 1997; Lewis, 2002). Irrespective of the current debate on management tactics, NFPOs face unique challenges in the sphere of management and leadership. The definition of not-for-profit management by Edwards and Fowler (2002, p. 4) expressed this concern:

“Management (of OCBs) requires the articulation of a clear and shared vision for the organisation and a set of strategies to achieve it; the mobilisation of all the human, financial and intellectual resources, and external contacts and connections that are required to operate these strategies effectively; and the continuous readjustment of strategy and structure in a changing context, implying an intimate relationship between organisational processes and a dynamic internal and external environment.”

Although the number of leadership studies have grown exponentially, researchers have called for more studies that are unique to the not-for-profit sector (Allison, 2002; Hailey, 2006; Hailey & James, 2004; Rowold, 2009). Considering the fact that extant leadership studies were predominantly conducted in business, political or military settings, as well as in developed countries in the North (Allison, 2002; Hailey, 2006), new studies that are context- and sector-specific are a much-needed contribution to the body of knowledge in the not-for-profit sector, commonly known as the third sector. Promoting organisational citizenship behaviours through leadership and organisational management strategies and techniques that are appropriate for the not-for-profit sector would provide some solutions that mitigate challenges that are pertinent to the sector.

1.4 The Need for, and Significance of, this Study

Not-for-profit organisations play a significant role in the balanced growth of a society by delivering goods and services to the needy, and supporting and amplifying the efforts of governments and public institutions for the welfare of society. NFPOs support economic activities, create jobs and improve citizens' quality of life. The role of NFPOs is more significant in developing countries, where economic and social conditions are often poor.

The geographical scope of this research is the United Republic of Tanzania, which is an example of such a developing country. The researcher selected Tanzania for the study because he works in Tanzania as a missionary priest, thus he could arrange face-to-face interviews with participants and negotiate easier access to NFPOs.

Leadership and management are crucial for any organisation to ensure its efficiency, effectiveness and growth. Leadership roles are even more crucial for NFPOs, where conditions include lower salary scales (Treuren & Frankish, 2014), high donor dependency (Loman, Pop, & Ruben, 2011), and high staff turnover (Moynihan & Pandey, 2008). Promoting organisational citizenship behaviours is a way to achieve organisational goals and objectives when there are limited financial and contingent rewards within the sector. Leading by example or role modelling by leaders of organisations for OCBs should thus have a positive effect on staff motivation, as well as personal and interpersonal relationships. Further research was needed within the not-for-profit sector to understand what factors promote or inhibit the development and practice of OCBs within the sector. This study sheds light on the factors that contribute to following a role model for OCBs, highlighting what promotes OCBs in NFPOs and what makes subordinates imitate the good examples set by CEOs and senior managers.

A significant aspect of this study is that it utilised a phenomenological approach, exploring the lived experiences of the CEOs and senior managers who answered the research questions. This methodological approach enabled the researcher to understand the real-life situation within non-governmental organisations in Tanzania concerning OCBs and role modelling.

1.5 Problem Statement

Not-for-profit leaders rely less on hierarchy, coercion and monetary or other material rewards than for-profit organisations as means to ensure the cooperation and compliance of staff towards goals and objectives (Edwards & Fowler, 2002; Mahalinga & Suar, 2012). As NFPOs are mission-oriented and value-driven, their employees are more likely to respond to personal commitment and satisfaction than to hierarchical management and monetary benefits (Edwards & Fowler, 2002). Not-for-profit management and leadership require skills that enable them to manage competing pressures from the environment, community, donors, staff and volunteers (Hailey & James, 2004). Similarly, in circumstances of financial constraints (Mahalinga & Suar, 2012), reduced job satisfaction (Kang, Huh, Cho, & Auh, 2015) and high employee turnover (Moynihan & Pandey, 2008), NFPO leaders need to provide an exemplary model of dedicated service and foster a service-oriented culture within their organisation (Mahalinga & Suar, 2012). A role model is someone who is worthy of imitation (Merton, 1968), i.e., whose behaviours, achievements and life example inspire others (Schindler, Zink, Windrich, & Menninghaus, 2013), and who provides a template for others to follow (Lockwood, 2006). The assumption is that CEOs and senior managers, as leaders in NFPOs, will promote OCBs by developing a

service-oriented culture. Role modelling involves showing an excellent example of OCBs. Likewise, transformational leaders, through idealised influence, become role models for their followers. An intervention to mitigate these challenges or a problematisation of the situation (i.e., examining the leadership and management scenario) in the not-for-profit sector calls for a transformational leadership that promotes OCBs, which will enhance organisational effectiveness and performance.

This study focused on both national and international NFPOs, investigating how and to what extent CEOs and senior managers promote OCBs and the effectiveness of role modelling for OCBs. The study addressed the following research questions:

- How, and to what extent, do CEOs and senior managers foster and promote OCBs?
- How effective is role modelling for OCBs?

The following sub-questions were asked for further understanding:

- How do CEOs and senior managers utilise transformational or transactional leadership styles to promote OCBs, and what are the group outcomes?
- What contingent and non-contingent rewards do CEOs and senior managers utilise to promote OCBs in not-for-profit organisations, and how?
- How, and to what extent, does role modelling of OCBs by CEOs and senior managers influence the OCBs of other employees?
- How, and to what extent, do the social interactions of CEOs and senior managers influence role modelling for OCBs?

1.6 Aim and Objectives of the Study

The primary aims of the study were to find out how and to what extent CEOs and senior managers in NFPOs promote OCBs, and how effective role modelling for OCBs is.

The secondary aims of the study were to assess:

- how and to what extent not-for-profit leaders use transformational and transactional leadership styles to promote OCBs, and what the group level outcomes are;

- what contingent and non-contingent rewards CEOs and senior managers utilise to promote OCBs in NFPOs, and how;
- how and to what extent the role modelling of OCBs by CEOs and senior managers influence the OCBs of other employees; and
- how and to what extent the social interactions of the CEOs and senior managers influence role modelling and promote OCBs.

1.7 Motivation for the Research and Selection of the Topic

Working as a Catholic priest, the researcher realised that studying theology and philosophy and being ordained by a Bishop did not necessarily make him an excellent manager of the institutions entrusted to his care, i.e., a priest needs to learn management skills to fulfill some of his duties. Witnessing a few religious educational institutions and establishments of higher education performing poorly, or being closed down because of poor management by the priests in Tanzania, strengthened this conviction. The researcher thus embarked on management studies, which led to him enrolling for a Master of Business Administration degree. In his roles as an educationalist, social worker and pastor, the researcher had collaborated with many international and local NFPOs, and had gained insights into the management and functions of these organisations. He found they had some problems and questions that needed answers, as did the NFPO he served on the board of, Foster Africa. His decision to specialise in NFPO management and leadership came from this background. While conducting research for his Masters dissertation, the researcher came across the practice of leading by example (role modelling) for creating expected behaviours among the staff of NFPOs in Tanzania. The researcher thus delved into role modelling for OCBs in NFPOs in Tanzania.

1.8 Operational Definitions of the Related Themes

Behavioural change: This refers to induced changes in the behaviour patterns of an individual or group due to influence from another person, events or interventions (Allen et al., 2005).

CEO: An abbreviation for a chief executive officer, who is the highest-ranking executive in an organisation. He/she is primarily responsible for organisational management and functions as the key link between the employees and the board of directors (Theissen & Theissen, 2020).

Extrinsic motivation: This motivation is external to a person, i.e., the force of motivation comes from forces or things outside of the person (Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000).

Extrinsic reward: Rewards that are external to a person, including rewards that are contingent, such as money, gifts and social recognition (Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000).

Idealised influence: Idealised influence is the ways and behaviours of transformational leaders that make them role models for their followers, who admire, respect and trust these leaders. Followers identify with their leader and their mission and want to emulate them (Bass, 1999).

Individualised consideration: The extent to which a leader will attend to each follower's needs, provide coaching and mentoring, and listen to their concerns. Individualised consideration also includes discussing and empathising with the needs of individual employees (Bass, 1999).

Inspirational motivation: The ability of a leader to inspire confidence, motivation and a sense of purpose in his/her followers. Transformational leaders provide inspirational motivation to their followers by articulating a clear vision for the future. They communicate their expectations to employees and show their commitment to organisational goals (Bass, 1999).

Intellectual stimulation: Intellectual stimulation is the ability of a leader to provide stimuli for their followers to engage in creativity, innovation, critical thinking and finding alternative ways of solving problems (Bass, 1999).

Interpretivism: Interpretivism is the philosophical position holding the reality of being socially constructed, subjective and multiple. The perceptions, actions and experiences of the social actors are part of the reality (Walsham, 1995).

Intrinsic motivation: This motivation is internal to a person, i.e., it does not come from external forces or things (Cerasoli, Nicklin, & Ford, 2014).

Intrinsic reward: Intrinsic rewards denote the satisfaction or sense of fulfilment that comes from within a person. It also means non-contingent rewards (Cerasoli, Nicklin, & Ford, 2014).

Leading by example: To act or perform a duty or dispense one's responsibility within the organisation in such a way that inspires others to follow the same and use it as a term of reference. The term is synonymous with role modelling in this study (Drouvelis & Nosenzo, 2013).

Not-for-profit organisations: This blanket term is used to denote all organisations that do not share their profits with members, owners or stakeholders. The income earned by, or donated to, OCBs is used entirely for pursuing organisational goals and objectives, and the running and maintenance of the organisation (Salamon, 1994).

Organisational citizenship behaviours: The behaviours or actions of an employee that are voluntary, i.e., not part of his/her job description, which promote organisational goals and objectives, but do not earn rewards (Organ, 1988).

Positivism: The philosophical position that holds that the reality is external, objective and independent of social actors (Creswell, 2013).

Post positivism: This philosophical position argues that reality is objective and independent of social actors, however it is interpreted through social conditionings (Creswell, 2013).

Pragmatism: This philosophical position holds that reality is both external and multiple. The research questions determine the view of reality (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Role model: A person who is worthy of imitation by others for their acceptable actions or behaviours within an organisation (Shapiro, Haseltine, & Rowe, 1978).

Role modelling: Denotes the conscious or unconscious behaviour of someone who inspires others to imitate his or her excellent example (Shapiro, Haseltine, & Rowe, 1978).

Senior managers: The employees of an organisation who hold a middle-level managerial position such as departmental heads, operations managers and assistant chief executive officers (Auster & Choo, 1994).

Social interactions: The extent to which the relationships between CEOs and senior managers and their subordinate staff are characterised by close, informal relationships that go beyond their formal work routines (Bouckennooghe et al., 2014).

Social learning theory: This theory, first proposed by Albert Bandura (1971), claims the ability of human beings to learn behaviours and actions from each other through observation, imitation and modelling.

Subordinates: Subordinates are those employees of an organisation without managerial positions (Failla & Stichler, 2008).

The third sector: A popular term used to denote the not-for-profit sector (Salamon, 1994).

Transactional leadership: A leadership approach whereby a leader negotiates rewards with their followers for the tasks or responsibilities they undertake (Bass, 1999).

Transformational leadership: A leadership approach that affects positive change in individuals and social systems. When enacted in its authentic form, transformational leadership enhances the follower's motivation, morale and performance through a variety of mechanisms (Bass, 1999).

Voluntarism: The theoretical stand that individuals are ultimately free to choose their goals and objectives, and that they can decide a course of action to achieve them without being forced. Voluntarism also means engaging in activities voluntarily, without being forced and without expecting personal benefits (Wright, 1915).

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Chapter Two presents the literature review for the study. Part one introduces the themes and theories related to the research topic, while part two empirically reviews, documents, analyses and evaluates the available empirical knowledge related to the research problem.

The research attempted to validate the literary interpretations about role modelling/leading by example for OCBs. This was done by summarising existing pieces of evidence that are pertinent to the practice of role modelling, OCBs, and other related themes within the study.

This literature review provides an overview and synthesis of the relevant sources explored in this study; identifies the knowledge gap; and introduces the terminology, conceptual framework and methodology used in the study. The following general questions guided the review:

- What is role modelling/leading by example for OCBs?
- What is the significance of OCBs (for both for-profit and OCBs)?
- How efficient is role modelling for OCBs?
- What are the related themes of role modelling and OCBs?
- What leadership orientation of CEOs and senior managers helps promote OCBs in NFPOs?

2.2 Themes and Theoretical Review

The themes and theoretical aspects uncovered in the literature review include the theories, concepts and themes related to the phenomenon of role modelling/leading by example for OCBs. The review provides insights into the theoretical dimensions of the related topics and provides a guide for an empirical literature review.

2.2.1 Role Modelling

This section introduces the concept of role modeling, the conditions for role modeling, the motivation to follow a role model, as well as the themes, theories and leadership styles related to role modeling.

2.2.1.1 Role Modelling: What and Why

Role modelling is the conscious or unconscious behaviour of someone who inspires others to imitate his or her excellent example. The term 'role model', first used by sociologist Robert K. Merton, means a person who is worthy of imitation by others for good actions or behaviours within an organisation (Merton, 1968). While studying social groups, Merton found that people imitate the behaviours of persons occupying specific roles within society. He called these individuals whose behaviours were worthy of imitation, "*role models*". Similarly, role modelling involves a role aspirant, i.e., "*an individual who makes active, although not necessarily always conscious, choices about in whose footsteps to follow based on their own values and goals*" (Morgenroth & Ryan, 2015, p. 2).

Researchers define role models according to the functions they provide for role aspirants. A role model, according to Gauntlett (2003, p. 211), is "*someone to look up to and base one's character, values and aspirations on*". Role modelling for OCBs involve inspiring role aspirants to engage in OCBs, and making them believe it is worthwhile to do so.

A role model also functions as a template of necessary behaviours to achieve a perceived success or achievement (Lockwood, 2006), and facilitates role aspirants learning a skill or behaviour (Bar Nir et al., 2011; Sealy & Singh, 2010). A study by Bar Nir et al. (2011) explored the efficacy of role models for learning and encouraging entrepreneur behaviours, and found that role models effectively influence entrepreneurs' career intentions, particularly among women. A study by Sealy and Singh (2010) provided evidence that female role models help with work identity formation amongst senior women in organisations. In this sense, role modelling for OCBs means providing a template for engaging in the behaviours and facilitating the skills or behaviours that promote the OCBs of the role aspirants.

Morgenroth and Ryan (2015, p. 4) presented a theory of role modelling in which they combined the three functions of a role model. For these researchers, role models are "*individuals who influence role aspirants' achievements, motivation, and goals by acting as behavioral models, representations of the possible, and/or inspirations*". Therefore, role modelling for OCBs by CEOs and senior managers means influencing and motivating the role aspirants (subordinate staff) to engage in OCBs by functioning as behavioural models, facilitating learning what is needed to engage in OCBs, and convincing them it is possible and worth engaging in OCBs.

For the not-for-profit sector, role modelling for OCBs by CEOs and senior managers would be appealing and beneficial because through role modelling, CEOs and senior managers can

influence and motivate subordinates to engage in OCBs without providing direct instructions (Farrukh, Lee, Sajid, & Waheed, 2019). Similarly, role modelling for OCBs would be more effective in stimulating the OCBs of the subordinate staff within OCBs, because studies have shown that employees in not-for-profit respond better when leaders facilitate cooperation and compliance without coercion and hierarchical interventions (Edwards & Fowler, 2002; Mahalinga & Suar, 2012). Role modelling for OCBs thus involves presenting a template for a desired behaviour and inviting others to follow without coercion and/or hierarchical intervention.

Studies have shown that role models motivate young people to go for ambitious goals (Morgenroth, Ryan, & Peters, 2015) and also influence women's career choices (Quimby & Santis, 2006). Hence, good role models influence what a person does and how he/she turns out. The study presumes that when CEOs and senior managers become role models of engaging in OCBs, they can influence and motivate their subordinate staff to engage in similar behaviours. A role model could be positive or negative; positive role models influence people's actions and motivate them to realise their potential in overcoming their weaknesses, whereas negative role models often function as an example of what one ought not to be.

2.2.1.2 Social Learning and Role Modelling

Role modelling is closely associated with social learning, as human beings instinctively learn socially. The social learning theory of Bandura (1971) states that people learn from one another via observation, imitation and modelling, i.e., humans learn best when they observe the behaviours of others and are driven to act. Bandura found that individuals are active observers of their environments, which leads to imitation. This imitation is part of a complex process of determining both the causes and consequences of the behaviour in question. Bandura's work was an essential step in understanding how humans actively learn from others instead of merely responding to their environments (Bandura, 1971; 1974). Based on the same theory, the researcher presumed that the display of OCBs by CEOs and senior managers would influence the OCBs of their subordinates. From the perspective of social learning theory, a role aspirant learns from a role model to engage in OCBs through a concrete experience and/or encounter with a role model engaging in OCBs (Sternberg & Zhang, 2014). Through role modelling, CEOs and senior managers facilitate subordinate staff seeing and experiencing them engaging in OCBs. A role aspirant can also learn to engage in OCBs not through a direct encounter, but through an examination of underlying assumptions about OCBs that leads to a change in

attitude and behaviours (Mezirow, 1997). Mezirow (1997) asserted that adults always learn through their frames of reference, including associations, concepts, values, feelings and conditioned responses. Through these frames of reference, an adult moves from one specific activity (mental or behavioural) to another and rejects ideas that cannot fit into those frames of reference, labeling those activities outside the frames of reference as unworthy of consideration, nonsense, or irrelevant. Here, the role modelling for OCBs facilitates or causes the subordinate staff to examine their underlying assumptions/frames of reference and change their attitudes and behaviours, preferring to engage in OCBs.

2.2.1.3 Social Interactions and Role Modelling

Social learning theory stipulates that an individual can learn through social interactions (Hurst et al., 2013). These interactions could be either between individuals or between individuals and institutions, cultures, or the collective norms (Friedkin, 1998). In both cases, social interactions influence individuals' opinions and views (Stevenson & Greenberg, 2000). This influence can occur either on a one-on-one direct contact basis (Erikson, 1998), or through contact with an embedded wider social network structure (Prell et al., 2010).

Social interaction can facilitate information transmission and deliberations. For example, a study by Newig et al. (2010) proposed that network governance facilitated through social interactions promotes collective learning through information transmission and deliberations.

Information transmission is a free exchange of ideas, facts, or knowledge, while deliberations involve the exchange of ideas/knowledge/facts through persuasion or arguments that lead to a change in one's perceptions, opinion or ideas (Rist et al., 2007). CEOs and senior managers as role models for OCBs can become ideal facilitators of new learning (of engaging in OCBs) through the social interactions with subordinate staff, facilitating at the same time learning through information transformation and/or deliberations.

Another aspect of social learning is that social units learn and facilitate certain organisational learning, as opposed to many individuals learning independently (Armitage et al., 2008). The implications of a study by Armitage et al. (2008) are that for social units to learn, there should be capacity building for social unit members; there should be a proper way of recognising and mitigating various associated risks in the learning process; and adequate incentives need to be used to motivate the social units to learn. Individuals, in this context, learn through their positive experience of active involvement within the group (Benn, 2000). When many individuals engage with the group and learn through their positive experiences, they collectively learn and

develop a sense of ‘group thinking’ (Janis, 1989), or the so-called “*wisdom of the crowds*” (Solomon, 2006). An individual needs to be positively associated with such social units if they are to gain from that organisational learning. Negative experiences within the group will make the individual reject or keep away from the group, and not use the group learning. The social interactions of CEOs and senior managers as role models for OCBs would first, therefore, facilitate a positive or negative experience for the subordinate staff, and motivate them to become an active emulator of such behaviour within the group or detach from the group. Second, the social interactions of the CEOs and senior managers as role models for OCBs will facilitate group learning and produce certain group outcomes.

2.2.1.4 Behavioural Change and Role Modelling

Role modelling for OCBs by CEOs and senior managers presumes a behavioural change in the role aspirants (subordinate staff). Social learning theory holds that humans learn behaviours through observation and that it can be changed or unlearned (Bandura, 1974). Social cognitive theory, as well as the expanded version of social learning theory, stipulates that a behavioural change involves symbolising, forethought, vicarious learning, self-regulation and self-reflection (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003). Through the capacity to symbolise, human beings adapt their behaviours to their environments by ascribing meaning, form and duration to their experiences.

The capacity of forethought allows human beings to self-regulate their behaviours by anticipating the consequences of their behaviours. The capacity of vicarious learning allows humans to learn through observing the behaviours of others and the consequences of their behaviours. The ability to self-regulate helps to start self-set standards for behaviours, self-evaluate the consequences of the behaviours, and act accordingly. Through self-reflection, one thinks about and analyse one’s experiences and thought processes, and changes and adapts their behaviours accordingly. Effective role modelling for OCBs expects a change of behaviour as the subordinate staff emulate the behaviours of the CEOs and senior managers. Theoretically, therefore, the CEOs and senior managers, as effective role models of OCBs, should be exemplary in engaging in these behaviours, providing meaning, form and duration of experience (of engaging in OCBs). Likewise, they should be capable of stimulating in subordinate staff a desire to engage in OCBs, facilitate vicarious learning about OCBs, encourage self-regulation and self-reflection regarding OCBs, and propel the subordinate staff to engage in OCBs.

Social learning and social cognitive theories help to understand how role modelling by CEOs and senior managers can elicit similar behaviours among their subordinates. However, these theories are limited to show how this newly learned behaviour could be sustained so that the subordinate staff continue to engage in OCBs. According to the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), a core factor for a lasting human behavioural change is behavioural intention. This comprises an individual's attitude towards the behaviour, his/her belief about the reaction of others to that behaviour, and the perceived control over that behaviour. Role modelling by CEOs and senior managers would effect a lasting behavioural change if their role modelling effects a positive and meaningful intention of engaging in OCBs (Reckwitz, 2002), and if they can convince the subordinate staff that the newly learned behaviour enriches their lives (Dreier, 2009).

Similarly, if the social learning takes place within a social unit, and if the role modelling for OCBs is directed to the social unit, then the behavioural change and sustained repetition of that behaviour could be explained by social practice theory. Social practice theory emphasises an individual's attitudes, values and beliefs embedded within repetitive social practices (Reckwitz, 2002), and not merely the intention of engaging in a behaviour. However, the focus of this study is not social units, but subordinate staff as individuals.

2.2.1.5 Conditions for Role Modelling

A condition for effective role modelling involves exemplifying specific characteristics consistently and routinely. A study by Weaver, Trevino and Agle (2005) showed that business success was irrelevant in identifying role models for ethical behaviour; what was significant for role modelling was consistency in showing the exemplified ethical behaviours. Another condition for effective role modelling is that the role aspirant should feel that the example set by the role model is attainable. Hoyt (2013) demonstrated that extremely successful role models could cause a deflating impact on role aspirants with low self-efficacy if desired success seems unattainable. Such role models, despite having the potential to be imitated on account of their perceived success, can decrease the expectancy of following them (Hoyt, Burnette, & Innella, 2012; Hoyt & Simon, 2011).

Hoyt et al. (2012) found that role models provide greater confidence and performance ability among those who believe that leaders are made (incremental theorists), compared to those who believe that leaders are born (entity theorists), when presented with a leadership task. Hoyt and Simon (2011), similarly, found in a laboratory study that the inspirational effect of elite female

role models is negative on women who believe in a stereotypical self-image of women that they cannot achieve higher leadership positions. However, the same role models have a positive and strong impact on women who disconfirm the negative stereotype. Therefore, although a role model's success may embody a role aspirant's goal, it need not motivate the role aspirant to aim for it. The good examples of such successful role models should increase the expectancy of the role aspirants, if role models to become effective and/or inspiring role models (Hoyt et al., 2012; Lockwood & Kunda, 1997).

There are popularly held qualities of a role model that function as conditions/stimuli for effective role modelling. These include:

Displaying hard work: A useful role model shows hard work and pitches in whenever their staff need help. Showing commitment to hard work and dedication to the organisational goals helps to become a useful role model. A study by Ambrozy et al. (1997) found that a display of enthusiasm and love for their work (with clinical reasoning as a competency) was the most influential determinant of accepting a role model.

Building trust: Leaders who are effective role models build trust among their followers. Personal qualities such as fairness, honesty, consistency in decision-making and actions, and avoiding gossip have been shown to build trust among employees. A study by Hawes and Rich, (1998) is an example of how trust works in coaching sales representatives, i.e., mentors first build trust and then become an effective role model for selling and sales management.

Positivity: Promoting a positive attitude in times of challenges makes a leader a powerful role model for their team. A phenomenological study by Perry (2009) of nursing students found that they considered maintaining an optimistic attitude to be the most fundamental factor for role model effectiveness.

Persistence and Integrity: Being steady in facing obstacles or difficulties proves to team members that they can count on their leaders in tough times. Similarly, effective role models display integrity of character. A role model leader follows the rules and regulations that they want others to follow, for example, being punctual, productive and following organisational policies and procedures. A study of adolescent secondary school students by Sanderse (2013) found teacher's moral integrity as an important factor for students to accept the teacher as a role model for moral character. In order to be effective role models for OCBs, the CEOs and senior managers in NFPOs need to facilitate the necessary conditions and environments. The effectiveness of role modelling for OCBs depends on how these conditions are met, and how

the role aspirants accept or reject the role models for OCBs within these conditions.

2.2.2 Leadership Styles and Role Modelling for OCBs

A good deal of leadership theories have emerged in the last three decades, however the prominent leadership theories that have gained momentum among scholars include transformational leadership, transactional leadership, authentic leadership, servant leadership, leader member exchange theories, collective/shared leadership, spiritual leadership theories and e-leadership theories (Avolio et al., 2009; Dinh et al., 2014).

Transformational leadership (Bass, 1999) characterises the leadership behaviour that inspires followers to go beyond expectations, transcend self-interest, and help followers to become future transformational leaders for the benefit of the organisation. Salient components of transformational leadership styles include idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration. Transactional leadership (Bass, 1999) uses rewards and punishments as a mechanism to encourage compliance from followers. Characteristics of transactional leadership include contingent rewards, management by exemption (active), and management by exemption (passive). Authentic leadership (Luthans & Avoli, 2003) is characterised by the transparent and ethical behavioural patterns of the leader, which promotes openness in the sharing of information and accepting inputs from followers in decision-making. Basic components of authentic leadership include balanced processing, an internalised moral perspective, relational transparency and self-awareness (Yalumba et al., 2008; Avolio, Walumbwa & Weber, 2009).

Russel and Stone (2002) distinguished servant leadership from other leadership styles by focusing on the functional and accompanying attributes of the servant leader. The functional attributes of a servant leader include being honest, service-oriented, a role model, and appreciating and empowering others. The accompanying attributes of the servant leader include good communication and listening skills, being credible and competent, encouraging others, being a teacher and delegating. For Spears (2004), salient features of a servant leader include listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualisation, foresight, stewardship, commitment and building community.

The leader-member exchange theory of leadership focuses on developing an effective relationship between leaders and followers, resulting in mutual, growing leader-member influence (Uhl Bien, 2006). Some researchers have criticised this theory for its myriad ad hoc measurement scales (Yukl, 2000) that lack objective measures of performance, however

(Erdogan & Liden, 2002).

E-leadership involves leading people or virtual teams from different departments or organisations using modern means of communication (Avolio, 2001). The proponents of e-leadership seek to understand how the leadership functions of communication, role clarification, team development and work execution take place, and how they differ when leaders move away from traditional means of communication to mass media communications (Zaccaro & Bader, 2003). The shared/collective/distributed leadership style involves sharing the leadership capacity among team members throughout the life of the team. This sharing of capacity produces obvious patterns of reciprocal influence among the members over time, which further strengthen and develop the relationships between team members (Carson et al., 2003). Pearce and Conger (2003, p. 1) defined shared/collective/distributed leadership as “*a dynamic, interactive influence process among individuals in groups for which the aim is to lead one another to the achievement of group or organizational goals or both. This influence process often involves peer, or lateral, influence and at other times involves upward or downward hierarchical influence*”.

A core component of the transformational leadership style, idealised influence, makes the leader a role model for their followers (Bass, 1999; Avolio et al., 2009). This core component is closely connected to this study as it investigates the effectiveness of role modelling for OCBs. Similarly, transformational leadership empowers followers to go beyond their expectations for the good of the organisation (Bass, 1999). Going beyond the call of duty or what is expected of an employee for the good of the organisation is like organisational citizenship behaviour, which is another core component of this study. Therefore, an investigation into role modelling for OCBs needs to consider what transformational leadership behaviours/styles would contribute to promoting the OCBs of subordinate staff. Including the transactional leadership style helped the researcher to compare these two leadership styles and understand how these contribute to promoting OCBs. Other leadership styles could also have been worthy of consideration in the study. For instance, servant leadership has a component of leaders being role models, and investigating this style would help to promote the OCBs of subordinate staff, thereby adding value to the study. Limitations of time, resources and scope limited the researcher to select only the transformational and transactional leadership styles for investigation. The assumption of the study that not-for-profit organisational leadership calls for a transformational leadership style that motivate the subordinate staff, and the availability of a ready-to-use measurement scale that is well accepted within the scholarly community, were additional reasons to investigate

only the transformational and transactional styles.

2.2.2.1 Transformational Leadership

The credit for developing the theory of transformational leadership (TL), which forms an integral part of the Full Range Leadership Model, belongs to Bass and his colleagues (Bass, 1995; 1996; 1999; Bass & Bass, 2008). A transformational leader is defined in terms of his/her influence on their followers and the corresponding feelings that these followers have towards the leader. A transformational leader motivates his/her followers to transcend their own self-interests and do more than what they are expected to do for the organisation by focusing on the job outcome (Bass, 1996). The corresponding emotions that followers feel towards their leader include trust, admiration, loyalty and respect (Barbuto, 2005).

Four distinguishing behaviours, commonly called dimensions, distinguish the transformational leadership style from other leadership styles. These four dimensions, commonly accepted by researchers, include idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration (Bass, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bass, Avolio, Jung & Berson, 2003; Sosik & Megerian, 1999).

Idealised Influence: Transformational leaders exercise idealised influence on their followers by being role models and displaying other positive qualities that their followers attribute to them (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Transformational leaders affect idealised influence on their followers by building confidence and trust, and by being role models (Bono & Judge, 2004). A study by Bass, Avolio, Jung and Burson (2003) found that transformational leaders, through their idealised influence, become persons who are admired, respected and trusted by their followers. Idealised influence is aligned with charisma (Gellis, 2001), thus transformational leaders are also called charismatic leaders. Idealised influence from qualities attributed to the leader by the followers becomes the charisma of the transformational leader (Kelly, 2003). The idealised influence of the transformational leader due to their behaviour is the role modelling for followers (Brown et al., 2017). The transformational leader becomes role model for the followers when the leader displays self-confidence, leadership skills, and authenticity in behaviours (Gardner, Lowe, Moss, Mahoney & Coglisier, 2010). Good communication and social interaction skills are other behavioural attributes of a transformational leader that contribute to the idealised influence of the leader (Avolio, 1999, Bass, 2008).

Bass and Avolio (1995) listed four assertions that measure and understand the idealised influence (attributed) of the transformational leader: instilling pride in others for being

associated with him/her; going beyond self-interest for the good of the group; acting in ways that builds others' respect for him/her; and displaying a sense of power and confidence (Bass & Avolio, 1995). Another four assertions measure idealised influence (behaviour), i.e., the leader talks about his/her most important values and beliefs; specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose; considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions; and emphasises the importance of having a collective sense of mission. Applying the component of idealised influence when promoting OCBs in NFPOs would imply that CEOs and senior managers leverage their idealised influence on their subordinate staff to encourage, promote and sustain those behaviours. The CEOs and senior managers themselves become role models for OCBs through their engagement in the OCBs.

Inspirational Motivation: Transformational leaders instil and inspire a vision in their followers and lead the organisation to higher levels of achievement. While the target of idealised influence is individuals, inspirational motivation targets the organisation. Transformational leaders provide inspirational motivation for their followers and the organisation by being optimistic, challenging and articulating an appealing and inspiring vision for the organisation (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). The transformational leader provides meaning to the task at hand by showing their followers what is right and relevant, and how to achieve that. They also enhance and promote positive expectations within the organisation. Through inspirational motivation, the transformational leader makes their followers part of the organisational culture and environment (Stone, Russell & Patterson, 2003). Inspirational motivation provides the followers a sense of developing a better and alternative future for their organisation and for themselves (Bass, Avolio, Jung & Berson, 2003). In measuring the inspirational motivation of transformational leaders, Bass and Avolio (1995) asserted that a transformational leader: 1) talks optimistically about the future; 2) talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished; 3) expresses an interesting vision of the future; and 4) expresses confidence that goals can be achieved.

Using inspirational motivation to promote OCBs among subordinate means CEOs and senior managers provide an interesting vision about the organisation, talk enthusiastically about the benefit of engaging in OCBs for the benefit of the organisation, and show the subordinate staff what needs to be done to promote OCBs.

Intellectual Stimulation: Transformational leaders stimulate creative ideas and values in their followers (Bass & Avolio, 1995), as intellectual stimulation by a leader motivates followers to

find alternative solutions to problems (Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003). To stimulate followers to pursue new ways of solving organisational problems and challenges, transformational leaders encourage their followers to question the existing norms and practices without fearing ridicule or punitive consequences because of a failed attempt at creativity (Stone, Russel & Patterson, 2003). Intellectual stimulation also means that the leader does not impose his/her own ideas on their followers (Semic, 2003), but rather a collective, consensus solution is brought forward to solve a challenge or a problem (Barbuto, 2005). Intellectual stimulation encourages followers to question their existing assumptions, values and beliefs; the leader accepts and solicits ideas from his/her subordinates, promoting creativity and innovation.

Bass and Avolio (1995) used the following assertions to examine the component of intellectual stimulation provided by the transformational leader: 1) TL re-examines critical assumptions to questions when appropriate; 2) TL seeks differing perspectives when solving problems; 3) TL gets others to look at problems from many angles; and 4) TL suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments. Using intellectual stimulation to promote the OCBs of subordinate staff means challenging the status quo of going about the normal daily activities of the organisation, encouraging staff to go beyond the ordinary, and engaging in OCBs that help the organisation or their colleagues. This means that TL will encourage and promote creativity and innovation to promote OCBs.

Individualised Consideration: The transformational leader provides individual consideration that ensures that every individual follower is involved and takes part in the transformational process that the leader envisions for the organisation (Semic, 1998). A transformational leader treats every follower individually and differently according to their talents, capabilities and efficiency (Shin & Zhou, 2003). Provision of this personal consideration to their followers is given through coaching and mentoring (Bass & Riggio, 2006). A transformational leader understands the developmental needs of their subordinates, provides opportunities, and develops an organisational culture that supports developing their potential. These leaders provide opportunities and promote a corporate culture that supports the growth and development of individuals associated with them. The individual consideration that a transformational leader provides for their followers through coaching and mentoring helps them to achieve higher levels of professional and personal growth that otherwise would not have been possible (Chekwa, 2001).

Bass and Avolio (1995) measured the components of individual consideration of TL through

the following representative assertions: 1) TL spends time on teaching and coaching; 2) TL treats every member individually and not as a member of a group; 3) TL recognises the needs, abilities and aspirations of every individual; and 4) TL helps every individual to develop his/her strengths.

2.2.2.2 Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership (TS) is another integral part of the Full Range Leadership Model proposed by Bass (1999). Transactional leaders encourage compliance among followers through rewards and punishments. The focus of transactional leadership is on supervision, organisation and performance, while the characteristics include extrinsic motivation, practicality and resistance to change. These leaders discourage independent thinking (creativity), provide rewards for performance, promote passiveness, and give detailed directives for follower behaviours/functions (Avolio & Bass, 2002). Bass and Avolio (1999) described transactional leadership in terms of contingent rewards and management by exemption (both active and passive), i.e., transactional leaders provide contingent, constructive and corrective rewards, intervene to correct errors, and promote structures and processes that sustain routine.

In the Full Range Leadership Model, Bass (1999) argued that transformational leadership builds on transactional leadership. Scholarly literature reveals that some researchers have proposed a leadership style that is a blend of both the transactional and transformational leadership styles (Gellius, 2001; Bryant, 2003). Gellius (2001) argued that all four transformational leadership factors together with contingent reward predict leadership effectiveness. Similarly, Bryant (2003) argued that while transformational leadership may help create knowledge for the competitive advantage of the organisation, the transactional leadership style helps to exploit that knowledge for the benefit of the organisation. Transactional leadership is useful at the middle management level in large organisations (Avolio & Bass, 2002). The successful completion of an agreed task results in rewards that include both contingent and non-contingent rewards. Similarly, a failure to complete the agreed tasks results in punishment or penalties, including withholding legitimate contingent rewards. Transactional leadership is useful in motivating teams to maximise productivity, promote coordination through the chain of command and increase productivity with lower costs, and is simple to implement.

Bass and Avolio (1995) measured the transactional leadership style through contingent reward and management by exemption (both active and passive). Contingent rewards work on an exchange model in which the leader provides rewards for good work or positive outcomes.

Similarly, transactional leadership hands down contingent punishments when there are negative outcomes or subordinate staff cannot meet the expectations (Odumeru & Ogbonna, 2013). Management-by-exception (active) occurs when managers continuously look at a subordinate's work and make corrections, while management-by-exception (passive) occurs when managers wait for issues to arise before fixing them. Assertions for contingent rewards include: 1) TS provides assistance in exchange for efforts; 2) TS discusses specific terms for achieving performance goals; 3) TS makes clear what can one expect to receive when performance goals are achieved; and 4) TS expresses satisfaction when expectations are met. Assertions for management-by-exception (active) include the following: 1) TS focuses his/her attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from standard; 2) TS concentrates on dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures; 3) TS keeps track of subordinates' mistakes; and 4) TS directs subordinates' attention to their mistakes. The assertions for management-by-exception (passive) include: 1) TS cannot interfere until the problem becomes serious; 2) TS waits until things go wrong before taking action; 3) TS shows a belief that "*if it is not broken, don't fix it*"; and 4) TS shows that problems must be chronic before taking action. Applying the transactional leadership style to promote organisational citizenship behaviour through role modelling would imply incorporating certain transactional elements for promoting OCBs, even though OCB itself does not include an element of transactional benefit.

2.2.3 The Motivation for Following a Role Model and Engaging in OCB

Motivation clarifies what moves people into action and why someone directs his/her action in a particular direction and not another. Motivation involves a recurring pattern of desire, frequent engagement, as well as developing a particular desire to perform or engage in an action on a particular occasion (Baumeister, 2016). Promoting OCBs means that CEOs and senior managers instil in their subordinates a frequent and recurring desire to engage in OCBs, as well as creating in them a desire to engage in OCBs on particular occasions. Role modelling for OCBs enhances the desire and frequency of engagement. Motivation can be described as a want that is sustained by a like (Berridge et al., 2009). In this sense, understanding how CEOs and senior managers promote OCBs through role modelling includes how they make the subordinate staff want to engage in OCB and sustain that want through enjoying engaging in it.

The motivation to follow a role model emerges from the positive or negative influence that a role model exerts on the role aspirants' actions and behaviours. For instance, a study by Lockwood, Jordan and Kunda (2002) showed that role models motivate role aspirants to unlock

potential, overcome weakness and achieve higher life goals. Such influential outcomes are a positive influence that motivates a role aspirant to follow the actions of a role model. Similarly, when one's actions are motivated by goal achievement, positive role models provide higher standards to strive for or compare oneself with for self-improvement and overcoming adversity (Carver & Scheier, 1981). For individuals who are success-inspired and goal-oriented, a role model provides an example of excellent strategy and desirable outcomes, while a negative role model provide prevention strategies to avoid potential failures (Lockwood et al., 2002; Lockwood & Kunda, 1997).

Motivation to follow a role model could be intrinsic or extrinsic. A person who is intrinsically motivated engages in an activity because he/she is interested in that activity and enjoys it, while an extrinsically motivated person engages in an activity because of an instrumental or other reason such as a reward, praise or recognition (Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000). Hence, an intrinsically motivated person will follow a role model for OCBs because he/she is interested in OCBs and enjoys engaging in them, whereas an extrinsically motivated person might follow a role model for OCBs for contingent or non-contingent rewards or for other reasons, not because he/she likes OCBs and enjoys engaging in them.

Motivation for action and one's self image, values and goals are closely connected (Brunstein, 2010). Such motivation is called explicit motivation. The motivation to follow a role model for OCBs becomes explicit if the role aspirant finds that the role model embodies his/her self-image, value or goals. For instance, a study by Thomas, Dickson and Bliese (2001) found that leaders hold the values of the group that they lead more strongly than their followers, and followers consider them as role models and imitate their behaviours because they embody values that they like to identify themselves with. Another study, similarly, found that role aspirants are motivated to follow a role model when the role aspirant has the desire to align their values and goals with those of the role model (Taylor, Wayment, & Carrillo, 1996).

Effective role modelling for OCBs assumes that CEOs and senior managers inspire and motivate their subordinate staff to follow their good example of engaging in OCBs. The intent is to motivate the subordinate staff to engage in OCBs in recurring and frequent patterns. From the perspective of the subordinate staff, they emulate such behaviours because of the positive or negative influence that the CEOs and senior managers exert as role models, or they are motivated intrinsically or extrinsically by the good example of CEOs and senior managers (the role models). However, the CEO or senior manager, as a role model (for OCB), needs to

embody a self-image, value or goal that a subordinate staff member likes to identify themselves with.

The motivation to follow a role model for OCBs and emulate similar behaviours could be influenced by intrinsic and/or extrinsic rewards. Studies have shown that both types of rewards influence human behaviours at work (Pinder, 2014). These intrinsic and extrinsic rewards guide, direct or intensify human behaviour (Kanfer, Chen, & Pritchard, 2012). Extrinsically motivated behaviours come from the desire to gain external rewards, whereas people engage in intrinsically motivated behaviours for their own sake (Frey, 1994).

Intrinsic motivation could also be a reward when individuals feel rewarded by engaging in certain activities, even though they do not provide tangible material rewards. These are non-contingent rewards. These intrinsic rewards could include a desire for personal achievement, professional growth, and a feeling of work satisfaction and accomplishment. Extrinsic rewards are contingent or physical rewards that employees receive, which are either monetary or non-monetary (Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000). Examples of external rewards include increased salaries, perks, bonuses, awards, or public recognition.

Cerasoli, Nicklin and Ford (2014) established through their meta-analysis study that motivation and extrinsic incentives are related to employee performance in organisations. Extrinsic rewards are a powerful motivator for employee performance when the quantity of performance is related to those rewards, whereas intrinsic rewards/motivation are stronger when external rewards are not directly connected to performance. Similarly, the quality of performance is strongly related to intrinsic rewards. When external rewards are not directly attached to performance, intrinsic motivation is more linked to behaviours that promote performance. In contrast, intrinsic rewards make the employee feel they are in control and that they have contributed to the organisation (Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000).

Organisational citizenship behaviour itself becomes an intrinsic reward when the individual, if engaged, has the rewarding experience of contributing to the organisation. However, an individual can decide to engage in OCBs for reasons of extrinsic rewards as well. Similarly, CEOs and senior managers can promote OCBs by providing contingent or non-contingent rewards, depending on what motivates the most subordinate staff. Therefore, when promoting OCBs in order to effectively influence subordinate staff through role modelling, CEOs and senior managers needs to consider what contingent and non-contingent rewards motivate them.

2.2.2 Organisational Citizenship Behaviours

Employee behaviours are those behaviours that cater to the professional aspects of the organisation and contribute to shaping the social and psychological environment of the organisation. The first category of behaviours is task operation, while the latter category is the OCBs. Therefore, OCBs involve a person's voluntary commitment to an organisation, separate to his or her contractual tasks/job description (Hackman, 1987). Job descriptions prescribe certain behaviours; there could be rewards for employees who comply with such prescriptions and expected behaviours. Other responses and actions that are outside the job description are neither enforceable nor explicitly rewarded (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). For Organ (1988), such discretionary (non-binding), unrewarded, extra-role responses of individuals are OCBs. Organ also asserted that job satisfaction predicts OCBs, not job performance. Organ assumed that a happy and satisfied employee is more likely to engage in OCBs than an unsatisfied but efficient employee. In contrast, Borman and Motowidlo (1993) argued that personality type predicts OCB (they called it contextual performance), assuming that people with a certain predisposition to OCBs are more likely to engage in them.

Two distinct aspects of OCBs are behaviours that benefit the organisation and behaviours that benefit other employees in the organisation (LePine et al., 2002). Studies have shown that employees engage in OCBs voluntarily and without pressure for the good of the organisation, without expecting a reward for such behaviours (Tambe & Meera, 2014). Key OCBs that benefit the organisation include a display of loyalty and compliance with informal organisational rules and regulations. Behaviours that help co-workers include helping them to perform their duties and extending them a helping hand (Podsakoff et al., 2000). In summary, OCBs are spontaneous, positive actions that employees undertake, of their own volition, to support their co-workers and the organisation.

2.2.2.1 Importance and Benefits of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours

The importance of OCBs in the workplace is clear from the proliferation of OCB-related studies in many disciplines, including human resource management (Snape & Redman, 2010; Foote & Tang, 2008; Morrison, 1996), business marketing (Harper, 2015; MacKenzie et al., 1993; Moorman & Blakely, 1995), hospital management (Bolon, 1997), and psychological studies (Beauregard, 2012; Bolon, 1997; Penner et al., 1997).

OCBs facilitate and motivate employees to engage in creativity and innovation (Amabile & Pratt, 2016), which helps the organisation to achieve better performance and gain a competitive

advantage (Nemeth & Staw, 1989). OCBs become imperative for NFPOs, as they help managers to design and promote a cooperative work environment that improves the efficiency of their subordinates (Poncheri, 2006). Some scholars (Podsakoff et al., 1990; Podsakoff et al., 2000) have argued that OCBs positively affect seven areas of an organisation: 1) improving the efficiency of colleagues and managers; 2) availing scarce resources for more productive activities and objectives; 3) lessening dependency on the scarce resources required to maintain regular organisational operations; 4) promoting better coordination between workgroups in an organisation; 5) helping organisations to attract and keep talented employees; 6) enhancing the stability of the organisation; and 7) making organisations more responsive and adaptive to changing environments.

Although the above-mentioned empirical studies are within the for-profit sector, they give insights into the usefulness of OCBs within NFPOs. For NFPOs, a particular benefit of promoting OCBs is to reduce organisational costs as they often have limited financial resources (Mahalinga & Suar, 2012). NFPOs can also benefit from promoting OCBs to achieve a competitive advantage for service delivery and project management. Finally, as NFPOs encounter higher employee turnover (Moynihan & Pandey, 2008), promoting OCBs can help them to attract and retain talented employees.

Another notable benefit of OCBs is providing work meaningfulness to employees, i.e., employees feel their job is useful and significant to the organisation. Similarly, having a sense of control over their activities and feeling good promotes helping behaviours among employees. Studies show that people who are involved in OCBs during the day have higher levels of work meaningfulness and show more vigour in the workplace (Katz & Kahn, 1978). In the same way, when employees cannot find meaning in their work, adverse outcomes such as burnout and disinterest occur. Given that the not-for-profit sector has specific challenges with reduced job satisfaction (Kang, Huh, Cho, & Auh, 2015) and high employee turnover (Moynihan & Pandey, 2008), increased meaningfulness at work can help mitigate some of these challenges. Promoting OCBs help employees to have higher levels of meaningfulness, reducing employee turnover.

Another study found that OCBs help to reduce organisational costs, employee turnover and absenteeism by helping employees to have a positive work attitude (Podsakoff, Podsakoff, Whiting, & Blume, 2009). In such a scenario, encouraging OCBs would help to reduce organisational costs as employees would engage in additional effort without expecting extra payments as the OCB level increases. As employee turnover reduces, the organisation will also

gain from reduced training costs of new recruits. NFPOs further stand to gain from promoting OCBs as they stimulate a collective work culture that promotes a learning climate, which ultimately affects employees' productivity and resourcefulness (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

OCBs and organisational commitment are positively related (Abdullah & Akhar, 2016), such that when employees have higher job satisfaction and dedication, they engage more in OCBs. Similarly, a study involving business enterprises in Turkey showed that there is a strong correlation between OCBs and organisational commitment (Cokluk & Yilmaz, 2008). A study by Koys (2001) found that organisational performance is positively associated with OCBs. In this study, Koys found that OCBs promote organisational performance, but not vice versa. Therefore, promoting OCBs within NFPOs will help the CEOs and senior managers to develop a workforce that is more committed to the organisational mission and vision. This will have a positive effect on the organisational performance as NFPOs often use the achievement of the organisational mission and vision as a performance evaluation criteria (Kearns et al., 2015).

Studies have found that OCBs help to increase the social capital of organisations (Bolino, Turnley, & Bloodgood, 2002; Kizilos et al., 2013). Bolino et al. (2002) argued in their study that OCB contributes to the better functioning of organisations by increasing social capital, in particular the creation of structural, relational and cognitive forms of social capital. Kizilos et al. (2013), meanwhile, found that OCBs help to increase unit-level performance by promoting organisational social capital. As NFPOs are charity driven, developing social capital enables them to develop positive organisational profiles and attract more funding support from donors. Therefore, promoting OCBs is imperative for NFPOs.

NFPOs often have different performance evaluation criteria compared to for-profit organisations (Phipps & Burbach, 2010). NFPOs emphasise the attainment of organisational goals more, as well as mission rather than financial statistics (Kearns et al., 2015). Another criterion for performance evaluation is social capital (Bolino et al., 2002), which adds further value to organisational performance (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000) as OCBs are beneficial to individuals, groups and the organisation.

Studies show that OCBs increase organisational effectiveness through developing human capital, sharing of expertise and tacit knowledge with co-workers (Bolino et al., 2002), facilitating learning from others on the team (Lin & Peng, 2010), and improving problem-solving or decision-making (Green, Slade & Jimmieson, 2011). These studies provide sufficient evidence that promoting and sustaining OCBs is beneficial to all organisations, but are limited

to giving insights into how CEOs and senior managers can promote OCBs in NFPOs and mitigate challenges specific to them. Further studies exploring the lived experience of CEOs, senior managers, and subordinate staff in NFPOs would provide new insights.

2.2.2.2 Voluntarism and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Free volition is an integral part of OCBs because OCBs are optional behaviours that employees are free to engage in or not, as they are outside of one's job description. Voluntarism implies that individuals are free to choose their goals and objectives, as well as how to achieve them, and signifies that individuals make such choices without being forced or predetermined, even when there may be social or cultural constraints (Wright, 1915).

Studies show that people engage in voluntary activities or behaviours for altruistic motives, for the sake of humanitarian values, for personal development, for community concern, or for self-esteem enhancement (Omoto & Snyder, 2002; Jain, 2016). Hence, in promoting the OCBs of subordinates, CEOs and senior managers need to consider these motives for subordinate staff's voluntary engagement in OCBs. From the psychological perspective, some people engage in pro-social and helping behaviours because they enhance a positive mood (Isen & Baron, 1991), while others engage in voluntarist behaviours because of egoistic as opposed to altruistic motives (Lavelle, 2010). Altruistic motives for volunteerism benefits others, while egoistic motive serve one's own selfish interests. CEOs and senior managers who promote OCBs needs to consider these motives for engaging in OCBs.

An organisation can demand compliance from its members through coercion, remuneration, or through normative means. Coercion implies the use of physical threats or violence, remuneration involves material resources and rewards, and normative means include the use of symbolic rewards, deprivation, persuasive power and appealing to shared values and visions. Voluntarism is within the domain of normative ideals of engaging in actions that one believes to be good or worth pursuing.

Within the context of the not-for-profit sector, voluntarism means engaging in activities of one's choice, or becoming a member of an organisation by free choice without expecting payment. Such involvement, even when undertaken in a professional capacity, warrants no payment or has only a token remuneration (Jakimow, 2010). In this sense, OCBs and voluntarism are closely connected as neither involve a direct payment (Coyne & Ong, 2007). Therefore, theoretically, it is possible to assume that voluntarism and OCBs could complement or sustain each other. For instance, a study by Jain et al. (2012) established that service-oriented OCBs

positively affect motivation for voluntarism. Voluntarism also helps explain why some follow a role model for OCBs and engage in similar behaviours for the benefit of their co-workers and the organisation, while others do not, even though such behaviours are beneficial and desirable.

2.3 Empirical Review

Part two of the literature review, the empirical review, sets out the body of knowledge on the research topic based on empirical studies. The researcher reviews relevant studies related to role modelling, OCBs, rewards, and transformational and transactional leadership in this section. The intention was to generate further insights into the topic and identify a research gap.

2.3.1 Role Modelling for OCBs

This section examines the empirical studies that shed light on role modelling for OCBs. As empirical research on role modelling for OCBs within NFPOs is limited, the literature review is not exclusive to NFPOs.

2.3.1.1 Effectiveness of Role Modelling for OCBs

In this study, the researcher considered the terms ‘role modelling’ and ‘leading by example’ as being synonymous. Role models are individuals whose behaviours, styles, attitudes and attributes are emulated by others (Shapiro, Haseltine, & Rowe, 1978); they are a cognitive construction of attributes that a person endows on an individual perceived to be like him or her to some extent. In following a role model, one “*desires to increase the perceived similarity by emulating those attributes*” (Shapiro et al., 1978, p. 3). For Liborius (2014), a role model is a leader or significant other in the life of a person who is worthy of being followed or imitated.

Empirical studies have proven that role modelling is effective in various disciplines, including business, education and medicine, however research that directly investigates role modelling for OCBs in NFPOs is scant. Studies show that role modelling promotes entrepreneurship (Farrukh et al., 2019), influences subordinate behaviours (Weiss, 1977), and motivates them to achieve ambitious goals (Morgenroth et al., 2015). Farrukh et al. (2019) asserted that role models also promote entrepreneurship by inspiring the role aspirants through their success as established entrepreneurs.

Morgenroth et al. (2015) proposed the motivational theory of role modelling and suggested that role models influence the role aspirants’ ambitious goals through acting as behaviour models, i.e., representing to the role aspirants what is possible and providing inspiration. A study by Weiss (1977), which involved 141 subordinates and their immediate supervisors, found that the

subordinates imitated the behaviours of their supervisors based on the staff's perception of their superiors' success and competence. A study involving 368 female graduates found that role models significantly influenced their career choice (Quimby & Santis, 2006). A Catalyst (2003) study involving 500 women, which concluded that a lack of female role models is the second biggest obstacle (the first being stereotyping) to female career success. Despite this, none of these studies investigated how role modelling helps to promote the OCBs of subordinate staff in NFPOs.

For-profit sector-specific studies have established that role models provide junior managers with inspiration and orientations to draw on, and facilitated professional success (Shapiro et al., 1978; Singh, Vinnicombe, & James, 2006). Shapiro et al. (1978) contested that role modelling together with active mentoring efforts produces better goals when it comes to empowering women for career success than role modelling alone. Singh, Vinnicombe and James (2006) found that role modelling is effective for young people, especially women, who are building their professional identities. They also found that women prefer role models who are outside their professional circle to those who are at the top of their organisational hierarchy. Another study by Campbell and Wolbrecht (2006) found that role models boost political activism in young people. Another study noted that same-sex role models inspire young women to choose careers in science, maths, engineering and technology (STEM) (Stout, Dasgupta, Hunsinger, & McManus, 2011).

Gibson (2003) conducted a qualitative study of 22 investment bankers and 21 management consulting professionals, and concluded that people who are in an earlier career stage draw positive concepts from role models who are close to them, and are motivated to fulfil their life goals. Those who are in the middle and late stages of their careers, meanwhile, look to role models for guidance to refine and affirm their self-concept (about what they achieved or became in life).

While studies have shown that role models inspire role aspirants to career success, a lack of role models prevents career success (Gibson, 2004; Wolbrecht & Campbell, 2007). According to Gibson (2004), a role model performs three interrelated functions for role aspirants, that is, providing learning, providing motivation and inspiration, and helping the role aspirant to define his/her self-concept. Therefore, the lack of a role model deprives an individual of these three functions in his/her career development and can thus limit career success. To this end,

Wolbrecht and Campbell (2007) argued that the lack of female role models as members of parliament limits young women from aspiring to a political career.

These studies provide evidence that role models can inspire role aspirants and propel them to action, but they do not offer insights into how CEOs and senior managers could be effective OCB role models for their subordinate staff and sustain in them a continued interest to engage in OCBs that benefit others and the organisation.

Morgenroth et al. (2015) presented a motivational theory of role modelling, explaining how role models influence role aspirants' achievements, motivation and goals. According to the authors, role models are "*individuals who influence role aspirants' achievements, motivation, and goals by acting as behavioural models, representations of the possible, and inspirations*" (Morgenroth et al., 2015, p. 4). As behavioural models, the role models show role aspirants how to perform a skill or achieve a goal. As the representation of what is possible, role models show that a particular goal is attainable, while as inspiration, role models make the goals desirable for role aspirants. Role models become behavioural models through vicarious learning and skill acquisition, and provide motivation and facilitate change. Similarly, role models, as a source of inspiration, facilitate goal reinforcement and adoption through identification, internalisation and admiration.

