

**A LEADERSHIP COMPETENCE FRAMEWORK FOR THE BEVERAGE
MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY IN ZIMBABWE**

By

Eliot Quinz Farai Ruwanika

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PROMOTER: Dr Liezel Massyn

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Bloemfontein

DECLARATION

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List of Acronyms

CEO	Chief Executive Officer
GoZ	Government of Zimbabwe
LCF	Leadership Competence Framework
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
LCFSD	Leadership Competence Framework for Sustainable Development
SWOT	Strength, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats
UN	United Nations
UFS	University of the Free State
US	United States
WCC	World Conservation Congress
WCED	World Commission on Environment and Development
Zim ASSET	Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation
ZSE	Zimbabwe Stock Exchange
ZUNDAF	Zimbabwe United Nations Development Assistance Framework

ABSTRACT

The primary objective of this study was to develop a leadership competence framework (LCF) for the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe. An initial investigation indicated the inadequacy of existing LCFs in the manufacturing industry to drive companies to contribute to the achievement of sustainable development goals (SDGs). Statistical evidence showed that the manufacturing sector was largely experiencing negative economic growth rates from 2013 to 2020, which impacted negatively, the achievement of SDGs.

To identify the context in which the LCF could be established, the literature review focussed on understanding the driving forces in the changing business environment internationally and locally. The forces were political, economic, social, technological, ecological, and sustainable development (PESTES) in nature. Sustainable development was adjudged as the suitable context because it resonated with the problem statement. Then, theories to derive leadership competences for equipping leaders to drive sustainable manufacturing were identified. Thus, sustainable development was dissected into meta-theories, namely: ecosystems; intergenerational systems; presencing; and quantum. Leadership models adaptable to the changing environment and models complementing those adaptable were identified. Combining data from meta-theories, adaptable, and complementary leadership models, informed the development of the LCF.

Existing LCFs were reviewed, but none were found suitable for sustainable manufacturing. The review assisted in establishing how the ideal LCF should be. Integrating the existing frameworks established a three-pillar leadership competence structure. A synthesis of literature resulted in a draft LCF comprising three pillars namely: strategic competences; core competences; and core values. The strategic competences were presencing; intergenerational systemic behaviour; reflexivity; stakeholder engagement; and strategic awareness. The core competences were ecosystem awareness; multiple intelligences; knowledge of sustainable manufacturing patterns and practices; systems thinking; and social responsiveness, whilst the core values were ethical; caring; integrity; and respect for all. The draft LCF was taken for a field qualitative inquiry.

Face-to-face interviews were done with Chief Executive Officers (CEOs), executives and former executives of the beverage manufacturing industry. Four CEOs were the focal point persons for the research group. Twelve participants were identified using the snowballing sampling technique. Ethical clearance was provided by the University of the Free State's (UFS) Ethics Research Committee. The interviews were audio-recorded. Data was transcribed and analysed thematically resulting in some of the themes in the draft LCF being confirmed, dropped, merged or added. The reconstructed LCF and a summary of the research study were submitted to four validation experts comprising academics and industry executives.

Validation experts said the study contributed to leadership development; was relevant and practical for business; from a theoretical position the draft LCF was a fair representation of literature integration; the proposed final LCF fully integrated the findings from literature and the empirical study; the graphical metaphors were representative of the integration; and the proposed final LCF was transferable to other industries and other countries. The experts suggested improvements, which were incorporated in the final LCF.

The significance of the study was in developing a Leadership Competence Framework for Sustainable Development (LCFSD), metaphorically depicted by a bicycle, comprising the following pillars: strategic competences; core competences; core values and collaborative competences. Strategic competences are presencing; intergenerational systemic behaviour; reflexivity; stakeholder engagement; strategic awareness; sustainability thinking; knowledge of metrics of measurement; inclusivity skills; and multiple leadership styles. Core competences are social responsiveness; ecosystem thinking; self-leadership; knowledge of SDGs; and innovative thinking. Core values are ethics; caring for all; respect for all; diplomacy; beliefs in sustainable development; doing the best for local communities; and sustainability living. Collaborative competences are build diverse teams; and partnering skills.

Key Terms: sustainable development; leadership competence framework; strategic leadership competences; core leadership competences; core values; collaborative leadership competences; future generations

CHAPTER 1 : RESEARCH STUDY ORIENTATION

1.1 Introduction

A review of the existing leadership competence frameworks (LCFs) showed that the LCFs focussed on generic capabilities of leaders such as results focus; communication; strategic thinking; empowering others; and leadership, among others. The above abilities are core competences that every leader must have. The review also indicated that the existing LCFs were too broad to give the required impetus to the new United Nations (UN) Sustainable Development Agenda 2030 (FAO, 2014; Tavitiyaman, Weerakit, & Ryan, 2014; Mazibuko, Tait, & Jowah, 2015). Furthermore, the LCFs did not mainstream sustainable development as a cross-cutting theme. Hence, organisations are moving to ethical and sustainable business practices in response to global forces (Wales, 2013).

Heraclitus, an ancient Greek philosopher, once said “change is the only constant” (Cerminara & Bogin, 2008, p. 479). Put differently into context, the business environment is continuously changing. Therefore, the changing business environment requires continuous review of strategies. Leadership Competence Frameworks fall under such strategic reviews. This study explores the development of an LCF suitable for driving the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe to contribute to the realisation of the UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

The purpose of Chapter One is to provide orientation to the study. Apart from this introduction, this chapter provides for the following: motivation for and background of the research; problem statement; research questions and objectives; a brief overview of the research methodology applied to this study; demarcation of study; viability of study; the contribution of study; and layout of the study, together with its alignment to research objectives and methods. The next section presents the background to the research problem.

1.2 Motivation and Background of The Research Problem

A global empirical study organised by Ashridge Business School on 194 business leaders revealed that there was a knowledge performance gap for sustainability leadership skills in all the organisations surveyed (Gitsham, et al., 2008). Another IBM global study concluded that business leaders were not fully equipped to address

sustainability issues and many CEOs doubted their own capabilities to manage sustainability (Strandberg, 2015). Thus, Nidumolu, Prahalad, and Rangaswami (2009) argue that in future, competitive advantage will accrue to companies that make sustainability a goal. In this case, companies are expected to rethink their business models, products, technologies, and processes. To this, Patari, Tuppuru, Toppinen, and Korhonen (2015) add that sustainability is the new mega-force driving change and will affect business' ability to succeed in the next 30 years. Furthermore, Garbie (2014) predicts that sustainability will be the main driving force for change in the twenty-first century, just as automation was in the twentieth century. Moreover, the only companies that will win in the future are ones managed by leaders possessing adaptive and flexible skills to respond quickly to the changing business environment (Brown & Harvey, 2011).

The concept of sustainability may be traced back to the nineteenth century from an idea known as spaceship earth (George, 1881). It evolved over the years and significantly gained popularity with the advent of the term "sustainable development" used in the Brundtland Report of 1987 (Alhaddi, 2015).

In September 2015, the United Nations General Assembly (2015) approved the sustainable development agenda 2030, which is anchored on SDGs. According to the General Assembly (2015) the sustainable development agenda is an action plan for people, the planet and prosperity. Implementation is by all countries and stakeholders in collaborative partnership, including the corporate world (General Assembly, 2015), which, in this case, is the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe. Hence, Garbie (2014) cautions that, there are two levels of sustainability: the first one is the macro-level referred to as sustainable development, which is government driven; as opposed to the micro-level encompassing sustainable manufacturing, which is considered vital to pursuing the big picture of sustainable development. Thus, when companies adopt sustainable development practices, the result is corporate sustainability (Abri, Bi, & Hodges, 2016), which according to the sustainable development agenda, ought to contribute to the realisation of SDGs.

Averring that the term sustainability is the micro-version of sustainable development, adds more complexity and controversy in defining the two terms. The complexity and controversy are acknowledged by Hillier, Comfort, and Jones (2016) who argue that, since 1980, sustainability has been seen as proffering potential solutions to challenges

globally and locally, seemingly across all walks of life, while Aras and Crowther (2008) add that sustainability means different things to different people. Roper (2012) argues in favour of strong sustainability, which he sees as one that subordinates economic development to society and natural resources, at the same time acknowledging the limits of ecology to growth; whereas weak sustainability is one, which gives strong emphasis on economic development. Glavic and Lukman (2007) argue that because of increased awareness of sustainability, the terminology in the area has been increasing and focussed on environmental, economic and societal approaches. Thus, Diesendorf (2000) tries to marry sustainability and sustainable development by describing sustainability as the end-goal of the sustainable development process. Linnenluecke and Griffiths (2010), therefore, propose that there is no consensus in defining the sustainability concept.

Elkington (2004) argues that corporate sustainability is not only about process and product design but goes further into corporate design, value chains, business ecosystems and markets. Thus, this research focuses on corporate design by developing an LCF for sustainable manufacturing at the micro-level of sustainable development, otherwise referred to as corporate sustainability. The value of developing an LCF for sustainable manufacturing is corroborated by Jackson, Boswell and Davis (2011, p. 56) who stated that, “to create a company whose mission is focused on corporate sustainability, all engaged individuals need to have a better understanding of what sustainability entails”. According to Nel, Werner, Poisat, Sono, Du Plessis, Ngalo, et al. (2011, p. 145), “an LCF is a grouping of behaviours into sets for the purpose of accomplishing strategic objectives”. However, there is no universally agreed definition of the term LCF among writers. In this study, an LCF is defined as a set of skills, behaviours, qualities and values (Bolden, Gosling, Martyrion, & Dennison, 2003) that contribute to performance (SHRM 2008) and represent an integral part of the organisation’s strategy (Thompson, Strickland, Gamble, Peteraf, Janes, & Sutton, 2013, p. 110).

A report by the Government of Zimbabwe (2012) to the United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development indicated that Zimbabwe’s SDGs agenda would require leadership that understood the broad concept of sustainable development, and knowledge of how the greening concept could accelerate sustainable growth. According to Mutizwa (2015) leaders in Zimbabwe require competences, which go beyond focusing

on short-term shareholder value creation, but also competences for providing solutions for community and societal problems as well as competences for addressing threats to sustainability caused by environmental degradation. Furthermore, Mutizwa (2014a), a revered former Delta Corporation CEO, an SAB Miller (South Africa) owned beverage company (now owned by AB InBev), who led the company to ten years of continuous growth, argues that, many leaders tend to have a serious inward focus. He goes on to argue that there is lack of focus on the external environment among company executives with few taking the initiative to scan the global environment to learn new benchmarks (such as SDGs); to learn new managerial practices; or to appreciate how global companies operate. He further argues that business leaders will continue to be laggards and unable to deal with volatility. As mentioned in the introduction earlier, SDGs are new international benchmarks that require new leadership competences.

At the time this study was proposed in 2015, Zimbabwe was experiencing declining economic growth (Ministry of Economic Planning, 2015). The government accused captains of industries of lacking initiatives to turnaround their companies; thus, questioning the leadership competences of corporate leaders. The ruling party, Zanu PF, in mid-2005 accused 40 business executives at a business conference, of destroying the economy (Chikukwa, 2006). Similarly, the Zimbabwe private sector accused the government of lacking political leadership competences to address the economic challenges the country faced by creating uncertainty in the manufacturing sector through policy inconsistencies regarding indigenisation of companies since 2008 when the Indigenisation Act was enacted (Shoko, 2016). However, this study focused on leadership competence frameworks in the manufacturing industry and not political competences of government leaders. Table 1.1 shows the declining economic performance of Zimbabwe.

Table 1.1: Zimbabwe Sectorial Growth Rates at Constant Prices

Sector	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Agriculture, hunting and fishing	31.1	7.2	1.4	7.8	-2.6	23.0	-5.2	-3.6	14.6	8.1	16.6
Mining and quarrying	18.9	37.4	24.4	8.0	11.7	-3.4	0.4	8.2	8.5	15.3	12.3
Manufacturing	17.6	2.0	13.8	5.3	-0.6	-5.1	0.2	-4.4	1.0	-0.3	-4.3
Electricity and water	1.9	19.5	6.4	0.3	5.0	5.4	-5.7	-23.4	10.7	19	-19.8
Construction	2.1	14.1	65.1	23.5	3.9	6.9	4.0	4.9	2.2	10.7	-2.5
Finance and insurance	4.5	-19.4	-4.1	49.2	14.2	-21.9	5.5	10.2	0.2	-1.6	-4.1
Distribution, hotels and restaurants	6.5	8.8	4.3	4.3	3.9	2.5	3.8	7.6	1.1	3.0	-9.0
Transport and communication	2.2	4.7	0.0	6.7	7.0	1.1	4.9	-3.2	2.3	2.1	-3.4
Domestic services	2.2	10.0	1.0	-3.5	6.0	-2.2	2.0	6.2	-1.5	1.1	-0.4
Actual Overall Growth	5.4	12.8	16.8	15.5	5.1	2.0	0.6	2.3	2.6	3.4	-6.5

Source: Ministry of Economic Planning (2015, p. 5; 2019, p. 20) and Zimstats (2017, p. 7)

It follows from Table 1.1 that, the manufacturing sector recorded the second highest negative growth in 2014 at -5.1, down from -0.6 in 2013. It maintained the same position in 2016 and 2017, with a negative growth rate of -4.4 and -0.3, respectively. Thus, in the last seven years, the manufacturing sector has had five years of negative growth. Therefore, the aforementioned weaknesses of political and manufacturing industry leadership incompetence may have resulted in declining economic growth in the manufacturing sector. Furthermore, declining economic growth negatively impacts the achievement of SDGs. Therefore, the next section defines the problem in the manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe.

1.3 Problem Statement

Existing corporate leadership competence frameworks (LCFs) were inadequate to deal with current challenges in the business environment. The outdated LCF's were viewed by Zimbabwe's political and industry leadership as a contributory factor to the declining economic performance of Zimbabwe's manufacturing industry; and secondly, as being inadequate to drive the new Sustainable Development Goals Agenda.

Therefore, the problem was that existing leadership competence frameworks (LCFs) in the manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe were not adequate to drive companies to

contribute to the achievement of SDGs. If the problem is not addressed, the beverage manufacturing industry is likely to continue contributing to the economic decline of the manufacturing sector. Therefore, the problem raised the research questions below.

1.4 Research Questions

1.4.1 Primary Research Question

1.4.1.1 How can a leadership competence framework (LCF) be developed for the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe?

1.4.2 Secondary Research Questions

1.4.2.1 What are the driving forces in the changing business environment internationally?

1.4.2.2 What are the current driving forces for change in the manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe?

1.4.2.3 What theories of leadership competences can be identified in the literature that would equip leaders to drive sustainable manufacturing?

1.4.2.4 What LCFs can be identified in the literature?

1.4.2.5 How can the theory on leadership competences be synthesised to develop a broad draft framework containing competences required for sustainable beverage manufacturing in Zimbabwe?

1.4.2.6 How can the possible viability of the broad draft framework of identified competences be determined to ensure sustainability of the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe?

1.4.2.7 What LCF can be developed that optimises sustainability of the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe?

1.5 Research Objectives

1.5.1 Primary Research Objective

1.5.1.1 To develop a leadership competence framework (LCF) for the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe.

1.5.2 Secondary Research Objectives

1.5.2.1 To conduct a literature review on the driving forces in the changing business environment internationally;

1.5.2.2 To identify the current driving forces for change in the manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe;

1.5.2.3 To identify theories of leadership competences that would equip leaders to drive sustainable manufacturing;

1.5.2.4 To identify models of LCFs from literature;

1.5.2.5 To synthesise the theory of leadership competences to develop a broad draft framework containing competences required for sustainable beverage manufacturing in Zimbabwe;

1.5.2.6 To conduct a field inquiry into the possible viability of the broad draft framework of identified leadership competences to ensure sustainability of the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe; and

1.5.2.7 To develop an LCF that optimises sustainability of the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe.

1.6 Research Methodology

This study aimed at developing an LCF for the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe. The primary research objectives of the study were achieved through a comprehensive literature review and an empirical study. The literature review satisfied secondary research objectives one to four and this was used to develop a broad draft LCF to fulfil requirements of research objective five. Thereafter, an empirical study was conducted to satisfy secondary research objective six, with the aim of the research being fulfilled by the outcome of secondary research objective seven.

Thus, this section presents an overview of the research methodology applied to the empirical study. In this regard, the section highlights the research approach and research design. In addition, the design of the research accounted for the research strategy and the methods of sampling; data collection; data analysis; ensuring the trustworthiness of the study; and ethical considerations.

1.6.1 Research Approach

The research approach was a qualitative inquiry to explore the development of an LCF for the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe. The study was guided by Birchall (2014) who argued that studies of a qualitative nature tend to be more appropriate where the phenomena are ambiguous; where daily experiences of phenomena are a factor; and where there is need to focus on the context. In this study LCFs are the phenomena that are ambiguous, while sustainable development goals are the mega forces that constituted the context.

1.6.2 Research Design

This study was a phenomenological and qualitative inquiry. Hence, it took a constructivist and interpretivist perspective. Being a qualitative inquiry, the study adopted a flexible research design because it allows for unlimited movement between the steps of the design, while a fixed design applies to quantitative research (Tuli, 2010).

1.6.2.1 Research Strategy

The research strategy employed semi-structured interviews. This research was a qualitative inquiry and had its central question starting with “how”. In this regard, a how question is suitable for an interview since it allows the participant to say anything related to the question without much hindrance.

1.6.2.2 Research Methods

The methods adopted in this study are presented in the context of the following: sampling strategy; data collection methods; data analysis methods; trustworthiness and quality assurance methods; and ethical considerations.

1.6.2.2.1 Sampling Strategy

The research group for this study were four Chief Executives (CEOs) and members recommended by the CEOs of beverage manufacturing companies listed on the Zimbabwe Stock Exchange (ZSE). A sample of 12 participants, including four CEOs of the beverage manufacturing companies were selected. According to Quinlan (2011) a sample represents a sub-set of a population.

However, after identifying the four CEOs as the nucleus of the research group, the study adopted the snowballing technique as the sampling strategy. The findings of this study cannot be generalised to the population because of the non-probability nature of purposeful sampling (Quinlan, 2011). The sample comprised informants who possessed

exceptional experience in leadership and sustainable development as suggested by Patton (2015). These informants were CEOs who are the chief drivers of strategy and two executive or non-executive members of the company recommended by each CEO.

1.6.2.2.2 Data Collection Methods

The data collection methods put into context the type of data collected; the data collection instruments used; the design of the interview; how the interviews were conducted; and credibility of interview questions. This research used primary data and not secondary data. The primary data were created by the researcher through interviewing, while secondary data could have been created from a primary source, if needed (Quinlan, 2011).

This study used semi-structured interviews to collect data from executives and non-executive members of the beverage industry in Zimbabwe dominated by companies listed on the ZSE. The data collection instruments used in this study were face-to-face interviews. Recruitment of participants was done through personal invitations either by telephone, email or personal visits, after fully explaining the purpose of the research. Because the research involved probing and exploring perceptions of executives and non-executive members of beverage manufacturing companies, face to face interviews were most suitable for this study as argued by Byrne et al. (2015). The use of face-face-interviews was feasible because the interviews took place in 2019, before the advent of the COVID-19 pandemic.

In this qualitative inquiry, there was interview flexibility to enable exploring of the unknown and uncovering the unexpected; therefore, research questions design was balanced to permit exploration and at the same time enable focus in delimiting the study (Marshall & Rossman, 1999). The researcher himself conducted the interviews, which were conducted over a period of five months.

The Research Ethics Committee of the University of the Free State approved the interview questions as part of the ethical clearance process. The following issues suggested by Miles, Huberman and Saldana (2013, p. 279) enhanced the credibility of the interviews: accounting for uncertainty areas of the interview; consideration of rival explanations; and seeking negative evidence.

1.6.2.2.3 Data Analysis

The interview data collected were analysed using thematic analysis. The planned use of ATLAS.ti for data analysis was abandoned in favour of manual data analysis because it then transpired that, ATLAS.ti was not capable of converting audio data into text. However, the analysis followed Miles, Huberman and Saldana's (2013) three-step data analysis procedure as follows:

- Data reduction using codes and categories;
- Data reduction using quotes, graphs and charts; and
- Drawing conclusions from identified themes and explaining patterns and relationships.

1.6.2.2.4 Ensuring Trustworthiness of Study and Quality Assurance

The study followed Guba's (1981) construct of trustworthiness premised on credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability of the findings. The credibility of this study lies in the results of this research mirroring the views of participants (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Credibility and transferability of the LCF were validated by four experts from industry and academia. The study relied on category dependability, which refers to how coded data summed into blocks (categories) can be relied upon (Sekeran & Bougie, 2013). In addition, the quality of results was checked through conformability audit by reference to the draft LCF from literature to audit findings (Houghton, Casey, Shaw, & Murphy, 2013).

1.6.2.2.5 Ethical Considerations

In research studies, adequate ethics are premised on approval by the Research Ethics Board (Mauthner & Birch, 2002). This study followed ethical considerations as argued by Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2009, p. 194), who believe that "permission must be requested for and granted before the investigation begins". The researcher first got clearance from the Research Ethics Committee of the University of the Free State. The ethics clearance approval number is UFS-HSD2018/1338. The researcher also had to seek permission from targeted companies and participants. Hence, the study was guided by Berg (2004) who argued that the researcher should provide adequate information to participants about the research, both positive and negative information. To ensure confidentiality in this study, a guarantee that only the researcher and the promoter would have sight of interview data was given to participants.

To ensure anonymity, informants are still nameless in the written report of the research and are identified by a sequential code as suggested by Quinlan (2011). In addition, misrepresentation and distortion of data were zero-tolerated in this study.

Risk mitigation measures taken in this study centred on addressing the following: breach of confidentiality; loss of work-time; travelling costs; possibility of failure to interview all candidates; and possibility of finding identity of participants in the data storage methods used in this study. All the above risks were mitigated accordingly.

1.7 Demarcation of Study

This study focuses on developing a leadership competence framework for the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe. The field study was conducted in the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe targeting CEOs, executives and non-executives of beverage manufacturing companies listed on the ZSE. The field of study is Organisational Development and Strategic Human Resources Management.

1.8 Viability of Study

There were enough literature sources on leadership competence frameworks, but most were outdated and did not address the new demands in the changing business environment. The researcher personally funded all costs. It was practical for the researcher to conduct interviews personally and no major problems were encountered. The researcher worked in the beverage industry before, therefore there were no problems in accessing CEOs and other participants. In addition, the researcher attended workshops convened by the Postgraduate School to enhance research capabilities. Some of the courses are academic writing; research outputs; conducting qualitative research; language editing; plagiarism; and use of Turnitin application software.

1.9 Contribution of Study

The value of this research study is particularly in the development of an LCF that can be used to optimise sustainability of the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe. The existing LCFs did not factor competences for sustainable manufacturing, hence the need to update the LCFs. The study responds to the changing business environment driven by the SDGs agenda. The final Leadership Competence framework for Sustainable Development (LCFSD), depicted by a bicycle metaphor, will act as a reference point for the development of LCFs by companies in the beverage manufacturing industry. Apart from being philosophical, the study provides practical

directions on how to develop the LCFSD through an integrated leadership competence development framework, thus asserting its practical aspects in the beverage industry and in other industries as well as beyond the country as suggested by the validation experts. Furthermore, the study contributes to existing literature on LCFs from a third world country perspective. Lastly, there was no research conducted before in this area in the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe.

1.10 Layout of Study and Alignment

Chapter Two focuses on a literature review on the changing business environment. Chapter Three provides for a critical literature review to identify leadership theories from which to derive leadership competences. In Chapter Four, the focus is on an evaluative review of literature on models of leadership competence frameworks and synthesis of theories to develop a broad draft LCF.

Chapter Five provides for research methodology, which describes in detail the conducting of the research to determine the possible viability of the draft LCF. The focus of Chapter Six is the data analysis and interpretation. Chapter Seven is an undertaking of the integration of literature and field findings to develop a leadership competence framework that optimises sustainability of the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe. Chapter Eight draws conclusions and recommendations. Table 1.2 shows the alignment of the research study incorporating research questions; research objectives; research methods; and the chapters aligned to them.

Table 1.2: Research Study Alignment

	Research Question	Research Objective	Method	Chapter
Primary	1. How can a leadership competence framework (LCF) be developed for the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe?	1.To develop a leadership competence framework (LCF) for the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe;		
Secondary	2.1 What are the driving forces in the changing business environment internationally?	2.1 To conduct a literature review on the driving forces in the changing business environment internationally;	Literature review	2
Secondary	2.2 What are the current driving forces for change in the manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe?	2.2 To identify the current driving forces for change in the manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe;		
Secondary	2.3 What theories of leadership competences can be identified in the literature that would equip leaders to drive sustainable manufacturing?	2.3 To identify theories of leadership competences that would equip leaders to drive sustainable manufacturing;		3
Secondary	2.4 What LCFs can be identified in the literature?	2.4 To identify models of LCFs from literature;		4
Secondary	2.5 How can the theory of leadership competences be synthesised in order to develop a broad draft framework containing competences required for sustainable beverage manufacturing in Zimbabwe?	2.5 To synthesise the theory on leadership competences in order to develop a broad draft framework containing competences required for sustainable beverage manufacturing in Zimbabwe;		
Secondary	2.6 How can the possible viability of the broad draft framework of identified competences be determined to ensure sustainability of the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe?	2.6 To conduct a field inquiry into the possible viability of the broad draft framework of identified leadership competences to ensure sustainability of the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe;	Field qualitative inquiry; Semi-structured interviews with executives and non-executives of beverage companies on ZSE; Analysis and reporting	5, 6 & 7
Secondary	2.7 What LCF can be developed that optimises sustainability of the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe?	2.7 To develop an LCF that optimises sustainability of the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe.	Reporting and Framework development	8

Source: Compiled by Researcher

1.11. Chapter Conclusion

This chapter provided an overview of the study. Thus, the study aimed at exploring the development of a leadership competence framework for the beverage manufacturing

industry in Zimbabwe. Preliminary investigation indicated the inadequacy of existing LCFs in the manufacturing industry to drive companies to contribute to the achievement of sustainable development goals (SDGs). The population target for this research was executives and non-executive members of beverage manufacturing companies listed on the ZSE. The study followed a qualitative paradigm. Non-probability sampling was applied using snowballing as the sampling technique after identifying the CEOs as the focal point persons for the research group. Data was collected using semi-structured interviews and analysed using themes. Lastly, the study contributes a framework for leadership competences that optimises sustainability of the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe. Notably, the need for a new leadership competence framework was driven by the changing business environment, which is the focus of attention in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 2 : THE CHANGING BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a contextual background in which a leadership competence framework (LCF) is contemplated. In attempting to do so, the chapter addresses secondary research questions 2.1 and 2.2: First, what are the driving forces in the changing business environment internationally? Secondly, what are the current driving forces for change in the manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe?

According to Dauda and Ismaila (2013), business depends on the environment for inputs, such as resources, and also depends on the environment for the organisation's outputs such as finished goods and services. In other words, the organisation is taking and giving to the business environment, thus making the relationship mutual. The mutual relationship is corroborated by Brown and Harvey (2011) who describe the business organisation as an open system that derives inputs from the environment, processes the inputs and converts them into outputs as offerings back to the environment. In other words, the organisation being an open system, is impacted by the changes in the environment, thus requiring leadership to have competences that adapt to the changing business environment. The relationship between business and the environment is depicted in Figure 2.1.

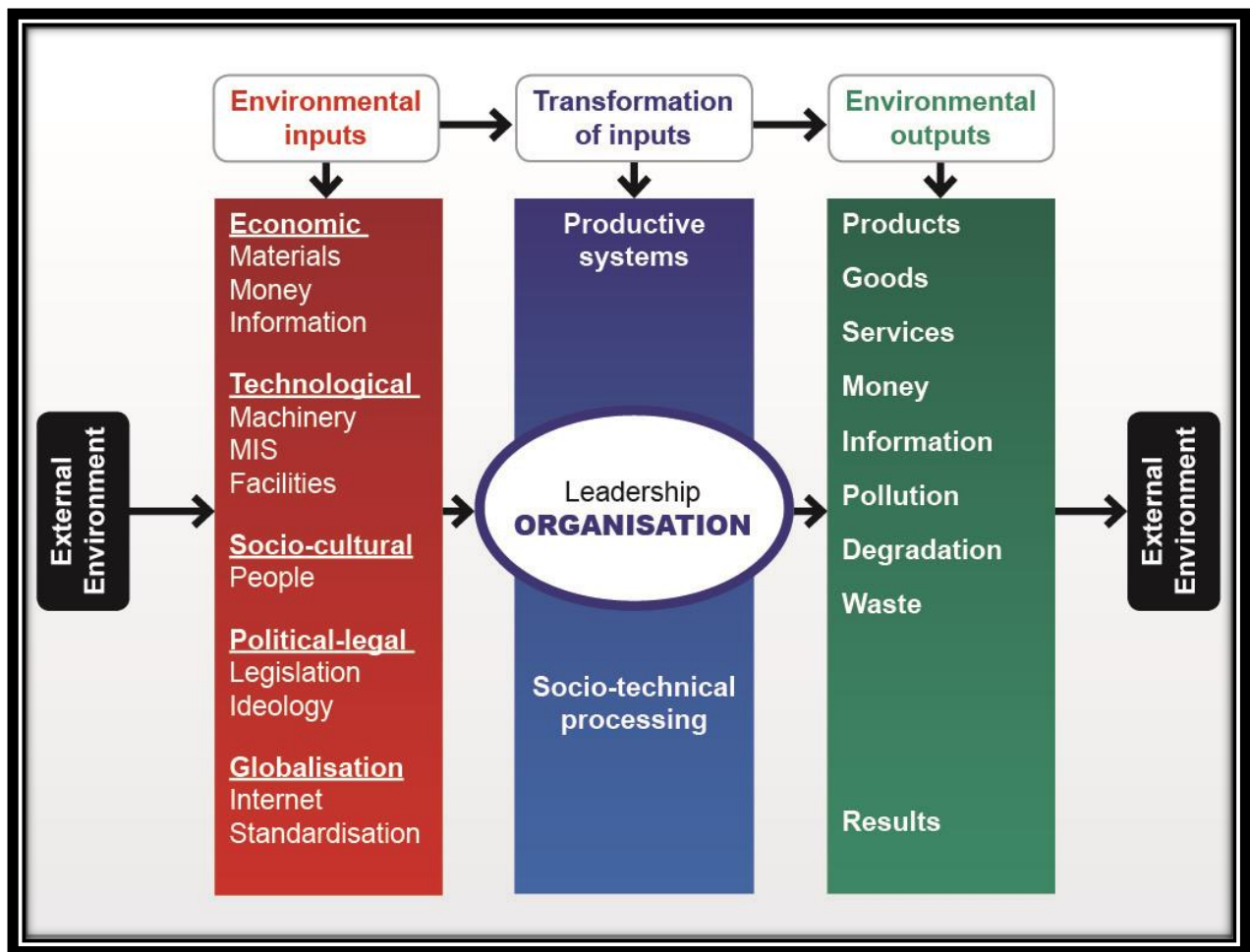


Figure 2.1: The Open System Organisation

Source: Compiled by Author based on Brown and Harvey (2011:40) and Dauda and Ismaila's (2013, p. 159) propositions

Figure 2.1 shows the interdependence between the organisation and the environment where the organisation must understand the forces in the environment that are driving change at any given point in time. The link between the organisation and environmental factors is reinforced by Dichovska and Mirchevska (2016) who refer to organisations as open systems that are affected directly by environmental factors or forces. Within the organisation is leadership whose role is to think, understand the environment and set direction for the organisation. Thus, this study argues that, leaders must possess the right competences to be able to do so. Figure 2.1 also indicates that inputs from the environment can be of an economic, technological, socio-cultural or globalisation nature. The organisation is, as shown in the middle of Figure 2.1, performing socio-technical processing. An organisation is said to be a socio-technical work-system consisting of technical and social systems required for transforming inputs into outputs

(Bygstad, Nielson, & Munkvold, 2010). The outputs from the organisation that include pollution, degradation and waste demonstrate the need to preserve the ecology.

Jovanovic (2015) argues that all business environments find themselves in a state of continuous change or disequilibrium; therefore, organisations must stay aligned and react to the changing business environment or actively anticipate changes in the business environment. In characterising the changing business environment, Suikki (2007) avers that contemporary business environments are engulfed in uncertainty, making prediction of the future uncertain. According to Brown and Harvey (2011), change can best be described as a moving target. In other words, change is continuous in the context of the business environment. Robbins and Judge (2013) add that the changing business environment disrupts the status quo requiring things to be done differently. Put differently, organisations must master the art of change or end up as candidates for extinction (Robbins & Judge, 2013). Jovanovic (2015) further states that, it is not enough for managers to be aware of changes in the business environment, but they should be able to interpret the changes in relation to their organisations.