The motivational theory gives insights into how role models show role aspirants the possibility of attaining what the role model has already achieved, thus role models are symbols of possibility, as well as sources of inspiration and assurance (Chung, 2000). The theory explains what a role model is for a role aspirant, however further insights are needed to understand what inspires subordinate staff to accept that CEOs and senior managers are role models for OCBs, and to emulate their behaviours.

A study by Thrash and Elliot (2004) provided key insights into how role models inspire role aspirants to follow them. The authors proposed that inspiration can be divided into two different processes: being inspired by, and being inspired to. Being 'inspired by' directly relates to role models as they inspire role aspirants. The authors presented the three core components of inspiration: transcendence, evocation and motivation. Transcendence refers to how inspiration leads individuals to adopt new or better goals or to think in new or better ways, making the new goals desirable; evocation is the recognition of inspiration by something outside the individual's will, which could be a role model, an event or an object; and motivation is the driving force for the individual to seek new goals and want to achieve them. This study, which investigated the

lived experiences of people within the not-for-profit sector, adds a further understanding of how one can inspire and motivate another person to emulate his or her OCBs.

In another study, although not specifically within NFPOs, Schindler, Zink, Windrich and Menninghaus (2013) found that role models influence the values of role aspirants through admiration, a concept closely related to inspiration, and thus become effective in changing the behaviours of the role aspirants. According to the authors, admiration is the emotion associated with the internalisation of ideals and values that a role model presents to the role aspirant. These emotions motivate the role aspirant to change his/her values (and consequent behavioural and/or attitudinal change) to those of the role model.

Similarly, others found that role models are effective in imparting core values for doctors and nurses (Perry, 2009; Paice, 2002). Perry (2009), through phenomenological research, found that exemplary nurses (role models) are effective in teaching others certain desirable clinical practices through their personal example, such as making connections, maintaining a light-hearted attitude, and affirming others. Paice (2002) found that clinical students consider enthusiasm, compassion, openness, integrity and good relationships with patients attributes that make an effective doctor role model. The study also found that unethical behaviour and bad example by senior doctors cause confusion, distress and anger among young doctors, who reject them as role models. The study concluded that role modelling alone is not sufficient to teach young doctors professional values, attitudes and behaviours. Such values should be taught explicitly through peer group discussions, exposure to the views of other people outside the medical profession, and mentoring. While these studies show what makes an effective role model within a clinical setting, they do not shed light on the role model effectiveness of CEOs and senior managers in promoting OCBs within not-for-profit settings.

Lockwood et al. (2002) demonstrated that role models are effective and beneficial to promotion-focused individuals (those who have a positive goal that they want to achieve), but for prevention-focused individuals (those who focus on avoiding a negative outcome), a role model presents strategies to avoid failure. The study is insightful to understand how people choose their role models depending on their motivational goals and personality type. According to this study, what motivates the role aspirant to follow a role model is the perceived success of the role model or his/her strategies to avoid failure. However, a study by Weaver et al. (2005) found that when role aspirants identify role models for ethical behaviour, the business success of the role model is irrelevant; what counts most to the role aspirant is that the role model embodies

and displays ethical behaviours consistently and routinely.

Stout, Dasgupta, Hunsinger and McManus (2011) demonstrated that female role models are effective in changing a role aspirant's self-stereotyping without changing the stereotype about the in-group's identity. The study also found that same-sex experts (models with established achievements or expertise) are effective in inspiring women to change their self-concept and motivate them to follow a career in STEM.

In another study, Scarnati (2002) presented 12 guidelines for being an effective role model without specific reference to any discipline. These guidelines, according to the author, could be used as the primary tool to help a leader establish a corporate culture within his/her organisation. These include: 1) a leader should maintain a formal relationship with their followers, being careful not to cross the boundaries between being formal and non-formal; 2) a leader should always cultivate a positive attitude; 3) a leader should be capable of managing negative feelings; 4) a leader should cultivate a circle of credible friends/colleagues; 5) a leader should be capable of managing his/her public and private life in balance; 6) a leader should exercise self-control and discipline; 7) a leader should create the right impression about him/herself with others, i.e., he/she should have an acceptable public image; 8) a leader should know the unwritten rules, customs and practices of the organisation/establishment and behave accordingly; 9) a leader should display a high confidence level; 10) a leader should possess a sense of tolerance and spirit of risk-taking; 11) a leader should possess personal competence, both technical and managerial; and 12) a leader should be hardworking and committed to their responsibilities.

Cruess et al. (2008) conducted a study in a clinical setting and found role modelling to be an effective teaching tool that helps senior physicians to pass on the knowledge, skills and values of the medical profession. However, the study also found that the net effect of role modelling on the behaviour of medical students was often negative rather than positive. A study by Ruiz-Palomino and Martinez-Canas (2011) in business and management settings claimed that senior managers exert significant formal authority, therefore their behaviours, values and decisions influence their employees' behaviours, especially the ethical behaviours. The study found that role modelling for ethical behaviour by top management has a positive impact on employees' ethical behaviour, while sanctioning behaviour does not.

A study by Yaffe and Kark (2011) provided insights into the 'leading by example' effect of leaders' OCBs on the behaviours of workgroups, mediators and moderators. Their study found

that a leader's OCBs have a significant impact on the group's OCBs. According to the study, leaders can promote similar contributions from their group if they set a personal example of contribution. The study found that a group's belief that OCBs are worthy facilitates the leading by example effect of the leader's OCBs, i.e., the leader's OCBs directly affect their followers' engagement in OCBs. The leader's behaviour has an indirect effect (that is, the leader's OCBs enhance the group's belief that OCBs are worthy) within a transformational process. A leader's OCBs are more effective when the group believes that the leader is a worthy role model, when there is a group consensus that the OCBs are worthy, and when the leader is physically close to the group.

Role models, either positive or negative, are influential for stimulating a behaviour change in role aspirants, such as a change of lifestyle, attitudes, beliefs and motivation to set and achieve goals. Role models influence a behavioural change by being a model for expected behaviours, providing a representation of what is possible to achieve, and/or by being inspirational. For behavioural modification, role modelling and social learning are essential techniques for learning or unlearning a behaviour, while socialisation and peer groups also influence a change in the behaviours of an individual (Morgenroth et al., 2015).

The studies described above are helpful in understanding the effectiveness of role modelling in various disciplinary settings, as well as how a role model could be effective to motivate a role aspirant. Researchers that specifically looked into the effectiveness of role modelling for OCBs in NFPOs are still few and far between. How effective role modelling is for OCBs within the not-for-profit sector, and in particular its effectiveness in making subordinate staff emulate the OCBs of CEOs and senior managers, still needs further study. Research that considers the nuances of NFPOs and the lived experiences of people within the same sector would provide an understanding of what a role aspirant looks for in a role model for OCBs before they emulate similar behaviours.

2.3.1.2 Social Interactions and Role Modelling

Social interaction in this context means the extent to which the relationships between CEOs/senior managers and their subordinate staff are characterised by close, informal relationships that go beyond their formal work routines (Bouckennooghe et al., 2014).

Social learning theory suggests that individuals learn through social interactions (Hunter et al., 1991). Role modelling for OCBs facilitates role aspirants learning organisational behaviours, motivates and inspires them to continue to engage in OCBs, and helps them to define their self-

concept in and through engagement in OCBs (Gibson, 2004). According to Gibson (2004), role aspirants learn from role models by observing, receive inspiration and motivation from the success and achievement of the role model, and define his or her self-concept by comparing him/herself with the role model. This construction of self-concept and the learning process take place through contact with a role model in and through social interactions. The most common forms of social interaction/socialisation are exchange, competition, conflict, cooperation and accommodation (Taylor et al., 1996). The social interactions of CEOs and senior managers with subordinate staff could thus facilitate or interrupt role modelling for OCBs.

Lockwood and Kunda (1997) found that role models function as special specimens for upward social comparison, in which a role aspirant observes and compares him/herself with a role model for self-evaluation, enhancement and information gathering. Such learning (through observation) and social comparisons take place through social interactions and exchanges (Wood & Bandura, 1989), therefore the social interactions and/or socialisation of role models and role aspirants exert a significant influence on role aspirants' acceptance or rejection of a role model.

The researcher is not aware of any empirical studies that have looked into how social interactions/socialisation influence role modelling and promote OCBs within NFPOs, however some studies, albeit not within the not-for-profit sector, have shed light on the effect/influence of social interactions/socialisation on subordinates. For instance, a study by Weiss (1977) found significant correlations between subordinates' perceptions of their superiors' success and competence, and their intention to imitate the behaviours of those superiors. Socialisation between the superior and subordinate strongly moderate such behavioural similarities. Likewise, the socialisation of junior managers in the first year of their career was found to be crucial for subsequent career success in a study of two large industrial organisations (Berlew & Hall, 1966). Edeh and Danjumbo (2019), meanwhile, found that among employees of airline operators, the social interactions of newcomers had a significant effect on their spontaneous behaviours in the workplace, which helped promote a better customer experience. Another study found that organisational socialisation facilitates cooperation among employees when it comes to navigating through a crisis (Lalonde, 2010), while a study by Huang and Li (2009) found that the social interactions of managers and senior staff facilitate improved knowledge management and promote innovation.

Ajjawi and Higgs (2008) conducted a phenomenological study in a clinical setting and found

that professional socialisation helps physiotherapists to gain better clinical reasoning ability. The same study found that role models, mentors and colleagues are an integral part of professional socialisation. However, a separate study by Javidan et al. (1995) found that the social interactions of superiors are not influential enough for subordinate staff to accept them as role models. According to their study, what matters to the subordinate staff is their managers' performance record.

Studies have found that social interactions, which are part of organisational socialisation, allow an individual (especially a newcomer) to learn and train him/herself in the organisational culture. Through social interactions within an organisation, one learns the organisational environment, discovers a new way of acting, develops attitudes, and learns one's organisational role (Luca, 2016).

A study by Pooja et al. (2016) found that social interactions can help to neutralise work-related stress, reduce interpersonal conflicts and increase organisational citizenship behaviour. The study involved the employees of a for-profit logistics company in Mexico, and concluded that the higher the level of social interaction, the less the negative effects of job stressors, which positively contributes to increasing employees' OCBs. Social interactions provide a buffer to job stressors by creating social companionship with other organisational members (Cohen & Wills, 1985).

Other studies show that facilitating socialisation in organisations contributes to improved employee performance (Katz & Kahn, 1978), helps managers to navigate better through a crisis (Lalonde, 2010), and fosters spontaneous behaviours that promote organisational goals among employees (Edeh & Comfort, 2019). Major social structures that facilitate socialisation include status, roles, social networks, groups, organisations, social institutions and society.

This study assumed that the social interactions of CEOs and senior managers with subordinate staff would influence the subordinate staff's willingness to emulate the OCBs of the CEOs and senior managers. All the discussed empirical studies shed light on the fact that social interactions are important for role model effectiveness, especially when it comes to role aspirants learning a new behaviour, however these studies were for-profit sector-specific and did not assess role modelling for OCBs. The present study assumes, based on previous empirical studies, that social interactions are influential in effective role modelling for OCBs. The study will further explore how and to what extent the social interactions of CEOs and senior managers influence role modelling and promote OCBs within NFPOs.

2.3.2 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

This section examines the empirical body of knowledge related to promoting OCBs, the transformational and transactional leadership factors that contribute to promoting OCBs, and the influence of contingent and non-contingent rewards in promoting OCBs.

2.3.2.1 Promoting Organisational Citizenship Behaviours

Researchers and practitioners alike are interested in actions in the workplace that promote organisational effectiveness. Job descriptions enforce and prescribe certain behaviours, and there are rewards for employees who comply with such prescriptions and behaviours. Responses and actions that are not in a job description are neither enforceable nor explicitly rewarded (Organ et al., 2006). Organ (1988) called such discretionary, unrewarded, extra-role responses, “*organisational citizenship behaviours*”.

Organ and Ryan (1995), in their meta-analytic review of over 50 empirical studies, showed that facilitating employee job satisfaction increased employees’ willingness to engage in OCBs. Bolino et al. (2003), meanwhile, analysed the major factors that promote organisational citizenship behaviour, including job satisfaction, transformational leadership, organisational support, the psychological contract of employees with the organisation, and the perceived sense of justice within the organisation. A comprehensive literature review by Seyed-Mehdi (2012) demonstrated various dimensions, themes, consequences and antecedents of OCBs. Notable in his study were the antecedents of OCBs that help promote these, including job satisfaction, organisational commitment, employee role perception, leadership behaviours and LMX (Leader-Member Exchange). More recent studies continue to provide insights that organisations can promote OCBs amongst their employees through improved job satisfaction (Anderson, 2021; Hidayah & Harnoto, 2018; Margahana et al., 2018). Anderson (2021) showed that supervision support enhances job satisfaction within OCBs, and job satisfaction enhances employees’ OCBs. Hidaya and Harnoto (2018) claimed that creating an organisational environment where there is perceived organisational justice and job satisfaction results in employees engaging more in OCBs and promoting organisational performance. Margahana et al. (2018), in studying employees at paramedical centres, found that improving the work environment for increased job satisfaction simultaneously increased employees’ OCBs.

These studies highlighted that job satisfaction and perceived organisational justice are catalysts for increasing the OCBs of employees, however only Anderson’s (2021) study was of an NFPO. Factors that contribute to job satisfaction or perceived organisational justice could thus be

different within OCBs, e.g., monetary benefits and other financial perks might be dominant factors that contribute to job satisfaction for those who work within for-profit organisations, while monetary compensation for those who work for NFPOs might carry less weight.

Facilitating employees to develop a psychological contract with the organisation over and above their employment contract promotes OCBs. Studies have shown a significant relationship between OCBs and psychological contracts (Gupta, Agarwal, & Khatri, 2016; Tufan & Wendt, 2020), for example, Gupta et al. (2016) found that a breach of psychological contract adversely affects the OCBs of nurses. Tufan and Wendt (2020) conducted a study with 361 Turkish workers in Belgium and found that a psychological contract, in particular relational and diversity-related contracts, helped the minority workers to identify themselves more with the organisation and engage in OCBs. Similarly, Coyle-Shapiro (2002) found, in their study that involved a survey of 480 public sector employees over a three-year period, that a breach of psychological contract affected OCBs, especially helping a co-worker, promoting an organisational cause, and voluntary participation in self-development programmes. These studies offer empirical evidence that suggests that helping employees to build a psychological contract is a way of promoting OCBs, i.e., individuals engage more in OCBs when there is a strong psychological contract with their employer than a transactional contract. Such behaviours are understood better within the premise of the social exchange theory. Employees spend more time and effort on in-role and extra-role activities when they want to give back to the organisation or help someone who helped them. Nevertheless, these are not not-for-profit sector-specific, so there could be other psychological factors that promote OCBs within NFPOs. For instance, psychological contracts based on contingent and non-contingent motives might have a different impact on the intention of employees to engage in OCBs within the not-for-profit sector.

Employees engage in OCBs when they feel they are treated well by the organisation, and that their contribution is valued and appreciated (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993; Restubog, Hornsey, Bordia, & Esposito, 2008). Niehoff and Moorman's (1993) study involved measuring the relationship between monitoring, employees' perceptions of workplace justice, and OCBs. The study found that close monitoring limits the OCBs of employees, however monitoring promotes employees' perceptions of organisational fairness as it facilitates information gathering without biases, and thus influences their OCBs. Restubog, Hornsey, Bordia and Esposito (2008) found that treating people fairly increases their trust in the group, leading them to identify with the group and increase their willingness to engage in OCBs. Fair treatment by group members

symbolises being valued and appreciated for the contribution that an individual provides to the group, which triggers OCBs. A limitation of these studies is that they did not investigate what makes up or contributes to employees' perceptions of organisational fairness.

Studies have found that increasing job embeddedness promotes OCBs within an organisation. (Embeddedness means the extent to which a person is connected in a social network within an organisation (on-the job embeddedness) and in a wider community (off-the-job embeddedness)). Lee et al. (2004) tested on-the-job and off-the-job embeddedness and found that on-the-job embeddedness was significantly predictive of OCBs. The implication is that promoting on-the-job embeddedness can increase employees' OCBs. Mcbain (2004) suggested that general job embeddedness can be established through building community, promoting a sense of belongingness, developing interpersonal relationships among employees, and developing organisational social capital. Similarly, on-the-job embeddedness can be developed through promoting teamwork and facilitating employees to work according to their knowledge, skills, abilities and attitudes. On-the-job embeddedness is also developed through matching job and organisational rewards to sacrifices that are made at the workplace, while off-the-job embeddedness can be increased by providing employees with adequate information about the community around them and providing social support for local activities and programmes. While these studies provide rich insights into how to promote OCBs, they are not not-for-profit specific. Further research is thus required to know whether these same components of job embeddedness are sufficiently motivating factors within the not-for-profit sector, and how they would differ according to the context.

A study by Bolino et al. (2003) claimed that there are certain formal human resource management (HRM) practices and informal systems within an organisation that can promote OCBs. Formal HRM practices include recruitment and selection, training and development, doing performance appraisals that include the engagement of OCBs, and providing compensation/benefits accordingly. Informal organisational systems that promote OCBs include developing a corporate culture that appreciates extra efforts, placing new employees in teams where members are highly motivated to engage in OCBs, senior managers showing a good example of engaging in OCBs by going beyond the call of duty, and recognising the sacrifices that employees undertake for the organisation.

Studies show that recruiting employees with certain personality traits is another way of promoting and encouraging OCBs within an organisation. For instance, a study by Deckop et

al. (2004) found that employees with risk preferences are better at engaging in OCBs than employees with more risk averse traits. The study also suggests that recruiting employees with higher risk preferences and negotiating appropriate rewards for risk-taking promotes OCBs. Similarly, a study by Donovan et al. (2004) argued that customer orientation should be treated as a personality trait. In their study of employees of a bank and two restaurant chains, customer orientation had a strong effect on employee job satisfaction, commitment and performance of OCBs. In addition, recruiting service employees who are highly customer-oriented helps to promote OCBs.

These studies provide insights into those HRM practices and informal systems that help promote OCBs, yet the studies do not mention whether these would work within OCBs. Further studies within NFPOs will thus give more insight into what type of HRM practices and informal systems CEOs and senior managers can use to promote the OCBs of their subordinate staff.

A study of university professors and clerical workers in Japan by Ueda (2011) found that encouraging cultural rootedness in collectivism promotes OCBs. Similarly, Moorman and Blakely (1995) found that promoting collectivistic values encouraged OCBs. Research by Cohen (2006) found that OCBs are more common within cultures of collectivism than those of individualism, however these do not show what specific collectivistic values or practices promote OCB, and some of the studies are limited to a particular national culture. For instance, in the study by Ueda (2011), collectivism is analogous to the Japanese culture, where collective interests are always given priority over individual interests.

2.3.2.2 Transformational and Transactional Leadership Styles and Group Outcomes

Transformational leadership behaviours promote the OCBs of followers (Connell, 2005; Guay & Choi, 2015; Nahum-Shani & Somech, 2011; Jiao, Richards, & Zhang, 2011; Nahum-Shani & Somech, 2011; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006). Connell's (2005) study, which involved 201 part-time and full-time workers from 13 organisations, found that transformational leadership behaviours promote OCBs such as conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtue. More recently, Guay and Choi (2015) investigated the mediating effects of the personality types of followers on the influence of transformational leadership, and found that transformational leadership encourages employees with higher levels of anxiety, fear or loneliness (neurotic) to engage in OCBs. Nahum-Shani and Somech's study (2011) involved schoolteachers and their principals, finding that transformational leadership promotes allocentrism (concern for others), which indirectly encourages followers' OCBs. Their study asserted that the transformational

behaviours of the head-teachers promoted a collectivistic attitude and allocentrism, which in turn promoted the OCBs of the teachers. The study also found the relationship between transactional leadership behaviours and OCBs to be positive in the sense that when individualistic concerns (idiocentrism) decreased, the OCBs of the teachers increased.

Jiao et al. (2011) found that transformational leadership contributes to an employee's belief that OCBs add to the efficient functioning of the organisation, with the heightened belief promoting OCBs among the employees. Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) concluded that transformational leadership promotes intrinsic motivation and goal commitment in followers, which promote OCBs. These studies strengthen the assumption that transformational leadership promotes OCB, but do not provide insights into how CEOs and senior managers use these transformational dimensions of their leadership style and promote the OCBs of their subordinate staff within OCBs. Studies have also found that transformational leadership augments transactional leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006), and that transformational leadership often makes use of contingent rewards to motivate followers (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Therefore, not only transformational leadership behaviours promote OCBs, but certain transactional leadership dimensions could also encourage OCBs amongst followers.

The dimensions of transactional leadership include contingent reward, management by exception (active), and management by exception (passive) (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). The contingent reward is the leader clarifying with the follower the expected outcome and the resultant material or psychological reward for its attainment, whereas management by exception takes place when the leader exercises corrective measures based on the leader-follower exchange. In its active form, the leader is proactive; s/he expects the problems and takes corrective actions. In its passive form, the leader intervenes if and only when a problem occurs (Howell & Avolio, 1993). Further not-for-profit sector-specific studies that look into the contribution of both transformational and transactional leadership styles in promoting OCBs among subordinate staff will add new insights into understanding what transformational and transactional leadership behaviours promoting OCBs within the NFPOs.

2.3.2.3 Contingent and Non-contingent Rewards and OCBs

Even though OCBs are unrewarded, spontaneous actions that benefit individuals and organisations, some researchers have found an association between OCBs and rewards (Ravlin, Adkins, Kim, & Ward, 2015). Ravlin et al. (2015) found that extrinsic (contingent) and intrinsic (non-contingent) rewards are related to motivation and predict social and performance-related

behaviours, including OCBs. Similarly, other scholars had questioned the assumption that OCBs are fully detached from any form of rewards by demonstrating that rewards influence the intention of engaging in OCBs, especially when OCBs themselves are a factor for employee performance evaluations (Haworth & Levy, 2001; Walumbwa, Wu, & Orwa, 2008). Haworth and Levy's (2001) study found that employees engage more often in OCBs when they believe OCB is worth engaging, and are influenced by contingent and non-contingent rewards. Walumba, Wu and Orwa (2008), in their study of 212 bank employees, found providing contingent reward mediated OCB as organisational commitment. Schnake and Dumler (1997) noted that contingent rewards and reward practices are important predictors for OCBs. Non-contingent rewards are intangible and non-monetary benefits, such as a sense of satisfaction, achievement, recognition or well-being (Brown, Hyatt, & Benson, 2010). Others have considered the sense of satisfaction that comes from contributing to the organisation to be an intrinsic reward that propels OCBs (Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000), while Restubog, Hornsey, Bordia and Esposito (2008) found that employees' perceptions of being treated equally and fairly functions as a non-contingent reward, which propels them to engage in OCBs. Their study also found that fairness perception is mediated by the psychological contract of the employees with the organisation. Finkelstein and Penner (2004) found employees' intrinsic desire for making a good impression on others predict OCBs. Interestingly, their study of county employees found that the possibility of making a good impression by engaging in OCBs was a rewarding experience for them. Similarly, Dávila and Finkelstein (2010) claimed that the role identity that emerges from engaging in OCBs and voluntarism functions as a non-contingent reward that promotes OCBs. These studies thus provide evidence that rewards can influence one's intention to engage, and how one performs OCBs.

Studies that specifically look into how CEOs and senior managers use rewards (both contingent and non-contingent), as well as what types of rewards promote the OCBs of their subordinate staff within the context of OCBs, are limited. Further studies are thus required to know what contingent and non-contingent rewards CEOs and senior managers utilise in their efforts to promote OCBs among their subordinate staff.

2.3.2.4 Group outcomes of Promoting OCB

Organ (1988) described certain positive outcomes that are beneficial for the organisation when OCBs are promoted, including reduced organisational management costs, fewer minor complaints from employees, and more constructive suggestions from employees for the

betterment of the organisation. Mcbain (2004) asserted in his study of 20 multi-disciplinary teams in a Dutch telecommunications company that promoting OCBs can significantly improve task-goal interdependencies among various groups. The study confirmed that although promoting OCBs could be directed towards individuals, there are certain group outcomes that also benefit the organisation. Podsakoff et al. (2009) similarly asserted that promoting OCBs at the unit level results in increased organisational productivity and profitability, and reduced employee turnover and waste. Group outcomes for the organisation that emerge from promoting OCBs can be grouped into either affirmative or challenging OCBs (Chiabaru & Baker, 2006, Grant & Mayer, 2009). Affirmative outcomes occur when employees are willing to support the existing organisational process and work environments as a group, while challenging OCBs encourage employees to take the initiative to challenge the existing organisational circumstances, make changes, and improve the organisational process or interpersonal relationships. Chiabaru and Baker's (2006) study involving 211 employees found affirmative or challenging outcomes of OCB emerge from individuals' willingness to take charge of the organisational work situation. Similarly, a study by Gant and Mayer (2009) confirmed that people engage as a group in affirmative or challenging OCBs when they intend to improve the organisational and inter-personal work environment.

Nielsen et al. (2012) studied 46 work groups in an organisation and found that group OCBs promote and facilitate task interdependence in organisations, while another study involving individual groups within organisations found that promoting OCBs increases group performance, but has negative consequences for individual career development (Bergeron, 2007). A study of 96 work units by Choi (2009) showed that promoting OCBs improves group-level helping behaviours among the unit members, which is positively related to supportive managers' transformational leadership styles and the perceived trustworthiness and integrity of the group members. Similarly, other researchers found that an improved organisational justice climate (Ehrhart, 2004), group-level fit (Shin & Choi, 2010) and organisational identification (van Dick et al., 2006) are group level outcomes of promoting OCBs.

These studies prove that promoting OCBs at the individual level can cause certain group outcomes that benefit the organisation, yet these studies were not conducted on NFPOs, which could have varying motives for engaging in OCBs. For this reason, the group outcome of promoting OCBs could be different in OCBs. For example, employees in a for-profit organisation might engage in OCBs to increase the market capitalisation of the company by increasing the company profit, but in NFPOs the employees might engage in the same OCBs

for the intention of promoting an altruistic cause. Exploring the lived experience of CEOs and senior managers would provide a deeper understanding of the group outcome of promoting OCBs within NFPOs.

2.3.2.5 Voluntarism and Organisational Citizenship Behaviours

The volitional and intentional nature of organisational citizenship behaviour gives subordinate staff the freedom to engage in OCBs, or not (Borman & Penner, 2001). Any engagement in OCBs is thus voluntary. As any activity that is given freely for the benefit of an individual, group or organisation can be classified as volunteering (Wilson, 2000), many consider volunteerism as a type of pro-social behaviour (Allison et al., 2002). Studies have shown that voluntarism promotes a sense of helping (Dominelli, 2016), builds social capital (Nunn, 2000), and strengthens community service (Serow, 1991). Putnam (2000) called for increased voluntarism to improve social service delivery and to promote a vibrant civil society, noting that as a communal and social activity, volunteerism enhances social capital, strengthens the community, and helps deliver services that otherwise would have been more expensive or under-provided.

Studies that examine the role of voluntarism in promoting OCBs within the not-for-profit organisation are scant, however it is possible that promoting a sense of voluntarism will affect OCBs, especially helping behaviours (Dominelli, 2016). We can also interpolate from other studies that voluntarism will enhance OCBs indirectly, because it promotes social capital (Amintojjar et al., 2015; Ko et al., 2018). For instance, Amintojjar et al. (2015), in their study of municipality workers, found a direct relationship between social capital and OCBs. Similarly, an empirical study by Ko et al. (2018) in South Korea, which investigated the effect of social capital on the emotional regulation processes of employees selling financial or insurance products, found that social capital has a double mediation, i.e., it promotes directly job engagement and indirectly promotes OCBs.

Omoto and Snyder (1995) studied what motivated voluntarism among AIDS workers and discovered that an individual's helping disposition, social support, personal satisfaction from volunteering and organisational integration (through positive experiences) predicted the possibility of longer sustained intention to engage in volunteerism. Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991), in their study of 258 volunteers and 104 non-volunteers, found 28 motives for volunteering, which they then further grouped into altruistic (value-based) and utilitarian motives. Some examples of altruistic motivation for volunteering are religious beliefs, passion

for a common cause, and desire to help others, whereas examples of utilitarian motivation include improving human capital, learning new skills and exploring career paths. Cappellari and Turati (2004), in their study of Italian workers, found that motivation for volunteerism also includes social motives, that is, the desire to build or extend one's social networks. These studies provide insights into what motivates one to volunteerism, however they do not provide insights into how and to what extent volunteerism might help CEOs and senior managers to promote the OCBs of their subordinate staff. The present study, Investigating the lived experiences of CEOs, senior managers and subordinate staff of NFPOs would provide further insights from NFPOs into how volunteerism impacts the promotion of OCBs. The study would provide empirical evidence of the theoretical assumption that volunteerism can contribute to enhanced OCBs in NFPOs.

2.3.2.6 Measures of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours

Earlier researchers operationalised the definition of OCBs by assessing behaviours that were presumed to be extra-role (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). For Smith et al. (1983), the two significant factors of OCBs included altruism and compliance or conscientiousness. According to the authors, altruism means helping co-workers, while compliance involves engaging in activities that promote organisational goals, such as being punctual, avoiding absenteeism and refraining from unnecessary breaks during work time.

Organ (1984, p. 4) defined OCBs as being “*discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, which in aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation*”. Later, Organ (1997) refined the OCB construct further, detaching its reference from discretionary or extra-role as the boundaries between in-role and extra-role behaviours are often blurred. This concept is aligned to contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), as the OCBs of altruism, compliance, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtue are comparable to the five categories of contextual performance, namely volunteering for activities outside one's job description, persistent enthusiasm in completing task requirements, helping others, obedience to organisational regulations, and defending and propagating the organisation's objectives. However, there is still a distinction between contextual performance and OCBs, as contextual performance warrants a reward for compliance and involves formal training, whereas OCBs do not guarantee a reward or training (Organ, 1997).

Organ (1988) highlighted five specific categories of OCBs that contribute to organisational efficiency, i.e., altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy (preventing problems for

co-workers) and civic virtue (voluntarily attending activities that promote organisational goals). Graham (1989), meanwhile, proposed a four-dimensional model of OCBs, including interpersonal helping, individual initiative, personal industry and loyal boosterism. Interpersonal helping relates to engaging in activities that improve individual and group performance, individual initiative refers to being creative and innovative, personal industry is about performing tasks as per and beyond the requirements, and loyal boosterism is about promoting a positive image of the organisation, for example, speaking well of it. Pioneered by Graham (1991), another school of thought, which adopted concepts from modern political philosophy, highlighted three kinds of civic responsibilities. This school considered obedience, loyalty and participation as three typical behaviours of a good citizen in a covenantal relationship to explain the construct of OCBs (Graham, 1991; Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994). Dyne et al. (1994) tested and validated the conceptualisation of Graham's (1991) constructs by collecting two sets of empirical data to create and cross-validate the concept of OCBs. Podsakoff et al. (2000), meanwhile, suggested seven prominent dimensions of OCBs, i.e., helping behaviour, sportsmanship, organisational loyalty, organisational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue and self-development.

Although dimensions of OCBs vary from scholar to scholar, the majority agree on the following seven dimensions of OCB: helping behaviours (altruism), sportsmanship, organisational loyalty, organisational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtues and self-development (Dávila & Finkelstein, 2010; Hui, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005; Podsakoff et al., 2014; Podsakoff et al., 2009). The present study examined these seven dimensions to understand how CEOs and senior managers promote OCBs in NFPOs. Dávila and Finkelstein (2010) similarly used these seven dimensions to understand the motives behind engaging in citizenship behaviours, utilising a survey of 983 Spanish employees from 49 organisations. Hui, Law, Hackett, Wang and Chen's (2005) Chinese study involved developing a model to understand the leader-member exchange mediated between transformational leadership behaviours and followers' task performance and OCBs. The studies of Podsakoff et al. (2009), and Podsakoff et al. (2014) involved two meta analyses which examined individual and unit level consequences and outcomes of promoting OCBs according to the seven dimensions.

Helping others voluntarily at the workplace and preventing problems for co-workers has long been recognised as a basic form of organisational citizenship behaviour (Dyne et al., 1994; Graham, 1991; Organ, Podsakoff, Mackenzie, & Werner, 2006; Organ, 1988), which Smith et al. (1983) called altruism. Sportsmanship as an OCB involves accepting inconveniences at the

workplace without complaining, maintaining a positive attitude, and being willing to sacrifice an individual interest for the sake of the group (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1993; Organ, 1994; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Loyalty towards the organisation entails promoting and defending organisational goals and remaining committed to the organisation, even under adverse conditions (Jiao, Richard, & Zhang, 2011; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Seyed-Mehdi, 2012), while organisational compliance is what Graham (1991) called 'organisational obedience'. Compliance includes a person's willingness to follow the rules, regulations and procedures without being monitored or forced.

Podsakoff et al. (2000) described individual initiative as acts of creativity and innovation that promotes organisational performance. This involves persistent enthusiasm to complete one's job and take up extra responsibilities within the organisation. This behaviour is like Organ's (1988) conscientiousness, Dyne et al.'s (1994) personal industry, and Moorman and Blakely's (1995) individual initiative constructs.

Civic virtue (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff et al., 2000) pertains to an overall interest in, and commitment to, the organisation, as well as a willingness to take part in the organisational governance and decision-making. Civic virtue was referred to as organisational participation by Dyne et al. (1994), and as protecting the organisation by George and Brief (1992).

Self-development, another dimension of OCBs, includes the engagement of individuals to improve his or her knowledge, skills and abilities through voluntary participation in training. Such an OCB is beneficial because the acquisition of the latest know-how in one's field of work ultimately contributes to the organisation (George & Brief, 1992; Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Understanding how CEOs and senior managers promote the OCBs of their subordinate staff includes investigating how and to what extent CEOs and senior managers promote the seven dimensions of OCB. It also requires asking subordinate staff about their experiences/perceptions of CEOs and senior managers promoting these seven dimensions of OCBs. For instance, how do CEOs and senior managers encourage helping behaviours among subordinate staff; promote sportsmanship by encouraging subordinate staff to accept inconveniences at the workplace; promote loyalty to the organisation; and encourage subordinate staff to follow the rules and regulations voluntarily without being forced, thus promoting OCBs as organisational compliance. This study endeavoured to assess how CEOs and senior managers encourage creativity and innovation, promote individual initiative, increase the commitment and overall interests of the subordinate staff in matters of the organisation, and promote and encourage the

self-development of their subordinate staff. Understanding role modelling for OCBs means how and to what extent CEOs and senior managers show personal examples of these dimensions of OCB in their life and work, and how effective it is in making subordinate staff emulate similar behaviours. The study also endeavoured to discover what transformational and transactional behaviours/styles are most useful, what the group outcome of promoting OCBs amongst subordinate staff are, and what contingent and non-contingent rewards are made use of to promote the OCBs of the subordinate staff.

Understanding and measuring the concept of OCB and role modelling had been dominantly quantitative in its approach. A phenomenological approach using a qualitative method that explore the lived experiences of CEOs, senior managers, and subordinate staff, would give further insights on these concepts from the lived experiences of the participants, adding to the body of knowledge what might have been missed in a quantitative approach. In doing so, the study adds a methodological contribution as well.

2.4 Synthesis

The following section provides a synthesis of both the thematic and empirical literature reviews.

Themes and Concepts/Constructs	Observations/Knowledge Gaps/Limitations
<p>Role Modelling: Definition/Concept</p> <p>The literature review shows that a role model is a person who is worthy of imitation (Merton, 1968), i.e., someone to look up to and base one’s character, values and aspirations on (Gauntlet, 2003). They are someone who provides a template for success and achievements (Lockwood, 2006), who facilitates learning a skill or a behaviour (Bar Nir et al., 2011, Sealy & Singh, 2010), who presents a behavioural model to role aspirants, who represents the possible, and who is a provider of inspiration (Morgenroth & Ryan, 2015)</p> <p>Role Modelling: Theoretical Aspects</p> <p>Social learning theory: Human beings learn best when</p>	<p>Existing studies offer general insights into the usefulness, benefits and effects of role modelling for organisational leadership and management; however the existing body of knowledge (both theoretical and empirical) lies predominantly within the context of for-profit organisations, and are conducted within the social, cultural and organisational backgrounds of America, Europe or Asia.</p> <p>The present study contributes to the</p>

they observe the behaviours of others and are driven to act (Bandura, 1971). People can learn through a concrete experience and/or an encounter with a significant other (Sternberg & Zhang, 2014).

Social interactions facilitate social learning (Hurst et al., 2013; Friedkin, 1998). One can learn through an examination of underlying assumptions facilitated through social interactions, which leads to a change in attitude and behaviours (Mezirow, 1997). Social interactions influence one's opinion and view (Stevenson & Greenberg, 2000; Erikson, 1998; Prel et al., 2010); they facilitate learning through information transmission and deliberations (Newing et al., 2010; Rist et al., 2007). Social units can learn as a group as opposed to individuals who learn independently and produce group outcomes (Armitage et al., 2008; Solomon, 2006; Janis, 1989). The social interactions of role models influence role aspirants' acceptance of the role model (Weiss, 1997; Berlow & Hall, 1996; Huang & Li, 2009), although some studies have found that social interactions are not always necessary for the acceptance of the role model if the role aspirant values other factors more (Javidan et al., 1995). Studies show that social interactions improve professional skills (Lalonde, 2010; Ajjawi & Higgs, 2008) and employee performance (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Edeh & Comfort, 2019), facilitate learning the organisational culture (Luca, 2016), and reduce work-related stress (Pooja et al., 2016).

Role Modelling and Behaviour Change

Human behaviours can be learned or unlearned (Bandura, 1974). Learning new behaviour involves symbolising, forethought, vicarious learning, self-regulation and self-reflection (Stajakovic & Luthans, 2003). A new behaviour is sustained through behavioural intention, which comprises the attitude towards the behaviour, the belief

theoretical and practical knowledge about how and to what extent CEOs and senior managers promote OCBs among their subordinate staff, and the effectiveness of role modelling for OCBs. The study also furthers an understanding from the perspective of the lived experiences of people involved in NFPOs within the social and cultural contexts of Africa.

From the perspective of social learning theory, role modelling for OCBs is an effective tool to stimulate similar behaviours from others, i.e., the theory provides a foundation for how subordinate staff learn OCBs by observing the behaviours of their CEOs and senior managers. The present study also provided insights into what and how subordinate staff are motivated to emulate OCBs and to sustain those behaviours for the benefit of their co-workers and the organisation.

The study also furthers our understanding of how the social interactions of CEOs and senior managers facilitate role modelling for OCBs.

Role modelling could facilitate a lasting behavioural change if CEOs and senior managers could convince the subordinate staff it is worth engaging in OCBs, motivate them to engage in OCBs, and increase their perception of how OCBs could enrich their lives (Dreier, 2009) and benefit the organisation. However, further studies are needed to know how CEOs and

about the reaction of others to the behaviour, and the perceived control over the behaviour (Ajzen, 1991).

Conditions for Role Modelling

Conditions that facilitate effective role modelling include consistency and routine in showing the exemplified behaviour (Weaver et al., 2005), the belief that the set example is attainable (Hoyt, 2013; Hoyt et al., 2012; Hoyt & Simon, 2011, Lockwood & Kunda, 1997), a display of enthusiasm for engaging in exemplified behaviour or value (Ambrozy et al., 1997), a feeling of trust between the role model and role aspirant (Hawes & Rich, 1998), a display of positive attitude (Peryy, 2009), and persistence and integrity (Sanderse, 2013). Other factors, such as a role aspirant's expectancy to achieve similar success to that of the role model, identification with the leader, the leader's and follower's aspirations, perceptions about the leader's performance, the belief that there is still a chance to win/achieve, and the expectancy that role aspirants' ability will improve over time (Hoyt et al., 2012; Taylor, Wayment, & Carrillo, 1996; Thomas, Dickson, & Bliese, 2001), facilitate role modelling.

Motivation to follow a Role Model

Motivation to follow a role model comes from the positive or negative influence that the role model has on the role aspirant (Lockwood et al., 2002). Other factors that motivate a role aspirant to follow a role model include the goal achievement needs of the role aspirant, the higher standard set by the role model (Carver & Scheier, 1981), and the possibility of learning from the role model's strategies to prevent potential failures (Lockwood et al., 2002; Lockwood & Kunda, 1997). A role aspirant could also follow a role model for intrinsic or extrinsic motivations that can include intrinsic (contingent) rewards (Samsone & Harackiewicz, 2000), a desire to align one's value and self-image to that of the role model

senior managers can make that happen, and what organisational and social conditions within the third sector facilitate effective role modelling for OCBs.

Studies show that role modelling is an effective tool that can promote a myriad of activities and fulfil various functions for the role aspirants. However, studies that provide insights into the effectiveness of role modelling for OCBs by CEOs and senior managers within the not-for-profit organisation are limited.

The present study provides insights into how effective role modelling is to promote the OCBs of subordinate staff. As employees of NFPOs have different values, views and career aspirations, further studies would provide more understanding on what qualities, values and competencies of CEOs and senior managers make them effective role models for OCBs, who are capable of inspiring and moving their subordinates to emulate similar behaviours.

<p>(Shapiro et al., 1978; Brunstein, 2010; Taylore et al., 1996), and self-identity (Thomas et al., 2001).</p> <p>Effectiveness of Role Modelling for OCBs</p> <p>It is clear from the literature review that role modelling is a useful tool to lead people without coercion. Role models have the potential to stimulate behavioural change in the role aspirant, including a change in lifestyle, attitudes and/or beliefs, or motivating them to achieve goals (Morgenroth et al., 2015). Studies show that role modelling effectively promotes entrepreneurship (Farrukh et al., 2019), influences subordinates' behaviours to motivate them to set ambitious goals (Weiss, 1977; Morgenroth et al., 2015; Lockwood et al., 2002), influences career choices (Quimby & Santis, 2006; Stout et al., 2011; Gibson, 2003; Wolbrecht & Campbell, 2007; Calalyst, 2003; Shairo et al., 1978; Singh, Vinnicombe & James, 2006), boosts political activism in young people (Campbell & Wolbrecht, 2006), motivates employees to unlock their potential and overcome their weaknesses (Lockwood, 2006; Lockwood et al., 2002), and helps to avoid potential failures (Carver & Scheier, 1981; Lockwood et al., 2002; Lockwood & Kunda, 1997).</p> <p>Role models are effective as symbols of possibility (Chung, 2000) and influencing the values of the role aspirants (Schindler et al., 2013; Thrash & Elliot, 2004; Ruiz-Palomino & Martinez-Canas, 2011). Role models are also good at imparting professional values for doctors and nurses (Perry, 2009; Paice, 2002; Cruess et al., 2008), and inspiring group OCBs (Yaffe & Kark, 2011).</p>	
<p>Organisational Citizenship Behaviour</p> <p>Definition/Concept</p> <p>Voluntary, non-enforceable, and not-explicitly rewarded, employee responses and actions that are outside the job description, that benefit the co-workers, organisation, and</p>	<p>To address the unique challenges in NFPOs (Mahalinga & Suar, 2012; Kang et al., 2015; Moynihan & Pandey, 2008), researchers have called for leadership that sets an exemplary model of dedicated</p>

contribute to improve organisational performance (Organ, 1988; Hankman, 1987; Organ et al., 2006). There are broadly two types of OCBs: those directed towards others and those directed towards the organisation (Organ, 1988; LePine et al., 2002; Tambe & Meera, 2014; Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Importance and Benefits of OCBs

OCBs facilitate and motivate employee creativity and innovation (Ambile & Pratt, 2016) contribute to organisational performance and effectiveness, and reduce organisational costs (Nemeth & Staw, 1989; Poncheri, 2006; Podsakoff et al., 1990, Podsakoff et al., 2000). OCB provides work-meaningfulness to employees (Katz & Kahn, 1978), reduce employee turnover through positive work attitude (Podsakoff et al., 2009; Podsakoff et al., 2000), increase employee commitment (Abdullah & Akhar, 2016; Cokluk & Yilmaz, 2008; Koys, 2001), OCB serves as the basis for performance evaluation (Kearns et al., 2015; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000), increases the social capital of the organisation (Bolio et al., 2002; Kizilos et al., 2013) OCB helps to develop human capital through tacit knowledge (Bolino et al., 2002; Green, Slade & Jimmerson, 2011).

Promoting OCBs

Studies showed employee job satisfaction promoted OCBs (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Seyed-Mehdi, 2012; Anderson, 2021; Hidayah & Harnoto, 2018; Margahana et al., 2018). Studies also show developing a positive psychological contract promotes OCBs (Gupta, Agarwal & Khatri, 2016; Tufan & Wendt, 2020; Coyle-Shapiro, 2002). CEOs and senior managers promoted OCBs of the employees by improving perceived organisational justice (making employees feel treated fairly and their contributions values) (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993; Restubog et al., 2008), by improving employee job

service and fosters a service-oriented culture within these organisations. These challenges include financial constraints (Mahalinga & Suar, 2012), reduced job satisfaction (Kang et al., 2015) and high employee turnover (Moynihan & Pandey, 2008). Empirical studies provide insights that promoting OCBs could be leveraged to solve some of these challenges. The extant studies also show that promoting OCBs enhances organisational effectiveness and performance.

NFPOs have unique contexts, environments (Myers & Sacks, 2003), leadership and management needs (Kearns et al., 2015), therefore what suits for-profit organisations might not work for NFPOs. Employees' aspirations and motives also often differ in NFPOs. Studies show, for instance, that leaders of NFPOs place more stress on goal attainment and the mission to get cooperation, rather than relying on hierarchy, coercion and material rewards (Edwards & Fowler, 2002; Mahalinga & Suar, 2012). Therefore, further studies are necessary to understand how OCBs can be promoted in NFPOs.

The present study provided insights into how and to what extent CEOs and senior managers promote the OCBs of their subordinate staff within OCBs, leveraging them as a solution to some of the key challenges within the sector.

<p>embeddedness (Lee et al., 2004; Mcbain, 2004), through HRM practices and informal systems (Bolino et al., 2003; Decko et al., 2004; Donovan et al., 2004), by promoting cultural rootedness of collectivism (Ueda, 2011; Cohen, 2006).</p>	
<p>Transformational and Transactional Leadership, and Group Outcomes of Promoting OCBs</p> <p>Studies show the idealised influence of the transformational leader, makes the leader a role model for the followers (Bass, 1999; Avolio et al., 2009; Dinh et al., 2014). This influence results from the both behaviours of the leader and from the attributes of the followers (Barbuto, 2005). Transformational leadership encourages the followers to go beyond the call of duty and do more than what is expected (Bass, 1999).</p> <p>Empirical studies show transformational leadership promote OCB of their followers (Connel, 2005; Guay & Choi, 2015; Nahum-Shani & Somech, 2011; Jiao, Richards & Zhang, 2011; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006). Transformational leadership augments transactional leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006), and will utilise rewards to influence their followers (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).</p> <p>Transactional leaders encourage compliance from followers through rewards (both contingent and non-contingent), and contingent punishments (Bass, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1999; Odumeru & Ogbonna, 2013), transactional leaders influence their followers through contingent, constructive and corrective rewards (Bass & Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1999; Avolio & Bass, 2002).</p> <p>Empirical studies evidence rewards influence willingness and intention to engage in OCBs (Ravlin et al., 2015; Haworth & Levy, 2001; Walumbwa, Wu & Orwa, 2008; Schnake & Dumler, 1997; Brown, Byatt & Benson, 2010; Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000; Restubog et al., 2008,</p>	<p>Existing studies show that transformational leadership is closely connected to role modelling and OCBs, however most studies take place within for-profit organisations. Further studies will shed more light on what transformational and transactional factors CEOs and senior managers utilise to promote the OCBs of their subordinate staff. The literature also describes how transformational and transactional leadership styles affect OCBs at the individual level, yet little is known about the group level outcomes of promoting OCBs using both transformational and transactional leadership styles.</p> <p>Studies further show that both contingent and non-contingent rewards affect the engagement and intention to engage in OCBs, however empirical research pertaining to what contingent and non-contingent rewards are useful in NFPOs to promote the OCBs of the employees is limited.</p> <p>The present study endeavoured to discover how not-for-profit leaders use transformational and transactional leadership factors help to promote OCBs of the subordinate staff. The study also endeavours to know what are the group</p>

<p>Finkelstein & Penner, 2004).</p> <p>Promoting OCB results in positive outcomes for the organisations (Organ, 1998). These outcomes include; reduced managerial costs through better employee engagement (Organ,1998, Podsakoff et al., 2000), improved task-goal interdependencies among organisational groups (Mcbain, 2004), increased organisational productivity, profitability and reduced employee turnover (Podsakoff et al., 2009; Nemeth & Staw, 1989; Podsakoff et al., 2000</p>	<p>outcomes of promoting OCBs of the subordinate staff. The study also attempted to investigate what contingent and non-contingent rewards CEOs and senior managers use to promote the OCBs of their subordinate staff in NFPOs in Tanzania.</p>
<p>Measures of OCBs</p> <p>OCBs were measured initially by assessing behaviours that were assumed to be extra-role expressed as altruism and compliance (Smit, Organ & Near, 1983). Organ further developed the concept and measured it using five categories of altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtue (Organ, 1998).</p> <p>Podsakoff et al., (2000) propose seven dimensions of OCB that included helping behaviour, sportsmanship, organisational loyalty, organisational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue and self-development. These seven dimensions have been widely accepted by the scholarly community as prominent dimensions of OCBs (Dávila & Finkelstein, 2010; Hui, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005; Podsakoff et al., 2014; Podsakoff et al., 2009).</p>	<p>The majority of empirical studies that measured OCBs are quantitative. However, the lived experiences of CEOs, senior managers and subordinate staff regarding how OCBs are promoted in NFPOs cannot be captured using a quantitative method. The present study thus employed a phenomenological qualitative approach to find answers to the primary research question: How and to what extent are CEOs and senior managers promoting OCBs?</p>
<p>Intended Contribution of the Research</p>	
<p>This study intended to provide new insights into OCBs and role modelling that are relevant to NFPOs, because most of the research on role modelling and promoting OCBs was done within the for-profit sector. Empirical studies that explain how CEOs and senior managers role model for OCBs in NFPOs are scarce.</p> <p>NFPOs often employ different indicators compared to for-profit organisations for evaluating organisational effectiveness, such as goal attainment, outcome accountability, overhead minimisation,</p>	

and other multi-dimensional measurement models (Mitchell, 2012; Spar & Dail, 2002). The unique NFPO context, environment (Myers & Sacks, 2003), leadership and management (Kearns et al., 2015) requires additional research on OCBs, transformational and transactional leadership, and the effectiveness of role modelling (leading by example) in NFPOs in Africa. Such research would provide new insights for NFPOs to promote the OCBs of their employees and leverage the benefits and outcomes of promoting OCBs to mitigate some of the organisational challenges specific to the not-for-profit sector.

This study provided insights into how and to what extent CEOs and senior managers promote OCBs, as well as how effective role modelling is to promote the OCBs of subordinate staff. The study provides new insights into how transformational and transactional leadership styles, social interactions and contingent and non-contingent rewards help role modelling and the promotion of OCBs. The study also ventured to understand the group level outcomes of promoting OCBs within NFPOs.

The present study provides new insights into the nuances of promoting OCBs and the effect of role modelling in NFPOs by exploring the experiences of CEOs, senior managers and their subordinate staff. The study describes the implications for not-for-profit management on how to promote OCBs and utilise the benefits of OCBs for the not-for-profit sector. The study further provides insights into mitigating specific challenges in NFPOs when developing the OCBs of employees.

CHAPTER 3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

Chapter 3 describes the study's philosophical assumptions, methodological approach and research design, as well as the reasons for using a phenomenological approach. Likewise, the chapter provides details about the study's sampling, data collection and data analysis.

3.2 Research Questions

This study explored how, and to what extent, CEOs and senior managers promote OCBs in NFPOs, and the effectiveness of role modelling.

The study addressed the following research questions:

- How, and to what extent, do CEOs and senior managers foster and promote organisational citizenship behaviours?
- How effective is role modelling for OCBs?

The following sub-questions were asked for further understanding:

- How do CEOs and senior managers utilise transformational or transactional leadership styles to promote OCBs, and what are the group outcomes?
- What contingent and non-contingent rewards do CEOs and senior managers utilise to promote OCBs in not-for-profit organisations, and how?
- How, and to what extent, does role modelling of organisational citizenship behaviours by CEOs and senior managers influence the OCBs of other employees?
- How, and to what extent, do the social interactions of CEOs and senior managers with their subordinates influence role modelling for OCBs?

3.3 The Philosophical Foundation

All social research begins with assumptions, either explicit or implicit, about the social world (ontology) and the way of knowing it (epistemology) (Crotty, 1998). The ontological concern

is about reality, i.e., it affirms whether the reality under investigation is “external to the individual” or results from “individual consciousness” (Burrell & Morgan, 1992), while the epistemological concern is about types of knowledge and how this knowledge is derived.

Ontological assumptions could either be objective or subjective. Objectivism asserts that social reality is independent of the social actors, and that reality could be observed and measured objectively (Morgan & Smircich, 1980). Negating the objectivists’ view on reality, subjectivists assert that reality is subjective and is embedded within specified frames of references in terms of subjective experiences (Gill & Johnson, 2002). Epistemological claims are about what we can know about the reality, what is the reality that exists that may be known, and how and what is possible to know about that reality one seeks to understand (Blaikie, 2012; Chia, 2003).

Objectivists hold that truth is objective, existing independently of our awareness, but for subjectivists, the truth is constructed by people according to their interactions with the world (Crotty, 1998). Pragmatism, as a philosophical stand in inquiry, holds that knowledge is an indispensable phenomenon or an intimate experience (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Pragmatists maintain that reality exists, but the meaning and the boundaries of knowledge about the reality are not permanent. Therefore, knowledge about the reality can change or be changed over time (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). A pragmatic approach allows the researcher to link the allegedly conflicting views of positivism and subjectivism about the reality (Creswell, 2013).

A pragmatist worldview guided this study as it utilised the mixed-method research design. The study assumes that the phenomenon of promoting OCBs and role modelling is embedded within the subjective lived experiences of CEOs, senior managers and subordinate staff, and the reality is present and constructed by those subjective experiences. The experiences, circumstances and the agents of action themselves (CEOs, senior managers and subordinate staff) can change over time, which alters the understanding of the reality of promoting OCBs and role modelling for OCBs. The study sought to understand and statistically measure the transformational and transactional leadership styles of the CEOs and senior managers, prompting a mixed-method research design. Pragmatism offers a justification for combining quantitative and qualitative methods (Biesta, 2015; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Morgan, 2007), allowing for abductive reasoning that facilitates useful points of connection between induction and deduction. This alternative abductive reasoning (Morgan, 2007) provides solutions to mitigate critical issues associated with both the quantitative and qualitative approaches.

3.4 Research Design

Research design is the overall strategy that allows a researcher to coherently integrate the various components of their study to answer the research question(s). An appropriate research design ensures the validity, reliability and accuracy of the research (Bickman & Rog, 1998) by providing guidelines on how to collect the data, the sample size, the sampling methods and the data analysis.

3.4.1 The Methodological Approach

The methodological approach and the research design help a researcher bind the epistemology, methods and philosophy (Harvey, 1990), putting in place strategies, processes and techniques to collect data for a study, conduct analyses and find answers to the research questions. The sequential procedure includes the formulation of the research problem, research design, data collection, analysis of the data to draw inferences, and reaching conclusions. The research design for this study involved combining both quantitative and qualitative methods, resulting in a mixed-method design.

The researcher compared both the qualitative and quantitative approaches and decided on the respective strands of the study that would help answer the research questions. In the quantitative part of the study, the researcher measured the leadership styles of the CEOs and senior managers using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). The MLQ was distributed to the CEOs and senior managers of NFPOs who he hoped to interview for the qualitative part of the study. Data from the MLQ were analysed and the dominant leadership orientations of the CEOs and senior managers were mapped. The primary intention was to filter out any CEOs and senior managers who might show a dominant passive/avoidant leadership orientation. The researcher used an interview schedule and applied a phenomenological approach to collect qualitative data. In addition, the researcher used memos and a checklist to collect qualitative data for the research. The researcher used the phenomenological approach to capture the lived experiences of CEOs, senior managers and subordinate staff regarding promoting OCBs and role modelling for OCBs. Table 1 gives a comparative summary of both the quantitative and qualitative approaches.