This chapter puts to the fore the need to understand the changing business environment as well as to understand the world's global strategy of sustainable development currently driven by United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), which encapsulate the forces of change. Furthermore, the chapter discusses forces of change affecting the business environment. In addressing secondary research questions 2.1 and 2.2, the forces exerting pressure on the business environment are categorised and discussed from political-legal, economic, socio-cultural, technological and ecological (PESTE) perspectives. Within the categories, the driving forces of change and megatrends are discussed through the lens of sustainable development, from a global; African; Southern African Development Community (SADC); and local perspectives. According to Samolej (2016), megatrends are major movements, forces or tendencies occurring at a local or global scale that influence future aspects of individuals, societies or businesses. Sustainable development was identified as an underlying contemporary policy/strategy of change bringing together the other forces of the changing business environment through sustainable development goals (SDGs). The SDGs are further critically discussed from an integrated perspective at global, African, SADC, and Zimbabwean country levels. Therefore, being a lens, sustainable development is discussed in more

detail than the other forces of change. Figure 2.2 presents this chapter's orientation, where the forces of change are viewed through the lens of sustainable development.

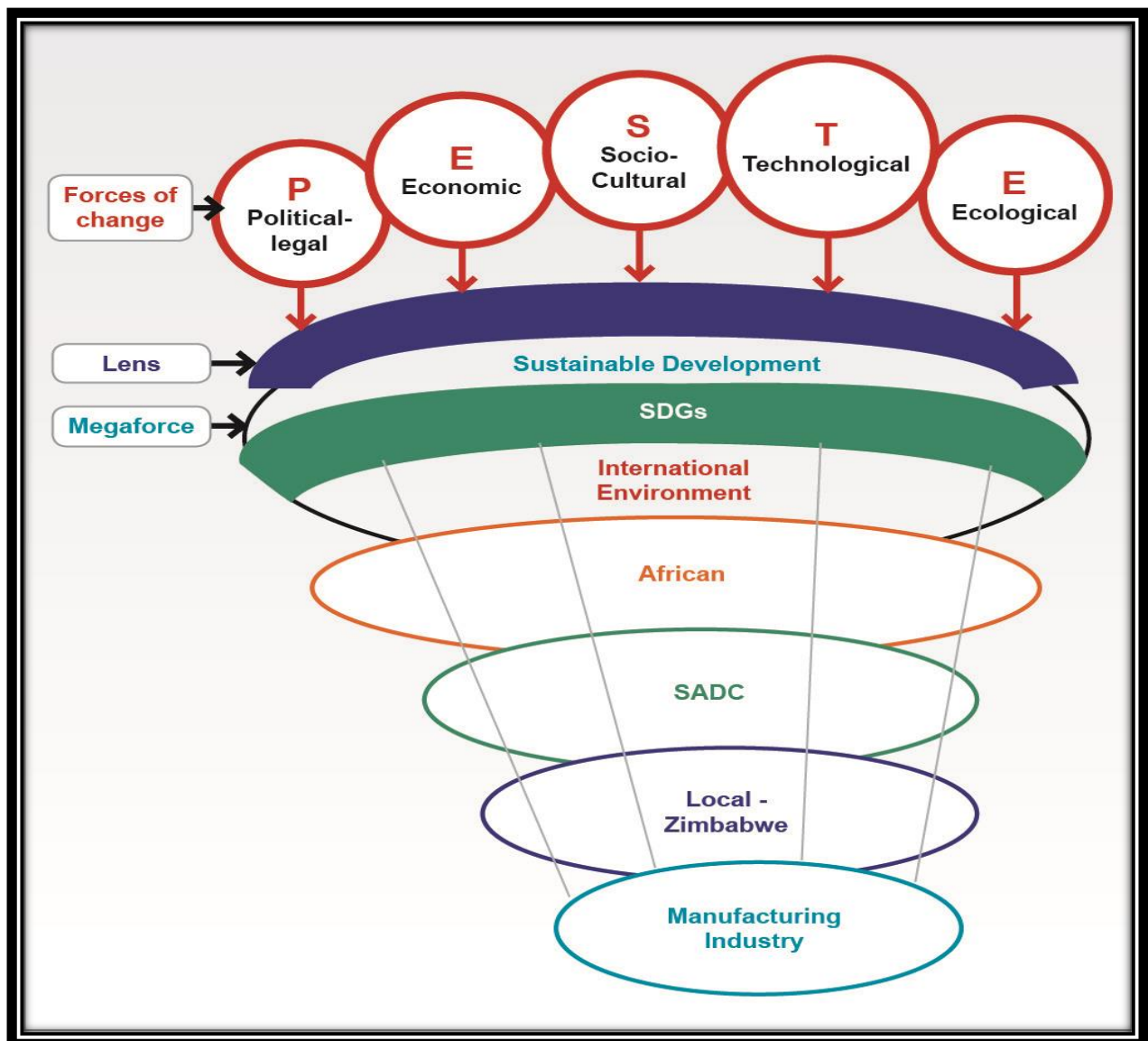


Figure 2.2: Chapter Orientation – The Changing Business Environment

Source: Compiled by Researcher

The discussion starts off in the next section with the driving forces of the changing business environment.

2.2 Driving Forces for Changing Business Environment

Kiyak and Pranckeviciute (2016) define the business environment as a complex political, socio-cultural, economic and technical factor that affects businesses and their operations. Writers such as Virglerova, Fobes, and Vojtovic (2016); and Popesko, Kljucnikov, Hrabec, and Dokulil (2016) agree that the business environment is affected

by diverse factors. Ajayi (2016) explains that a change in an environmental factor or force results in a changing business environment. For example, from a technological perspective, the introduction of the computer revolutionised business and brought about faster processing of data in business operations. Therefore, this study avers that the changing business environment is driven by forces of change that are of a political, economic, social, technological and ecological nature or driven by mega-trending forces. In addition, KPMG (2012) identified sustainable development as a contemporary mega force and argued that sustainable development forces are most likely to increase the complexity of the business environment.

Kotler and Keller (2012), identified six external environmental forces that exert pressure on the changing business environment namely: economic; natural environment; demographic; political-legal; technological; and socio-cultural forces. However, Sheate, Zumparutti, Bennett, and Rogeli (2007) identified five forces of the changing business environment which are presented in Table 2.1 together with examples.

Table 2.1: Five Forces of the Changing Environment

No.	Force	Example
1	Economic	Globalisation and employment
2	Technological	Internet and smart phone
3	Natural Resources	Climate change and conservation of resources
4	Political	Global governance and democratisation
5	Social	Migration and demographic

Source: Adopted from Sheate, Zumparutti, Bennett, and Rogeli (2007, pp. 32-33)

In addition, Robbins and Judge (2013) identify six forces that stimulate change internationally as shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Six Forces Stimulating Change Internationally

No.	Type of Force	Examples
1	Technology	Cheaper and faster palm mobile computers and devices
2	Nature of the workforce	More cultural diversity; ageing population; increased immigration and outsourcing.
3	Economic shocks	Rising and falling of global housing markets; collapse of financial sector markets; and global recession
4	Competition	Global competitors; consolidation and mergers; and increasing government regulation of markets
5	World politics	Rise in healthcare costs; and negative social attitudes against executives and business.
6	Social trends	Increasing environmental awareness; liberalised attitude towards lesbians, gays and transgender employees; and increased multi-tasking and connectivity

Source: Robbins and Judge (2013, p. 579)

Below is a review of the external forces driving the changing business environment from an international perspective using the following categories: economic; technological; political-legal; socio-cultural; and natural environment. The demographic force is considered as a social factor, as argued by Sheate, Zumparutti, Bennett, and Rogeli (2007), hence in this study, demography does not feature as a category but is an element of social force.

One of the reasons for analysing the business environment is to identify as many factors as possible that are affecting organisations without worrying about the categories that the factors belong to (Team-FME, 2013). However, Table 2.3 suggests four ways of categorising the forces.

Table 2.3: Categories for Forces of the Changing Business Environment

	ACRONYM	Categories
1	PEST	Political, Economic, Social, Technical
2	PESTE	Political; Economic; Social; Technological; Ecological
3	PESTELE	Political; Economic, Social; Technological; Ethical; Legal; and Ecological
4	PESTLID	Political; Economic; Social; Technological; Legal; International; and Demographic

Source: Adapted from Team-FME (2013, p. 9)

The foregoing suggest that authors have different ways of naming and categorising the forces affecting the business environment. It is argued here that the naming of the forces of change should be determined by the context of the study. Hence, in view of the categories in Table 2.3, this study will adopt the PESTE method of categorising, which is also supported by Sheate, Zumparutti, Bennett, and Rogeli (2007). The advantage of the PESTE method is that it takes into account the natural environment (ecology) and broadens the social category to include demographic factors. The legal factors will be included in the political category. However, Sustainable development fits in as a policy/strategy, which according to Najam, Runnals, and Halle (2007), is the integrated driver of change. In other words, sustainable development is a summation of economic, social and environmental considerations of the present and more so for the future (Teodorescu, 2015). This is to suggest that the UN Sustainable Development agenda (General Assembly, 2015) is cross-cutting among the forces of change as depicted by PESTE.

2.2.1 Sustainable Development Drivers of Change

According to Lozano (2015), sustainable development is part of the external environmental factors impacting on the organisation. The term sustainable development has an international and global origin with complicated many-sided characters (Gainullina, 2016) and is a difficult concept to define (Ozturk, Olgan, & Guler, 2012). The many-sided characters of sustainable development are echoed by Teodorescu (2015) who stated that sustainable development has different connotations that depend on specific content of particular disciplines such as economics, sociology, biology, or environmental ethics. For example, Beder (1994) argued that sustainable development

was regarded as a modern way of tackling environmental problems, which brought politicians to be part of environmentalists at a global level; thus, giving a political flavour to sustainable development. Hence, sustainable development is said to be made up of three integrated pillars, namely: economic, social-cultural and environmental, that act together as one (Ozturk, Olgan, & Guler, 2012). Its main goal is achieving improved human lives with inter-generational equity (Gandure & Kamwenda, 2013).

Stazyk, Moldavanova, and Frederickson (2016) define inter-generational equity to mean that 'we inherit mother Earth from last generations and we are obliged to give it, in a reasonable state, to future generations'. In other words, inter-generational equity means inheriting the Earth from previous generations and holding it in trust for future generations. The foregoing suggests that organisations have a moral responsibility to consider the welfare of the present and future generations (Kibert, Thiele, Peterson, & Monroe, 2012). Thus, organisations are moving to ethical and sustainable business practices in response to global forces (Wales, 2013). In other words, to pursue interests of future generations, organisations should be grounded in an ethical commitment to the well-being of both current and future generations (Kibert, Thiele, Peterson, & Monroe, 2012; Kibert, Monroe, Peterson, Plate, & Thiele, 2011). In addition, Kibert et al. (2012,) argue that, ethics are implicit in sustainable development because sustainability takes into account moral values and moral goals. They also state the ethical concepts pertinent to sustainable development, which should be observed, are the precautionary principle or intergenerational justice, chain of obligation to future generations, distributional principle or fair distribution of advantages and disadvantages, land or environmental ethics and rights of the other species.

As discussed in the background section of Chapter One, sustainable development descends from the macro-level to micro-level where the concept of sustainability refers to the observance of the principles of sustainable development by the organisation; hence the other concept of the triple bottom line which requires organisations to measure performance not only through profit, but also measuring performance on the social and environmental dimensions (Elkington, 1997; Rastislar & Petra, 2016). In explaining how he coined the term triple bottom line, Elkington (2004) explained that, he wanted to find a new language for an expanded sustainable development agenda founded in 1987 by the Brundtland Report. In addition, he wanted a way of addressing the economic, social and environmental progress in business using an integrated

approach. In other words, the triple bottom line is an approach for measuring how the organisation is applying sustainable development principles (Jackson, Boswell, & Davis, 2011). In addition, Žak (2015) argues that, Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) measured in terms of triple performance line (triple bottom line), is a paradigm of sustainable development. He further argues that a sustainable development strategy is the source of responsibility in modern business. The triple bottom line measures corporate profit, people in the form of social responsibilities, and planet environmental activities, also known as 3Ps (Hindle, 2008). In other words, it captures the principle of sustainable development by measuring organisational activities' impact on the world (Savitz & Weber, 2006). Hence, Alhaddi (2015) supported by Hammer and Pivo (2016) argue that the triple bottom line and sustainability are related constructs used interchangeably in academic literature. Alhaddi (2015) further noted the inconsistent use of the term sustainability. However, Rogers and Hudson (2011) describe the triple bottom line as the practical framework of sustainability targeted at corporations. Hammer and Pivo (2016) use the macro term stating that "triple bottom line thinking is informed by and relates to the concept of sustainable development"; thus, making a distinction between corporate sustainability, as measured by triple bottom line, and sustainable development. In addition, the triple bottom line tries to measure an organisation's contribution to sustainable development (Arowoshegbe & Emmanuel, 2016).

However, the major criticism of the triple bottom line is that the three accounts, measuring corporate profit, people and the planet cannot be added up (Žak, 2015), to which Alhaddi (2015) argued that, there was an absence of a rigid framework for sustainability in academic literature. As a result, the triple bottom line context refers to the environmental dimension as sustainability (Shrivastava & Hart, 1992). In other cases, the social dimension was referred to as sustainability (Dyllick & Hockerts, 2002). Yet others combined the social or environmental and the economic dimensions (Collins, Steg, & Koning, 2007).

However, it can be argued that the triple bottom line endeavours to bring together into measurement the integrated nature of sustainable development at the organisational level, which Hart (1997) explained in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4: Integrated Nature of Sustainable Development

	Economic sustainability	Social sustainability	Environmental sustainability
Water	Necessary in the agriculture, industry	Domestic use	Ecosystem
Nutrition	Increasing agricultural productivity and manufacturing	Improve agricultural productivity	Ensures efficient use of forest and soil
Health	Improving health condition	Protection against pollution	Protecting ecosystems life support
Shelter	Supply and efficient use of resources for construction and transport	Access to housing and transport conditions	Optimal use of energy
Energy	Providing energy for industrial development, transport	Alternative fuel	Reduce the environmental impact through alternative sources
Education	Participation in the creation of goods and services	Helps to increase the quality of life	Environmental care
Income	Employment creation, economic efficiency	Supports creating jobs	Ensures judicious use of natural resources

Source: Adopted from Hart (1997, p. 73)

The above, Table 2.4 explains how an issue integrates the 3Ps of sustainable development. For example, water is an economic issue because it is required in agriculture. Secondly, it is a social sustainability issue because it is used for domestic use. Lastly, it is an environmental issue because it is required for ecosystem nourishment.

Furthermore, the 3Ps are the point of departure between CSR and the new corporate sustainability, contextualised in terms of SDGs, as shown in Figure 2.4. The new

sustainable development agenda 2030 developed SDGs grouped into 5Ps, namely, people, planet, peace, partnerships and prosperity (General Assembly, 2015; DESA, 2016). If this study adds profit to the 5Ps, the bottom line will extend to a sextuple (6P) bottom line for the business world. The inadequacy of the triple bottom line was foreseen by Elkington (2004) when he admitted that, the triple bottom line was not comprehensive enough to address business sustainability premised on sustainable development and environmental protection.

Another perspective of sustainable development at corporate level, is premised on effective management of capital in all its forms without necessarily limiting oneself to economic capital, which is subjectively oriented towards profit maximisation (Bourdieu, 1986). According to Marx (1933), in classical theory, capital consists of surplus value and investment, to which Lin (1999) adds that, the investments and the profits are made and received respectively by the dominant class, the capitalists. However, Anheier, Gerhards and Romo (1995) argue that capital is a generalised resource, which assumes monetary, non-monetary, tangible and intangible forms. Hence, Spillane, Hallett and Diamond (2003) broadly define capital as resources acquired, accumulated, and of situational value. They identified four forms of capital, which they argue to be at the center of leadership attention namely: social, cultural, human and economic capital. Wherein, Daly and Constanza (1992) add natural capital as a fifth form of capital. Other writers categorise capital into natural, manufactured, human, moral or ethical (Hirsch, 1976), cultural (Berkes & Folke, 1992), or institutional capital (Stern, 1997). From a sustainability perspective, Hahn (2005) believes sustainable development postulates that decisions must not only take into consideration economic capital but all forms of capital.

Social capital is defined as the summation of actual and potential resources mobilised through membership in social networks comprising actors and organisations (Anheier, Gerhards, & Romo, 1995), whereas, cultural capital comprises established dispositions and habits; valued cultural objects; and formal educational qualifications and training (Rios-Aguilar, Kiyama, Gravitt, & Moll, 2011). On the one hand, human capital is acquired and developed knowledge, skills, expertise and capabilities that reside in people (Coleman, 1988). On the other hand, economic capital is monetary income, financial resources and assets, which are institutionally expressed as property rights (Anheier, Gerhards, & Romo, 1995). With regard to natural capital or nature, Daly and

Constanza (1992) argue that the minimum obligation for sustainable development is preservation of the total natural capital stock at or above existing levels, for bequeathing to future generations. With respect to preservation of renewable natural resources, Daly (1990), supported by Birch, Levidow and Papaioannou (2010), argues that, the rates of harvesting natural resources should equal the regeneration rates. Daly (1990) further argues that waste rates of emission should equal the natural assimilation capacity of ecosystems. Hence, he concludes that the regenerative and assimilative capacities should be treated as natural capital, and failure to preserve these capacities is considered capital consumption, which is not sustainable.

According to Stern (1997), the inter-generational equity aspect of sustainable development is often premised on the capital approach. In relation to this, Harte (1995) argues that, the 'constant capital' rule posits that development must leave per capita stock of capital unchanged, at least, to meet the normative demand of sustainability. Hence, the sustainable development concept and the capital approach to sustainability have also been incorporated into companies (Atkinson, 2000). However, Harte (1995) argues that because capital is valuable and limited, companies use undesirable capital to produce products that are desirable. It is argued here that, this action by companies becomes wastage and impacts future generations negatively. Thus, Harte (1995) further believes that capital optimisation is the answer to enhancing efficiency thereby contributing to sustainable development, and in the SDGs language, to the sustainable development agenda 2030. Further to this, Stern (1997) believes that the capital theory approach (CTA) is also a tool for addressing sustainable development issues. However, a criticism of the capital theory approach is that writers are divided on what weak sustainability and strong sustainability entail, suggesting that there are different definitions of sustainability (Stern, 1997).

Apart from CSR, triple bottom line and capital sustainable development perspectives, Colbert & Kuruncz, (2007, p. 23) provide a colloquial definition of corporate sustainability, which simply means to "keep the business going". However, Iwu, Kapondoro, Twum-Darko, and Tengeh (2015) argue that sustainability refers to business survival and endurance using symbiotic relationships with society, the environment and the economy at large. Hence, Lozano (2012) attempted to theorise organisational sustainability as:

Corporate activities that proactively seek to contribute to sustainability equilibria, including economic, environmental and social dimensions of today as well as their inter-relations within and through-out the time dimension, while addressing the company's systems and its stakeholders. The company's systems include operations and production; management and strategy; organisational systems; procurement and marketing; and assessments and communications.

Lazano's (2012) theory reinforces the definition of sustainable development from the Brundtland Commission, which states that sustainable development is "meeting the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (WCED, 1987, p. 43). The above holistic approach to sustainable development and corporate sustainability is depicted in Figure 2.3, which categorised sustainability into five perspectives.

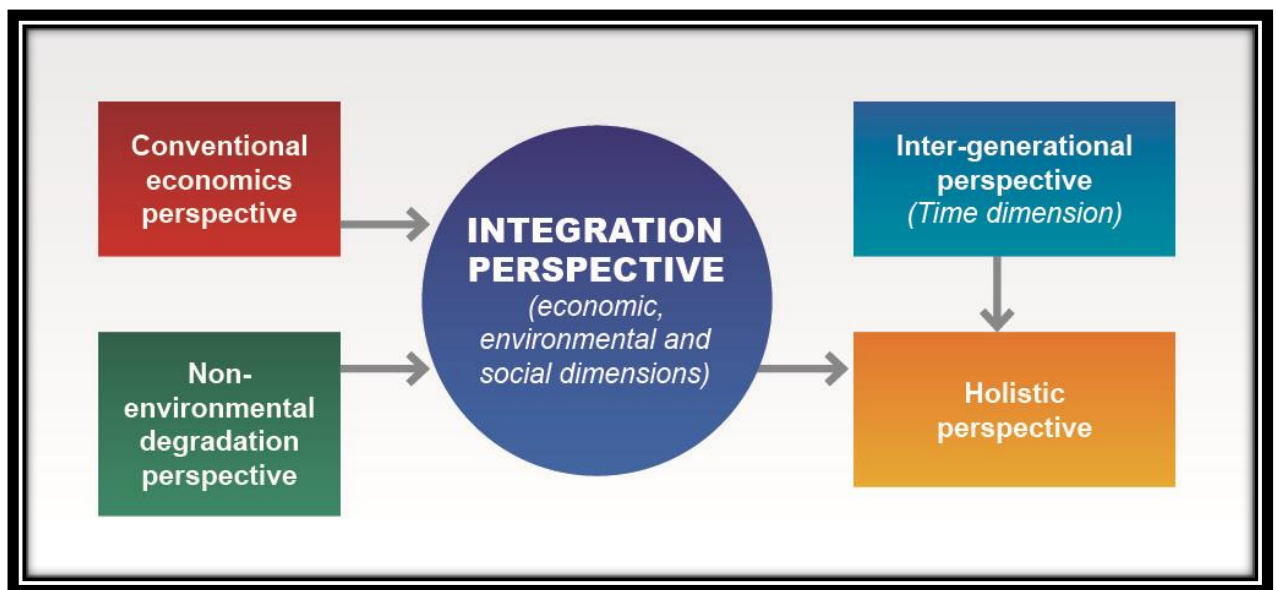


Figure 2.3: Perspectives of Sustainability

Source: Compiled by Researcher from Lozano (2008b, p. 1838)

Figure 2.3 indicates that the integration perspective is a combination of conventional economics, non-environmental degradation and the social aspects. Furthermore, the holistic perspective considers all aspects of sustainable development by incorporating the future and future generations.

Whilst the Brundtland Commission's definition speaks to the macro aspect of sustainable development, the micro aspect is enunciated by Baumgartner and Ebner (2010, p. 76), who argue that:

When an organisation incorporates the concept of sustainable development in its operations, then sustainable development at organisational level, is referred to as corporate sustainability.

Since this study focuses on sustainable manufacturing, the micro definition applies.

From a global (macro) perspective, KPMG (2012) identified sustainable development as a mega force of change primarily influenced by ten megatrends as follows: ecosystem decline, scarcity of material resources, climate change, water scarcity, energy availability, population growth, growth of the middle class, urbanisation, food security and deforestation. However, CISC (2017, p. 1), contended that there were eight sustainability trends which were driving business in 2017, namely, global climate change; rise in social inequality and disengagement; price hikes induced by increased pressure on natural resources; governance power moving from central authorities to cities and communities; technology-driven innovations that disrupt societies and industries; increasing public-private sector partnerships; increasing perceptions of sustainability as an opportunity; and increasing collaborative alliances between business, academia and NGOs.

In contrast, Brackley and York (2017) reported ten sustainability trends for 2017 as follows: globalisation under pressure due to trade protection and nationalism such as BREXIT and Trump rhetoric; cybercrime epidemic; climate leadership shake-up due to threatened pull-out by the US; splashy debut due to uncertain next steps for sustainable development goals by the corporate world; continued rise of social media; feeding the future by addressing food-related health and climate challenges; greater company disclosure on sustainability emerging; continuous search for access to medicines, and search for solutions to antibiotic resistance and pandemics; rising consumption resulting in economic growth and sustainability challenges; and jobless future due to technological developments.

This section reveals two levels of sustainable development. At global and national levels, sustainable development is of a macro nature, whereas, as it descends to organisational

or industry level, it dissects into micro. At this micro level, it is measured through the triple bottom line or 3Ps. These three factors at micro level are separated into people, planet and profit and evaluated accordingly to determine sustainability of the company (Elkington, 1997), hence, the importance of the triple bottom line to the organisation or industry. In addition, the micro level sustainable development at company level is referred to as corporate sustainability. A case has been made for a 6P framework to replace Elkington's (1997) 3Ps framework. This will be discussed in section 2.3.

However, at macro level, it is argued here that, sustainable development cannot replace the traditional forces of change namely, political, economic, socio-cultural, technological and ecological. This is so because sustainable development is a lens through which to view PESTE forces. In other words, it is a summation of PESTE, which makes it a mega force for change, as argued by KPMG (2012). In reality, a business organisation will scan the environment and choose which forces to respond to. This is the reason why the macro and micro levels of sustainable development move together. To put this business reality into context, the next subsection discusses the PESTE forces of change and the trends associated with them.

2.2.2 Political-Legal drivers of change

According to Leftwich (2004) there is no straightforward definition of what politics is and therefore there is a need to provide an operational definition based on the context. However, broadly speaking, in summarising the interpretations of Aristotle, Jowett (1999) avers that politics is the preservation and amendment of the general rules under which people live and is linked to the phenomena of cooperation and conflict. This definition leads to the approach in this study to consider political and legal factors as one category. Therefore, according to Athishec (2013), it is necessary that organisations evaluate political risks and implications associated with certain countries to safeguard organisational interests.

The impact of political systems on the changing business environment is demonstrated by Borang, Jagers, and Povitkina (2016), who concluded that the type of regime has an effect on the changing business environment. Political systems can be classified in terms of representation, for example, plurality such as in the US and UK; proportional representation such as in Israel, Poland and Turkey; or anocracies such as in Georgia, Russia and Azerbaijan (Gallego & Schofield, 2016).

On the global front, the formation of the UN on 24 October 1945 (UN, 2016) gave impetus to global governance as a change driver within the political-legal business environment. Global governance involves institutions, policies, procedures, norms and initiatives by which countries and their citizens strive to foster predictability, order and stability in responding to transnational challenges (DESA, 2014). Examples of global governance institutions of the UN are the Security Council (UNSC), World Trade Organisation (WTO), International Monetary Fund (IMF), and United Nations Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) among others (UNSTT, 2013). An established regional governance institution that is a global player is the European Union (EU). Colakogla (2016) argues that MIKTA, a new global governance player comprising Mexico, Indonesia, South Korea, Turkey and Australia was formed as a power broker within the G20 to enhance summit diplomacy. Countries use global summitry as a governance process to resolve pressing international issues and cause change (Colakogla, 2016). The G20 is regarded as the only major forum for global governance, advancing deliberate policy choices and decisions on the best ways of investing scarce diplomatic, political and other capital (Kirchner, 2016).

The African Union (AU), formally the Organisation of African Unity (OAU) was formed in 1963 to have a combined voice in dealing with political issues pertaining to the African continent, especially ending colonialism in Africa (Ketema, 2012). The current AU charter is determined to address challenges confronting Africa resulting from social, economic, and political changes and with one of its objectives being to coordinate and harmonize policies between existing and future Regional Economic Communities (AU, 2000). One of the regional economic communities is the Southern African Development Community (SADC) which comprises countries of Southern Africa. The SADC was formed on 17 August 1992 whereas its precursor, the Southern African Development Coordination Conference (SADCC) was formed on 1 April 1980 (SADC, 2015). In addition to promoting regional interdependence and integration, SADC has a political objective of defending, consolidating and maintaining security, peace, stability and democracy in the region, whilst promoting and sharing political values and systems (SADC, 2015).

Zimbabwe attained independence on 18 April 1980 after a protracted war of liberation using a proportional representation system between black and white people. It had a bicameral parliamentary system modelled on the British Westminster style. In 1987,

Zimbabwe adopted an executive president system along the USA style. In 2013, Zimbabwe enacted a new constitution amendment (Number 20) Act, 2013, which substituted the old constitution of 18 April 1980 (Government of Zimbabwe, 2013). The new constitution entrenches democracy, strengthens governance, upholds the rule of law, emphasises gender equality, upholds human rights and freedoms, and emphasises the supremacy of the constitution.

The need arises for realigning about 400 laws with the new constitution to reflect the provisions of the supreme law (Munyoro & Chipunza, 2014). As at September 2016, the European Union (EU) had provided two million Euros for realigning the balance of the 400 laws after 159 had been realigned as at the end of September (TZM, 2016). In an unprecedented move, the High Court of Zimbabwe upheld the right to demonstrate enshrined in the new constitution by striking down a two-week ban on protests that had been imposed by the police in Harare under the Public Order and Security Act (POSA) (Dzirutwe, 2016). It remains to be seen how labour is going to react to this High Court ruling about trade unionism versus the Labour Amendment Act, 2005 which prescribes a show cause order before engaging in strike action (MoPSLSW, 2005).

In concluding this subsection, it can be argued that, the formation of regional political blocks tends to erode democracy, especially when it comes to issues discussed at the UN level. For example, an African country might have had opposing views at an AU summit at which a position was taken. When the matter is discussed at UN level, the discerning AU member state will no longer have a voice because she should go by the AU position. In addition, the use of veto powers by permanent members of the UN Security Council does not auger well for global democracy. The procrastination in aligning laws to the new constitution in Zimbabwe is indicative of a political administration, which feels comfortable with the status quo. Such resistance negates the path to democratisation of the political field, especially when one considers that the current constitution emanated from a referendum. This gives credence to Borang, Jagers, and Povitkina's (2016), conclusion that the type of regime has an effect on the changing business environment.

2.2.2.1 Global Political Trends

Notable current global political trends are hybrid wars, the Trump enigma, and BREXIT. Hybrid wars refer to insurgency that is backed by a foreign country against other

governments, where opponents use unique combinations and threats to attack targets through speculative vulnerability including protests and criminal activities to destabilise governments (Josan & Voica, 2015; Korybko, 2017). According to Korybko (2017), the US will move ahead with a campaign of waging hybrid wars on China's One Belt One Road projects (New Silk Road).

Trump enigma is taken in the context that Trump is difficult to understand. Trump reportedly said that established alliances, partnerships, protocols and rules mean little to him, and questioned the future of the European Union and NATO (Engelen, 2017).

BREXIT is shorthand for saying that the UK is leaving the EU following a referendum held on 23 June 2016, where Britons voted 51.9% against 48.1% to leave the EU (Hunt & Wheeler, 2017). There are many unclear positions regarding BREXIT, some of which will be subject to negotiation with the EU. According to Economist (2017) the following questions are pertinent: Will Scotland vote for a SCOXIT from Britain? How will Britain deal with immigration considering British agriculture relies heavily on migrant labour? How will the pound react to final exit? How will Britain proceed with its foreign development assistance? How will Britain politically cooperate with the EU after exit? Is BREXIT going to strengthen the Commonwealth?

2.2.2.2 African Political Trends

The new political trends in Africa are continued conflicts, demand for democracy, and China's uptake of geo-political space.

According to the Raleigh and Moody (2017) report, Africa has seen a decline in large-scale wars and battles. The report notes the following: decreasing Boko Haram activities in Nigeria; increasing military conflicts in South Sudan and Libya; continuation of status quo in Somalia and decreasing armed conflicts in the DRC.

On democracy, Africans are demanding fairer, inclusive and more competitive elections (ADB-OECD-UNDP, 2016). In the context of the uptake of geo-political space, according to Mungai (2016), China confirmed setting up a military base in Djibouti and also hints on doing the same in Namibia to fulfil a speculated string of bases on the Indian Ocean covering Tanzania, Kenya, Mozambique, Seychelles and Madagascar to assist China in patrolling key international marine trade.

2.2.2.3 SADC Political Trends

Apart from the African political trends, additional political trends unique to SADC are violence against civilians and the strengthening of democratic institutions. Violence against civilians is spotted in all SADC countries with the exception of Botswana and takes the form of state apparatus being used to crash demonstrations (Raleigh & Moody, 2017, p. 2). SADC is strengthening democratic institutions through support from GIZ to promote dialogue between governments and civil society; and promote peaceful political environments, which are based on legitimate, accountable and resilient political institutions (Gallina, 2017).

2.2.2.4 National Political Trends

The political environment in Zimbabwe is being driven by the new constitution, realignment of laws with the new constitution and the sanctioning of demonstrations by the courts. Political issues trending in Zimbabwe are, continued citizens' demands for democratic and credible elections despite elections being consistently held every five years; declining political violence in comparison to the 2008 levels; ongoing voter intimidation especially in rural areas (ZESN, 2017); and introduction of biometric voter registration to enhance the credibility of election results (Chidaro, 2017).

The foregoing confirms that political forces are drivers of the changing business environment from both international and local perspectives. The political factors sampled to confirm the impact on the changing business environment were regime type, global institutions, regional institutions, hybrid wars, Trump enigma, BREXIT, conflicts, democracy demand, geo-political space, constitutionalism, and credibility of elections. These political factors can impact the changing business environment positively or negatively. The next section discusses economic drivers of the changing business environment.

2.2.3 Economic Drivers of Change

Brown and Havstad (2004) define economic drivers as factors of immediate and distant surroundings that cause significant shifts in the current state of the environment with regard to the management of scarcity, supply and demand. Furthermore, economic drivers of change also refer to the nature and direction of the economy in which business operates and have a major impact on the business environment (Ryszard, 2014). For example, significant shifts in the state of the business environment can result from an

increase or decrease in the rate of exchange. These significant shifts were empirically proved by Breuer and Klose (2015) who assessed beneficiaries of a nominal devaluation of the Euro in the Euro-area between 2012 and 2013, when the Euro appreciated in value. The study found, that the appreciation of the Euro affected the competitiveness of countries in the Euro-area, causing exports to be more expensive, whilst a depreciation which occurred earlier had caused exports to be cheaper (Breuer & Klose, 2015). In other words, an appreciation or depreciation of a local currency against currencies of major trading partners, potentially increases or decreases the prices of goods and services in the country.