Table 1: Comparison of Research Approaches

Qualitative Research	Quantitative Research
Induction	Deduction
<i>Purpose</i> Generates theory from observations. Oriented to discovery, exploration.	<i>Purpose</i> Tests theory through observations. Oriented to cause and effect.
<i>Procedures</i> Emergent design. Merges data collection and analysis.	<i>Procedures</i> Predetermined design. Separates data collection and analysis.
Subjectivity	Objectivity
<i>Purpose</i> Emphasises meanings, interpretation. Tries to understand others' perspectives.	<i>Purpose</i> Emphasises things that can be measured. Results do not depend on beliefs.
<i>Procedures</i> The researcher is involved, close to the data. The researcher is the "research instrument".	<i>Procedures</i> The researcher is detached from the data. The researcher relies on standardised protocols.
Context	Context
<i>Purpose</i> Emphasises specific depth and detail. Analyses holistic systems.	<i>Purpose</i> Emphasises generalisation and replication. Analyses variables.
<i>Procedures</i> Uses a naturalistic approach. Relies on a few purposively chosen cases.	<i>Procedures</i> Uses experimental and statistical controls. Works across a larger number of cases.
Source: Morgan (2014, p. 50)	

The research strategy was based on the type of research questions asked, the objectives of the research, the time and resources available to the researcher, the extent of existing knowledge, and the philosophical underpinning of the study (Saunders et al., 2009). The study required the

identification of the major leadership styles of the participants to understand the influence of transformational and transactional leaders on role modelling for OCBs. A mixed-method design was appropriate as it allowed the researcher to use a “prioritised combination of strategy and tactics” (McGregor, 2020, p. 214) in answering the research questions.

The researcher followed a mixed-method design, with the qualitative part being the primary method and the quantitative part providing support for the qualitative research (Creswell, Plano, Gutmann, & Hanson, 2003) by facilitating sampling (Bryman, 2006; Clark & Ivankova, 2018). In a mixed-method research, the researcher has many design options depending on the interaction, priority, timing and mixing of the quantitative and qualitative strands of the study (Creswell, 2013). According to Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998), there are three types of design options available to a mixed-method study design: 1) equivalent status; ii) dominant/less dominant design; and iii) multilevel design. This research followed the dominant/less dominant design option. The qualitative part was the dominant part of the study, which investigated how and to what extent CEOs and senior managers promote OCBs among their subordinate staff and the effectiveness of role modelling. The quantitative part was less dominant as it assisted with the sample selection for the interviews in order to ascertain the dominant leadership styles of the CEOs and senior managers, as well as filter any participant (CEO/senior manager) who might have a *laissez-faire* (passive/avoidant) leadership style. For the sample selection, the researcher looked for CEOs and senior managers who exhibited either transformational or transactional leadership orientations, i.e., who did not exhibit a *laissez-faire* leadership orientation. Other motivations for selecting the mixed-method design for the study included the fact that it is accepted as a third approach or research paradigm (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004b), and has gained relevance in business and social research (Bryman, 2006).

3.4.2 Reliability and Validity in Mixed-Method Research

The researcher ensured the reliability and validity of the study through the respective quantitative and qualitative strands of the study (Bryman, 2006; Creswell, Clark, Gutmann, & Hanson, 2003; Ihantola & Kihn, 2011; Morse, 2015). To ensure the internal and external validity (Bolarinwa, 2015) of the quantitative part of the study, the researcher used an appropriate survey instrument (the MLQ), which has proven reliability and validity (Bass & Avolio, 2000; Avolio & Bass, 2015) (see Section 3.5.4.1 for further details). Similarly, the credibility and trustworthiness (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006; Saunders et al., 2009) of the qualitative strand of the study was assured (see Section 3.6.2) as the researcher drew samples

from the same population and analysed the data separately to avoid any potential validity threats that might arise from data mix-up (Creswell & Clark, 2011). The researcher further enhanced the validity and reliability of the study by interpreting and applying the data, attempting to reach “defensible conclusions” (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010) through “quality-inference” (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010).

3.5 Part One - Quantitative Research

The researcher included the quantitative strand in order to identify the leadership orientations of the CEOs and senior managers, as well as to ascertain if any CEO or senior manager whom the researcher intended to interview might possess a passive/avoidant leadership style. Assessing their leadership orientations helped the researcher to investigate the effectiveness and influence of their leadership styles in promoting OCBs through role modelling.

3.5.1 Sample Design

For part one of the study, CEOs, senior managers and subordinate staff of NFPOs were considered the universe, while those of NFPOs in Tanzania were the population.

3.5.2 Sampling Techniques

The researcher adopted purposive and convenient sampling techniques, identifying 100 NFPOs from four regions of Tanzania, namely Dar es Salaam, Morogoro, Dodoma and Arusha. The CEOs, senior managers and subordinate staff of these NFPOs were identified as participants for the study. The researcher approached 900 people in these NFPOs, of which 822 (67 CEOs, 70 senior managers, and 685 subordinate staff) consented to take part in the study. The total number of surveys returned was 714. (see Table 2). The researcher assured all participants of the confidentiality of the data and received a signed informed consent form from each of them. The consent form briefly described the study and informed the participants of their freedom to end their participation at any time. The CEOs and senior managers were given the MLQ leader-forms while the subordinate staff were given the MLQ rater-forms. The researcher collected each group of forms separately from each organisation. Table 2 provides a summary of the participants’ details.

Table 2: Details of the Participants in the MLQ Survey

	Number approached	Number of surveys administered	Number of completed surveys returned
CEOs	75	67	64 (Leader-forms)
Senior Managers	75	70	55 (Leader-forms)
Subordinate staff	750	685	595 (Rater forms)
Total	900	822	714
Total number of NFPOs approached			100
Total number of NFPOs that took part in the study			64

3.5.3 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

The researcher included certain inclusion and exclusion criteria for sample selection. The inclusion criteria helped to set the conditions that had to be met for participation in the study, while the exclusion criteria helped to set the conditions for not allowing participation in a study (Daniel, 2014, p. 8). The researcher incorporated inclusion and exclusion criteria in the research design to optimise the external and internal validity, to improve the feasibility, and to lower the cost of the research (Salkind, 2012). Using the exclusion criteria, the researcher avoided participants who were considered highly likely to be lost to follow-ups, who lacked experience, or who might introduce bias when answering questions (Robinson, 2014; Salkind, 2012).

In the inclusion criteria, the researcher considered CEOs and senior managers with a minimum of five years' experience in NFPOs, who were working in 2017 at one of the 100 NFPOs shortlisted to take part in the study. Selection criteria for the NFPOs were geographical distribution and convenience, i.e., 50 from Dar es Salaam, 15 from Morogoro, 20 from Dodoma and 15 from Arusha. The study used a purposive and convenient sampling strategy, i.e., the researcher looked for participants with knowledge/experience of the phenomenon. The researcher selected the Dar es Salaam region because most of the NFPOs registered in Tanzania have their headquarters in Dar es Salaam, the commercial capital of Tanzania. The researcher included other regions because he had a network that facilitated access to the NFPOs in those

regions. The researcher included only those CEOs and senior managers who gave their informed consent to take part in the study. Among the subordinate staff, the researcher included those who had been working with the CEO or senior manager for at least two years.

The researcher excluded CEOs and senior managers who did not give their consent or did not show genuine interest and enthusiasm to take part in the study. Similarly, the researcher excluded those subordinate staff who did not consent to participate in the study, and those who had less than two years of working with the CEO or senior managers. The researcher used these exclusion criteria to get the maximum response rate from the questionnaires. The researcher had to use caution in distributing the questionnaires to maximise the use of the licenses available to him from Mind Garden Inc.

The researcher also excluded CEOs, senior managers and subordinate staff who were on a temporary employment contract that was due to end within six months. This was done to avoid the possibility of these CEOs and senior managers not being available for the interview phase of the research, as they may have completed their tenures and left the organisation. The researcher further excluded CEOs who were the owners or founders of the NFPOs in order to avoid any bias towards their own initiatives or undertakings. The researcher selected all the participants without considering their gender, caste, age and religious or political affiliations.

3.5.4 Research Instrument Used

For the quantitative data collection, the researcher used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ).

3.5.4.1 The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

The researcher used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Avolio & Bass, 2015) to understand the different leadership styles of the CEOs and senior managers. The MLQ was developed and validated as a standard instrument to assess transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership scales in various settings and different languages. The researcher got the licenses and permission to use the MLQ (3rd edition), manual and sample set, as well as permission to reproduce such from Mind Garden Inc., which is the copyright holder (see Appendix 4). The MLQ helped the researcher to identify which CEOs and senior managers had prominent transformational and transactional leadership styles. The research design included an option to reject a participant if he/she had a dominant laissez-faire leadership style.

The researcher conducted the survey using the English version of the MLQ form 5x-short, with rater forms, to identify the leadership styles/orientations of the potential participants. The rater forms included the leader form for self-rating and the rater forms for others to rate the leader (CEOs and senior managers). For every CEO and senior manager, there were five raters who were their colleagues in the same organisation. The raters for CEOs were all colleagues who held lower-level employment positions, while the raters for the senior managers included one from a higher level and four from lower levels.

The MLQ was in the English language, even though it is not the first language in Tanzania. This was justified because all the CEOs, senior managers, and subordinate staff of the NFPOs had the competency to understand the English language. Twenty items reflecting four dimensions of transformational leadership: (1) idealised influence; (2) individual consideration; (3) intellectual stimulation; and (4) inspirational motivation, measured the transformational leadership style of the CEOs and senior managers. Four items reflecting three dimensions of transactional leadership: (1) contingent reward; (2) management by exception (active); and (3) management by exception (passive), measured the transactional leadership style of the CEOs and senior managers. CEOs and senior managers with a laissez-faire leadership style were not considered for this research, as it amounted to a lack of leadership. A five-point Likert-type scale (from 1 - never to 5 - always) measured the items for transformational and transactional leadership styles.

The survey using the MLQ was a practical and cost-effective way of gathering data (Andres, 2012), and helped the researcher to understand the prominent leadership orientations of CEOs and senior managers (McGregor, 2018). The researcher mitigated the challenges associated with a survey (low response rate, survey fatigue, inadequate responses) by providing a consent form, allowing sufficient time for filling in the questionnaires, using reminders, and assuring confidentiality of the data (Andres, 2017; Saunders et al., 2009).

The researcher used the MLQ because of its proven reliability and validity in measuring the intended leadership orientations (Bass & Avolio, 2000; Singh, 2017; Tejada, Scandura, & Pillai, 2001), its ready-to-use availability, the relative ease of data analysis, its relatively low cost, and its simple to administer format which was familiar to most respondents.

The MLQ has evolved over the past 25 years, having been used to successfully investigate leadership orientations in public and private organisations, military settings, educational

institutions, churches and volunteer organisations (Bass & Avolio, 1993; 1999; 2004; Berson, 1999). The leaders who have been investigated over the years through the MLQ have ranged from CEOs to managers of large corporations and non-supervisory project leaders (Avolio & Bass, 2015). For this reason, it was unnecessary to re-test the reliability and validity of the MLQ before using it to collect the data.

3.5.4.2 Validity and Reliability

The validity of a questionnaire as a research instrument is assured through face validity, content validity, construct validity, criterion validity and concurrent validity, which are broadly grouped into internal validity and external validity (Bolarinwa, 2015; Singh, 2017). The internal and external validity of the MLQ questionnaire had already been tested in many studies and standardised, including the structural, construct, factorial and predictive validity (Bass & Avolio, 2000; Brown, 2008; Tejada et al., 2001). Scholars have reported the MLQ's internal consistency reliability as satisfactory, with above 70% for all scales, except for active management by exception. The test-retest reliability ranged from .63 to .92 for the initial sample set and .64 to .92 for the replication set (Bass & Avolio, 2000; Rowold, 2005). The researcher accepted these validities and utilised the MLQ to collect data. The researcher tested the reliability of the MLQ for the present study using the Cronbach's Alpha reliability analysis (see Section 4.2.5.3).

3.5.5 Negotiating Access and Administering the Questionnaire

The researcher utilised some of the recommendations proposed by Saunders et al. (2009) for gaining physical access to the NFPOs and to negotiate permission to collect data.

The researcher is a member of the Catholic Missionary Congregation, which is actively involved in social and development projects in East Africa. The congregation has a network of NFPOs that are its developmental partners, thus the researcher knew the CEOs and senior managers of these NFPOs and gained access promptly. The researcher had also worked with Tanzanian NFPOs as the project coordinator for his religious congregation in that country, thus his familiarity facilitated easier access (Saunders et al., 2009).

With organisations where the researcher did not have a contact, he approached NFPOs through a personal reference, "utilising existing contacts and developing new ones" (Saunders et al., 2009, p. 173). The researcher, being a missionary priest and working in a parish in Dar es Salaam as an assistant pastor, gained access to some NFPOs through his parishioners who were

working in NFPOs as CEOs or senior managers. Others who were not CEOs or senior managers assisted the researcher in negotiating access to some CEOs and senior managers of NFPOs where they had influence.

When a CEO or senior manager consented to take part in the study but an appointment date was not available, either for submitting or collecting the MLQ or for interviews, the researcher followed up through emails and telephone calls. The researcher took great care, in these cases, to avoid any grounds for offence (Saunders et al., 2009).

The researcher resolved the organisational concerns of NFPOs (Saunders et al., 2009) regarding the use of the MLQ, the required times for interviews, confidentiality and the intended use of the data by providing a detailed letter of introduction regarding the research and its purpose. Assuring the NFPOs of confidentiality and declaring that the researcher was not collecting any sensitive information regarding their organisations helped to mitigate any organisational concerns and provided access for data collection.

The researcher was aware that social desirability bias might affect the study. This bias refers to any systematic errors that might come into the study, especially in self-reporting measures, because of a respondent's desire to avoid potential embarrassment and the desire to present a favourable image and/or look good (Fisher, 1993). One way a researcher can reduce social desirability bias is to help the participants to limit lying and boost honest responses by assuring the anonymity and confidentiality of the data collected (Fernandes & Randall, 1992), which this researcher did. In addition, the researcher negotiated access to the organisations and then a third-party research assistant distributed and collected the MLQs. The researcher did so to mitigate the social desirability bias that might arise from impression management (the desire to look better) in a face-to-face survey or interview (Gittelman et al., 2015). During the interviews, the researcher assured the participants again of the confidentiality of all data through an informed consent form and clarified that they would be used anonymously and only for academic purposes. Options such as measuring social desirability bias (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960) or using an appropriate test to assess the bias of the respondents (Fernandes & Randall, 1992) were not viable for this study, as it was beyond the study's scope. The researcher accepted this limitation.

3.5.6 Storing of Data

The researcher followed strict protocols for storing data securely (Blumzon & Pănescu, 2020), including using a password-protected personal computer. The researcher also separated identifiable information from the survey and used codes instead of names to identify the participants while sampling for interviews in the second part of the study. After the interviews, the researcher destroyed the identifiable codes and the data were made fully anonymous.

3.5.7 Quantitative Data Analysis

The researcher analysed the quantitative data following the guidelines provided in the MLQ manual to calculate the individual scores for the CEOs and senior managers. The MLQ scores were thus the average scores for the items on the scale (Avolio & Bass, 2015). The researcher derived the scores by summing the items and dividing that by the number of items that made up the scale. The average was then compared to the percentile given in the MLQ manual. These basic descriptive statistics helped the researcher to understand the data and determine the dominant leadership orientations.

714 MLQ forms (80.49%) were returned to the researcher, of which the researcher rejected five (three CEOs, two senior managers and their raters) because of errors. No participants had a dominant laissez-faire orientation. All of them had either high or medium levels of transformational and transactional leadership orientations, except for inspirational motivation (IM) and contingent rewards (CR) (MLQ Manuel, 2015), which was low.

The researcher utilised inferential analysis techniques to measure the reliability, internal consistency and dimension variations of the leadership scales. The inferential analysis used include, non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test for checking the internal consistency of the self-rating scores of CEOs and senior managers versus the scores of the other raters, Friedman ANOVA for checking the dimension variation of the subscales of transformational and transactional leadership styles, and Cronbach's Alpha reliability analysis for knowing the reliability of the MLQ for the study.

Mann-Whitney U Test

The internal consistency of the self-rating scores (of CEOs and senior managers) versus the score of other raters for CEOs and senior managers were checked by the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U Test. This test is useful to test differences between two groups using a single, ordinal

variable with no specific distribution (Mann & Whitney, 1947). The researcher preferred the Mann Whitney U test over the independent t-test since the data were in the ordinal scale of measurement. The study incorporated the following assumptions of the Mann-Whitney U Test:

- i. The dependent variable should be measured on an ordinal scale or a continuous scale.
- ii. The independent variable should be two independent categorical groups.
- iii. Observations should be independent.
- iv. Observations are not normally distributed.

The researcher used the following steps to conduct the inferential test by using the Mann-Whitney U Test:

- i. The hypothesis to be tested is stated as, “The population distribution (median) for the two groups is the same”.
- ii. The test statistic is the Mann-Whitney U Test is obtained by $U = \min(U_1, U_2)$, where

$$U_1 = n_1 n_2 + \frac{n_1(n_1+1)}{2} - R_1 \quad \text{and} \quad U_2 = n_1 n_2 + \frac{n_2(n_2+1)}{2} - R_2, \quad \text{while}$$

- n_1 and n_2 are the the number of scores in samples 1 and 2, respectively, and
 - R_1 and R_2 are the rank sums of samples 1 and 2, respectively.
- iii. The rejection of the null hypothesis would happen when P-values are less than the level of significance. At this level, the conclusion would be that the population distribution (median) for the two groups is not the same. If the null hypothesis is not rejected, then the conclusion would be that the population distribution (median) for the two groups is the same.

The Mann-Whitney U test for the internal consistency of the self-rating scores (of CEOs and senior managers) versus the score of other raters for CEOs and senior managers revealed that there is significant difference between these two scores (self-rating scores and other raters scores).

Friedman's ANOVA

The researcher checked the variation of subscales of the leadership styles using Friedman's ANOVA. Transformational leadership style is built by the subscales of IIA, IIB, IM, IS and IC, while the transactional style is built by the subscales of MBEA, MBEP and CR. The Laissez-

faire leadership style has only one subscale, which is LF, therefore ANOVA was not applicable. Laissez-faire leadership style was not considered for two reasons: 1) it was not included in the study; and 2) it has only one subscale. The researcher considered Friedman's ANOVA a suitable choice as the data were on ordinal scales and more than one group was to be compared. The average score per each target CEO and SM was used for checking differences between the leadership styles.

The researcher used the following steps to conduct the inferential test by using Friedman's ANOVA.

- i. The hypothesis to be tested was stated as: "The population distribution (median) for the k groups is the same."
- ii. The test statistic of Friedman's ANOVA was obtained by:

$$FM = \frac{12}{nk(k+1)} \sum_{i=1}^k R_i^2 - 3n(k+1)$$

- n number of subjects and k is the number of treatment levels; and
 - R_i are the rank sums of sample for the k -treatment groups.
- iii. Rejection of the null hypothesis will happen when P-values are less than the level of significance. At this level, the conclusion will be that there is at least two population distribution (median) for the k -groups are different. If the null hypothesis is not rejected, then the conclusion will be that the population distribution (median) for all groups are the same.
 - iv. If it happens that the null hypothesis is rejected, then the pair-wise post-hoc analysis should follow to identify the pair groups which differ from the statement of at least two groups (one pair) are different. The pair-wise null hypothesis will be conducted by using the Mann-Whitney U Test by comparing the pair of subscales. The null hypothesis to be tested will be: "The pair of subgroups are the same." The rejection of the null hypothesis will happen when P-values are less than the level of significance. At this level, the conclusion will be that the population distribution (median) for the two subscales are not the same. If the null hypothesis is not rejected, the conclusion will be that the population distribution (median) for the two subscales are the same.

The results of the Friedman's ANOVA for checking the dimension variations of the subscales of transformational and transactional leadership styles of CEOs and senior managers revealed that there are differences and similarities between the subscales at various levels of significance.

Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Analysis

The researcher checked the reliability of the MLQ for the present study using the Cronbach's Alpha reliability analysis. Cronbach's Alpha reliability test is a good measure of the reliability of the psychometric scales (Kline, 1999). The Cronbach's Alpha reliability test for MLQ had the following result: transformational leadership style (0.821), transformational leadership style (0.741), and laissez-fair leadership style (0.692). An alpha score that is between 0.6 - 0.7 is taken as an acceptable level of reliability (Ursachi et al., 2015; Churchill, 1979).

3.6 Part Two: Qualitative Research

Part two of the study involved interviews with the CEOs, senior managers and subordinate staff of the NFPOs where part one of the study was conducted. The aim was to understand how and to what extent CEOs and senior managers promote OCBs, and the effectiveness of the leadership orientations (transformational and transactional) of the CEOs and senior managers in promoting OCBs through role modelling.

There are deductive and inductive approaches to conducting research; the deductive approach facilitates theory testing, whereas the inductive approach focuses on theory building (Saunders et al., 2009). The primary focus of this study was on how organisational members (CEOs, senior managers and subordinate staff) construct and understand the reality of OCBs, and the effectiveness of role modelling/leading by example by CEOs and senior managers. The researcher interviewed the subordinate staff to understand how role modelling for OCBs by CEOs and senior managers influenced their subordinates. As the researcher was exploring how the social actors construct and experience these phenomena, an inductive approach was appropriate to answer the research questions.

The researcher explored the lived experiences, through interviews, of CEOs, senior managers and their subordinate staff to know how, and to what extent, CEOs and senior managers promote OCBs, and the effectiveness of role modelling for OCBs. In doing so, the subjective meanings, perceptions, interactions and interpretations of this social reality were viewed as reflective of the reality under investigation, based on the opinions, comments and suggestions of the

participants.

The reality of role modelling for organisational citizenship behaviour is subjective, as the phenomenon of role modelling results from the interactions (Yaffe & Kark, 2011), experiences (Wright & Carrese, 2002), decisions and beliefs (Mellers, Schwartz, & Cooke, 1998) of people experiencing it. To understand this phenomenon, the researcher engaged with the participants, exploring their lived experiences (Mapp, 2008; Paley, 2014). The qualitative approach facilitated exploring the phenomenon in its natural setting (Creswell et al., 2003) from the perspective of the participants, and gave the researcher more flexibility in exploring the phenomenon at deeper levels (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Finally, the qualitative approach adapted to the study was deemed fit because it facilitated theory development (Bryman & Bell, 2015).

The researcher was aware of the challenges associated with a qualitative approach, but addressed the issue of subjectivity (Bryman & Bell, 2015; Siegemund, 2008; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010) by acknowledging and being aware of his own and the participants' subjectivity, and applying "objective thinking that was deeply contextualised within subjective thought" (Siegemund, 2008, p. 844). Assuming a phenomenological attitude and refraining from using any personal knowledge, theory or belief (phenomenological reduction) about the reality under investigation (Bevan, 2014; Giorgi, 1997) also helped the researcher to mitigate the effect of subjectivity.

Similarly, to manage the challenge of bias (Bryman & Bell, 2015), the researcher tried to be aware of his own values and assumptions, looked for contradictory data, and was open to an alternative interpretation of the data. Other challenges in qualitative research include limited generalisability and the challenge of replicating the findings (Bryman & Bell, 2015; Saunders et al., 2009). To address these issues, the researcher applied theoretical generalisation by describing the essential findings that were intrinsically general about the phenomenon (Giorgi, 2006) within the context of NFPOs. The researcher strived to provide transparency and audit trails (Bryman & Bell, 2015) throughout the research to ease the challenge of replication.

3.6.1 The Phenomenological Approach to the Qualitative Method

The researcher used a phenomenological approach to the qualitative method applied in this study (Flick, 2014), which denotes a philosophy, a research methodology and a research paradigm (Anosike, Ehrich, & Ahmed, 2012; Giorgi, 1997; 2006). As a methodology,

phenomenology facilitates the discovery of a phenomenon through the experiences of the actors in a particular situation, utilising inductive qualitative methods (Polkinghorne, 1989).

Through the phenomenological approach, the researcher wanted to understand the participants' management practices, the effects of leadership orientation on promoting OCBs, and the effectiveness of role modelling for OCBs. This approach facilitated exploring how individuals experience these realities and assign meanings to and construct these realities by capturing the "essence of human experience" (Anosike et al., 2012).

Second, the phenomenological approach facilitated engagement with the "life-world of the participants" (Wertz, 2005, p. 169) by looking at the "things themselves". The CEOs, senior managers and subordinate staff are the people who experience the reality of promoting OCBs and the effectiveness of role modelling for OCBs. Therefore, the phenomenological approach provided an opportunity to explore the participants' lived experiences, understand how CEOs and senior managers promote OCBs, and how their role modelling promotes such behaviours.

Third, the phenomenological approach provided the researcher freedom from unnecessary pre-judgments. Phenomenology ensures a rigorous and unbiased study of subjective experience, which is achieved through complementing existing scientific paradigms and bracketing or removing other paradigms' pre-judgments, assumptions and biases (Giorgi, 1992). The bracketing that is an integral attitude of phenomenology helped the researcher suspend, or bracket, all his personal biases, beliefs, preconceptions and assumptions while exploring the lived experiences of the participants (Sanders, 1982).

Finally, the phenomenological approach provided the researcher with a lens of inquiry that offered a holistic worldview of management theories and practices (Dahlberg, Drew, & Nystrom, 2001).

3.6.2 Validity and Reliability

Credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability ensure validity and reliability in qualitative studies (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Henry, 2015). Credibility refers to the correctness of the researcher's account of the data, perceptions and information provided by the participants (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). To ensure credibility, the researcher transcribed all the interviews verbatim using a professional transcription service, and followed a 'transcription protocol' (McLellan, MacQueen, & Neidig, 2003). The researcher checked all

the transcribed data against the audiotapes, removed all identifiable information from the transcription text, and sent the interview transcriptions to the relevant interviewees for verification. Except for two interviewees, all the participants approved the text. For the transcribed data of the two participants who were not available for data verification, after repeated reminders, their interview transcripts were verified again against the audiotapes by the researcher and incorporated into the data. These interviewees mentioned a lack of time as their reason for not going through the transcript again and giving their suggestions. The researcher remained faithful to the participants' accounts of their reality, limiting the influence of biases from his own personal values, beliefs and knowledge through phenomenological reduction. The researcher approached the participants again for a follow-up interview/discussion with the relevant transcript to facilitate further clarifications and to add any details that might have missed in the first round of interviews.

Transferability means the ability to replicate a study in a similar situation and find similar results (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Henry, 2015). Many scholars agree that such replication is limited in qualitative studies (Aguinis & Solarino, 2019; Polit & Beck, 2010; Saunders et al., 2009), thus this research does not claim transferability. Instead, it accepts the individual experiences of CEOs, senior managers and subordinate staff as unique and acknowledges their individual biases. The researcher made genuine efforts to provide detailed descriptions of the qualitative procedures employed in this study, enhancing transferability. He also provided a background to the research to familiarise the participants with its context.

The dependability of qualitative research can be achieved through rigorously documenting the research process and making it available to others (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012; Shenton, 2004). Dependability, although challenging to achieve in a qualitative study (Coghlan & Brydon-Miller, 2014), was enhanced for this research by utilising a computer-assisted data analysis programme called Atlas.ti. The researcher coded all the transcriptions, memos and observations in Atlas.ti.

Conformability in qualitative research is equivalent to 'rigour' (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; Saunders et al., 2009), which is made possible through the availability of evidence for data collection and subsequent research findings. The conformability of the present research was achieved by presenting the audit trail, Atlas.ti reports, and an extensive section on the research method, approach and procedures that were used. (The audit trail and Atlas.ti reports are presented in Appendix 7.) The researcher was aware of the social desirability bias that might

affect the interviews and the data collection. The researcher took possible measures to mitigate the social desirability bias as explained in paragraph 3.5.5

3.6.3 Qualitative Sample Design

Sixty-one CEOs, fifty-three senior managers and six hundred and eighty-nine subordinate staff from the 64 NFPOs in four regions of Tanzania, who took part in the MLQ survey, were the expected participants for the qualitative part of the study. Two senior managers, three CEOs and twenty-five subordinate staff whose MLQ forms were rejected because of errors were not considered for the interviews. The researcher planned to conduct the interviews until a saturation point was reached.

3.6.4 Sampling Techniques

The researcher used purposive and convenient sampling strategies (Gill, 2014; Martin, 1996) to select the participants for the semi-structured interviews, as he was looking for interviewees who had experienced the phenomenon under investigation (Creswell & Clark, 2007). The pre-interview survey, using the MLQ, allowed the researcher to identify the CEOs and senior managers for the interviews, knowing the strengths of their transformational or transactional leadership orientations. The research design included an option to reject a participant if he/she had a dominant laissez-faire leadership style. The researcher selected the participants for the interviews using his judgment, but was guided by the objectives of the research (Groenewald, 2004). The researcher initially planned to hold interviews with CEOs, senior managers and subordinate staff, until a saturation point. After conducting 68 interviews, no new insights were being found, i.e., the saturation point was reached (Lewis-Beck, Bryman, & Futing Liao, 2008; Saunders et al., 2018). Among the 68 participants, there were 23 CEOs, 18 senior managers and 27 subordinate/lower-level staff. The details of the participants are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Details of the Interview Participants

Category	Number approached	Number who took part		
		Male	Female	Total
No. of CEOs	59	14	09	23
No. of Senior Managers	36	12	6	18
No. of Subordinate/Lower-Level Employees	45	16	11	27
Total	140	42	26	68

The researcher assured all the participants of the confidentiality of the collected data and guaranteed their use strictly for research only. All the participants received and signed a consent form before participating in the study. The participants were aware of their freedom to end their involvement if they wanted to do so. The interviews ranged from 38 minutes to 90 minutes, which was well within the recommended duration (Harvey, 2011; Saunders et al., 2009). With the exception of two interviewees, the researcher held a second round of interviews/discussions based on the transcripts of the first round, adding further insights and understanding of the topic. Doing so facilitated the gathering of richer and more relevant data from the lived experiences of the participants. The second round also helped the researcher to mitigate the shortage of time in some of the previous interviews, and added further insights that might have been missed initially. The average time for the second round was between 60 minutes to 80 minutes.

3.6.5 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

The following inclusion and exclusion criteria were applied for the qualitative part of the study. The data from the MLQ survey were used to include the CEOs and senior managers who had shown transformational or transactional leadership orientations. For subordinates/lower-level staff, no criteria other than a minimum of two years' work experience in NFPOs were used. Ninety-five of the participants who took part in part one of the study met the inclusion criteria for participation in part two. The researcher selected the subordinate staff at random, depending on their availability and work experience in the NFPOs, and where either their CEO or senior manager took part in an interview. The researcher has already explained the exclusion criteria in Section 3.5.3 of this study.

3.6.6 Negotiating Access to Not-for-Profit Organisations

The researcher followed the same procedure explained in Section 3.5.5, and also mailed the interviewees the semi-structured interview questions before their interviews. Mailing the questions helped to remove the fears of some CEOs and senior managers by assuring them that the researcher was not looking to collect any sensitive information on their organisations.

3.6.7 Qualitative Data Collection

Scholars value interviews as a data collection method for phenomenological qualitative studies (Bevan, 2014; Dowling & Cooney, 2012; Starks & Trinidad, 2007). The interviews gave the researcher the flexibility to clarify the participants' answers, as well as change or shift the focus of the discussion. Similarly, it allowed the participants to resolve questions, facilitating the right direction for the research (Maxwell, 1995) and providing the bigger picture of the research context (Saunders et al., 2009). The researcher had the choice of selecting structured, semi-structured, or unstructured interviews for data collection (Willis, 2011). Structured interviews use a standardised, pre-set list of questions to gather data, whereas semi-structured interviews use an interview schedule with suggested themes that facilitate further development through responses from the interviewees. Unstructured interviews do not follow any pre-set questions or themes, but allow the interviews to be more like conversations, enabling the interviewees to go in any direction or explore any related topics (Willis, 2011).

The researcher held semi-structured interviews with an interview schedule, as they allowed the researcher to “ask informants a series of predetermined but open-ended questions” (Ayres, 2008, p. 2). Semi-structured interviews provided the flexibility (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003; Turner, 2010) to explore the meanings that participants attach to their lived experiences (Tong, Sainsbury, & Craig, 2007). It also provided flexibility without the interviews being unstable and unreliable because of the inconsistency of interview questions (Creswell, 2003). Other reasons that motivated the researcher to adopt semi-structured interviews included the ease of coding semi-structured interviews compared to unstructured interviews (Turner, 2010), and that semi-structured interviews were the best fit for the research problem under investigation (Willis, 2011; Adams, 2015).

The researcher mitigated the challenges of managing a huge volume of data (Piercy, 1998) by allowing sufficient time and resources for the data collection. He also studied general guidelines

from scholars for conducting and managing semi-structured interviews for data collection (Galletta & Cross, 2013; Harvey, 2011; Roulston, Demarrais, & Lewis, 2003).

The study collected data from 41 semi-structured interviews with CEOs and senior managers working in NFPOs in Tanzania, as well as from 27 interviews with subordinate staff in those organisations. Interviewing the subordinate staff provided insights into the effects of role modelling for OCBs by the CEOs and senior managers. After 68 interviews, the researcher reached a saturation point, where new interviews would not provide any new insights (Lewis-Beck et al., 2008; Saunders et al., 2018). Applying phenomenological reduction helped the researcher to avoid any personal biases affecting the interviews and potentially corrupting the data.

3.6.8 Research Instruments Used

The research instruments used included an interview schedule, checklist, memos and retrospective data.

3.6.8.1 Interview Schedule

The researcher used an interview schedule to conduct the semi-structured interviews, which followed the general guidelines for developing a suitable schedule (Turner, 2010; Willis, 2011). The researcher developed the interview schedule keeping in mind direction from the literature review, adding relevant themes for investigation that answered the research questions (Willis, 2011). These themes included organisational citizenship behaviours, effectiveness of role modelling for OCBs, transformational and transactional leadership orientations in promoting OCBs, the use of contingent and non-contingent rewards to promote OCBs, and the group outcomes of promoting OCBs.

Literature reviews were used to identify and accept seven dimensions of OCBs, i.e., helping behaviours (altruism), sportsmanship, organisational loyalty, organisational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtues and self-development, which have been validated by the academic community as valid representations to explain OCBs (Dávila & Finkelstein, 2010; Hui, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005; Podsakoff et al., 2014; Podsakoff et al., 2009). Exploring how CEOs and senior managers promote OCBs among subordinate staff required asking them to describe their experience of promoting these OCB dimensions. For instance, a sample question for a CEO/senior manager was: What is your experience of promoting helping

behaviour among your subordinate staff? A follow-up question for further insights could be to ask: “How do you encourage your subordinate staff to help a co-worker to avoid problems at the workplace? For the subordinate staff, the same question could be rephrased to ask: Tell me about your experience of your CEO/senior manager encouraging you to help your colleague/co-worker in need?”

The researcher included questions that would elicit answers regarding how transformational and transactional leadership factors contribute to promoting OCBs, which were based on the leadership scales of the MLQ. A sample question was: “How do you provide inspiration for your subordinate staff to engage in OCBs?”, while a follow-up question that would give further insights would be: “Please share with me your experience of promoting creativity to encourage the OCBs of your subordinate staff?”

The researcher also included questions that would elicit the lived experiences of using contingent and non-contingent rewards to promote OCBs, and the group outcomes of promoting OCBs. Further, questions were asked to gather insights regarding the effectiveness of role modelling for OCBs, and how role modelling can inspire similar behaviours from subordinate staff. Investigating how CEOs and senior managers promote OCBs through role modelling included asking questions about their experiences of leading by example in relation to the seven identified dimensions of OCBs.

Understanding role modelling from the perspective of the subordinate staff involved asking them questions about what they look for in their CEOs and senior managers as role models for OCBs, and what inspires them to follow the example of their CEOs and senior managers when it comes to engaging in OCBs. Where appropriate, the researcher asked the participants to share an illustration, event or personal experience on particular topics to capture the context, nuances and particularities of promoting OCBs and role modelling.

The researcher pre-tested the research instrument (the semi-structured interview schedule) in order to enhance the focus of the data collection (Frankland & Bloor, 1999) and develop his confidence (Holloway, 1997). Pre-testing also helps the researcher assess if any practical problems could arise while using the instrument, to know how well the instrument will work, and to avoid any potential possibility of a failure of the instrument (Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2002). The researcher conducted nine interviews as part of the pre-testing of the interview schedule. The first round of interviews involved one CEO, one senior manager and one

subordinate staff from a NFPO. After the first round, the researcher transcribed the interviews and analysed and evaluated the data, while simultaneously reflecting on and evaluating the whole process. Based on these reflections and experience, the researcher changed the interview schedule as needed. For instance, the wording of some of the interview questions had a close-ended effect, thus changes were made to facilitate more open-ended sharing for each question. After that, the researcher conducted a second round of interviews involving two CEOs, two senior managers and two subordinate staff from two different organisations, using the revised interview schedule. The researcher transcribed these interviews, analysed the data, reflected on and evaluated the whole interview process, and completed the interview schedule. After the second round of interviews, the researcher noticed the need to re-approach the interviewees with the transcript of their first interview and engage them in a follow-up interview/discussion. Therefore, the researcher added a procedure in the data collection phase to revisit and discuss the interview transcript together with the interviewee. Doing so increased the richness and details of the data being collected.

The researcher did not use separate interview schedules for CEOs, senior managers and subordinate staff, as he had the freedom and flexibility to adapt the same interview schedule to suit all the interviewees. For the subordinate staff, the interview schedule was rephrased in order to understand how they perceived and experienced their CEOs and senior managers promoting OCBs; how they experienced and perceived the use of transformational and transactional leadership factors by their CEOs and senior managers; the group outcomes; and how they experienced, accepted and perceived role modelling for OCBs. The interview schedule/protocol is attached in Appendix 3.

3.6.8.2 Checklist

The researcher constructed a checklist to keep track of the interviews and ensure there were no gaps, thereby making sure that no critical aspects were omitted. The checklist further helped the researcher to be aware of what to observe in the organisational settings where he conducted the interviews, assisted him to follow the mode of inquiring, and improved the rigour of the research (Andrews, 2008).

3.6.8.3 Memos

The researcher utilised memos (Birks, Chapman, & Francis, 2008; Groenewald, 2008) during

data collection and later during the data analysis phase of the research. Keeping a record of his experiences through the use of memos, i.e., what he heard, saw and reflected on during the data collection phase (Groenewald, 2004), helped him when analysing the data and to keep ideas that might otherwise have gotten lost (Glaser, 1978, cited in Chapman & Birks, 2008). Even though memoing is widely used in grounded theory, all other qualitative approaches can make use of memoing (Birks et al., 2008). Examples of memo pages are included in Appendix 6.

3.6.8.4 Retrospective Data

The researcher collected retrospective data (Blane, 1996) before, during and after the interviews, including publicly available annual reports, financial data about the NFPOs (for 2016, 2017 and 2018), where the researcher conducted the interviews, and the available cumulative records about the organisations' missions and visions. This helped the researcher to verify the data provided by the interviewees, as well as also to gain an in-depth understanding of the organisations and their modes of operations.

3.6.9 Storing the Data

The researcher recorded all the interviews with the consent of the participants (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006; Rutakumwa et al., 2020), and assigned a unique number or case identifier (McLellan et al., 2003) to the transcripts of each of the recorded interviews. The researcher stored the data electronically in a password-protected personal computer with adequate back-up systems (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010), and filed the hard copies of the data (Groenewald, 2004). These essential data files included the informed consent agreement forms, personal notes or memos, notes or sketches from the participants, brochures and flyers, notes made during the data analysis process, draft transcriptions, and any other documents or communications related to the research. These additional data helped the researcher to get a holistic picture of the reality under investigation. Appendix 2 contains an example of the consent form, while Appendix 6 includes examples of notes and sketches from the participants.

3.6.10 Analysing the Data

The researcher analysed the data thematically from a phenomenological perspective, focusing on emerging and reoccurring themes (Gibbs & Graham, 2007) and capturing them to understand the lived experiences of the phenomenon (Given, 2008). In analysing the data, the researcher prepared first for data analysis and transcribed all the interviews, and then identified initial or

open codes (Layder, 2014). Preparing for the analysis helped the researcher to gain a sense of familiarity with the data (Giorgi, 2009; Groenewald, 2004). The researcher initially focused on the themes, events, conversations, concepts and instances of behaviours and illustrations from the participants while coding (Layder, 2014). After the initial coding, the researcher advanced to axial coding, which enabled him to group the codes into categories and sub-categories (Benaquisto, 2008; Scott & Medaugh, 2017) and identify the emerging themes and patterns. Finally, the researcher drew up a relationship matrix table and progressed to discussions and analyses of the findings. When including direct quotations from the participants, the researcher edited some transcripts for readability, by omitting words like “you know”, “um” and “like” (Giorgi, 1997; Groenewald, 2004; Wojnar & Swanson, 2007). Through bracketing or phenomenological reduction, the researcher allowed the phenomenon to emerge by suspending his previous knowledge and not taking any general position for or against what had been shared (Wojnar & Swanson, 2007). In analysing the data, the researcher always looked for relevant “meaning units” of the phenomenon (Giorgi, 1997) within the lived experiences of the participants, as well as its commonalities across the participants (Giorgi, 1997; 2006; Wojnar & Swanson, 2007). Instances of illustrations and personal stories vividly captured the phenomenon under investigation from the lived experiences of the CEOs, senior managers and subordinates.

The ultimate aim of coding and analysing the data was to understand how, and to what extent, the CEOs and senior managers promote OCBs, as well as the effectiveness of role modelling. Coding helps the researcher to “manage and order the data” and easily find the “similarities, differences, anomalies, patterns and relationships” within the vast set of available data (Silver & Lewins, 2014, p. 87). For this purpose, the researcher also used Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS), namely Atlas.ti (Friese, 2012; Saunders et al., 2009). After the initial coding and categorisation in Atlas.ti, Microsoft Excel and Microsoft Word were used to complete the analysis, as the researcher was not proficient in the advanced features of the programme. The following chapter presents the detailed findings.

3.7 Research Ethics, Scope and Limitations

The researcher received ethical clearance and permits for the research from the University of Cape Town. The researcher, to the utmost of his ability, followed general ethical issues of protecting the privacy of the participants; describing the voluntary nature of participation; getting consent; ensuring freedom from deception; ensuring confidentiality, anonymity and

freedom from embarrassment, stress, harm, discomfort and pain; maintaining objectivity; and promoting the quality of the research. All the interview participants signed a consent form provided by the researcher, which made explicit the voluntary nature of their participation, as well as their right to partially or completely withdraw from their interview. The form also assured the confidentiality of the research.

Finally, the study is limited to theoretical generalisations about its findings within NFPOs. The researcher describes the essential findings that are intrinsically general about the phenomenon (Giorgi, 2006) of role modelling for OCBs in NFPOs by CEOs and senior managers.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

Chapter Four presents the evidence and findings of the research. The qualitative data provides insights into how, and to what extent, the CEOs and senior managers promote OCBs, as well as the effectiveness of their role modelling for OCBs. The quantitative data, meanwhile, provides insights into the dominant leadership orientations of the CEOs and senior managers.

4.2 Research Findings: Quantitative Data

This section presents the research findings from the quantitative part of the study

4.2.1 The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Survey

Of the 114 participants who completed the MLQ survey, 61 were CEOs and 53 were senior managers. The researcher conducted the survey using the English version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) form 5x-short, with appropriate rater forms, to identify the leadership styles/orientations of the participants. The rater forms included the leader form for self-rating and the rater forms for others to rate the participants. For every participant, there were five raters each who were their colleagues in the same organisation. The raters for CEOs were all colleagues who held lower-level employment positions. The raters for senior managers included one from a higher level and four from lower levels.

Twenty items measured the four dimensions of the transformational leadership style of the CEOs and senior managers: (1) idealised influence-attributed (IIA) and idealised influence behaviour (IIB); (2) individual consideration (IC); (3) intellectual stimulation (IS); and (4) inspirational motivation (IM). Twelve items measured the three dimensions of transactional leadership: (1) contingent reward (CR); (2) management by exception (active) (MBEA), and (3) management by exception (passive) (MBEP). Four items (5, 12, 13 and 19) measured the laissez-faire (LF) leadership style and there were also items measuring leadership outcomes. The leadership outcomes measured were extra efforts (EE), effectiveness (EF) and satisfaction (SAT). A five-point Likert-type scale, from 1 to 5, measured all the items for transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles. The possible responses for the questionnaire were "1 - Never", "2 - Rarely", "3 - Sometimes", "4 - Usually", and "5 - Often but not Always".

The MLQ Survey Results

The researcher analysed the data using MS Excel. The average score of each item was calculated before being compared to the percentiles for individual scores presented in the MLQ manual. Table 4 presents the data for all the participants. A sample of percentiles from the manual is attached in Appendix 5.

Table 4: MLQ Results for all Participants (CEOs and SMs)

MLQ	N	CEO AND SMs (ALL)		Level	CEOs AND SMs (SELF)		CEOs AND SMs (LOWER)	
		Average	%tile		Average	%tile	Average	%tile
II(A)	114	3.05	50	Medium	3.32	70	3.01	50
II(B)	114	3.06	50	Medium	3.29	70	3.00	60
IM	114	2.92	40	Low	3.44	60	2.80	30
IS	114	2.96	50	Medium	3.23	60	2.91	50
IC	114	2.95	50	Medium	3.30	60	2.89	40
CR	114	3.00	50	Medium	3.52	80	2.83	40
MBEA	114	2.14	70	High	2.18	70	2.17	60
MBEP	114	0.74	40	Low	0.72	30	0.56	40
LF	114	0.43	40	Low	0.37	30	0.44	40
Leadership Outcomes								
Outcome	N	Average	%tile	Level	Average	%tile	Average	%tile
EE	114	3.39	70	High	3.25	70	3.40	70
EFF	114	3.30	60	High	3.26	60	3.30	60
SAT	114	3.27	50	Medium	3.14	60	3.29	20

Legend:

- II (A) = Idealised influence (attributed)
- II (B) = Idealised influence behaviour
- IC = Individual consideration
- IS = Intellectual stimulation (IS)
- IM = Inspirational motivation (IM)
- CR = Contingent reward
- MBEA = Management by exception (active)
- MBEP = Management by exception (passive)
- LF = Laissez-faire
- EE = Extra efforts
- EFF = Effectiveness
- SAT = Satisfaction

Key of Frequency:

- 4.0 = Frequently, if not always
- 3.0 = Fairly often
- 2.0 = Sometimes
- 1.0 = Once in a while
- 0.0 = Not at all

4.2.2 Leadership Orientations of the CEOs and Senior Managers

Based on the data, the CEOs and senior managers could be categorised as leaders with a mix of both transformational and transactional leadership orientations. The participants had either medium or high levels for the transformational and transactional leadership items, except for inspirational motivation, which was low. Nevertheless, the CEOs and senior managers perceived themselves (self-evaluation) as providing higher levels of inspirational motivation for their subordinates (average score was 3.44, 60% tile). However, the perception of the subordinates about their CEOs and senior managers providing inspirational motivation was low (the average score was 2.80, 30% tile). The CEOs and senior managers could also be considered transformational and transactional leaders because they had a low level of passive avoidant behaviours (MBEP, LF). The range of differences between self-rating and other rater scores was in line with other studies and scores presented in the MLQ manual. Scoring by other raters helped the researcher to know if any items were being inflated. Calculating the scores from different raters and the self-rating gave a realistic score for the measured items.

Further implications regarding the leadership orientations and leadership outcomes are given below. The section also presents data separated for CEOs and senior managers and their leadership orientations. Descriptions are based on the MLQ manual and theoretical explanations from the authors.

4.2.2.1 Transformational Leadership Orientation

Transformational leaders influence their subordinates and inspire them to respond to their environment by becoming more creative and innovative. They are proactive and have higher levels of moral and ethical standards. Four items measured transformational leadership. Following are the results for these items for the participants:

Idealised influence (Attribute - IIA and Behaviours - IIB)

The idealised influence (both attribute and behaviours) of the transformational leaders cause them to be admired, respected and trusted by their followers, who appear to like to identify themselves with their leaders and emulate them. Transformational leaders encourage their followers and prioritise their needs over their own. These leaders are also consistent in their ethical behaviours and share risks and information with their followers.

The participants scored an average score of 3.05 for IIA and 3.06 for IIB, which were the 50th percentile. The scores mean that these CEOs and senior managers fairly often instill pride in their subordinates, go beyond their own self-interest, and act in ways that build respect for their subordinate staff while displaying a sense of power and confidence. Similarly, they also often talk about the essential values and beliefs in the organisation and cultivate a strong sense of purpose. They also, fairly often, consider the moral and ethical consequences of their actions/decisions and promote a collective sense of mission.

Inspirational Motivation (IM)

Through inspirational motivation, the transformational leaders motivate their subordinates by providing meaning and challenge to their work. Inspirational motivation helps to increase both individual and team spirit. The participants had an average score of 2.92, which was the 40th percentile. This means that the participants were enthusiastic about completing their tasks and provided an interesting vision about the future, while expressing confidence in achieving the goals of their organisations.

Intellectual Stimulation (IS)

Through intellectual stimulation, CEOs and senior managers encourage their subordinates to be innovative and creative. They urge them to question their existing assumptions, provide a new perspective on problems, and encourage approaching everyday situations in alternative ways. The salient features of intellectual stimulation are that these leaders refrain from ridiculing or criticising their followers publicly, show a high level of tolerance for followers' mistakes, and encourage creative solutions to problems. The score of intellectual stimulation for the CEOs and senior managers was 2.92, which was the 50th percentile. The score meant that the CEOs and senior managers often re-examine their assumptions and question them. They also often seek a new perspective to solve problems and involve others in the process of problem-solving. The score further means that the CEOs and senior managers often suggest new ways of looking at a task and how to complete it.

Individual Consideration (IC)

Individual consideration means that these leaders pay attention to the individual needs of their followers, including the need for achievements, recognition and growth. The followers are thus given opportunities to improve their potential. The leaders also provide their followers with

opportunities to learn, and facilitate the environment for fulfilling their dreams and desires. The MLQ survey participants had a score of 2.95 for IC, which was the 50th percentile. The score meant that the CEOs and senior managers spend time coaching and mentoring their subordinates. They also recognise the unique roles that individuals play in a group or within the organisation. They often cater to an individual's needs and aspirations, and help them to achieve their potential.

4.2.2.2 Transactional Leadership Orientations

Constructive and corrective transactions characterise transactional leaders. The constructive style includes contingent rewards for the expected behaviours from followers, while the corrective aspect focuses on management by exception. Using these two core leadership behaviours, transactional leaders set goals and promote performance.

Contingent Rewards (CR)

Using contingent rewards, transactional leaders clarify the expectations of their followers, provide recognition, and reward their followers for achieving goals. The setting of goals and providing recognition for the achieved goals motivates subordinate staff. The CEOs and senior managers had the 50th percentile for the contingent reward with an average score of 3.00. This score means that the CEOs and senior managers use contingent rewards reasonably often to motivate their subordinates. They engage with their subordinates often, discuss specific terms, and clarify who is responsible for achieving the set targets. These CEOs and senior managers negotiate with their subordinates, what they can expect when they achieve the goals. The score also means that the CEOs and senior managers often express satisfaction when their subordinates meet their targets.

Management by Exception (Active) (MBEA)

The transactional leadership orientation of management by exception (active) implies that the leaders set out and specify the standards for compliance and clarify what constitutes ineffective performance. Failure to be compliant may result in punishment. This leadership style means that the leader closely monitors followers for errors, and takes corrective measures as soon as there are any deviations from the set standards. The CEOs and senior managers had a score of 2.14 at the 70th percentile, i.e., they focus on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from the acceptable standards. It also means that the CEOs and senior managers pay attention

to dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures, while keeping track of subordinates' mistakes. The active form of management by exception also means that the CEOs and senior managers sometimes pay direct personal attention to the failures of their subordinates to meet the expected standards.

4.2.2.3 Passive/Avoidant Behaviours

The management by exception (passive) style does not respond to situations and problems adequately; such leaders avoid specifying agreements, expectations, goals and standards for their followers. Passive leadership negatively affects the desired leadership outcome; in this sense, both the management by exception (passive) and laissez-faire styles, or no leadership style, are similar, therefore these two styles are often grouped as passive/avoidant behaviours.

Management by Exception (Passive) (MBEP)

CEOs and senior managers received a score of 0.74 for management by exception (passive) leadership orientation, with the equivalent of 40th percentile. This score means that the CEOs and senior managers once in a while fail to interfere until the problem becomes severe, i.e., they wait for things to go wrong before intervening to fix the problem. This means that some subordinates think that their CEOs and senior managers show, at times, an attitude of "*If it isn't broken, don't fix it*". The management by exception (passive) style also means that the leader believes that problems must be chronic before they need to take remedial action. This orientation was low for the participants, according to the data.

Laissez-Faire (LF)

The laissez-faire leadership style, or no leadership, means that leaders avoid getting involved in important issues, and are absent when they need to be in the organisation. Such leadership means that leaders do not make decisions and delay responding to urgent questions. The average score of the CEOs and senior managers for laissez-faire orientation was 0.43, at the 40th percentile, therefore the laissez-faire leadership style of the CEOs and senior managers is low, i.e., they all had dominant transformational or transactional leadership styles.

Figure 1 presents a bar graph of the scores and the percentiles from the MLQ survey for the CEOs and senior managers.

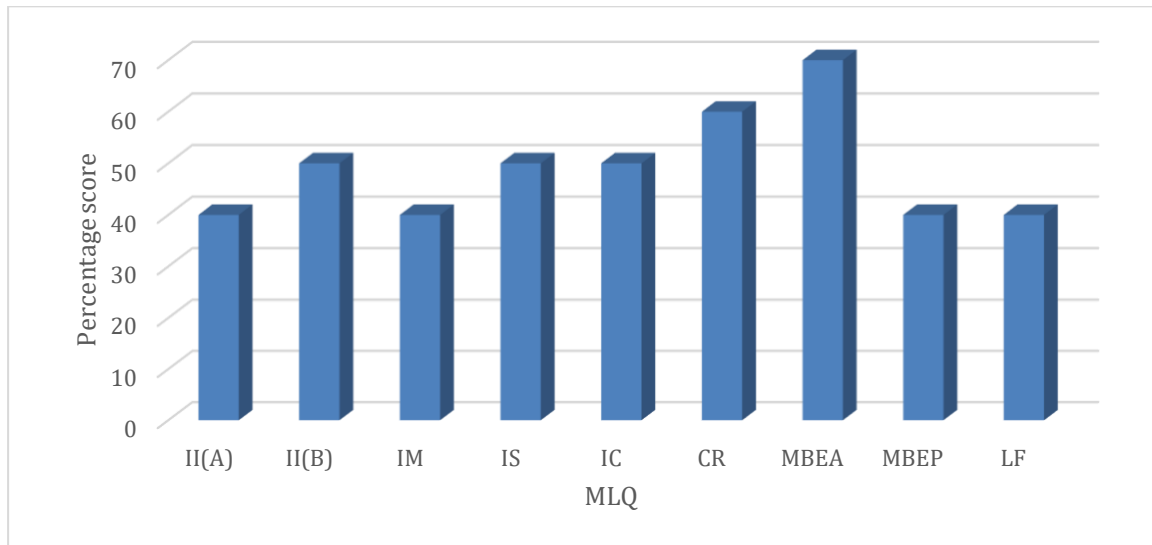


Figure 1: Leadership orientations for all participants

4.2.3 Outcome of Leadership

Both transformational and transactional leadership produce group success. The MLQ survey measures such success or outcomes by measuring how often the raters perceive their leaders are motivational, and how satisfied the raters are with the way the leader works with others. Figure 2 represents the leadership outcome in pie chart.

Extra Effort (EE)

The CEOs and senior managers had a score of 3.39 for extra effort. The corresponding percentile was 70. This score means that most of the CEOs and senior managers encourage, more than reasonably often, their subordinates to do more than they expect and that they heighten their desire to succeed.

Effectiveness (EFF)

The score for the leadership effectiveness of the CEOs and senior managers was 3.30, at the 60th percentile. That means that the CEOs and senior managers were fairly often effective in meeting their subordinates' job-related needs and were influential in representing the group to a higher authority. The effectiveness score means that the CEOs and senior managers are effective in meeting the organisational requirements and their leadership in the group/organisation is effective.

Satisfaction with Leadership (SAT)

The average score for satisfaction with leadership was 3.27, with a corresponding percentile of 50. The score indicates that the subordinates perceive that their CEOs and senior managers fairly often use leadership methods that are satisfactory for their subordinates, and that they fairly often satisfactorily work with their subordinates.