Another economic driver of the changing business environment is international oil prices. Lutz and Meyer (2009) studied the economic impact of higher oil and gas prices. The study revealed that large oil-importing countries, the US, Japan, China and Germany suffered GDP losses as a result of higher oil prices (Lutz & Meyer, 2009). In other words, the economic sectors of these countries were negatively affected by rising oil prices, resulting in decreased productivity measured against the previous period.

Economic recession is also a driver of the changing business environment. The economic crisis of 2008 which started in the US reduced consumer demand across the globe, particularly in countries that had the US as their trading partner, resulting in unemployment and underemployment (Collins, 2011). In addition, the recession affects trading partners because of the demand for exports and imports (Taiyan, 2014, p. 8).

Notable economic drivers of change in Zimbabwe are the introduction of bond notes (a surrogate currency deemed to be equivalent to the United States Dollar), exports incentives and statutory instrument 64 (SI 64) of 2016. The RBZ (2016) crafted a monetary policy measure to introduce an export bonus scheme supported by bond notes to maintain and sustain the multi-currency system in Zimbabwe. The scheme was intended to reduce import dependency; ensure efficient and productive utilisation of foreign currency; and boost exports by paying five percent incentive bonus on the value of exports to the exporter, payable in bond notes, thus promoting local production (RBZ, 2016).

In addition, the Government of Zimbabwe(2016) issued SI 64 of 2016. The purpose of the statutory instrument was to limit the importation of goods under the Open General Import Licence; protect local manufacturing industry; increase capacity utilisation of

local manufacturers and ultimately increase economic growth (Government of Zimbabwe, 2016). Busisa Moyo, the President of the Confederation of Zimbabwe Industries (CZI) indicated that companies protected by SI 64 of 2016 had orders increased by 30 to 50 percent (Fingaz, 2016).

The section emphasises the importance of economic forces in the business environment because they determine the nature and direction that the company must take. Some economic factors are induced by supply and demand. For example, a movement in the local currency's exchange rate may result in an increase or decrease in the prices of the company's products, if the company imports inputs. Some economic factors arise from regulatory policies, such as the imposition of quotas, incentives and disincentives for imports. Others are crisis driven, such as the recession. Yet others are monetary or fiscal policy-driven. However, as shall be discussed in Chapter Four Schrmer and Kaufer (2013) advocate for the introduction of ecosystem economics as a new dimension of economics. A review of the economic trends obtaining internationally are the subject of the next discussion.

2.2.3.1 Global Economic Trends

According to Economides and Wilson (2001), economic trends can be identified through four dimensions, namely, economic means; economic ends; economic implications; or economic causes. Table 2.5 shows examples of economic trends by dimension.

Table 2.5: Dimensions of Economic Trends

No.	Economic Dimension	Economic Trends
1	Economic means	Tarrifs; quotas; aid; and sanctions
2	Economic ends	Economic growth; low inflation; full employment; and development
3	Economic implications	Implications of immigration laws, refugee crisis, or social media
4	Economic causes	War, peace, climate change or disaster

Source: Adapted from Economides and Wilson (2001, p. 13)

The current global economic trends according to a report by WEF (2016) are income inequality, growing unemployment, and geo-strategic tensions. The report states that the income of the top one percent of the world population grew twenty times in the last

25 years. Also, jobs globally available were failing to keep pace with the growing economies. Lastly, geo-strategic competition indicates that the West was drifting away from economic interdependence with Russia (Adomeit, 2011; Trenin, 2015). However, it can be argued that this economic drifting between the US and Russia are temporary as they are guided by political temperatures, which will cool down in the near future, more so, when one considers the cooling down of political tension between North Korea and the US Trump administration. Another economic trend is that India and China continue their rivalry for the fastest growing large economy in the world (Zhong, 2017).

2.2.3.2 African Economic Trends

Khan (2017) reviewed the current economic trends in Africa and identified declining economic growth, boost in intraregional trade, and maturing eurobond debt as notable trends. The review established that GDP growth in Sub-Saharan Africa was projected to be the weakest in 2016 since the 2008-9 financial crisis because of poor performance by South Africa and Nigeria which contribute half of the GDP.

Intratrade is expected to be boosted by the creation of the African Tripartite Free-Trade Area (TFTA) that brings together 26 economies from the East African Community (EAC), Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA), and Southern African Development Community (SADC). It remains to be seen if there is going to be political will to bring these three communities together, especially with the dragging of feet among African leaders when it comes to signing agreements that they deem to result in the erosion of political power of sovereign leaders.

The maturing eurobond debt was incurred by African countries during the 2008-2009 financial crisis because it was cheap money then. This debt is now maturing and countries are readying themselves to take up new debt.

2.2.3.3 SADC Economic Trends

The emerging economic trends in the SADC region are sustainable foreign direct investment (FDI), ease of doing business, declining intra-African trade, and high transportation costs.

Sustainable FDI is defined as foreign investment that achieves local economic, social and environmental objectives (Economou & Bronzatto, 2010; Kline, 2012). SADC

countries have started reviewing their FDI policies in order to align them with global trends towards sustainable FDI (Markowitz & Langalanga, 2016).

The ease of doing business in SADC as ranked by the World-Bank (2017) is said to be poor, with ten countries ranked above 100, where one is the highest ranking and 190 is the lowest ranking. The highest ranked country in SADC is Mauritius at 49 and the lowest is DRC at 184. This means that it is not easy to do business in SADC compared against other countries of the world regarding regulations and property rights; therefore, a lot of effort is required to attract investors. The change of political leadership in Zimbabwe has not boosted SADC's ranking for ease of doing business. According to GIZ-SAIIA (2015), SADC has been registering declining trade with the rest of Africa since 2000, hence the thrust on the SADC new trade facilitation agenda (Feidieker, 2011).

The high costs of transportation in SADC emanate from border barriers and inadequate physical infrastructure. The estimated effective speed of using road transport in SADC is six kilometers per hour and rail transport is 12 kilometers per hour (GIZ-SAIIA, 2015).

2.2.3.4 National Economic Trends

Economic issues trending in Zimbabwe were as follows: continued rise in government debt as a result of lack of options in paying-off arrears; improving maize output to bring back the bread-basket status; rising corruption; and rising inflation due to introduction of bond notes as a surrogate currency (The Economist, 2017). In addition, cash shortages have resurfaced. This is a repeat of the cash shortage crisis, which occurred in 2003 resulting in hyperinflation (Tambudzai & Charumbira, 2003). According to the Reserve Bank Governor, the current cash shortages are a result of a strong United States dollar, which Zimbabwe adopted as part of the multi-currency regime, initial low uptake of use of plastic money, a cash economy, import oriented consumption and low export capacity (Mangudya, 2016).

The foregoing confirms that economic forces are drivers of the changing business environment from both international and local perspectives. It is clear that economic factors cause significant shifts in the current state of the environment with regard to the management of scarcity, supply and demand. The economic factors sampled to confirm the hypothesised position were foreign currency exchange rate, oil prices, economic recession, income inequality, unemployment, geo-strategic tensions, economic growth, intraregional trade, debt, foreign direct investment, ease of doing business, transport

costs, and rising government debt. Next is a discussion on the socio-cultural drivers of the changing business environment.

2.2.4 Socio-Cultural Drivers of Change

According to John-Steiner and Mahn (1996), socio-cultural drivers are activities of people including their beliefs, norms and values that bring about change. In this case demography becomes a product of human activity since it is a way of populating and arranging societal data. Siemieniuch, Sinclair and Henshaw (2015) indicated that population demographics are a major driver of change as the world population will increase to between nine and ten billion by 2050 from the current seven billion. However, it can be argued that, it would be interesting to see how the population policies of countries will impact this projection. The question that should be answered is: Considering that the countries are now aware of this foreseen population growth, how are they going to react?

Demangeot and Sankaran (2012) explored the phenomenon of cultural pluralism to uncover consumption patterns in a multicultural environment. Cultural pluralism is a pattern of emergent acts or practices of consumption that individuals adopt in consuming products/services from several cultures (Demangeot & Sankaran, 2012, p. 761). The study established that cultural pluralism strategies impact the business environment in different ways; cultural experimentalism causes consumers to continuously seek for products, practices and experiences of other cultures; cultural extentionism causes consumers to slowly move towards adoption of foreign products/services and practices; cultural purism causes selective consumption of foreign products and practices; and cultural passivity results in no interest in foreign products/services or practices (Demangeot & Sankaran, 2012).

In Zimbabwe, demographics are necessary for planning at both micro and macro levels, since they are a driver of change. Zimstat-UNFPA (2015) conducted population projection for Zimbabwe and reported that the population was expected to grow by 47.3 percent in 2032 above the 2013 census; urban and rural populations indicate that there will be no urbanisation; and that the urban split will remain stagnant at 33 percent. The poverty analysis for Zimbabwe according to Zimstat (2016) as at 30 September 2016 stated that the poverty datum line (PDL) was USD475 and further defined the PDL as the cost of a determined standard of living, which must be attained if one is to be deemed

as not being poor. This study argues that the manufacturing sector in Zimbabwe must produce goods which are cheaper and affordable to lower the PDL, hence the drive to increase capacity utilisation.

The section has shown that, population is one socio-cultural force that impacts business positively and negatively. From a company perspective, a growing population has potential to increase demand for a company's products. Hence, the importance of demographics cannot be overemphasised. The foregoing should compel planners to consider that Zimbabwe's population, at 47.3 percentage growth by 2032, is growing at a faster rate than the world population growth, anticipated to be nine to ten billion from a 2015 figure of seven billion, which is a 29 - 43 percentage growth. It is important to understand the impact of this human activity on the changing business environment. The next subsections discuss social-cultural trends obtaining globally, regionally, and locally.

2.2.4.1 Global Socio-Cultural Trends

Some of the socio-cultural issues trending globally are ageing population, empowerment of individuals, rising migration, rising use of social media, and the coronavirus. UN-DESA-DP (2015) states that almost every nation in the world is experiencing an increase in the number of old persons, with estimates showing a 56% growth for the over 60 age group between 2015 and 2030, that is, from 901 million to 1.4 billion old people.

According to Graf, Ghez, Khodyakov, and Yakub (2015) empowerment of individuals is evident through the emergent rise of the middle income class, especially in Asia and is driven by universal access to education, use of ICT and betterment of the status of women.

Migration, conflict and violence forced 65.3 million people to leave their countries and settle in other countries globally, with conflicts in the Middle East and North Africa being the main drivers (IOM, 2015). Migration is also being influenced by reverse brain-drain according to Sahay (2014), who argues that the era of brain-drain no longer exists and has been replaced by brain circulation, which theoretically posits that, an immigrant's location is immaterial because technology is making it possible for people to work anywhere, anytime.

On the rising issue of social media, it is reported that use of social media stands at about 2.7 billion users and rising at about 21% annually (Chaffey, 2017; Kemp, 2017).

2.2.4.2 African Socio-Cultural Trends

In addition to the global socio-cultural trends, Africa is endowed with a young population, is seeing growing exports of culture, and extensive focus on women. The population of Africa is predominantly young, with about 200 million people aged between 15 and 24 years out of an estimated population of 1.2 billion people (Matshego, 2016). Furthermore, Matshego (2016) reports that African culture is being exported to the world through films such as Nigeria's Nollywood and clothing dubbed African attire, which has gained popularity across the world.

The focus on women is exemplified by the fact that half (600 million) of the population of Africa is constituted by women who have endured economic exclusion, gender-based violence, limited participation in public life, limited access to education and exposure to harmful cultural practices, which have now become the focus of redress (Engelman, 2016).

2.2.4.3 SADC Socio-Cultural Trends

A focus on socio-cultural trends in Southern Africa shows a drive towards women economic empowerment, and a predominantly rural oriented population. The SADC has developed a women economic empowerment program, a new trend in SADC countries, which is intended to alleviate poverty because 50% of the poor population in SADC are women. According to SADC (2012), the program requires member states to create policies of entrepreneurship and trade that are gender responsive and ensure that women are beneficiaries of economic opportunities including public procurement opportunities.

Unlike the global trends, the SADC population is largely rural. A SADC (2016) appeal for humanitarian assistance for the El Niño induced drought indicated that 62% of the population (182 million) live in rural areas against a total population of 292 million, which confirms that agriculture is the main stay of the SADC economies.

2.2.4.4 National Socio-cultural Trends

Socio-cultural issues trending in Zimbabwe are erosion and non-payment of pension benefits; declining middle class; continued emigration of Zimbabweans to other

countries due to a worsening economic climate; and declining health standards. According to Mazviona (2013), the currency reform of 2008 from the Zimbabwean dollar to the United States dollar resulted in a mismatch between the assets of pension funds and the pension funds liabilities culminating in paltry pension benefits payouts up to this day.

The Zimbabwean middle class was decimated when the country started experiencing an economic melt-down since year 2000, with many professionals being reduced to black market foreign currency dealers, barter traders and high unemployed statistics being recorded (Gappah, 2010), resulting in only two classes remaining, that is, the rich and the poor (The Sentinel, 2015).

Chikanda (2014) empirically established that 86% of Zimbabwean professionals have a high emigration potential as a result of high living costs; unavailability of affordable quality products; high taxation; and low levels of income. However, Kiwanuka and Monson (2009) add economic and political collapse of Zimbabwe, as the main causes of unprecedented emigration to Southern African countries, even with stability gradually returning to Zimbabwe.

According to Murisa (2010), the shortage of medical supplies and qualified personnel has affected the health delivery system in Zimbabwe to the extent that women are opting to give birth at home. In spite of gains made during the Government of National Unity (GNU) from 2009 to 2013, the healthcare system continues to be under pressure (Karombo & Kotze, 2016).

The subsection confirms that socio-cultural forces are drivers of the changing business environment from an international perspective. The socio-cultural issues sampled to confirm the impact on the changing business environment were population growth; demographics; cultural pluralism; empowerment of individuals; women empowerment; migration; social media use; culture exports; erosion and non-payment of pension benefits; declining middle class; continued emigration; and declining health standards. The next section discusses the technological drivers of the changing business environment.

2.2.5 Technological Drivers of Change

According to UNESCO (2017) technology is the extension of the human capability for satisfying needs and wants and involves systems and subsystems that work together to achieve the system goal. A definition of technology as a change driver is provided by Luppicini (2005), who states that technology is a goal-oriented approach to solve problems using techniques, tools, methods or theories to bring about change.

In characterising the changing business environment, Jaksic, Jovanovic and Petkovic (2015) avers that exponential and increasing technological growth and development are a major global challenge. According to Dauda and Ismaila (2013), the impact of technology on the business environment is influenced by new inventions, technological advancement, state-of-the-art technology, and technological diversity. In addition, powerful technology enables opportunities, but at the same time renders existing business models obsolete. However, it can be argued that the use of technology in underdeveloped countries tends to create declining employment rates since it tends to result in retrenchment of affected employees as opposed to their redeployment.

The impact of technology is also found in the use of social media, which has changed the destiny of nations in the last ten years, eradicating political systems, entire countries and creating momentum for the whole Middle East region (Delloite, 2015). The most popular social media platforms are Facebook, YouTube, Twitter, Google+, LinkedIn, Instagram and Pinterest; and as of 2015 there were 1.75 billion users world-wide (USAID, 2015).

Another impact of technology is highlighted by Sassenberg (2013), who studied the effects of person characteristics on the World-Wide-Web (www). The study found out that the www had become the main source of information and ordinary means of communication in developed countries and has made significant advances in the developing countries (Sassenberg, 2013), thus impacting the changing business environment. The study concluded that web-use depends on the person's character and the stage of development of the country (Sassenberg, 2013, p. 334). This implies that web-use differs between developed and developing nations. In other words, the technological impact on the changing business environment can differ from country to country.

The subsection confirms technology as an enabler of change with influence on other forces of change. For example, social media has wiped out political systems and entire countries. New inventions enable increased economic activities, whilst on the social front, the world-wide-web and social media have changed human behaviours. The technological trends obtaining internationally, regionally, and locally are discussed next.

2.2.5.1 Global Technological Trends

According to Deloitte (2017) and Baily and De Propriis (2015), some of the current global trends are as follows: demand for ecological innovations, cloud computing, and digitalisation. The demand for ecological innovations is explained by Baily and De Propriis (2015) explain the demand for ecological innovations by stating that scarcity of natural resources and increasing greenhouse gas emissions and pollution are demanding technological innovations to address ecological and climate challenges world-wide. Cloud computing is a concept that emphasises use of upscaled infrastructure for computer applications, file and data storage with a view of sharing resources at a global scale (Wu, Xue, Li, Chen, & Xie, 2015). The global nature of cloud computing is emphasised by Gouglidis, Mavridis, and Hu (2014, p. 97) who defined cloud computing as “a business model that provides multi-tenancy, elasticity, and scalability of computer services using broad network access across the globe enabling users to pay as you go”.

Regarding the digitalisation trend, Alina (2016) argues that digital technology is the main driver of digital economies where trading in goods and services is done electronically over the internet. Berkett (2010) added that the driving power of digital technology resides in the internet which is an uncensored, open and unmanaged environment where content providers and consumers have unfettered and equal access across the world. However, it is argued that the internet cannot replace the physical movement of goods between the supplier and the consumer. For example, one can buy goods through online purchasing platforms, but whilst the ordering and payment aspects can be done online, the actual movement of the goods has to be done physically.

2.2.5.2 African Technological Trends

According to Ekwealor (2017) technological trends that will dominate Africa in 2017 are artificial intelligence (AI), internet of things (IoT), and ICT education. In Africa, artificial intelligence is being deployed to train, guide and advise professionals in the workplace,

while robotics are being built as personal assistants (Ekwealor, 2017). On internet of things (IoT), Manyika, et al. (2015) state that IoT blends physical and digital realms and expands the reach of information technology through mandatory and control of physical things electronically anywhere. Hence Manyika, et al. (2015) define IoT as sensors and actuators that are connected by networks to systems of computing. On ICT education, there is a proliferation of ICT education in Africa with 2017 seeing an astronomical rise in ICT developers (Ekwealor, 2017).

2.2.5.3 SADC Technological Trends

In addition to technological trends in Africa, the following are some of the trends occurring in Southern Africa: digitalisation (IT News Africa, 2017); square kilometre array (SKA) astronomy project (Ledgard, 2015); and mobile money (Fanta, Mutsonziwa, Goosen, Emanuel, & Kettles, 2016). Digitalisation is being adopted by companies in SADC (IT News Africa, 2017). It involves digitalisation of television and broadcasting services, which southern African countries are working hard on, in compliance with the International Telecommunication Union (ITU) directive (Southern Times, 2015). Digitalisation in education is taking the form of providing real-time lessons through high definition video links and the creation of smart classrooms (Siemens, 2017). Vodacom, a technology company, will provide over 5000 South African schools in the Eastern Cape province with digital management solutions that will assist the Department of Education to communicate with each school on time and attendance, tracking pupils' grades and asset management (IT News Africa, 2017). Digitalising for crime prevention through biometric identification techniques and facial recognition was rolled-out in South Africa in 2014 (Immigration South Africa, 2014).

According to Ledgard (2015), the goal of the SKA astronomy project is to map the universe using radio telescopes that will produce more astronomy data than all the astronomy projects in the world combined.

The mobile money trend in Southern Africa is the increasing move towards the use of mobile money to enhance financial inclusion of the unbanked and unemployed population using cellphones (Fanta, Mutsonziwa, Goosen, Emanuel, & Kettles, 2016).

2.2.5.4 National Technological Trends

According to Holliday (2010), technology translates into an important driver of sustainable manufacturing. Thus, digitalisation (Business Daily, 2014), the use of plastic

money (Nyakudya, 2016), mobile money platforms (Mutsonziwa & Maposa, 2016) and ICT in schools are some notable technological trends in Zimbabwe (Musarurwa, 2011). According to Business Daily (2014), when digitalisation of television and radio is completed in Zimbabwe, the existing two frequency waves will accommodate not less than 100 television channels. In addition, digitalisation will make redundant television sets that are not digital video broadcasting compliant.

Regarding the use of plastic money, in an interview with the Confederation of Zimbabwe Retailers (CZR), Nyakudya (2016) reported that there was an increase of 50 percent in the use of plastic money in the retail sector because of cash shortages. In addition, Mutsonziwa and Maposa (2016) investigated if mobile money can be a catalyst for financial inclusion in Zimbabwe. The study found that mobile money had extended the boundaries of financial inclusion reaching out to millions of the unbanked in Zimbabwe; mobile phones were the major platforms of transferring and making payments; and that mobile phones were relatively cheap, reliable and a secure way of transacting (Mutsonziwa & Maposa, 2016). According to the survey conducted by FinScope (2015), 45 percent of adults in Zimbabwe used mobile money services in 2014 and 23 percent stated that mobile money is the only service available to them. The growth in the use of mobile money is high considering that Econet, a mobile phone company, was the first, in Zimbabwe, to launch a mobile money transfer service called Ecocash towards the end of 2011 (Makanjee & Chirongwe, 2012).

With regard to driving change through information and communication technology (ICT), Musarurwa (2011) studied how teacher-education colleges in Zimbabwe were embracing teaching with and learning through ICTs. The study found out that the rate at which schools were embracing ICTs is unprecedented; the teacher training program needed to be revolutionised to integrate learning with ICTs and learning to teach through them; and that the presidential computer scheme was providing computer equipment to schools including schools in remote areas (Musarurwa, 2011).

The subsection confirmed that technological forces are drivers of the changing business environment from both international and local perspectives. The technological issues sampled to confirm the impact on changing business environment were new inventions; social media; world-wide-web; ecological innovations; cloud computing; digitalisation; artificial intelligence; internet of things; ICT education; SKA astronomy project; mobile

money; use of plastic money; mobile money platforms; and ICT in schools. The next section discusses ecological drivers of the changing business environment.

2.2.6 Ecological (Natural Environmental) Drivers of Change

According to Kumarasamy, Alagappamoses and Vasanthy (2004), the natural environment is made-up of the atmosphere, the lithosphere, the hydrosphere, and the biosphere, which are in constant change because they are affected by and affect human activities. The atmosphere and the earth's surface create the short-term weather, the long-term climate and temperature conditions (Suzuki, Zupanski, & Zupanski, 2017) that sustain all forms of life on earth (Sand & Wiener, 2016). The atmospheric system that has been subjected to change and degradation due to human activities especially industrial activities, and climate change, is now a major concern to the international community (Sand & Wiener, 2016).

The lithosphere is the crust and uppermost part of the mantle of the earth or the most rigid part (Meschede, 2015). The hydrosphere constitutes 75% of the earth and is made-up of all free waters of the earth that are not physically or chemically confined inside the minerals of the earth's crust (Vuglinsky, 2017).

The biosphere is composed of all living communities on earth such as life profusion in the tropical rain forests and photosynthetic phytoplankton in the oceans, and in addition, distribution of life is premised on temperature and availability of water (Johnson & Raven, 2002).

Zimbabwe is endowed with abundant natural resources such as forests, wildlife, mineral deposits, arable land, surface water and groundwater (ZUNDAF, 2016). The paradox remains that the country is endowed with an abundance of natural resources, yet the country is experiencing such low economic growth rates and, in some cases, negative rates. It can be argued that this could be attributable to a leadership capability crisis. The ZUNDAF (2016) report further states that Zimbabwe was prone to climate change impacts such as the El Nino induced drought in the season 2015-2016 (Macheka, 2016).

Zimbabwe's approach to the sustainable management of natural resources and the protection of the environment is provided for by the Environmental Management Act, Chapter 20:27. The Act provides for rights and obligations to every citizen and organisation as follows: access to information on the natural environment; live in an

environment that is clean and not harmful to health; protect the environment to benefit present and future generations; and promote justifiable economic and social development through participation in the implementation of policies and legislation that prevent environmental degradation, pollution and enable sustainable management and use of natural resources (Parliament of Zimbabwe, 2016).

However, whilst the natural environment is considered as a force affecting the changing business environment, it is argued here that, it is more of a victim as it appears to be impacted more by human and business activity than it affects them. Companies must be mindful of their activities in relation to the impact on the natural environment, hence, the need to protect the environment so that future generations will have something to inherit. However, companies must not be driven by compliance with legislation in managing environmental issues, but by the attitude that believes that it is the right thing to do. The natural environmental trends obtaining internationally, regionally, and locally are discussed next.

2.2.6.1 Global Natural Environmental Trends

Notable global natural environmental issues trending were: climate change (atmospheric trend), land management (lithospheric trend), waste management for clean water (hydro-spherical trend) and conservation of natural resource (bio-spherical trend). On climate change, the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) encourages Parties the world over, to consider climate change issues when designing social, economic and environmental policies/strategies (UNTTSDCC, 2011). The Food and Agriculture Organisation of the UN (FAO) considered climate as a driver of change during the World Food Day, celebrated on 16 October 2016 with a theme titled “Climate is changing, food and agriculture must too” (FAO, 2016). Doherty and Clayton (2011) studied the psychological impacts of global climate change. The study recognised the multiplicity and complexity of meanings of climate change; the impacts to social, technological and ecological transitions, and called for increased literacy in ecology, expanded ethical responsibility and social-psychological adaptations. Notably, global land management trends involve halting and reversing land degradation, sustainable land use and environmental stewardship (Cortner & Moote, 1994; Barson, 2013).

According to Gadallah and Sayed (2014), waste management for clean water trends involves efficient management of open dumping, burning, municipal waste, agricultural waste and industrial waste in order to avoid polluting freshwater, groundwater and sea water. Significantly, conservation of natural resources took centre-stage in 1980 when the World Conservation Strategy (WCS) for living resources was developed and endorsed by the Ecosystem Conservation Group (ECG) comprising Food Agriculture Organisation, International Union for Conservation of Nature, United Nations Environmental Program, and the United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (IUCN, 1980). The WCS advanced the achievement of sustainable development through conserving natural resources. The conservation strategy was to be driven by government, conservationists, development agencies, trade unions, industry and commerce. The World Conservation Congress of 2016, held in Hawai'i, discussed the role of business in implementing conservation goals and mainstreaming of biodiversity within companies (WCC, 2016). The congress urged business to conserve and value nature, contribute to equitable and effective governance of natural resources, and investing in nature-based solutions (WCC, 2016). In addition, conservation of natural resources can be analysed in the context of over-consumption. According to a report by FoEE, Global2000, and SERI (2009), people in developing countries consume about ten times more natural resources than people in developed countries. In other words, the people in developing countries are consuming more resources at a faster rate than the resource regeneration capacity.

2.2.6.2 African Natural Environmental Trends

Notable African trends in natural resources are local content policies in natural resource exploitation (Akinkugbe, 2013), biodiversity loss (Perrings & Halkos, 2015), and increased scarcity of water (Wolff, et al., 2011). Local content policy is intended to create benefits for local communities in mineral extraction by creating local jobs or local supply chains. Beneficiation in the context of value addition to benefit local communities is one such local content policy, which is gaining ground in Africa in countries such as Nigeria, South Africa, Angola, Zambia, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) and Zimbabwe (Akinkugbe, 2013).

Regarding biodiversity loss, according to Perrings and Halkos (2015) agriculture is the primary threat to biodiversity, more so, in Sub-Saharan Africa where extensive as opposed to intensive agriculture is prevalent. Furthermore, threats to species and

habitats are increasing in Africa with statistics indicating threatened extinction of 6419 animals, 3148 plants, 21% of freshwater species, 41% of freshwater fish and 58% freshwater plant species, and huge declines in African birds (UNEP-WCMC, 2016). It is estimated that 12% of bird species, 19% of mammal species and 26% of amphibian species are threatened with biodiversity loss (Darwall, Smith, Allen, Holland, & Brooks, 2011).

Regarding water scarcity in Africa, this is driven by climate change resulting from El Nino or La Nina induced droughts (Coelho & Goddard, 2009; Wolff, et al., 2011).

2.2.6.3 SADC Natural Environmental Trends

In addition to the global and African trends, notable natural resources trends in SADC countries are resource corridors (Mtegha, Leeuw, Naicker, & Molepo, 2012), land reform (Kleinbooi, 2010) and deforestation (Breitfeller, 2015).

Resource corridors are premised on Spatial Development Initiatives where private sector investments and sustainable development are spurred by resource-based anchor projects and related infrastructure to promote domestic and regional markets (Mtegha, Leeuw, Naicker, & Molepo, 2012). Corridors in Southern Africa are the Zambezi Valley Development Corridor covering Mozambique, Malawi and Zambia; Maputo Development Corridor; Mtwara Development Corridor in Tanzania; and DRC Development Corridor (Mtegha, Leeuw, Naicker, & Molepo, 2012).

Land reform in Southern Africa is driven by attempts by governments to address land ownership imbalances resulting from the colonial past (Rugeje, 2004). The necessity for land reform is reinforced by Kleinbooi (2010), who argues that the poor, both urban and rural dwellers, regard land as the most important asset because it determines their economic survival and quality of life. On deforestation, Breitfeller (2015), surprisingly observed that deforestation in Southern Africa is driven by the need for wood or charcoal because it is inexpensive for cooking and heating in most homes.

From a natural environmental perspective, Najam, Runnals and Halle (2007) argue that the natural environment is inherently global, where the ecosystems, watersheds, air pollution and the atmosphere are shared across national boundaries; therefore, responding to environmental forces requires a coordinated regional and global governance approach. In this regard, the natural environment integrates global change

in that it provides environmental resources for economic and social change resulting in sustainable development being born to provide a new common global goal to drive change (Najam, Runnals, & Halle, 2007).

2.2.6.4 National Ecological (Natural Environmental) Trends

Environmental issues trending in Zimbabwe are deforestation; land degradation; and rampant wildlife poaching. According to Mapira and Munthali (2011), electricity power cuts and load-shedding were the major drivers for deforestation in the outskirts of towns and cities, as residents searched for wood to meet their energy needs. Moyo (2015) added that the rate at which clearing of land for tobacco farming, cutting wood for tobacco curing, cutting wood for local charcoal, and cutting wood for commercial exports are occurring in Zimbabwe, could turn the country into a desert in 25 years if pragmatic solutions are not proffered.

On land degradation, Mapanda, Munotengwa, Nyamugafata and Nyamangara (2013) empirically argued that clearing and cultivation of indigenous woodlands for agricultural activities were driving chemical, biological and physical land degradation in Zimbabwe. Coles (2007) reported that, wildlife poaching had reached alarming levels in Zimbabwe due to the land reform program which started in 2000, with resettled farmers and politicians being accused of rampant poaching, and killing anything from a squirrel to an elephant.

The discussion in this subsection confirms that natural environmental forces are drivers of the changing business environment from both international and local perspectives. It was important to understand the atmosphere, lithosphere, hydrosphere and biosphere that make-up the natural environment because they impact and are impacted differently by the company's activities. In addition, taking care of the natural environment speaks to the need to ensure that we bequeath the planet to future generations in the same or better state than we found it. The issues sampled to confirm the impact of the natural environment on the changing business environment were climate change; land management; waste management; conservation of natural resources; natural resources exploitation; biodiversity; water scarcity; resource corridors; land reform; deforestation; land degradation; and rampant wildlife poaching.

This section on the driving forces for the changing business environment produced important outputs which were necessary to facilitate progress for this study. First, factors

influencing the changing business environment, both internationally and locally were identified as PESTE forces. Second, sustainable development was identified as a mega force, in addition to it being the lens with which PESTE forces were viewed. Third, the separation of sustainable development into macro and micro levels helped in understanding the type of sustainable development applicable to the corporate environment, namely, micro otherwise known as corporate sustainability. Fourth, the triple bottom line was still being used to evaluate corporate sustainability. Fifth, the trends analysis was necessary to demonstrate how the PESTE forces were driving the changing business environment. Lastly, the section provided a foundation for integrating PESTE and sustainable development forces. Hence, the next section synthesises PESTE forces of change with sustainable development drivers of the changing business environment.

2.3 Integrating PESTE Forces of Change through Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

This section integrates PESTE and sustainable development forces to establish the context in which leadership competences were contemplated. The integration was conducted at both international and local levels. Wysokinska (2017) describes SDGs as instruments for realising the sustainable development concept in a globalised economy. Sustainable Development Goals paint an inspiring picture of what the world would look like in 2030 (Nicolai, Hoy, Berliner, & Aedy, 2015). In other words, SDGs are the drivers of sustainable development. Although Carat (2017) agrees that the aim of SDGs is to guide the international development landscape up to 2030, she argues that SDGs are social texts comprising markings of political and economic discourses that reflect diverse problem-solution frames and concerns of the people involved in crafting the SDGs.

The UN SDGs are identifiable with all the external business environments and are regarded as the 'think about issues' when conducting a strength, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT) analysis (Mai, Thanh, Smith, & Carl, 2015, p. 1504). SDGs integrate political, economic, social, technological and ecological considerations through the inclusivity approach whose core principle is that "no one will be left behind", namely all governments, the private sector, global institutions, civil society and citizens (Nicolai, Hoy, Berliner, & Aedy, 2015, p. 12). In addition, Seung-Jin and Bartholomew (2015) empirically established that structural transformation tends to be optimised when an integrated approach to sustainable development takes into account all its dimensions

with reference to SDGs. According to Lozano (2015) the new world order demands organisations to think sustainable development in the entire strategic management process. In this regard, the integrated approach to sustainable development is discussed next starting with international integration.