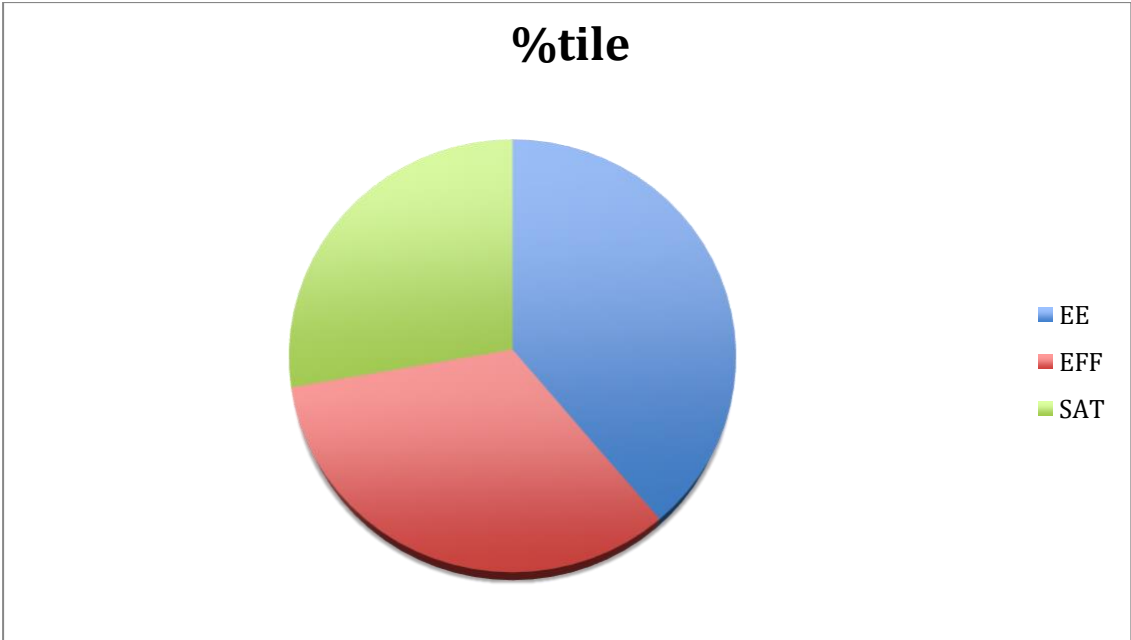


Figure 2: Leadership Outcome of CEOs and SMs

4.2.4 Scores for CEOs and Senior Managers

The MLQ survey allowed the researcher to capture the ratings of different raters and divide them according to the participants (CEOs and senior managers). The following are the data for CEOs and senior managers separately in Table 6 and Table 7 respectively.

Table 5: MLQ Results for CEOs

	MLQ CEO ALL				MLQ CEO SELF		MLQ CEO LOWER	
MLQ	N	Average	%tile	level	Average	%tile	Average	%tile
II(A)	61	3.13	50	Medium	3.32	70	3.09	50
II(B)	61	3.09	50	Medium	3.33	70	3.04	60
IM	61	2.94	40	Low	3.48	60	2.83	30
IS	61	2.98	50	Medium	3.22	60	2.93	50
IC	61	2.95	50	Medium	3.34	60	2.87	40
CR	61	2.91	40	Low	3.45	70	2.69	30
MBEA	61	1.96	60	high	2.09	70	1.93	60
MBEP	61	0.75	40	Low	0.79	40	1.00	50
LF	61	0.48	40	Low	0.43	30	0.49	40
Leadership Outcomes								
		CEO ALL			CEO SELF		CEO LOWER	
Outcome	N	Average	%tile	Level	Average	%tile	Average	%tile
EE	61	3.44	70	High	3.30	70	3.45	70
EFF	61	3.35	60	High	3.23	50	3.36	60
SAT	61	3.28	50	Medium	3.07	60	3.32	40

Table 6: MLQ Results for Senior Managers

		MLQ SMs All			MLQ SMs SELF		MLQ SMs HIGHER		MLQ SMs LOWER	
MLQ	N	Average	%tile	level	Average	%tile	Average	%tile	Average	%tile
II(A)	53	2.97	40	Low	3.31	60	2.82	30	2.92	40
II(B)	53	3.03	50	Medium	3.26	70	3.03	50	2.97	50
IM	53	2.91	40	Low	3.41	60	3.04	60	2.76	30
IS	53	2.93	50	Medium	3.24	60	2.82	50	2.89	50
IC	53	2.95	50	Medium	3.26	60	2.80	40	2.91	40
CR	53	3.15	60	High	3.59	80	3.40	70	2.97	40
MBEA	53	2.33	70	High	2.26	80	2.12	60	2.40	70
MBEP	53	0.99	40	Low	0.65	20	0.80	40	1.13	60
LF	53	0.38	40	Low	0.30	30	0.45	40	0.39	40
Leadership Outcomes										
		SMs ALL			SMs SELF		SMs HIGHER		SMs LOWER	
Outcome	N	Average	%tile	Level	Average	%tile	Average	%tile	Average	%tile
EE	53	3.34	70	High	3.20	70	3.47	80	3.35	70
EFF	53	3.24	50	Medium	3.29	60	3.35	50	3.24	50
SAT	53	3.27	50	Medium	3.21	60	3.11	50	3.27	40

Calculating the average score for CEOs alone for the transformational orientation, they were at the 50th percentile for IIA, IIB, IS and IC. Except for MBEA, the CEOs had low levels of leadership orientation for IM, CR, MBEP and LF. Similar to the CEOs, senior managers scored low for inspirational motivation. A notable difference was that senior managers were more active in providing contingent rewards compared to CEOs. Similarly, senior managers had a higher score in self-rating for both CR and MBEA. Such a score could be attributed to either a slightly inflated self-rating, or rewards that senior managers provide to their subordinates are not perceived as rewards by those subordinates. The data also show that the CR scores of senior managers by CEOs are at a higher level than the scores given by the raters who are subordinate to the senior managers. This affirms the assumption that certain rewards or recognitions are considered to be contingent by CEOs and senior managers, i.e., the subordinates perceive them

as being due or rightful remuneration. Figures 3 and 4 present the leadership orientations of the CEOs and senior managers separately, while Figures 5 and 6, represent the leadership outcomes of the CEOs and senior managers respectively.

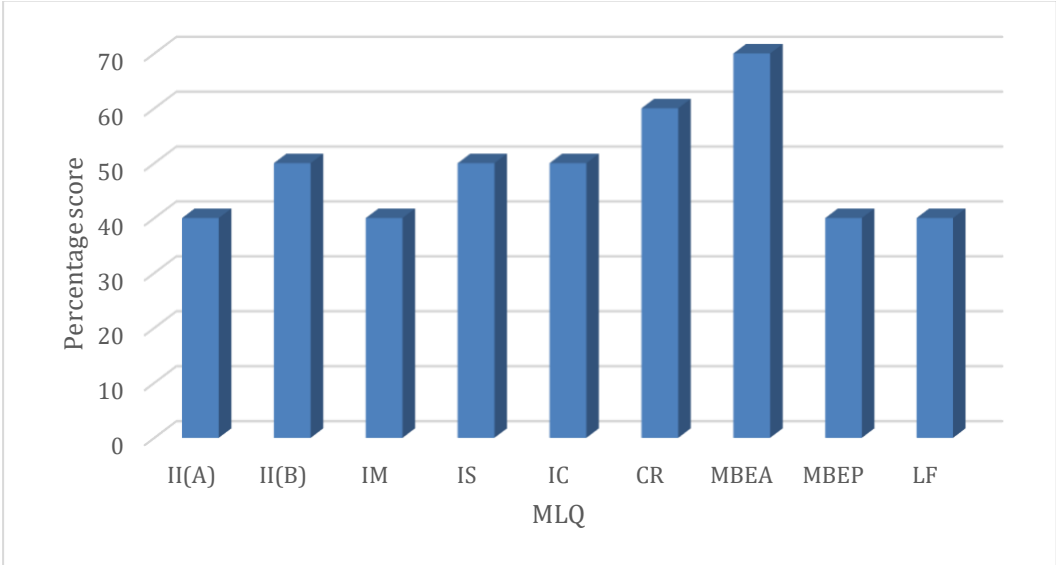


Figure 3: MLQ Results for CEOs alone (All raters)

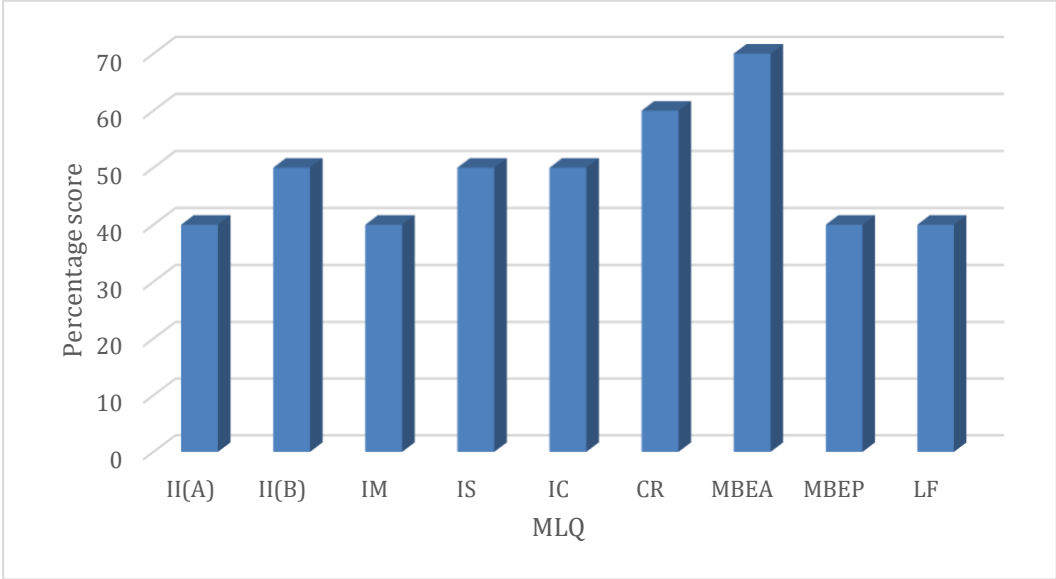


Figure 4: MLQ results for Senior Managers alone (All raters)

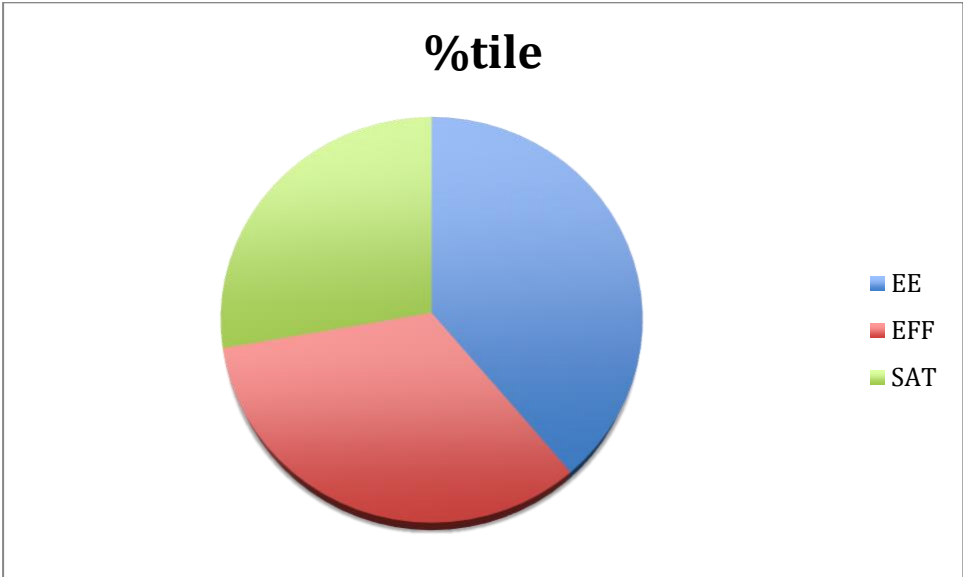


Figure 5: Leadership Outcomes (CEOs)

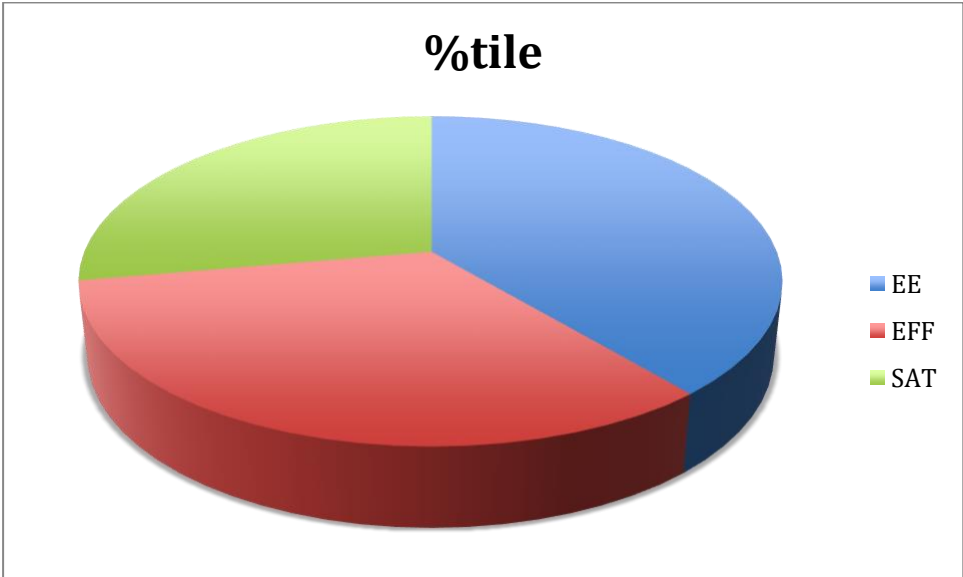


Figure 6: Leadership Outcomes (Senior Managers)

4.2.5 Results of Inferential Analysis of Leadership Scales of MLQ

Inferential analysis was undertaken to understand the statistical differences between the self-scores of the CEOs and senior managers and their raters. For this purpose, the researcher used the Mann Whitney U test for internal consistency. Likewise, to understand if there were any significant variations between the scores of the leadership scales of transformational and transactional leaders, the researcher undertook a Friedman ANOVA test.

4.2.5.1 Results of Mann Whitney U Test

Tables 7 and 8 present a summary of the results of the Mann Whitney U Test for Internal Consistency for CEOs and senior managers, respectively.

Table 7: Internal consistency of leadership scales for CEOs

Scales	U	p-value
Idealised Influence - Attributed (IIA)	1293.5	0.0036
Idealised Influence - Behaviour (IIB)	936.5	0.0000
Inspiration Motivation (IM)	274	0.0000
Intellectual Stimulation (IS)	979.5	0.0000
Individual Consideration (IC)	725	0.0000
Contingent Reward (CR)	469.5	0.0000
Management by Exception - Active (MBEA)	1462.5	0.0415
Management by Exception - Passive (MBEP)	2409	0.0049
Laissez-Faire (LF)	2272	0.0347

Table 8: Internal consistency of leadership scales for senior managers (SMs)

Scales	U	p-value
Idealised Influence - Attributed (IIA)	465.5	0.0000
Idealised Influence - Behaviour (IIB)	599.5	0.0000
Inspiration Motivation (IM)	161.5	0.0000
Intellectual Stimulation (IS)	611	0.0000
Individual Consideration (IC)	614	0.0000
Contingent Reward (CR)	412	0.0000
Management by Exception - Active (MBEA)	1499	0.5514
Management by Exception - Passive (MBEP)	2121	0.0000
Laissez-Faire (LF)	1801	0.0116

Internal consistency for idealised influence – attributed (IIA) – CEOs

The null hypothesis to be tested was: ‘There is no significant difference in the distribution (median) of idealised influence (attributed) between the CEOs’ self-rating and other.’ The Mann-Whitney u test result in $U = 1293.5$ with $p\text{-value} = 0.0036$. Since the p-value had less

than 0.01 level of significance, the null hypothesis is rejected at 1% level. Based on the test results, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference in distribution (median) of idealised influence (attributed) between the CEOs' self-rating and other raters at 1% level of significance.

Internal consistency for idealised influence – behaviour (IIB) – CEOs

The null hypothesis to be tested was: 'There is no significant difference in distribution (median) of idealised influence (behaviour) between the CEOs' self-rating and other raters.' The Mann-Whitney u test resulted in $U = 936.5$ with $p\text{-value} = 0.0000$. Since the p-value had less than 0.01 level of significance, the null hypothesis is rejected at 1% level. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference in distribution (median) of idealised influence (behaviour) between the CEOs' self-rating and other raters at 1% level of significance.

Internal consistency for inspirational motivation (IM) – CEOs

The null hypothesis to be tested was: 'There is no significant difference in distribution (median) of inspirational motivation between the CEOs' self-rating and other raters.' The Mann-Whitney u test resulted in $U = 274$ with $p\text{-value} = 0.0000$. Since the p-value had less than 0.01 level of significance, then the null hypothesis is rejected at 1% level. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference in distribution (median) of inspirational motivation between the CEOs' self-rating and other raters at 1% level of significance.

Internal consistency for intellectual stimulation (IS) – CEOs

The null hypothesis to be tested was: 'There is no significant difference in distribution (median) of intellectual stimulation between the CEO's self-rating and other raters. The Mann-Whitney u test resulted in $U = 979.5$ with $p\text{-value} = 0.0000$. Since the p-value had less than 0.01 level of significance, the null hypothesis is rejected at 1% level. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference in distribution (median) of intellectual stimulation between the CEOs' self-rating and other raters at 1% level of significance.

Internal consistency for individualised consideration (IC) – CEOs

The null hypothesis to be tested was: 'There is no significant difference in distribution (median) of individualised consideration between the CEOs' self-rating and other raters.' The Mann-Whitney u test resulted in $U = 725$ with $p\text{-value} = 0.0000$. Since the p-value had less than 0.01 level of significance, the null hypothesis is rejected at 1% level. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference in distribution (median) of individualised consideration

between the CEOs' self-rating and other raters at 1% level of significance.

Internal consistency for contingent reward (CR) – CEOs

The null hypothesis to be tested was: 'There is no significant difference in distribution (median) of contingent reward between the CEO's self-rating and other raters.' The Mann-Whitney u test resulted in $U = 469.5$ with $p\text{-value} = 0.0000$. Since the p-value had less than 0.01 level of significance, the null hypothesis is rejected at 1% level. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference in distribution (median) of contingent reward between the CEOs' self-rating and other raters at 1% level of significance.

Internal consistency for management-by-exception (active) (MBEA) – CEOs

The null hypothesis to be tested was: 'There is no significant difference in distribution (median) of management-by-exception (active) between the CEOs' self-rating and other raters.' The Mann-Whitney u test resulted in $U = 1462.5$ with $p\text{-value} = 0.0415$. Since the p-value had less than 0.05 level of significance, the null hypothesis is rejected at 5% level. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference in distribution (median) of management-by-exception (active) between the CEOs' self-rating and other raters at 5% level of significance.

Internal consistency for management-by-exception (passive) (MBEP) – CEOs

The null hypothesis to be tested was: 'There is no significant difference in distribution (median) of management-by-exception (passive) between the CEOs' self-rating and other raters.' The Mann-Whitney u test resulted in $U = 2409$ with $p\text{-value} = 0.0049$. Since the p-value had less than 0.01 level of significance, the null hypothesis is rejected at 1% level. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference in distribution (median) of management-by-exception (passive) between the CEOs' self-rating and other raters at 1% level of significance.

Internal consistency for laissez-faire (LF) – CEOs

The null hypothesis to be tested was: 'There is no significant difference in distribution (median) of laissez-faire between the CEOs' self-rating and other raters.' The Mann-Whitney u test resulted in $U = 2272$ with $p\text{-value} = 0.0347$. Since the p-value had less than 0.05 level of significance, the null hypothesis is rejected at 5% level. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference in distribution (median) of laissez-faire between the CEOs' self-rating and other raters at 5% level of significance.

Internal consistency for idealised influence – attributed (IIA) – SMs

The null hypothesis to be tested was: ‘There is no significant difference in distribution (median) of idealised influence (attributed) between the SMs’ self-rating and other.’ The Mann-Whitney u test resulted in $U = 465.5$ with $p\text{-value} = 0.0000$. Since the p-value had less than 0.01 level of significance, the null hypothesis is rejected at 1% level. Based on the test results, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference in distribution (median) of idealised influence (attributed) between the SMs’ self-rating and other raters at 1% level of significance.

Internal consistency for idealised influence – behaviour (IIB) – SMs

The null hypothesis to be tested was: ‘There is no significant difference in distribution (median) of idealised influence (behaviour) between the SMs’ self-rating and other raters.’ The Mann-Whitney u test resulted in $U = 599.5$ with $p\text{-value} = 0.0000$. Since the p-value had less than 0.01 level of significance, the null hypothesis is rejected at 1% level. Based on the test results, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference in distribution (median) of idealised influence (behaviour) between the SMs’ self-rating and other raters at 1% level of significance.

Internal consistency for inspirational motivation (IM) – SMs

The null hypothesis to be tested was: ‘There is no significant difference in distribution (median) of inspirational motivation between the SMs’ self-rating and other raters.’ The Mann-Whitney u test resulted in $U = 161.5$ with $p\text{-value} = 0.0000$. Since the p-value had less than 0.01 level of significance, the null hypothesis is rejected at 1% level. Based on the test results, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference in distribution (median) of inspirational motivation between the SMs’ self-rating and other raters at 1% level of significance.

Internal consistency for intellectual stimulation (IS) – SMs

The null hypothesis to be tested was: ‘There is no significant difference in distribution (median) of intellectual stimulation between the SMs’ self-rating and other raters.’ The Mann-Whitney u test resulted in $U = 611$ with $p\text{-value} = 0.0000$. Since the p-value had less than 0.01 level of significance, the null hypothesis is rejected at 1% level. Based on the test results, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference in distribution (median) of intellectual stimulation between the SMs’ self-rating and other raters at 1% level of significance.

Internal consistency for individualised consideration (IC) – SMs

The null hypothesis to be tested was: ‘There is no significant difference in distribution (median) of individualised consideration between the SMs’ self-rating and other raters.’ The Mann-

Whitney u test resulted in $U = 614$ with $p\text{-value} = 0.0000$. Since the $p\text{-value}$ had less than 0.01 level of significance, the null hypothesis is rejected at 1% level. Based on the test results, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference in distribution (median) of individualised consideration between the SMs' self-rating and other raters at 1% level of significance.

Internal consistency for contingent reward (CR) – SMs

The null hypothesis to be tested was: 'There is no significant difference in distribution (median) of contingent reward between the SMs' self-rating and other raters.' The Mann-Whitney u test resulted in $U = 412$ with $p\text{-value} = 0.0000$. Since the $p\text{-value}$ had less than 0.01 level of significance, the null hypothesis is rejected at 1% level. Based on the test results, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference in distribution (median) of contingent reward between the SMs' self-rating and other raters at 1% level of significance.

Internal consistency for management-by-exception (active) (MBEA) – SMs

The null hypothesis to be tested was: 'There is no significant difference in distribution (median) of management-by-exception (active) between the SMs' self-rating and other raters.' The Mann-Whitney u test resulted in $U = 1499$ with $p\text{-value} = 0.5514$. Since the $p\text{-value}$ exceeded 0.1 level of significance, the null hypothesis is not rejected at 10% level. Based on the test results, it can be concluded that there is no significant difference in distribution (median) of management-by-exception (active) between the SMs' self-rating and other raters at 10% level of significance.

Internal consistency for management-by-exception (passive) (MBEP) – SMs

The null hypothesis to be tested was: 'There is no significant difference in distribution (median) of management-by-exception (passive) between the SMs' self-rating and other raters.' The Mann-Whitney u test resulted in $U = 2121$ with $p\text{-value} = 0.0000$. Since the $p\text{-value}$ had less than 0.01 level of significance, the null hypothesis is rejected at 1% level. Based on the test results, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference in distribution (median) of management-by-exception (passive) between the SMs' self-rating and other raters at 1% level of significance.

Internal consistency for laissez-faire (LF) – SMs

The null hypothesis to be tested was: 'There is no significant difference in distribution (median) of laissez-faire between the SMs' self-rating and other raters.' The Mann-Whitney u test resulted in $U = 1801$ with $p\text{-value} = 0.0116$. Since the $p\text{-value}$ had less than 0.05 level of

significance, the null hypothesis is rejected at 5% level. Based on the test results, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference in distribution (median) of laissez-faire between the SMs' self-rating and other raters at 5% level of significance.

Given the Mann-Whitney u test results for internal consistency, it can be concluded that, with the exception of management-by-exception (active) for senior managers, there were significant differences between the self-ratings and other raters. No difference was found for management-by-exception (active) for senior managers.

4.2.5.2 Results of Friedman ANOVA Test for Dimension Variations

The Friedman ANOVA test was conducted to ascertain if there are any significant differences between the leadership subscales of the transformational and transactional leadership styles.

Table 9 presents the Friedman ANOVA test results for dimension variations in the transformational leadership styles of CEOs and SMs.

Table 9: Dimension variations for leadership styles (CEOs & SMs)

	Transformational Leadership Scales		Transactional Leadership Scales	
	CEOs	SMs	CEOs	SMs
FM	37.47	10.69	116.295	105.51
p-value	0.0000	0.0303	0.0000	0.000

Dimension Variations of the Transformational Leadership style of CEOs

To understand the dimension variations of the transformational leadership style of CEOs, the null hypothesis to be tested was: 'There is no significant difference in distribution (median) of IIA, IIB, IM, IS and IC for CEOs.' The Friedman ANOVA test resulted in $FM = 37.47$ with $p\text{-value} = 0.0000$. Since the p-value had less than 0.01 level of significance, the null hypothesis is rejected at 1% level. Therefore, there are at least two population distributions (median) for the five transformation subscales of CEO that are different.

In order to figure out the pair groups that are different, a pair-wise p-value test was done using the least square significant difference (LSD) method. Since there are five subscale variables, there were 10 pairs of groups to be tested (see Table 10).

Table 10: Pair-wise comparisons for the transformational leadership scales – CEOs

	IIA	IIB	IC	IM
IB	0.0053			
IC	0.0046	0.0522		
IM	0.0046	0.0522	1	
IS	0.0004	0.0204	1	1

Based on the above pair-wise p-value matrix table, the following interpretation and conclusions can be drawn:

Table 11: Summary of dimension variations for the transformational leadership scales – CEOs

Pairs	Median	p-value	level	Conclusion
IIA & IIB	0.0053	< 0.01	1%	CEO population distributions of IIA & IIB are not the same
IIA & IC	0.0046	<0.01	1%	CEO population distributions of IIA & IC are not the same
IIA & IM	0.0046	<0.01	1%	CEO population distributions of IIA & IM are not the same
IIA & IS	0.0004	<0.01	1%	CEO population distributions of IIA and IS are not the same
IIB & IC	0.0522	<0.01	10%	CEO population distributions of IIB and IC are not the same
IIB & IM	0.0522	<0.01	10%	CEO population distributions of IIB and IM are not the same
IIB & IS	0.0204	<0.05	5%	CEO population distributions of IIB and IS are not the same
IC & IM	1	>0.1	10%	CEO population distributions of IC and IM are the same
IC & IS	1	>0.1	10%	CEO population distributions of IC and IS are the same
IM & IS	1	>0.1	10%	CEO population distributions of IM and IS are the same

The p-value for comparison of the median of idealised influence-attribute (IIA) and the median of idealised influence-behaviour (IIB) was 0.00053. Since the p-value was less than 0.01, the null hypothesis of no significant difference between the population distribution of IIA and that of IIB was rejected at 1% level. The conclusion is that the CEO population distribution of IIA and that of IIB are not the same.

The p-value for comparison of the median of IIA and the median of Individualised Consideration (IC) was 0.0046. Since the p-value was less than 0.01, the null hypothesis of no

significant difference between the population distribution of IIA and IC was rejected at 1% level. This indicates that the CEO population distribution of IIA and that of IC are not the same.

The p-value for comparison of the median of IIA and the median of Inspirational Motivation (IM) was 0.0046. Since the p-value was less than 0.01, the null hypothesis of no significant difference between the population distribution of IIA and that of IM was rejected at 1% level. This indicates that the CEO population distribution of IIA and that of IM are not the same.

The p-value for comparison of the median of IIA and the median of Intellectual Stimulation (IS) was 0.0004. Since the p-value was less than 0.01, the null hypothesis of no significant difference between the population distribution of IIA and that of IS was rejected at 1% level. This indicates that the CEO population distribution of IIA and that of IS are not the same.

The p-value for comparison of the median of IIB and the median of IC was 0.0522. Since the p-value was less than 0.1, the null hypothesis of no significant difference between the population distribution of IIB and that of IS was rejected at 10% level. This indicates that the CEO population distribution of IIB and that of IC are not the same.

The p-value for comparison of the median of IIB and the median of IM was 0.0522. Since the p-value was less than 0.1, the null hypothesis of no significant difference between the population distribution of IIB and that of IM was rejected at 10% level. This shows that the CEO population distribution of IIB and that of IM are not the same.

The p-value for comparison of the median of IIB and the median of IS was 0.0204. Since the p-value was less than 0.05, the null hypothesis of no significant difference between the population distribution of IIB and that of IS was rejected at 5% level. This demonstrates that the CEO population distribution of IIB and that of IS are not the same.

The p-value for comparison of the median of IC and the median of IM was 1. Since the p-value exceeded 0.1, the null hypothesis of no significant difference between the population distribution of IC and that of IM was not rejected at 10% level. This indicates that the CEO population distribution of IC and that of IM are the same.

The p-value for comparison of the median of IC and the median of IS was 1. Since the p-value exceeded 0.1, the null hypothesis of no significant difference between the population distribution of IC and that of IS was not rejected at 10% level. This shows that the CEO population distribution of IC and that of IS are the same.

The p-value for comparison of the median of IM and the median of IS was 1. Since the p-value

exceeded 0.1, the null hypothesis of no significant difference between the population distribution of IM and that of IS was not rejected at 10% level. This demonstrates that the CEO population distribution of IM and that of IS are the same.

Dimension Variations of the Transformational Leadership style of SMs

In testing the dimension variations for the transformational leadership scales of SMs, the null hypothesis to be tested was: ‘There is no significant difference in distribution (median) of IIA, IIB, IM, IS and IC for SMs.’ The Friedman ANOVA test resulted in $FM = 10.69$ with p-value = 0.0303. Since the p-value had less than 0.05 level of significance, the null hypothesis was rejected at 5% level. Based on the test results, it can be concluded that there are at least two population distributions (median) for the five transformation subscales of SMs, which are different.

In order to figure out the pair groups that are different, the following matrix displays the pair-wise p-value test results by using the least square significant difference (LSD) method. There were five subscale variables, therefore 10 pairs of groups had to be tested.

Table 12: Pair-wise comparisons for the transformation leadership style – SMs

	IIA	IIB	IC	IM
IB	0.0023			
IC	0.0048	0.0042		
IM	0.0017	0.0322	0.0013	
IS	0.0012	0.0204	1	1

Based on the above pair-wise p-value matrix table, the following interpretation and conclusions can be drawn:

Table 13: Summary of dimension variations for the transformational leadership scales – SMs

Pairs	Median	p-value	Level	Conclusion
IIA & IIB	0.0023	< 0.01	1%	SM population distributions of IIA & IIB are not the same
IIA & IC	0.0048	<0.01	1%	SM population distributions of IIA & IC are not the same
IIA & IM	0.0017	<0.01	1%	SM population distributions of IIA & IM are not the same
IIA & IS	0.0012	<0.01	1%	SM population distributions of IIA and IS are not the same
IIB & IC	0.0042	<0.01	1%	SM population distributions of IIB and IC are not the same
IIB & IM	0.0322	<0.05	5%	SM population distributions of IIB and IM are not the same
IIB & IS	0.0204	<0.05	5%	SM population distributions of IIB and IS are not the same
IC & IM	0.0013	<0.01	1%	SM population distributions of IC and IM are not the same
IC & IS	1	>0.1	10%	SM population distributions of IC and IS are the same
IM & IS	1	>0.1	10%	SM population distributions of IM and IS are the same

The p-value for comparison of the median of idealised influence-attributed (IIA) and the median of idealised influence-behaviour (IIB) was 0.00023. Since the p-value was less than 0.01, the null hypothesis of no significant difference between the population distribution of IIA and that of IIB was rejected at 1% level. The conclusion is that the SMs' population distribution of IIA and IIB are not the same.

The p-value for comparison of median of IIA and the median of Individualised Consideration (IC) was 0.0048. Since the p-value was less than 0.01, the null hypothesis of no significant difference between the population distribution of IIA and IC is rejected at 1% level. This shows that the SMs' population distribution of IIA and that of IC are not the same.

The p-value for comparison of the median of IIA and the median of Inspirational Motivation (IM) was 0.0017. Since the p-value was less than 0.01, the null hypothesis of no significant difference between the population distribution of IIA and that of IM was rejected at 1% level. This indicates that the SMs' population distribution of IIA and that of IM are not the same.

The p-value for comparison of the median of IIA and the median of Intellectual Stimulation (IS) was 0.0012. Since the p-value was less than 0.01, the null hypothesis of no significant difference

between the population distribution of IIA and that of IS was rejected at 1% level. This highlights that the SMEs' population distribution of IIA and that of IS are not the same.

The p-value for comparison of the median of IIB and the median of IC was 0.0042. Since the p-value was less than 0.1, the null hypothesis of no significant difference between the population distribution of IIB and that of IC was rejected at 1% level. This indicates that the SMEs' population distribution of IIB and that of IC are not the same.

The p-value for comparison of the median of IIB and the median of IM was 0.0322. Since the p-value was less than 0.05, the null hypothesis of no significant difference between the population distribution of IIB and that of IM was rejected at 5% level. This shows that the SMEs' population distribution of IIB and that of IM are not the same.

The p-value for comparison of the median of IIB and the median of IS was 0.0204. Since the p-value was less than 0.05, the null hypothesis of no significant difference between the population distribution of IIB and that of IS was rejected at 5% level. This demonstrates that the SMEs' population distribution of IIB and that of IS are not the same.

The p-value for comparison of the median of IC and the median of IM was 0.0013. Since the p-value was less than 0.01, the null hypothesis of no significant difference between the population distribution of IC and that of IM was not rejected at 1% level. This indicates that the SMEs' population distribution of IC and that of IM are the same.

The p-value for comparison of the median of IC and the median of IS was 1. Since the p-value exceeded 0.1, the null hypothesis of no significant difference between the population distribution of IC and that of IS was not rejected at 10% level. This shows that the SMEs' population distribution of IC and that of IS are the same.

The p-value for comparison of the median of IM and the median of IS was 1. Since the p-value exceeded 0.1, the null hypothesis of no significant difference between the population distribution of IM and that of IS was not rejected at 10% level. This highlights that the SMEs' population distribution of IM and that of IS are the same.

Dimension variations for the Transactional Leadership style – CEOs

The null hypothesis to be tested was: 'There is no significant difference in distribution (median) of MBEA, MBEP, and CR for CEOs.' The Friedman ANOVA test result was $FM = 116.295$ with p-value=0.0000. Since the p-value had less than 0.01 level of significance, the null hypothesis was rejected at 1% level. Based on the test results, it can be concluded that there are

at least two population distributions (median) for the three transactional subscales of CEOs that are different.

In order to figure out the pair groups that are different, the following matrix displays the pair-wise p-value test results by using the least square significant difference (LSD) method. Since there are three subscale variables, there were three pairs of groups to be tested.

Table 14: Pair-wise comparisons for the transactional leadership style – CEOs

	CR	MBEA
MBEA	0.0000	
MBEP	0.0000	0.0000

The p-value matrix for pair-wise comparison was 0.0000 for each set. This shows that there is a statistically significant difference for all pairs of transactional subscales for CEOs. The contingent reward average rate differs from those of management-by-exception (active) and management-by-exception (passive). In addition, it implies that the average rate of management-by-exception (active) differs from that of management-by-exception (passive).

Dimension Variations for the Transactional Leadership Style – SMs

The null hypothesis to be tested was: ‘There is no significant difference in distribution (median) of MBEA, MBEP, and CR for SMs.’ The Friedman ANOVA test result was $FM = 105.51$ with p-value=0.0000. Since the p-value had less than 0.01 level of significance, the null hypothesis was rejected at 1% level. Based on the test results, it can be concluded that there are at least two population distributions (medians) for the three transactional subscales of SMs that are different.

In order to figure out the pair groups that are different, the following matrix displays the pair-wise p-value test results by using the least square significant difference (LSD) method. Since there were three subscale variables, there were three pairs of groups to be tested.

Table 15: Pair-wise comparisons for the transactional leadership style – CEOs

	CR	MBEA
MBEA	0.0000	
MBEP	0.0000	0.0000

Similar to the results for the CEOs, the p-values matrix for pair-wise comparison was 0.0000

for each set. This shows that there is a statistically significant difference for all pairs of transactional subscales for SMs. The contingent reward average rate differed from those for management-by-exception (active) and management-by-exception (passive). This implies that the average rate of management-by-exception (active) differs from that of management-by-exception (passive).

The ANOVA test for dimension variations for the transformational and transactional leadership styles of CEOs and senior managers revealed that there are differences and similarities in the population distribution. For CEOs and their raters for the transformational leadership style, individual consideration, intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation were all rated the same. Other subscales of the transformational leadership scales for CEOs differed from each other, however. For SMs and their raters, inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation were rated the same, while other subscales differed from each other. The subscales of the transactional leadership styles of both CEOs and senior managers were all different from each other.

4.2.5.3 Results of Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Analysis

The study initially accepted the test-retest reliability of the MLQ from other studies in deciding to use the MLQ. For the present study, the researcher tested the reliability of the MLQ using the Cronbach's Alpha reliability analysis. The following resulted from the analysis:

The transformational leadership subscales for CEOs had the following results for internal reliability: idealised influence - attributed (IIA) ($\alpha = 0.712$), idealised influence - behaviour (IIB) ($\alpha = 0.701$), intellectual stimulation (IS) ($\alpha = 0.712$), inspirational motivation (IM) ($\alpha = 0.801$) and individual consideration (IS) ($\alpha = 0.702$). The overall Alpha score for the transformational leadership style was $\alpha = 0.821$.

The transactional leadership subscales of CEOs had the following Cronbach's Alpha values: contingent reward (CR) ($\alpha = 0.721$), management by exception - active (MBEA) ($\alpha = 0.713$) and management by exception - passive (MBEP) ($\alpha = 0.701$). The overall Alpha score for the transactional leadership style was $\alpha = 0.741$. The Laissez-Fair (LF) scale had the α value of Alpha equal to 0.692. The outcomes of leadership styles for the CEOs had the following reliability test results: extra effort ($\alpha = 0.751$), effectiveness ($\alpha = 0.781$) and satisfaction ($\alpha = 0.732$).

The transformational leadership subscales of the senior managers had the following results for internal reliability: IIA ($\alpha = 0.673$), IIB ($\alpha = 0.714$), IS ($\alpha = 0.711$), IM ($\alpha = 0.700$) and IC ($\alpha = 0.683$). The overall Alpha score for the transformational leadership style of SMs was $\alpha = 0.811$.

The transactional leadership styles of the SMs had the following results for the reliability test: CR ($\alpha = 0.710$), MBEA ($\alpha = 0.673$) and MBEP ($\alpha = 0.661$). The Laissez-Fair (LF) scale had the α value equal to 0.642. The overall Alpha score for the transactional leadership style of SMs was $\alpha = 0.801$. The outcomes of leadership styles for the SMs had the following reliability test results: extra effort ($\alpha = 0.741$), effectiveness ($\alpha = 0.751$), satisfaction ($\alpha = 0.782$).

The Cronbach's Alpha reliability analysis reveals that the MLQ for the study had a satisfactory level of reliability.

4.3 Research Findings: Qualitative Data

The researcher analysed the qualitative data in an open coding process, after which he conducted an axial coding process (Benaquisto, 2008; Scott & Medaugh, 2017) to group and consolidate codes to find 24 sub-themes and 9 themes. To further understand the interrelationships and dynamics among these themes and subthemes, a conditional relationship guide was developed, which enabled the researcher to find answers to the research questions. The themes, sub-themes and codes are presented with evidence below in Table 7.

Table 7: Themes, Sub-themes and Topics - Chain of Evidence

Topic	Theme	Sub-theme	Codes
Promoting OCBs	Attitudes and outlooks promoting OCB	Being Empathetic	A spirit of listening 1:7 making sure that everyone is listened 5:16 try to sit to get views. 17:52 Did much listening, listening and asking. 17:55 How one listens to people, 17:63 listening for the first 18 months. 18:11 allowing people to speak, hearing them, listening like a useful attribute. 33:18 wanting to listen to people, 33:19 Do not be a judge, just listen to them. 14:17 Leader is also very empathetic 16:51 empathy with partners. 17:7 empathise as much as one can 18:33 sometimes people do not have any empathy at all., 20:23 togetherness in problem or challenges- 23:11 personal kind of Association. Understanding and admonishing 5:16, we try to sit to get their views. 8:11 So, tolerance is also part of the process, 9:29 9:39 if, He or She is not doing good talk 14:11 so people make mistakes, but not to admonish them. 26:36 avoiding most as a leader is that kind of admonish style, giving memo. 27:14 understanding them, we give a day off, instead of giving money.
		Equality and respect	1:8 Everyone needs to be respected. 5:15 culture of solidarity, working together, respecting each other. 11:23 treat them equally. 11:25 to respect everybody, and also to respect the rights of everybody, 11:44. We all call 'dadas', regardless of age, 15:8 we have principles that allow us to share, respect each other and respect people's opinions, 15:9 the central principle respecting everyone. 15:23 love, trust, respect. 16: it is sometimes just basic respect and respect for what they do. 20:18 to accommodate, 24:23 to respect employees to be fair with them. 26:25 we try to eliminate that kind of feeling of being less favoured 28:12 have to respect their position.
		Transparency	Openness and authenticity 8:3 being honest, 10:12 Openness and honesty as tied together 13:33 influenced by the authenticity of the CEO. 19:44 being authentic, 6:12 standards like Openness & transparency 22:17 Just Openness and nothing else. Thinking big 7:23 our employees to think big 9:5 somebody sees their work as not just a piece of work 18:17 deal with the more significant thing 18:40 Its vision, close the eyes and they see the

Collective Ownership with Boundaries		organisation 22:9 Living to know the bigger picture . 23:30 space to think, the bigger picture
	A sense of collective ownership, usefulness, and Responsibility	7:5 sense of ownership all the things 7:32 some sort of collective ownership of the institution. 8:3 So, the feeling of attachment to ownership 9:6 that feeling of ownership, motivating 9:47 facilitate participation 14:22 small or big tasks be part of it, 15:16 all work together and also as part of collective responsibility and leadership. 17:9 give them a sense that we are doing important work 26:3 they see the relevance of the work and area 18:3 Common ownership has to do a lot 18:6 part of the decision-making that creates the stakes. 19:5 They are part of collective ownership. 19:10 not rules and regulations, but ownership. 24:2 a shared vision or ownership 29:2 we carry out work independently, own together. Collaborative problem-solving, and Resource mobilisation 16:14 we collectively decide on how to address. 16:15 If a situation, ask the team 24:25 solve the problem collaboratively as a group. Collective resource mobilization 17:24 The bigger picture with resources. 17:26 We move resource together 3:10 All are responsible for fund raising. Budget preparation –collective
	Organisational Democracy	Collaborative planning and decision-making 7:6 employees participate. 9:2 organisation have planning days, together 11:38 Our participatory decision-making, 12:9 the development of the work plan, the annual plan, by all the staff, 13:10 Reviewing finance together 13:25 Sit together and drafted the vision, 17:12 All engage with the idea, 18:4 everybody partaking in planning. 18:5 Entire team, from the driver to cook, CEO to the board and the chair of the board all are planning. 24:49 Involve many people in what they want to do, 25:10 plans together, operation plans together. We plan together. What we do. 27:24 We do a strategic plan. we do it together 30:15 actual participatory planning 31:10 people have an opportunity to give out their views. 32:11 if they do not involve people well, are not acceptable. 1:5 Decision that makes sense to all 32:16 collaboration. Participatory decision-making and commitment. Freedom of expression, grievances and diverse opinions 12:28 free to ask or to tell anything 12:53 room and space to tell whatever 17:17 not be able to control what other people are saying, 17:70 A different way of interpreting 18:13 progress by getting challenged. 18:15 other ways of doing this better 19:15 allow opinions 19:45 Accept differences; 21:25 take other people’s opinions
The Organisational Family Culture	Organisation as family 1:11 organisation is a family, and we are all treating each other as a family member. 1:16 is a family, and everyone understands 1:17 being a member of the family. 1:18 to cultivate a culture of family 1:35 not as staff but family 7:1 we are living like a family, 10:26 Tend to live like a family. 12:20 We know each other very well, as family, 13:2 culture of treating each other as a family. 14:7 a small family 14:15 our Leader is the head of	

		<p>the family 15:12 The organisation is another family. 15:20 cultivate a culture of family. 15:30 We treat each other as brothers and sister 16:26 we see ourselves as a family in family settings in Africa. 27:1 We relate each other like sisters and brothers</p> <p>Supporting each other If there is a problem 19:2 Visit to support the family. 23:12 the staff go to his or her home to see their parents. Financial Contribution to support bereavement.</p> <p>Celebrating together 12:29 It is about all of us, we reward ourselves 12:30 Celebrate marriage and Birthdays 12:31 The success is not about the CEO, but all. 9:48 all giving our best so we all celebrate. 10:13 if one fails, failing the team. If one succeeds, then the team is succeeding. 11:6, At Christmas, get together 19:43 Celebrate together the results. 23:15 However, the little achievement should celebrate. 23:16 the team celebrates together, not someone claiming the credit for all that.</p>
	<p>The Organisational Team Culture</p>	<p>Team work and collaboration Achieving goals through Team work and collaboration 9: A culture of teamwork. So, teamwork is at the core of our work. 10:11 a small team and we are working as a team. 11:1 The staff, to make sure that they help each other, they build a good team 12:3 First of all, building the teamwork, 18:2 facilitate the teamwork. 19:1 For us, teamwork is one of the critical asset 19:21 to work as a team and individual in the Team 20:3 positive attitude for the team. 20:15 having a cohesion of the team is vital. 33:15 everything in teamwork.</p> <p>Achieving goals through teams 5: Belief in teamwork 5:27 put them on our team, do not allow people to go individually 8:8 accomplishing as a team 16:9 the teams are also well prepared to achieve goals 26:21 We feel we have something in the team, that is very valuable 27:6 build our team spirit, our team building 29:6 30:11 teams own the results</p> <p>Clarity of Roles, Best job fit and Group size 14:32 lack of clarity lot of problems. 19:3 ensuring clarity of jobs.,16:2 clearly understand the job environment 1:42 optimal groups for planning. 17:30 people of the same mentality in groups. 22:16 maximum of eight to nine people to manage. 5:33 must be orientated 31:9 making sure that each understands the goals</p> <p>Discussion and Good Communication to talk. Bring Issues on the 21:15 meet together and discuss our issues 21:24 a big one is a communication. We have to communicate, 22:4 be able to communicate 22:6 if one cannot communicate the situation, then it is an underperformance, 24:4 leader keep team informed 31:17 Leader is constant in communicating. 31:19 people feel for a leader when he/she communicates to them 1:6 encouraging people to talk and discuss. 9:38 no backbiting but discuss 11:27 we talk about 11:63 communication management. 15:4 encouraging people Engaging, sharing, and learning at work</p>

		<p>☺ 13:1 reach out to anyone ☺ 13:16 every staff to present anything. ☺ 21:19 information sharing. ☺ 30:23 sometimes one needs to share views, share with staff, share with people, 17:19 people find the process of learning hard. ☺ 17:20 One-hour presentation, and then a debate ☺ 17:21 things with learning.</p> <p>Team spirit as loyalty</p> <p>☺ 8:9 would say team spirit is loyalty. ☺ 8:10 Loyalty to the team. ☺ 3:5 ☺ 4:38 promoting loyalty. ☺ 17:10 Loyalty to the mission ☺ 18:18 two way loyalty ☺ 17:35 not seek loyalty to the CEO but the organisation.</p> <p>Conflict management</p> <p>11:4 staff representatives for conflict resolution, two staff representatives when staff have problems, at the lowest level. ☺ 11:5 informal way of solving problems. ☺ 8:22 trying not to intervene and let the people solve conflicts ☺ 11:3 the staff-only meeting for problems. ☺ 11:32 encourage them to solve problems themselves. ☺ Autonomy in handling problems at the lowest level</p> <p>Accountability</p> <p>☺ 6:16 sound system, high level of accountability ☺ 11:20 stand up and talk about integrity, talk about accountability, ☺ 19:38 enforcing accountability ☺ 22:26 meet the standard of accountability ☺ 24:42 compliancy, vs accountability ☺ 24:43 Not to misappropriate funds</p>
	<p>Selective recruitment and coaching for not-for-profit values</p>	<p>A spirit of voluntarism and Passion for the not-for-profit</p> <p>12:14 value for our organisation is voluntarism. ☺ 12: talking about voluntarism. ☺ 12:44 Do that without even being paid an extra amount. ☺ 20:2 requires people who are ready to volunteer ☺ 21:9 use their cellphones for work. ☺ 26:31 Our organisation's values and vision, one of these is volunteerism. ☺ 27:12 30%, they volunteer, even if they are the staff. ☺ 28:1 volunteerism now comes from our family. ☺ 28:2 training on volunteerism for the young people ☺ 29: we recruited a person or a staff with voluntarism ☺ 30:1 most of the time we are waking on the voluntarist agreement. ☺ 32:7 So, everyone is voluntarily himself, or herself and complies to the vision and the mission.</p> <p>Passion for the not-for-profit</p> <p>10:34 that passion for the sector and voluntarism.</p> <p>☺ 11:12 the social sector is the passion, ☺ 12:33 whatever we are doing is for the benefit of our organisation. ☺ 12:45 love the sector. 8:1 Together in terms of the vision of the organisation. 8:7 seeking to recruit someone who has a love for the sector. ☺ 9:17 interview question on the motive ☺, the motives for joining ☺ 9:21 what he wants to do ☺ 11:37 Those who leave become outstanding advocates. ☺ 13:5 not so much looking on academic qualifications- ☺ 13:6 for the interview, we observe them. We see that passion, ☺ 13:41 we also doing the review for the interns ☺ 14:8 not just loyal but people who are, who have passion 14:27 believe in freedom in the sector. ☺ 16:4 from the beginning, in the hiring process we select. ☺ 16:7 Organisational fit is one key aspect ☺ ☺ 16:24 willing to bring in somebody that does not have all the specific requisites, but have passion 27:11, we have people whom we know them even before engaging them. ☺ 28:11 have good people from the beginning</p>

		<p>☺ 30:4 if not ready to volunteer, will not find this place suitable. ☺ 31:21 people who are not comfortable with the job, we do not hire. Coaching, mentoring, grooming for Voluntarism 1:41 helping others to grow through coaching. ☺ 4:28 look after two people four years. ☺ 4:29 mentoring, as a voluntary process. ☺ 5:10 mentor people instead of judging ☺ 7:3 trying to mentor our employees, to learn, to learn from the seniors, ☺ 7:25 A duty of every supervisor to mentor to coach ☺ 10:24 always prepare the people. ☺ 11:7, our organisation is a learning organisation. ☺ 11:31 explain to the young ones.☺ 11:48 a lot of mentorships and study...☺ 11:50 not systematically written, but it is the practice ☺ 12:2 supporting with coaching for OCB ☺ 12:22 conference and meetings. ☺ 12:23 build their capacity through training☺ 13:39 free to request for the intern ☺ HR department grooms. ☺ 19:14 need to keep an eye going frequently ☺ 26:2 mentor them properly, ☺ 33:29 As a mentor also, (I am) a mentee</p>
Promoting OCB through Voluntarism	<p>Focusing on job outcome and doing good for the humanity</p>	<p>31:20 job outcomes instead of activities. ☺ Not mere job description. ☺ Focus on what can be achieved than done. 13:33 leadership style of not micromanaging☺ 23:27 strength to allow them to do without supervision. ☺ 23:28 micromanaging, we find it very difficult. ☺ 23:29 Do not want to micromanage☺; Let the supervisors manage small issues. ☺Not micro managing. The rewarding Experience of Doing Good 4:36 get people to sacrifice ☺ 4:37 help people feel doing good for others ☺ 8:6 they are working for the cause. ☺ 11:11 they like the agenda. ☺ 19: has a positive result for the community. ☺ 20:1 we call humanitarian☺ 20:8 expectations of contributing the community. ☺ 21:1 pure humanitarian service Our mandate ☺ 21:8 Motivation is that sense of helping. alleviating human suffering. ☺ 24:9 saving people is vital. ☺ 25:27 the love in their work, they are making the changes to their society. ☺ 26:3 see the relevance of the work to society☺ 26:4 we are doing something tangible; we are touching the lives ☺ 30:2 not to have material gain; ours is service delivery to the people.</p>
	<p>Intellectual Stimulation, and Inspirational motivation</p>	<p>Creativity and talents 26:28 Acknowledgement of talents☺ Approve creativity. ☺ 31:32 Not telling them what to do. ☺ 32:23 believe that each person has a talent.☺ 4:39 allowing them to be confident, and try things☺ 5:22, As a child learning to walk. ☺ 10:9 every person has some potential in him, ☺ 18:41 Sometimes they could go in their ragged way and reach the goal. ☺ 19:11 allow the talent to come out Promoting creativity and innovation ☺ We are unconventional. ☺ 4:27 uncomfortable but approve.☺ 24:39 our approach of doing things a little bit different. ☺ 4:40 Free flow thinking. ☺ 29:12, we do not put barriers with the individual. ☺ 29:13 We encourage any innovations or initiatives. ☺ 9:13 promote a creative idea, on a platform ☺ 13:11 staff meeting as a platform for creativity ☺ 13:12 the youth tech talk. ☺ 20:34 give space for creativity 13:42 Giving feedback positively☺ 13:43 critical feedback but does not kill the initiative. ☺ 19:13 appreciate the little that has done. Constructive criticism Tolerance for errors and mistakes</p>

			<p>14:12 people make mistakes, but learn from them ⑧ 14:19 look for the result not mistake ⑧ 31:31 do not care whether or not this person will make a mistake ⑧ 32:14 allow failures. ⑧ 32:15 people never learn from success but mistake.</p> <p>Inspirational motivation through empowering subordinates Aspiring to be achievers ⑧ 1:37 all working hard to achieve high. ⑧ 3:18 talking and discussing together ⑧ Raising hope. ⑧ 4:25 staff work when there is hope. ⑧ 4:26 hope of achieving. ⑧ Inspiration from leaders' competency 26:17 Inspiring is being competent with what one is doing. ⑧ 32:22 something which touches the heart and they see the right thing.</p>
Promoting OCBs	Transformational and Transactional leadership factors Aiding OCBs	Contingent and Non Contingent Rewardss	<p>Contingent rewards Bonus and financial recognition Bonus for creativity ⑧ 3:7 we pay some bonuses. ⑧ 6:17 performance management with pay ⑧ 11:30 we will have small allowances, ⑧ 16:19 For some, it is also financial recognition. ⑧ 23:31 grow horizontally by paying out staff ⑧ 23:32 mechanism to reward the low-paid staff. ⑧ 24:52 divided money amongst all staff. ⑧ 27:17 monetary motivation ⑧ 31:24 financial benefit. ⑧</p> <p>Financial motivation for sportsmanship. ⑧ 9:4 reward for good performance 9:64 promoted because they were extra-extraordinary ⑧ 13:51 vote for the best candidate and reward. ⑧ 26:26 award the best performer ⑧ 33:11 we reward their performance.</p> <p>Non-contingent rewards Non-contingent rewards ⑧ 3:27 letter of appreciation. Written congratulations, ⑧ 3:28 we get together. ⑧ 16:54 some cannot go without a monetary reward. ⑧ 17:68 We try to do other non-monetary rewards, ⑧ 18:48 the non-monetary rewards like travel abroad. ⑧ 18:49 personal development opportunity ⑧ 29:14 paid with the project that one is working on 33:16 contingent environment. ⑧ Opportunities for travelling abroad. Positive Appreciation and Utilizing Digital platforms. 1:24 importance of understanding and appreciating. ⑧ 8:4 appreciate the work done, ⑧ 9:4 reward for good performance is Acknowledgement. ⑧ 9:59 we say first on 'Yama' appreciation. ⑧ 12:75 not all about money. 19:12 praise when good works have happened. ⑧ 24:35 they feel appreciated ⑧ when CEO recognised the contribution ⑧ 24:53 personal recognition, to encourage the staff. ⑧ 25:25 write to them congratulating them for a job well done.</p>
		Considering Personal and socio-cultural Factors	<p>Age, work experience and devotees Age and work. ⑧ 24:13 juniors need force for compliance. ⑧ carrot and stick approach ⑧ 30:8 The era of ambitiousness has gone ⑧ 33:8 young people are here for the money. ⑧ Devoutness at work ⑧ 22:10 the devotees who do not need interventions</p> <p>Social and cultural factors Culture of talking and discussing. ⑧ 3:18 talking together, ⑧ 3:19 discussing and the African culture. ⑧ 17:61 We do much talking and brainstorming ⑧ 31:8 culture of persuasion</p>

		Higher organisational benchmark, and Brand Name	<p>Challenging staff to higher standards. 17:18, adding value to the organisation 17:65 from the comfort zone, to higher-level 20:9 removing obstacles for achievements 24:50 challenge staff to things.</p> <p>Band Name is created</p> <p>5:23 staff ensure the highest service. 5:24 alignment of our goals and expectations to develop a name for the organisation 29:4 more prominent voice in the groups. The right name for the organisation. Adding value</p>
Factors that blur the boundaries of leadership styles		Organisational Learning through unity, optimism and willingness to change	<p>13:21 flexibility and organisational change 16:41 change orientation 16:44 accept the new ideas and change quickly to be flexible 27:37 one learns to be flexible 28:27 change to new technology. 31:14 flexibility and change for the better</p> <p>Organisational learning We are learning as part of the job. 8:14 learning as a group. 11:47 a lot of learning and sharing. 15:36 learning from life experience and work. 19:8 competencies are complemented 26:13 knowledge creation, 26:14 o building the uniformity of understanding 26:15 speaking the same language create norms over time. 27:29 Norms that become compulsory over a long time.</p> <p>Unity and optimism. Organisational unity and optimism. 1:39 allow God to act, that will. 6:3 The bar lunch, unity 11:52 the philosophy, conceptual clarity, and becoming grounded 12:8 Understanding the vision of the organisation. 12:37 An IT expert and advocate collaborating effortlessly. We have to work together. 17:27 a sense of calm. A sense of reassurance A sense of optimism 30:13 togetherness as an organisation.</p>
		Work-life Balance and Employee well-being	<p>7:4 social welfare fund, 9:43 lending association 9:44 10:5 incentives and 16:11 health insurance. 18:23 gratuity. 24:17 take care of the employees 24:18 social issues of employees. 32:1 support system</p> <p>6:21 free weekend, 6:22 No WhatsApp group on weekends. 9:15 Family matters. 9:41 making sure the safety and comfort 11:9 sacrificing our social network, even the family. 12:54 managing stress. 14:2 We support family and work. 16:36 separate what is happening at home and what is happening at work, 19:22 building that feeling, that individuals are part of the team 22:21 not be too emotional. 24:41 discourage people from going beyond. 26:39 Keeping confidential matters as confidential.</p>

Topic	Theme	Sub-theme	Codes
Role Modelling for OCBs	Characteristics and conditions for role modelling for OCBs	Authentic model vs perfect model	<p>☺ 18:30 a blind spot on the perfection of role modelling for OCB. ☺ 22:8 Accepting failures. ☺ We own up our limitations. ☺ 28:23 Say sorry, ☺ seek forgiveness always. ☺ Personal integrity. ☺ Being comfortable in one's own skin ☺ Personal values integrity the way we behave ☺ 18:36 integrity resources management. ☺ Integrity's should not be questionable, ☺ 24:6 institutional integrity, ☺ 24:26 Be a person of integrity. ☺ 24:28 No kickbacks from grants ☺ 33:25 committed, loyal, trustworthy.</p>
		Enthusiasm, consistency and routine	<p>☺ 17:2 bring an emotive or an emotional enthusiasm ☺ 17:3 display being excited and try to elicit from them ☺ 17:37 do not do it for extractive reasons, ☺ 17:54 looking at how one conveys the message. ☺ 17:64 Identify continuously. ☺ Firmness and consistency. ☺ 11:26 saying yes, when mean yes. And saying no when means no. ☺ 12:47 the values. What values does one have, what does one want to display routine ☺ 13:37 Doing what the CEO believes. ☺ 33:27 Doing daily and every day the OCBs.</p>
		Idealised influence of the leader	<p>1:21 love, trust, respect. ☺ 1:22 They need a leader who respects them. A leader who trusts them. ☺ 4:3 care and concern influence ☺ 4:4 the leader being approachable ☺ 4:8 back up people when they go through the tough patch. ☺ 6:5 be positive and helpful. ☺ 6:20 love and care. ☺ 15:26, they know that the CEO is there for them. ☺ 16:27 Caring becomes essential; ☺ 21:22 Make them accept the leaders.</p> <p>Competent leadership 26:17 Inspiring through competency. ☺ 32:22 Technical and analytical skill to inspire. ☺ 17:69 Deep thinking ☺ 18:50 Knowing one's strengths.</p> <p>Influencing through role modelling for interpersonal and conceptual 9:61 role modelling commitment and ☺ 10:30 Role modelling for analytical skills ☺ 7:29 solving employee problems and becoming a champion.11:32 Bringing solutions to challenges that they cannot handle. ☺ 14:33 Allowing them to settle things. ☺ 17:47 Never embarrass others in public ☺ 17:56 introspection when challenges come ☺ 20:19 A model for listening to others ☺ 21:35 model for dealing with uncertainties ☺ 24:25 role model for collaborative problem-solving 19:46 Being a friendly person. ☺ 23:13 Personal integrity. ☺ 30:22 approachable. ☺ Communication and information sharing. ☺ 16:52 symbiotic relationship helps ☺ 25:1 sharing information about what is happening.</p> <p>Positive attitude and open door Policy Being positive. ☺ Having an open-door policy ☺ 1:4 open to discuss issues. ☺ 4:31 An open door policy without having appointments. ☺ 9:28 Openness. ☺ 15:29 No calling CEO boss, ☺ 17:5 hearing and learning from peers & employees ☺ 31:2 A positive attitude ☺ 33:26 Inspire by earning their trust.</p>

		Visibility and proximity	4:9 Leader modelling within the environment of the organisation. 6:6 Taking the time and going along. 11:14 lead by doing so; they see the CEO. 11:19 Be part of the event. 11:21 Being a model in the rural area 19:27 Be with the people doing 19:28 Not role modelling in the office, but the field. 19:29 demonstrate what the best practices are supposed to be. 20:26 They can see and look at the role models. 29:8 Doing some aspect that could be seen by others. 29:9
	Effectiveness of role modelling for OCBs	Role modelling as a soft influence	A soft influence. 4:17 soft but practical. 4:18 persistency is the key to become influential 21:21 21:23 applying the softest skills to manage. 25:15 not telling them, please do like the CEO, but they are free to choose or reject. 9:58 The friendly personality-model. 11:15 reduced- power/position model. 8:0 Believe inequality. 15:14 17:38 an outgoing, bubbly, talkative personality 17:41 Being humble, and not faking humility 17:42 Refusing to be called the Boss. 20:29, we remove the boundaries of our positional levels. 24:36 Eating together as friends 24:37 Allowing to be free with the CEO 27:3 Just being like a member of the groups and not as CEO 28:13 the Mama J, carefree nickname.
	Effectiveness of role modelling for OCBs	Influencing by showing a good example and walking -the -talk	1:27 showing a good example of what to do 7:18 tell employees, but also do it 17:49 leadership by example 20:20 Leading by example of commitment. 25:26 CEO not making extra payments for overtime, others follow the example 27:31 tell that "No, one would be leading by example." The followers see the CEO doing and they also do. 27:32 model of doing thing according to organisational policy. 30: Code of conduct- showing them how to live Genuine concern for people and showing them the example 32:21 Leading by example. Leading by doing. 33:1 Good example of punctuality. 33:21 Believing in what one preaches. walking-the-talk 1:26 the principles of walking-the-talk. 1:29 living as an example I cannot really talk and live differently. 3:11 showing subordinates that one walks the talk 3:12 do not say this and do the other way 6:7 influencing by showing them what they can do 10:22 "Vitu anavyo Fanya, so kitu cha vitabu (this man does what he talks)" 11:17 CEO doing what is expected- (sighing the attendance register) 11:18 punctuality and CEO does not keep time 12:41 walk the talk to show them it is possible 12:46 they do see me doing the work myself. 13:52 The example of Good reader- CEO. leaders need to demonstrate the possible 19:25 modelling the organisational values 19:32 phrase - "You talk a talk". 19:33 example of hard work 24:38 inspires others by doing 32:20 People love the Leader who is doing what he is saying. 33:22 The norm - do not talk if you cannot walk.

		Influencing through harnessing organisational and Socio-cultural factors	<p>Effective Role modelling through reduced power distance organisational structure that facilitate reduced power distance. 9:57 Equal in status but different positions. 11:22 CEO sharing in menial jobs. 6:47 Greeting everyone from the guards to the driver. 20:30 Breaking the power barriers by socialising. 8:22 chairing meetings by turn. the concept of walking together.</p> <p>Influence of social and cultural factors</p> <p>Respect for the elders and people in position of authority</p> <p>The inability to say no. 3:44 Conformity to social expectations. Customs and practices that promote respect for people in authority. Social peer pressure</p>
	Social interactions and role modelling	Celebrity status	<p>13:31 Celebrity status as influential. The ripple</p> <p>Leader status and personality. 16:37 Expatriate factor of the CEO. 17:53 leadership as theatre; leader is performing 31:28 the challenge of maintaining the position as a manager and familiarity.</p>
		Sense of Togetherness	<p>Emotional bond, Reciprocal solidarity, and support</p> <p>Emotional bond and social interactions 12:64 The family bond factor 16:38 the foreigner and local leader emotional intelligence, 18:34 Remembering name and face become meaningful 19:35 social interactions and back into our office,</p> <p>Formal and informal social interactions and emotional bond.</p> <p>Informal interactions and role modelling. 4:24 informal chats and exchanges as bonding 9:3 social media use for interactions 11:5 informal teams for socialising 11:6 formal organisational social events 25:19 spending time with each other like home 29:5 informal sharing Mutual care and support. Role modelling for pulling through challenges and assuring calm and confidence.</p> <p>Social intelligence and social net worth</p> <p>Social intelligence skills. 13:47 Knowing the social background of the subordinates 13:48 Sensitivity to customs and traditions. Social Values and outlooks.</p> <p>Subordinates' acceptance or rejection of the role modelling. Social interaction as social net worth</p> <p>Network as net worth. 3:24 Interactions for business 11:28 those who emulate the role modelling quickly and others who pick up slowly. 16:6 building relations over time 18:45 The other as a contributor to your net worth 29:11 neighbourhood networking.</p>
	Challenges, Bottlenecks for role modelling for OCB	Work-life Balance and Bullying	<p>Incompetency and bullying Bullying, instead of being competent. 26:18 incompetent supervision Weak leadership</p> <p>Work-life Balance and Employee well-being</p> <p>7:4 social welfare fund, 9:43 lending association 9:44 10:5 incentives and 16:11 health insurance. 18:23 gratuity. 24:17 take care of the employees 24:18 social issues of employees. 32:1 support system 6:21 free weekend, 6:22 No WhatsApp group on</p>

			<p>weekends. 🗣️ 9:15 Family matters. 🗣️ 9:41 making sure the safety and comfort 🗣️ 11:9 sacrificing our social network, even the family. 🗣️ 12:54 managing stress. 🗣️ 14:2 We support family and work. 🗣️ 16:36 separate what is happening at home and what is happening at work, 🗣️ 19:22 building that feeling, that individuals are part of the team 🗣️ 22:21 not be too emotional. 🗣️ 24:41 discourage people from going beyond. 🗣️ 26:39 Keeping confidential matters as confidential.</p>
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4.3.1 Attitude and Outlook Promoting OCBs

The theme ‘attitude and outlook’ captured how CEOs and senior managers promote OCBs by promoting individual attitudes and outlooks among their staff. These include being empathetic, promoting equality and respect, and promoting transparency within the organisation.

4.3.1.1 Being Empathetic

An attitude of empathy towards subordinate staff by CEOs and senior managers encourages the development of OCBs. Leaders promote empathy by cultivating a spirit of listening to staff, helping to solve their personal problems, and displaying a sense of understanding instead of admonishing when staff make errors. Showing empathy motivates staff to be more committed, and builds trust as staff believe that their CEO/senior managers are there for them in their difficulties and challenges. Senior manager 5 said the below when he talked about his CEO:

“Our leader (CEO) is very empathetic; he would feel the pain and the joy of what you are doing. And when we do, the quarterly plan or whatever, he would come with surprises, just not for ourselves, but also for our families.” (SM 05-14:17)

Listening and showing a sense of understanding when staff make errors is expressive of empathy; it provides staff with a sense of being cared for by their CEO and senior managers. Avoiding admonishing staff also gives them the confidence to take the initiative and to identify with the mission of the organisation, without fearing punitive actions if things go wrong. Listening to their subordinate involves listening *“without being judgmental”* (SM 12-33:18), and *“listening to understand”* (SM07-34:6). The after effect is that employees engage in OCBs as *“doing something extra for the mission”* (EM 12-3:4). CEO 10 mentioned how he developed a close connection with the staff through listening.

“(I) did a lot of listening and asking, for about a year and a half. Call it (as) going through the motions of being the leader by approving things, and I was doing much listening. I took a lot of advice, and I depended a lot on my senior leadership team.”
(CEO 10-17:52)

Many CEOs and senior managers mentioned their approach as *“understanding their staff”* instead of *“admonishing and penalising them for non-compliance”* when handling non-compliance. Voluntary organisational compliance is an OCB. Showing understanding when

staff compromise organisational compliance encourages them to mend their ways and engage in OCBs.

Empathy is an attitude of concern and care for the other, the expression of which conveys the message that CEOs and senior managers care about the well-being of their subordinate staff. Such an attitude translates into enhanced employee commitment, increased organisational trust, and boosts helping behaviour among the staff.

4.3.1.2 Equality and Respect

Promoting equality and respect for all staff, irrespective of employment status and rank, encourages staff to engage in OCBs. Some CEOs and senior managers promote a culture of calling each other brothers and sisters, which facilitates some sort of togetherness with the CEOs and senior managers. CEO 7 said, *“There is something we call ‘dada-kaka’ (sister, brother) culture. We all call (each other) dadas, regardless of age, title. They will all call me dada”*. An employee from the same organisation shared his motivation to follow the CEO’s OCBs, saying: *“I like the way she treats us; we feel she is our elder sister”* (EM 15-12:2).

Promoting equality and respect means *“respecting everyone’s opinion”* (CEO 08-15:3) and *“being fair to all and not favouring anyone because of being junior or senior”* (SM 27-32:1). It means accommodating staff and not showing annoyance at what he/she is saying or doing. Such considerations make the employees view their CEOs or senior managers as role models for being helpful to others. CEO 18 said:

“(What) he’s saying, or she is saying, is nothing. You do not show being annoyed; you respect.” (CEO 18-20:18)

Promoting respect and equality leads to a sense of being valued, useful and acknowledged, which propels subordinate staff to follow the call of duty and engage in OCBs.

4.3.1.3 Transparency

Promoting transparency at the organisational and personal levels aids in promoting OCBs. Transparency achieved through good communication helps subordinate staff to see the bigger picture of the organisational mission.

CEO 5 emphasised the point when he said: *“We keep open communication about everything*

that we do, there is nothing to hide.” Openness and honesty help the staff understand the personal philosophies and values of their leaders, so they see them as a role model for OCBs. When employees perceive that their CEO and senior managers are authentic in their actions, they follow their lead for OCBs. An example of such influence was clear from an employee who said: *“The CEO lets you be whom you want to be. It's more than coaching or guiding you. She influences us more by her leadership style of being authentic”* (EM 04-10:3).

Transparency helps employees to see their roles as contributing to the overall mission of the organisation, motivating them to engage in OCBs. This idea was echoed by senior manager 4, who said: *“We promote that sense of our employees to think big. Doing research is not like a factory where we are producing soap or something. It is quite different. We had to have an idea, then translate it into actions. It's difficult, but it is what we do”* (SM 04-7:23).

Promoting transparency within the organisation provides staff the opportunity to see what the organisation wants to achieve as an entity and enables them to contribute effectively to achieve that goal. Such realisation motivates them to perform tasks that are beyond their job descriptions.

4.3.2 Collective Ownership with Boundaries

Fostering a sense of collective ownership of the organisation, with defined boundaries for individuals to function, promotes OCBs. CEOs and senior managers encourage collective ownership by promoting a sense of common ownership, usefulness and responsibility. The collective ownership of the NFPO is also achieved through promoting organisational democracy, organisational family culture and organisational team culture.

4.3.2.1 A Sense of Collective Ownership, Usefulness and Responsibility

When staff gain a sense of ownership and usefulness within their not-for-profit organisation, they engage more in organisational citizenship. CEOs and senior managers develop this sense of ownership and usefulness through distributing responsibilities, and making all the staff feel useful and at home within the organisation.

Collective ownership of the organisation helps the CEOs and senior managers to promote the *“collective mission”* (SM 06-45:7) and *“shared vision”* (CEO 14) of the organisation, in which *“all have a stake”* (CEO 11-22:58). The sense of having a stake in the organisation encourages employees to engage more in OCBs, and being part of an organisation becomes more important

to employees than monetary benefits. As one employee said, *“even where I worked previously, well, you could be well paid, but you do not feel part of the team and I think that's what makes a bit of a difference. Sometimes people leave a higher paying job to a lower paying job because they want peace of mind; they want to be part of it”* (EM 05-9:14).

Many CEOs and senior managers facilitate an environment where everybody feels useful and at home. Senior manager 4 referred to it as: *“A conducive environment where employees have a sense of ownership”* (SM 04-7:5). The words of CEO 4 demonstrate this point: *“If you have (that) feeling of attachment to what you are supposed to do, then that becomes the motivation to go beyond”* (CEO 4-16:32). The researcher also found in an organisation’s employee handbook writings that promoted a sense of belonging as desirable and rewarding. For instance, a caption in the employee guide read: *“Be part of the (xxx) family, where you are valued, needed and rewarded”* (Evidence 01).

OCBs are about doing more than what one is supposed to do without expecting a reward. In promoting OCBs among their staff, CEOs and senior managers promote first a sense of ownership, usefulness and belongingness to the organisation. Heightened sense of ownership, usefulness, and belonging make the subordinate staff experience they are not only salaried employees, but the organisation belongs to them. That propels them to engage in OCBs.

4.3.2.2 Organisational Democracy

CEOs and senior managers facilitate certain democratic practices in their organisations to further the sense of collective ownership. These practices include collaborative planning and decision-making, collaborative resource mobilisation, freedom of expression, an avenue for expressing grievances, and encouraging diverse opinions.

Opportunities for participatory planning and decision-making make the staff feel that they are *“meaningfully contributing to the organisation”* (SM 01-1:20), and take *“responsibility for what they had planned (for the organisation)”* (CEO 05-9:10). CEO 5 explained how he makes his subordinates engage in participatory planning:

“We first have planning days. So, we all sit together. We plan our year; we set the goal (s) for the year and the respective activities (and) strategies that we will use to achieve the goal. Everybody in the team knows what their role is in achieving the overall goal for the year.” (CEO 05-9:20)

By providing an opportunity to plan together, the CEOs and senior managers take all the staff “on board” to “be part of the programme” (CEO 07; CEO 05). Planning together helps the staff to “own the vision and mission of the organisation” (CEO 11-18:5) and thus contribute more to the organisation, without expecting rewards.

Providing the freedom and opportunity for staff to express their grievances or dissatisfaction with the organisation promotes OCBs. Many facilitate the opportunity to express grievances anonymously through surveys, suggestion boxes, emails and/or hotlines. Providing such opportunities enables staff to be comfortable working in the organisation, which promotes OCBs. Senior manager 16, for instance, commented:

“(We facilitate) that kind of discussion making people speak out, say, what they have in their hearts and therefore they can become comfortable to work with us.” (SM 16-31:4)

Employee 30 described his motivation to follow the CEO as the role model for OCBs:

“I am comfortable at my job. And when I am not, I express it to those concerned. Then there is nothing prevents me from following the good things that we are supposed to learn from each other and promote such activities.” (EM 3-5:2)

Offering such avenues for the staff to express themselves helps the CEOs and senior managers to take measures to remove any unwanted situations or environments that affect the goodwill of the people, which would discourage OCBs. One senior manager said:

“If someone is not happy, you can either report anonymously or, if you are comfortable to talk directly, or can use some emails or discussion where people will not know who reported it. I think it helps us to remove the blocks for OCBs not to flourish.” (SM 10-31:4)

CEOs and senior managers use the democratic principle of allowing differences of opinions and perspectives to solve conflicts among the staff. According to one CEO, this has helped to promote OCBs among his staff, especially people opting to become mentors and coaches for their junior staff: “You have to allow new perspectives from others because no one knows everything. I know some parts of it, but others know the rest. Listen to other’s opinions” (CEO 12-21:25).

Subordinate staff hold the CEOs or senior managers who respect their opinions and perspectives in high esteem. Employee 22 mentioned that, *“I respect her (CEO) for her sense of respect for us, especially when we have a different opinion. We feel valued and listened. Then she is looked upon as a role model”* (EM 22-12:2).

When subordinate staff are involved in organisational planning, they feel valued and empowered, which makes them know they are part of the organisation. The sense of ownership increases when staff have the freedom and flexibility to do things that promote the organisation. When they can express their opinion about something which they are happy or not happy about, it further promotes ownership of the organisation.

4.3.2.3 The Organisational Family Culture

The organisational family culture means viewing the organisation as a family, with the staff as family members, supporting each other in difficulties and celebrating together. A family culture contributes to the collective ownership of the organisation.

Most of the CEOs, senior managers and employees expressed that they consider the organisation as their family. An organisational family culture promotes OCBs, such as helping a co-worker, promoting organisational goals, and being ready to make personal sacrifices. The following comments from senior manager 1 demonstrate this: *“To us, this organisation is a family, and we are all treating each other as family members”* (SM 01-1:11).

According to an employee, the staff are happy to work extra hours because they thought they were doing something extra for their ‘family’. They did not expect additional pay, as they knew there was no money available for overtime pay. Employee 13 noted: *“We feel we are family members, and we know there is no extra money available. But we just do the job”* (EM 13-5:2).

A family culture enables and encourages staff to know each other well, which creates a bond among them and motivates them to help each other without expecting a reward. CEO 8 explained:

“We know each other very well. They (staff) know me, they know my family; they know my children. I know everyone in every family relationship, the spouse and those who are single, those who are married. We know each other, and we call each other sister,

brother, here. We do not have that blood relationship, but the way we take our things, the way we behave here is like a family.” (CEO 08-12:20)

For subordinate staff, the motivation to engage in OCBs is significant when they consider the organisation to be a family. Employee 17, for instance, said: *“It comes from our leaders, the way they did, the way the organisation is like our mother. People want to do more, like adorn her to make her (this organisation) more beautiful”* (EM 17-15:3).

Many CEOs and senior managers said that leading the organisation as a family significantly reduces staff turnover. Many of the interviewees perceived the organisation to be a family, with the organisational head being analogous to the head of the family. Such an attitude helps CEOs to keep their staff when there is a financial crisis or there need to be pay cuts. A senior manager explained that, *“people could have opted to look for other jobs and disappeared, but (they) remained irrespective of the pay cut because they felt they belonged to this family”* (SM 05-14:18).

The effectiveness of an organisation as a family is more significant when the organisational size is smaller. CEO 08 stressed the point when he said, *“I think because we are living as a family, we know each other. We are few. We are like 14 people, so we know each other very well”* (CEO 08-12:19). Employee 26 shared her experience of how her CEO made her feel part of a family when she lost her mother. The CEO and other senior staff, she said, came from the city to her village house, which was over 1,000 kilometres from the headquarters of the organisation. She recalled that the organisation was there with her in her most difficult moments, helping her financially and supporting her emotionally. She said, *“I felt like this organisation is like my father. They were there for me when I needed them most. And therefore, I cannot just leave this organisation”* (EM 26-10:47).

Leading the organisation as a family also makes the CEOs and senior managers accommodate less efficient and functional staff within the organisation. Such accommodating behaviour is analogous to helping a less useful or disabled member of the family, and assisting him/her to contribute what he/she can to the family. CEO 17 expressed it in the following words: *“If one of your family members made a mistake, you just do not throw him/her out of the family. We help them realise their mistakes and make amendments and get on with life. It is the same here”* (CEO 17-28:19).

CEOs and senior managers promote the idea that the NFPO is a family where all the staff are family members. This concept gives the employees the psychological feeling that personal sacrifices, extra work without extra pay, and helping a coworker in need, are all one's duty to the family that he/she is happy to engage with. The organisational family culture brings in certain boundedness among the staff that reduces turnover. When considering an NFPO as a family, supporting each other, celebrating organisational events together, and even accommodating a less efficient staff member, becomes part of the organisation. A problem that a staff encounters becomes a problem that affects all; the success or failure of a staff member or the organisation becomes that of all. CEOs and senior managers promote this organisational family culture, which propels OCBs among the staff.

4.3.2.4 Organisational Team Culture

CEOs and senior managers promote an organisational team culture that helps to develop collective ownership of the organisation. A culture of teamwork and collaboration, creating teams to achieve organisational goals, and defining roles and responsibilities within the teams promotes collective ownership and OCBs. CEOs and senior managers actively promote team spirit through regular meetings, discussions and collaborative planning.

Encouraging teamwork and team spirit promotes OCBs among subordinates, for example, CEO 5 talked about his way of promoting OCBs through teamwork as:

“It’s a culture of teamwork. Teamwork is at the core of our work, and on Monday (s) the whole team members are in the meeting room... and everybody gets to say what they did last week and what they plan to do this week, where we had challenges, and we get to see or to hear possible advice or solutions.” (CEO 05-9:11)

When CEOs and senior managers promote teamwork, the employees develop a *“feeling that the outcome of the organisation is their collective outcome”* (CEO 06-10:11), and are happy to contribute more than their job descriptions. Employee 13 described the CEO as a team leader in the following words: *“He is leading us as the team captain, but when we achieve the outcome, it is ours as a team”* (EM 13-14:9). Teamwork also helps employees to help each other and solve problems for their co-workers. As CEO 8 said, *“(He) makes sure that they (staff) help each other, they build a wonderful team, that means teamwork, and solve their problem(s)”* (CEO 08-12:40).

The experience of one senior manager showed that when every team member is aware of the functions (jobs) that the other team members do, it enables them to help each other and take over the work when a staff member is absent. Senior manager 9 said:

“For us, teamwork is one of the critical areas where we focus all the time. We are trying to ensure (that) we understand each other and engage responsibly with each individual. So that when an individual staff cannot work, we are ready, we are there to support as a team.” (SM 09-19:1)

Promoting teamwork leads to *“motivation and healthy competition among the staff”* (SM 08-22:7). Junior staff engage in OCBs when they see there is good teamwork, with defined roles for them. Employee 18 explained, *“I am a team member, and I need to do my part well and beyond, for others to do their part”* (EM 18-27:3).

As facilitators of OCBs, CEOs and senior managers make their staff feel that they have a significant role to play in the team. For instance, employee 7 shared: *“I feel to give much more to the team because I see the leadership team value my contribution. And I know, my role is important in changing the society”* (EM 07-18:6). In the same way, senior manager 9 said, referring to team facilitation, *“appreciating the person's ability, showing that you have something in my team, that's a precious thing”* (SM 09-26:21).

CEOs and senior managers provide their staff with clarity regarding their roles and tasks within the team to support teamwork and collaboration. Senior manager 6 said, *“everybody should know what they are supposed to do”* (SM 06-19:3). According to this manager, by knowing what they are supposed to do, people can do more, which could be considered an organisational citizenship behaviour. The CEO commented that providing clarity regarding tasks reduces conflicts among the staff which would block engaging in OCBs:

“Ensure that they clearly understand the environment (of the not-for-profit organisation). If they don't, then you are there to support, discuss issues, discuss what is happening, discuss the challenges.” (CEO 05-14:32)

CEOs and senior managers consider the optimal group size and best job fit when forming teams within their organisations, as employees feel at home in an organisation when they are part of a smaller team. Such feeling at home, according to many interviewees, encourages OCBs. This was clear from the words of employee 24 when he said: *“Our team is small here. Therefore, we*

know each other, including the CEO. It is like a second home. Familiar faces, and when someone is not well, we know. When he/she needs some encouragement, we can feel it. And all are happy to help each other” (EM 24-12:9).

There is a sense of accommodating a member within the organisation, even when he/she is not very good at their job. In such a scenario, CEOs or senior managers change the duties of these staff to where they can excel, motivating them to engage in OCBs: *“We give them work to do (in) which they will do best. Most of the time (such) people may not be analytical, but they are very good at something else” (SM 08-22:16).*

Discussion and good communication are an integral part of team building and collaboration. Frequent and open dialogue helps employees to address common issues that affect them and the organisation. Doing so conveys the message that their voice matters in the organisation, thus promoting engagement in OCBs. One senior manager said: *“(We) encourage people to talk (about) issues that affect them” (SM 03-1:6)*, while a CEO said: *“I have been encouraging people to talk. Issues are put on the table and discussed.”*

Organisational goals and programmes, when perceived as group work and undertaken by the staff as a team, compel them to engage in OCBs. Because each employee is eager to contribute willingly and do more than their job description, adding value to the team. Being in a team, one knows what the other team member is supposed to do, so lending a helping hand to one’s co-worker in need becomes easier and quicker. Promoting teamwork and collaboration includes providing clarity of tasks for individual members of the team, having an optimal group size, and finding the best job fit for the team members. Clarity of task within a team reduces the risk of conflicts and unnecessary interference, while optimal size provides an emotional bond and familiarity among the group members. A best job fit ensures that every member can contribute to the team to the best of his/her ability. Ensuring discussions, good communication, and promoting learning at work are the ways in which CEOs and senior managers maintain teamwork and collaboration. Through good communication and discussions, subordinate staff get the opportunity to know, own and support what the team wants to achieve for the organisation. Promoting learning at work is akin to promoting sportsmanship within the team, where inconveniences at work is perceived as an opportunity to engage in OCBs in the form of sportsmanship.

4.3.3 Promoting OCBs through Voluntarism

Most of the CEOs, senior managers and employees interviewed used the word ‘voluntarism’ when talking about OCBs. CEOs and senior managers promote voluntarism through specific human resource management practices such as selective recruitment, coaching, and focusing on job outcomes instead of job descriptions.

4.3.3.1 Selective Recruitment and Coaching for NFPO Values

CEOs and senior managers selectively recruit staff with the right attitudes and dispositions for working in the not-for-profit sector. According to many of the respondents, the interview panels look for qualities of voluntarism, willingness to engage in serving others, and compatibility with the organisation’s values.

The CEOs and senior managers recruit people who are already inclined to their organisation’s values, mission and vision, making it easier for them to promote OCBs by identifying with the mission and supporting organisational goals. As a senior HR Manager commented, “*We seek to recruit someone who has a feeling attached to the work that they're asking to do*” (SM 04-13:6). Other HR managers and CEOs look for people who have the best organisational fit in terms of temperament and attitude. As one said, “*organisational fit is one key aspect in the selection process. And then throughout, we continue, we look for those who value voluntary participation and work*” (CEO 17-28:11).

CEOs and senior managers look for potential candidates with a “*passion for change*” and those who like to work for “*something close to their hearts*” (SM 12-13:6). Employee 29 explained how her leadership team promotes OCBs in the organisation, saying: “*They had taught us how to work but what they were looking for when they hired, was what we were bringing in, more than what they can teach us to do*” (EM 27-12:1).

An HR manager expressed her view that the organisation is ready to go the extra mile, i.e., “*not to so (much) look (at the) academic qualifications*” of the applicant, but their “*potential*”, i.e., their potential for voluntarism (SM 06-14:14). The selection criteria for those organisations are visible “*passion and drive*” (CEO 11-58:3) for the sector.

Many NFPOs incorporate voluntarism as one of their core organisational values, therefore promoting voluntarism, for some CEOs and senior managers, is part of developing their corporate values:

“... our organisation’s values and vision, one of which is volunteerism. Volunteerism doesn’t mean that you’ll work for free, but that I have to volunteer to work extra to make sure that I achieve this. That is an internal force from within that motivates you to complete the task. That is the spirit of voluntarism that we promote.” (SM 09-26:31)

CEO 17 had a similar view on promoting voluntarism:

“We have embedded this idea (the idea of voluntarism) to them (the staff), to volunteer and then work together and find resources.” (CEO 17-28:2)

After recruiting, CEOs and senior managers provide coaching, mentoring and grooming for not-for-profit values. CEO 12 called it making all staff *“understand what our goals are and making that goal his/her goal”*. Employees feel that they have a change of mindset through these practices, especially those employees who came to the not-for-profit sector from the for-profit sector. Employee 22 expressed, for instance:

“I came from a for-profit sector, where I was a production manager. I felt different here, in the beginning. But now, I am fully in, thanks to our management team. They supported me, mentoring and giving me the right attitude and disposition for the job.” (EM 22-1:3)

The CEOs and senior managers groom their staff’s mindset, fine-tuning them to the corporate values and outlook, which includes voluntarism. CEO 7 said regarding this approach:

“If it is a value in your heart, then it is like a belief. Then when you go out there and see discrimination, you cannot keep quiet. You will want to help. We do in this organisation. And we invite you for a transformation of mind.” (CEO 07-11:53)

CEOs and senior managers end the contracts of staff who develop non-compatible attitudes or personalities with the not-for-profit organisational environment. If a staff member cannot adjust to a situation that calls for certain personal sacrifices, the management often advises them to quit their job. One CEO shared his experience of terminating an employee’s contract because he had an attitude that prevented even his peers from engaging in activities that promoted OCBs:

“We try to help the person move out or advise him or her (to quit); probably this is not the right place for him/her. And we have seen people exiting in that way.” (CEO 12-21:16)

Organisational citizenship behaviour is doing something extra for the good of the organisation or for the co-worker without expecting a reward in return. For many CEOs and senior managers in NFPOs, OCBs are comparable to voluntarism, so they encourage a sense of being a volunteer within the organisation who is passionate about the mission and vision of the organisation. CEOs and senior managers use the HRM practice of selective recruitment to leverage their efforts to promote OCBs among their subordinates; they look for people who have a natural inclination for the not-for-profit sector and its values when recruiting new staff. To a certain extent, they are looking for people who already possess certain OCBs or are oriented towards them. It also means that the CEOs and senior managers prefer to nurture and promote those OCB orientations, rather than developing them from nothing.

Selective recruiting is followed by mentoring, coaching and grooming for OCBs through promoting NFPO values. CEOs and senior managers coach and mentor their subordinate staff to align their individual values and goals with those of the organisation. When subordinates do not have conflicting goals and have a positive attitude towards the organisation, they engage readily in OCBs, however when there are staff with conflicting personalities/attitudes that are not aligned to organisational goals, the CEOs and senior managers are quick to remove such staff from the organisation.

4.3.3.2 Focusing on Job Outcomes: Doing Good for Humanity

Moving away from the traditional HR practice of giving staff job descriptions, CEOs and senior managers focus instead on job outcomes of doing something good for humanity. This shift encourages staff to engage more in OCBs through voluntarism:

“We came out with job outcomes instead of activities. Therefore, all our job descriptions focus on the outcome. We do not want to tell them how to do it, but want the outcome, as long as they follow the right channels. They want the results. Other things like pay and overtime, are becoming secondary.” (SM 10-31:20)

Along with focusing on job outcomes, CEOs and senior managers move away from micro-managing subordinate staff; they give their staff the freedom to decide on matters within their

administrative capacity. Such initiative promotes voluntarism and indirectly OCBs. One senior manager described her CEO's leadership style as such:

"I have been very influenced by her leadership style. To be honest, I mean the way she does not micromanage. She allows you to be what you want to achieve. The focus is on outcomes and not the ways of doing." (SM 04-30:20)

Employees feel a sense of independence and loyalty to their leader when they are not micromanaged, because they equate not micromanaging with leadership and trusting their leaders' ability to do things with minimal supervision. Such an attitude promotes OCBs:

"The good thing about the management style of our CEO is that he is very open. Not interested in those minor details. He trusts we can do and we will do. I think that promotes many to be extra hardworking." (EM 08-15:5)

Another salient feature of voluntarism is the satisfaction of doing something good for humanity. CEOs and senior managers encourage such a notion to promote voluntarism and OCBs. Many employees expressed that the feelings of happiness from their work, especially helping the beneficiaries, motivate them to accept personal sacrifices and inconveniences at the workplace. As employee 18 said:

"We see how our work affects the beneficiaries. We see their rights are protected. It is not like other jobs; they look at you for help. The feeling of humanity makes most of us go out of our way with personal sacrifices and inconveniences." (EM 18-20:24)

CEOs and senior managers found that their subordinates will work overtime and engage in extra activities when they feel that the additional work is directly aiding their beneficiaries. Many encourage and promote such a sense of doing something right for humanity:

"I think the love in their work, understanding (that) they are changing their society, makes them work more. Like people in the legal aid team, making sure our clients win the case at any cost, they have to work extra. They do it very well. Therefore, if we win the case, maybe a client's land was taken, for instance. That land can be given back to them. So, we bring changes to that person's life. I think that encourages them to be committed to the organisational goals." (CEO 15-25:27)

An innovative way in which CEOs and senior managers promote OCBs among subordinate

staff is to focus on job outcomes rather than job descriptions. In doing so, they show to their subordinates that what they look for from them is the outcomes of their jobs/tasks, and not meticulous adherence to their job descriptions. Doing so gives staff the freedom to amend the way they work in the organisation, and they are encouraged by the fact that they are not micromanaged by their CEOs and senior managers. Such a shift of approach from CEOs and senior managers encourages the OCBs of the subordinate staff by incorporating voluntarism into their daily routines. By encouraging staff to engage in actions to do something good for humanity, CEOs and senior managers facilitate the intrinsic reward of feeling good or having the satisfaction of doing something good for others.

4.3.4 Transformational and Transactional Leadership Factors Aiding OCBs

CEOs and senior managers take advantage of both transformational and transactional leadership factors to promote OCBs among their subordinate staff. Transformational leadership factors that contribute to promoting OCBs include intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation, while transactional factors that contribute to promoting organisational citizenship behaviours include the use of contingent and non-contingent rewards.

4.3.4.1 Intellectual Stimulation and Inspirational Motivation

CEOs and senior managers provide intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation to promote OCBs. The way in which CEOs and senior managers promote intellectual stimulation includes encouraging creativity, the use of unconventional managerial approaches, constructive criticism, empowering subordinate staff, and showing tolerance for errors. CEOs and senior managers provide inspirational motivation through encouraging their subordinate staff to be achievers both professionally and personally.

CEOs and senior managers recognise the talents of individual employees in their efforts to promote OCBs. As one senior manager said, *“if there is a room for acknowledgement, we must acknowledge the innovation and creativity of the staff, that promotes OCBs”* (SM 09-26:28). Another senior manager said, *“I believe that all are talented, can do something. Only thing we need to give them freedom to exercise what they have”* (SM 11-32:33).

For some CEOs, being unconventional in their approach to problem-solving, performance management, or any other related issues in their organisation, is a way of providing intellectual stimulation. One CEO shared his experience of trying an unconventional way of conducting a

performance appraisal for a team in his organisation.

He explained that he introduced a new way of allowing line managers to appraise the senior managers, which was very unusual in his organisation, i.e., for a lower-level employee to evaluate a higher level manager. However, he said it resulted in developing greater team confidence within the entire staff, as everyone felt they were valued and they had a say in the organisation:

“It was very uncomfortable for senior managers to be appraised by those line managers. I tell you what it caused; it created much confidence within the team. So, this is a new way of doing performance management. It's not the conventional way, but now we have adopted it, and we're using it, and we feel we're comfortable.” (CEO 03-4:27)

Similarly, CEO 14 said, *“My approach has always been let's do things different and see what would be the result”* (CEO 14-24:39). A subordinate of CEO 14 said:

“We can be different in our approach to problems. I need to get to the point. Our CEO is a good example. He is not afraid to try new things. That encourages us to do many things beyond our job descriptions.” (EM 14-10:24)

Provide constructive criticism and genuine feedback to the staff on their performance and initiatives is another way CEOs and senior managers provided intellectual stimulation. A senior manager shared her view, saying: *“We have that system of giving (staff) feedback ... very critical feedback but in the sense that does not kill their creativity”* (SM 04-53:58). According to CEO 3, a *“free flow (of) thinking with the rest of the team”* (CEO 03-4:40) creates significant OCBs, such as creativity, initiative and innovation. Subordinate staff believe that when a *“work plan is developed in consultation with all the employees”* (EM 05-2:9), rather than *“forced upon them”* (EM 05-2:11), they are more willing to innovate and be creative problem solvers.

CEOs and senior managers showing a high level of tolerance for the errors of subordinate staff provides intellectual stimulation. Subordinates are encouraged to *“feel confident and allowed to try things and fail”* (CEO 03-4:39). Senior manager 6 said: *“We allow mistakes”*, which makes staff *“creative”* (SM 06-19:11). Others noted they should not overprotect their staff, but allow them to make mistakes and learn from those. Such an attitude of developing creativity is a way for CEOs and senior managers to promote and encourage OCBs.

“I understand every person has some potential in him, and therefore what is needed is nurturing and developing, and allowing it to happen. We give space to make mistakes. I am a parent. Sometimes, we overprotect our children. We do not want them to make a mistake. You just protect them. No, same to my staff. I leave them to do so that they make mistakes, then I can correct them.” (CEO 06-10:9-26)

For many CEOs and senior managers, providing inspirational motivation means inspiring their subordinates by encouraging them to become achievers, which promotes engaging in OCBs:

“We are all working hard to make sure that we achieve high. I keep encouraging; keeping the team inspired by the sense that staff do what they have to do and more. They do heartedly without being pushed.” (SM 01-1:37).

Similarly, CEO 10 said:

“Keep on talking together, about the issues, about the vision and mission of the organisation. How we are going to do it, to become achievers and not losers, is the way we provide the motivation to our staff.” (CEO 10-9:51)

CEOs and senior managers encourage their staff to become achievers, despite inconveniences, to promote OCBs. Many subordinates noted that when they see their CEOs and senior managers as achievers in their fields, it inspires them as well:

“I think we have seen them (CEO and senior managers), how they have achieved the present status in the field. They are respected. They have achieved something tangible through hard work and struggles. He inspires us to be achievers ourselves. And many of us would do many things beyond the normal to follow the lead.” (EM 11-22:45)

The personal competencies and achievements of CEOs and senior managers provide motivation and inspiration. When speaking about to what extent a senior manager or CEO can inspire OCBs through role modelling, senior manager 11 said:

“If you are doing something which is touching their hearts and they see the good thing you do voluntarily, (then) they are inspired. So are many citizenship behaviours we talk about.” (SM 11-32:22)

Another CEO inspired her staff through her participation in a TEDx talk abroad. Because the CEO was like a minor celebrity because of her successful involvement in the talk, many of the staff engaged voluntarily in self-development programmes and training to improve their professional and social skills, drawing inspiration from her:

“We are attracting much inspiration from our executive director. I mean, you can, if you want to be a public speaker, you can see how she had gone for a TEDx talk in Houston.” (SM 04-14:54)

Providing intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation goes hand-in-hand with empowering subordinate staff in order to promote OCBs.

CEO 12 said that the key to promoting OCBs among subordinates is to empower them:

“My experience is if you want to see or feel the full potential of a human being, then give the opportunity or empower that person. It also includes even what you call the OCBs. Empower them then they will engage in those behaviours.” (CEO 12-21:31)

Intellectual stimulation is inspiring followers to be creative and proactive. CEOs and senior managers provide opportunities for subordinate staff to realise their talents and creativity; they go beyond the organisational status quo, being unconventional themselves, and allow the subordinates to be unconventional. When the organisation values the talent and creativity, staff will go the extra mile and accommodate the inconveniences that arise as they pursue their creativity and talents. Likewise, when CEOs and senior managers tolerate the errors of the subordinate staff, they engage in OCBs. Subordinates venture into innovation when they do not fear punitive consequences if things go wrong.

CEOs and senior managers (as leaders) provide inspirational motivation to their subordinates (followers) to engage in OCBs by encouraging them to be achievers both in their personal lives and professionally. When subordinate staff are inspired to be successful, they readily engage in OCBs. Career successes of CEOs and senior managers function as examples that can be followed, however leaders not only motivate their subordinate staff to be achievers, but also empower them to become successful.

4.3.4.2 Contingent and Non-Contingent Rewards

Transactional factors that influence OCBs include contingent and non-contingent rewards.

Contingent rewards include bonuses, financial recognition, and expectations and/or the existence of career development opportunities, while non-contingent rewards include positive appreciation and recognition.

CEOs and senior managers utilise contingent rewards to encourage the OCBs of their subordinate staff. A CEO shared his experience of paying a bonus to employees who show creativity in the workplace:

“(To) be creative; we pay some bonuses. So in that way, everyone tries to do something creative.” (CEO 02-51:54)

A similar view from one of the subordinate employees regarding his motivation for commitment was, *“Sure, we cannot deny the monetary factor. Commitment sometimes is equated to your package”* (EM 01-5:12).

The CEOs and senior managers agree that providing financial recognition or help motivates some of their subordinates to display OCBs. Organisational practices of *“additional cash payments for high performers”* (SM 03-6:17), *“providing extra allowances”* (CEO 07-11:30), and *“providing gift vouchers”* (SM 09-16:19) have shown to trigger OCBs among staff:

“OCBs are to be voluntary, and without an expectation for rewards. But while many are so, there could also be monetary and non-monetary recognition motivating some to display similar behaviours.” (CEO-16: 27:17)

CEOs provide a higher percentage of bonuses to staff who have smaller salaries. Such preferential treatment encourages many to be motivated to engage in OCBs:

“We have some financial recognition (for) hard work throughout the year. However, we try to be more fair. We use that mechanism to reward the low-paid staff. Give them (lower salaried staff) a higher percentage on the bonus and give a lower rate for those who have a higher salary.” (CEO 01-23:32)

An employee who went for a training session shared this argument when he said:

“Taking part in some activities and some networks, it motivates and rewards staff. I was in Dodoma attending that. I got some allowances. Travelling itself is good.” (EM 08-13:5)

Rewards and promotions for performance are contingent rewards that motivate many employees to engage in OCBs. Some senior managers said that “*expectations for future promotions*” (SM 04-7:13), and “*the prospect of best performance award*” (SM 09-26:26) are transactional factors that motivate OCBs.

Opportunities for travel and exposure to professional development motivate many employees to opt for training and development programmes voluntarily. Some senior managers believe such chances are transactional factors that trigger OCBs:

“My employer will reward me with some trips, outside the country or within the country. We also get trained.” (SM 04-7:15)

CEO 11 expressed a similar view:

“(The staff) expect that non-monetary rewards like, for instance, travel abroad. Some people have never been abroad. Some people do like to see the world out there a little more.” (CEO 11-18:48)

Specific welfare packages provided by the organisation promote OCBs, such as employee health insurance coverage, incentives for self-training, gratuity payments, and/or gifts for employees when there is a special event taking place at his/her home. Senior manager 14 said the following in this context: “*There are opportunities for training provided by the employer. These are some examples, which make the employees loyal to the institutions*” (SM 14-7:10).

Non-contingent awards include “*a letter of appreciation*” (CEO 02-3:27) or “*a memento that is passed around every year*” to the staff who have shown extraordinary efforts in promoting the organisational goals (CEO 02-3:28). The experience of CEO 6 is that it is not always an economic factor that motivates employees; non-contingent rewards such as knowing that the organisation is investing in them boosts engagement in OCBs, said CEO 6:

“Everybody has something that drives them, whether it's recognition for their work, whether it's learning and knowing that the organisation is investing in them, knowing that you trust them. These things drive them for OCBs.” (CEO 09-16:54)

Celebrating the birthdays of staff together, or taking a day off with your team, are examples of non-monetary rewards that the staff appreciates. Many CEOs, senior managers and subordinates commented that such activities motivate employees to engage in OCBs:

“We try to do other non-monetary rewards, something like, we celebrate everybody's birthday with a cake. There are family days for us. We have away days for the team to do some team building. These activities encourage the staff to engage in OCBs. And we promote them.” (CEO 14-17:68)

Many subordinates noted that having such activities at the expense of the organisation gives them the motivation to work harder and develop a positive attitude towards the organisation.

“There are often common programmes, short facilitations on a birthday, or when someone is married, or has a baby. The organisation takes expenses. That gives me a positive opinion about the organisation and its leadership, and I am happy to give my best in return.” (EM 09-9:12)

Contingent factors that contribute to promoting OCBs include financial benefits. Although OCBs are unrelated to an expected reward, the experience of CEOs, senior managers and employees of the NFPOs suggests that financial benefits/contingent rewards influence the intention of employees to engage in OCBs. Staff do not receive financial benefit per se for their OCBs, yet the expectation that such behaviours will yield some sort of financial benefit later keeps them motivated. Non-contingent rewards, such as positive appreciation, recognition, and even the possibility of getting a better year-end appraisal for employee performance, influence the intention of engaging in OCBs. CEOs and senior managers use these non-contingent rewards effectively. The use of both transformational and transactional leadership factors shows that CEOs and senior managers will blur the boundaries of the leadership styles to promote OCBs.

4.3.4.3 Considering Personal and Socio-cultural Factors

CEOs and senior managers consider the personal and social factors of their subordinate staff when promoting OCBs. The consideration of such factors spans across leadership styles, and could include the use of positive appreciation of the subordinate staff personally and through social media platforms, making use of the African social preference, social affinity and collectivism, and facilitating intrinsic rewards.

Transactional factors motivate those staff who are younger with less work experience more; older staff with more work experience often engage in OCBs for intrinsic reasons. However,

the consideration of contingent rewards according to age, work experience and devotedness to work is not limited to any one particular leadership style.

CEO 10 mentioned that:

“To the junior (staff), sometimes you need (to use) the so-called carrot and stick approach for compliance. Say, okay, the incentives that we give are here, and this is your job description. Make sure you've done this.” (CEO 10-24:13)

Another senior manager shared a similar experience when he said that what motivates young people is their need for money, whereas the older staff become loyal and committed to the organisation over time, without expecting a reward or recognition for their loyalty.

“I think most of the young people are here for the money. However, the older ones, which is a quarter of our staff, they are loyal. I can see that they are loyal, they do it for passion, for the love of nature, and they love the organisation.” (SM 12-33:8)

One subordinate interviewed said:

“The ability to do more than the job descriptions and other extra voluntary works sometimes have limitations. The position that you hold, the confidence level and the work experience all matter.” (EM 25-12:2)

CEOs and senior managers think that there are employees who are devotees at work, i.e., they will engage in OCBs irrespective of the environmental conditions or influence of the CEOs and senior managers:

“They are those people almost (I) call them devotees. Those (who) always go out of their way. They will always ask you what is it all about, and will always remember and do it.” (SM 11-22:10)

Others believe that the act of persuasion is essential in promoting OCBs; many mentioned that Tanzanians like supervision and guidance more than other cultures:

“We keep on talking together about the issues, vision and mission of the organisations. Of course, with the mission, how we are going to do it, how we do it, and we keep on telling to each other. Then the staff will own up the issues and do more than expected.” (CEO 02-3:18)

Another CEO affirmed the same, saying: *“We do much talking. We do a lot of talking and brainstorming”* (CEO 10-12:22). According to CEO 22, the act of talking to each other is significant; he claimed it is because culturally, people of Africa love to talk and discuss:

“Yes, Africans definitely. They talk. As you can remember, in those good old days, there was no reading and writing, but they were passing the mission and vision to the people just by talking. Sitting down, we talk, we discuss, and we come up with a solution. You listen to him or her. That will motivate him/her to give her best more to the organisation.” (CEO 22-3:19)

The positive appreciation for subordinates regarding what they do in the organisation increases OCBs, especially sportsmanship (in the sense of accepting inconveniences at the work place) Many CEOs and senior managers said that when they appreciate their colleagues, they engage more in the organisational citizenship behaviour of sportsmanship. The following remarks from the CEOs, give evidence for this claim:

“Once the work is done, we appreciate the work done, that itself motivates the staff to continue performing again with extra efforts.” (CEO 23-8:4)

“Just acknowledge (outstanding performance) by making praise on Yama (a digital platform the organisation uses to communicate) where you praise someone for doing something good, something extraordinary.” (CEO 05-9:59)

CEOs and senior managers in NFPOs utilise modern digital platforms, such as social media networks and other online platforms, to promote OCBs. Using social media networks such as WhatsApp and Facebook to promote OCBs is powerful. Sharing knowledge, expertise and opinions among colleagues using these platforms also promotes OCBs.

CEO 4, for instance, shared this regarding WhatsApp:

“We have a group for all staff; we have a group for management, we have a group for each department, then you will also find some other groups. So, something can be discussed and decided over the WhatsApp group. That helps us to encourage doing many things outside our job descriptions voluntarily.” (CEO 4-9:3)

Such digital opportunities help staff to voluntarily engage with their organisational responsibilities, even when they are not physically in the office. As one senior manager pointed out:

“We also have a WhatsApp group, which is very effective, where people can engage even if it’s not a working day. When we are on holidays, people can still engage.” (SM 10-31:21)

Others use social media for information sharing. By receiving information through informal channels, the staff feel valued and a sense of belonging which triggers OCBs. Respondent SM 04 observed:

“We have social groups; then WhatsApp groups. We share information, and they feel valued and get a sense of ownership and belonging.” (SM 04-13:3)

CEOs and senior managers make use of African socio-cultural factors such as inclination to community solidarity and collectivism to promote OCBs. Both transformational and transactional leaders use the power of positive appreciation to encourage OCBs. For transformational leaders, positive appreciation is a tool to provide inspirational motivation, while for transactional leaders, using positive appreciation motivates staff when the use of rewards on their own have failed to motivate them. CEOs and senior managers, regardless of their leadership orientations, use social media networks and digital platforms to promote organisational citizenship behaviours by appreciating staff on these platforms. CEOs and senior managers use social media and digital platforms to appreciate the subordinate staff, foster unity, and develop connections (social and personal).

4.3.5 Group Outcomes of Promoting OCBs

The group outcomes of promoting OCBs include challenging staff to achieve new benchmarks, developing a brand name for the organisation, facilitating organisational learning through unity, optimism, and willingness to change.

4.3.5.1 Higher Organisational Benchmarks and Brand Name

A group outcome of promoting OCBs is that staff feel optimistic about being challenged to achieve higher milestones for the organisation. They provide extra effort without complaining when there are hurdles to leap to achieve the new benchmarks:

“I challenge them to new things, and that motivates them. They are happy to achieve those benchmarks. If not for their spirit of voluntarism, it would have been tough.” (CEO 14-24:50)

When there is a higher level of OCBs among the staff, it is easier for the CEOs and senior managers to lead their teams to higher levels of achievement. As one CEO said:

“I need to lead them (staff) from where they are perfect, from their comfort zone, into hardships and growth. I found it easier when they are more organisation-oriented.” (CEO 10-28:15)

The employees were of the opinion that most of the staff will stretch themselves for results when OCBs are high among them. Employee 20 said: *“Sometimes we have to stretch more than what we are supposed to do. But we do it happily because we want to achieve it as a group”* (EM 20-16:7).

Setting and achieving higher benchmarks helps to build a brand name for a not-for-profit organisation. OCBs help to align the personal values of the staff to those of the organisation, and they also become ambassadors for the organisations voluntarily. Many CEOs and senior managers do not directly promote OCBs to develop a brand name, but they encourage activities or provide a conducive environment for such. Senior manager 12 said:

“What we do is, we ensure that every staff gets everything that they need to ensure that they promote the positive image of the organisation.” (SM 12-5:13)

One CEO felt that having the *“staff aligned to organisational goals”* provides the administration with added protection against fraud (CEO 18-29:4). According to him, having an excellent reputation for transparency is equivalent to building a brand name. The same CEO said that when staff is loyal, they protect the good name of the organisation. Similarly, CEO 11 clarified:

“They (staff) are more aligned to organisational goals because of the OCBs. Then they will be the ones protecting our good name on the ground.” (CEO 11-29:4)

OCBs provide greater confidence to set higher organisational benchmarks for performance. What is planned to achieve as a group becomes the responsibility of everyone, towards which everyone contributes. This is a group outcome of OCBs because what a subordinate staff member individually might be afraid to set as a benchmark may be possible for a group

collectively. OCBs give the staff some sort of assurance of cooperation and collective performance. A result of such a higher benchmark of performance is the development of a brand name for the NFPO. A brand name is created as the organisation develops a stronger collective voice for its mission and vision, resulting from higher organisational performance, financial transparency and social impact.

4.3.5.2 Organisational Learning, Unity, Optimism and Willingness to Change

Promoting OCBs results in organisational learning as a group outcome. When employees take initiative for personal development and learning, there is institutional learning as a group. Such learning takes place and encourages organisational unity, optimism and willingness to change.

For CEO 2, the group outcome of promoting OCBs is organisational learning. He noted that, *“through that (OCB), there’s also a lot of organisational learning and sharing”* (CEO 2-11:47). For CEO 6, promoting OCBs is an opportunity to *“learn from each other”* (CEO 6-16:17), which contributes to *“collective learning as an organisation”* (CEO 18-16:17). Senior manager 9 saw the group outcome as an opportunity for *“knowledge creation, and common understanding”* (SM 09-26:13). For senior manager 19, the group outcome is the *“building of uniformity of understanding within the organisation, (so that they) can (all) speak the same language”* (SM 19-26:15).

Another group outcome is organisational unity and optimism among staff, which promotes organisational learning. For some CEOs and senior managers, unity is the clear result of promoting OCBs. For instance, one senior manager said, *“We see this strategy, this culture (promoting OCBs) is giving us results. We have remained united, and optimistic”* (SM 11-1:19).