2.3.1 International Integration

2.3.1.1 SDGs Driving Change Globally

There are seventeen SDGs and 159 targets, which are global, integrated and indivisible in order to balance the three pillars of sustainable development namely economic development, social development, and environment protection (General Assembly, 2015). The SDGs emphasize the importance of humanity and the planet using a 5Ps framework, where the 5Ps represent people, planet, prosperity, peace, and partnerships (DESA, 2016). The aims of the 5Ps are shown in Figure 2.4 below.

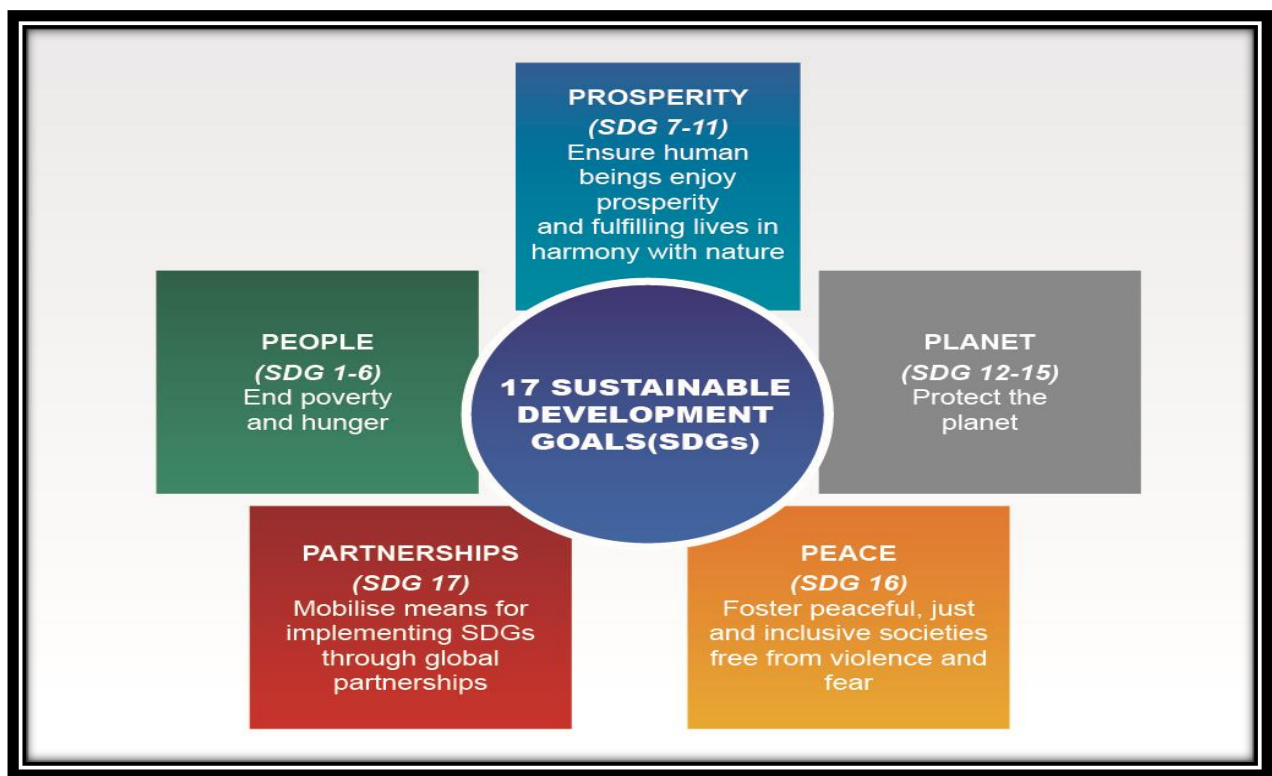


Figure 2.4: The 5Ps Framework of SDGs

Source: Compiled by the researcher based on General Assembly (2015, pp. 2-3) and SADC-DFRC (2016)

Figure 2.4 shows the global, integrating and indivisible nature of the SDGs as depicted by the interlocking of the 5Ps into the SDG circle in the middle. The 5Ps framework is

the foundation on which the SDGs are anchored. The 17 SDGs cater for all the political, economic, social, technological, and ecological (PESTE) considerations, which affects the world as shown in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6: Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and Target Dates

No.	Goal	Target Dates
1	End poverty in all its forms and everywhere	2030
2	End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture	2020; 2030
3	Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages	2020; 2030
4	Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all	2020; 2030
5	Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls	2030
6	Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all	2020; 2030
7	Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all	2030
8	Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all	2020; 2025; 2030
9	Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialisation and foster innovation	2020; 2030
10	Reduce inequality within and among countries	2030
11	Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable	2020; 2030
12	Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns	2020; 2030
13	Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impact	2020
14	Conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development	2020; 2025; 2030
15	Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation and halt diversity loss	2020; 2030
16	Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels	2030
17	Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalise the Global Partnership for Sustainable Development	2016-2030

Source: United Nations General Assembly (2015, p. 13)

Table 2.6 shows the SDGs and the target dates as agreed by the UN General Assembly. From a business perspective, SDGs provides an opportunity for companies to focus on specific goals that align with core activities and competences (Terres, Baxter, Rivera, & Nelson, 2015). However, it can be argued that the setting of target dates for implementation of SDGs should not be at the expense of creating a culture of inter-

generational equity. Without creating this way of thinking and culture, the old order will prevail, and the target dates will remain a pipe dream. More so, for underdeveloped countries, whose poverty levels would force them to care less about those who are not yet born. Apart from the global SDGs, there are also regional blocks that have come up with their own SDGs and Africa is one of the regional blocks that has done so.

2.3.1.2 SDGs Driving Change in Africa

Africa has its own version of sustainable development agenda, which embraces SDGs, called African Agenda 2063, containing aspirations, goals and priority areas with a target date of 2063 (Assembly-AU, 2015). For this study, it is sufficient to note that the African Union's SDGs framework has seven aspirations which must be fulfilled by the SDGs agenda as follows: (a) A prosperous Africa based on inclusive growth and sustainable development; (b) An integrated continent, politically united on Pan Africanism and Africa renaissance; (c) Good governance, democracy, human rights, justice and rule of law; (d) Peace and security; (e) A strong cultural identity, values, ethics and common heritage; (f) People driven development recognising women, youth and child care; and (g) A strong, united, resistant, global player and partner.

However, African Agenda 2063 is integrated with the UN Agenda 2030. The point of departure is that, Agenda 2063 rallies Agenda 2030 through priority themes referred to as aspirations. In other words, the goals are the same. In addition, the African agenda has a longer implementation timeframe whose target date is 2063, whereas, the UN Agenda is targeted for 2030.

Current SDG trends in Africa, according to Nicolai, Hoy, Berliner, and Aedy (2016) are as follows: the level of change needed is lagging behind; increasing proportions of young persons completing secondary education; increasing public revenue as a percentage of GDP; and lagging behind of maternal health and sanitation. Mashiwa (2016) adds the following SDGs trends in Africa: increasing slum populations; increasing waste; increasing violence; increasing threats of climate change and marine conservation; and slow start and low starting points for SDGs implementation. Having discussed the SDGs for the AU, the next section reviews the SDGs situation in the Southern African Development Community (SADC).

2.3.1.3 SDGs Driving Change in SADC

Apart from the strategy on environment and sustainable development, SADC is yet to come up with a protocol or a strategy for SDGs (SADC, 2012). Notable current SDGs trends in SADC are sustainable foreign direct investment through adoption of investment legislation that pursue value addition linkages and investments in natural resources (Markowitz & Langalanga, 2016); focus on gender and being the only region in the world with an omnibus instrument to achieve gender equality, which is legally binding (SGPA, 2015); and rising human development as measured by HDI, which is the closest measure for sustainable development (Gandure & Kamwenda, 2013). Although SADC does not have its own version of SDGs, it was noted that every country in the SADC region had adopted the SDGs agenda through the 38th plenary session of the SADC Parliamentary Forum (AWEPA, 2015).

The important outputs in this subsection were as follows: First, the holistic nature of sustainable development as a force for change are evident in the above analysis because the trends touched on politics, economics, socio-cultures, technology, and the natural environment. Second, this researcher agrees with Teodorescu (2015) and KPMG (2012) that sustainable development ought to be regarded as a mega force impacting the changing business environment since it is a summation of economic, social and environmental considerations of the present and the future. Third, that the desired leadership competence framework should be contextualised by sustainable development. This is in line with the problem statement, which suggested that existing LCFs in the manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe were not adequate to drive companies to contribute to the achievement of SDGs. Last, that sustainable development be premised on SDGs, which are currently trending at the United Nations as agreed by the General Assembly in September 2015 (General Assembly, 2015).

2.3.2 National Integration

2.3.2.1 Zimbabwe Sustainable Development Framework

Zimbabwe has embraced sustainable development and crafted its own integrating forces through two instruments namely, Zimbabwe United Nations Development Assistance Framework (ZUNDAF) (UN-RCOZ, 2015) and the Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation (Zim ASSET) (Government of Zimbabwe, 2013). The government of Zimbabwe has adopted all the 17 goals of the UN SDGs

Agenda 2030; however, it has prioritised ten goals (Sibanda, 2016). Furthermore, it is worth noting that the government of Zimbabwe has placed a lot of importance in implementing SDGs by establishing a parliamentary committee that monitors implementation of SDGs (Mabuchi, 2016). The eleven SDGs driving change in the manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe are explained next.

2.3.2.2 SDGs Driving Change in the Manufacturing Industry in Zimbabwe

Although the Zimbabwean Government has prioritised ten SDGs, this study, considered SDG twelve pertinent to the manufacturing industry because the goal focuses on sustainable consumption and production. Manufacturing industry means businesses involved in transforming raw materials into semi-finished or finished goods using economic means of production (Heizer & Render, 2011) at a large scale (Niaki & Nonino, 2017). The eleven goals as they relate to Zimbabwe are discussed next.

Priority One – Goal Eight: Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all

A review of the Zimbabwe economy by Khupe (2016) of the World Bank, revealed that economic growth rate declined from an average of eight percent per annum between 2009 and 2012 to 0.4% projection for 2016. Secondly, Zimbabwe has enormous potential for sustained economic growth because it is endowed with natural resources, stock of existing public infrastructure and comparatively skilled human resources. Table 2.7 shows Zimbabwe's manufacturing growth rates against economic growth rates.

Table 2.7: Growth Rates for Zimbabwe

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
GDP Growth Rate	5.4	12.8	16.8	15.5	5.1	2.0	0.60	2.3	2.6	3.4	-6.5
Manufacturing Growth Rate	17.6	2.0	13.8	5.3	-0.60	-5.1	0.20	-4.4	1.0	-0.30	-4.3

Source: Ministry of Economic Planning (2015, p. 5; 2019, p. 20); World-Bank (2018, p. 1); Ministry of Finance and Economic Development (2017, p. 10)

Table 2.7 shows that the manufacturing sector performed badly in 2010, 2012, 2013 and 2014 where the sector's growth rates were below country Growth Domestic Product (GDP) growth rates. The negative growth rates for the sector in 2013 and 2014 show that the manufacturing sector needed to do a lot more in order to contribute to sustained

economic growth under SDG eight. Furthermore, capacity utilisation in the manufacturing sector has not helped sustain economic growth either, as indicated in

Table 2.8.

Table 2.8: Zimbabwe Manufacturing Sector Rates of Capacity Utilisation

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Capacity Utilised %	10	32.2	43.7	57.2	44.2	39.6	36.5	34.3	47.4	45.1	48.2	36.4

Source: Gadzikwa (2013), CZI (2015; 2018; 2020)

Table 2.8 shows that capacity utilisation has been declining since 2011 and has been on ups and downs from 2016, thus contributing to the erosion of sustainable economic growth. Capacity utilisation is the percentage of total capacity that is achieved in a specific period of time and helps measure the economy's productive potential used in an economic cycle (Van Heerden & Rossouw, 2014). In other words, under-utilisation of productive capacity negatively affects Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and reduces sustainable economic growth.

Furthermore, capacity under-utilisation is a catalyst for unemployment, thereby negatively impacting the goal of full productive employment and decent employment for all. Employees in the manufacturing sector have been declining in absolute numbers as shown in Table 2.9.

Table 2.9: Number of Employees in the Manufacturing Sector

	2010	2011	2012	2014	2019
Number of Employees	137 600	128 800	125 800	252 475	217 100

Source: ZIMSTATS (2012; 2015 2020)

Data for the period 2013, 2015 – 2018 was not found on the ZIMSTATS website. Suffice to say that the employment number in the manufacturing sector increased in 2014 and declined in 2019, thus, maintaining the downward trend. Whilst low capacity utilisation causes unemployment, by extension unemployment may result in declining economic growth. This was proved by Saungeme, Matsvai and Sakuhuni (2014) who econometrically studied the relationship between GDP and unemployment. They found

that a decline in GDP of 2.2% resulted in a 1% rise in formal unemployment, thus giving credence to Okun's law which states that when unemployment falls by 1%, GDP rises by 3% in the USA. Therefore, production managers must pay attention to capacity utilisation in order to contribute to the achievement of SDG eight.

Priority Two – Goal Seven: Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all

In a manufacturing sector survey report, electricity power cuts and electricity charges were found to have the greatest negative impact on doing business in Zimbabwe (CZI, 2015). The negative impact of electricity cuts and charges on industry is there in spite of the fact that electricity is not the main source of energy in Zimbabwe. This fact is corroborated by Jingura, Musademba and Kamusoko (2013) who reviewed the state of biomass technology in Zimbabwe and established that the energy supply in Zimbabwe in 2009 was distributed as shown in the below pie chart Figure 2.5.

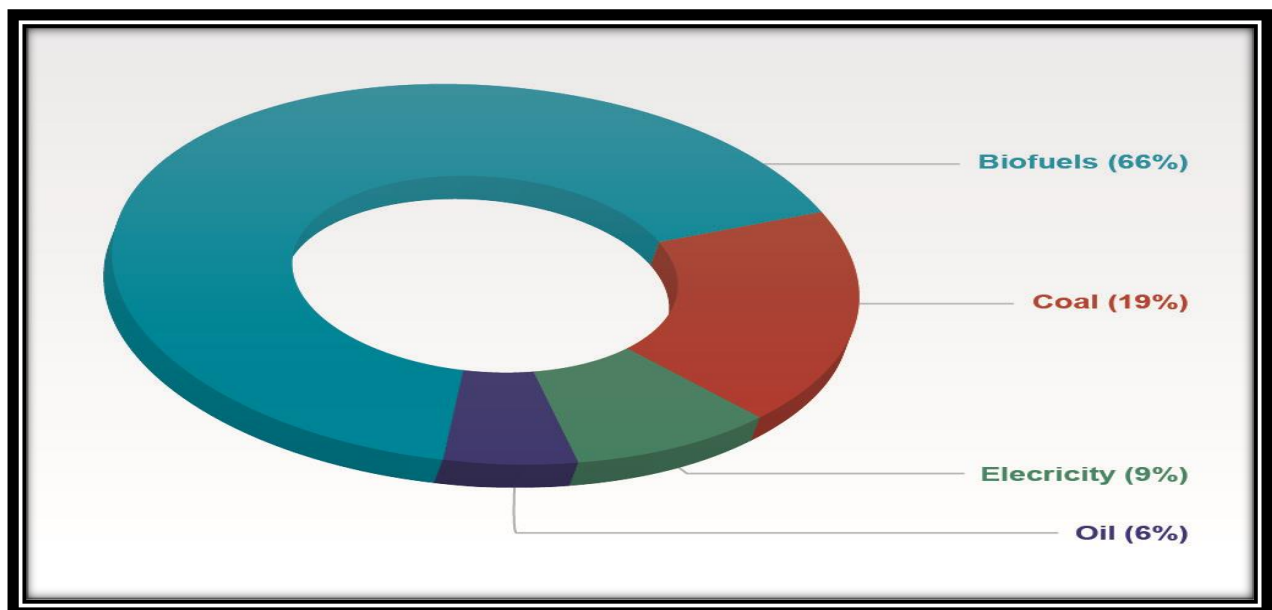


Figure 2.5: Zimbabwe Energy Supply Distribution

Source: Adopted from Jingura, Musademba, & Kamusoko (2013, p. 653)

Figure 2.5 indicates that the main source of energy is biomass which accounts for 66% of energy used. Biomass is the main source of energy for the rural people and is used by ten million people which is 76% of the population (Jingura, Musademba, & Kamusoko, 2013). However, electricity and coal are the main sources of energy in industry and more specifically in the manufacturing sector.

Sanoh, Kocaman, Kocal, Sherpa and Modi (2014), in a study of the economics of clean energy resource development and grid interconnection in Africa, established that every country in Africa including Zimbabwe has surplus energy sources but lack financial resources to exploit the energy resources. In addition, Zimbabwe together with South Africa, Nigeria, and Algeria are able to rely on total domestic production of electricity (Sanoh, Kocaman, Kocal, Sherpa, & Modi, 2014). The foregoing indicates that the Zimbabwe manufacturing industry should focus on clean and renewable energy placing emphasis on energy efficiency in order to complement the sustainable energy goal.

Priority Three – Goal Two: End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture

According to Government of Zimbabwe (2013) the country intends to be food self-sufficient and be a food surplus economy to restore its status as the “bread basket” of Southern Africa. However, the goal should also incorporate food safety. This is corroborated by Macheka, Manditsera, Ngadze, Mubaiwa, and Nyanga (2013) who empirically studied the barriers, benefits and motivation factors for the implementation of food safety management system in the food sector in Harare Province of Zimbabwe. The study found that the food manufacturing industry is dominated by small companies that do not have food management systems such as Hazard Analysis and Critical Control Points (HACCP) and ISO 22000. Furthermore, the implementation of Food Safety Management Systems (FSMS) is not compulsory in Zimbabwe. Hence, they recommended the mandatory implementation of FSMS in the food industry (Macheka, Manditsera, Ngadze, Mubaiwa, & Nyanga, 2013). Therefore, the manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe should focus on ensuring that production processes use reliable food safety systems and also ensure that nutrients are not lost during processing.

Priority Four – Goal Nine: Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialisation and foster innovation

In a statement to the 16th Session of the General Conference of UNIDO, Zimbabwe reported that the country aimed at the following to comply with SDG nine: grow extractive industries to enhance value creation; and foster the green industry initiative through mainstreaming environmental, climate and social issues into industrial operations in conjunction with the Business Council for Sustainable Development (BCSDZ) (Mabuwa, 2015).

Furthermore, in a survey of the manufacturing sector in Zimbabwe, it was found that infrastructure was not able to sustain economic growth because of poor roads, inefficient railway network, power shortages, water shortages and poor transport infrastructure for accessing ports (CZI, 2015). The survey also highlighted the measures adopted by the manufacturing sector to address infrastructure issues regarding electricity power problems such as switching off power outside production times; acquiring modern machinery that is power efficient; installation of energy-saving bulbs; and adoption of alternative power sources such as steam or solar heating, gas and generators (CZI, 2015).

In stressing the importance of sustainable construction in urban centres in Zimbabwe, Chirisa (2014) agreed that there was a need to move away from the out-dated British building standards in order to address the needs of society and technological issues. Therefore, the manufacturing industry needs to adopt measures that assist in addressing and promoting resilient infrastructure issues and foster green industry initiatives.

Priority Five – Goal Six: Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all

A key activity of sustainable manufacturing is the use of materials in order to produce goods and services; therefore, conservation of natural resources becomes a critical change driver. In beverage manufacturing, energy and water are important resources. This statement is supported by Salzmann, Ionescu-Somers, Steger, Ouchi, and Lins (2007), who stated that water is a major ingredient in beverage manufacturing, which must be conserved. Furthermore, the conservation of resources should also involve the use of recycled and salvaged materials and management of waste (AIG, 2016). Hence, waste management must include efficient disposal of toxic and hazardous waste and emissions such as greenhouse gases (FBM, 2008).

To corroborate the foregoing, Gumbo, Mlilo, Broome, and Lumbroso (2003) empirically studied how Bulawayo manufacturing companies were reducing intake of water, material usage and minimising waste, which could be adopted by manufacturing industries in Zimbabwe. The study found that water intake was being reduced through filter-backwash water recycling; using heat-exchanger system to reduce water intake and raw effluent; reducing water pollution by eliminating the use of toxic materials such

as lead, ammonium chloride and hydrochloric acid, by substituting them with induction heating chambers; and good housekeeping to reduce water intake and minimise waste (Gumbo, Mlilo, Broome, & Lumbroso, 2003). The foregoing indicates that sustainable management of water and sanitation are key activities in the manufacturing industry.

Priority Six – Goal Thirteen: Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impact

Lemke (2016) investigated the power of climate change in Zimbabwe. The investigation found that climate change in Zimbabwe was not a simple issue because it affected everything, to the extent that lake Kariba, a major source of hydro-power, had to reduce electricity generation because of the El Nino induced drought (Lemke, 2016), thus affecting the manufacturing industry's capacity utilisation (CZI, 2015).

However, companies must contribute to combating climate change. In this regard, Bigirimana, Jagero and Chiwocha (2015) investigated in context, the trends in accounting for greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions in Zimbabwe companies. The study revealed that most emissions in Zimbabwe were of a carbon dioxide nature, of which industry and transportation were among the major centres of emissions. Also revealed was the need to move beyond emissions accounting to a proactive attitude towards emissions reduction and lastly, the need to provide climate related information to consumers through company products. Therefore, the manufacturing industry must act to combat climate change by adopting a responsive gas emission management strategy.

Priority Seven – Goal Seventeen: Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalise the Global Partnership for Sustainable Development

Creating partnerships with sustainable suppliers including transporting and distribution service providers is another driver of sustainable manufacturing. According to Petacconi and Weisert (2013, p. 7), CSR and sustainability buyer needs should be met by suppliers, some who lack resources and capacity for transforming their operations - especially those from emerging and developing countries. In this regard, initiatives such as the Global Food Safety Initiative (GFSI) created a benchmarking process, which assists small suppliers with differing food safety standards to be accepted to supply multinational corporations (Petacconi & Weisert, 2013). Hence, Musanzikwa (2014) empirically investigated the challenges that preclude small medium enterprises (SMEs)

from being reliable partners in the supply chain in Zimbabwe. The study revealed the importance of SMEs in sustainable economic development, thus emphasising the need for bigger companies to create supply partnership with SMEs (Musanzikwa, 2014).

Priority Eight – Goal Three: Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages

Healthy lives can be analysed from the perspective of universal health coverage (UHC). The outcomes of the conference on UHC held on 19-20 March 2015 in Zimbabwe were as follows: the right to health is embodied in the constitution; health equity is central to UHC and government policy; strengthen domestic financing; prioritise health funding to 15% of the national budget; strengthen partnerships between the public sector, private sector and civil society; and employees have a right to safe working environments (MoHCC, NIHR, & TARSC, 2015). However, healthy lives must be supported by a safe working environment. Hence, Gabida, et al. (2015) conducted a retrospective cohort study on an outbreak of food-borne illness at a factory in Gweru, Zimbabwe. The study revealed that the lack of food safety, hygiene, canteen inspection and quality assurance were the main reasons for the outbreak; and that food can be contaminated along the production line, thus, endangering lives of consumers. Therefore, the manufacturing industry must play a pivotal role in ensuring safe and healthy lives at the workplace, as well as participate in efforts that ensure universal health coverage for all.

Priority Nine – Goal Four: Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all

Econet, a technology company with interests in Zimbabwe, has demonstrated leadership in corporate social responsibility by promoting lifelong learning opportunities in Zimbabwe, Lesotho and Burundi between 1996 and 2015, with the following programs: provision of education assistance that has impacted 250 000 children of which 100 000 children have been impacted directly; building learning hubs that have reached 246 000 children in Southern Africa; provision of scholarships to 4000 tertiary scholars; and development of a smart learning platform called Ruzivo that enables primary and secondary school students to have access to learning resources of high quality (Higherlife, 2016). Therefore, Econet's education programs stand-out as benchmarks for other companies, including the manufacturing industry, to emulate.

Priority Ten – Goal Five: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls

The Ministry of Women's Affairs, Gender and Community Development (MoWAGCD) (2013) crafted a National Gender Policy (NGP) whose vision was to create a gender-just society where women and men enjoy equity, benefit and contribute as equal partners in the development of the country. The NGP's institutional framework outlines generic roles and responsibilities of the private sector. These are: include NGP priorities in the business strategy and create a monitoring and evaluation framework; ensure equity in employment, access to resources and decision making; and develop and implement CSR initiatives designed to contribute to NGP objectives (MoWAGCD, 2013). Therefore, the manufacturing industry needs to design strategies and programs that mainstream gender.

Priority Eleven – Goal Twelve: Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns

Whilst the government of Zimbabwe has prioritised ten goals, SDG twelve is pertinent to the manufacturing industry since it ensures sustainable consumption and production and therefore, this study includes it as a priority for the manufacturing industry. In support of sustainable manufacturing, Pérez (2012), argues that when households waste food or beverages, the efforts made throughout the supply chain to sustainably produce that food or beverage are also wasted if consumers are not aware of the adverse effects of their actions on the environment. Hence, Zimbabwe has a cleaner production centre (CPC-Zimbabwe) that works closely with the government to develop strategies that uphold and advance the objectives of UNEP's international declaration on cleaner production (Mombemuriwo & Munjoma, 2001).

According to UNEP (2001), sustainable consumption and cleaner production are two sides of the same coin, where cleaner production deals with the supply side activities emphasising efficient production, minimising resources and reducing pollution, whereas sustainable consumption deals with the demand side activities focusing on consumer behaviour and trends in order to advance the need for changing consumption patterns. In other words, the consumers' demand for a sustainable society must be responded to by adopting cleaner production instruments (UNEP, 2001). Therefore, the

manufacturing industry must promote sustainable consumption and adopt cleaner production practices.

In support of the Zimbabwe government SDGs prioritising position, Sibanda (2016), former Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Macro-Economic Planning and Investment Promotion, argues that prioritising the ten goals will trigger activity in the remaining seven goals. In other words, achieving the remainder of seven goals is a function of the achievement of the prioritised ten goals. Therefore, the eleven goals are the drivers of change in the Zimbabwe manufacturing industry, although only ten goals have been incorporated in the national agenda, ZimASSET. However, implementation of the goals is done simultaneously as a package without necessarily ranking them in the order of importance of each goal. In this regard, the private sector, particularly the manufacturing industry, is impacted by the national agenda.

The key outputs in this subsection were, firstly, that the sustainable development agenda in Zimbabwe was integrated through two instruments. These were the Zimbabwe United Nations Development Framework (ZUNDAF) and Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation (ZimASSET). Secondly, that every organisation in Zimbabwe, including the manufacturing industry, must be guided by the SDGs prioritised in the Zimbabwean Agenda. Thirdly, that the manufacturing industry needs to prioritise SDG twelve despite it not being prioritised by the Zimbabwe Agenda. Fourthly, that all the seventeen SDGs are equally important and must be targeted where applicable. Fifthly, that the prioritisation done by the government of Zimbabwe, creates a psychological feeling that the other seven goals are not important. Lastly, the section created the context for localising the desired leadership competences for a sustainable beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe. However, this research would not be complete without factoring the impact of the recent COVID-19 pandemic, on the changing business environment.

2.3.3 Impact of Covid-19 on the Changing Business Environment

Covid-19 is a coronavirus that manifested in Wuhan city of China in December 2019 (Xiao, Wu, & Liu, 2020). The World Health Organisation (WHO) (2020) declared the coronavirus a Public Health Emergency of International Concern on 30 January 2020. The World Health Organisation named it COVID-19 on 11 February 2020 and declared it a pandemic on 11 March 2020. COVID-19 is catastrophic; people are dying because

there is currently no cure, causing countries to lockdown to contain the virus; resulting in border closures, forcing people to stay home, and only allowing essential services to continue (WEF, 2020). The economic impact of lockdown is dire. COVID-19 interrupted trade and supply chains globally, depressed prices of assets, and forced organisations to make difficult decisions without much information (Ayittey, Ayittey, Chiwero, Kamasah, & Dzuvor, 2020).

Ozili and Arun (2020) investigated how COVID-19, a health crisis translated into an economic crisis and why the spread of the coronavirus brought the global economy to its knees. They concluded that first, the shutdown of economic activities and business operations was driven by the need to create social distancing, which was a strategy for halting the spread of the virus. Second, the virus was spreading at an exponential rate causing heightened uncertainty resulting in consumers, investors and international trade partners adopting a safety mode behaviour. They also concluded that the 2020 global recession was novel in modern history because it was caused by a novel coronavirus, COVID-19, which is different from past triggers of recessions.

The pandemic triggered different policy approaches in countries, especially those that promote nationalism and those promoting a coordinated international response, with notable differences between developed and developing economies as well as between the northern and southern Eurozones (Jackson, Weiss, Schwarzenberg, & Nelson, 2020). Jackson et al. (2020) further argue that policymakers were overwhelmed by the rapidly changing nature of the global health crisis impacting the global economy and escalating. As a result, policies that brought short-term economic solutions were favoured against those that brought long-term results. Hence, the overall economic impact in terms of real GDP is projected to be negative growth as shown in Table 2.10.

Table 2.10: World Economic Outlook Growth Projections

	2019	2020	2021
GDP Projections %	2.9	-3.0	5.8

Source: Adopted from IMF (2020, p. 3)

Table 2.10 shows that the 2020 GDP growth is forecast to be negative.

Concerning the African economy, Ozili (2020) argued that COVID-19 affected African countries through spillovers from countries outside Africa. He further argued that Africa

was experiencing the greatest socioeconomic impact compared with other regions, suggesting that once the pandemic is over, African countries needed to reconsider their exposure to globalisation and the implication of spillover.

On the local front, the WHO classified Zimbabwe as a country at risk of Covid-19 (Makurumidze, 2020). To confirm the spill-over effect of COVID-19 through globalisation, the first four cases of COVID-19 in Zimbabwe were imported from the United Kingdom, United States of America, and Dubai (MoHCC, 2020).

The fight against COVID-19 is led by governments to give it a political impetus (Figus, 2020). However, UNCHR (2020) has warned governments not to violate human rights in the name of fighting the coronavirus and advised that human rights are needed now to achieve equitable sustainable development and peace. Although **social** protection interventions assist in alleviating social distress among communities, most governments found the economic means to do so, overstretched (Vaziralli, 2020). It is expected that, the number of poor people will double as a result of COVID-19 (Giovetti, 2020), whilst about 195 million full-time jobs are likely to be lost as a result of COVID-19 (ILO, 2020).

While **technology** should be the enabler for the transformation of the world order driven by COVID-19, currently, the demand for technology to ward-off the impact of COVID-19 is seriously affected by bottlenecks in the supply chain because of lockdown measures enforced in most countries (Sallomi, 2020). However, Brown (2020) reported that the disruption caused by COVID-19 on the technological front saw Rwanda deploying state-of-the-art humanoid robots to assist the fight against the coronavirus. The robots can deliver food and medication to patients, screen temperatures of 50 to 150 people per minute and check if people are wearing masks.

On the **ecological** front, although the grounding of planes, cancellation of events, and the shutting down of factories weigh down the world economy, they bring an unexpected corollary in the form of a fall in emissions of greenhouse gases resulting in reduced global warming (Agravante, 2020). In addition, Zambrano-Monserrate, Ruano, and Sanchez-Alcalde (2020) argued that an increase in waste and a reduction in recycling are negative side effects of COVID-19, whilst noise reduction was something to celebrate. However, they argue that all the aforementioned decreases and gains are short-term and not sustainable.

The UN (2020) acknowledged the impact of COVID-19 on all the 17 SDGs resulting in some negative and positive effects on their implementation. Figure 2.6 explains how COVID-19 has affected the SDGs.

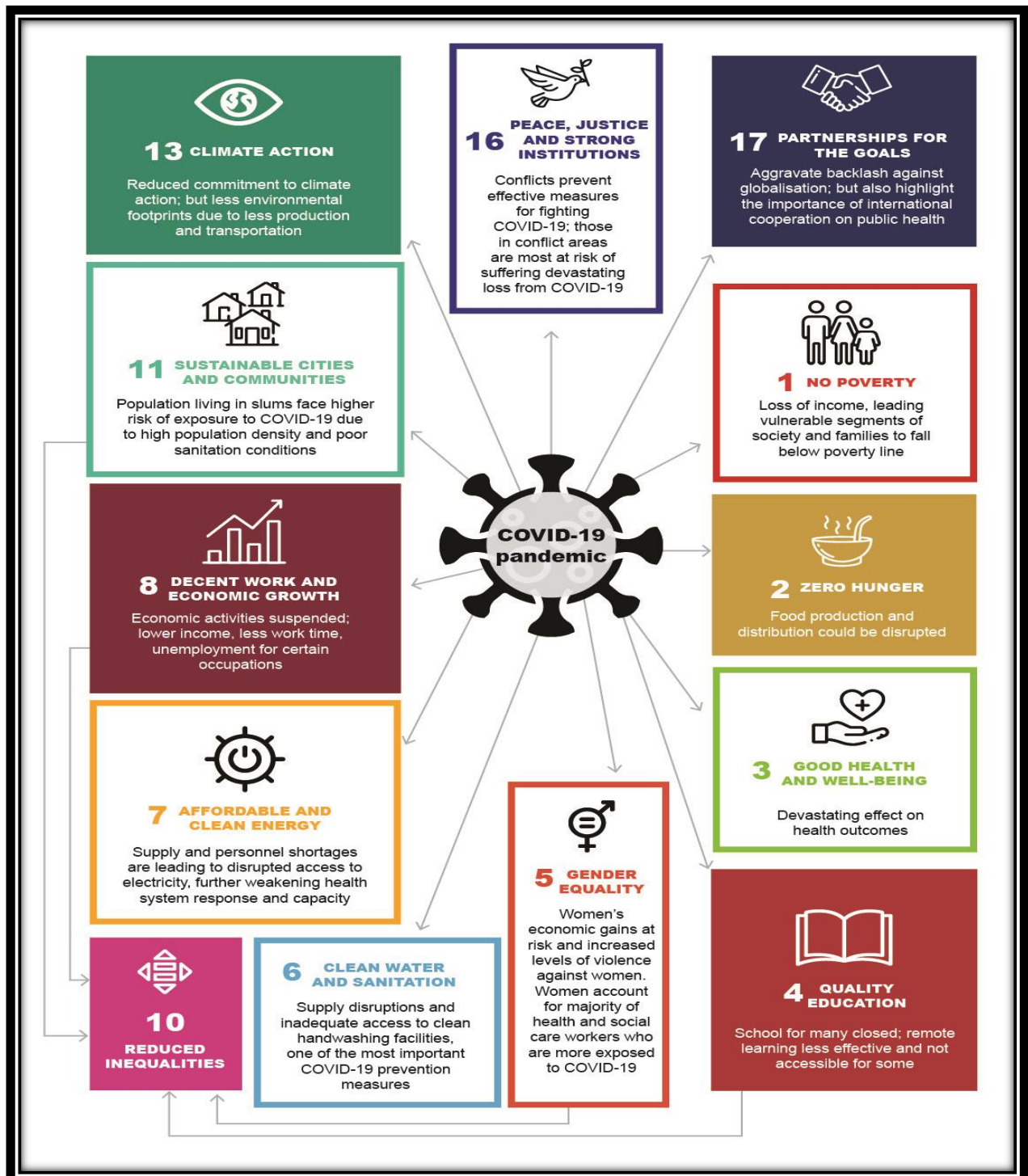


Figure 2.6: COVID-19 Affecting All SDGs

Source: Adopted from Nations (2020, p. 12)

Of note in Figure 2.6 is that COVID-19 attacked SDG three with devastating effects. Although SDG thirteen shows reduced commitment to climate action, there are now less emissions and greenhouse gases, thus, contributing to a reduction in global warming. Whilst there has been a backlash on SDG seventeen, regarding the negative effects of globalisation, the need for international cooperation on public health should not be forsaken.

The impact of COVID-19 is that it is the first time a health pandemic has triggered an economic recession. It has caused countries to sacrifice globalisation and the economy in favour of human survival. In other words, the unifying factor is to save lives. Whilst the pandemic had largely derailed implementation of the SDGs, it should strengthen and build resilience in the resolve to focus on SDGs. It is imperative to budget for future shocks impacting SDGs, but there is need to explore how to maintain the gains on reduced global warming, reduction in noise, and the use of technology to minimise shocks and impacts. Notwithstanding all this, the impact of COVID-19 has strengthened the argument in this study of the need to focus on the forces in the business environment because of their effect on organisations.

In conclusion, this section on integrating PESTE forces through SDGs had the following outputs: Firstly, it confirms that sustainable development forces are drivers of the changing business environment from both international and local perspectives. Secondly, that sustainable development has many-sided characters and perspectives. Hence, the need for an integrated approach. Thirdly, that sustainable development integrates the business environmental forces through the summation of economic, social and environmental considerations of the present and the future. In other words, this is a summation of PESTE forces of change. Fourth, that a simplified summation was established through Agenda 2030 where 17 SDGs were adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in 2015. These 17 SDGs are the new drivers of the changing business environment globally. The SDGs cover political, economic, social, technological and ecological spheres. Fifth, that the African Agenda 2063 is overshadowed by UN SDGs Agenda because emphasis in Zimbabwe, is on the United Nations SDGs Agenda. However, the African Agenda 2063 was incorporated into the United Nations SDGs Agenda 2030. Seventh, that industry must understand the Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation (ZimASSET) because it operationalises the SDGs Agenda 2030 and is a vehicle for cascading the

SDGs to industry and all other sectors of the economy in Zimbabwe. Eighth, that the manufacturing industry must focus on all the 17 SDGs because the goals are integrated and indivisible. Ninth, the desired competences should respond to the changing business environment anchored on local sustainable development drivers in the manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe. However, COVID-19 has impacted the global village resulting in an economic recession, the first, driven by a health pandemic. But, COVID-19 should result in a transformed SDGs agenda to account for the shocks experienced to-date, which should see a better world for future generations.

2.4 Chapter Conclusions

The chapter provided a contextual background in which a leadership competence framework (LCF) was contemplated. In doing so, the chapter addressed secondary research questions 2.1 and 2.2: Firstly, what were the driving forces in the changing business environment internationally? Secondly, what are the current driving forces for change in the manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe? To this end, the chapter discussed the various PESTE forces of change, which can influence the development of new leadership competence frameworks. In describing the relationship between business and the external environment, it was revealed that the organisation, as an open system, gets inputs from the external environment. It transforms the inputs through socio-technical processing and then channels outputs back to the external environment through goods, services, pollution, degradation or waste. Therefore, at the top of the organisation, there is a need for leaders to have competences of thinking, understanding, scanning, adapting to the changing business environment, and setting direction. However, whilst undertaking this study, COVID-19, a coronavirus pandemic struck the world affecting the global village and the SDGs agenda. Hence, this study had to recognise its presents and impact.

In summary, the important issues stemming out of this chapter are highlighted in Table 2.11 next.

Table 2.11: Key Contribution from the Changing Business Environment

1	PESTE forces influence the changing business environment, both internationally and locally as well as individually or collectively.
2	The trends analysis demonstrate how the PESTE forces are driving the changing business environment.
3	Sustainable development is identified as a mega force driving change globally as well as being the lens with which PESTE forces were viewed.
4	Sustainable development can be studied from various perspectives. The 17 SDGs framework provides an integrated approach to study sustainable development. However, there is a need to strengthen the focus on SDGs in light of the impact of COVID-19.
5	The separation of sustainable development into macro and micro levels helped in understanding that at a macro level, it is referred to as sustainable development, whereas at a micro level the term corporate sustainability applies.
6	Currently, the triple bottomline is still being used to evaluate corporate sustainability and this should be upgraded to a sextuple bottom line (6P).
7	In the context of the study, the industry must understand the Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation (ZimASSET) because it operationalises the SDGs Agenda 2030 and is a vehicle for cascading the SDGs to industry and all other sectors of the economy.
8	The manufacturing industry must focus on all the 17 SDGs because the goals are integrated and indivisible, but industry must choose SDGs that align with their core activities and competences.
9	The desired leadership competences should respond to the changing business environment, considering the forces identified through PESTE and through the lens of sustainable development drivers in the manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe.

Source: Compiled by researcher

After providing this contextual background to the study, Chapter Three reviews leadership theories to identify competences that would equip leaders to drive sustainable manufacturing given the context of a changing business environment driven by sustainable development and SDGs.

CHAPTER 3 : DERIVING LEADERSHIP COMPETENCES FROM LEADERSHIP THEORIES

3.1 Introduction

Chapter Two put to the fore the various forces that drive the changing business environment. It was established that the traditional forces of change go by the acronym PESTE, namely, political, economical, social, technological and ecological. However, it was further established that sustainable development is the underlying contemporary force driving the changing business environment. Therefore, the need arises to ensure that leadership possess competences that synchronise with the changing business environment driven by sustainable development. Hence, this chapter addresses secondary research objective 2.3: What theories of leadership competences can be identified in the literature that would equip leaders to drive sustainable manufacturing? In doing so, this chapter provides an orientation of leadership from a business environment perspective through an overview of leadership theories that indicate the development of leadership, and identify the gaps within the current leadership theories. Leadership theories provide a lens with which to view leadership competences. The chapter also provides a theoretical clarification of the competence terminology and its application to leadership.

According to Haque (2016), the leader's role is not to do the same tasks effectively, but to think and redefine the idea of performance continuously, empowering and inspiring people, creating reality, focussing people on the mission, and creating purpose in response to the changing environment. In other words, the leader must have appropriate competences in order to respond to the changing business environment. To unpack leadership competences desirable in a changing environment, the chapter reviews leadership theories and competence theory. The review is contextualised to the changing business environment discussed in Chapter Two. Firstly, theoretical approaches in business sciences are explored to provide context. Secondly, the schools of leadership thought are discussed and the various leadership theories in each school unpacked. The schools are trait, behavioural leadership, contingency or situational, followership and contemporary leadership. An evaluation of theories of leadership is undertaken to establish their adaptability to the changing business environment. Thirdly, competence is discussed. Lastly, meta-theories, leadership theory and competence

theory are harmonised to identify key leadership competences suitable for driving sustainable manufacturing. Figure 3.1 presents this chapter's outline.

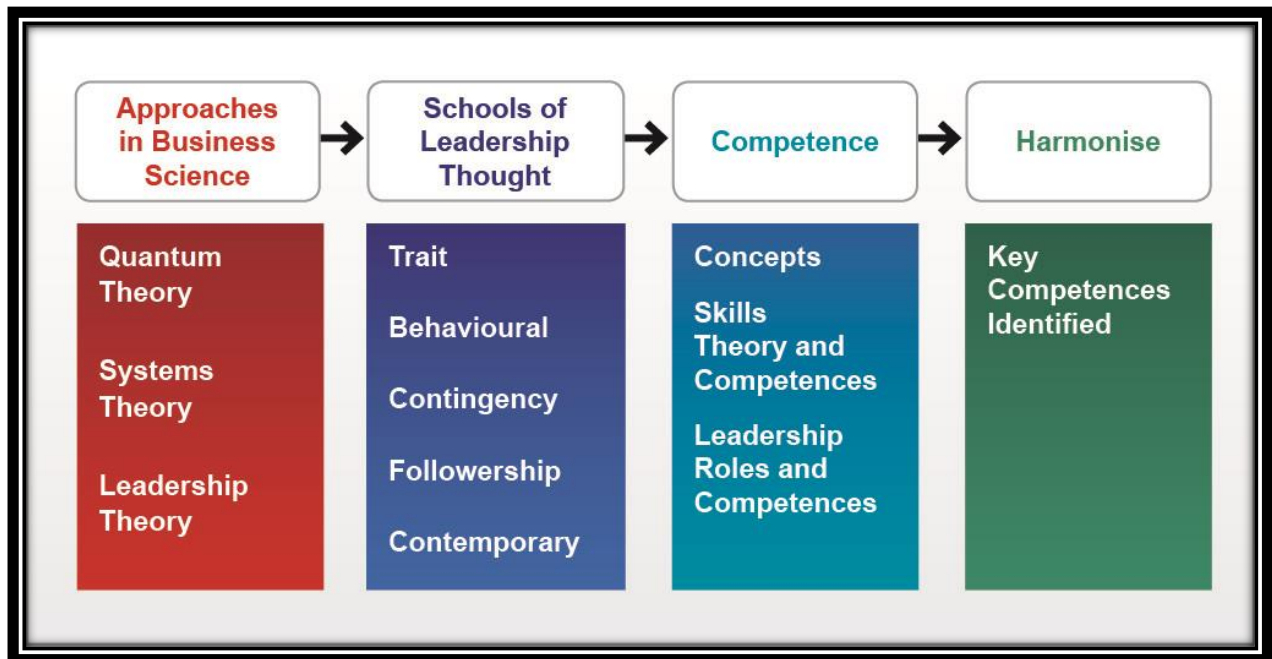


Figure 3.1: Chapter 3 Outline

Source: Compiled by Researcher

Therefore, the discussion starts off with the theoretical approaches in business sciences, which is the next section.

3.2 Theoretical Approaches in Business Sciences

The purpose of this section is to position leadership theory in the field of business sciences. Leadership theory is the lens with which leadership competences will be viewed. The section starts by identifying some of the grand theories found in business science. According to Mills (1959) the term grand theory describes the abstract generalisation of building a system by structural functionalists. In its basic form, it is a general framework of ideas for viewing the world, which may hold true in different periods of time (Skinner, 1985). Notable grand theories found in business science are quantum theory (Bohm, 1952), systems theory (von Bertalanffy, 1969) and management theory (Robinson 2005). Management theory uses both quantum and systems theory as its building blocks (Olusoji, 2015). Furthermore, from management theory stems leadership theory (Mahmood, Basharat, & Bashir, 2012). Figure 3.2 represents this scenario.

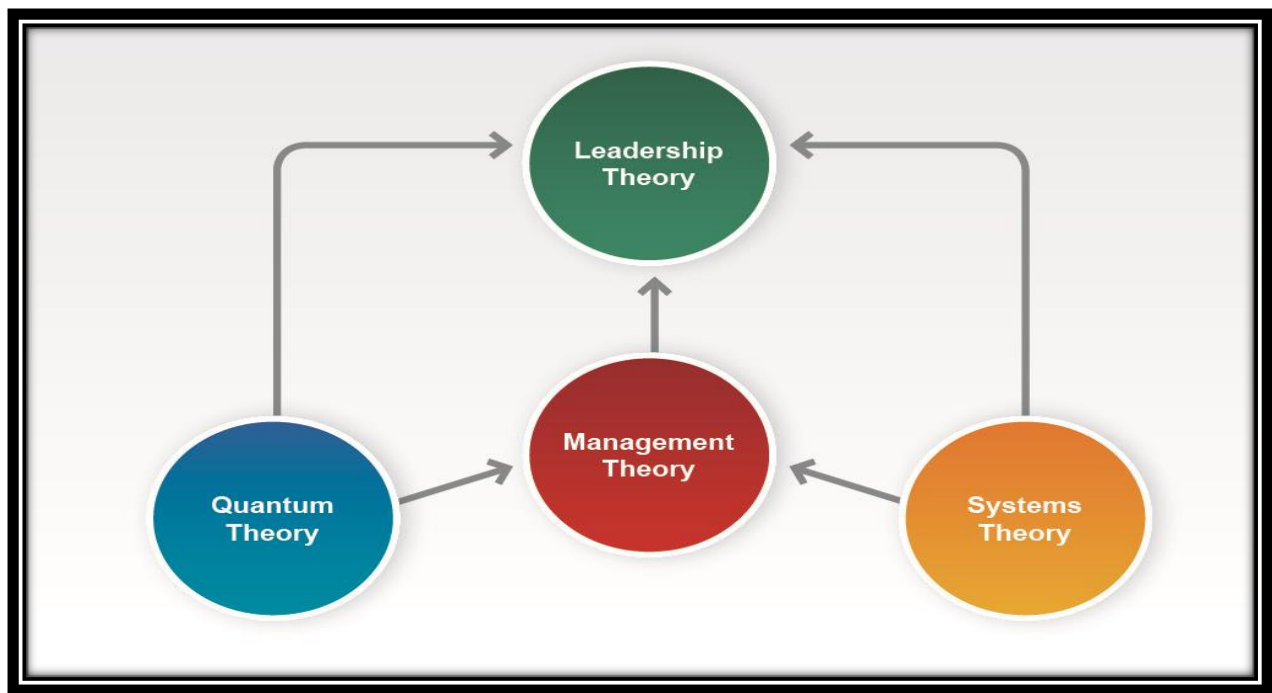


Figure 3.2: A Build-up to Leadership Theory

Source: Adapted from Mahmood, Basharat, and Bashir (2012) and Olusoji (2015)

Figure 3.2 shows the relationship where leadership theory stems from management theory and that management theory uses ideas from quantum and systems theories. In addition, quantum and systems theories also directly influence leadership behaviour. The discussion will focus on quantum and systems theory. The last subsection will give some background on leadership theory that flows from management theory.

3.2.1 Quantum Theory

Bohm (1952) refers to quantum as the study of the fundamentality of particles from which all matter forms, and from a physics perspective it describes and predicts properties of all physical systems. Many writers agree that quantum theory focuses on essential building chunks of the natural world and is a departure from Newton's law of physics (Boje, 2012; Fiol & O'Connor, 2004; Lord, Dinh, & Hoffman, 2015; McDaniel & Walls, 1997; Shelton & Darling, 2001;). According to Dyck and Greidanus (2017), quantum physics is premised on the principles of entanglement and indeterminism. Entanglement explains interconnectedness of quanta across subjects, time and space, such as an entangled pair of photons (Schumacher, 1973). In other words, quantum theory emphasises connections and relationships among things (MacDaniel & Walls, 1997). In comparison, the principle of indeterminism is premised on Heisenberg's (1927)

Uncertainty Principle that the more precise the position of quanta is determined, the less precise the momentum is known at that instantaneous, and vice versa. In other words, uncertainty and murkiness depict the quantum world.

However, according to Khrennikova, Haven and Khrennikov (2014), quantum theory has been applied outside the physics domain in cognitive science and decision making. For example, Yukalov and Sornette (2008) developed quantum decision theory (QDT), which was supported by Agrawal and Sharda (2013). Furthermore, Bansal and Knox-Hayes (2013) argue that focussing on quantum regarding physical matter provides required insights for reconciling the needs of business with demands of the social and ecological environment. In other words, this reconciliation of physical matter and the needs of business is the point of contact between business and sustainable development. Hence, in linking quantum theory with sustainable development, Capra (1983) argues that quantum theory views the world as an indivisible and dynamic whole, whose parts are interconnected and interrelated, which should be understood as patterns of a cosmic process.

Additionally, Langan (2009) provides another perspective of linking quantum theory with business. He argues that quantum theory represents the potential of business to create profound influence. He goes on to proffer three arguments: firstly, that physics represents the ways in which potentiality is applied and realized; secondly, that the talk about quantum need not be complex; and thirdly, that what is required is to take the quantum nature of the universe and then apply it to business by considering the quantum quotient of all aspects of business. Hence, MacDaniel and Walls (1997) add that, fundamentally, organisations as systems are quantum in nature. In this regard, the nature-orientation of quantum theory provides new insights into the designing and management of organisations (Kiel, 1994). This is corroborated by Rae (1986), who avers that quantum theory is the new way of looking at organisations and not through Newtonian physics. He further argues that no matter how accurately the present state is known, in quantum theory, the future behaviour of an organisational system is unpredictable. Hence, the need for organisational learning in real-time as the future unfolds in interaction with the environment (Argyris, 1992). This is corroborated by Scharmer (2007), whose U theory idea of presencing is premised on learning from evolution as it unfolds. He refers to this type of evolution-learning as learning from the future as it emerges.

Senge, Scharmer, Jaworsiki, and Flowers (2004) clarify that the presencing phase of the U theory is when one starts looking at the future possibilities and the emergence of such possibilities into an area still to manifest. According to Senge, Scharmer, Jaworsiki, and Flowers (2004), presencing is a derivative of two words: sensing, which refers to feeling the future possibilities; and presence, which refers to the state of being in the present moment. In other words, presencing means sensing and actualising future possibilities. Actualising future possibilities suggests that one will have to deal with uncertainties as argued by Heisenberg (1927), thus, cementing the link between U-theory and quantum theory. Figure 3.3 presents U theory.

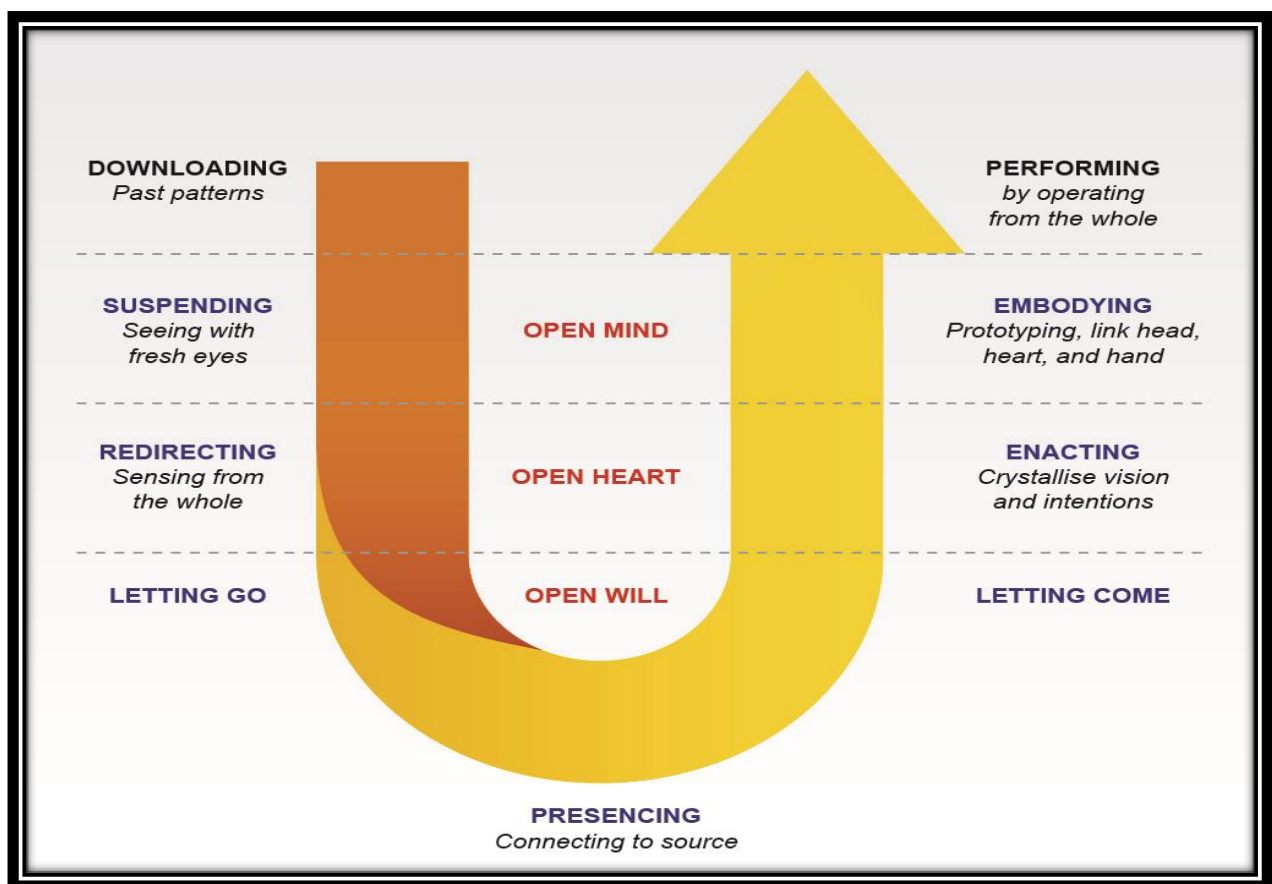


Figure 3.3: Scharmer's Theory U – Presencing

Source: Adopted from Scharmer and Kaufer (2013, p. 22)

Figure 3.3 shows that the key aspect of U theory is presencing, which requires behaviours of an open mind, open heart and open will and these are in the middle of the diagram. The outliers are the differentiated skills. Situated on the left side are skills of downloading past patterns; suspending, that is, seeing with fresh eyes; redirecting, that is, sensing from the ecosystem; and letting go. On the right side, there is letting come;

enacting, that is, crystallising vision and intentions; embodying, that is, prototyping by linking the head, heart and hand; and performing, by operating from the ecosystem.

However, Dyck and Greidanus (2017) integrated quantum theory and sustainability by arguing that quantum entanglement and indeterminism were relevant for developing what they called “Quantum Sustainable Organising Theory” (QSOT). According to Sharma and Lee (2012) “sustainable organising” means organisational practices that continuously improve social and ecological well-being. To support the application of Quantum theory to sustainable organising, Carlile, Nicolini, Langley and Tsoukas (2013) questioned: “What would organisation and management theory look like if matter mattered?” This question is pertinent to this research since the question can be substituted to ask, “What would a leadership competence framework look like if matter mattered?”

The implication or contribution of quantum theory to the study is:

- Quantum theory provides a lens to study organisations by considering them as part of an indivisible and dynamic whole. Thus, viewing them as interconnected and interrelated.
- Quantum theory provides the required insights for reconciling the needs of business with demands of the social and ecological environment.
- Presencing is a concept in U-theory and quantum theory that refers to the unpredictability of future behaviour of an organisational system. Thus, emphasising the need for organisational learning in real-time or learning from evolution, as the future unfolds in interaction with the environment (Argyris, 1992; Scharmer (2007).
- A relationship was established between quantum theory, sustainable development theory and U-theory (presencing), manifesting as Quantum Sustainable Organising Theory by Dyck and Greidanus (2017).

As aforesaid, the entanglement and interconnectedness aspects of quantum theory resonate with systems theory discussed next.

3.2.2 Systems Theory

This subsection discusses general systems theory. However, specific system theories are discussed to contextualise leadership to sustainable development. These are ecosystem and inter-generational system theories.

3.2.2.1 General Systems Theory

Systems theory or science of systems is the interdisciplinary study of an entity composed of interrelated and interdependent parts and pervades all fields of science (von Bertalanffy, 1969; Mele, Pels, & Polese, 2010). In addition, Mele, Pels, and Polese (2010) supported by Chikere and Nwoka (2015) argue that from a management perspective, the organisation is a system at the micro-level, whereas the supra environment is a system at the macro-level. This relationship between the organisation and the environment was described as the open system approach and was discussed in Chapter Two. According to Ramosaj and Berisha (2014), the systems approach benefits the organisation as follows: leaders are forced to view the organisation as part of, and subject to the economic, social, technological, competitive, and legal forces in the environment. They further state that leaders are forced to be aware of the effects of the environment on specific parts of the organisation, thus, enabling leaders to communicate better and foster cooperation within the organisation. Hence, the leadership role here is to align the organisation's internal systems and the external environment. In other words, the leadership role is to synchronise the micro and the macro environmental systems. For example, leaders could not ignore the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic because it resulted in lockdown of countries and businesses (Tho, 2020).

According to Belinfanti and Stout (2018), organisations are regarded as complex systems endeavouring for sustainability as a corporate desideratum. Another characteristic of a system is offered by Caws (2015) who states that a system can be open in different ways or it can be closed by the selective inclusion of bordering elements. In this regard, he argues that the scope of the system is an issue of choice. However, systems theory extends to the universe, where the term ecosystem applies.

3.2.2.2 Ecosystem Perspective

Bronfenbrenner (1979) proposed ecological systems theory, where he argued that different types of environmental systems have influence over human development. He

emphasised the need to consider growth in the realm of the entire ecological system. Scharmer and Kaufer (2013) explain that ecosystem economics is economic reality, which is embedded in the environmental, social, political and cultural contexts that are globally interwoven and moving in uncertain, volatile and complex ways. In this regard, ecosystem economics is advocated to replace ego-system economics. In addition, Scharmer and Kaufer (2013), identified awareness of the ecosystem as an important aspect of leadership that, is rooted in caring about the well-being of all, including one self. In other words, ecosystem awareness is concerned with the well-being of all global communities and the planetary eco-systems. This concern for the well-being of all resonates with the SDGs agenda 2030 discussed in Chapter Two.

Paulin (2014) advanced the following to deal with the ecosystem approach: facilitating core-creation; facilitating innovations that are sensitive to the ecosphere; knowledge of complex systems; openness to change; and listening and responding within the ecosystem, which should include listening to everyone. She also advocates that behaviours suitable for eco-systems approach are flexibility; adaptive behaviour; and resilience, which should include supportive-collective leadership. She also advocated skills for the ecosystems approach as shown in Table 3.1

Table 3.1: Skills for Ecosystem Leadership

Skill	Explanation
Co-initiating	Bringing affected people together around shared problems/ideas.
Co-sensing	Finding shared ideas and spaces that have the most potential; and stepping back and “observing with one’s mind and heart wide open”.
Co-inspiring	Allowing our-selves to connect with creativity.
Co-creating	Exploring the future by doing (prototyping); developing innovative ideas; and allowing selves to try them out.
Co-shaping	Working with others to refine and scale innovations – being open, to hearing other people’s feedback and review.

Source: Adopted from Paulin (2014, p. 58)

Ecosystem awareness is concerned with the well-being of all global communities and the planetary eco-systems. This includes caring about one’s self. Moreover, presencing (U-theory) is linked to ecosystem awareness because sensing of the environment is done in the ecosystem. Behaviours suitable for eco-systems approach are flexibility;

adaptive behaviour; and resilience. The last systems perspective for contextualising leadership is inter-generational systems.

3.2.2.3 Inter-generation Systems Perspective

Hernandez, Noval, and Wade-Benzoni (2015) studied how leaders promote corporate sustainability through creating inter-generational systems. The outcome of their research was the creation of a strategic framework that factors inter-generational systems in corporate sustainability. The strategies were divided into three levels namely: individual; group; and organisational level strategies. Table 3.2 summarises the levels of strategies.

Table 3.2: Individual, Group, and Organisational Level Inter-generational Strategies

Strategic Level	Strategy	Tactics
Individual-level Strategies	Create positive emotional contagion	Promote gratitude, moral elevation, and proper channelling of moral outrage
	Strengthen the legacy motive	Create a personal desire to generate a positive legacy within the organisation
Group-Level Strategies	Shape collective emotions	Ensure the dissemination of moral emotions and avoid the transmission of moral disengagement in group processes
	Foster identification with future generations	Create group norms and cultures that emphasize the preservation of a positive legacy
Organisational-Level Strategies	Beware of muting emotions	Legitimise the expression and use of moral emotions in decision making; avoid minimisation or justification of past negative behaviours
	Create ethical infrastructure	Ensure that both formal and informal elements of the infrastructure promote inter-generational beneficence

Source: Adapted from Hernandez, Noval, and Wade-Benzoni (2015, p. 108)

In order to embed inter-generational systems into corporate sustainability, Hernandez, Noval, and Wade-Benzoni (2015, p. 109) had three lessons for leaders as follows:

- Encourage use and expression of moral emotions in inter-generational decision making.
- Discourage moral disengagement.
- Know how sustainability can be created by different leadership sources in an organisation.

Contribution to the study:

- A **systems approach** allows leaders to view the organisation as part of a larger system. Organisations need to align internal systems with the external environment and understand the principle of connectedness. It brings a systems thinking dimension to leadership competences.
- **Ecosystem awareness** ties the PESTE environments together and allows for the concern with the well-being of all global communities. Because of its caring perspective, it is an important aspect of leadership. Hence, it should be considered in the development of the leadership competence framework.
- **Inter-generational systemic behaviour** is a key ingredient of leadership because it fits both as a systems perspective and a sustainable development leadership perspective. Thus, making it suitable for inclusion in the leadership competence framework.
- The common thread on the three perspectives of systems theory is that they are all contributing to the development of the envisioned leadership competence framework.

However, to achieve sustainability, the need for an LCF derived from leadership theories arises. Therefore, leadership theory is discussed next.

3.2.3 Leadership Theory

According to Peretomode (2012) and Malik, Aziz and Hassan (2014), the concept of leadership is ambiguous and its connotations are different. Earlier, Bass and Bass (2008) had argued that because of the multiplicity of definitions and conceptions of leadership, the correct definition of leadership is dependent on the specific dimension of leadership interest and the purpose. This multiplicity of definitions was confirmed by Rost (1993), who reviewed literature and found 221 definitions and conceptions of

leadership. He noted that some definitions were narrow, whilst others offered broad conceptions. Henry (2012) corroborates by stating that leadership can make or break an organisation; therefore, all facets of leadership need to be scrutinised diligently and placed and applied appropriately in terms of style and type for effectiveness. Meyhofer, Schacht, Jahn, Zanger and Kaminski (2012), describe leadership as being concerned with organising a group of people to achieve a common goal and as requiring somebody to organise (who), a process (how), and to get results (what). However, Bennis (2007) and Drath et al. (2008) note that there are three entities in the leadership process namely, the leader, the task, and followers. The three entities are evident in Yukl's (2012) definition of leadership, which states that leadership is about influencing and facilitating individuals and team efforts to accomplish shared objectives. However, Pressentin (2015) simply defines leadership as an influencing process. Amanchukwu, Stanley, and Ololube (2015), expand the definition by stating that a good leader should possess experience, knowledge, patience, commitment, negotiating skills and ability to work with others to achieve goals. In addition, Jenkins (2013) argues that good leadership is rooted in strong characteristics and selfless dedication to an organisation. This study agrees with the multiplicity of definitions and therefore adopts Yukl's (2012) leadership definition.

In distinguishing the role of a manager and that of a leader, Mahmood, Basharat and Bashir (2012) aver that the manager has formal authority and the leader has no formal authority because the leader's role is to motivate and inspire others. Murray (2011) agrees by stating that a manager need not necessarily have the qualities of a good leader to perform his role. Therefore, this study is persuaded to follow the argument that the leader need not necessarily possess formal authority, but can possess formal authority and that managers are not necessarily leaders, but managers can be leaders too, especially when it is considered that leading is one of the functions of management. In any case, as aforementioned, leadership stems from management theory. Mahmood, Basharat and Bashir (2012), explains that the concept of management is a Latin derivative "Manu agere", which means to **lead** using the hand and giving directions. Thus, this conceptualisation of management includes leadership. In addition, the traditional definition identifies four tasks that constitute management as planning, organizing, **leading**, and controlling (Kaehler & Grundei, 2019). In encapsulating leadership into management theory, Olusoji (2015) describes management theory as

the science of dealing with the management of organisations in relation to knowledge of goals, effective means of goal attainment and the motivation of employees to achieve high performance.