When the OCBs of employees are high, it enhances group flexibility and adaptability, facilitating organisational change. An example of such flexibility is the readiness of staff to take over the workload of a colleague who is absent. A CEO said:

“The staff are happy to take over the extra workload, for his fellow staff, because maybe he/she is going for an evening class.” (CEO 18-30:17)

Sportsmanship encourages staff to accommodate inconveniences at the workplace, for example, organisational change introduces certain inconveniences at work because the systems and procedures that one is used to are changed. These changes call for new learning and getting

used to new systems and procedures, and could lead to staff resisting the organisational change. However, when group OCBs are high, such resistance reduces. Accepting organisational change as a group becomes easier because members will accept the inconveniences that might result from the change; they will learn new things and engage in self-development programmes to become more effective in the changed system. Such willingness to learn and change results from the overall unity and optimism that the employees have as a group.

4.3.6 Characteristics and Conditions: Role Modelling for OCBs

CEOs and senior managers become effective role models for OCBs when they fulfill certain characteristics and conditions that subordinate staff look for in a role model. These characteristics and conditions include authenticity vs. perfection, display of enthusiasm, consistency and routine, idealised influence of the leader, visibility and proximity.

4.3.6.1 Authentic Model vs. Perfect Model

When CEOs and senior managers admit their limitations, subordinates accept them as transparent models, which aids in role modelling for OCBs. CEO 11 called it “*accepting the blind spots*”, which helped him to understand himself better and how other people saw him (CEO 11-18:13). Subordinate staff perceive such an acceptance of limitations as strength of character, which makes the CEOs or senior managers role models for OCBs:

“He will ask for pardon if he made a mistake. It is difficult in Africa for a big boss to say sorry. However, here we see it as the strength of his character. That helps us to know who he is and follow his lead for everything.” (EM 14-20:35).

Similarly, CEO 17 said:

“If something goes bad (and) I am the one who caused (it), I am quick to say sorry, and seek forgiveness always. That helped my colleagues and young people to learn my calibre.” (CEO 17-28:23)

Many CEOs and senior managers claimed that they provide a good example for their subordinates, however they never presume that their modelling is perfect. They mentioned that their role modeling for OCBs has its limitations:

“Accepting mistakes and failures, allowing the staff to distinguish between an honest

human mistake and outright hypocrisy.” (CEO 19-18:39)

The subordinate staff look for authenticity in their leaders before following their role modelling for OCBs. Employee 4 described it thus:

“What I value most in my CEOs and senior managers is the authenticity of their words and actions. Only then they become a role model for me.” (EM 04-18:44)

Employee 6 said the following about the effect of lack of authenticity in leaders:

“When the leader is economical with the truth, the organisation becomes economical with the truths too. That means the entire team becomes economical with the truth.” (EM 06-31:3)

What makes CEOs and senior managers effective role models for OCBs is their authenticity. Subordinate staff are not looking for a perfect role model for OCBs, but are rather interested in, and influenced by, a genuine role model who accepts his/her limitations, failures and shortcomings. When staff find that their CEOs and senior managers are authentic in providing examples of OCBs, they emulate those, even though the set example is not a perfect one.

4.3.6.2 Enthusiasm, Consistency and Routine

Showing enthusiasm at work aids significantly in role modelling for OCBs. The enthusiasm and confidence showed by CEOs or senior managers, especially in times of organisational crisis, make their actions, including OCBs, attractive to their subordinates. CEO 2 said:

“I try to display my enthusiasm for what we are doing. The mission that we are trying to drive forward, the way we are doing. I am excited; I am not putting this on. The work we do is exciting for me.” (CEO 2-1h 9:44)

The experience of employee 15 was similar:

“We see the energy she displays at work. We cannot but be affected by the same. So, we follow her example. Especially the way she avoids all the negativity and being positive always. That is true for OCBs as well.” (EM 15-26:45)

Some employees expressed the view that seeing their leader as being consistent and confident is inspiring; many said that seeing their confidence gave them the assurance that things can be

done or achieved, despite difficulties and inconveniences, which is a motivating factor for subordinate staff to engage in the OCB of sportsmanship:

“I see him (CEO) daily confident, and consistent even when things are not working for us. It brings us hope that what we are doing will bear fruit and for that, we have to do more than what is minimum, which can be called some sort of OCBs.” (EM 15-23:4)

A display of consistency and regularity in words, actions and attitudes is beneficial in becoming a role model for OCBs. CEO 7 said: *“When I say yes, I mean yes. When I say no, I mean no”* (CEO 07-11:26). Similarly, CEO 8 said; *“I am friendly with them. We can chat, and we can joke. However, for business, I need the delivery. I need to see the outputs. I need results”* (CEO 08-12:26).

Most of the subordinate staff mentioned being *“friendly but firm”* as a quality of role models:

“A role model is someone friendly but firm in his convictions, with consistency and regularity. We see that in our CEO. He is like our friend, but he knows what he wants to achieve as a team. So, we are happy to follow him.” (EM 10-9:20)

Subordinate staff are inspired to emulate the OCBs of their CEOs and senior managers who engage in OCBs with enthusiasm and consistency regularly. Random displays of OCBs by CEOs and senior managers do not motivate staff to enact similar behaviours.

4.3.6.3 Idealised Influence of the Leader

The idealised influence of a leader, which is derived from a display of love, trust and respect, promotes role modelling for OCBs:

“Love, trust and respect that influence them to follow you as a model.” (SM 01-1:21)

“We need to see the leader respects us. We need to know if we can trust, before we take him as a role model.” (EM 01-3:22)

Personal integrity, and at times the religious beliefs of leaders, increases their idealised influence on subordinate staff. Employees look for integrity of character in their CEOs and senior managers before accepting them as role models for OCBs. Seeing CEOs and senior managers engaging in organisational best practices reinforces that notion of integrity:

“You cannot be a role model if you are not real; if your integrity is questionable. So, combine your technical, your intellectual (qualities) and your integrity. So (that) young people would see you and want to be like you.” (CEO 02-23:5)

Similarly, another employee said the following about his CEOs and senior managers:

“We can see in our CEO, the personal integrity, he guards it precious, there is no fraud, there are no kickbacks, or any such things with grants. For us, it becomes a model to follow. Then we are convinced that what he shows us to do is real.” (EM 19-30:11)

The religious beliefs and practices of CEOs and senior managers leverage their idealised influence. Speaking about their CEO, an employee commented that:

“Seeing him (CEO) a God-fearing man, and he placed God first, is a motivation to follow his example.” (EM 17-31:4)

CEOs’ and senior managers’ competency in leadership, technical or analytical skills increases their idealised influence on their subordinates, who then accept them as role models for OCBs. Some CEOs consider having technical and analytical skills to be a competency factor for role modelling for OCBs:

“Even though not a technical (person), I can conceptualise solutions for women’s challenges. That has helped me to be a role model for my colleagues. They believe in me first, and only then they follow my lead on OCBs.” (CEO 20-11:62)

Many interviewees believed that CEOs and senior managers have skills that are helpful to solve problems, or are reliable, which prompts a certain admiration for them. Such appreciation creates idealised influence and facilitates emulating their role modelling for OCBs:

“Our leadership team is very resourceful and skilled. They earned respect and admiration from all of us. We also rely on them as the last resort of things. I think such a situation sometimes creates certain positive influences even on the readiness to do more for the organisation and follow their lead.” (EM 3-15:1)

A positive attitude and an open-door policy among CEOs and senior managers also help to increase their idealised influence on their subordinate staff. This, in turn, facilitates role

modelling for OCBs. The open-door approach is also useful in conflict management, inspiring OCBs and developing good relationships between the administrators and the staff.

Senior manager 11 shared his stance on open-door policies for conflict management:

“I have been promoting the open-door policy, that if somebody has an issue, come to me. It becomes an open-door, transparent way of solving things.” (SM 11-1:4)

CEO 3 found that his open-door policy is beneficial for developing better interactions and relationships with his colleagues; he described his approach of allowing his subordinate staff and others to meet him without making a prior appointment.

“I have an open-door policy. I do not have appointments. That is why I told you, come in when there is space you would come. I find it as an inconvenience because everybody, every staff, walks in and they are like, we want this, but I find it very interactive.” (CEO 03-4:31)

The idealised influence of CEOs and senior managers affects role modelling for OCBs. The idealised influence has many contributing factors, including showing love and trust, integrity of character and leadership competency. CEOs and senior managers, as ideals of these qualities when they engage in OCBs, become role models. For those subordinate staff with a religious background, the religious affinity of their CEOs and senior managers contributes to their idealised influence, while the positive attitude and open-door policy cultivated by CEOs and senior managers make them sociable, friendly and approachable, furthering the impact of their idealised influence as role models for OCB.

4.3.6.4 Visibility and Proximity

A leader’s visibility and physical proximity are other important factors that facilitate role modelling for OCBs. Visibility and the closeness of the leader to the staff, according to CEO 14, make them *“believe in the leader and facilitate(s) many connections”* (CEO 14-6:6). Such connections, according to CEO 14, help with role modelling.

CEO 7 argued that being physically present with the field staff in the villages where the organisation executes projects makes them follow his lead:

“I lead by doing things. So, they usually see me. I will not say that because I am the Executive Director, I cannot go to those women, I cannot interact with them. I go deep in the village, I stay with those women, we work together, and I eat what they eat. When they dance, I dance, when they laugh, I laugh. So, when the staff sees the Executive Director doing that, they feel also obliged to do that. With time, it builds something in them.” (CEO 07-20:26)

Another senior manager commented that his CEO’s leadership style of being with the staff is inspiring:

“But you need to engage yourself in the activities. So, people can learn and see that (their) leader is not a boss who is seating somewhere and giving orders. Being with the people, like our CEO does. That makes him a role model for us.” (SM 17-33:23)

One employee shared his experience of accepting the CEO as a role model:

“We see him doing things, things he does not have to do, but he does. We experience that attitude, his reactions when he is angry or upset. That makes him acceptable.” (EM 5-34:25)

CEOs and senior managers as role models for OCBs are most effective when they are physically close to their subordinate staff. A role model for OCBs with whom subordinate staff interact and engage with daily inspires them more than a leader who could be more ideal or perfect, but has no close interactions.

4.3.7 Effectiveness of Role Modelling for OCBs

Role modelling for OCBs is an effective soft influence that can bring about behavioural change. CEOs and senior managers become effective role models for OCBs when they are good examples of OCBs by ‘walking-the-talk’ and harnessing organisational and socio-cultural factors.

4.3.7.1 Role Modelling as Soft Influence

Many interviewees consider role modelling for OCBs to be a soft influence, i.e., the power of influencing the OCBs of co-workers through role modelling is significant, but not enforceable.

For instance, CEO 3 argued that role modelling is influential in promoting OCBs amongst the subordinate staff, but is not binding. CEO 14 said:

“(Role modelling is) do(ing) the correct thing persistently, and people will follow you. You are driving influence without using force, the soft influence, which is more powerful and sustainable.” (CEO 14-4:17)

CEO 12 sees role modelling as *“applying the softest skills to manage the human resource”* (CEO 12-21:23), while CEO 20 described role modelling as a soft influence, because one can show a good example, but cannot force that excellent example onto another person.

“I think it’s (role modelling) a soft influence because I do not tell them to do like me. Like staying late or coming on weekends, I do not. Cannot tell them to come in time like me. But they see me doing my work each hour. So that is why the executive director has nothing on her table, because she finishes everything and does even some extra work. But I can tell you, it influences them without being told what to do.” (CEO 13-25:15)

Role modelling is a soft but an effective influence capable of bringing about behavioural change. It is soft because the subordinate staff is free to accept or to reject the role model, and it is not enforceable.

4.3.7.2 Influencing by Showing a Good Example and ‘Walking-the-Talk’

For many CEOs and senior managers, role modelling for OCBs means being a good example of engaging in OCBs. For CEO 16, leading by example means doing things she believes in, and displaying that to subordinates:

“What I am trying to do, I am trying to make sure that I lead by example, so what I do is what I believe. For example, I am trying to comply with the rules and regulations, because I believe in them. Showing the example, they will follow, if they believe in them.” (CEO 16-27:31)

CEO 16 shared an example of showing a leading by example effect of role modelling by being accountable in financial matters. According to the financial manual of the organisation, all employees must account for the money taken for any assignment within seven days. The CEO made sure that every time, when she took cash for a task, she completed the return report within seven days. This made the staff in the finance department say, *“If the CEO with all the schedules*

could give the return within seven days, then the rest of the staff also could give”. Therefore, the CEO said, her action became a model for others to follow. The opinion of another subordinate staff regarding leading by example was:

“Leading by example is useful because seeing is believing. If you are honest, if you are loyal, committed, show others your good deeds, and they will follow you.” (EM 19-37:8)

CEOs, senior managers and subordinate staff view role modelling as ‘walking-the-talk’, i.e., doing what one talks about or instructs others to do, or putting into action what one says.

According to senior manager 6, ‘walking-the-talk’ means the person is *“living as an example because one cannot really talk and live differently”* (SM 06-1:29). Employee 19 shared his view on ‘walking-the-talk’, saying, *“If you tell someone to be punctual, you must be punctual first. If you tell someone to deliver high-quality work, you must deliver high-quality work. So, for me, I think that is ‘walking-the-talk’ and becoming a role model”* (EM 19-37:44). Several subordinate staff consider their CEOs and senior managers to be role models because they believe they ‘walk-the-talk’:

“They (CEOs and senior managers) become our role models because they ‘walk-the-talk’. We could not imitate an activity from another if he did not show how to do it. Our leaders do so. We are also performing well because of the same.” (EM 15-38:47)

Another point from employee 17 regarding his CEO ‘walking-the-talk’ was:

“Mzee, anaongea vitu ambavyo anafanya, sio kitu cha vitabu (The man talks what he does, not things from the book).” (EM 17-40:1)

Certain employees noted that role modelling for OCBs is more impactful when the CEOs and senior managers ‘walk-the-talk’. Most were positive about following their CEOs and senior managers as role models for OCBs. Employee 14 said in this context:

“Walking-the-talk’ is the most effective way of influencing the OCBs of the other staff. The exemplary actions of the CEOs and senior manager have produced similar behaviours among many of us. It is effective, though, not enforceable.” (EM 14-37:19)

Employee 25 shared an experience of how their CEO ‘walking-the-talk’ had a profound influence on the staff:

“I am not one of the best in leading by example, but my boss is one of the best. Yeah, let me give an example, a tiny thing like reporting at work. The 8am, we are talking about, this man is always in the office no later than 7:30, every working day. In other organisation, a chief executive never signs the register. It is only for the other staff. For him, he signs, and now I keep asking myself if the chief executive signs an attendance register, who else cannot sign?” (EM 25-38:55)

Role modelling for OCBs is effective when CEOs and senior managers do what they expect from the employees. When CEOs and senior managers set an example of engaging in OCBs, the subordinate perceives it as something desirable. A willingness to accept the role model comes from the conviction that the OCBs are worth engaging and are possible to do. Conformity of words and actions, coupled with personal integrity, authenticity and personal example, makes role modelling for OCBs effective.

4.3.7.3 Influencing through Harnessing Organisational and Socio-Cultural Factors

CEOs and senior managers harness organisational and socio-cultural factors to become effective role models for OCBs. Organisational factors that aid effective role modelling are flatter organisational structures and a reduced power distance between the CEO/senior manager and the subordinate staff. In addition, an African socio-cultural factor that CEOs and senior managers leverage to become effective role models for OCBs is respect for elders or people in authority.

Flattening the organisational hierarchy and reducing the power distance enables subordinates to emulate the OCBs of their CEOs and senior managers. CEO 2 shared an instance of sitting at the front office one day when the front office staff was out. The CEO sat at the front office with another employee, who was a replacement that day for the front office staff on leave. The CEO did so intentionally to break the power distance and make the organisational hierarchy as flat as possible:

“I will have somebody come, and then they'll find me at the front office, and they'll think I am the office secretary. And asking for the director, they realise I am the director.” (CEO 02-9:57)

A subordinate staff from the same organisation had something similar to say about the CEO:

“We may see her (CEO) at the front desk or in the field. And if you do not know her, might think she is a field staff or front office member. Because of her age, and the way she does not play the boss, she is an inspiration for us. So, when she shows us a good example, we are happy to follow the lead.” (EM 06-37:8)

The practice of CEOs sitting together with other employees for lunch or coffee, and washing the plates or removing the trash, has a significant impact on subordinate staff who perceive these acts as efforts to reduce the power gap between them and their staff. Senior manager 20 made the following observation:

“Our office provides lunch, and we sit together, with the director, with the person who sweeps, and we do not segregate. And once you have done the eating, everyone will carry one’s plate, take the trash away and put it in the sink.” (SM 10-14:13)

Subordinates consider their CEO’s preference for a flat organisational hierarchy to be an *“expression of humility”* (EM 22-4:7) and being *“simple and able to mingle with the staff freely”* (EM 23-15:2). CEOs and senior managers become role models for OCBs by engaging in simple activities such as *“stopping to greet a watchman at the gate”* (CEO 17-11:22) and *“allowing other staff members to chair the staff meeting instead of the CEO taking over the same every time”* (CEO 16-27:2).

Likewise, a bossy leader who displays their power and authority was not a favoured role model for OCBs:

“Well, I dislike a leadership style that is bossing. When there is much display of power, we cannot relate to him. Let alone learning OCBs from them.” (EM 20-30:2)

The cultural element of respect for elders or people in authority is influential in role modelling for OCBs by CEOs and senior managers. Subordinates emulate their leaders’ actions (including OCBs) out of respect for their position in the organisation.

“We admire his (the CEO’s) behaviours. We try to imitate them sometimes because we respect him as our leader. Ignoring what he expects from us would be an insult.” (EM 03-49:33)

Similarly, CEO 20 said:

“I show them a good example of OCBs, but not all follow it out of inspiration. They just do it because they want me to see them do so. It is a cultural factor to show respect.” (CEO 20-25:12)

Subordinates emulate the OCBs of their CEOs and senior managers because there is some sort of group pressure to show affinity for the leader. When many follow the example of the person in authority, a deviation from it would be seen as a rebellion or disrespect. For instance, EM 02 said:

“We cannot be a rebel; but need to follow what others follow. We see the CEO and managers go home late, working overtime to complete their job. If I go home early because there is no overtime payment here, they would see me as a rebel and not following the custom here.” (EM 02-18:2)

Role modelling for OCBs is more influential when there is less power distance between CEOs, senior managers and subordinate staff. The familiarity, cordiality, friendliness and willingness of CEOs and senior managers to be part of the life and work of their subordinate staff within the organisational environment make them effective role models for OCBs. These OCBs are readily emulated by the staff when the role aspirant feels at home with the role model.

The cultural and social factors influence one’s decision to follow the example set by the role model. The experiences of CEOs and senior managers show that subordinate staff emulate OCBs at times because of respect for their position or age, i.e., not following their example might be seen as not respecting their authority or age. A role aspirant for OCBs may thus follow the role model, but not necessarily out of conviction about the action displayed or because he/she is inspired by the role model, but because they live in a society where the collective conscious is dominant, and people respect traditional and cultural practices.

4.3.8 Social Interactions and Role Modelling for OCBs

The social interactions of CEOs and senior managers influence their role modelling for OCBs, particular those with ‘celebrity’ status. Social interactions help leaders to promote a sense of togetherness that enhances their role modelling for OCBs.

4.3.8.1 Celebrity Status

CEOs or senior managers with celebrity status effect significantly more role modelling for OCBs than those who do not have such status. This celebrity status could be because of being famous in the media, in public forums, or through personal achievements.

Colleagues of a CEO who was a celebrity because of receiving an international award and speaking at popular forums said that they felt privileged to work with such a person. An employee in the organisation, when asked about the influence of the CEO as a role model, said:

“I feel proud that I am working at (xxx), where Mrs. Y is the head. I too wish to be like her. Her achievements add significance to what she tells us or shows us to follow.” (EM 11-36:22)

CEO 15, who received the award of ‘International Women of Courage’, said, *“being courageous and confident”* was her strength that she thought influenced her colleagues to follow her example (CEO 15-25:23). One of her senior managers expressed:

“She is already a celebrity, and when she leads by example, it has something of added power and significance for our staff. We also provide a good example for our subordinates, but her influence is different.” (SM 10-37:4)

A celebrity is a symbol of an aspirational status, success or achievement. They also function like a benchmark for perceived success. Subordinate staff are motivated by the personal or professional success of the CEOs or senior managers, and are happy to follow their actions and behaviours, including OCBs, because they want to be successful like them.

4.3.8.2 Sense of Togetherness

The social interactions of CEOs and senior managers facilitate a sense of togetherness through emotional bonds, reciprocal solidarity and mutual support, helping leaders to develop an emotional bond with their staff, which then facilitates effective role modelling. Many interviewees said that social interactions help them familiarise themselves more with their CEOs and senior managers, and make them feel at home with them.

“How it (social interactions) helps is that being present with us in our social events without boundaries of the official authority helps the staff to feel comfortable with our

leaders. Feeling at home with them is the first step, before emulating their good behaviours.” (EM 03-27:47)

When an emotional bond is created between the CEO/senior manager and their subordinate staff, there is mutual support and solidarity. Such reciprocal solidarity and support is beneficial for role modelling for OCBs. A CEO described his experience of receiving exceptional support and solidarity from his staff members when he was going through a lot of pressure and anxiety at work. He credited this to his behaviour of providing support and solidarity for his staff through social interactions. The scenario was a context of high pressure and anxiety for the whole organisation because of governmental interference and control over their mission and work, with the CEO taking the lion’s share of the stress. He recalled what happened in a staff meeting when he was explaining to the staff about the situation and how they would go forward:

“I was talking, and at one point somebody said, ‘How are you?’ And the question didn't strike me. I said, ‘Oh, I am fine’. He said, ‘No, no, how are you?’ Then I understood what they were asking, and I said, ‘You know, I am fine actually’. I got then the sense of what they wanted to tell me. They tried to understand how I was coping with this attention and stress. That was difficult to do.” (CEO 10-47:54).

The CEO believed that if it were not for his interactive social skills, they would not have provided him with that support and solidarity.

Social interactions are an avenue for subordinate staff to know the social intelligence and social net worth of their CEOs and senior managers, and they are accepted or rejected as role models accordingly. Social intelligence skills involve the capacity to work with diverse cultural and social environments, for instance, senior manager 06 said:

“I think working in our environment it's essential to have social intelligence skills... We are working with different people from different organisations, from different backgrounds, from different nations. You need to know how you can engage with these people; this is what I mean by social intelligence skill. That is helpful in our social interactions to become role models.” (SM 06-60:2)

Employee 13 had a similar view on social interactions:

“The way our CEO manages his social interactions intelligently, knowing how to deal with each individual, makes him stand out in the crowd. (His) Social intelligence skill is very clear. It inspires us and (we are) happy to be associated with him.” (EM 13-18:45)

Social net worth is the net worth of benefits that one can bring to the organisation through social networking. Many CEOs and senior managers promote their organisation’s goals through their social networking, and encourage their subordinate staff to engage actively in social networking for promoting organisational goals and objectives:

“Your network is your net worth. Any other person out there who seems to be a like-minded fellow is someone who can be an ally in the future. I prove that to my colleagues, and they follow my lead, networking for the organisation.” (CEO 11-18:45)

Some CEOs believe that the effectiveness of social interactions on role modelling for OCBs varies with each staff member. CEO 12 explained it as:

“You have those that will quickly pick it up and move with you. But you have some others who will first observe, and they will see. Maybe some we cannot manage. But when you have few that you start with, those others will join.” (CEO 12-11:28).

Social interactions facilitate an emotional bond, and the stronger that is, the better the acceptance of the role model. Informal social interactions function as opportunities that remove barriers, either social, psychological or personal, that prevent the role aspirant from emulating the behaviours of the role model. The notable outcome of these social interactions are reciprocal solidarity and support among the staff, which itself could be termed an OCB behaviour of helping a co-worker. Role modelling for OCBs calls for social intelligence, as sensitivity to, and awareness of, the social, cultural and ethnic backgrounds of staff is essential if CEOs and senior managers are to be effective role models for OCBs. Subordinate staff reject a CEO/senior manager as a role model for OCBs if he/she lacks social intelligence. This rejection is not because they are bad model, but because the subordinate feels alienated because the role model contradicts/opposes their lived socio-cultural and racial identities. Many subordinate staff view the social network skills of their CEOs and senior managers as their social net worth, which is a transactional way of looking at what benefit a person’s social networking skills can bring to the organisation. Subordinate staff are inspired to follow the OCBs of a CEO or senior manager

who has high social net worth because they see the benefit that it brings to the organisation.

4.3.9 Challenges and Bottlenecks for Role Modelling for OCBs

There are challenges and bottle necks for role modelling for OCBs. Challenges include maintaining employee wellbeing and work-life balance, while bottlenecks include incompetency, bullying, fearfulness and laziness.

CEOs and senior managers promote employee well-being to mitigate their burn-out. Providing health insurance, supporting employees during social events, and providing emotional support during stressful times are part of promoting employees' well-being. Such interventions promote loyalty to the organisation, which develop the OCBs of organisational commitment and loyalty while maintaining employee well-being.

CEO 17 said in this context:

“I found a situation where they (the staff) did not have health insurance. We made sure immediately to have private health insurance for staff and their families. I tell you this is because it is important also for them to understand that you care about them, their well-being. That increased also their commitment and OCBs.” (CEO 17-16:11)

Many employees expressed the view that when the organisation takes care of their well-being, they are encouraged to engage in activities that are beneficial to the organisation.

“We have certain securities from the organisation that give peace of mind. We engage in activities, such as working extra hours on weekends, using our free time to promote the organisational agenda. If these securities were not there, we would have had to look for the additional support elsewhere.” (EM 19-15:45)

Major bottlenecks for role modelling for OCBs in NFPOs include bullying, incompetence, fearfulness and laziness. A senior manager expressed the view that when a CEO or senior manager is incompetent, they became a bully rather than a role model:

“We had a situation where a manager was less knowledgeable than the team he was leading, which ended up (with them) challenging each other. He ended up becoming a bully because he did not want to be challenged by his team for (his) lack of knowledge.” (SM 09-26:18)

Many employees described bullying behaviour as a barrier to engaging in OCBs; they see authoritarian leaders as contrary to role models:

“The bullies, be it a co-worker or administrative person, destroy all initiatives, including OCBs. They can never be a role model.” (EM 10-39:2)

When employees are fearful of the top leadership, role modelling does not take place. There could be a myriad reasons for this fearfulness, such as the personality type of the leader, potential loss of employment, or personal inhibitions. An absence of fear establishes a relationship of engagement and freedom between the organisational leaders and the employees, thus making role modelling workable.

“The junior staff should not fear about your position. Without fear, you open up the wider space for engagement. The staff will come, they will ask you a question. They will seek more clarification on certain issues. The staff will also be free to report if they have committed any kind of mistake. But if they fear you, they will not be open. If no fear, they will follow your lead.” (CEO, 30-28:8)

When an employee is not hardworking, it is difficult for the CEOs or senior managers to effect OCBs through role modelling. Leading such employees through examples of OCBs is challenging, according to CEO 15:

“Some (staff) won't follow me because they didn't understand, or they are not very hardworking. There are some, but a tiny percent. But most of them they follow.” (CEO 15-25:8)

Similarly, senior manager 10 commented that:

“There are different staff; some may not like to follow your model. Not because they dislike you, but because basically, they are not excited about extra responsibilities.” (SM 10-31:50)

CEOs and senior managers cannot become effective role models if the challenges and bottlenecks associated with OCBs and role modelling are not addressed. Over-emphasising OCBs results in employee burn-out and adversely affects the work-life balance of staff. Incompetency and bullying behaviour prevent CEOs and senior managers from becoming role models for OCBs. Similarly, fearfulness and laziness are bottlenecks for role modelling for

OCBs, as fear prevents employees from taking any initiative because of a fear of failure. Similarly, when employees are lazy at their work, they are not inspired by role modelling for OCBs, because lazy employees prefer to do only the minimum requirements of their job, i.e., they will not go beyond their job description.

CHAPTER 5

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

Chapter Five presents an analysis and discussion of the research findings, which are grouped into seven categories. The effectiveness of role modelling for OCBs is integrated into these categories where applicable, before being discussed and analysed. These seven categories are: the attitudes and outlooks that promote OCBs; promoting OCBs through collective ownership with boundaries; promoting OCBs through voluntarism; group outcomes from promoting OCBs; social interactions and role modelling; transformational and transactional leadership factors promoting OCBs; and challenges and bottlenecks. The researcher drew up a conditional relationship matrix table to analyse the findings and discover relationships and interconnections among and between the themes and subthemes. The table helps to contextualise the phenomenon under investigation by asking what, when, where, why, how and who, and reflecting upon the consequences of the findings and/or of its implications (see Table 8).

Table 16: Relationship Matrix – Role Modelling for OCBs

Category	What	When	Where	Why	How	Consequence	Who
Attitude and outlook promoting OCBs	Being empathetic, showing equality, respect, and promoting transparency within the organisation promotes OCBs of the subordinate staff.	In everyday management practices.	NFPOs in Tanzania.	Tanzanian society is dominantly collectivistic therefore, views, attitudes and outlook that facilitate collectivism are accepted. Promoting OCBs mitigates some organisational challenges.	By listening to the subordinate staff, showing a positive attitude, openness and practicing an open-door policy.	Such qualities become a prerequisite for role modelling for OCBs.	CEOs, senior managers and subordinate staff.
	The subordinates emulate the OCBs of an authentic and competent role model, with	In everyday management practices.	NFPOs in Tanzania.	Subordinates look for an authentic role model rather than a perfect role model for OCBs.	Through the idealised influence of the leader, personal qualities, visibility and physical	Lack of such attitudes and outlooks in role models makes role modelling	CEOs, senior managers as role models, and subordinate

	enthusiasm, consistency and a positive attitude.				proximity of the role model to the role aspirants. By showing a good example of a positive attitude, openness and practice of open-door policy.	ineffective for OCBs.	s as role aspirants.
Category	What	When	Where	Why	How	Consequence	Who
Promoting OCBs through Collective Ownership with Boundaries	Promoting Collective ownership with boundaries for individuals to function within the organisation promotes OCBs of the subordinate staff.	In everyday organisational management. CEOs and senior managers share responsibility and promote decentralisation.	NFPOs in Tanzania.	Because of the social philosophy, the African concept of extended family, and the need for a sense of belonging and usefulness.	By promoting a sense of collective ownership, usefulness to and responsibility for the organisation, promoting organisational democracy, organisational family culture, and organisational team culture. By facilitating organisational structure with reduced power distance	Subordinates feel valued and onboard. Individual contributions for the collective good are recognised.	CEOs, senior managers and subordinate staff.

	Role modelling is effective as soft influence capable of effecting behavioural change.	In everyday management practices.	In everyday management practices.	Role aspirants look up to role models for inspiration and a standard to achieve.	By providing an excellent example of OCBs, building trust, confidentiality and personal integrity by 'walking-the-talk' (being true to one's words and actions).	Subordinates' perceived trust in the personal integrity of the CEOs and senior managers is an essential factor for effective role modelling for OCBs.	CEOs, senior managers and subordinate staff.
Category	What	When	Where	Why	How	Consequence	Who
OCBs Through Voluntarism	Promoting a spirit of voluntarism promotes OCBs of the subordinate staff.	In everyday management practices.	NFPOs, and the personal lives of the CEOs and senior managers.	Voluntarism helps to mitigate some financial challenges faced by the NFPOs in Tanzania. Voluntarism also supports a sense of sacrifice for the common good.	Through selective recruiting, coaching for not-for-profit values and focusing on job outcome of good for the humanity.	Over-emphasising the spirit of voluntarism while recruiting might negatively compromise the quality and efficiency of the staff recruited.	CEOs, senior managers and subordinate staff.
	CEOs and senior managers who show a good example of	In everyday management practices.	NFPOs, and the personal lives of the CEOs and	When subordinate staff see CEOs and senior managers take personal sacrifices	By being role models for personal	CEOs and senior managers who are not	CEOs, senior managers and

	personal sacrifice and who ‘walk-the-talk’ become effective role models for voluntarism.		senior managers.	and practice voluntarism, they follow the lead.	sacrifices and voluntarism.	authentic may end up being hypocrites.	subordinate staff.
Category	What	When	Where	Why	How	Consequence	Who
Group Outcome of OCBs	Promoting OCBs facilitates higher organisational benchmarks, develops brand names, promotes organisational learning, unity and optimism, and facilitates organisational change.	Individual OCBs are higher in NFPOs.	NFPOs in Tanzania.	What an employee might not achieve as an individual is achievable as a group.	The group unity and synergy produce results.	Certain OCBs practices over time could become the organisational norm, and it loses its voluntary nature.	CEOs, senior managers and subordinate staff.
Category	What	When	Where	Why	How	Consequence	Who

Social Interactions and Role modelling for OCBs	<p>Social interactions of the CEOs and senior managers aid role modelling for OCBs by facilitating an emotional bond through reciprocal solidarity and support.</p>	<p>In everyday management practices. During formal and informal social events, interactions and gatherings.</p>	<p>NFPOs in Tanzania.</p>	<p>Social interactions create an emotional bond, and familiarity that facilitates acceptance of role models. The celebrity status of CEOs and senior managers creates admiration and inspiration.</p>	<p>Through formal and informal social interactions. Social interactions become the social net worth of the CEOs and senior managers.</p>	<p>Familiarity can facilitate role modelling. For CEOs and senior managers who are expatriates or persons from another cultural and social background, there could be barriers or inhibitions.</p>	<p>CEOs, senior managers and subordinate staff.</p>
	<p>The visibility and proximity of the role model to the role aspirant increases role model effectiveness.</p>	<p>Visibility and proximity of the role model are influential through the social interactions of the role model.</p>	<p>NFPOs in Tanzania.ia.</p>	<p>Social interactions create an emotional bond, and familiarity that facilitates acceptance of role models. The celebrity status of CEOs and senior managers creates admiration and inspiration.</p>	<p>The celebrity status of the role model provides motivation and inspiration to the role aspirant. Social interactions promote a sense of togetherness.</p>	<p>A role model who is near and visible is more effective than a role model who is far and invisible to the role aspirant.</p>	<p>CEOs, senior managers and subordinate staff.</p>
Category	What	When	Where	Why	How	Consequence	Who

Transformational and Transactional Leadership factors Promoting NFPOs	Transformational leadership factors of intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation promote NFPOs of subordinate staff in NFPOs	In everyday management practices.	NFPOs in Tanzania	Encouraging creativity and innovation together with necessary resources and freedom makes the subordinate staff to go behold the call of duty, do more than what they are expected to do.	By inspiring subordinates' staff to be achievers. By promoting creativity and innovation, by facilitating the personal and professional growth of the subordinates through empowerment.	Results in increased engagement in OCBs. Develops future leaders for the organisation.	CEOs, senior managers, and subordinate staff
	Transformational leaders become role models for their followers through their idealised influence.	In everyday management practices.	NFPOs in Tanzania	Transformational leaders effect their influence through competency, love, trust and problem-solving skills. The subordinate staff look up to them and follow their actions, including OCBs.	By inspiring the subordinates through their personal and professional achievements.	CEOs and senior managers who lack competency might end by being a bully rather than a role model.	CEOs, senior managers, and subordinate staff.

Category	What	When	Where	Why	How	Consequence	Who
	CEOs and senior managers use both contingent and non-contingent rewards to promote OCBs among subordinate staff.	In everyday management practices.	NFPOs in Tanzania.	Transactional factors reinforce perceived distributive justice. Intrinsic motivation to give back to the organisation also influences the intention to engage in OCBs. The CEOs and senior managers with dominant transformational leadership orientations are not entirely against engaging in the transactional factor of contingent rewards.	CEOs and senior managers motivate subordinates to engage in OCBs by paying bonuses, giving financial recognition and by availing other contingent and non-contingent rewards. They provide a positive appreciation for the job done.	Subordinates can engage in OCBs, not for altruistic intentions, but for personal gains.	CEOs, senior managers, and subordinate staff.
Category	What	When	Where	Why	How	Consequence	Who
	CEOs and senior managers consider personal and socio-cultural	In everyday management practices.	NFPOs in Tanzania.	Both transformational and transactional leaders utilise some of these factors. Devotees at work do not require	Young staff members with less work experience are motivated by contingent	A particular leadership style, and/or a mix of leadership styles	CEOs, senior managers, and

	factors to promote OCBs.			external motivation to engage in OCBs.	rewards. In contrast, older employees with more work experience are motivated by intrinsic motivations. Those who are devoted to work engage in OCBs irrespective of contingent rewards.	(transactional and transformational), can influence the willingness of subordinate to engage in OCBs.	subordinate staff.
	Social and cultural factors affect role modelling for OCBs.	In everyday management practices.	NFPOs in Tanzania.	Social intelligence skills are vital for role modelling for OCBs.	African custom of respect for elders influences role modelling. Subordinate staff emulate the OCBs of CEOs and senior managers out of respect for the person in authority and not necessarily out of admiration or inspiration.	A lack of social intelligence by CEOs and senior managers negatively affects promoting role modelling for OCBs.	CEOs, senior managers, and subordinate staff.

Category	What	When	Where	Why	How	Consequence	Who
Challenges and bottlenecks	Challenges of promoting OCBs include ensuring employee well-being and work-life balance.	Everyday management practices.	NFPOs in Tanzania.	Too much concentration on promoting organisational values can affect employees' well-being and work-life balance negatively.	Employees with high OCBs tend to spend too much time and effort on organisational goals, and don't give adequate attention to their personal lives or family.	If not managed well, challenges, negative consequences and bottlenecks undermine the benefits that OCBs bring to the organisation.	CEOs, senior managers, and subordinate staff.
	The bottleneck to role modelling for OCBs includes overcoming incompetence and avoiding bullying.	Everyday management practices.	NFPOs in Tanzania.	When subordinate staff fear CEOs and senior managers, and when they bully subordinate staff, they are rejected as role models.	The incompetency of CEOs and senior managers makes them bullies rather than role models who inspire.	Incompetent CEOs and senior managers alienate their subordinate staff and do not promote OCBs.	CEOs, senior managers, and subordinate staff.

5.2 Attitudes and Outlook

CEOs and senior managers promote OCBs by developing the attitudes and outlooks of their subordinate staff. These include being empathetic, promoting equality and respect, and promoting transparency within the organisation.

5.2.1 Being Empathetic

An attitude of empathy expressed through listening to staff, supporting them and showing understanding when errors happen, promotes OCBs among subordinate staff. When subordinate staff realise that their CEOs and senior managers are concerned about their well-being, they commit themselves more to the organisational cause. This finding gives insights into the notion that the feeling of wellbeing that arises from being listened to and cared for motivates employees to engage in OCBs. The behaviours could also be an act of giving back to the organisation for the benefits that one receives from it. This finding is similar to that of Pohl, Santo and Battistelli (2015), who found that in a hospital setting, cognitive empathy encourages OCBs among nurses. Similarly, Nguyen, Ngo and Surachartkumtonkun (2019), when studying the relationship between OCBs and customer-oriented citizenship behaviours (CCBs), found that empathy and mindfulness promote OCBs and improve employee performance. Although the finding is not unique to this study, it gives a new insight into how CEOs and senior managers can promote the OCBs of their subordinate staff by showing and promoting an attitude of empathy.

5.2.2 Equality and Respect

Promoting equality and respect for all employees, regardless of their employment status within the organisation, helps to increase the OCBs of staff. CEOs and senior managers instil in their subordinates a sense of fairness and justice by promoting equality and respect that drives OCBs. It also gives the employees a sense of being valued and uniquely useful to the organisation. This finding is as per Seyed-Mehdi (2012), who found that fairness opinion (i.e., employees feeling that their leaders treat everyone equally and fairly) aids OCBs. When CEOs and senior managers show respect and equality, subordinates perceive it as fairness towards them, which encourages them to engage in OCBs.

5.2.3 Transparency

Encouraging organisational transparency promotes OCBs among employees, with CEOs and senior managers promoting organisational transparency through openness and authenticity. Transparency helps employees to see the bigger picture of the organisation and know what their efforts (routine or extra efforts) contribute to the overall mission of the organisation. Subordinate staff engage in OCBs when they believe their efforts contribute to the organisational objectives on a broader level. Encouraging subordinates to think big is part of CEOs' and senior managers' efforts in presenting the overall vision and mission of the organisation to their subordinates. This finding is alike to that of Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002), who found that employees give more to the organisation when they feel that their contributions add value. This sense of satisfaction moves them to engage in OCBs (Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000). Similarly, in contributing to the overall objectives and goals of the organisation, subordinate staff feel valued. Such feelings might promote a psychological contract with the organisation and a sense of belonging. Previous research findings suggest that developing a psychological contract with employees encourages OCBs (Restubog, Hornsey, Bordia, & Esposito, 2008; Tufan & Wendt, 2020). Such behaviour, from the perspective of social exchange theory, is giving back for benefits received from the organisation (Cardona, Lawrence, & Bentler, 2004; Ma & Qu, 2011). From the perspective of intrinsic motivation, the staff experience the satisfaction of contributing to the organisation by engaging in OCBs (Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000).

In NFPOs in Tanzania, developing certain attitudes and outlooks has been helpful for the CEOs and senior managers to promote OCBs. Promoting attitudes and outlooks that encourage empathy, equality, respect and organisational transparency help mitigate specific challenges related to staff turnover and commitment. CEOs and senior managers might have the intention of staff retention and increased commitment in promoting such attitudes and outlooks within the NFPOs. This could also be their motivation for promoting the OCBs of their staff. Such motivations for promoting OCBs are in line with previous studies, i.e., promoting OCBs helps organisations to increase employee efficiency and reduce costs, employee turnover and absenteeism (Podsakoff et al., 2009; Podsakoff et al., 2000).

5.3 Role Modeling Affecting Attitudes and Outlooks

Role modelling is effective in promoting OCBs in NFPOs, however there are variances in

understanding the term ‘role modelling’. Terms such as ‘leading by example’, ‘walking-the-talk’ and ‘role modelling’ all have subtle differences and are used differently by different researchers (Boiral, Talbot, & Paillé, 2015; Potters et al., 2007; Van der Heijden & Moxnes, 2012; Yaffe & Kark, 2011; Dinh et al., 2014; Kearns et al., 2015; Ngcobo & Tikly, 2010). Subordinate staff emulate the OCBs of an authentic and competent role model with enthusiasm, consistency and a positive outlook.

5.3.1 An Authentic role model Versus a Perfect Role Model

A role aspirant (subordinate) accepts a role model (CEO and/or senior manager) who acknowledges his/her limitations in engaging in OCBs. Subordinates do not expect their CEO/senior manager to be a perfect role model for OCBs; one who is genuinely trying to do their best is acceptable. There is thus a compromise between the actual and the ideal from the perspective of the role aspirants, i.e., the subordinates (role aspirants) and the CEOs and senior managers (role models) are aware of the ideal and the actual situation within the context of NFPOs. The role models thus aspire to display the ideal, but might not achieve an absolute level of perfection. The role aspirant is happy to emulate the OCBs of their role model, which reflects subordinates’ attempts to confirm their leader’s authenticity and integrity. Subordinates consider authenticity and integrity as being more critical than them being a perfect model of OCBs. Many studies have shown that authentic leadership positively influences the OCBs of followers (Fields, 2007; Tonkin, 2013; Valsania, León, Alonso, & Cantisano, 2012).

5.3.2 Enthusiasm, Consistency and Routine

Consistently and routinely showing enthusiasm for engaging in OCBs contributes to effective role modelling. This finding resembles that of Weaver et al. (2005), who found that consistency in ethical behaviour is more important than the business success of the role model for effecting role modelling of ethical behaviour in for-profit organisations. Willingness to copy the ethical behaviour of a role model has a significant influence when the role model embodies the desired behaviours consistently and routinely. Therefore, the random engagement of CEOs and senior managers in NFPOs does not motivate a subordinate to accept them as role models and effect a behavioural change following their example. Scholars have found that role modelling for behavioural change requires inspiration, goal reinforcement, identification, adoption and internalisation (Morgenroth et al., 2015). Routine engagement in OCBs with enthusiasm by CEOs and senior managers inspires subordinate staff to emulate their OCBs. Similarly, further

reinforcement, identification, adoption and internalisation take place as the CEOs and senior managers continue to show engagement in OCBs regularly and with enthusiasm.

5.3.3 Idealised Influence of a Leader

The idealised influence of a leader is significant when a CEO or senior manager shows love, care, and concern for their subordinates. This finding is in line with earlier studies, which show that transformational leaders become role models for their followers through their idealised influence (Banks, McCauley, Gardner, & Guler, 2016; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Hui et al., 2005; Lehmann, Willenbrock, Meinecke, Rowold, & Kauffeld, 2015), however previous studies do not give us insight into how the idealised influence of a leader affects OCBs among staff in NFPOs. This study provides further insight into the idealised influence of a leader within NFPOs, showing how CEOs and senior managers gain idealised influence to become role models for OCBs, i.e., through leadership competency, certain personal qualities, a positive attitude and an open door policy.

A display of leadership competence in terms of conceptual, technical and analytical skills helps to increase idealised influence. Subordinate staff look up to their CEOs and senior managers as models of leadership competency, thus when such competent leaders engage in OCBs, their behaviours are readily emulated as these competencies build interpersonal trust. Personal qualities such as being approachable, friendly and having good communication skills contribute to building idealised influence to become a role model for OCBs. Personal qualities of religious affinity, a positive attitude and practicing an open door policy in administration also helps CEOs and senior managers to exert their idealised influence on their subordinate staff. Religious affinity provides an impetus for personal trust among those who have a similar religious affinity, while a positive attitude and open door policy strengthens the idealised influence of a leader by promoting approachability, trust and transparency in their personal and professional lives. Subordinate staff accept their CEOs and senior managers as worthy role models for OCBs because of these personal qualities.

This finding is supported by previous studies, for example, Gillespie and Mann (2004) found that consulting team members for decision-making, sharing information and having shared values builds interpersonal trust. Additional studies have shown that workplace spirituality and religious affiliation does influence OCB (Furnham, 2006; Hunsaker, 2016), as a display of religious beliefs and practices reinforces subordinates' belief that CEOs and senior managers

are worthy role models (Liborius, 2014). Similarly, previous studies have shown that transformational leaders promote confidence and a positive attitude, and motivate and inspire the same in their followers (Bulls, 2007; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). The uniqueness of this study is that it ascertained how the idealised influence of transformational leadership is built in the NFPO environment and enables leaders to become effective role models for OCBs. This idealised influence is gained through proven leadership competency, interpersonal trust developed through personal qualities of positive attitude, and transparency.

5.3.4 The Visibility and Proximity of the Role Model

The visibility and proximity of the role model to the role aspirant is an influential factor for effective role modelling (Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004; Gibson, 2004; Yaffe & Kark, 2011), as it facilitates better communication and information sharing between the two, which then promotes interpersonal trust. Studies have shown that followers readily emulate the behaviours of the leader when interpersonal trust is high (Gillespie & Mann, 2004). While the finding is not unique to this study, the present study provides insight that a role model who is near to and visible to a role aspirant is more influential than one who is far away and invisible, or not seen engaging in OCBs.

5.4 Collective Ownership with Boundaries

Promoting collective ownership with boundaries for individuals to function within the organisation promotes OCBs among staff. CEOs and senior managers promote a sense of collective ownership, usefulness and responsibility. Promoting an organisational family culture, organisational team culture and organisational democratic practices are the ways in which CEOs and senior managers develop a sense of collective ownership among staff.

5.4.1 Ownership, Usefulness and Responsibility

CEOs and senior managers instil in their subordinate staff a sense of common ownership and responsibility for the organisation through collaborative problem solving and resource mobilisation. These initiatives build a sense of usefulness and ownership of the organisation, which encourages OCBs.

When CEOs and senior managers encourage subordinate staff to own up and be responsible for the management and day-to-day running of the organisation, the staff develop psychological ownership of the organisation. This psychological ownership provides a sense of feeling at home (physical and psychic security), self-efficacy and self-identity (Pierce et al., 2001), which encourages OCBs. This finding is similar to that of Shukla (2019), who found that psychological ownership of the organisation encourages OCBs amongst employees.

Similarly, collective responsibility for the organisation expressed through collaborative problem-solving and resource mobilisation provides a sense of joint ownership within NFPOs. Subordinates feel their efforts are useful to the organisation. Meaningfulness at work and perceived organisational prestige encourage OCBs among staff (Sharma, 2019). When CEOs and senior managers encourage the participation of subordinate staff in collaborative problem solving and resource mobilisation, they find work more meaningful. If the NFPO where they work is well established in society, they also gain a sense of prestige working for the organisation. This could be a significant reason for subordinate staff engaging more in OCBs when CEOs and senior managers encourage collective responsibility for the organisation.

Tanzanian society is predominantly collectivistic, which could be a reason for why encouraging the collective ownership of an organisation promotes OCBs within Tanzanian NFPOs. Previous studies linked collectivism to OCBs, however these studies were not within the not-for-profit context. For instance, a survey of the OCBs of teachers found collectivism to be a strong predictor for OCBs (Somech & Ron, 2007), while another study found that collectivism positively encourages OCBs because harmony, unity and loyalty are focal points of collectivism (Lin & Ho, 2010). In contrast, those who believe in individualism focus on individuals, family and friends.

For many years after independence, Tanzania actively promulgated and practiced a particular form of socialism, known as '*Ujamaa*', where resources were collectively owned and distributed under government supervision. The effect of such a social ideology, coupled with the African philosophy of Ubuntu, can have a substantial impact on the way subordinate staff engage in OCBs within a given social environment. The philosophy of Ubuntu, which understands that a person's being is always in relation to, and participation with, another, (Mugumbate & Nyanguru, 2013), fortified subordinates' preference for collective ownership of NFPOs.

Past studies have provided evidence that collectivism significantly promotes OCBs (Moorman & Blakely, 1995; Somech & Ron, 2007). Similarly, transformational leaders actively promote a collective identity within the organisation (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Zdaniuk & Bobocel, 2015), which promotes collectivism among the staff that increases OCBs. Many CEOs and senior managers gain above average scores when measuring their leadership orientation. These CEOs and senior managers encourage a sense of collectivism among their subordinate staff, which triggers a higher level of OCBs among them.

This finding provides the answer to the research question: How and to what extent do CEOs and senior managers promote OCBs within NFPOs? This discovery is unique as it gives insights into the nuances of promoting collective ownership, which encourages OCBs in NFPOs. Other salient ways in which CEOs and senior managers have developed and promoted collective ownership, where individuals have defined roles and functions, include promoting organisational democracy, a family culture and a team culture.

5.4.2 Organisational Democracy

CEOs and senior managers encourage collective ownership by promoting organisational democracy, which is practiced through planning together, collaborative decision-making, and allowing for the emergence of diverse opinions. Such practices make the staff feel they are part of the organisation, giving them a sense of belonging and ownership, leading them to engage in OCBs. The employees gain a sense of freedom, which is experienced through autonomy to innovate, decide and execute plans in their work areas. Such practices in the workplace significantly promote OCBs such as loyalty and commitment. Allowing employees the freedom to express their opinions, grievances and diverse opinions also encourages OCBs. When employees can express their opinion on matters that affect them, they develop a sense of ownership and belongingness to the organisation. Although no previous studies have explored democracy and its impact on OCBs in the not-for-profit workplace, independent studies in the for-profit organisational context provide insight into the same. For instance, studies have shown that the immediate effect of participation is an increased level of trust, generosity and status (Van Der Meer & Van Ingen, 2009). Another study showed that when employees take part in collective decision-making, it increases their affective commitment and reduces long-term organisational costs (Weber, Unterrainer, & Schmid, 2009). Similarly, Tokay and Eyupoglu, (2018) argued that organisational democracy is a tool that could develop a sense of citizenship that employees feel towards their organisation. The findings of this study thus build further

insights into how CEOs and senior managers use organisational democracy to promote collective ownership of the organisation and promote OCBs among staff.

5.4.3 The Organisational Family Culture

A salient way in which CEOs and senior managers promote OCBs is by managing the organisation as a family. An organisational family culture contributes to a sense of ownership and belongingness to the organisation by identifying the organisation as one's family, where all employees are considered family members.

When the organisation is perceived as a family, the CEO or senior manager becomes the head of that family figuratively, and the subordinate staff become the family members. This concept (organisation as a family) promotes OCB of helping one's co-worker, and subordinates consider it their duty to render their services to the organisation. Employee commitment to the organisation is more substantial, even when remuneration is minimal or non-existent, when one identifies with the organisation as one's family. Thus, the cultural element of looking at the organisation as one's extended family, a powerfully relevant concept in African society, might be a contributing factor in accepting personal sacrifices for the sake of the organisation.

CEOs and senior managers reinforce the idea of organisation as a family by supporting each other in times of need and celebrating special events together in the organisation. Whenever a family member requires some help, other family members often oblige. Such a culture of family support is very clear in the event of a death or a celebration in an African family. Likewise, when considering the organisation as a family, the OCB of helping a co-worker becomes helping a family member.

There are certain organisational activities and customs that CEOs and senior managers promote that reinforce the concept of the organisation as a family, thereby promoting OCBs. These may include celebrating organisational successes, birthdays and marriages, as well as appreciating individual staff members for their successes. Sometimes subordinate staff may not always be explicitly aware of the concept of OCBs, however the actions they engage in as organisational activities and customs are, in fact, OCBs.

This researcher was not aware of any previous studies on OCBs linking the concept of the organisation as one's family and its positive impact on OCBs, therefore this finding was particular to this research. However, there are studies on the for-profit sector that give insights

into the impact of organisational family culture on organisational management and ownership. For instance, a study of four for-profit fishing firms in Scotland found that organisational family culture is created by shared values, a sense of belonging, honesty, loyalty, trust and respect (Tokay & Eyupoglu, 2018). Similarly, a study of Malaysian Chinese family businesses showed that psychological ownership of employees, who were family members, mediated extra-role functions within those organisations (Ramos, Man, Mustafa, & Ng, 2014). When CEOs and senior managers promote an organisational family culture in NFPOs, the employees gain a sense of ownership, belongingness, honesty, loyalty, trust and respect, which promote OCBs among employees. When such a family culture is strong, employees feel a psychological ownership of the organisation and will commit more time and effort, resulting in OCBs. A unique insight associated with this finding is that if considered by itself, managing an organisation as a family promotes OCBs among the staff, but if considered as part of a more expansive concept, it promotes collective ownership of the organisation.

5.4.4 The Organisational Team Culture

CEOs and senior managers form teams with specific roles for each individual in order to complete various tasks and accomplish organisational functions. Considering colleagues as team members encourages and promotes OCBs. A team culture helps subordinates to develop feelings of responsibility and ownership for their individual roles within the organisation. A team culture facilitates attributing credit for accomplishments to the whole team and not to an individual. When subordinates perceive that their CEOs and senior managers are team leaders, they will identify with the mission of the leader and provide additional efforts to achieve the common goal. Completing one's specific duties or fulfilling one's assigned roles within the team become analogous to loyalty. The result is the promotion of OCBs as loyalty to the organisation. Similarly, team spirit promotes compliance without coercion.

When CEOs and senior managers emphasise achieving goals as a team rather than as individuals, the willingness of the staff to engage in OCBs that benefit the organisation increases. The individuality of a team member is achieved by clarifying his/her role within the group, providing the team members with the best job fit and ensuring the optimal group size.

Certain organisational best practices contribute to the development of team spirit. These include promoting accountability, good communication, sharing and learning at work. CEOs and senior managers actively engage subordinates through sharing organisational matters, frequent

communication and discussions, and encouraging learning in the workplace. Such organisational best practices promote an organisational team culture and indirectly promote collective ownership and OCBs.

The researcher did not find any previous studies that emphasised the importance of accountability, good communication, sharing and learning at work in promoting an organisational team culture and OCBs. Notwithstanding this, a study by April (1999) provided some insight into the phenomenon. The author argued that in facilitating intentional change, communication and dialogue are crucial as they facilitate building organisational intelligence and community. Within NFPOs, facilitating good communication, engaging in dialogue and sharing might result in the 'leader ego' disappearing and the 'mission' of the organisation becoming prominent. This will encourage subordinates to do more than they were supposed to, i.e., they will engage in OCBs. Other strategies that facilitate a team culture include reducing group conflicts and solving in-group conflicts through more informal ways. CEOs and senior managers rely on their transformational leadership orientations to defuse conflicts within an organisation and promoted the team culture. Previous studies have proven that transformational leadership is closely related to improving staff cooperation through conflict management (Yukl, 1999a; Zhang, Cao, & Tjosvold, 2011). Promoting cooperation and appreciating the sacrifices, contributions and efforts of employees increases engagement in OCBs.

Within the context of organisational team culture, team spirit was considered the measure of an individual's loyalty to the organisation. Previous studies found a significant relationship between team spirit and OCBs, however there were also diverging views. Some scholars argue that team spirit is the antecedent of OCBs (Pimthong, 2016; Podsakoff et al., 2000), while others believe that team spirit is the consequence of unit-level OCBs (Ahearne, Mackenzie, Podsakoff, Mathieu, & Lam, 2010; Podsakoff et al., 2014). It was clear from the MLQ survey that most of the CEOs and senior managers showed strong transformational orientations, which could explain the preference for team building and promoting team spirit. Many studies show that these are central to transformational leadership functions (Avolio et al., 2004; Connell, 2005; Mahalinga Shiva & Suar, 2012; Zhu, Treviño, & Zheng, 2016). In the study's context, team spirit is neither an antecedent of OCBs, nor a consequence of unit-level OCBs. Rather, the study shows that team spirit contributes to collective ownership of a not-for-profit organisation and thus promotes OCBs.