In linking leadership theory to systems theory, Bairantus and Agapitou (2016) aver that leadership itself can be regarded as an open system, which is ever-changing because it needs resources from the changing environment to survive. Ramosaj and Berisha (2014) add that leadership is quite intense in relationship and the intensity in relationship is the first meeting point of leadership with systems theory. They further argue that leadership must factor the external environment, as well as the relationships with and among the organisational system elements, ensuring compliance by followers to the organisational vision, soundness and integrity to achieve the organisational goals and objectives (Ramosaj & Berisha, 2014). The issue of linking the personal characteristics and the situation in which leadership finds itself, is analysed by Echtenkamp (2004), who studied leadership theory of person-situation, applying the open systems theory. The study established that personal constructs (traits) and situational features can coexist within leadership that is parsimoniously integrated (Echtenkamp, 2004). The open systems aspect of leadership is corroborated by Henry (2012), who argues that leadership is a systems thinking paradigm, which rides on principles of systems thinking as advocated by Skaržauskienė (2008). The principles are holistic thinking, interdependency, thinking operationally, purposefulness and interactive design. In other words, the leader must think in a holistic manner taking into account the interwoven relationships between the organisation's internal systems and the supra environment. The open system approach to leadership is corroborated by Amanchukwu, Stanley, and Ololube (2015), who stated that contemporary leadership theories can be viewed from three perspectives namely: process or relationship; a combination of traits or personality characteristics; and behaviours or skills perspectives.

According to Ramosaj and Berisha (2014) the environment, which feeds into the organisation, and leadership are the building blocks to the open system theory. The foregoing suggests that the open systems approach can be viewed from an integrated perspective where both the organisation and leadership are open systems that are impacted and impact the external environment. The integrated perspective is corroborated by Coffey (2010) who suggests that leadership and the organisation are systems within a system. Echtenkamp (2004) likens the relationship of the environment,

the organisation and leadership to that of the human body and the heart, where the heart is a sub-system of the body. With both systems, body and heart are part of the supra-environment. The relationship is cemented in that both system approaches are part of the open systems theory.

Leadership has multiple definitions and conceptions. Hence, this study adopts Yukl's (2012) definition of leadership, which states that leadership is about influencing and facilitating individuals and team efforts to accomplish shared objectives. The importance of open systems theory is confirmed as a major factor in shaping the leader's skills and behaviours because it links leadership, the organisation and the supra environment. Competences (traits, skills, knowledge, capabilities, and behaviours) are inputs to leadership theory. They are the building blocks to the roles, behaviours and style of leadership.

The collaborative tension between quantum and systems theory, cemented by interconnectedness and entanglement, is essential as the base that supports leadership theory. After all, presencing (U-theory) is an essential leadership competence for sensing and actualising future possibilities and connects quantum theory, system theories and sustainable development. Leadership competences emanating from this section are presencing, systems thinking, ecosystems awareness, reflexivity, and inter-generational systemic behaviour. The section creates the borderlines, which guided the search for leadership competences for sustainable manufacturing that respond to the changing business environment driven by SDGs. The next section reviews schools of leadership thought to determine their suitability in providing competences that would equip leaders to drive sustainable manufacturing.

3.3 Schools of Leadership Thought

This research identified five main schools of thought on leadership theory. These are trait theories, behavioural leadership theories, contingency/situational leadership theories, followership theories, and contemporary leadership theories. The first school of leadership thought to be discussed is trait theory.

3.3.1 School of Trait Theory

According to Cervone and Pervin (2008), personality traits are the psychological qualities that contribute to a person's distinctive and enduring patterns of, thinking, feeling and behaviour. A slight change in semantics in the trait definition is provided by

Mathews, Deary, and Whiteman (2003) and Feist and Feist (2009) to mean a pattern of thought, behaviour and emotion that are consistent in one's life.

In advancing the trait theory, Bairantus and Agapitou (2016) argue that leaders should possess certain traits and skills in a given situation in order to be effective and successful. The theory supposes that particular traits differentiate other individuals from leaders (Colbert, Judge, Choi, & Wang, 2012). Hence, Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996) suggested six traits for successful leadership: self-drive, desire to lead, self-confidence, honesty and integrity, cognitive ability, and organisational knowledge. Hoy and Miskel (2008) advocated the following traits as desirable for effective leadership: self-confidence, tolerance, stress tolerance, emotional maturity, extroversion, integrity, self-efficacy, achievement orientation and interpersonal skills.

Great man theory is also a trait theory, where according to Amanchukwu, Stanley and Ololube (2015) the theory assumes that the capacity for leaders is inherent, suggesting that great leaders are born, not made. In other words, McCleskey (2014) views leadership in the great man context as characteristics or abilities in extraordinary individuals. The theory expects leaders to have certain qualities such as charm, persuasion, command personality, be highly intuitive, possess good judgment, be courageous, intelligent, aggressive and action centred. It is further stated that such qualities are in the genes. The great man theories can be traced back to the writings of Carlyle (1840) and Galton (1892) who studied great men in a research titled "heroes and hero worship" and "the law of heredity in relation to genius" respectively. Carlyle (1840) studied six classes of heroes in divinity, prophecy, poetry, priesthood, letters and emperors and concluded that there were great men in each class, such as Odin (for paganism), Prophet Muhammad (for Islam), Shakespeare (poetry), Luther (the protestant), Johnson (man of letters) and Napoleon (emperor). Galton's (1892) study concluded that a person's natural abilities are a derivative of inheritance, in the same manner as dictated by the form and physical features of the whole organic world. He further argued that high reputation can be a precise test of high ability and that physical gifts are transmitted through heredity, such as Oarsmen and Wrestlers. Lastly, he argued that high reputation is a function of the gift of high abilities (Galton, 1892).

Another trait theory pertinent to this study is the theory of Leadership Trait Analysis (LTA). The theory was propounded by Hermann (1980, 1999) and supported by Kessgin

(2012) and Dyson (2006). The theory presupposes that political leaders matter in the formulation of foreign policy. Walker (1990) and Kesgin (2012) further argue that political leaders can influence foreign policy through the way they view the world, their beliefs, values and personal traits. The impact of personal traits on the environment is identified by Hermann (1980) who states that political leaders interpret their environments through own beliefs and motives. To support the interpretation of the environment through own beliefs, Kumah-Abiwu (2016) investigated whether or not Jerry Rawlings' leadership traits influenced Ghana's foreign economic policy decisions when he was State President of Ghana. The study concluded that his leadership traits contributed to shaping the shift in Ghana's foreign economic policy to the West in the early 1980s (Kumah-Abiwu, 2016).

The LTA theory was applied to the advertising industry by Mallia, Windels and Broyles (2013), who examined leadership traits for the advertising agency creative director. The study found that, creative leadership is a key characteristic of the creative director in order to inspire creatives, whose inbuilt desire is that any task they undertake must have the greatest outcome ever (Mallia, Windels, & Broyles, 2013).

Trait theory has been criticised by writers such as Mann (1959), Jenkins (1947), and Stogdill (1948), leading scholars such as Hemphill and Coons (1957) and Stogdill (1963) to argue for a new paradigm known as the behavioural approach to leadership. Another reason for shifting to behavioural leadership theory is given by Derue, Nahrgang, Wellmann, and Humphrey (2011), who did an integration and meta-analytic test of relative validity of trait and behavioural theories. They concluded that leadership behaviours account for the bulk of leadership effectiveness more than leadership traits. However, Germain (2012) argues that the trait approach was still alive and well. This researcher agrees with Germain's assertion in the sense that, traits are complementary to competences. In other words, traits create distinctive advantages in the leader's competence behaviour.

According to Khan (2013), trait theory has two shortcomings. First, the theory presupposes that good leadership only arises from traits, which are inherent and genetic, ignoring the fact that traits can be acquired through motivation, advancement, and growth. Secondly, the theory does not take into consideration any situational, emotional, contingency or motivational factors in the evaluation of leadership. However,

Agila (2014) defends the transmission of traits through heredity by citing footballers as an example, where footballers' children tend to play football too. Furthermore, Strang (2007) states that there are a lot of arguments among writers for and against whether leadership can be viewed as an inborn trait or it can be developed. Generally, there is consensus that leadership can be developed (Adair, 1997; Collins, 2001; Amanchukwu, Stanley, & Ololube, 2015; Yukl, 1998).

Trait leadership is oriented towards personal characteristics of the person, which largely are inborn. This necessitates a discussion of behaviours that can be developed in the school of behavioural leadership thought.

3.3.2 School of Behavioural Leadership Theory

The behavioural approach to leadership came into being against the publication of Douglas McGregor's book *The Human Side of Enterprise* in 1960 (Bolden, Gosling, Marturano, & Dennison, 2003, p. 7). However, before the publication of his book, McGregor published an article with the same title in 1957, which could be considered as the beginning of leadership competence frameworks (McGregor, 1957). In the article, McGregor highlighted the need for a shift from management of direction and control to a new approach of managing organisations, which he referred to as theory Y. Theory Y advocated for the integration of social sciences in management sciences for the purpose of influencing and motivating workers to work towards organisational objectives. Although McGregor did not use the term LCF, judging by the definition of leadership and the theory of competences, it is clear from the article that McGregor was advocating for an LCF driven from a social science perspective known as theory Y. A search for literature could not yield results as to when an actual LCF was developed, tested and by whom.

In a study of the behaviour of leadership and the acceptance of leaders by their subordinates, Malik, Aziz and Hassan (2014) established that the behavioural approach focuses on what leaders do and their actions and concluded that the behaviour of leaders had significant relationship with the acceptance of the leader. Furthermore, Kouzes and Posner (2010) empirically found that, the behaviour of the leader accounts for 25 percent of the reasons why people perform. Hence, the behavioural approach is premised on the roles that account for effective leadership behaviour (Bairantus & Agapitou, 2016). In other words, this is to ask the question, what must the effective

leader do and how? According to Amanchukwu, Stanley and Ololube (2015) behavioural theories of leadership are premised on the belief that good leaders can be made and not born. This leadership theory focuses on what leaders do and not on their intellect or internal states. Yukl (2012) explains further that leadership behaviour theory assumes that the behaviour of a leader predicts his influence and as a result, the leader-behaviour is the determinant of leadership success.

The Ohio State University studies in 1945 produced two types of leadership behaviours namely, task-oriented and relationship-oriented behaviours (Farris, 1988; Stogdill, 1959). On the one hand, **task-oriented behaviours** are focused on clarifying roles and objectives through one-way communication; individual performance and operations monitoring through establishing goals and methods of evaluation; and planning, coordinating and scheduling work-related activities (Yukl, O'Donnell & Taber, 2009). On the other hand, Yukl (2006) states that, **relations-oriented behaviours** of a leader are: supporting behaviours such as concern for others; developing behaviours such as providing potential benefits to subordinates; and recognition behaviours such as showing praise and appreciation. By investigating a leader's relations oriented behaviour, Momeni (2009) concluded that a leader's behaviour greatly influences employees' morale, attitudes, emotions, behaviours, and perceptions. By formalising relationships, Holloway (2012) empirically established that, a leader fosters teamwork and cohesion that promotes positive relationships in the whole organisation. He concluded by refuting earlier Ohio State University studies stating that combining task and relations oriented leadership behaviours should enable leaders to attain the organisation's goals and objectives, at the same time interacting and leading employees responsibly.

The importance of integrating task and relations oriented behaviours is echoed by Rajbhandari, Rajbhandari and Loock (2016) who empirically established that the two styles were equally important for driving change and development in schools in Finland. The study also found that school leaders, who were task-oriented were more effective, whereas leaders who were relations-oriented were efficient and created social harmony. The findings further suggested that variations in context created flexibility in leadership style. Furthermore, Tabernero, Chambel, Curral, and Arana (2009) studied the effectiveness of task or relations oriented behaviour from a follower's perception perspective. The study sought to analyse the role played by perceived leadership. The

study found that task-oriented leaders created greater group efficacy and positivism among group members; whereas relation-oriented leaders created higher cohesion among the group members.

However, writers such as Behrendt, Matz, and Goritz (2016) and van-Knippenberg and Sitkin (2013) have argued that there is a lack of theory-based conceptualisations of leadership behaviour theory. Furthermore, Northouse (2016) argues that although behavioural theories assist managers to develop certain leadership behaviours, they provide little guidance on what makes effective leadership given different situations. Bryman (1992) and Yurkl (1994) agree that research has not yet revealed how the behaviours of leaders are related to performance outcomes. Another criticism of behavioural theories is that they rely on abstract leadership types that are not easy to identify (Glynn & DeJordy, 2010).

According to Amanchukwu, Stanley and Ololube (2015), leadership styles are approaches used in influencing and motivating followers. This means leaders themselves would need development to acquire the competences instead of relying on traits.

Because task and relations oriented behaviours focus on the internal organisational environment, this limits its adaptability to the changing business environment. However, the behavioural leadership approach has devolved into different leadership styles/models which a leader can adopt. Three broad leadership styles discussed next are democratic/participative; authoritative/autocratic; and laissez-fair leadership styles.

3.3.2.1 Democratic/Participative Leadership Style

Participative leadership style manifests in different forms such as relations style (Fleishman, 1953; Halphin & Winer, 1957; Mohamad, Silong, & Hassan (2009), democratic style (Choi, 2007; Lewin & Lippit, 1938; Vincent, 2016), people-oriented style (Hemphill & Coons, 1957; Likert, 1961), team leadership (Blake & Mouton, 1961; DuBrin, 1998; Northouse, 2004), empowering others (Burn, 1978) and servant leadership (Greenleaf (1977). Filosa (2012) added terms such as consulting, joint decision-making, power-sharing, and decentralisation of power to the leadership manifestations list. Furthermore, Huang, Iun, Liu and Gong (2010) supported by Fadare (2013) believe that participative leadership generates a feeling of trust in the leader.

According to Amanchukwu, Stanley and Ololube (2015), participative leadership theories take into consideration the input of others. Then Yukl (2013), explains that participative leadership involves the use of decision techniques that allow followers to have some influence over decisions that affect them (Miao, Newman, Schwarz, & Xu, 2013). It refers to a style where the leader encourages followers to take some responsibilities in the organisation (Newman, Rose, & Teo, 2016; Sauer, 2011; Somech, 2003). Hence, Amabile, Schatzel, Moneta and Kramer (2004) supported by Newman et al. (2016) suggested the following leadership behaviours in support of participative leadership: facilitating, consulting, consensus building, encouraging, supporting, and influencing followers. Thus, the foregoing suggests that participatory leadership is a key element of all relations theories.

Ming-Yi (2006) did some studies to compare participative leadership in Taiwan, United States and Japan. The study concluded that participative leadership is culturally bound because the practices differed among the three countries (Ming-Yi, 2006). Mohamad, Silong and Hassan (2009) agreed by arguing that participative leadership becomes more effective if applied in accordance with situations.

Participative leadership style is complementary to other models that are influenced by the changing business environment. It rallies followers and teams to focus on the organisational objectives and goals. The leadership behaviours are facilitating; consulting; consensus building; encouraging; supporting; influencing; empowering; and ethical. However, a point of criticism for participative leadership is that it is time-consuming, difficult for the leader, and with a lot of discussions that do not provide optimal solutions (Khan, et al., 2015).

3.3.2.2 Authoritarian/Autocratic Leadership Theory

According to Zylfijaj, Rexhepi, and Grubi (2014), authoritarian leadership style requires leaders to have one way communication on tasks that must be accomplished to achieve some goal, without due regard for motivation. It is considered similar to directive leadership (Northouse, 2016). The term authoritarian stems from the Greek word autocratic, where “auto” refers to self; while “cratic” means rules (Kalu & Okpokwasili, 2018). Hence, it is also referred to as autocratic leadership (Northouse, 2016). In this regard, the autocratic leader keeps most authority to self (Amini, Mulavizada, & Nikzad,

2019) and thus, retains decision making and delegates tasks (Kalu & Okpokwasili, 2018).

According to Shahzad, Rehman and Abbas (2010), a Theory X leader ordinarily displays autocratic leadership style. In this regard, followers are expected to agree to decisions already made by the leader (Chukwusa, 2018), thus, allowing leaders to legitimise their authority and coercive power (Zylfijaj et al. (2014). However, Chikwusa (2018) argues that authoritarian leadership is suited in situations where it is more beneficial for followers to focus on performing specific tasks than complex decision making such as in military style establishments. Alternatively, it can be applied in quick decision-making situations (Boehm, Dwertmann, Bruch, & Shamir, 2015).

An important point is made by Zylfijaj et al. (2014), who argue that authoritarian and transactional leaderships converge where both rely on followers accepting the influence of the leader to get compensated.

Authoritarian leadership style is complementary to other models that are influenced by the changing business environment. It gives directives to staff for achieving organisational goals. The authoritarian leadership behaviours deduced from the foregoing are task knowledge; goal setting; power retention; decisiveness; and transactional skills. However, a situation where followers may operate without leadership supervision is discussed next under laissez-fair leadership.

3.3.2.3 Laissez-fair Leadership Theory

According to Al-Malki and Juan (2018), laissez-faire leadership is premised on trust where leadership responsibilities and decisions are renounced and avoided respectively. It is most suitable in environments where the followers are highly experienced or trained requiring little supervision (Amini, Mulavizada, & Nikzad, 2019). In other words, the leader gives followers freedom of action with little direction or control (Tarsik,, Kassim, & Nasharudin, 2014). On the contrary, Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) considered such behaviour as abdication of leadership responsibilities. This is corroborated by many writers who regard laissez-fair leadership as ineffective and a bad leadership style (Bass & Avolio, 1997; Blake & Mouton, 1985; Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007; Northouse, 2010; Tosunoglu & Ekmekci, 2016)

Whilst the aforesaid generally creates the impression that the laissez-fair approach is bad leadership, this researcher argues that it is an effective style because of the trust perspective ascribed to it by Al-Malki and Juan (2018), as well as its association with leading experts alluded to by Amini, Mulavizada, and Nikzad (2019). This is corroborated by Weerakit and Beeton (2018) who found that the laissez-faire and hybrid styles of leadership were significantly represented in the Thailand hotel industry because of the Thai cultural setting and the high proportion of women in management. Therefore, the positive behaviours deduced from effective laissez-fair leadership are: engendering trust; and inculcating freedom of action. However, the negative aspects of laissez-fair leadership out-weigh the positives. Thus, the researcher evaluates the style as not adaptable to a changing business environment.

The school of behavioural leadership thought has devolved from task and relationship oriented behaviours (Stogdill, 1959) into different leadership styles, thus, providing a window for developing desired leadership competences instead of relying on traits. However, the task and relations oriented behaviours; democratic/participative; and authoritarian leadership styles are complementary to other leadership theories that are suitable for the changing business environment. The third school of leadership thought is contingency theory.

3.3.3 School of Contingency/Situational Leadership Theory

Peretomode (2012) argued that contingency leadership is different from situational leadership, but noted that there were four common threads within the two, which make them appear similar. The common threads are as follows: both theories are an extension of behavioural theory; both agree that there is no best method of leading; the best leadership style is determined by considering the factors surrounding the situation; and the factors impacting on effectiveness of leadership can be internal, external, skills possessed and the maturity levels of followers. Below is a discussion of each of the theories and the associated models.

3.3.3.1 Contingency Leadership Theories

According to Bairantus and Agapitou (2016), the contingency approach suggests that leaders possess an armoury of traits from which they can select appropriate traits suitable for a particular situation and then exhibit appropriate behaviour. However, the armoury must not only possess traits, but as Syque (2007) adds, contingency theories

should adopt a broader dimension that takes into account situational factors of the leader's skills, capabilities and variables in a given situation. The following are contingency theories: Fiedler's contingency leadership theory (Fiedler, 1967); cognitive resource theory (Fiedler, (1986); and strategic contingencies theory (Hickson, Hennings, Lee, Schneck, & Pennings, 1971; Peretomode, 2012). These are briefly discussed below.

3.3.3.1.1 Fiedler's Contingency Leadership Theory

Fiedler avers that the effectiveness of a leader depends on how the leader's style interacts with the characteristics of the situation. He also recognised two leadership styles, that is, task-oriented and relationship-oriented and argued that the two are relatively flexible in application. Fiedler, Chemers and Mahar (1976) also argued that the leader can be trained to change the situation in order to match the leader's style.

3.3.3.1.2 Cognitive Resource Theory

Keller and Matusitz (2015) explain that cognitive resource theory is premised on the role of a leader's intelligence, technical competence and experience, with stress as a moderator, in establishing group performance. They further explain that cognition refers to solving problems, making decisions, thinking rationally, and reasoning. They evaluated the theory against the US Navy SEALs Team-Six and concluded that the team had adequate cognitive resources to successfully plot and kill Osama bin Laden, the Al Qaeda leader.

3.3.3.1.3 Strategic Contingencies Theory

Hickson et al, (1971) supported by Williams (2011) stated that strategic contingencies theory de-emphasises personality in favour of a focus on tasks whose problems need to be solved. Saunders (1990) studied and tested the theory and modified it to include control of strategic contingencies as a moderating variable. She found that power is derived from the ability to solve problems by combining three determinants namely, coping with uncertainties, leader centrality, and uniqueness of skills. Thus, she concludes that, when one uses the three determinants to gain control, then one is said to control a strategic contingency. However, the researcher noted that, there was not much discourse on strategic contingency theory.

It is observed that, contingency theory alludes to situational factors of the leader's skills, capabilities and variables in a given situation. It also brings into being leader personality and task focus to solve problems. This is the point of departure from situational leadership, which focuses on the situation. The next discussion expands on situational leadership.

3.3.3.2 Situational Leadership Theories

Graeff (1997) argues that situational leadership theory supposes that effective leadership is premised on an appropriate response determined by a rational understanding of the situation instead of charisma, which sways dedicated followers. The rational understanding of the situation is reinforced by Syque (2007), who stated that situational theories focus mainly on behaviours, which a leader should adopt, given the behaviour of followers. Peretomode (2012) noted the following as situational theories of leadership: Tannenbaum and Schmidt's leadership model (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1975); Reddin's -3-D theory of leadership (Reddin, 1970); path-goal theory (Evans, 1970; House, 1971; House & Mitchell, 1974); and Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977).

3.3.3.2.1 Tannenbaum and Schmidt's Leadership Model

In choosing a leadership style, Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1975) put boss-centred (autocratic) factors and subordinate-centred (democratic) factors in a continuum and suggested that the leader should not adopt a strictly democratic or autocratic style but should adopt a style suitable for the different situations. They further suggested that it is important for leaders to plan how they want to use their authority at any given time. In this regard, the leader has to combine consideration for the task against consideration of followers (Huczynski & Buchanan, 2001) in order to oscillate between autocratic and democratic leadership styles or in combination. However, trust is an important element when democratising decision making. The followers need to have confidence that they indeed have been allowed to make the decision and not that the leader had already made the decision and was merely seeking their concurrence.

3.3.3.2.2 Reddin's -3-D Theory of Leadership

In his 3-D theory of leadership Reddin (1970) argued that there were four core styles of leadership behaviour, that were effective in one situation and not effective in other situations. The four core styles were: integrated behaviour, dedicated behaviour,

separated behaviour and related behaviour. However, the four core styles had four effective and four non-effective equivalents as indicated in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Reddin's 3-D Leadership Styles

Less Effective Style	Core Style	More Effective Style	Degree of Behaviour Orientation
Deserter	Separated	Bureaucratic	Low relations and low task
Missionary	Related	Developer	High relations and low task
Autocratic	Dedicated	Benevolent Autocratic	Low relations and high task
Compromiser	Integrated	Executive	High relations and high task

Source: Adapted from Reddin (1970, pp. 219,243)

Therefore, Reddin's 3-D theory concludes that leader effectiveness depends on applying the correct behaviour that matches the situation.

3.3.3.2.3 Path Goal Theory

According to Khan (2013), path goal theory requires leaders to adopt a style or model that is most suitable to address the needs of followers. In this regard, he adds that the leader can achieve employee satisfaction through directing, supporting, participative, and achievement oriented leadership styles as shown in

Table 3.4.

Table 3.4: Leader Behaviour and Employee Needs in Path Goal Theory

Leader Behaviour	Employee Needs
Directing	Guidance and psychological structure because the policies are unclear, task is complex and employees are dogmatic
Supporting	Empathy because the task is highly structured, unsatisfying and redundant
Participative	Role in the decision-making process
Achievement-oriented	Challenging and demanding tasks

Source: Adapted from Khan A. (2013) and House and Mitchell (1974)

However, Malik, Aziz and Hassan (2014) put it differently by stating that path-goal theory suggests that the leader must be able to manifest four different styles of behaviours namely, defining goals, clarifying path, removing obstacles and providing support.

3.3.3.2.4 Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory

Hersey and Blanchard's (1977) situational leadership theory posits that leadership success is dependent on leader style flexibility and that the style should be matched to the maturity levels of the subordinates. Table 3.5 matches the leadership style to the maturity level of the subordinates.

Table 3.5: Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory

Maturity Level	Subordinate Maturity Readiness	Appropriate Leadership Style
M1	Low	Telling
M2	Moderate	Selling
M3	High	Participating
M4	Very high	Delegating

Source: Adapted from Hersey and Blanchard (1997)

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1997), telling is associated with directing; selling is associated with coaching; participating is associated with supporting; and delegating is associated with empowering. Table 3.5 suggests that as the level of subordinate maturity increases, the leader will move away from task behaviours (Johns & Moser, 2003). Furthermore, Johns and Moser (2003) suggest that, situational theory is gravitating towards the following leadership competences: ability to scan the environment; assess information; open communication policy; leading by example; and meeting social expectations.

Glynn and DeJordy (2010) observed that there is convergence among researchers that there is no single leadership style, which is universal in all situations. In general, the main problem with contingency/situational leadership models are to do with how the models are constructed (McCleskey, 2014). Bass (2008) corroborated this by arguing that there was no internal consistency, followed by conceptual contradictions and

ambiguities in situational leadership models, whereas, Nicholls (1985) identified lack of continuity and conformity as main drawbacks of situational theoretical models. Furthermore, Nothouse (2016) argues that the theory does not fully explain one-on-one versus group leadership regarding how a leader should match style, to the development level of the group or individual members. He also criticises the model for failing to consider how education, age, experience and gender affect leader–follower instructions of the model.

Contingency or situational leadership is adaptable to the changing business environment because it emphasises adopting a leadership style that matches the situation or a style contingent to the situation. Therefore, the leader ought to have a variety of competences and abilities to oscillate from one situation to the other. The leadership behaviours are problem-solving; decision making; rational thinking; reasoning; task focus; uncertainty coping; skill uniqueness; and interpersonal relationship. However, contingency or situational leadership theories are not competing theories to behavioural leadership theories, but situational leadership adopts behaviours which suit the situation. The fourth school of leadership thought is followership theory.

3.3.4 School of Followership Theory of Leadership

Epitropaki, Sy, Martin, Tam-Quon and Topakas (2013) define implicit theories as the term used in describing the group of cognitive constructs that exemplify personal-informal beliefs about distinctive characteristics in people or objects. In this regard, Kelly (1992) believes that the influence of a leader in organisational success is between 10 to 20%, whereas that of followers' make-up the largest, 80 to 90%. In other words, leaders and followers are joined at the hip. One cannot be there without the other. This is supported by Favara (2009), Chaleff, (2003) and Marion and Uhl-Bein (2001), who argue that the new leadership paradigm demands a higher level of inter-dependency between leaders and followers. Hence, implicit theory is split into implicit leadership theory (ILT) (Eden & Leviatan, 1975) and implicit followership theory (Dixon & Westbrook, 2003).

3.3.4.1 Implicit Leadership Theory (ILT)

Implicit leadership theory was pioneered by Eden and Leviatan (1975). According to Fein, Tziner, Vasiliu, and Felea (2015), ILTs are schema-based theories that have their roots in cognitive psychology. Schemas are a type of structures of knowledge or mental

models that individuals use as cognitive frameworks in sense making. In other words, implicit leadership theory attempts to explore the unspoken mental framework of leadership (Ling, Chia, & Fang, 2000). Thus, the leader must fit into the cognitive expectations of the followers (Lim, Othman, Zain, & Pengiran, 2012). In this regard, Phillips and Lord (1986) argue that followers carry through their first impressions of the leader and regulate their own behaviours in relation to their acceptance of the leader or not. Once followers have created these first impressions, they do not question the leader's authority (Cronshaw & Lord, 1987). These impressions or mental models are the perceptions held by followers on their leaders (Schyns & Meindl, 2005). In this regard, Kenney, Schwartz-Kenney and Blascovich (1996) supported by Schyns and Schilling (2011) argue that implicit leadership theory is similar to stereotyping. However, Nonaka, Toyoma and Konno (2000) believe that the ideal cognitive leadership behaviours, attributes and traits of the leader can originate from socialization and experiences from the past.

From a cultural perspective, individuals possess implicit beliefs, assumptions and convictions, concerning behaviours and attributes that distinguish followers from leaders, and also distinguish effective leaders from ineffective leaders (House, Wright & Aditya, 1997; Bauer, 2013). To understand the impact of culture on implicit leadership, Öztürk, Varoğlu and Varoğlu (2017) conducted a critical review of the literature. The critical review produced four outcomes of implicit leadership as follows;

- Team members possessing different cultural values from the majority are most likely to be considered as leaders;
- Team members possessing different cultural values from the majority are most likely to be considered as leaders by their individualistically oriented team members;
- Members from highly individualistic societies are predisposed to considering team-oriented leadership dimension as their exceptional leadership prototype;
- Members from highly masculine societies are predisposed to considering humane-oriented leadership dimension as their exceptional leadership prototype.

Another study by Tabak, Kızıloğlu and Türköz (2013) identified competences of implicit leadership in Turkey as morality, power, sensitiveness, skilfulness, and impressiveness. Furthermore, a study of British subjects by Epitropaki and Martin (2004) identified

competences of implicit leadership as sensitivity, dedication, intelligence, and dynamism. In a Chinese cultural setting study, Ling, Chia and Fang (2000) found the following implicit leadership competences as prototypes: personal morality, interpersonal competence, goal efficiency, and versatility. However, having discussed implicit leadership theory, Mohamadzadeh, Mortazavi, Lagzian and Rahimnia (2015) argue that everyone in an organisation is either a leader or a follower, hence, the next discussion is about implicit followership theory.

3.3.4.2 Implicit Followership Theory (IFT)

The hip joining of implicit leadership and implicit followership theories is advanced by Thody (2000) who avers that disregarding followership could mean ignoring the basis of social construction of leadership-followership. In other words, the perceptions and attributions of followers and the leaders, concerning the role of followership, is referred to as implicit followership theory (IFT). Baker (2007), Bennis (2008) and Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May and Walumbwa (2005) agree that it is an outdated view that followership had no role in leadership except as an outcome of leadership influence. Hence, a more balanced approach, which recognises the contribution of followership to leadership is what IFT seeks to achieve (Chaleff, 2003; Dixon & Westbrook, 2003). Although there is no consensus on the definition of followership, the following definition is instructive:

Followership is the cognitive capacity and affirmative behavioural volition of the individual to be influenced in order to actively partner and participate in the accomplishment of a shared goal or outcome (Chaleff, 2003, p. 4; Favara, 2009, p. 68; Kelly, 1992, p. 2).

However, IFT can be viewed from two perspectives, that is, how the leader perceives the followership; and how the followers perceive themselves. In this regard, Epitropaki et al. (2013) believe that the leader's positive perception of followers had a direct influence of followers' performance. Furthermore, IFT invokes action-oriented tendencies on the part of followers, thus compensating for the absence of self-generated actions from followers (Sy, 2010). However, Whiteley, Sy and Johnson (2012) argue that less experienced supervisors rely more on leader IFT regarding the expected performance of their followers. Hence, Sy (2010) identified six competences which he referred to as dimensions of followership. These were industry, enthusiasm, conformity, good citizen, incompetence and insubordination. He asserted that conformity comprised

competencies such as: easily influenced, follows trends, and soft spoken. According to Knoll, Schyns and Petersen (2017), the industry included competencies such as hardworking, productive, and going above and beyond, whereas the enthusiasm included: excited, outgoing, and happiness. Lastly, Sy (2010) breaks down the dimension of good citizen into loyal, reliable, and team player. However, in a study of unethical behaviour of leadership, Knoll, Schyns and Petersen (2017) empirically established that, good citizenry followers were inclined to contribute to unethical leadership. This is the bad side of charismatic or transformational leadership because an unethical leader can easily drive the followers to be unethical. This is so because, on the one hand, followers try to emulate the leader because the understanding is that the leader is leading by example as a role model. On the other hand, insubordinate followers are most likely to rebel against unethical leadership. Whilst insubordination is considered unacceptable behaviour, it is desirable where the leader perpetuates undesirable behaviour.

Regarding followers' perception of themselves, Carsten, Uhl-Bien, West, Patera and Patera (2010) empirically established competencies suitable for followership from followers' perspective as follows: team player, proactive behaviour, positive attitude, obedience, expressing an opinion, flexibility, dependable, communication skills, support, dependable, taking ownership, integrity, and mission conscience. In other words, the followers' perception of themselves is tantamount to looking at self in the mirror and then describing self.

However, Foti, Hansbrough, Epitropaki and Coyle (2017) criticise implicit theories, both ILT and IFT, for not being synonymous with the actual behaviour of a leader. Instead, they focus on perceptions of leaders and followers on one another, instead of their objective behaviour.

In this school of followership leadership thought, implicit theory is adaptable to the changing business environment because of its transformational and flexibility attributes. It demands inter-dependency between leaders and followers and has essential organisational and personal outcomes such as leader-member-exchange (LMX), job attitudes and performance. The required leadership behaviours are sense-making; implicit beliefs; convictions; morality; power; sensitiveness; skilfulness; impressiveness; dedication; intelligence; dynamism; interpersonal; goal efficiency; versatility; industry;

enthusiasm; conformity; good citizen; incompetence, insubordination; team player; proactive behaviour; positive attitude; obedience; expressing opinion; flexibility; dependable; communication skills; supportive; dependable; taking ownership; integrity; mission conscience; decisive; confidence; authentic; charismatic; diplomatic; servanthood; facilitator; passion; resilient; sense of humour; and humbleness. The last school of leadership thought to be discussed is that of contemporary theories.

3.3.5 School of Contemporary Leadership Theories

The contemporary leadership theories discussed here are relationship/transformational; transactional; managerial leadership; authentic; servant; ethical; psychological or 3P leadership model; spiritual leadership; responsible leadership and sustainable development.

3.3.5.1 Transformational Leadership Theory

Burns (1978) first introduced the concept of transforming leadership and then Bass (1985) reviewed the concept and used the term transformational leadership. This theory is also considered as contemporary, although it has been in existence since 1978. According to Krishnan (2005), transformational leadership theory is premised on the ability of the leader to motivate followers to achieve more than what the follower intended to achieve. In other words, Shirazi, et al. (2014) state that transformational leadership aims to shape change through supportive leadership behaviour to inspire followers and get their commitment. Hence, the behaviour of transformational leadership is based on four roles: inspire motives, influence ideas, consider individuals and stimulate intellect (Bairantus & Agapitou, 2016). Table 3.6 explains the four characteristics of transformational leadership.

Table 3.6: The characteristics of Transformational Leadership

Characteristic	Explanation
Idealised influence	A leader's behaviour and the follower's ascriptions about the leader
Inspirational motivation	Motivating and inspiring followers
Individualised consideration	Treating each person as special and mentoring them to develop potential
Intellectual stimulation	Incite creativity and innovativeness in followers

Source: Adapted from Balyer (2012, p. 581)

Givens (2008) suggests that the leader's characteristics stated in Table 3.6 are intended to produce the following follower outcomes: empowerment, commitment, job satisfaction, self-efficacy beliefs, trust and motivation. He adds that transformational leaders can influence the behaviour of employees to bring about favourable impact on the organisation. In other words, a transformational leader's behaviour must stimulate and inspire (transform) followers to attain extraordinary outcomes (Robbins & Coulter, 2007). However, Trevor and Hill (2012) argue that transformational leaders may not have formal authority. Furthermore, Odumeru and Ifeanyi (2013) maintains that transformational leadership should exhibit the following behaviours: be proactive; change organisational culture; motivates followers to be team players; and promote creativity and innovation. The relationship between transformational leadership and motivation of followers was studied by Ahmad, Abbas, Latif and Rasheed (2014). The study empirically established that there was a significant relationship between the two. Hence, it is argued here that transformational leadership is very much suitable for organisational change because the theory assumes that leaders can change the beliefs and behaviours of followers by emphasising the importance of collective outcomes (Moynihan, Pandey, & Wright, 2011; Yukl, 2008). However, Northouse (2016) criticises this and states that transformational leadership suffers from heroic leadership bias and treats leadership as a personality trait. Furthermore, its parameters overlap with other conceptualisations of leadership and the leader's purpose may go unchallenged as was the case with Adolf Hitler, thus becoming undemocratic (Suresh & Rajini, 2013).

Transformational leadership is adaptable to organisational change driven by a changing business environment because it is assumed that leaders can change the beliefs and behaviours of followers by emphasising the importance of collective outcomes. The transformational leader's behaviour must stimulate and inspire followers to attain extraordinary outcomes. The behaviours can be summarised as inspirational; influential; considerate; intellectual stimulation; and pro-activeness. However, transformational leaders may not have formal authority. Bass (1985) studied both transformational and transactional leadership and gave them equal importance. Hence, transactional leadership theory is discussed next.

3.3.5.2 Transactional Leadership Theory

According to Burns (1978), Yukl (2010) and Men (2014) transactional leadership posits that position power of a leader focuses on efficiently managing daily operations and is

necessary in influencing followers. Bass (1985), supported by Washington, Sutton, and Sauser (2014), averred that there were three dimensions linked to transactional leadership, namely, contingent reward, managing-by-exception active, and managing-by-exception passive. In addition, Podsakoff, Bommer, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (2006) explain that contingent rewarding involves clarifying objectives and rewards, whereas managing-by-exception-active places emphasis on shortcomings and errors and the corrective actions to be taken (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Hater & Bass, 1988). In addition, Doucet, Fredette, Simard and Tremblay (2015) explain that managing-by-exception-passive waits for problems to manifest and become serious before taking corrective action. Thus, transactional leadership is a “give-and-take” relationship, where praise and rewards are provided in exchange for performance (Podsakoff et al., 2006).

Burns (1978) is critical of transactional leadership arguing that practising transactional leadership results in short-term exchange relationships between the followers and the leader. Exchanges such as gratification tend to create resentment among participants (McCleskey (2014). Furthermore, Yurkl (2011) criticises transactional leadership for utilising a one size fits all approach, disregarding situational and contextual issues (Yurkl, 2011)

Transactional leadership does not lend itself adaptable to the changing business environment because it is inward looking with little focus on the external environment. The leadership behaviours are contingent rewarding; actively managing by action; and passively managing by exception. However, Avolio (1999), supported by Bass and Riggio (2006), argues that leaders have tended to use both transformational and transactional approaches at the same time. In this regard, there is need to include situational analysis as discussed next under managerial leadership theory.

3.3.5.3 Managerial Leadership Theory

Flanagan and Thompson (1993) constructed an integrated framework called the “model of managerial leadership”, which they believed was applicable to any leadership situation. It brings together transactional management and transformational leadership whose mix depends on the situation. They argue that an accurate reading of the situation is paramount to get the right mix and that the situation comprises the leader, the job and the organisation. Langford (1979) corroborates by stating that the situation is made up of the manager; the position held or tasks undertaken; the organisation; and

the socio-economic environment. Hence, Flanagan and Thompson (1993) aver that the model is neither "leadership" nor "management", but both and consists of transformational leadership, transactional management and situational sensitivity. **Error! Reference source not found.** presents the model.

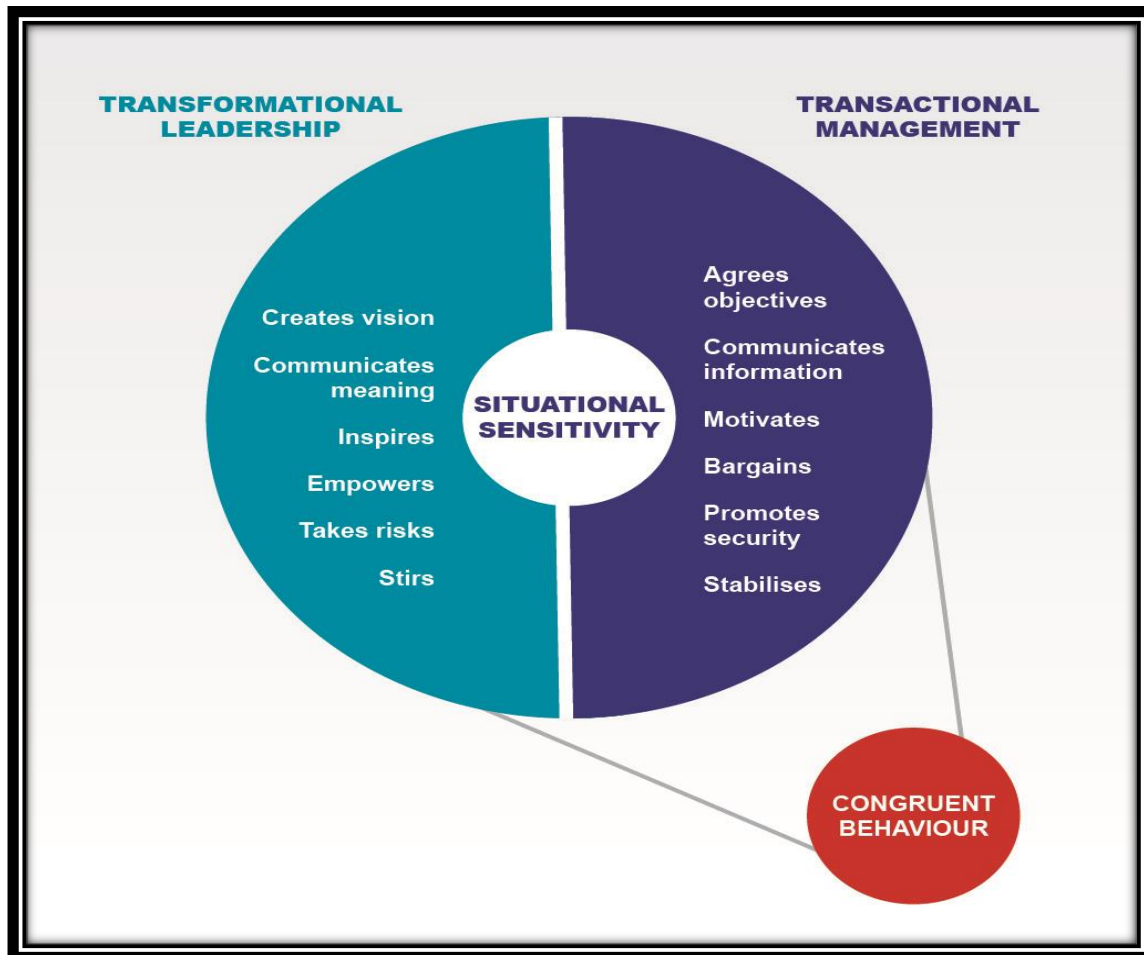


Figure 3.4: Model of Managerial Leadership

Source: Adopted from Flanagan and Thompson (1993, p. 14)

Error! Reference source not found. shows that the desired outcome is congruent behaviour, which accurately analyses the situation and brings a balance between transactional management and transformational leadership to enhance organisational efficiency (Flanagan & Thompson, 1993). The characteristics on the left side are for transformational leadership, whereas those on the right side are for transactional management.

Following up on Flanagan and Thompson's (1993) model, Ibrahim (2016) corroborates that managerial leadership is a coherent integrated concept of management and

leadership. Hence, the model is given credence by the argument that, “all leaders are managers but not all managers are leaders” (Ibrahim, 2016).

Managerial leadership is adaptable to the changing business environment because of the integrated nature of the model, which has environmental scanning and transformational attributes. Therefore, the key leadership behaviours that can be deduced from the managerial model are situational sensitivity; transactional; and transformational. The next contemporary theory discussed is authentic leadership.

3.3.5.4. Authentic Leadership Theory

According to Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, and Peterson (2008, p. 90), authentic leadership is:

a pattern of leader behaviour that, draws upon and promotes both positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate, to foster greater self-awareness, an internalised moral perspective, balanced processing of information, and relational transparency on the part of leaders working with followers, fostering positive self-development

From the above definition Bakari, Hunjra, and Niazi (2017) identified competencies of authentic leadership as self-awareness, relational transparency, balanced processing and internalised moral perspective. Furthermore, Bakari et al. (2017) studied how authentic leadership influenced planned change. The study revealed that: the behaviour of leaders, in this case authentic leadership behaviour, is crucial in the implementation stage of planned change, in the sense that leaders must create a meaningful environment for success of the planned change; understand the human side and the feelings; and that the Lewin Three-Step Model can be used by leaders to foster positive attitudes in employees to embrace change. In other words, to focus on changing behaviours of the team, leaders can apply Lewin's (1947, 1951) Three Step Change Model of change. Burnes (2009), supported by Liebhart and Agrico-Lorenzo (2010), regards Kurt Lewin as the founder father of altering behaviours through planned change.

However, Gardiner (2011) criticises the theory in that it does not consider the social and historical circumstances that affect one's ability to become a leader. She argues further, that leadership will not be authentic unless it recognises the various methods of dissent, which includes silence. In addition, Gruenfield and Zander (2011) criticise the theory for

creating a misconception that authentic leadership is all about displaying the good behaviours in self, ignoring the fact that, leaders must be real and show the character in them.

Authentic leadership is most suitable for planned change. It plays a complementary role in a changing business environment in which change is not planned. It calls for the following capabilities: self-awareness, relational transparency, balanced processing and internalised moral perspective. It identifies with servant leadership, where it is considered a competence, discussed next.

3.3.5.5 Servant Leadership Theory

According to Greenleaf (1977), who is credited with having introduced the theory, servant leadership theory emphasises selflessness of the leader for the good of followers. The theory advocates for five leadership behaviours namely, valuing and development of people; applying authentic leadership; building of communities; offering leadership; and power and status sharing. Many researchers (Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008; Neubert, Carlson, Roberts, Kacmar, & Chonko, 2008; Tebeian, 2012; Van-Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011; Washington, Sutton, & Sauser, 2014) have validated the servant leadership theory. The essence of servant leadership is confirmed by an inverted pyramid model, where the leader is at the bottom of the inverted pyramid, whilst the followers are at the top (Parris & Peachey, 2013).

However, Liden et al. (2008) suggested that a servant leader should display the following behaviours: conceptual skills; empower others; help others to grow and succeed; put followers first; being ethical; create emotional healing; and create value for the communities. In addition, Russell and Stone (2002) reviewed the theory and expanded the behaviours of servant leadership as follows: envisioning, honesty, integrity, trustworthy, being of service, role modelling, pioneering, appreciating others, and empowering people; communicating, being credible, competent, stewarding, being visible, influencing, persuasiveness, listening, encouraging, teaching, and delegating. Furthermore, Barbutto and Wheeler (2006), after conducting a literature review, condensed the behaviours again to five as follows: altruistic calling, wisdom application, emotional healing, persuasive charting, and stewardship. Another literature review by Van-Dierendonck (2011) identified six behaviours: empowerment and development of

people, humbleness, authenticity, interpersonal acceptance, giving direction, and stewardship.

In criticising the theory, Anderson (2009) contended that servant leadership was under-defined, resulting in many authors struggling with definitions. Hence, Parris and Peachey (2013) concluded that literature reviews to-date show the plurality of servant leadership theory, resulting in the lack of clear definition of what servant leadership really is. Furthermore, Kim, Kim and Choi (2014) argue that it is difficult to establish the theory as a scientific theory and they labelled it an emerging leadership philosophy. They also criticised the theory for being founded on characters appearing in creative novels, which do not exist.

Servant leadership is not identified as a leadership model for a changing environment because of its internal organisational focus. It can be regarded as complementary to other models where situational leadership is required. Whilst it resonates with authentic leadership and ethical leadership, it is driven by the selflessness of the leader. The leadership behaviours are honesty; integrity; visionary; role modelling; listening; teaching; authenticity; humbleness; power and status sharing; and stewardship. However, it influences followers to behave like the leader in the same manner ethical leadership does, which is discussed next.

3.3.5.6 Ethical Leadership Theory

Brown, Trevino and Harrison (2005, p. 120), supported by Wu (2017, p. 540), define ethical leadership as “the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making”. In addition, they argued that social learning theory was the theoretical basis to understand ethical leadership.

Social learning theory posits that, the behaviour of other people is habitually used by individuals to learn how to act correctly (Bandura, 1977, 1986; Taylor & Pattie, 2014). In other words, the ethical behaviour of followers is influenced by leaders through modelling that includes learning by observing, imitating, and identification (Brown et al., 2005). Thus, from an attribution theory perspective, ethical leadership influences followers (Harvey, Harris, Kacmar, Buckless, & Pescosolido, 2014a; Harvey, Madison, Martinko, Crook, & Crook, 2014b; Martinko, Harvey, & Desborough, 2011a; Martinko,

Harvey, Sikora, & Douglas, 2011b;). Furthermore, Brown and Trevino (2006) and Schaubroeck, et al. (2012) believe that leaders rooted in ethical values are respected and emulated by followers. Hence, Aquino and Thau (2009) supported by Ofori (2009) argue that such leaders portray very high moral standards and conduct in making decisions on day to day interactions and general conduct, which their followers can follow. Thus, they further argue that the ethical conduct of leaders, as role models, creates an ethical climate, which promotes doing the right thing.

Empirical research has found that ethical leadership is a predictor that influences the moral attitudes and behaviours of followers towards the organisation (Lee, Choi, Youn, & Chun, 2017; Mo, Wang, Akrivou, & Booth, 2012; Mo & Shi, 2017). Bedi, Alpaslan and Green (2016) also empirically established that ethical leadership was positively related to many follower outcomes such as viewing how a leader is interactionally fair; and the followers' ethical behaviour. Hence, Li, Wu, Johnson and Avey (2017) aver that ethical leadership is constructed with two pillars: the moral person and the moral manager. They contended that the moral person thinks of ethical leadership as being typified by moral traits, right behaviours, and upright decision-making; whilst the moral manager transmits the ethical characteristics to followers using role modelling, rewarding and disciplining, and communicating. Littman and Littman (2017) identified six ethical leader behaviours necessary for project success as: model respect, take responsibility, demonstrate fairness, exhibit honesty, exhibit courage, and display kindness.

Monahan (2012) criticises ethical leadership arguing that it remains largely unclear with too many grey areas, whilst much of the literature identifies ethical dilemmas and problems without offering solutions, yet leading organisations are devoting time and resources in developing ethical leadership. This is supported by Yukl (2006) and Mihelič, Lipičnik and Tekavčič (2010) who aver that ethical leadership as a construct, is ambiguous and has many diverse elements.

Ethical leadership is not a stand-alone model for the changing business environment because of its internal organisational focus. It is complementary to other leadership models of the changing environment and planned change. Because of its emphasis on the moral leader, ethical leadership influences followers to behave like the leader, to assist in achieving the objectives of the envisioned change. It requires portrayal of very high moral standards and conduct. The behaviours required are role modelling; moral

standing; interactional fairness; rewarding and disciplining; honesty; kindness; and courage. Ethical leadership together with authentic and servant leadership are inputs to psychological leadership discussed next.

3.3.5.7 Psychological or 3P model of Leadership

One of the latest leadership models is the psychological or 3P model of leadership, propounded by Scouller (2016). He premised it on public, private and personal leadership as the main variables and aligns the model to self-identity, purpose and feelings. Other characteristics he identifies in the model are that: firstly, it puts into practise the ideals of servant and authentic leadership in addition to promoting shared values. Secondly, public and private leadership are concerned with what one does around people. Thirdly, public leadership influences the attitudes and behaviours of several people at the same time. Fourthly, private leadership is a one-on-one relationship with group members. Lastly, personal leadership is concerned with technical and psychological self-enhancement, such as emotional intelligence, resilience, presence, knowhow and skill.

The 3P model of leadership has not been complemented with more research by academic writers. This lack of research is a limiting factor in considering the model as a stand-alone model of the changing business environment. This is corroborated by its association with servant and authentic leadership which are complementary models in application to the changing business environment. Leadership behaviours that can be deduced from this theory are emotional intelligence, resilience, presence, authenticity, servanthip, and skill. Whilst the 3P leadership model is concerned with what one does around people, spiritual leadership emphasising high spirits is discussed next.

3.3.5.8 Spiritual Leadership Theory

Fachrunnisa and Adhiatma (2014) define workplace spirituality as a work situation that influences the leader and follower to be in high spirits towards completing work and achieving objectives of the organisation. At the leadership level, Fry (2003) supported by Fry, Vitucci and Cedilo (2005) and with the agreement of Jeon, Passmore, Lee and Hunsaker (2013), argue that spiritual leadership theory is a catalyst for organisational transformation, which creates an intrinsically motivated learning organisation. The theory comprises attitudes, values and behaviours necessary for motivation of self and others to inculcate a sense of spiritual survival through membership and calling.

Furthermore, Aidoo (2017) considers spiritual leadership as a unique model, where followers and leaders are connected and have commitment to the group's wellbeing to foster transformation through a spirit-filled way of living. In contrast, Markow and Klenke (2005) argue that clearly defining spirituality may lead to narrow rigidity and the fear that spirituality could end up constrained by the doctrine of a specific faith or religion. Hence, Weaver and Agle (2002), supported by Tracey (2012), argue that religion is a pervasive force, which influences behaviours, values and attitudes as a dimension of the leader's characteristics and the leader's environmental context.

The catalysing or causal effect of spiritual leadership theory on organisational transformation is depicted in Figure 3.5.

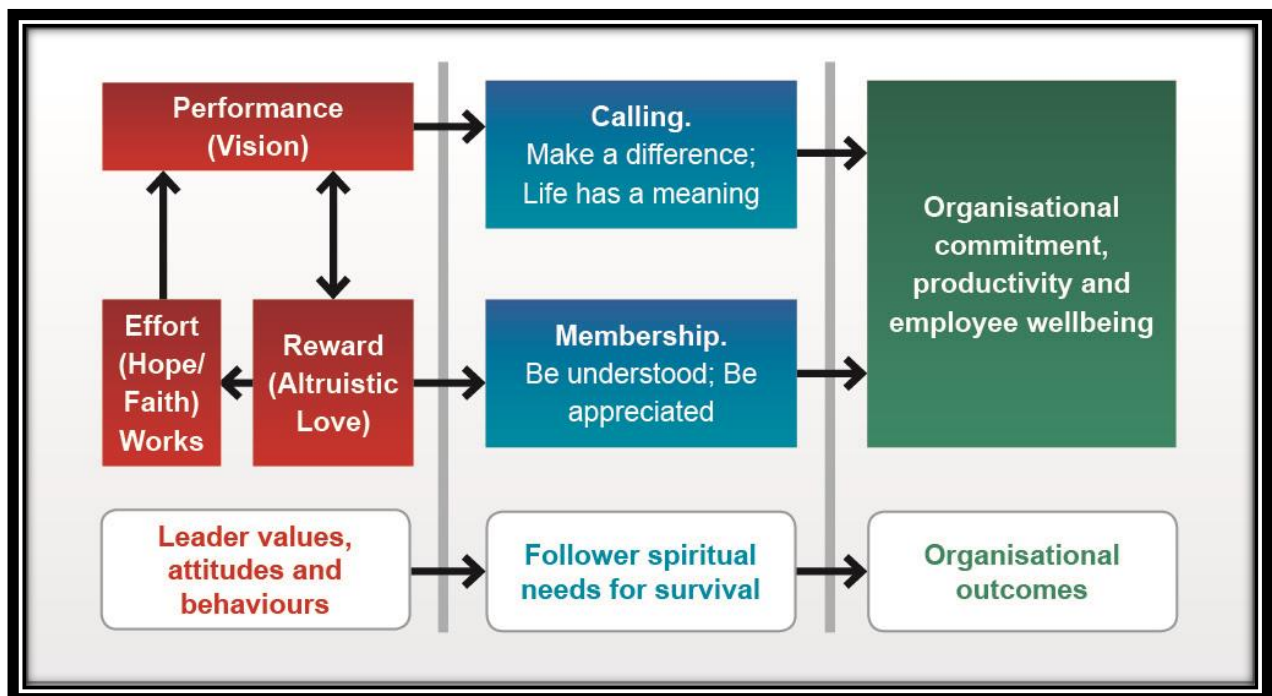


Figure 3.5: Causal Model of Spiritual Leadership Theory

Source: Adopted from Fry, Vitucci and Cedilo (2005, p. 838)

Figure 3.5 shows the values-congruence in the entire organisation, from the leader to follower and finally to outcomes, resulting in organisational commitment, high productivity and people well-being. Kriger and Hanson (1999) had earlier suggested a similar set of employee spiritual values including, honesty, trustworthiness, humility, forgiving, compassionate, appreciation, service, and stillness/peace. However, Reave (2005) suggested the following spiritual behaviours: respect, fairness, care and concern, responsive listening and appreciating.

in addition, Egel and Fry (2017) studied the relationship between the spiritual leadership model and the Islamic leadership model. The study found the following: the Muslim world does not separate work and religion; global organisations can create vision and value congruence and enable collaboration among employees from different cultural backgrounds; inspires a higher level of commitment and belonging; and optimises employee well-being in cross-cultural environments. Through superimposition, the study concluded that spiritual leadership theory can inform leaderships based on other religions such as Islam, Christianity, Judaism, or Buddhism. Furthermore, Benefiel, Fry and Geigle (2014) noted that research to date reveals that spiritual leadership theory predicts many individual and organisational outcomes throughout different countries and cultures.

However, Meng (2016) criticises the theory of spiritual leadership as relatively new, and research is focussing on establishing spiritual values and behaviours; scrutinising conceptual frameworks and models relating to spirituality; and development of instruments for measuring spirituality. Also, Hicks (2002) criticises the theory for being more disparate and disputed than what the existing leadership literature concedes. He further criticises the theory for often being defined in contrast to religion, yet this contrast is not a precise explanation of a complex interrelationship.

Spiritual leadership is adaptable to the changing business environment because of its transformational and inspirational attributes. It is linked to visionary leadership because vision is an element of spiritual leadership as shown in Figure 3.5. The strength of spiritual leadership lies in engendering a high spirit in both the leader and followers in working towards achieving the organisational objectives and goals. The leadership behaviours that can be deduced from this theory are high spirits; being visionary; motivating self and others; commitment; employee wellbeing; faith; altruistic love; and calling. The next discussion is on responsible leadership.

3.3.5.9 Responsible Leadership Theory

According to Cameron (2011), there are four connotations of responsible leadership namely: accountability and dependability; freedom of action and empowerment; virtuousness; and characteristics and roles grounded in stakeholder theory. As suggested by Meindl and Ehrlich (1987) and supported by Bass and Bass (2008), accountability and dependability refer to being liable for performance and being reliable

in achieving promised performance, whereas, freedom of action and empowerment suggest that individuals have discretionary or volition-based authority (Cameron, 2011). In addition, Walsh, Weber and Margolis (2003) aver that virtuousness is about being good or doing good, thus inferring rightness, correctness, and goodness.

The stakeholder perspective of responsible leadership is enunciated by Pless (2007), who stated that responsible leadership is a values, norms and ethics based approach that drives relationships between leaders and stakeholders, riding on shared meaning and purpose to achieve sustainable values creation and social change. The centrality of values in responsible leadership is supported by Freeman and Auster (2011) who argued that values should manifest at both individual and corporate levels. However, Paraschiv, Nemoianu, Langă and Szabó (2012) put it slightly differently by stating that responsible leadership is an art of building and maintaining morally strong relationships with all stakeholders. It is also considered an emerging concept at the intersection of ethics, leadership, and corporate social responsibility (De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008), which attempts to answer questions about who is responsible for what, in an interconnected business world and towards whom, thus, engendering leader–stakeholder interaction, as opposed to leader–follower interaction (Voegtlin, Patzer, & Scherer, 2012). In other words, it is an umbrella concept of rethinking leadership in the context of stakeholder theory (Waldman & Galvin, 2008), emphasising more relational methods of interaction with all constituents (Gond, Igalens, Swaen, & El Akremi, 2011). In addition to drawing from findings in stakeholder theory, Pless (2007) argues that responsible leadership also draws from leadership ethics, developmental psychology, psychoanalysis and systems theory in examining and understanding the dynamic engagements between leaders and stakeholders that lead to responsible behaviour and action for social change. In addition, Gond, Igalens, Swaen and El Akremi (2011) argue that corporations should be purposefully focused on sustainability or corporate social responsibility to be responsible leaders. Thus, responsible leadership concerns the need to balance immediate economic viability with long-term benefits that, should accrue from a balanced stakeholder perspective (Pearce, Wassenaar, & Manz, 2014). In this regard, Kets de Vries, Vriegnaud and Florent-Treacy (2004) on the one hand aver that traditional leadership research tends to focus on cognition and behaviour, to which clinical psychologists add emotions in decoding leadership texts. On the other hand, responsible leadership research scrutinises leadership dynamics from the perspectives

of stakeholder society and the ethics, in respect of norms, values, and principles (Pless, 2007).

From a roles perspective, Maak and Pless (2006) proffer nine roles of responsible leadership, which form different characteristics based on values and operations. They describe the value-based roles as steward, citizen, servant, and visionary. Whereas, the operational roles are described as networker, storyteller, change agent, coach and architect. However, Pless (2007) drops the last two roles and adapts the model as in Figure 3.6 showing the roles and who is impacted.

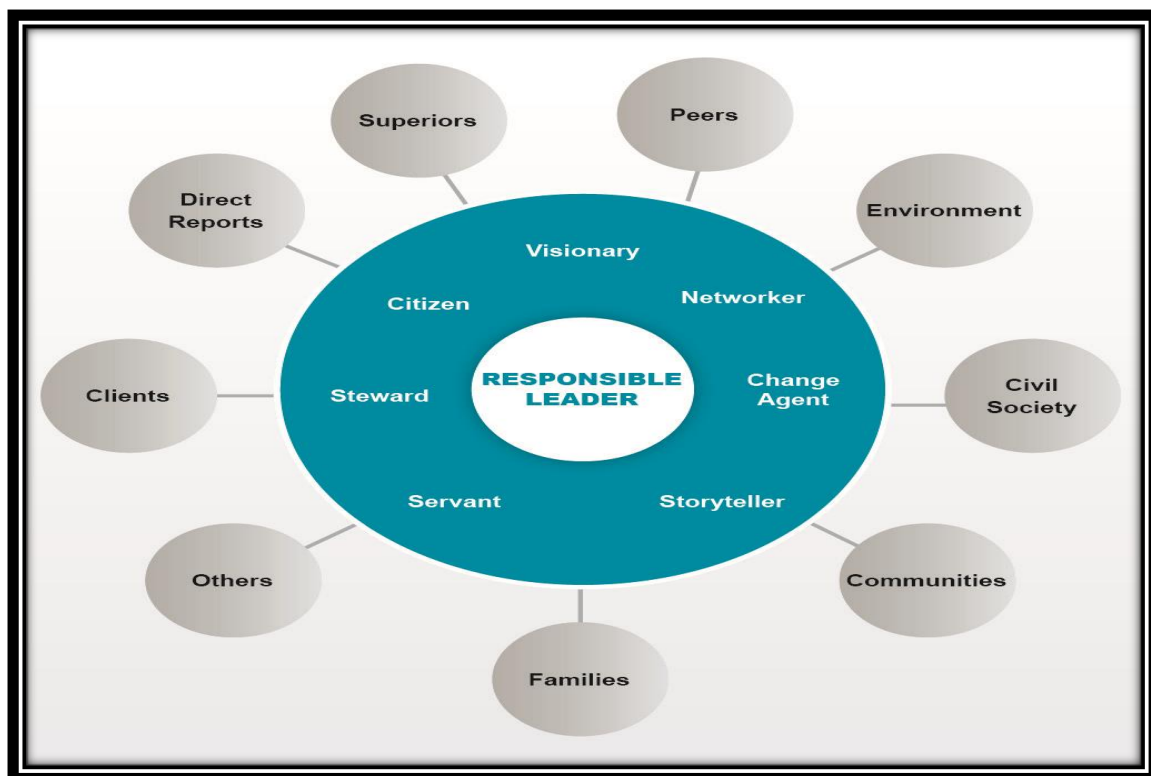


Figure 3.6: Responsible Leadership Roles and Constituents

Source: Adopted from Pless (2007, p. 439)

It can be observed from Figure 3.6 that responsible leadership roles impact the internal and external stakeholders, who in this case are the environment, civil society, communities, families, suppliers, clients, direct reports, superiors and peers. In other words, responsible leadership is triggered by the various environmental and social forces (Pless & Maak, 2011)

From a competences perspective, Crews (2010) identified competences required of responsible leadership as stakeholder engagement; sustainability centered

organisational culture; learning oriented towards sustainability; and measuring and reporting sustainability results. However, according to Pless (2007), at the personal leadership level, the required competences are needs for: exploration and assertion; attachment and affiliation; sense of enjoyment; justice; recognition; and care. Hence, responsible leadership, together with sustainable organisational culture and organisational change are regarded as driving factors for sustainable development at corporate level (Paraschiv, Nemoianu, Langă, & Szabó, 2012).

A criticism of responsible leadership is provided by Waldman and Galvin (2008) and Waldman, (2011). They argued that responsibility was a missing element in leadership models such as charismatic, transformational, servant, authentic, participative, spiritual, shared and ethical leadership models. They further argue that the element of responsibility is the main driver of effective leadership.

Responsible leadership does not have much empirical evidence to support it as a leadership model but as a competence that resides in all models of leadership. Its attributes deduced from the foregoing are stakeholder engagement; sustainability centered organisational culture; learning oriented towards sustainability; measuring and reporting sustainability results; exploration and assertion; attachment and affiliation; sense of enjoyment; justice; recognition; and care. Its perspectives are accountability and dependability; freedom of action and empowerment; virtuousness; and characteristics and roles grounded in stakeholder theory. However, in view of it not qualifying as a leadership model, it fits well as a perspective of sustainable development leadership.