5.5 Promoting OCBs through Voluntarism

Voluntarism encourages a sense of doing something good for humanity, which is expressed in concrete situations by helping others without expecting a reward. Promoting voluntarism is analogous to promoting OCBs for many CEOs and senior managers. Leaders utilise human resource management practices such as selective recruitment, coaching and mentoring, and focusing on job outcomes to promote voluntarism and OCBs.

5.5.1 Selective Recruitment and Coaching

CEOs and senior managers recruit staff with an aptitude for the not-for-profit sector and OCBs. In the screening process, NFPOs often seek people with a disposition to engage in OCBs. Once recruited, the CEOs and senior managers keenly groom, mentor and coach their staff in not-for-profit values, encouraging them to engage in voluntarism. Those with a personality type that shows higher levels of voluntarism, a willingness to sacrifice personal interests and a willingness to cope up with inconveniences at work (sportsmanship) are given priority over others. A potential side effect of such proactive recruitment is leaving out a potential high calibre candidate, however having staff with the right attitude and disposition within an organisation is helpful in promoting OCBs with minimal coaching, mentoring and grooming. Likewise, when staff do not have an inclination toward the not-for-profit sector, he/she is advised to leave the organisation. CEOs and senior managers thus prefer to take on people who already possess a specific level of OCBs than developing them from level zero.

This close link between voluntarism and OCB in NFPOs was confirmed in the findings of previous studies (Coyne & Ong, 2007; Jakimow, 2010). Similarly, the finding that CEOs and senior managers utilise certain HRM practices to promote OCBs was not a surprise, as many previous studies have shown a significant link between the two (Husin, Chelladurai, & Musa, 2012; Morrison, 1996; Shen, D'Netto, & Tang, 2010). However, the findings give new insight into how such selective recruitment practices are utilised within NFPOs to promote voluntarism and indirectly promote OCBs.

5.5.2 Focusing on Job Outcomes, Doing Good for Humanity

CEOs and senior managers move away from the traditional emphasis on job description to job outcomes to promote voluntarism and OCBs. By focusing on job outcomes, CEOs and senior managers give subordinates autonomy and do not micromanage them. Such an approach

increases voluntarism and promotes OCBs. When subordinates feel that their CEO and senior managers trust their ability and commitment, they put extra effort into completing their jobs without expecting extra payment. A study by Singh, Selvarajan and Chapa (2019) found that high-quality relationships within an organisation are a prerequisite for OCBs. The authors noted that freedom of identity is a mediating factor for engaging in OCBs in high-quality relationships.

When providing autonomy by not micromanaging subordinates, CEOs and senior managers are facilitating a sense of freedom of identity, helping them to affirm what they contribute to the organisation. Such a sense of freedom translates to OCBs. When CEOs and senior managers exemplify personal sacrifices and voluntarism, they become role models. Similarly, CEOs and senior managers promote voluntarism by emphasising the overall outcome of the goal of the organisation that is doing something good for humanity. By focusing on doing something good, CEOs and senior managers are tapping into the human value of benevolence. A study by Gnanarajan and Kengatharan (2021) discovered that there is a positive relationship between benevolence and teachers' willingness to engage in OCBs. The study found that when teachers have high benevolence, they engage more in OCB that benefit both the organisation and pupils. This finding gives insight into the nuances of promoting voluntarism in NFPOs for promoting OCBs.

5.6 Effectiveness of Role Modelling to Promote OCBs

Role modelling is an effective way to develop OCBs amongst subordinates; CEOs and senior managers use role modelling for OCBs as a soft influence. Similarly, CEOs and senior managers become effective role models for inspiring OCBs when they show a good example of engaging in OCBs by 'walking-the-talk'. Two factors that contribute to effective role modelling for OCBs in NFPOs are reduced power distance and the socio-cultural element of respect for elders and people in authority.

5.6.1 Role Modelling as a Soft Influence

CEOs, senior managers and subordinate staff consider the effectiveness of role modelling for OCBs to be a soft influence, but an efficient one, for behavioural change. Such an understanding of role modelling for behavioural change is in line with the opinion of other scholars, i.e., that role modelling is useful in leading others and effecting a behavioural change without coercion (Guth, Levati, Sutter, & van der Heijden, 2007; Jermier, 1991; Nygaard, Biong, Silkoset, &

Kidwell, 2015).

Both soft and hard tactics can bring about behaviour change in subordinates, however the use of soft tactics allows the subordinate the freedom to decide whether to accept the influence or reject it, whereas the use of hard tactics causes strain on the relationship between the influencing agent and the target of influence, as it is less friendly and socially desirable (Van Knippenberg & Steensma, 2003; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). Soft tactics are thus more satisfying, inspirational and rational for the target of influence (Farmer et al., 1997; Yukl et al., 1993).

The use of soft tactics to inspire others to emulate OCBs are more appealing to the not-for-profit sector, because the value-driven and mission-oriented approaches to management are more appealing to not-for-profit employees than coercion and rewards (Edwards & Fowler, 2002; Mahalinga & Suar, 2012). The approach of using role modelling as a soft influence to inspire OCBs is comparable to the use of the value-driven and mission-oriented approach to compliance in organisational management. The present study gives insight into how CEOs and senior managers utilise role modelling as a soft influence to promote OCBs in NFPOs. Role modelling for OCBs as a soft influence is effective when CEOs and senior managers provide an exemplary example of OCBs through leading by example. CEOs and senior managers also harness the organisational structure of reduced power distance and the socio-cultural factor of respect for elders and people in authority to inspire subordinates through role modelling for OCB.

5.6.2 Showing a good Example and ‘Walking-the-Talk’

For many CEOs and senior managers, leading by example and ‘walking-the-talk’ are two synonymous terms for role modelling. These terms show how CEOs and senior managers become credible role models for OCBs amongst their subordinates, i.e., when they prove their credibility and authenticity through conformity of words and action, personal integrity and moral uprightness.

Previous studies on role modelling support this finding, e.g., Morgenroth et al. (2015) stated that by building personal credibility, CEOs and senior managers provide a representation of what is possible and inspire their staff to emulate their OCBs. Role models are people to look to for values and aspiration (Gauntlett, 2003); they are a source of admiration and inspiration through their good example (Schindler, Zink, Windrich, & Menninghaus, 2013). Analogous

terms for role modelling, such as ‘walking-the-talk’ and ‘leading by example’, mean that subordinates look for authenticity, honesty and integrity in a role model before deciding to emulate their OCBs (Dinh et al., 2014; Kearns et al., 2015; Ngcobo & Tikly, 2010; Boiral, Talbot, & Paillé, 2015; Potters, Sefton, & Vesterlund, 2007; Van der Heijden & Moxnes, 2012; Yaffe & Kark, 2011). When leading by example or ‘walking-the-talk’ shows role modelling, it signifies that the role aspirant is looking for a trustworthy, reliable and authentic leader. Previous studies have highlighted that role models demonstrate to role aspirants what is ethical (Weaver et al., 2005) and what is possible (Hoyt & Simon, 2011), and inspire their subordinates to emulate their behaviours.

When CEOs and senior managers engage in OCBs to solve organisational challenges and problems, as well as show enthusiasm and commitment, they become credible champions and ideal role models. Subordinates readily imitate the OCBs of their CEOs and senior managers concerning problem-solving skills when they face similar challenges and difficulties in their work environment. As per social learning theory (Bandura, 1971), subordinates learn from observing their CEOs’ and senior managers’ problem-solving skills, and apply the same skills in their work environments in similar situations. Likewise, CEOs and senior managers become role models for OCBs by becoming people to “*look up to*” (Gauntlett, 2003) and by serving as a “*standard to strive for*” (Carver & Scheier, 1981; Lockwood et al., 2002; Lockwood & Kunda, 1997).

5.6.3 Harnessing Organisational and Socio-cultural Factors

CEOs and senior managers become effective role models for OCBs by harnessing certain organisational and socio-cultural factors. CEOs and senior managers promote reduced power distance through flatter hierarchical structures within the organisation to become effective role models. The African socio-cultural factor of respect for elders and persons in authority enhances role modelling for OCBs.

CEOs and senior managers become more effective role models for collective ownership with boundaries when they facilitate flatter hierarchies compared with traditional pyramidal organisational structures. CEOs and senior managers balance the required hierarchy for administration and the need to flatten that hierarchy by reducing the power distance between themselves and their subordinates. Subordinates feel at ease and are happier to emulate the OCBs of CEOs and senior managers when there is less power distance between them. There

are two reasons for why role modelling for OCBs is better accepted when there is less power distance, i.e., reducing the power distance builds trust and to a certain extent it facilitates a shared leadership. Past studies highlighted a close link between shared leadership and improved team performance, which is mediated by information sharing (Hoch, 2014; Zhou, Zhang, & Shen, 2017).

The African societal concept of respect for elders and people in authority influences subordinates' willingness to follow the role modelling of their CEOs and senior managers for OCBs. Subordinates feel that they have to follow the examples set by their CEOs and senior managers out of respect for their organisational positions, i.e., a decision to not follow the example set by a person in authority implicitly means being disrespectful to that person. CEOs and senior managers use the power of this social concept to become effective role models for OCBs. This finding is in contrast to previous studies, which concluded that inspiration, admiration and alignment of values are decisive factors in the decision of a role aspirant to follow a role model (Schindler et al., 2013; Taylor, Wayment, & Carrillo, 1996; Thrash & Elliot, 2004). This finding is unique to this research, although it could be linked to the findings of two studies in East Asia and Africa, which confirmed that people undertake activities, or refrain from certain activities, out of respect for elders or people in positions of authority (Sesanti, 2010; Sung, 2001).

The finding could be further understood in the light of Schwartz's theory of basic values (Schwartz, 2012). Cultural values are representations of certain ideals that shape the beliefs and actions of individuals and groups within a culture (Schwartz, 2006). These are collective abstract constructs in various forms that communicate and provide direction to members of a culture (Lönqvist et al., 2012). Individual values are subjective beliefs associated with emotions that set goals and motivate action, help to transcend particular situations, and provide evaluative standards. These values are ordered according to their relative importance (hierarchy) and guide and propel individuals' actions accordingly (Schwartz, 2012). Respect for elders and people in authority could be a value that is embedded within the lives of subordinate staff within the African community. By conforming to and emulating the behaviours of CEOs and senior managers (including OCBs) they affirm agreement in social actions, and serve as acts of survival and well-being of groups (Schwartz, 1992). This study further affirms Schwartz's theory of basic values, providing empirical evidence that individual and cultural values affect individual actions, including OCBs. This finding is unique because, although

respect for elders has been shown to influence the decisions of individuals, no studies show that the African socio-cultural factor of respect for elders is influential in emulating OCBs in NFPOs.

5.7 Group Outcomes of Promoting OCBs

Setting higher organisational benchmarks for organisational achievement and developing a brand name for the organisation are two primary outcomes of promoting OCBs within NFPOs. Additional group outcomes are organisational learning, unity, optimism and facilitating organisational change.

5.7.1 Higher Organisational Benchmark and Brand Name

When OCBs are high in an organisation, employees set higher benchmarks for organisational performance and invest extra efforts to achieve targets. Likewise, they engage in voluntary activities that promote the reputation of the organisation, gradually building up a brand name for the organisation. This outcome is mutually beneficial; the organisation benefits from higher benchmarks and a stronger brand name, and in return, employees get the satisfaction, social status and recognition of working with or for a reputable not-for-profit organisation. Extant research has also analysed other motives for engaging in OCBs, such as for altruistic or self-serving purposes (Gyekye & Haybatollahi, 2015; Wingate, Lee, & Bourdage, 2019). The researcher is not aware of any past studies that explored the complementary motive for engaging in OCBs in NFPOs. Some similar studies show that individuals could reciprocate for the benefits that they receive from engaging in OCBs (Cardona, Lawrence, & Bentler, 2004; Ma & Qu, 2011). This study's findings are unique because it offers insight into a new group outcome of OCBs, as well as a motive for engaging in OCBs in NFPOs.

5.7.2 Organisational Learning, Unity, Optimism and Willingness to Change

Another notable group outcome of promoting individual OCBs is that it facilitates organisational learning, unity and optimism. When subordinate staff have higher levels of OCBs, there is increased willingness to facilitate organisational change. The organisational citizenship behaviour of improving one's personal and professional skills facilitates organisational learning, as when employees learn as individuals, organisational learning results.

Previous studies show a positive relationship between organisational learning and OCBs (Munawaroh & Budiastusti, 2019; Saoula et al., 2018). Studies also show organisational

learning as a collection of individual learning within an organisation (Drew & Smith, 1995; Wang & Ahmed, 2003). This finding supports previous research and adds further insights into how organisational learning takes place as an outcome of promoting individual OCBs in the not-for-profit sector.

Promoting individual OCBs results in group unity and optimism, which in turn results in group synergy, i.e., people with similar values (values aligned to the not-for-profit sector) working together for a common goal. When such synergy is high, individuals will go the extra mile to learn new skills and abilities that benefit the organisation. There is optimism that these newly gained skills and capabilities will contribute positively to overcome organisational challenges and problems. The organisational learning process also calls for organisational change. When individual OCBs are high, employees will accept organisational change more readily, providing an impetus for organisational learning. Previous studies have shed light on the fact that OCBs promote cooperation (Seyed-Mehdi, 2012) and that OCBs and optimism are closely connected (Munyon, Hochwarter, Perrewé, & Ferris, 2010). Similarly, Organ and Ryan (1995) reported that those engaging in OCBs have some common attitudinal and behavioural aspects. Likewise, the behaviour of individuals with higher levels of OCBs supporting organisational change is explainable because they will sacrifice their personal interests more readily and cope with inconveniences arising from organisational changes. A study by Vigoda-Gadot and Beerli (2012) demonstrated that leadership behaviour positively influences change-oriented OCBs in public administration, compared to the classical OCBs directed at individuals and organisations. When CEOs and senior managers promote OCBs in NFPOs, there might be factors that facilitate change-oriented OCB as well. Finally, the sector's characteristic of promoting positive social change might also be a contributing factor.

This study finds organisational learning to be a group outcome of promoting individual OCBs, facilitated through high levels of unity, optimism and willingness to change. A specific OCB becomes an organisational norm over some time. This could be called a type of group OCB. Engaging in such norms becomes imperative over time, however, and loses its voluntary character. In these cases, the avoidance of such behaviours is unacceptable within the organisation. No studies have shed light on how engaging in certain OCBs by the majority becomes an organisational norm/custom. The phenomenon could be understood as an outcome of organisational learning, facilitated by OCBs, that become an integral part of the organisation.

5.8 Social Interaction and Role Modelling for OCBs

Social interactions impact the role modelling of OCBs at the individual and group levels, with CEOs and senior managers with celebrity status influencing the OCBs of subordinates most significantly. Social interactions also create a sense of togetherness that encourages subordinates to emulate the OCBs of CEOs and senior managers.

5.8.1 Celebrity Status

The social interactions of CEOs and senior managers with a celebrity status have a significant influence on role modelling for OCBs. The social status and personal or professional success of a CEO or senior manager inspires subordinate staff, who aspire to the same level of success.

Although not within the not-for-profit sector, Adamson and Kelan (2019) found that celebrity female businesswomen become role models for young women, who gain confidence to overcome, manage and push through gender barriers. Earlier studies have also shown that endorsements by celebrity positively affect fund-raising efforts for NFPOs (Hassid & Jeffreys, 2015; Park, 2016). Celebrity endorsement have shown to influence consumers' preference for a product (Ohanian, 1990; 1991). The present study adds further insights into the effect of celebrity on role modelling for OCBs in NFPOs.

When CEOs and senior managers with celebrity status interact with their subordinates, they convey the message that what was possible for them is achievable for their subordinates as well. Their role modelling for OCBs becomes more effective because they have proven themselves to be worthy of imitation (Merton, 1968) through their perceived success as a celebrity. Adding further value to previous research, the present study confirms that the social interactions of CEOs and senior managers with celebrity status positively contribute to role modelling for OCBs.

5.8.2 Sense of Togetherness

Social interactions between CEOs, senior managers and subordinates are opportunities for facilitating emotional bonds, reciprocal solidarity and support among the three groups, which encourages a sense of togetherness. Role modelling for OCBs is more effective when subordinate staff have a sense of togetherness with CEOs and senior managers. Likewise, informal social interactions are more impactful than formal social interactions for behavioural

change. Previous studies found that social interactions between CEOs, senior managers and subordinate staff facilitate knowledge sharing and management (Huang & Li, 2009) in the organisation, and consequently aid in OCB development among subordinates. Similarly, transformational leaders influence followers' emotion-focused commitment (Dvir, Kass, & Shamir, 2004), as well as how subordinates feel at work (Walls, Burgess, & Stough, 2001). Social interactions between CEOs, senior managers and subordinates make them feel appreciated and valued, and promote a collective ownership resulting from a sense of togetherness, which aids engagement in OCBs. Studies have also noted that followers determine the authenticity of a leader from their interactions with their subordinates (Fields, 2007). In this way, a subordinate gets to know their CEO and senior managers as authentic role models.

Many CEOs and senior managers consider social networking as social net worth, i.e., the net worth of benefits that a person can bring to the organisation through social networking. For this reason, they engage in and promote social interactions and social networking. These social interactions create an image of the CEO/senior manager as a person who values collaboration, teamwork and group dynamics, i.e., they became role models first for such networking and then a role model for OCBs. Similarly, organisational social events became avenues that CEOs and senior managers utilise to promote a sense of togetherness, which facilitates OCBs. A reason for social interactions aiding role modelling for OCBs could be that they help CEOs and senior managers to overcome some of the reported barriers. A study of Canadian medical professionals showed that being quiet and a lack of familiarity (expressed through difficulty in remembering names and faces) are barriers to role modelling (Wright & Carrese, 2002). Through socialisation and interactions with their subordinates, CEOs and senior managers come to know each other more personally, which helps the subordinates to accept the CEOs and senior managers as role models.

The social intelligence skills of CEOs and senior managers are an important factor in sustaining the sense of togetherness and subsequent acceptance of their role modelling for OCBs. CEOs and senior managers become role models for OCBs only when they display social intelligence and sensitivity towards the social customs, practices and attitudes of their subordinates. A lack of these negatively affects their ability to be a useful role model for OCBs.

This finding is unique in the sense that it provides new insights into how social interactions between CEOs, senior managers and subordinates promote role modelling for OCBs through facilitating a sense of togetherness.

5.9 Transformational and Transactional Factors Aiding OCBs

Salient transformational and transactional leadership factors that aid in promoting OCBs in NFPOs include inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and contingent and non-contingent rewards. The study also found that CEOs and senior managers, irrespective of their dominant leadership orientations, use certain personal and social factors in promoting OCBs, thus blurring the boundaries of leadership orientations.

5.9.1 Intellectual Stimulation and Inspirational Motivation

Through intellectual stimulation, transformational leaders encourage their followers to be creative (Bass & Bass, 2008; Guay & Choi, 2015; Jiao et al., 2011). The present study found that CEOs and senior managers promote the creativity and talents of their subordinate staff, which encourages OCBs. CEOs and senior managers promote creativity and talent by showing tolerance for errors through unconventional managerial approaches and constructive criticism. An unconventional managerial approach and showing high tolerance for errors gives subordinates the freedom and flexibility to innovate without fearing the consequences of failure. Similarly, constructive criticism functions as coaching and mentoring.

CEOs and senior managers consider mistakes as avenues for organisational learning. Allowing employees the opportunity to address their mistakes helps them to develop a sense of ownership that motivates them to find creative ways to solve organisational challenges. The result is that the OCBs of learning at the workplace, developing professional skills voluntarily and engaging in civic virtues, increases. Empirical studies have stressed the role of learning from mistakes in the workplace (Harteis, Bauer, & Gruber, 2008; Marsick & Watkins, 2001; Piggott, 2008). Piggott (2008), for instance, the effective management of mistakes and errors in the workplace facilitates both individual and organisational learning. Similarly, Harteis et al. (2008) found that personal reflection on one's mistakes is a prerequisite for learning from those mistakes. In this study's context, tolerance for mistakes gives employees the opportunity for personal reflection, finding creative solutions to organisational challenges. CEOs and senior managers

facilitate that reflection, leading to increased creativity, the development of talent and increased engagement in OCBs.

An unconventional managerial approach denotes using sanctioned and unsanctioned, but legitimate, process and procedures within the organisation. When CEOs and senior managers use such an approach, subordinate staff gain a sense of being trusted and have the freedom to think out of the box to innovate. Similarly, constructive criticism by the CEOs and senior managers functions as coaching and mentoring to develop creativity and talents. Cooper and Sigmar (2012) noted that constructive criticism contributes to higher job satisfaction and employee motivation, improving the quality of workplace relationships. An unconventional managerial approach and constructive criticism provides freedom, motivation and a quality workplace relationship that fosters creativity and talent.

Previous studies have noted that transformational leaders promote creativity and innovation and form future leaders (Bass & Bass, 2008; Guay & Choi, 2015; Jiao et al., 2011). However, there is a debate about whether OCBs promote creativity or creativity promotes OCBs (Majid & Cohen, 2015; Podsakoff et al., 2014; Podsakoff et al., 2009; Seyed-Mehdi, 2012). The experiences of CEOs and senior managers in NFPOs in Tanzania are an example of creativity and innovation triggering OCBs among staff. This finding affirms that the transformational leadership factor of intellectual stimulation, by promoting creativity and talents, promotes OCBs in NFPOs. This study thus advances our understanding of the transformational leadership factor of intellectual stimulation, as well as the nuances of how transformational leaders promote creativity and talents, providing intellectual stimulation for employees in NFPOs that encourage OCBs.

CEOs and senior managers use another transformational leadership factor, inspirational motivation, to promote OCBs in NFPOs. These leaders project their own personal and professional successes within or outside the organisation to inspire subordinates to be achievers. CEOs and senior managers also empower their subordinate staff to be successful through training, special assignments and exposure for professional growth. When CEOs and senior managers encourage their subordinate staff to be successful, they engage more in OCBs.

The phenomenon of subordinate staff engaging in OCBs when challenged to be successful is in line with previous studies, which showed that transformational leadership provides inspirational motivation by providing meaning and challenge to their work (Bass & Bass, 2008).

Similarly, empowering subordinate staff to be successful is done by transformational leaders promoting leadership development, and helping their followers to become transformational leaders themselves (Kuhnert, 1994; Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003).

When successful CEOs or senior managers engage in OCBs, their subordinates readily copy such behaviours. Such a phenomenon occurs through the idealised influence of a transformational leader who becomes a role model for his/her followers (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Kark & Dijk, 2007; Zdaniuk & Bobocel, 2015). Similarly, transformational leaders become role models when they embody efficiency in finding solutions, especially in times of troubles and challenges, motivating the staff to engage in OCBs.

5.9.2 Contingent and Non-Contingent Rewards

Although OCBs do not include an element of reward or transaction, certain indirect transactional factors motivate employees to engage in OCBs in NFPOs. Quantitative data from the MLQ survey evidenced that CEOs and senior managers prefer to use contingent rewards to motivate their staff, such as providing welfare packages. Such benefits influence the willingness of staff to engage in OCBs. Given that all the participants in the MLQ scored an above average score on contingent rewards, this corroborated the finding. Even CEOs and senior managers with a high score for transformational leadership orientation scored above average on the contingent reward question.

Explicit contingent rewards that influence one's intention to engage in OCBs include the expectation or existence of welfare packages, a bonus payment for creativity, and other direct or indirect financial benefits. Although these transactional benefits are not immediately available to those engaging in OCBs, the expectation or the existence of a reward is influential. Employees engage in OCBs if such engagement has an associated expectation for future promotion, an opportunity for personal or professional development, or an opportunity for travelling abroad. CEOs and senior managers promote such expectations to encourage OCBs.

To encourage staff to engage in OCBs through non-contingent rewards, CEOs and senior managers show positive appreciation for employees' contributions to the organisation. CEOs and senior managers use social media platforms and other digital technologies to appreciate their employees, as well as to improve communication. By leveraging non-contingent rewards to promote OCBs, CEOs and senior managers use the force of intrinsic motivation. Previous studies highlight that intrinsic and non-monetary benefits affect people's intentions to engage

in OCBs (Brown, Hyatt, & Benson, 2010; Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000). The presence of a reward, either contingent or non-contingent, motivates staff to engage in OCBs as a way to give back to the organisation for the benefits that they have received. In doing so, employees also have the intrinsic satisfaction of contributing to their organisation (Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000). Similarly, previous studies showed that transactional leaders develop confidence through distributive justice (Dai, Dai, Chen, & Wu, 2013), i.e., distributive justice facilitated by transactional elements augments trust and confidentiality, promoting OCBs.

Studies support the assumption that rewards influence OCBs, despite scholars having questioned the assumption that OCBs are the entirely unrewarded voluntary activities of employees that benefit organisations (Haworth & Levy, 2001; Walumbwa, Wu, & Orwa, 2008). Ravlin, Adkins, Kim and Ward (2015) found that intrinsic rewards affect OCBs, while others have shown that rewards influence the intention to engage in OCBs when OCBs themselves are a factor in an employee performance evaluation (Haworth & Levy, 2001; Walumbwa et al., 2008). Others found that employees engage in OCBs if they expect some sort of reward later (Dávila & Finkelstein, 2010; Finkelstein & Penner, 2004; Ravlin et al., 2015).

This finding shows that contingent and non-contingent rewards influence subordinates' motivations to engage in OCBs, however the commonly held assumption is that OCBs are free of any expectation of rewards. The experiences of Tanzanian CEOs and senior managers reveal that CEOs and senior managers use contingent rewards such as welfare packages, bonuses for creativity and the existence/expectations of career development opportunities as leveraging factors for promoting OCBs amongst subordinate staff. Appreciating subordinate staff personally and through social media platforms, and subordinates' satisfaction with contributing to the organisation, are non-contingent rewards used to promote OCBs.

5.9.3 Considering Personal and Socio-Cultural Factors

Certain factors that develop both OCBs and role modelling span across leadership styles, such as age, work experience, devotion to work and African socio-cultural factors. Young employees with only a few years of work experience prefer to engage in OCBs for transactional benefits, whereas intrinsic motivation is more effective among older staff who have many years of work experience. Employees with a high level of devotion to their work engage in OCBs, irrespective of their age, work experience or rewards. These devotees require little intervention from their CEOs and senior managers when it comes to engaging in OCBs. The African culture of

collaborative discussion is expressed by people talking to each other and contributing to the willingness of employees to engage in OCBs, while the African culture of respect for elders and those in authority influences role modelling for OCBs.

Subordinate staff expend extra effort in the form of OCBs to realise organisational goals when there are collaborative deliberations and decisions. Promoting discussion and dialogue were not typical of either transformational or transactional leadership styles in the study context. In previous studies, a ‘collective’ or ‘distributed’ leadership was found useful in both not-for-profit and for-profit sector management (Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm, & McKee, 2014; Hailey, 2006). Leadership that provides special consideration for age and work experience could be compared to the transformational leadership orientation of individualised consideration because, by facilitating collaborative discussions for decision-making, CEOs and senior managers provide individual consideration. Similarly, encouraging OCBs through transactional benefits could be considered a transactional leadership style, however this study showed that these actions are not exclusive to any one leadership style in particular. Rather, both transformational and transactional leaders use such interventions interchangeably.

Appreciating colleagues and promoting creativity and innovation are considered transformational leadership orientations (Bass & Bass, 2008; Guay & Choi, 2015; Jiao et al., 2011), yet CEOs and senior managers, irrespective of leadership orientation, use digital platforms to appreciate and recognise the contributions of their subordinates and promote innovations and initiatives.

This finding is in contrast to a previous study by Frey (1997, p. 428), who theorised that “*the use of extrinsic incentives may crowd out intrinsic work motivation under identifiable conditions*”. However, this study provides empirical evidence that shows that extrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation to engage in OCBs can co-exist. The reason for this apparent contradiction could be because in NFPOs in Tanzania, one or more of the requirements for work morale to be crowded out by external interventions (extrinsic motivation/rewards) might be absent in the study context, or certain African socio-cultural factors might be influential enough to trigger the opposite result to Frey’s (1997) theory on the crowding out effect.

5.10 Mitigating the Challenges and Bottlenecks

CEOs and senior managers promote OCBs among their staff by mitigating challenges and bottlenecks associated with role modelling for OCBs. The challenges include a diminished

quality of work-life balance due to work overload, and occurrence of bullying. Similar to findings from previous studies (Bolino & Turnley, 2005; Koopman et al., 2016), promoting OCBs in NFPOs sometimes affects the quality of work-life balance and results in work overload in NFPOs. CEOs and senior managers mitigate such effects by encouraging the staff to take their leave days, allotting staff free days to be with their families, and arranging organisational level social gatherings. The experiences of the CEOs and senior managers in this study were akin to the findings of previous studies (Bolino & Turnley, 2005; Koopman et al., 2016), which reported inevitable negative consequences of OCBs. However, the negative consequence of employees engaging in OCBs for self-serving purposes, as reported by Spector (2013), was not found in this study.

CEOs and senior managers have to mitigate certain barriers to become effective role models for OCBs. Incompetent leaders are often bullies rather than role models, which stops subordinates from emulating their OCBs. For this reason, the CEOs and senior managers in this study made sure that their employees do not fear them, as when employees fear punitive actions by management or have a sense of insecurity regarding losing their job, role modelling is not effective. Role modelling for OCBs is also ineffective if subordinate staff are lazy and/or unmotivated.

CHAPTER 6

KEY RESEARCH FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the key findings, the implications for NFPOs, conclusions and the limitations of the study.

6.2 Summary of Research Findings

This study was conducted within the broader discipline of organisational management and leadership, focusing selectively on not-for-profit organisations in Tanzania. The study explored how, and to what extent, CEOs and senior managers promote organisational citizenship behaviours in not-for-profit organisations, and the effectiveness of role modelling.

Promoting a service-oriented culture in not-for-profit organisations mitigates certain management and sector-specific leadership challenges. Organisational citizenship facilitates a service-oriented culture in organisations; leaders influence the behaviours of their followers, either by being a role model through idealised influence or through contingent and non-contingent rewards. Mitigating some challenges of NFPOs calls for a transformational leadership that promotes organisational citizenship behaviours, which will enhance organisational effectiveness and performance.

A review of the literature revealed that most studies on OCBs and role modelling were conducted within the context of for-profit organisations. As not-for-profit organisations have unique contexts, environments, management and leadership, what suits a for-profit organisation might not fit a not-for-profit organisation, however. Literature also provided evidence that rewards influence OCBs, yet there is limited research on how CEOs and senior managers use rewards to promote OCBs within NFPOs.

There is also limited empirical evidence about the effectiveness of role modelling for OCBs and the effect of social interactions on role modelling for OCBs. Further studies are thus required to better understand what, and how, transformational and transactional leadership orientations promote OCBs among subordinate staff and its group outcomes. There was a knowledge gap regarding what rewards CEOs and senior managers use in their efforts to

promote OCBs among their subordinate staff, therefore this study addressed the following overarching research questions:

- How, and to what extent, do CEOs and senior managers foster and promote organisational citizenship behaviours?
- How effective is role modelling for OCBs?

The following sub-questions were addressed for further understanding:

- How do CEOs and senior managers utilise transformational or transactional leadership styles to promote OCBs, and what are the group outcomes?
- What contingent and non-contingent rewards do CEOs and senior managers utilise to promote OCBs in not-for-profit organisations, and how?
- How, and to what extent, does role modelling of organisational citizenship behaviours by CEOs and senior managers influence the OCBs of other employees?
- How, and to what extent, do the social interactions of CEOs and senior managers with their subordinates influence role modelling for OCBs?

The researcher utilised a phenomenological methodology using a mixed-method design, which explored the lived experiences of people involved in NFPOs, to find answers to the research questions. CEOs, senior managers and subordinate staff were interviewed to understand these lived experiences. The researcher used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) to understand the transformational and transactional leadership orientations of the CEOs and senior managers, by analysing the quantitative data using necessary descriptive and inferential statistical procedures. The average score of each scale was compared to the established leadership score published in the MLQ manual, in order to identify the dominant leadership orientation of CEOs and senior managers. The non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test was used to understanding the internal consistency of the leadership scales, while the Friedman ANOVA test was used to understand the variations in leadership style subscale scores of the participants. The researcher analysed the qualitative data from a phenomenological perspective, looking for emerging themes, sub themes and categories, to answer the research questions. The researcher then analysed the findings further using a relationship matrix table, before discussing the

findings and drawing conclusions. The following section provides a summary of the key findings.

6.3 Promoting OCBs in NFPOs

One of the primary research questions was: How, and to what extent, do CEOs and senior managers foster and promote organisational citizenship behaviours? The second asked: How effective is role modelling for OCBs? The study found that CEOs and senior managers promote OCBs by encouraging specific attitudes and outlooks, promoting collective ownership with boundaries, and promoting voluntarism.

6.3.1 Promoting OCBs through Attitudes and Outlooks

CEOs and senior managers promote OCBs among their subordinate staff by encouraging certain attitudes and outlooks. These include fostering an attitude of empathy, promoting equality, respect and transparency. CEOs and senior managers foster empathy by listening to their staff, providing them with support when necessary, and showing understanding instead of admonishing when errors occur. Ensuring equality and respect among staff, regardless of employment status and hierarchical position, instils a sense of fairness and justice, encouraging OCBs. CEOs and senior managers promote organisational transparency, which gives employees the opportunity to recognise the bigger picture of the organisation and engage in OCBs. Promoting specific attitudes and outlooks in the organisation also augment subordinates' sense of collective ownership of the organisation.

6.3.2 Promoting OCBs through Collective Ownership with Boundaries

CEOs and senior managers in NFPOs promote OCBs by facilitating collective ownership, with boundaries, for individuals to function within the organisation. Collective responsibilities for organisational problem-solving and resource mobilisation are prominent characteristics of this collective ownership. CEOs and senior managers promote organisational democracy, an organisational family culture and an organisational team culture in order to develop a sense of collective ownership and facilitate individual roles within that collective ownership.

Organisational democratic practices that promote collective ownership and OCBs include collaborative planning and decision-making, as well as freedom of expression, grievances and differences of opinion within the organisation. Organisational family culture means considering

and managing the not-for-profit organisation as one's family. Such consideration of the organisation as a family involves supporting each other in difficulties and celebrating organisational and personal events together. An organisational team culture promotes teamwork and collaboration among staff, and facilitates achieving organisational goals as teams, not as individuals.

By promoting an organisational team culture, CEOs and senior managers encourage OCBs to be seen as loyalty to the organisation, and avoid coercion when it comes to compliance with organisational rules and regulations. CEOs and senior managers use organisational best practices, such as accountability, good communication, sharing and learning at work, to enhance the organisational team culture.

Promoting collective ownership instils in subordinates a sense of being valued and belonging to the organisation, which promotes OCBs. The philosophies of collectivism and Ubuntu provide a foundation for the strong affinity for, and acceptance of, collective ownership of not-for-profit organisations.

6.3.3 Promoting OCBs through Voluntarism

CEOs and senior managers promote OCBs by endorsing voluntarism. Promoting voluntarism is analogous to promoting OCBs in not-for-profit organisations. The altruistic motive of engaging in voluntary service to the organisation and helping one's co-workers is comparable to organisational citizenship behaviours.

To promote voluntarism, CEOs and senior managers recruit employees who have a passion for the not-for-profit sector, and encourage subordinate staff to focus on their job outcome of doing good for the humanity. CEOs and senior managers coach and mentor their subordinates in not-for-profit values, developing in them a sense of doing something good for humanity. When employees do not excel in voluntarism, they are encouraged to leave the organisation.

6.4 Effectiveness of Role Modelling for OCBs

The study also undertook to assess how effective role modelling is for OCBs. The finding is that it is effective as a soft influence capable of creating behavioural change without coercion. Role modelling for OCBs is effective when CEOs and senior managers provide an exemplary

example through leading by example and ‘walking-the-talk’. These prove their credibility and authenticity through conformity of words and action, personal integrity and moral uprightness.

CEOs and senior managers become effective role models for OCBs when they facilitate the organisational structure of reduced power distance, and promote OCBs through collective ownership with boundaries when they become champions of collective planning, problem solving, resource mobilisation, organisational democracy, organisational family culture and organisational team culture.

This study also found that bullying, fearfulness and laziness are barriers to role modelling for OCBs.

6.5 Transformational and Transactional Leadership Factors and Group Outcomes

The study found that both transformational and transactional leadership factors contribute to promoting organisational citizenship behaviours in not-for-profit organisations. CEOs and senior managers are willing to blur the boundaries of transformational and transactional leadership styles to promote the OCBs of their subordinate staff. Transformational factors that help promote OCBs include intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation, with intellectual stimulation being encouraged by a tolerance for errors, applying unconventional managerial approaches and engaging in constructive criticism. CEOs and senior managers provide inspirational motivation to their subordinate staff by encouraging them to be achievers both personally and professionally; staff are motivated to be successful through empowerment, special assignments and exposure to professional growth.

Transformational and transactional leaders consider factors such as age, work experience, devotion to work and African socio-cultural dynamics to promote OCBs. Young subordinates with only a few years of work experience are motivated by transactional, contingent and non-contingent benefits and rewards, whereas employees who are devoted to work do not require motivational interventions to engage in OCBs. CEOs and senior managers, irrespective of their leadership orientations, encourage the African culture of collaborative discussion and dialogue to promote OCBs. Subordinate staff provide extra effort (in the form of OCBs) to realise organisational goals set through collaborative deliberations and decisions. Similarly, CEOs and senior managers, irrespective of leadership orientation, use digital platforms to appreciate and recognise the contributions of their subordinates and promote OCBs.

Group outcomes of promoting OCBs include employees being willing to set higher benchmarks for organisational performance, building a brand name for the organisation, and organisational learning through unity, optimism and willingness to change. Certain OCBs develop into an organisational norm over time, coming to function as a type of group OCB. Engaging in such norms becomes imperative over time, leading them to lose their voluntary character.

6.6 Use of Contingent and Non-Contingent Rewards to Promote OCBs

The study found that both contingent and non-contingent rewards influence subordinates' motivation to engage in OCBs. Contingent rewards, such as welfare packages, bonuses for creativity and the existence/expectations of career development opportunities are used as leverage for promoting OCBs. Appreciating subordinate staff personally and through social media platforms, as well as the satisfaction of contributing to the organisation, are non-contingent rewards that CEOs and senior managers use to promote OCBs.

6.7 Subordinate Staff Emulating the OCBs of CEOs and Senior Managers

Subordinates emulate the OCBs of CEOs and senior managers when they are authentic and competent role models with positive attitudes who routinely engage in OCBs with enthusiasm and consistency. CEOs and senior managers build their idealised influence through personal and professional qualities, including professional competency, transparency, religious affinity, approachability and a positive attitude.

Visibility and physical proximity also aid role modelling for OCBs. Subordinate staff emulate the OCBs of CEOs and senior managers who are physically closer and more visible to them than those who are not visible or are only infrequently seen engaging in OCBs.

The African societal concept of respect for elders or people in authority influences role modelling for OCBs. Subordinates feel that they have to follow the examples set by their CEOs and senior managers out of respect for their organisational position, not necessarily because of admiration or inspiration.

6.8 Social Interactions and Role Modelling for OCBs

Social interactions impact the role modelling of OCBs, with CEOs and senior managers with celebrity status most significantly influencing the OCBs of subordinates. Social interactions also create a sense of togetherness that encourages subordinates to emulate leaders' OCBs.

Celebrity status inspires a subordinate to be successful like their CEO or senior manager. When such CEOs or senior managers engage in OCBs, their subordinate staff actively emulate such behaviours. Social interactions between CEOs, senior managers and subordinates facilitate emotional bonds, reciprocal solidarity and mutual support, developing at the same time a sense of togetherness. Role modelling for OCBs is more effective when subordinate staff have a sense of togetherness with CEOs and senior managers.

The social interactions of CEOs and senior managers help subordinate staff to evaluate their authenticity, social net worth and social intelligence, based on which they accept or reject them as role models for OCBs.

6.9 Conclusion and Implications of the Study

Table 17 presents a comparative analysis of the characteristics of OCBs and role modelling within for-profit and not-for-profit organisations.

Table 17: Comparative Analysis of OCB Characteristics and the Effectiveness of Role Modelling

For-profit organisations	Not-for-profit organisations
Promoting OCBs	
Promoting employee job satisfaction promotes OCBs (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Seyed-Mehdi, 2012; Anderson, 2021; Hidayah & Harnoto, 2018; Margahana et al., 2018).	Promoting attitudes and outlooks that include empathy, equality, respect and transparency promote OCBs within not-for-profit organisations.
Promoting positive psychological contract promotes OCBs (Gupta, Agarwal & Khatri, 2016; Tufan & Wendt, 2020; Coyle-Shapiro, 2002).	Promoting collective ownership with boundaries and voluntarism promotes organisational citizenship behaviours in not-for-profit organisations.
Improving perceived organisational justice (making employees feel treated fairly and their contributions valued) promotes OCBs (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993; Restubog et al., 2008).	Collective ownership is developed through promoting a sense of ownership, usefulness, responsibility, organisational democracy, organisational family culture and organisational team culture.
Improving employee job embeddedness (Lee et	Voluntarism is promoted through the selective

<p>al.,2004; Mcbain, 2004) promotes OCBs.</p> <p>Implementing certain HRM practices and informal systems, including selective recruitment, promotes OCBs (Bolino et al., 2003; Decko et al., 2004; Donavan et al., 2004).</p> <p>Promoting cultural rootedness of collectivism promotes OCBs (Ueda, 2011; Cohen, 2006).</p>	<p>recruitment of employees who have a passion for not-for-profit values, focusing on the job outcome of doing good for humanity, and providing mentoring and coaching for employees to develop not-for-profit organisational values.</p>
<p>For-profit organisations</p>	<p>Not-for-profit organisations</p>

<p>Effectiveness of Role Modelling</p>

<p>Role modelling is effective in leading people without coercion and bringing about behavioural change, attitudes and/or beliefs, and motivates them to achieve goals (Morgenroth et al., 2015).</p> <p>Role modelling effectively promotes entrepreneurship (Farrukh et al., 2019), influences subordinates' behaviours and motivates them to set ambitious goals (Weiss, 1977; Morgenroth et al., 2015; Lockwood et al., 2002).</p> <p>Role modelling influences career choices (Quimby & Santis, 2006; Stout et al., 2011; Gibson, 2003; Wolbrecht & Campbell, 2007; Calalyst, 2003; Shairo et al., 1978; Singh, Vinnicombe & James, 2006), and boosts political activism in young people (Campbell & Wolbrecht, 2006).</p> <p>Role modelling motivates employees to unlock their potential and overcome their weaknesses</p>	<p>Role modelling for OCBs is a soft influence capable of bringing about behavioural change without coercion.</p> <p>Role modelling for OCBs is effective when CEOs and senior managers provide an exemplary example through leading by example and 'walking-the talk'.</p> <p>Leading by example and 'walking-the-talk' proves the credibility and authenticity of CEOs and senior managers through conformity of words and action, personal integrity and moral uprightness.</p> <p>CEOs and senior managers become effective role models for OCBs when they facilitate an organisational structure of reduced power distance.</p> <p>CEOs and senior managers become effective role models for OCBs when they become champions in promoting collective ownership with boundaries.</p> <p>CEOs and senior managers become effective role</p>
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<p>(Lockwood, 2006; Lockwood et al., 2002), Role modelling helps to avoid potential failures (Carver & Scheier, 1981; Lockwood et al., 2002; Lockwood & Kunda, 1997).</p> <p>Role modelling is effective as symbols of possibility (Chung, 2000).</p> <p>Role modelling influence the personal values of the role aspirants (Schindler et al., 2013; Thrash & Elliot, 2004; Ruiz-Palomino & Martinez-Canas, 2011).</p> <p>Role modelling is effective in imparting professional values for doctors and nurses (Perry, 2009; Paice, 2002; Cruess et al., 2008).</p> <p>Role modelling is effective in inspiring group OCBs (Yaffe & Kark, 2011).</p>	<p>models of OCBs when they promote voluntarism through ‘walking-the-talk’ and show an example of personal sacrifice.</p> <p>Bullying, fearfulness and laziness are barriers to being an effective role model for OCBs.</p>
<p>For-profit organisations</p>	<p>Not-for-profit organisations</p>
<p>Transformational and Transactional Leadership Orientations promoting OCBs</p>	
<p>Transformational leadership encourages followers to go beyond the call of duty and do more than what is expected (Bass, 1999).</p> <p>Empirical studies show that transformational leaders promote OCBs amongst their followers (Connel, 2005; Guay & Choi, 2015; Nahum-Shani & Somech, 2011; Jiao, Richards & Zhang, 2011; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006).</p> <p>Transformational leaders augment transactional leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006) and utilise rewards to influence their followers (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).</p>	<p>The transactional leadership factors of intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation promote OCBs within not-for-profit organisations.</p> <p>Intellectual stimulation occurs when there is tolerance for errors, unconventional managerial approaches and constructive criticism.</p> <p>Inspirational motivation occurs when leaders encourage staff to be achievers, both professionally and personally.</p> <p>There are factors that blur the boundaries of transformational and transactional leadership factors, e.g., personal and socio-cultural factors in</p>

<p>Transactional leaders encourage compliance from followers through rewards (both contingent and non-contingent) and contingent punishments (Bass, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1999; Odumeru & Ogbonna, 2013).</p> <p>Transactional leaders influence their followers through contingent, constructive and corrective rewards (Bass & Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1999; Avolio & Bass, 2002).</p> <p>Rewards influence willingness and intention to engage in OCBs (Ravlin et al., 2015; Haworth & Levy, 2001; Walumbwa, Wu & Orwa, 2008; Schnake & Dumler, 1997; Brown, Byatt & Benson, 2010; Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000; Restubog et al., 2008, Finkelstein & Penner, 2004).</p> <p>Promoting OCBs results in positive outcomes for organisations (Organ, 1998). These outcomes include: reduced managerial costs through better employee engagement (Organ, 1998, Podsakoff et al., 2000), improved task-goal interdependencies among organisational groups (Mcbain, 2004), increased organisational productivity, profitability and reduced employee turnover (Podsakoff et al., 2009; Nemeth & Staw, 1989; Podsakoff et al., 2000).</p>	<p>promoting OCBs is not particular to any leadership orientation. Likewise, the use of contingent and non-contingent rewards is also not limited to transactional leadership.</p> <p>Both contingent and non-contingent rewards influence the OCBs of subordinate staff in not-for-profit organisations. Contingent rewards used to promote OCBs include the existence/expectation of welfare packages, bonuses, career development and other exposure opportunities.</p> <p>Non-contingent rewards used to promote OCBs include positive appreciation, either directly and/or over social media platforms, and subordinate staff's satisfaction of contributing to the organisation.</p> <p>The group outcomes of promoting OCBs within not-for-profit organisations include employees being willing to set higher benchmarks for organisational performance and promoting organisational learning through unity, optimism and willingness to change.</p> <p>A notable after effect of organisational learning is that certain OCBs become organisational norms and function like group OCBs. However, engaging in such norm(s) becomes imperative and, over time, loses its voluntary character.</p>
For-profit organisations	Not-for-profit organisations
Emulating the OCBs of CEOs and Senior Managers through Role Modelling	
The idealised influence of the transformational	Subordinates emulate the OCBs of CEOs and

<p>leader makes a leader a role model for their followers (Bass, 1999; Avolio et al., 2009; Dinh et al., 2014). This influence results from both the behaviours of the leader and the attributes of the followers (Barbuto, 2005).</p> <p>Role aspirants emulate a role model's behaviour if he/she believes that the set example is attainable (Hoyt, 2013; Hoyt et al., 2012; Hoyt & Simon, 2011, Lockwood & Kunda,1997).</p> <p>Effective role modelling includes consistency and routine in showing the exemplified behaviour (Weaver et al., 2005).</p> <p>Role models need to display enthusiasm for engaging in exemplified behaviours or personal values (Ambrozy et al., 1997).</p> <p>Role aspirants follow a role model when there is trust between the two (Hawes & Rich, 1998), and when the role model displays a positive attitude (Perry, 2009), persistence and integrity (Sanderse, 2013).</p> <p>Other factors, such as a role aspirant's expectancy to achieve similar success to that of the role model, identification with the leader, the leader's and follower's aspirations, perceptions about the leader's performance, the belief that there is still a chance to win/achieve, and the expectancy that role aspirants' ability will improve over time (Hoyt et al., 2012; Taylor, Wayment, & Carrillo, 1996; Thomas, Dickson, & Bliese, 2001), facilitate role</p>	<p>senior managers who are authentic, competent, have a positive attitude, and engage in OCBs with enthusiasm, consistency and routine.</p> <p>They also emulate the OCBs of CEOs and senior managers who are physically closer and more visible to them than those who are not visible or infrequently seen engaging in OCBs.</p> <p>The African societal concept of respect for elders or people in authority influences role modelling for OCBs. Subordinate staff emulate the OCBs of their CEOs and senior managers out of respect for their position and authority, not necessarily because of admiration and inspiration.</p>
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modelling.	
For-profit organisations	Not-for-profit organisations
Social Interactions and Role Modelling for OCBs	
<p>Social interactions facilitate social learning (Hurst et al., 2013; Friedkin, 1998).</p> <p>One can learn through an examination of underlying assumptions facilitated through social interactions, which leads to a change in attitude and behaviours (Mezirow, 1997).</p> <p>Social interactions influence one's opinions and views (Stevenson & Greenberg, 2000; Erikson, 1998; Prel et al., 2010).</p> <p>Social interactions facilitate learning through information transmission and deliberations (Newing et al., 2010; Rist et al., 2007).</p> <p>Groups learn as social units as opposed to individuals who learn independently, and produce group outcomes through social interactions (Armitage et al., 2008; Solomon, 2006; Janis, 1989).</p> <p>The social interactions of role models influence role aspirants' acceptance of them (Weiss, 1997; Berlow & Hall, 1996; Huang & Li, 2009), although some studies have found that social interactions are not always necessary for the acceptance of the role model if the role aspirant values other factors more (Javidan et al., 1995).</p> <p>Social interactions improve professional skills (Lalonde, 2010; Ajjawi & Higgs, 2008) and</p>	<p>The social interactions of CEOs and senior managers impact role modelling for OCBs, with celebrity status exerting the strongest influence.</p> <p>Influence comes from the perceived successes of CEOs and senior managers, with subordinate emulating their behaviours, including OCBs.</p> <p>Social interactions create a sense of togetherness that encourages subordinates to emulate the OCBs of CEOs and senior managers. A sense of togetherness is created through emotional bonds, reciprocal solidarity and mutual support, which is reinforced through social interactions.</p> <p>The social interactions of CEOs and senior managers help subordinate staff to evaluate the authenticity, social net worth and social intelligence of CEOs and senior managers, and accept or reject them as role models for OCBs.</p>

employee performance (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Edeh & Comfort, 2019), facilitate learning the organisational culture (Luca, 2016), and reduce work-related stress (Pooja et al., 2016).	
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There are similarities and differences when it comes to promoting organisational citizenship behaviours, their characteristics, and the effectiveness of role modelling within for-profit and not-for-profit organisations.

A comparative analysis reveals that promoting job satisfaction, positive psychological contracts, improving perceived organisational justice, increasing employee job embeddedness, promoting cultural rootedness of collectivism, and implementing HRM practices that include selective recruitment and informal systems promotes the OCBs of employees within the for-profit sector. The present study adds further insights into how CEOs and senior managers can promote OCBs among employees in not-for-profit organisations.

HRM practices that include the selective recruitment of employees with a passion for not-for-profit values work similarly to promote OCBs in both the for-profit and not-for-profit sectors. Promoting the cultural rootedness of collectivism promoted OCBs in for-profit organisations, and encouraging collective ownership with boundaries for individual to functions promoted OCBs in NFPOs. There are noticeable differences in the way that OCBs can be promoted in not-for-profit organisations compared to for-profit organisations.

Within not-for-profit organisations, promoting attitudes and outlooks that include empathy, equality, respect and transparency encourages OCBs among employees, as does promoting collective ownership with boundaries and encouraging voluntarism. The implication of this finding is that if not-for-profit organisations want to promote OCBs and mitigate certain sector-specific challenges, efforts should be directed at the attitudes and outlooks of employees. Likewise, the cultural contexts of organisations need to be considered when promoting OCBs.

Role modelling as a tool for behavioural change is effective in both for-profit and not-for-profit organisations. In both sectors, role modelling works as a soft but effective influence to bring about behavioural change without coercion. Previous studies within the for-profit sector shed light on what role modelling can achieve without coercion. For instance, studies have shown that role modelling promotes entrepreneurship, can change the personal values of role aspirants,

helps subordinate staff set ambitious goals, assists role aspirants to make career choices, boosts political activism in young people, helps employees to unlock their potential and overcome their weaknesses, and helps prevent potential failures. Role modelling also function as a symbol of future possibility for role aspirants. The present study investigated the effectiveness of role modelling specifically for promoting organisational citizenship behaviours. While the focus of extant studies in the for-profit sector is on what role models can achieve, the present study expands our understanding of how role modelling effectiveness for promoting OCBs can be achieved within not-for-profit organisations.

To be effective in promoting the OCBs of subordinate staff, a role model has to provide an exemplary example of engagement by ‘walking-the-talk’. This means that a role model for OCBs needs to prove his/her credibility and authenticity through conformity of words and actions, personal integrity and moral uprightness. Reducing the power distance between CEOs, senior managers and subordinate staff is a prerequisite for becoming an effective role model for OCBs, i.e., CEOs and senior managers should pay attention to the organisational structure if the organisation wants to promote OCBs through role modelling. Not-for-profit organisations should thus have a flatter structure that facilitates collaboration, a reduced hierarchical distance and promote collective responsibility.

Prior studies in for-profit organisations provided evidence that transformational leadership significantly affects organisational citizenship behaviours and role modelling. Transformational leaders promote OCBs by inspiring their followers to go beyond the call of duty, i.e., they become role models for their followers through idealised influence. Empirical studies prove that transactional leadership encourages compliance from followers through the use of rewards and contingent punishments. In addition, research shows that transformational leadership enhances transactional leadership, both of which are influential in promoting OCBs and role modelling for OCBs. CEOs and senior managers, irrespective of their leadership orientations, use contingent and non-contingent rewards to promote OCBs. The implications of this for not-for-profit organisations are that organisational management should consider the diligent use of contingent and non-contingent rewards, and introduce an appropriate reward system while promoting OCBs. The leadership in NFPOs should be willing to blurr the boundaries of transformational and transactional leadership styles to promote OCBs.

In the for-profit sector, promoting OCBs results in certain group outcomes, including reduced managerial and organisational costs, improved employee engagement, improved task-goal

interdependencies among groups, increased organisational productivity and reduced employee turnover. Within not-for-profit organisations, promoting OCBs has the following group outcomes: employees are willing to set higher benchmarks for organisational performance, they promote unity, they are optimistic, and they are willing to adapt to organisational change. The findings imply that not-for-profit organisations can leverage the benefits of promoting OCBs among their employees. When employees will work harder without expecting extra remuneration to achieve higher organisational performance benchmarks, the organisation stands to benefit from reduced managerial and organisational costs. Organisational unity, optimism and willingness to adapt to organisational change have a positive outcome for employee well-being and could cause reduced employee turnover.

Studies in for-profit organisations found that the idealised influence of a leader makes him/her a role model for followers. Similarly, within not-for-profit organisations, the idealised influence of the CEOs and senior managers contributes to subordinate staff's willingness to emulate their OCBs. Likewise, the belief that behaviours are worth imitating, are attainable, and display consistency, routine and enthusiasm, are all true for both for-profit and not-for-profit organisations. Again, building trust, displaying a positive attitude, physical proximity and visibility are all requirements for role aspirants to imitate the behaviours of a role model in both for-profit and not-for-profit organisations. A notable difference in the not-for-profit organisation is that subordinate staff will emulate the OCBs of the CEOs and senior managers because of the African social concept of respect for the elders or people in authority. Previous studies in for-profit organisations affirmed that individuals follow role models because of admiration and inspiration that the model provides for them. However, the finding of the present study affirms that individuals can emulate the behaviours/actions of the role model even when there is no admiration or inspiration, only certain socio-cultural values. This study affirms Schwartz's (2012) theory of basic values, i.e., that individual and cultural values affect the decisions and actions of an individual. This finding implies that the CEOs and senior managers who promote the OCBs of their staff and inspire them to follow their example should have both emotional and social intelligence to guide the subordinate staff in their journey of developing and engaging in OCBs.

Past studies within for-profit organisations provided insights into the effect of social interactions on social learning and role modelling. The present study similarly investigated how social interactions affect role modelling for OCBs within not-for-profit organisations. Within

for-profit organisations, social interactions facilitate social learning, influence people's opinions and views, facilitate group learning, facilitate the acceptance of role models, improve individuals' professional and personal skills, and reduce work-related stress. In not-for-profit organisations, social interactions facilitate role modelling for OCBs by inspiring subordinate staff through the perceived successes of the CEOs and senior managers. For this reason, CEOs and senior managers with a celebrity status wield the greatest influence. Social interactions also create a sense of togetherness that encourages OCBs. Social interactions help to evaluate the authenticity, social net worth and social intelligence of a role model, and the role aspirant accepts or rejects the role model based on this evaluation facilitated through social interactions. This finding implies that psychological factors, including introvert and extrovert characteristics of the role model and role aspirants, can affect social interactions, and consequently affect role modelling for OCBs.

6.10 Limitations and Future Considerations

This research incorporated a broad spectrum of the lived experiences of employees in not-for-profit organisations in terms of organisational citizenship behaviours and role modelling. The researcher acknowledges the following limitations of the study and describes some options for future studies.

Purposive/convenient sampling among not-for-profit organisations was utilised, with the study being limited in its selection and size of study samples. The research provides rich insights into how and to what extent CEOs and senior managers in not-for-profit organisations promote OCBs and the effectiveness of their role modelling for OCBs, however its generalisability is limited as the findings are specific to the lived experiences of CEOs, senior managers and subordinates working in not-for-profit organisations in Tanzania. Future studies on role modelling for OCBs should focus on more expansive geographical areas and larger sample sizes to ascertain if there is variance when it comes to promoting OCBs and role modelling for OCBs in not-for-profit organisations in other countries.

The study found that CEOs and senior managers of not-for-profit organisations in Tanzania encourage the OCBs of their subordinate staff by promoting a good attitude and outlook, collective ownership with boundaries, and voluntarism. Individual and collective values affect, influence and direct the actions and behaviours of individuals within a culture (Schwartz, 2012, 2006), therefore the socio-cultural background of the people of Tanzania, where the society is

predominantly collectivistic, affects the decisions and behaviours of the people who manage not-for-profit organisations. Future research should measure the effects of attitudes and outlooks within a society that is predominantly individualistic, as this will give further insight into whether there are significant differences in the way OCBs could be promoted in not-for-profit organisations.

The conclusions in this study were reached using a qualitative phenomenological method, providing rich insights into how OCBs are promoted within not-for-profit organisations. Future research could test the theoretical conclusions quantitatively by developing appropriate scales and measurements, taking samples from larger populations. Quantitative data analysis of MLQ showed no significant difference between three subscales of the transformational leadership styles for CEOs and two subscales for senior managers. These were individual consideration, intellectual stimulation, and inspirational motivation for CEOs. The two subscales without a significant difference for senior managers were intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation. There was also significant statistical deference between the self-scores and raters score for both CEOs and senior managers. It could be possible that either CEOs/senior managers recorded a significantly higher /lower self-scores compared to their raters. Or raters recorded a significantly higher/lower scores for their CEOs and senior managers compared to the self-rating of CEOs and senior managers.

There could be many reasons for such statistical results, and further explanations could be provided with more detailed statistical analysis. However, this study did not undertake further analysis/investigation based on these statistical results of the study, because of limitation of resources, time, and scope of the study. This is clearly a limitation for the study. Future studies should explore the reasons for these variances, controlling for any biases that might have affected the study.

The study found that role modelling for OCBs is a soft but effective influence to bring about a behavioural change in role aspirants. Role modelling for OCBs is effective when CEOs and senior managers provide an exemplary example through leading by example and ‘walking-the-talk’. CEOs and senior managers become effective role models when they champion and facilitate an organisational structure with a reduced power distance. The study found that barriers to role modelling and promoting OCBs within the not-for-profit sector include bullying, fearfulness and laziness, which brings up future research possibilities. The first of these is that future research should look into the impact of organisational structure on promoting OCBs

among employees. Studying a variety of organisations with notably different organisational structures, as well as their impact on promoting OCBs, their similarities and their differences, would expand our understanding of promoting OCBs. Second, future studies should look deeper into the barriers that prevent the promotion of OCBs.

Previous studies established that inspiration, admiration and the alignment of values are some reasons to follow a role model (Schindler et al., 2013; Taylor, Wayment, & Carrillo, 1996; Thrash & Elliot, 2004), however this study showed that people emulate the OCBs of others because of respect for their position and authority in the organisation, not necessarily because of admiration and inspiration. Socio-cultural values embedded within the African social context could explain such behaviour, thus future research should venture into finding the nuances of the socio-cultural elements, taking into consideration individual, cultural and national values and their impact on role modelling for OCBs. The study also showed that employees' fearfulness of those in authority blocks role modelling for OCBs. Future studies should further examine its influence, as additional research will help find out at what point respect could become fear, and what causes it.

Frey (1997, p. 428) theorised that "*the use of extrinsic incentives may crowd out intrinsic work motivation under identifiable conditions*", yet this study provides empirical evidence that both extrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation to engage in OCBs can co-exist. The present study, within the context of not-for-profit organisations in Tanzania, found that the existence and/or expectation of rewards (both contingent and/or non-contingent) encourage OCBs. Cultural and personal factors might be a reason for such a contrast, while certain economic factors could also affect the work morale of employees in not-for-profit organisations in Tanzania. This study is limited in the sense that it did not look into these factors to find out how they trigger such contrasts. Future studies should therefore further investigate the factors that cause these differences.

Previous studies have shown that both transformational and transactional leaders influence their followers in distinct ways (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Bass & Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1999; Avolio & Bass, 2002). The present study specifically looked into how and to what extent transformational and transactional leadership orientations help promote OCBs within not-for-profit organisations, however the study is limited in its selection of leadership styles. Other leadership orientations/styles worthy of consideration include authentic leadership, servant leadership, leader member exchange theories, collective/shared leadership, spiritual leadership theories and

e-leadership (Avolio et al., 2009; Dinh et al., 2014). A future research agenda could thus examine other leadership styles/orientations and study their effects on promoting OCBs and role modelling in not-for-profit organisations.

Positive outcomes for organisations that promote OCBs include: reduced managerial costs through better employee engagement (Organ, 1998, Podsakoff et al., 2000); improved task-goal interdependencies among organisational groups (Mcbain, 2004); and increased organisational productivity and profitability and reduced employee turnover (Podsakoff et al., 2009; Nemeth & Staw, 1989; Podsakoff et al., 2000). The present study found that promoting OCBs within not-for-profit organisations results in employees setting higher benchmarks for organisational performance and promoting organisational learning through unity, optimism and willingness to change. A notable after effect of organisational learning is that certain OCBs become an organisational norm and function like a group OCB, resulting in that OCB losing its voluntary character over time and thus ceasing to be an OCB. Future studies should thus focus on how and what causes certain organisational learning to become an organisational norm, and how it loses its voluntary character and ceases to be an OCB.

Extant studies in for-profit organisations have investigated the effects of social interactions and found that they facilitate social learning (Hurst et al., 2013; Friedkin, 1998; Newing et al., 2010; Rist et al., 2007), facilitate changes in attitudes and behaviours (Mezirow, 1997), influence people's opinions and views (Stevenson & Greenberg, 2000; Erikson, 1998; Prel et al., 2010), facilitate groups to learn as social units, and produce group outcomes (Armitage et al., 2008; Solomon, 2006; Janis, 1989). The present study investigated how social interactions help role modelling for OCBs, establishing that the social interactions of role models inspire subordinates through their personal and/or professional successes. They also develop a sense of togetherness, which encourages OCBs. Social interactions help role aspirants to evaluate the authenticity, social net worth and social intelligence of the role model, and whether to accept or reject them. The present study is limited in this sense, as it did not look into the effects of the psychological characteristics of role models and role aspirants, such as introversions and extroversions. Future research could thus focus on the introvert and extrovert dispositions of organisational leaders and their impact on role modelling for OCBs.

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Appendix 1: Research Ethics Form



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12/02/2020

Sheejan Kallarakkal
Graduate School of Business
University of Cape Town
REF: REC 2020/02/015

Leading by Example/Role Modelling for Organisational Citizenship Behaviours in Not-for-Profit Organisations: A Phenomenological Investigation in Tanzania

We are pleased to inform you that your ethics application has been approved. Unless otherwise specified this ethical clearance is valid until 28 February 2021.

Your clearance may be renewed upon application.

Please be aware that you need to notify the Ethics Committee immediately should any aspect of your study regarding the engagement with participants as approved in this application, change. This may include aspects such as changes to the research design, questionnaires, or choice of participants.

The ongoing ethical conduct throughout the duration of the study remains the responsibility of the principal investigator.

We wish you well for your research.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'JRousseau'.

2020.02.12
15:22:31 +02'00'

Jacques Rousseau
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University of Cape Town
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Appendix 2: Informed Consent Form



Informed Consent Form

Introduction to the research

The research will explore how and to what extent CEOs and senior managers in Not-for-profit organisations foster and promote organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB). The study will investigate the effectiveness of leading by example (role modeling) to promote OCB.

There are two phases of participation for the respondents in this research. The first phase is the survey with Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) that intends to measure the leadership style of the participants. The second phase is the interview.

This research has been approved by the Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Committee

Participation

The interview will take approximately 60 minutes. For the purposes of accurate reporting, the interview will be recorded. Due to the nature of study, some information provided may be identifiable. However, all responses will be confidential and used for the purposes of this research only. Any information reported directly in the research report will be on an anonymous basis.

Your participation in this research is entirely voluntary. You can choose to withdraw from the research at any time.

Contact details

Should you have any questions regarding the research, please feel free to contact the researcher:

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Appendix 3: Interview Protocol/Schedule

Semi-structured Interview Questions/ Schedule

Thanks for coming in for the interview!

I am Fr. Sheejan Kallarakkal, a catholic priest working in Tanzania. Presently I am doing my PhD at Graduate School of Business, of the University of Cape town, South Africa. I appreciate your availability for the interview. Let me start with some clarifications.

1. How long have you been working in this sector?
2. Were you operating in the same industry before you took up the present Job?

Organisational Citizenship behaviours (OCB)

Helping behaviour

3. Would you share something about your experience of taking an initiative to prevent problems for co-workers by your staff, or yourself?
4. How and to what extent do you promote such behaviours among your employees?
5. Would you share with me a practical example or two of the concepts that we talked? What would be the working illustration?

Sportsmanship

6. Would you narrate some experiences of helping to accept inconveniences at the workplace without complaining about it?
7. How do you, as a leader encourage positive attitude? Also, encourage others to sacrifice an individual interest for the sake of the group?
8. Would you share with me a practical example or two of the concepts that we talked? What would be the working illustration?

Organisational loyalty,

9. Tell me something you boosting your staff to promote and defend corporate goals? Especially under adverse conditions?
10. Would you share with me a practical example or two of the concepts that we talked? What would be the working illustration?

Organisational compliance,

11. Tell me your experience of promoting willingness to follow the rules, regulations, and procedures without being monitored or forced?
12. Would you share with me a practical example or two of the concept that we talked? What would be the working illustration?

Individual initiative,

13. Can you describe your experiences of promoting creativity and innovation that promote organisational performance?
14. How to you promote taking up extra responsibilities within the organisation without expecting any additional payments or rewards?
15. Would you share with me a practical example or two of the concepts that we talked? What would be the working illustration?

Civic virtue

16. How do you keep people committed to the mission of the foundation?
17. Tell me about your ways of promoting participation in the organisational governance and decision-making?
18. Would you share with me a practical example or two of the concepts that we talked? What would be the working illustration?

Self-development.

19. How do you encourage your staff to improve knowledge, skills and abilities through voluntary participation in training courses?
20. Would you share with me a practical example or two of the concepts that we talked? What would be the working illustration?

Unit/Group level outcome of OCB

21. Do you think these OCB behaviours are worth promoting? What are the Challenges?
22. What are the group level outcomes that OCB produce when promoted?
23. Are there any non-contingent rewards associated with the performance of OCB?
24. Would you share with me a practical example or two of the concepts that we talked? What would be the working illustration?

Transformational Leadership**Idealised influence,**

25. Can you share your experience how people develop a close feeling for their leader, and they identify with the mission of the leader?
26. How do you promote a collective vision for the organisation? Your experience of empowering and motivating your staff for better performance?
27. Would you share with me a practical example or two of the concepts that we talked? What would be the working illustration?

Leading by example/Role modelling

28. What is your experience of leading by example/role modelling for OCB?
29. Do you think leading by example is influential/important?
30. How do you present yourself as a role model for others to follow?
31. What influence them to follow you as a model?
32. Telling something about building trust?
33. Would you share with me a practical example or two of the concepts that we talked? What would be the working illustration?

Social interaction

34. Tell me your experience of socialising and interacting with your staff that helped leading by example/role modelling? If you model OCB behaviours, do you think others will follow the same? How?
35. Would you share with me a practical example or two of the concepts that we talked? What would be the working illustration?

Inspiration

36. What is your experience of providing inspiring vision to your staff?
37. How do you keep them optimistic and challenging with that vision?
38. Would you share with me a practical example or two of the concepts that we talked? What would be the working illustration?

Intellectual stimulation

39. How do you promote new ways of solving problems within the organisation? Let us say a creative way of solving problems?
40. Would you share with me a practical example or two of the concepts that we talked? What would be the working illustration?

Individual consideration

41. Can you share with me your experience providing coaching and mentoring to your subordinates? How do you support growth and development of the people?
42. Would you share with me a practical example or two of the concepts that we talked? What would be the working illustration?

Leadership Roles and functions in the NFPOs

43. What are your unique experiences as a leader when it comes to decision-making especially when there is much ambiguity?
44. Can you share with me your experiences as the leader of a not-for-profit organisation, its challenges, positive aspects and particularities?

Prompts:

- Short-term funded projects?
 - Volunteers and part-time workers?
 - Financial constraints?
 - Reduced job satisfaction?
 - Employee turnover? High or low?
 - How and to what extent do you promote OCB in its context?
45. As a leader what are interpersonal and conceptual skills that you use to promote OCB?
 46. Would you share with me a practical example or two of the concepts that we talked? What would be the working illustration?

Transactional leadership

47. How and to what extent do you negotiate rewards for certain tasks?
48. Tell me about your experience of providing contingent rewards and motivating your staff?
49. What are the non-contingent rewards that you offer? Alternatively, available within the NFPOs that promote OCB?
50. Would you share with me a practical example or two of the concepts that we talked? What would be the working illustration?

Closing

Well. It has been a pleasure talking to you. I sincerely appreciate the time that you spent for this interview. I think, I have all the information that I need. Will it be ok to call you up again, in case if I need further clarification on a topic or issue?
Thank you.

Appendix 4: MLQ Questionnaire sample and Permission to use

For use by Fr. Sheejan Kallarakkal msfs only. Received from Mind Garden, Inc. on March 3, 2017

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Leader Form

My Name: _____ Date: _____

Organization ID #: _____ Leader ID #: _____

This questionnaire is to describe your leadership style as you perceive it. Please answer all items on this answer sheet. **If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.**

Forty-five descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits you. The word "others" may mean your peers, clients, direct reports, supervisors, and/or all of these individuals.

Use the following rating scale:

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4
1. I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts	0	1	2	3 4
2. I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	0	1	2	3 4
3. I fail to interfere until problems become serious	0	1	2	3 4
4. I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	0	1	2	3 4
5. I avoid getting involved when important issues arise	0	1	2	3 4
6. I talk about my most important values and beliefs	0	1	2	3 4
7. I am absent when needed	0	1	2	3 4
8. I seek differing perspectives when solving problems	0	1	2	3 4
9. I talk optimistically about the future	0	1	2	3 4
10. I instill pride in others for being associated with me	0	1	2	3 4
11. I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets	0	1	2	3 4
12. I wait for things to go wrong before taking action	0	1	2	3 4
13. I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	0	1	2	3 4
14. I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	0	1	2	3 4
15. I spend time teaching and coaching	0	1	2	3 4

Continued →

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, If not always	
0	1	2	3	4	
16. I make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved	0	1	2	3	4
17. I show that I am a firm believer in "If it ain't broke, don't fix it."	0	1	2	3	4
18. I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group.....	0	1	2	3	4
19. I treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group	0	1	2	3	4
20. I demonstrate that problems must become chronic before I take action.....	0	1	2	3	4
21. I act in ways that build others' respect for me	0	1	2	3	4
22. I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures	0	1	2	3	4
23. I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions	0	1	2	3	4
24. I keep track of all mistakes	0	1	2	3	4
25. I display a sense of power and confidence	0	1	2	3	4
26. I articulate a compelling vision of the future	0	1	2	3	4
27. I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards.....	0	1	2	3	4
28. I avoid making decisions	0	1	2	3	4
29. I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others.....	1	2	3	4	0
30. I get others to look at problems from many different angles	0	1	2	3	4
31. I help others to develop their strengths.....	0	1	2	3	4
32. I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	0	1	2	3	4
33. I delay responding to urgent questions.....	0	1	2	3	4
34. I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission.....	0	1	2	3	4
35. I express satisfaction when others meet expectations	0	1	2	3	4
36. I express confidence that goals will be achieved	0	1	2	3	4
37. I am effective in meeting others' job-related needs.....	0	1	2	3	4
38. I use methods of leadership that are satisfying.....	0	1	2	3	4
39. I get others to do more than they expected to do.....	0	1	2	3	4
40. I am effective in representing others to higher authority	0	1	2	3	4
41. I work with others in a satisfactory way	0	1	2	3	4
42. I heighten others' desire to succeed.....	0	1	2	3	4
43. I am effective in meeting organizational requirements	0	1	2	3	4
44. I increase others' willingness to try harder	0	1	2	3	4
45. I lead a group that is effective	0	1	2	3	4

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115

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form

Name of Leader: _____ Date: _____

Organization ID #: _____ Leader ID #: _____

This questionnaire is used to describe the leadership style of the above-mentioned individual as you perceive it. Answer all items on this answer sheet. **If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.** Please answer this questionnaire anonymously.

Important (necessary for processing): Which best describes you?

- I am at a higher organizational level than the person I am rating.
- The person I am rating is at my organizational level.
- I am at a lower organizational level than the person I am rating.
- Other than the above.

Forty-five descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits the person you are describing. Use the following rating scale:

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4

The Person I Am Rating...

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts..... | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2. *Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate..... | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3. Fails to interfere until problems become serious..... | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4. Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards..... | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 5. Avoids getting involved when important issues arise..... | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 6. *Talks about his/her most important values and beliefs..... | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 7. Is absent when needed..... | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 8. *Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems..... | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 9. *Talks optimistically about the future..... | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 10. *Instills pride in me for being associated with him/her..... | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 11. Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets..... | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 12. Waits for things to go wrong before taking action..... | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 13. *Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished..... | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 14. *Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose..... | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 15. *Spends time teaching and coaching..... | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Continued →

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	
0	1	2	3	4	
16. Makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved	0	1	2	3	4
17. Shows that he/she is a firm believer in "If it ain't broke, don't fix it."	0	1	2	3	4
18. *Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group.....	0	1	2	3	4
19. *Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group.....	0	1	2	3	4
20. Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action.....	0	1	2	3	4
21. *Acts in ways that builds my respect	0	1	2	3	4
22. Concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures.....	0	1	2	3	4
23. *Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions	0	1	2	3	4
24. Keeps track of all mistakes.....	0	1	2	3	4
25. *Displays a sense of power and confidence.....	0	1	2	3	4
26. *Articulates a compelling vision of the future.....	0	1	2	3	4
27. Directs my attention toward failures to meet standards	0	1	2	3	4
28. Avoids making decisions	0	1	2	3	4
29. *Considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others.....	0	1	2	3	4
30. *Gets me to look at problems from many different angles	0	1	2	3	4
31. *Helps me to develop my strengths.....	0	1	2	3	4
32. *Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.....	0	1	2	3	4
33. Delays responding to urgent questions	0	1	2	3	4
34. *Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission	0	1	2	3	4
35. Expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations	0	1	2	3	4
36. *Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved.....	0	1	2	3	4
37. Is effective in meeting my job-related needs	0	1	2	3	4
38. Uses methods of leadership that are satisfying.....	0	1	2	3	4
39. Gets me to do more than I expected to do	0	1	2	3	4
40. Is effective in representing me to higher authority.....	0	1	2	3	4
41. Works with me in a satisfactory way	0	1	2	3	4
42. Heightens my desire to succeed	0	1	2	3	4
43. Is effective in meeting organizational requirements	0	1	2	3	4
44. Increases my willingness to try harder	0	1	2	3	4
45. Leads a group that is effective	0	1	2	3	4

Sample

10

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Appendix 5: MLQ Manual percentile sample

For use by Fr. Sheejan Kallarakkal msts only. Received from Mind Garden, Inc. on March 3, 2017

Appendix B:
Percentiles for Individual Scores (US)

Percentiles for Individual Scores Based Total of all Rating Levels (US)

N =	MLQ Scores												Outcomes			%tile						
	II(A)	II(B)	IM	IS	IC	CR	MBEA	MBEP	LF	EE	EFF	SAT										
27,285	27,285	27,285	27,285	27,285	27,285	27,285	27,285	2,7285	27,285	27,285	27,285	27,285	27,285	27,285	27,285	27,285	27,285	27,285	27,285	27,285	27,285	27,285
%tile																%tile						
5	1.50	1.50	1.50	1.50	1.25	1.50	.25	.00	.00	1.00	1.75	1.50	5									
10	2.00	1.75	2.00	1.75	1.75	2.00	.50	.00	.00	1.67	2.00	2.00	10									
20	2.25	2.25	2.25	2.25	2.25	2.25	.96	.35	.00	2.00	2.50	2.50	20									
30	2.75	2.50	2.50	2.50	2.50	2.50	1.25	.50	.25	2.33	2.75	3.00	30									
40	2.75	2.75	2.75	2.75	2.75	2.75	1.49	.75	.25	2.67	3.00	3.00	40									
50	3.00	3.00	3.00	2.75	2.75	3.00	1.67	1.00	.50	2.74	3.25	3.00	50									
60	3.25	3.25	3.25	3.00	3.00	3.06	1.87	1.04	.75	3.00	3.25	3.50	60									
70	3.50	3.50	3.43	3.25	3.25	3.25	2.12	1.25	.92	3.33	3.50	3.50	70									
80	3.50	3.75	3.50	3.43	3.43	3.50	2.50	1.54	1.23	3.67	3.75	4.00	80									
90	3.75	3.75	3.75	3.75	3.75	3.75	2.87	2.00	1.50	4.00	4.00	4.00	90									
95	4.00	4.00	4.00	3.75	3.75	4.00	3.25	2.50	2.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	95									

LEGEND: II(A) = IDEALIZED INFLUENCE (ATTRIBUTED)
 II(B) = IDEALIZED INFLUENCE (BEHAVIOR)
 IM = INSPIRATIONAL MOTIVATION
 IS = INTELLECTUAL STIMULATION
 IC = INDIVIDUALIZED CONSIDERATION
 CR = CONTINGENT REWARD
 MBEA = MANAGEMENT-BY-EXCEPTION (ACTIVE)
 MBEP = MANAGEMENT-BY-EXCEPTION (PASSIVE)
 LF = LAISSEZ-FAIRE
 EE = EXTRA EFFORT
 EFF = EFFECTIVENESS
 SAT = SATISFACTION

KEY OF FREQUENCY:
 4.0 = Frequently, if not always
 3.0 = Fairly often
 2.0 = Sometimes
 1.0 = Once in a while
 0.0 = Not at all

Percentiles for Individual Scores Based on Self Ratings (US)

N =	II(A)	II(B)	IM	IS	IC	CR	MBEA	MBEP	LF	EE	EFF	SAT	%tile
	3,755	3,755	3,755	3,755	3,755	3,755	3,755	3,755	3,755	3,755	3,755	3,755	
MIQ Scores													
5	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.25	2.00	.25	.25	.00	1.92	2.25	2.00	5
10	2.25	2.25	2.25	2.25	2.50	2.25	.50	.25	.00	2.00	2.50	2.50	10
20	2.50	2.50	2.50	2.50	2.75	2.50	1.00	.50	.25	2.33	2.75	2.50	20
30	2.75	2.75	2.75	2.75	3.00	2.75	1.00	.75	.25	2.45	3.00	3.00	30
40	2.75	3.00	3.00	2.75	3.00	3.00	1.25	.85	.50	2.67	3.00	3.00	40
50	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.25	3.00	1.50	1.00	.50	2.74	3.25	3.00	50
60	3.00	3.25	3.25	3.00	3.25	3.25	1.75	1.25	.75	3.00	3.25	3.00	60
70	3.25	3.25	3.50	3.25	3.50	3.25	2.00	1.25	.75	3.00	3.50	3.50	70
80	3.50	3.50	3.50	3.50	3.50	3.50	2.25	1.50	1.00	3.33	3.50	3.50	80
90	3.50	3.75	3.75	3.75	3.75	3.75	2.75	2.00	1.25	3.67	3.75	4.00	90
95	3.75	4.00	4.00	3.75	4.00	3.75	3.00	2.25	1.50	4.00	4.00	4.00	95

Percentiles for Individual Scores Based on Higher Level Ratings (US)

N =	II(A)	II(B)	IM	IS	IC	CR	MBEA	MBEP	LF	EE	EFF	SAT	%tile
	4,268	4,268	4,268	4,268	4,268	4,268	4,268	4,268	4,268	4,268	4,268	4,268	
MIQ Scores													
5	1.75	1.75	1.50	1.50	1.50	1.75	.25	.00	.00	1.33	1.75	1.50	5
10	2.00	2.00	1.75	1.75	2.00	2.00	.50	.25	.00	1.67	2.00	2.00	10
20	2.50	2.50	2.25	2.18	2.25	2.43	.95	.35	.00	2.00	2.50	2.50	20
30	2.75	2.75	2.50	2.41	2.50	2.62	1.25	.50	.25	2.33	3.00	3.00	30
40	2.95	2.95	2.75	2.50	2.75	2.75	1.50	.75	.25	2.67	3.04	3.00	40
50	3.00	3.00	2.90	2.75	2.97	3.00	1.70	1.00	.50	2.74	3.25	3.08	50
60	3.25	3.25	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	1.95	1.03	.75	2.82	3.50	3.50	60
70	3.50	3.50	3.25	3.00	3.25	3.25	2.21	1.25	.92	3.00	3.50	3.50	70
80	3.50	3.50	3.50	3.25	3.96	3.47	2.50	1.50	1.17	3.33	3.75	3.50	80
90	3.75	3.75	3.75	3.50	3.67	3.62	2.88	2.00	1.50	3.67	4.00	4.00	90
95	4.00	4.00	4.00	3.75	3.75	3.75	3.25	2.50	2.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	95

Percentiles for Individual Scores Based on Same Level Ratings (US)

%tile	MLQ Scores										Outcomes			%tile
	II(A)	II(B)	IM	IS	IC	CR	MBEA	MBEP	LF	EE	EFF	SAT		
N =	5,185	5,185	5,185	5,185	5,185	5,185	5,185	5,185	5,185	5,185	5,185	5,185	5,185	5,185
5	1.50	1.50	1.50	1.50	1.50	1.75	.25	.00	.00	.00	1.75	1.50	5	
10	2.00	1.75	1.75	1.75	1.75	2.00	.50	.11	.00	1.66	2.00	2.00	10	
20	2.25	2.25	2.25	2.25	2.25	2.37	1.00	.35	.00	2.00	2.50	2.50	20	
30	2.67	2.50	2.50	2.50	2.50	2.60	1.25	.50	.25	2.23	2.75	2.91	30	
40	2.75	2.75	2.75	2.75	2.75	2.75	1.50	.75	.25	2.67	3.00	3.00	40	
50	3.00	2.75	3.00	2.75	3.00	3.06	1.75	1.00	.50	2.73	3.03	3.08	50	
60	3.25	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.25	2.00	1.04	.75	3.00	3.25	3.50	60	
70	3.50	3.25	3.25	3.25	3.25	3.25	2.25	1.25	1.00	3.33	3.50	3.50	70	
80	3.50	3.28	3.28	3.34	3.34	3.50	2.50	1.50	1.17	3.34	3.75	4.00	80	
90	3.75	3.75	3.75	3.75	3.75	3.75	2.87	2.00	1.50	3.67	4.00	4.00	90	
95	4.00	3.75	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.77	3.25	2.50	2.50	4.00	4.00	4.00	95	

Percentiles for Individual Scores Based on Lower Level Ratings (US)

%tile	MLQ Scores										Outcomes			%tile
	II(A)	II(B)	IM	IS	IC	CR	MBEA	MBEP	LF	EE	EFF	SAT		
N =	12,118	12,118	12,118	12,118	12,118	12,118	12,118	12,118	12,118	12,118	12,118	12,118	12,118	
5	1.25	1.25	1.50	1.50	1.00	1.29	.25	.00	.00	1.00	1.50	1.00	5	
10	1.75	1.75	2.00	1.75	1.50	1.75	.50	.00	.00	1.33	2.00	2.00	10	
20	2.25	2.21	2.25	2.25	2.00	2.25	.75	.25	.00	2.00	2.00	2.50	20	
30	2.50	2.50	2.75	2.50	2.50	2.50	1.11	.50	.25	2.33	2.50	3.00	30	
40	2.75	2.54	3.00	2.75	2.75	2.75	1.37	.75	.25	2.67	2.75	3.00	40	
50	3.00	2.75	3.00	2.75	3.00	3.00	1.62	1.00	.50	3.00	3.00	3.50	50	
60	3.25	3.00	3.25	3.00	3.17	3.13	1.87	1.00	.75	3.00	3.25	3.50	60	
70	3.50	3.25	3.50	3.25	3.25	3.25	2.25	1.25	.93	3.33	3.50	3.67	70	
80	3.75	3.46	3.75	3.50	3.50	3.50	2.50	1.70	1.25	3.67	3.52	4.00	80	
90	4.00	3.75	4.00	3.75	3.75	3.75	3.00	2.00	1.75	4.00	4.00	4.00	90	
95	4.00	3.75	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	3.25	2.50	2.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	95	

Appendix 6: Examples of Memos, Drawings, and Sketches

Memo – 23, Date: 04/03/2018 – Organisation ID – DAR 12

I made two interviews in Dar es Salaam today. Both the interviewees were CEOs.

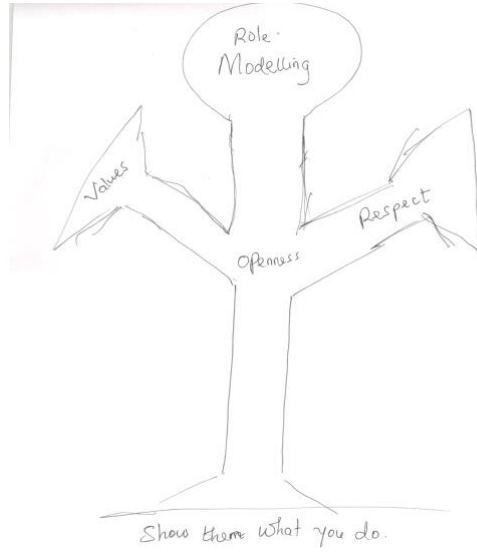
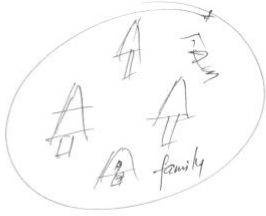
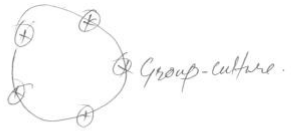
It was interesting to note that one of the CEOs whom I interviewed today had not given me a specific date or time for the interview. When I called him up the other day, to request for an interview date, he told me *“please come to my office whenever you have time”*. I made sure from him, he would be there in the office the following day, and reached the office by 9.0 am.

I had another interview scheduled that day in the evening. I was only hoping to get an appointment date when I meet him. However, when I entered his office, the CEO told me he was ready for the interview. I was a bit surprised, but we began the interview.

During the interview, I discovered a salient feature of his approach to developing OCBs of the subordinate, which was his ‘open door policy’ in the organisation. He explained to me that he had this approach in most of his management strategies. That was also the reason he did not give me a specific appointment date or time for the interview. Anyone of his subordinate could just walk into his office and discuss things that matter to them or to the organisation. The policy of open door approach was very clear. Even I noticed a printed page pinned on his office white board, which read *“walk in without hesitation, you are welcome at any time to have a discussion”*. It was insightful to know that this CEO used the ‘open door policy’ to promote OCBs of his subordinates. It also helped him to be an approachable and transparent role model.

Memo 31: The Recruitment Practice, Date: 29/09/2018, ORG ID - Dodoma 34

After the interview today, we had a cup of coffee at the canteen of the organisation where I conducted my interview. During the coffee, we had an informal talk, and I asked him about the employee turnover rate. There was a point that the senior manager spoke bluntly, which he did not mention during the interview. He had told me that the organisation was an equal opportunity organisation regarding employment opportunity. At the coffee table, however, he mentioned that the interview board, where he usually sat, always looked for recruits whose faith did not clash with the mission of the NFPO. The NFPO actively promoted reproductive health campaign, and they always made it a point that if the job applicant did not believe in, or had a different perspective on certain campaign especially on birth control, then they did not select him/her, even though he/she might have the qualifications.



Appendix 7: Audit Trail and Example of ATLAS.ti report

Introduction

The researcher has included this audit trail in order to enhance the trustworthiness of the study, making the procedures and methods used in this research transparent. Specifically, the audit trail strengthens the dependability and conformability of the qualitative part of the study. The researcher defined the research questions, clarified the research objectives, and conducted a literature review covering both theoretical and empirical reviews. He also selected an appropriate research methodology to answer the research questions.

Data collection

Quantitative part of the study

The initial part of the data collection was for the quantitative part of the study. The investigator used a purposive sampling approach to collect data through a survey, using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. The purpose was to see the predominant leadership orientations of the participants of the study and avoid any participant(CEO/SMs) with a passive/avoidant leadership style. The researcher analysed the data using MLQ manual guidelines and inferential analysis.

Qualitative part of the research

The researcher collected data through semi-structured interviews, using an interview schedule, checklist and memos. The researcher initially planned to hold 90 interviews within eight months, hoping to reach the saturation, however the interviews and simultaneous analysis took over 18 months to achieve saturation point. The researcher completed 68 interviews before reaching saturation, at which point he cancelled all remaining interviews. The details about the interviews are given below.

Number of interviews conducted	68
Total time of interviews	54 hrs and 20 minutes
Second round interview-cum-discussions	35 hrs and 41 minutes
CEOs interviewed	23
SMs interviewed	18
Subordinate staff interviewed	27
Places of interview	Dar es Salaam, Morogoro, Arusha, Dodoma
Total pages of transcriptions	939
Total words in the transcriptions	411,214
Number of NFPOs where interviews were conducted	23

The researcher recorded all the interviews and transcribed them immediately after completing each interview using a professional transcription service.

The researcher went through the transcriptions against the audiotapes for accuracy before sending them to the interviewees for verification, and made any changes or additions as recommended by the interviewees. Verifying the transcripts with the interviewees had some challenges, for example two of the interviewees did not verify the transcripts of their interviews

due to lack of time. In these two cases, the researcher verified the transcripts again against the audiotapes and incorporated them into the data.

At other times the researcher had to go to the homes of some CEOs and senior managers on weekends to read a transcript together, as they were not available for verifying the transcripts during the work week. In those cases, the researcher read out the transcripts and the interviewees listened and approved the transcripts, made suggestions or modifications, or added further clarification. The researcher wrote down these new insights or additional suggestions, and once back at his desk, he wrote memos to incorporate them.

The researcher, in handling the data, made adequate backups using an external hard disk to keep the data safe. He used a password for additional security to prevent unauthorised access to the data. The researcher also made a regular backup of his personal computer used for the research, making sure that he had a recovery plan if a disaster occurred.

The researcher wrote memos throughout the data collection and during the data analysis; he used ATLAS.ti to organise his memos and retrieve and refer to them during the data analysis. The researcher wrote the memos after each interview on the same day, recording his thoughts, experiences and any points of interests from before, during and after each interview. While analysing the data, when the researcher gained a new insight, he wrote it down as a memo for further reflection and study.

Some of these memos were longer descriptions, while others were just brief reports of aspects about the interviews that the researcher considered interesting and/or noteworthy. Others covered the researcher's thoughts or nuances from his encounters with the participants. The researcher wrote 136 memos throughout the study. Some memos helped the researcher to triangulate certain points that the interviewee shared with him with what he had encountered within the environment of the NFPOs on those points. Such triangulation gave the researcher added confidence and increased the reliability of the findings.

The researcher also used retrospective data, such as publically available reports on NFPOs where he conducted his interviews, their financial reports, and their mission and vision statements. The researcher went through these data before he conducted the interviews, which helped him to familiarise himself with the NFPO prior to the interviews. The researcher also accessed these retrospective data during the data analysis, which helped him to verify certain claims or arguments that the interviewees had made during the conversation. Insights gained from these retrospective data were written down as memos.

Data analysis

The researcher listened to the recorded interviews before sending them for transcription. He then read the transcripts while listening again to the audiotapes to ensure data accuracy. The researcher removed all identifiable information from the transcripts and imported them to ATLAS.ti. Listening to the audiotapes and going through the transcripts further helped the researcher to familiarise himself with the data before starting the analysis.

Using ATLAS.ti was helpful for managing the data efficiently. The researcher analysed each transcript as soon as it was ready, looking for themes, phrases and topics that provided insights into the research questions. The researcher assumed a phenomenological attitude, withholding any knowledge or experience he might have about the topics while interviewing the participants

and while analysing the data. Such an attitude helped the researcher to prevent any potential personal biases from corrupting the data.

The researcher's subsequent passes through the data after the familiarisation involved reviewing the data, coding it, grouping the codes, and finding the emerging themes and topics. He continued to write memos as he analysed the data about the insights that he gained, or on a topic that he wanted to investigate further.

The researcher moved forward with the analysis by exporting the codes and code groups from ATLAS.ti to MS Word and Excel, because he was not very proficient with ATLAS.ti. The researcher undertook further analysis of the data using MS Word and Excel, and completed the themes and sub-themes under each topic that answered the research questions. The researcher used ATLAS.ti reports, revisited the original data, and re-read some of the transcripts to clarify and understand the contexts and settings related to certain subthemes or points of interest emerging from the analysis. The researcher also rearranged certain codes, grouped and/or ungrouped codes, and removed and/or added further codes according to their perceived relevance and suitability, until evidence for the findings emerged (see Table 16). The researcher made a diagrammatic presentation of the key concepts and findings as presented below, which helped him to gain a holistic idea/view of the research findings.

Promoting OCBs	Attitude & Outlook Facilitating OCBs
	Being Empathetic Equality and Respect Openness and Authenticity Thinking Big Understating and Not Admonishing
	Collective Ownership with Boundaries
	A sense of Usefulness & Belongingness Collective Responsibility & Ownership Collaborative Problem-Solving Collective Resource Mobilisation
	Organisational Democracy
	Collaborative Planning and Decision-Making Freedom of Expression, Grievances & Diverse Opinion
	Organisational Family-Culture
	The Organisation as a Family Supporting Each Other and Celebrating Together
	The Organisational Team-Culture
	Teamwork & collaboration Achieving Goals Through Teams Roles within the Team & team spirit as Loyalty
	OCBs Through Organisational Best Practices
	A sense of Usefulness & Belongingness Collective Responsibility & Ownership Collaborative Problem-Solving Collective Resource Mobilisation
	OCBs Through Voluntarism
	The spirit of Voluntarism Passion for the Not-for-profit Sector job The satisfaction of Doing Good for Humanity
OCBs Through HRM Practices	
Selective Recruiting Coaching, mentoring, and Grooming Clarity of Tasks and Conflict Management Optimal Group size and Best Job-fit Focusing on Job outcome vs. Job Description	
Group Outcome of OCBs	Group Outcomes of OCB
	Higher Organisational Benchmarks Brand Name for the Organisation Facilitate Organisational Change Organisational Learning Organisational Unity & Optimism
Challenges for role modeling for OCBs	Challenges and Bottlenecks for OCBs
	Employee Well-being Work-Life Balance Bullying/incompetency/laziness

Transformational Factors & OCBs	Leadership Styles and OCBs
Tolerance for Errors & Mistakes Promoting Creativity & Innovation Empowering Subordinates Inspirational Motivation	
Transactional Factors & OCBs	
Bonus and Financial Recognition Other Contingent & Non-Contingent Rewards	
Factors that Blur Leadership Styles	
Age, Work Experience and Devotedness at Work Social & Cultural Factors Positive Appreciation Utilising Digital Platforms	

- Key Findings**
- CEOs & SMs Promote OCBs through promoting certain attitudes and outlooks.
 - Promote OCB through collective ownership with individual boundaries. Collective ownership is developed through, organisational democratic practices, organisational family-culture, and organisational team-culture.
 - Promoted OCBs through promoting voluntarism. Certain HRM practices augmented developing voluntarism among staff.
 - Both transformational & transactional leadership styles aided promoting OCBs, and role modelling. CEOs and senior manager are willing to blurr the boundaries of leadership styles to promote OCB and rolemodel for OCB.
 - CEOs and senior managers use both contingent and contingent rewards to promote OCBs.
 - Major group outcomes of promoting OCBs included higher organisational benchmarks, developing a brand name, facilitating organisational change, and promoting unity and optimism.
 - Role modelling was a soft but efficient way of promoting OCBs, bring behavioural change.
 - Social interactions aided role modelling for OCB, social and cultural factors such as respect for the elders or persons in authority influenced role modelling.

Role Modelling for OCBs	Role Modelling
Authentic vs. Perfect Model Enthusiasm, Consistency & Routine Idealised Influence of the Leader, Personal Integrity & Religious Belief, Visibility & Physical Proximity Positive Attitude & Open Door Policy	
Effectiveness of Role Modelling	
Role Modelling as Soft Influence Role Modelling by Showing a Good example Influencing by Walking-the-Talk Being a Role Model for Solving Problems Organisational Structure & Role Modelling	
Social Interactions & Role Modelling	
Celebrity Status, Emotional Bond, Formal & Informal Social Interactions, Social Interaction as Social Net-Worth, Social Intelligence Skills, Reciprocal Solidarity & Support	

The researcher then made a relationship matrix table (Table 8) to discover further connections, similarities, commonalities, consequences of, and associated assumptions about the findings that emerged from the data. The researcher always kept in mind the research questions while analysing and discussing the data to gain focus and clarity.

As the researcher wrote his thesis, he regularly returned to the data, using ATLAS.ti, MS Word and Excel to access the data, memos, diagrammatic representation of the findings, and the relationship matrix table. As he revisited the data, he came across certain nuances that he did not notice before. He wrote them down again as codes or memos and noted some insights, which he added to the matrix table and incorporated in his writings. The researcher spent almost four years entrenched with the data, as he simultaneously interviewed, analysed and wrote up the findings.

The researcher learned to accept the apparent messiness of conducting a qualitative research, with its enormous amount of data that needed to be processed, organised and made sense out of to answer his research questions. The researcher looked for help whenever he needed it from his supervisor and peers. The researcher gratefully acknowledges the great help, support and encouragement he received in successfully navigating this research process.

The following is a sample ATLAS.ti Report of Codes and Code Groups exported to MS Excel.

Color	Name	Groundedness	Groups
●	A Sense of Usefulness and Belongingness	37	Collective Ownership with Boundaries
●	A Spirit of Listening	10	Attitude and Outlook
●	A Spirit of Voluntarism	15	Role Modeling, Voluntarism
●	Accepting Personal limitations	13	Factors Aiding Role Modeling for OCBs
●	Accountability	27	Factors Aiding Role Modeling for OCBs, Organisational Best practices
●	Age and Work Experience	32	Factors Affecting OCBs
●	Aliening Individual and Organisational Goals	22	Recruiting, Grooming and Coaching
●	Allowing Differences of Opinion and Perspectives	13	Organisational Democracy
●	Allowing Failings and Mistakes	21	Developing Creativity
●	Aspiring to be Achievers	19	Motivation and Inspiration
●	Autonomy in Handling Conflicts	18	Conflict Management
●	Avoiding Negative Behaviours	10	Factors Aiding Role Modeling for OCBs, Social Interactions and Role Modelling for OCBs
●	Being Empathetic	9	Attitude and Outlook
●	Being Unconventional	4	Developing Creativity
●	Board and CEO Conflicts	1	Challenges in NGO Sector
●	Bonus for Creativity	13	Developing Creativity, Transactional Factors
●	Bullying and Lack of Competency	12	Bottle Necks for Role Modeling for OCBs
●	Celebrating Organisational Achievements Together	17	Organisational Activities Promoting OCBs
●	Celebrity Status of the Leader	5	Social Interactions and Role Modelling for OCBs
●	Challenging staff to New Benchmark	15	Group Outcome of OCBs
●	Clarity of Tasks and Reducing Conflicts	22	Skill based HR Management
●	Coaching and Mentoring	20	Recruiting, Grooming and Coaching
●	Collaborative Problem Solving	9	Collective Ownership with Boundaries
●	Collective Ownership	19	Collective Ownership with Boundaries
●	Collective Resource Mobilisation	25	Collective Ownership with Boundaries
●	Collective Vision	16	Collective Ownership with Boundaries
●	Commitment	14	Participatory Decision Making and Commitment
●	Competition for Resources	6	Challenges in NGO Sector
●	Compromising Organisational Mission	6	Challenges in NGO Sector
●	Compulsory Book Reading	3	Exposure for Growth and Development
●	Confidentiality and Trust	34	Factors Aiding Role Modeling for OCBs
●	Conflicts of Interest	8	Challenges in NGO Sector
●	Connecting with Ex-employees	6	Organisational Family Culture
●	Constructive Criticism and Feedback	24	Developing Creativity
●	Courage and Determination Facing Conflicts	22	Conflict Management
●	Creating Teams to Achieve Goals	45	Organisation as Team
●	Cultural Background and Sportsmanship	16	Sportsmanship
●	Cultural of Team Work and Collaboration	27	Organisation as Team
●	Decentralisation and Subsidiarity	17	Organisational Best practices

●	Developing Brand Name for the Organisation	15	Group Outcome of OCBs
●	Developing Future leaders	17	Group Outcome of OCBs
●	Developing Group OCB	29	Group Outcome of OCBs
●	Developing Social Network	33	Social Interactions and Role Modelling for OCBs
●	Devotedness at Work	18	Factors Affecting OCBs
●	Displaying Enthusiasm at Work	33	Factors Aiding Role Modeling for OCBs
●	Displaying of Self-Confidence	17	Factors Aiding Role Modeling for OCBs
●	Effectiveness of Role Modelling	52	Role Modeling
●	Emotional Bond and Social Interactions	19	Social Interactions and Role Modelling for OCBs
●	Empowering through New Opportunities	16	Exposure for Growth and Development
●	Encouraging Discussion and Communication	14	Organisational Best practices
●	Encourage Initiatives and Innovations	11	Developing Creativity
●	Ensuring Best Return on Investment	1	Challenges in NGO Sector
●	Equality and Respect for All	17	Attitude and Outlook
●	Expectations for Higher Achievements	17	Transactional Factors
●	Facilitate Organisational Change	14	Group Outcome of OCBs
●	Facilitating Engaging and Sharing	18	Organisational Best practices
●	Facilitating Learning at Work-Place	22	Organisational Best practices
●	Fearfulness	12	Bottlenecks for Role Modeling for OCBs
●	Financial Recognition for Motivation	25	Transactional Factors
●	Financial Motivation for sportsmanship	40	Transactional Factors
●	Firmness and Consistency	10	Factors Aiding Role Modeling for OCBs
●	Flexibility and Adaptability	9	Group Outcome of OCBs
●	Focusing on Job Outcome vs. Job Description	10	Skill-based HR Management
●	Formal and Informal Problem Solving	11	Conflict Management
●	Frequent Team Meeting	11	Organisational Best Practices
●	Fundamentalism Holding back progress	3	Challenges in NGO Sector
●	Gender Bias for Leadership Networking	4	Challenges in NGO Sector
●	Grooming for Desired Organisational Attitude	33	Recruiting, Grooming and Coaching
●	Group Size, Impact, and Organisational Fit	14	Skill based HR Management
●	Helping People to Grow	22	Exposure for Growth and Development
●	High Staff Turnover	6	Challenges in NGO Sector
●	Idealised Influence of the Leader	36	Factors Aiding Role Modeling for OCBs
●	Inadequate Policy Guidelines	6	Challenges in NGO Sector
●	Inconveniences as Intervening Factors	10	Attitude and Outlook
●	Informal Social interaction and Role Modeling	17	Social Interactions and Role Modelling for OCBs
●	Information Sharing and Networking	32	Factors Aiding Role Modeling for OCBs
●	Inspiration from Leader Competency	21	Motivation and Inspiration
●	Jobs Aligned to Ability	11	Skill-based HR Management
●	Junior Staff as Brothers and Sisters	14	Organisational Family Culture
●	Lack of Collective Voice	4	Challenges in NGO Sector
●	Lack of Commitment at Work	4	Challenges in NGO Sector
●	Lack of Professional Development	3	Challenges in NGO Sector
●	Lack of Sustainability	5	Challenges in NGO Sector
●	Laziness of the Employees	9	Bottlenecks for Role Modeling for OCBs
●	Leader Status and Personality	13	Social Interactions and Role Modelling for

			OCBs
●	Leadership as Shared Responsibility	12	Shared Responsibility for Outcome
●	Leadership Transition	3	Challenges in NGO Sector
●	Learning as Part of the Job	14	Sportsmanship
●	Learning from Mistakes and Promoting Loyalty	16	Skill-based HR Management
●	Limited Funds and Donor Dependency	30	Challenges in NGO Sector
●	Loyalty	15	Shared Responsibility for Outcome
●	Loyalty as Team Spirit	22	Organisation as Team
●	Loyalty to Org vs. Loyalty to CEO	5	Shared Responsibility for Outcome
●	Making Organisational Decisions Meaningful	22	Participatory Decision Making and Commitment
●	Managing Expectations from the Public	5	Challenges in NGO Sector
●	Managing Non-compatible Personalities	14	Recruiting, Grooming and Coaching
●	Meeting the Deadline within the Given time	6	Participatory Decision Making and Commitment
●	Mistrust by the Government	5	Challenges in NGO Sector
●	Mutual and Transactional Loyalty	16	Transactional Factors
●	Need for Introspection	7	Challenges in NGO Sector
●	Negative Public Image	2	Challenges in NGO Sector
●	Negative Reinforcement	3	Transactional Factors
●	Negotiating rewards	44	Transactional Factors
●	Network as Net worth	15	Social Interactions and Role Modelling for OCBs
●	New Assignment/Tasks for Skill Development	33	Exposure for Growth and Development
●	Non Contingent Rewards	39	Transactional Factors
●	Not Micromanaging People	14	Skill-based HR Management
●	Online Platform for OCBs	21	Social Media Platform and OCBs
●	Open Door Policy	42	Attitude and Outlook, Factors Aiding Role Modeling for OCBs
●	Openness and Honesty	50	Attitude and Outlook, Factors Aiding Role Modeling for OCBs
●	Opportunity to Cooperate in Planning	26	Organisational Democracy
●	Opportunity to Express Grievances	19	Organisational Democracy
●	Organisational Compliance	9	Group Outcome of OCBs
●	Organisational Expectations	11	Factors Aiding Role Modeling for OCBs
●	Organisational Learning	14	Group Outcome of OCBs
●	Organisational Social Gathering and Get together	18	Social Interactions and Role Modelling for OCBs
●	Organization as a Family	53	Organisational Family Culture
●	Organisational Unity and Optimism	17	Group Outcome of OCBs
●	Participatory Decision Making	19	Participatory Decision Making and Commitment
●	Passion for the Not-for-profit Sector Job	33	Voluntarism
●	Penalty for Non-Compliance	4	Transactional Factors
●	Periodic Evaluation and Support for staff	8	Organisational Activities Promoting OCBs
●	Personal Example of Best Practices	23	Factors Aiding Role Modeling for OCBs, Organisational Best practices
●	Personal Integrity	49	Factors Aiding Role Modeling for OCBs
●	Personal Responsibility for Tasks	17	Sportsmanship
●	Personal Stories	25	Practical Illustrations and Personal Stories
●	Personal Values and Convictions	15	Factors Aiding Role Modeling for OCBs

●	Personalization of Organisational Vision	11	Group Outcome of OCBs
●	Positive attitude	30	Group Outcome of OCBs
●	Positive Appreciation	34	Sportsmanship
●	Practical Illustrations	17	Practical Illustrations and Personal Stories
●	Promote Organisational Values	12	Group Outcome of OCBs
●	Promote Team Spirit	49	Group Outcome of OCBs
●	Promoting Authenticity	48	Attitude and Outlook
●	Promoting Employee Well-being	16	Improving Work-life Balance
●	Promoting Talents	11	Skill based HR Management
●	Providing Platform for Creativity	16	Developing Creativity
●	Raising Hope	12	Motivation and Inspiration
●	Reciprocal Solidarity and Support	8	Social Interactions and Role Modelling for OCBs
●	Recruiting staff with Right Dispositions	30	Recruiting, Grooming and Coaching
●	Religious Belief and Practices	12	Factors Aiding Role Modeling for OCBs
●	Rewards and Promotions for Performance	17	Transactional Factors
●	Role Modeling and Being Authentic	51	Role Modeling
●	Role Modeling and Problem Solving Skills	18	Role Modeling
●	Role Modeling and Being Competent	31	Role Modeling
●	Role Modeling and Being Humble	9	Role Modeling
●	Role Modeling and Being Inspirational	9	Role Modeling
●	Role Modeling and Being Respectful	11	Role Modeling
●	Role Modeling and Celebrating Social Events	18	Role Modeling
●	Role modeling and Consistency	27	Role Modeling
●	Role Modeling and Inspiring People	22	Role Modeling
●	Role Modeling and Organisational Change	22	Role Modeling
●	Role Modeling and Organisational Hierarchy	36	Role Modeling
●	Role modeling and Organisational Mission	14	Role Modeling
●	Role Modeling and Organisational Values	11	Role Modeling
●	Role modeling as Showing Good Example	35	Role Modeling
●	Role Modeling as Soft Influence	10	Role Modeling
●	Role Modeling as Walking the talk	26	Role Modeling
●	Role Modeling Aspirations	11	Role Modeling
●	Role Modeling Creativity and Innovations	31	Role Modeling
●	Role modeling for Personal Sacrifices	22	Role Modeling
●	Role Modeling Interpersonal and Conceptual skills	32	Role Modeling
●	Role Modeling Organisational Best Practices	22	Role Modeling
●	Role Modeling Reducing the Power Distance	14	Role Modeling
●	Role Modeling Risk-taking Behaviours	7	Role Modeling
●	Role Modeling with Deliverable Outcome	4	Role Modeling
●	Role Modelling a Sense of Purpose	8	Role Modeling
●	Roles and Responsibility within the Team	36	Organisation as Team
●	Satisfaction of Doing Good for Humanity	21	Voluntarism
●	Sector Identity and legitimacy crisis	6	Challenges in NGO Sector
●	Sense of Freedom	14	Organisational Democracy
●	Servant Leadership	3	Social Interactions and Role Modelling for OCB
●	Setting and Achieving of Higher Benchmarks	22	Group Outcome of OCBs

●	Setting Goals and Objectives	13	Skill based HR Management
●	Shaping the mindset of the staff -	22	Attitude and Outlook, Group Outcome of OCBs
●	Sharing Organisational Success	26	Collective Ownership with Boundaries
●	Shortage of Skilled personal	7	Challenges in NGO Sector
●	Shrinking Civic Space	15	Challenges in NGO Sector
●	Slower Technological Adoption	3	Challenges in NGO Sector
●	Social Intelligence Skills	12	Social Interactions and Role Modelling for OCBs
●	Supporting Each Other In Difficulties	44	Organisational Family Culture
●	Supporting Staff in Difficulties	32	Organisational Activities Promoting OCB
●	Technical and Analytical Skills	13	Factors Aiding Role Modeling for OCB
●	The Social Culture of Talking and Discussing	14	Factors Affecting OCB
●	Thinking Big	33	Attitude and Outlook, Factors Aiding Role Modeling for OCB
●	Training and Skill Development	18	Exposure for Growth and Development
●	Transactional Leadership	29	Transactional Factors
●	Travel and Exposure opportunities	15	Transactional Factors
●	Trust and Engagement	16	Factors Aiding Role Modeling for OCB
●	Understanding, Not admonishing People	12	Attitude and Outlook, Organisational Family Culture, Skill based HR Management
●	Unity and Transparency	21	Factors Aiding Role Modeling for OCBs
●	Using social media to promote OCB	31	Social Media Platform and OCBs
●	Visibility and Physical Proximity	25	Factors Aiding Role Modeling for OCBs
●	Weak Leadership	8	Bottle Necks for Role Modeling for OCBs
●	Welfare Package	19	Improving Work-life Balance, Organisational Activities Promoting OCBs
●	Work-life balance	14	Improving Work-life Balance