3.3.5.10 Sustainable Development Leadership Theory

In view of sustainable development leadership being in its infancy, it is important to discuss it in dissected form. The discussion will center around the following topics: first, the concept of sustainable development leadership will be introduced and defined; secondly, sustainable development will be discussed as an enterprise perspective; thirdly, a trait perspective centered on multiple intelligences will be discussed and lastly, a leadership style perspective will be introduced.

On the **concept of sustainable development leadership**, Bendell and Little (2015, p. 1) argue that “existing paradigms in leadership and leadership education are counter to sustainability and should not be incorporated into sustainability efforts unchallenged.

Instead, a new approach to leadership and its development is required". Related to this, Ferdig (2007, p. 33) avers that a new leadership for sustainability theory provides "a radically expanded understanding of leadership that, includes an enlarged base of everyday leaders in all walks of life who take up power and engage in actions with others to make a sustainable difference in organisations and communities".

According to Peterlin (2016), although sustainability has gained attention as a value, there was little research about sustainability leadership development in the business arena. This lack of research resulted in Grooms and Reid-Martinez (2011) coming up with a loaded definition of sustainable development leadership by suggesting that it is the ability to recognise intricate systems that are interwoven with human values in order to promote sustainability. Additionally, Akins, Bright, Brunson and Wortham (2013, p. 30) unpacked the loaded definition by stating that sustainable development leadership involves "leadership qualities that, meet the economic, environmental, and social needs of the present while preparing to meet the challenges of the future". Kras (2007) corroborates this by stating that consideration of future generations should drive the behaviour of leaders concerned with sustainability to act within the confines of nature. Peterlin, Dimovski and Penger (2013) agree with this view by stating that sustainable development leadership is one that consciously takes into consideration, in making decisions, the well-being of future generations and nature. Furthermore, Burns, Vaught, and Bauman (2015, p. 132) made the following postulations;

First, leadership for sustainability signifies cultivating a way of being and acting that, is embedded in sustainability values; second, leadership is rooted in a living process paradigm; and third, leadership is an inclusive, collaborative, and reflective process.

Although the above arguments, in some cases, used the term sustainable development leadership, it is clear that the writers were referring to corporate sustainability, in the context of this study. However, Timmer, Buckler and Creech (2008) were more specific in arguing that the advent of sustainable development has brought about the need to upscale the training of sustainable development leaders (macro level) to eliminate the dearth of leadership in this area. The scarcity of sustainable development leadership cascades to the micro level as argued by IoDSA (2012, p. 2) which stated that,

As the business model changes to include a broader view of the company's place in society, the need to be accountable to a diverse group of stakeholders and take responsibility for common ecological capital arises. Therefore, the type of leadership needs to change as well.

Moreover, Peterlin (2016) suggests that sustainability leadership must consider leaders and followers as stakeholders who must share and distribute own influence into the social and natural environments. Hence, without such a leadership change, the organisation may not contribute to sustainable development (macro level). Therefore, Grooms and Reid-Martinez (2011) believe that sustainable development leadership is key to the successful implementation of the sustainable development agenda. In addition, Fullan (2005) equated sustainable development leadership to a long lever that can be used to influence development. Hence, at the business level, Szczepańska-Woszczyna and Kurowska-Pysz (2016) empirically found that there was a statistically significant relationship between action taken in support of sustainable business and the leader's conviction or awareness regarding the concept of sustainable business development. Therefore, leadership must possess a wide range of competences to deal with the complexity of organisational or corporate sustainability issues. This reasoning is supported by Schriberg and McDonald (2013) who argued that sustainability leadership competences should be able to deal with stakeholder conflict, uncertainty, and interrelated problems, requiring leadership theory and practice that is interdisciplinary and oriented toward sustainability.

Because sustainable development leadership is in its development stages, writers are contributing various perspectives such as **enterprise sustainability**. Hence, Metcalf and Benn (2013) examined existing confusion and disagreements about leadership competences related to successful implementation of sustainability of enterprises in view of its complexity. The study concluded that sustainability requires leaders who can: read and predict through complexity; think through complex problems; engage dynamic groups during change processes; and have high emotional intelligence. However, the complexity of sustainability needed to attain a sustainable human society in general, which requires a review of leadership competences, is theorised by Beddoe et al. (2009, p. 2488) as follows:

To attain a sustainable human society, the task is huge and will take a concerted and sustained effort if we hope to make the transition a relatively smooth one. It will require a whole systems approach at multiple scales in space and time. It will require integrated systems-level redesign of our entire socio-ecological regime, focused explicitly and directly on the goal of sustainable quality of life rather than the proxy of unlimited material growth. It must acknowledge physical limits, the nature of complex systems, a view of human behaviour and well-being, the critical role of natural and social capital, and the reducible uncertainty surrounding these issues.

Although not explicitly stated, the competences required for successful implementation of enterprise sustainability comprise core-competences required by all leadership levels, with some being demerged to be the preserve of those in senior leadership positions.

Blowfield (2013) believes that businesses ought to have sustainability leaders who are able to discover and embed values of sustainability and also comply with pertinent sustainable development protocols and legislation. This, according to Govender (2017), means that sustainability leadership should be reflexive to enable adaptation, continuous learning, and open monitoring and evaluation. However, Fox (2004) argues that sustainability leadership and the business must be socially responsive instead of being socially responsible. In other words, both leadership and the business must be sensitive to the needs of society and adapt accordingly, instead of merely complying with legislation.

In order to understand sustainability leadership, Akins, Bright, Brunson and Wortham (2013) empirically studied effective leadership qualities for sustainable development. The study found ten leadership qualities that were effective for sustainable development, namely: learning, empowering, adapting, developing, engaging, reflecting, sustaining, humility, integrity, and practice. Table 3.6 explains the ten leadership qualities suitable for sustainable development.

Table 3.7: Leadership Qualities for Sustainable Development

Leadership Quality	Explanation
Learning	Embrace ontological humility and bridge necessary leadership qualities of now to prepare for sustainable development leadership of the future with an open mind.
Empowering	Share leadership practices to enhance teamwork, increase motivation and increase autonomy.
Adapting	Maintain flexibility in a continuously changing environment by revisiting vision, goals and objectives.
Developing	Development of future leaders should involve training, feedback, mentoring, communicating effectively, recognition, and rewards.
Engaging	Be fully involved with all elements of leadership (task, followers, organisation) in the present and the future whilst building organisational ethics and corporate responsibility.
Reflecting	Self-evaluate performance and determine if personal and team expectations have been met.
Sustaining	Be passionate about sustainable development through motivation.
Humility	Degree of care and concern for team members.
Integrity	Be true to oneself and believe in personal wholeness.
Practice	Strive for performance growth and positive outcomes.

Source: Adapted from Akins, Bright, Brunson and Wortham (2013, pp. 31-32)

Although the leadership qualities in Table 3.7 are said to be for sustainable development (macro level), this study views them as also suitable for business sustainability (micro level). Better still, they can be regarded as generic leadership qualities for both macro and micro level sustainable development. The generic perspective buttresses the point that a discussion of sustainable development leadership should not be divorced from corporate sustainability leadership.

However, Day and Harrison (2007) suggest that sustainability leadership thrives where different leadership perspectives are integrated and where there is acknowledgement of interdependence in organisations and the environment, whilst also recognising team

effort. According to Wales (2013), literature indicates some evidence towards mainstreaming sustainability in organisations, such as making sustainability a strategic priority for future CEOs.

A **trait perspective to sustainable development leadership** is foreseen by Peterlin, Dimovski, and Penger (2013), who created a conceptual model for sustainability leadership development, which was based on Howard Gardner's multiple intelligences theory. They aver that the conceptual model prioritised sustainability into strategy. To clarify, intelligence is the ability to solve problems or the capacity to create products that are of value in any cultural setting (Gardner & Hatch, 1989). Gardner's theory was applied through appreciative inquiry to leadership. The interpretation of the model was that leaders possess multiple intelligences that differentiated their personal profiles. This enabled the leaders to develop spanned-wide intelligences throughout their reign as leaders. Table 3.8 shows a refined multiple intelligences framework from Peterlin, Dimovski and Penger (2013) and Chen, Moran and Gardner (2009).

Table 3.8: Multiple Intelligences Framework

	Intelligence	Trait
1	Linguistic	Proficiency of language.
2	Logical	Ability to notice numerical or logical patterns & make abstract assumptions.
3	Spatial	Ability to create mental images as well as remember facts most appropriately by visualising.
4	Kinaesthetic	Ability of physical expression.
5	Musical	Ability of recognising non-verbal sounds in the environment, sensitivity to pitch, melody, tone, and rhythm.
6	Interpersonal	Ability to understand and relate well to other people.
7	Intrapersonal	Ability to identify, understand and demonstrate one's own emotions.
8	Naturalistic	Ability to relate to the natural environment.
9	Existential	Ability to locate oneself with respect to the furthest reaches of the cosmos.

Adopted from Peterlin, Dimovski, and Penger (2013, p. 210) and Chen, Moran and Gardner (2009)

According to Gardner's theory, multiple intelligences are regarded as the background theory to sustainability leadership development (Peterlin, Dimovski, & Penger, 2013). Another empirical study of multiple intelligences at the Confucius Institute Ljubljana of Slovenian and Chinese stakeholders by Peterlin, Dimovski, Uhan, & Penger (2015) concluded that linguistic, logical, interpersonal, intrapersonal and naturalistic intelligences are the cornerstone of sustainability leadership development. The study found out that multiple intelligences are a fruitful tool for sustainability leadership development. From the above studies, it is evident that the naturalist and the existential intelligences do have linkages with the natural environment and the universe and by implication to sustainable development.

The **emerging style perspective** is advocated by Schwalb (2011) who reviewed historical events supporting the theory that sustainability leadership is an emerging style resulting from recent social, economic, cultural, and environmental change. The study concluded that thinking style and positive psychological constructs are antecedents for leadership competencies. Furthermore, the intervening condition of the role of leader had a direct impact on competencies required for effective leadership. Thus, he argued that competences result from knowledge, skills, method, style, and mission-criticality dimensions. Hence, "the process-result is a decision, or actions taken that are grounded in the perspective of a sustainability leader" (Schwalb, 2011, p. 66). However, sustainability leadership as an emerging style can be attributable to leaders in leadership position because of the style aspect included in the term. The researcher would argue for its applicability to leaders not in a leadership position.

Another style perspective of sustainability leadership is advanced by Hargreaves and Fink (2004) who suggested seven leadership competences, which they referred to as principles of sustainability leadership as follows: sustainability learning; securing success over time; sustaining the leadership of others; addressing social justice issues; developing instead of depleting human and material resources; developing environmental diversity and capacity; and undertaking activist engagement with the environment. Hargreaves (2007) went on to clarify that sustainability leadership is about preserving and developing deep learning attitudes, which spread and last, in ways that are not harmful and creating positive benefits for everyone around, now and in the future. Thus, Lans, Blok, and Wesselink (2014) add that because of its complexity, dealing with sustainability requires higher-order thinking skills and specific leadership

competencies. It is argued here that, although the term used in this paragraph is sustainability, the authors were referring to sustainable development leadership at the macro level.

The foregoing discussion on sustainable development leadership theory is still in its infancy. This is confirmed by the researcher who also struggled to get literature in this area. However, literature used in this study was obtained through EBSCOHost multi-disciplinary electronic database website. EBSCOHost provides content through databases, e-books, journals and magazines. It is also a discovery tool used for searching all electronic library resources across the world. A search for “sustainable development leadership” produced a mere 626 results. Another search for “sustainability leadership” produced 3295 results. From these results, very few publications were relevant to this study. These search results were very low compared to a search for other leadership theories such as, relationship leadership with 22 842 results; transformational leadership with 20372 results; and strategic leadership with 13 407 results.

In addition, the controversy discussed in the background of Chapter Two, surrounding the sustainability concept, can also be transmitted to sustainability leadership. This controversy in sustainability leadership is acknowledged by Strandberg (2015, p. 4), in his study on sustainability leadership competences, who stated that “sustainability is used interchangeably with corporate social responsibility, corporate citizenship, and triple bottom line management and includes social and environmental considerations in business”. According to Shriberg and MacDonald (2013) the lack of research in sustainability leadership emanates from academic programmes, where directors have a sustainability background without a leadership background. They further argue that, such directors tend to have difficulty articulating how their programs are different from traditional leadership programs.

Sustainable development leadership is adaptable to the changing business environment because of its multiple dimensions that require multiple leadership styles. Although still in its infancy, there is need to contribute to the literature in this theory since existing paradigms in leadership and leadership education are not adequate to drive the sustainability agenda. Hence, a new approach to leadership and its development is required. Perspectives of sustainable development leadership identified are enterprise;

trait perspective riding on multiple intelligences; and emerging style. A key capability associated with sustainability leadership is socially responsive instead of being socially responsible. Leadership behaviours deduced from this theory are multiple intelligences; dealing with stakeholder conflict; sustainability learning; social justice; developing human and material resources; developing environmental diversity and capacity; activist engagement with the environment; develop deep learning attitudes that spread and last; higher order thinking skills; reflexivity; open monitoring and evaluation; sensitive; humility; ethical; honesty; integrity; reflecting; engaging; and empowering.

This section on contemporary leadership thought gave insights into the theories that gave mixed results on their suitability for the changing business environment. Some of the theories have been in existence for some years. For example, servant leadership, introduced in 1977 and transformational leadership, formalised in 1985 are still considered contemporary because they are still trending.

Contributions to the study from schools of leadership thought:

- The schools of leadership thought approach was pertinent to this study because it helped determine which schools provided theories suitable for the changing business environment.
- Trait leadership is not universally applicable when responding to the changing business environment because traits are largely unique to individuals and can vary with each leader. Examples are charisma, charm, command personality, and intellect. Hence, the focus on behavioural leadership theories.
- The behavioural leadership approach enables the development of desired leadership competences instead of relying on personal traits. Task and relations oriented behaviours; participative; and authoritarian leadership styles complement other leadership theories in influencing the changing business environment.
- Contingency/situational leadership has adaptive attributes that enable it to respond to both internal and external changing business environments.
- Followership leadership, premised on implicit theory, is adaptable to the changing business environment because of its transformational and flexibility attributes.

- Contemporary leadership provided ten theories in all that, had mixed responses to the changing business environment. Four were adaptable; five were complementary; and one was not adaptable.
- The contemporary school of leadership thought is not a leadership theory because it simply groups theories that are trending, whereas the other schools are theories in their own right namely, trait; behavioural leadership; contingency/situational; and followership theories.

Therefore,

Table 3.9 shows the contribution from each theory in the four schools of leadership thought in expanded format.

Table 3.9: Evaluating Leadership Theories against the Changing Business Environment

Leadership Theory		Evaluation	Adaptability or Non-adaptability Lies In
Task-oriented behaviour	Behavioural	Complementary	Behaviours that emphasise task accomplishment
Relations-oriented behaviour			Behaviours that emphasise good relations with followers
Democratic/Participative			Rallying followers or teams to focus on objectives or goals.
Authoritative/Autocratic			Giving directives to followers for achieving goals.
Laissez-fair		Not adaptable	Relies on trust and responsibility avoidance.

Contingency or Situational	Contingency	Adaptable	Adaptive skills and abilities to respond to internal and external environments.
Implicit	Followership	Adaptable	Transformational attributes, which resonate with adaptive behaviour.
Transformational	Contemporary	Adaptable	Motivating followers to achieve more by changing their beliefs and behaviours.
Transactional		Not adaptable	Inward focus that, concentrates on efficient management of daily operations.
Managerial Leadership		Adaptable	Integrating situational, transactional; and transformational skills.
Authentic		Complementary	Planned change.
Servant			Emphasising selflessness and influences followers to behave like the leader.
Ethical			Emphasising morality.
Psychological or 3P model of Leadership			Aligning self-identity, purpose and feelings. It's associated with servant and authentic leadership, which are complementary.
Spiritual		Adaptable	Transformational and inspirational attributes and is linked to visionary leadership.
Responsible Leadership		Complementary	It is a competence at the heart of effective leadership and a perspective of sustainable development leadership.
Sustainable Development		Adaptable	Key to implementing the sustainable development agenda 2030 and relies on multiple leadership perspectives.

Source: Compiled by researcher

Table 3.9 shows that, six theories were adjudged to be adaptable to the changing business environment. Two were not adaptable and nine were considered complementary to other theories of the changing business environment. This mixture of adaptable and complementary theories is necessary because the environment is driven by multiple forces of change as depicted by the PESTE model in chapter two. Multiple adaptability of theories corroborates the SDGs driven environment that, requires multiple leadership capabilities. Each theory provided the required competences necessary to make the leadership model effective. This means that, leadership competences are off-shoots of leadership theory and not stand-alone theories. Hence, leadership theories provide the lenses with which to view leadership competences.

3.4 Competence

This section unpacks the concept of competences. Secondly, the relationship between skills theory and competences will also be discussed. Lastly, the relationship between leadership roles and competences is explained. The discussion starts by explaining the concept.

3.4.1 Defining competence

The concepts of competencies, competences and competency are either used as meaning the same thing or as concepts with different meaning. According to Jovescek (2016), the word competencies applies to a lot of scientific disciplines; therefore, there

are several theoretical definitions of the word. The many definitions perspective is corroborated by Brownell (2006), who states that while scholars adopt slightly different approaches and perspectives on competencies, there is general understanding that competencies are specific descriptions of personalities and behaviours intended to achieve certain outcomes. In attempting to give meaning, Jovescek (2016) argues that an individual's competencies are essential for activating, using and connecting skills, self-image, motives and values to enable performance of a role or task in complex and unpredictable situations. In other words, competencies include what an individual knows and does, as well as personal characteristics of the person (Brockbank, Ulrich, & Beatty, 1999). Hence, leadership traits are viewed as personal characteristics or competencies of the leader such as appearance, intelligence, and values (Gehring, 2007). However, Boyatzis (2009) supported by Visagie, Linde and Havenga (2011) argue that competencies are abilities that enable the use of knowledge and implementation of concepts learnt into practice. They add that abilities are the essential characteristics of an individual that lead to outstanding performance.

In supporting the individual orientation of competencies, Osagie, Wesselink, Blok, Lans and Mulder (2016) studied individual competencies for corporate social responsibility and established that competencies are enacted, shaped and developed by individuals. Furthermore, Wickramasinghe and De Zoyza (2011) distinguished competencies and competences by stating that competencies are an individual's experience, skills, technical knowledge and abilities that cause effective performance; whereas, competences comprise differentiated skills, routines and supportive assets that are an organisation's competitive and sustainable advantage.

According to Crawford (1997), **competence** is a term that, comprises skills, knowledge, behaviours and attitudes, which cause superior performance, whereas Gehring (2007) describes it as the ability or stage of being competent. He further clarifies that competent refers to being properly skilled or qualified or adequately capable. In support of application of competences to organisational level, Nogalski and Niewiadomski (2016) aver that organisational success must include activities that enable use and development of the organisation's competence potential. Additionally, Krzakiewicz and Cyfert (2017) support organisational competences as a competitive advantage, but argue that competences should be part of the organisation's business model. This study will incorporate competences into the business model. A more embracing descriptive

definition is given by Westera (2001), who describes competence as a theoretical or operative perspective where the theoretical is conceived as a cognitive structure facilitating specific behaviour, whereas the operative cover higher-order behaviours and skills for coping with complex and unpredictable situations. In this regard, the higher-order behaviours and skills should be associated with persons. Hence, Gehring (2007) adds that although competence is about possessing the required minimum skills, knowledge, behaviour and attitude to perform satisfactorily, it does not necessarily follow that, the person will be competent.

Given the foregoing discussion on defining competencies and competences, this study adapts the various definitions to come up with the following definition: Competencies are an individual's experiences, skills, technical knowledge and abilities, complemented by traits that enable effective performance, whereas, competence, at personal level, is defined as a cognitive structure, which is a set of competencies that comprise higher-order skills, knowledge, behaviours and attitudes that cause effective performance. In contrast, competence at organisational level, is a set of competencies that are an organisation's competitive advantage included in the organisation's strategy. In other words, when competencies are institutionalised with organisational strategies, they become competences.

Moving away from competencies and competences to **competency**, Hondeghe and Vandermuelen (2000), define competency as an approach that focuses on the human being as the main driver of reaching organisational objectives and goals. Draganidis and Mentzas (2006) explain that a competency based approach guides competency requirements of present and future human resource needs and also focuses on development plans for individuals and teams in order to eliminate competency gaps in relation to organisational strategy. The term competency is also applied when determining whether an individual is able to provide evidence that suggests a wide range of knowledge, skills and information related to a particular function (Theeb, Muhaidat, & Al-Zboon, 2014). It is also referred to as the underlying characteristic that must result in criterion-referenced performance (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). In their earlier studies, Boyatzis (1982, 2008) and McClelland (1973) defined competency as an ability or capability.

However, later on, Boyatzis (2011) provided an extended dissection of ability or capability by stating that competency is a set of related but different sets of behaviour organised along an underlying construct known as the intent. He went on to explain that at appropriate times or situations, the behaviours are an alternating manifestation of the intent. This study adopts Boyatzis' (2011) definition of competency. The next subsection discusses the relationship between skills theory and competence.

3.4.2 Relating Skills Theory to Competences

Taie (2014) argues that there still remains vagueness in the definition of skill. However, Vanpatten and Benati (2010) define skill as referring to the ability to do instead of the fundamental competence or mental picture. Therefore, this study adopts Vanpatten and Benati's (2010) definition. According to King and VanHecke (2006), skills theory provides a means for how to understand the development of individual cognitive capacities over time. Furthermore, Fischer (1980) states that skills theory provides a mutual framework that integrates the development of cognitive, social, perceptual skills that result in behavioural changes in learning and problem-solving.

Skill is therefore found to be an element of competencies from a person-leader perspective. However, from a leadership perspective, skills form part of the organisation's leadership competence base. The next subsection relates to leadership roles and competences.

3.4.3 Relating Leadership Roles and Leadership Competences

Katz and Kahn (1978) defined role as a set of interrelated actions, which recur. However, because of the interdependence in an organisation, Vandenberghe, Bentein and Panaccio (2017) aver that incumbents in distinct roles are linked to complement one another, and they develop expectations about one another's role behaviour. Hence, roles are shaped by expected behaviours that go beyond individuals (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). Alternatively, individuals must adjust their behaviours to suit the role expectations (Carpenter & Lertpratchya, 2016). Matta, Scott, Koopmann and Conlon (2015) argue that role theory has often been used to clarify and understand a variety of workplace happenings. According to Biddle (1986), role theory deals with social life and behaviour patterns of individuals and their expectations of their own behaviours and that of other persons. Hence, Graen (1976) and Graen and Scandura (1987) believed that the development of leader-member-exchange (LMX) theory was a role-making process.

According to Liden, Sparrowe and Wayne (1997), LMX theory conceives that a leader develops segregated relationships with subordinates, which either are high-quality socio-emotional relationships or low-quality transactional relationships.

The relationship between leadership roles and competences was enunciated by Bairantus and Agapitou (2016), who aver that a competence combines theoretical and practical knowledge, cognitive skills, behaviours, and values that improve performance and enable one to perform a specific role. In other words, leadership competence behaviour is influenced by roles and functions. Jovescek (2016) weighs in asserting that when abilities, values and self-image are placed in a physical and social environment in relation to role or task, the individual is either referred to as competent or incompetent. In addition, the changing environment may also bring about changes in roles of leadership, which in turn require different leadership competences (Ayeleke, North, Wallis, Liang, & Dunham, 2016). In other words, a changing environment requires a review of leadership competences and roles. Hence, a new leadership model requires new leadership competences to enable leaders to perform their roles.

However, the amount of leadership competences required is determined by the level of leadership as empirically established by Hamid, Zainuddin and Sulaiman (2016), who analysed the Chartered Global Management Accountant competence framework with reference to Malaysian companies, from a role perspective. The study found that the level of competences should differ according to the functional roles such as operational, managerial, strategic and C-suit as shown in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10: Competence Level for Different Leadership Roles

	Operational	Managerial	Strategic	C-Suit
Technical skills	64%	39%	25%	13%
People skills	14%	21%	25%	25%
Business skills	16%	24%	25%	23%
Leadership skills	6%	16%	25%	39%

Source: Adapted from Hamid, Zainuddin and Sulaiman (2016, pp. 242-243)

From Table 3.10, the operational level comprises junior and middle management who perform tasks with confidence and expert knowledge. The managerial includes middle managers who implement strategy and own specialist knowledge through training and courses and are able to supervise routine tasks. The strategic level includes senior managers involved in long-term decision making who are experienced in handling complex matters and are able to supervise others. The C-suit includes group of influential individuals who are involved in high stakes decision making, owning ability acknowledged by peers in the industry or field of ability and able to supervise others. The foregoing shows that as one goes up the organisational leadership ladder, the amount of people, business and leadership skills needed also goes up, whilst the amount of technical skills needed goes down. Figure 3.7 and Figure 3.8 depict the relationship.

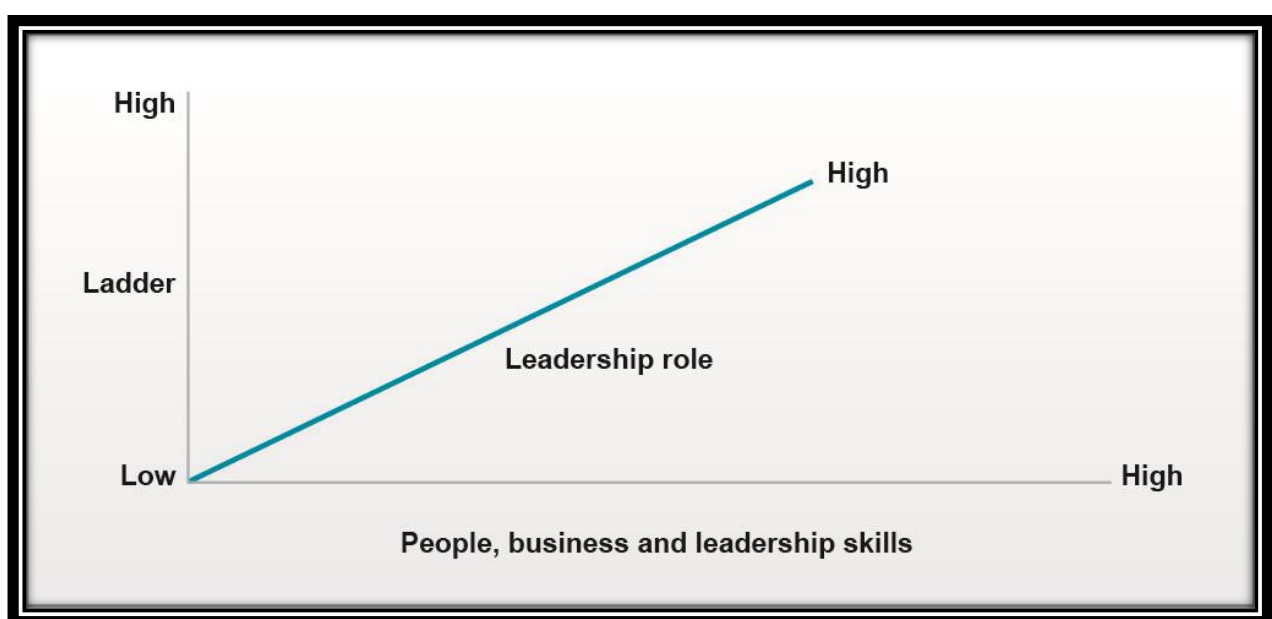


Figure 3.7: Relationship between Leadership Roles and LCF

Source: Compiled by Researcher

Figure 3.7 shows that as one climbs up the leadership ladder, the leadership roles also increase requiring higher-order competencies and competences. However, Figure 3.8 shows a different relationship when technical skills are substituted for higher-order leadership competences.

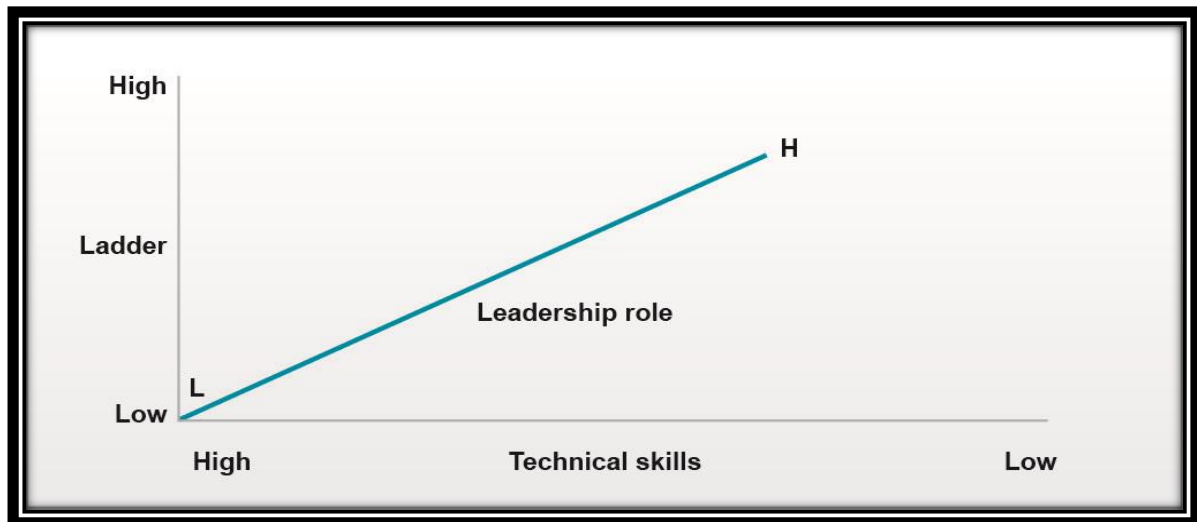


Figure 3.8: Relationship between Leadership Roles and Technical Skills

Source: Compiled by Researcher

Figure 3.8 shows that as one goes up the leadership ladder, the leadership roles increase as well, requiring less technical skills. Therefore, in this case, it is concluded that leadership role has a direct influence on the leadership competences. However, on the one side leadership competences are needed to perform a specific role. Yet, on the other side, the leadership role influences leadership competences.

The importance of this section on competence theory lies in defining the concept, and explaining that competences are the building blocks to effective leadership. Furthermore, skills form part of the organisation's leadership competence base. Lastly, a changing environment requires an update of leadership competences and roles. Having expounded on the concept of competences, there is need to harmonise leadership theory and competence theory.

3.5 Harmonizing Leadership and Competence Theories

It has been clarified in the preceding section that competencies roll-up into competences at both personal and institutional levels. Hence, at leadership level the same scenario applies. This is supported by Gehring (2007) who explains that when leadership competencies and/or characteristics are identified into a set, to perform a role, they are then referred to as leadership competences (without the i). In addition, Pagon, Banutai, and Bizjak (2008), also explain that leadership competences, among others, include knowledge; skills; values; expertise; beliefs; personal and behavioural characteristics; and motives. Furthermore, Bairantus and Agapitou (2016) argue that leadership competences are the basic building blocks that enable effective leadership. In other words, without the right competences, leadership is not effective. What is important in contextualising the concept is that the success or failure of an organisation is not separable from leadership practices (Raisiene, 2014). Hence, Bolden et al. (2003, p. 6) aver that there is need to move away from “developing leaders to developing leaderful organisations with a collective responsibility for leadership”.

The theoretical approaches of business sciences and the leadership theories discussed in this chapter, are now brought together in Table 3.11 to indicate their contribution to developing an LCF for equipping leaders to drive sustainable manufacturing.

Table 3.11: Theories Identified Contributing to Development of LCF for Sustainable Manufacturing

Theory		Orientation	Leadership Competencies/Competences
Quantum	Meta	Reconciles needs of business with demands of the social and ecological environment	Knowledge of entanglement, indeterminism and indivisibility of quanta; presencing; and learning from evolution
Systems theory		Connectedness and interdependence	Systems thinking; ecosystems awareness; concerned with the well-being of all global communities; inter-generational systemic behaviour; and linking current and future generations
Contingency/ Situational	Adaptable	Variety of competencies and ability to engender flexibility	Problem solving; decision making; rational thinking; reasoning; task focus; uncertainty coping; skill uniqueness; and interpersonal relationship
			Sense making; implicit beliefs; convictions; morality; power; sensitiveness; skilfulness; impressiveness; dedication; intelligence; dynamism; interpersonal; goal efficiency; versatility; industry; enthusiasm; conformity; good citizen;

Implicit Leadership Theory		Mental models held by followers on their leaders and vice versa	incompetence, insubordination; team player; proactive; positive attitude; obedience; expressing opinion; flexibility; dependable; communication; supportive; dependable; taking ownership; integrity; mission conscience; decisive; confidence; authentic; charismatic; diplomatic; servanthood; facilitator; passion; resilient; humour; and humbleness
Transformational		Motivating followers to achieve more	Inspirational; influential; considerate; intellectual stimulation; and pro-activeness
Managerial Leadership		Integrates situational, transactional; and transformational skills	Situational sensitivity; transactional; and transformational
Spiritual leadership		Elevated spirits for leader and followers and is inspirational and transformational	High spirits; visionary; motivate self and others; commitment; employee wellbeing; faith; altruistic love; and calling
Sustainable development leadership		Emphasises well-being of the present and future generations and is key to implementation of sustainable development agenda 2030	Multiple intelligences; recognising intricate systems; wellbeing of future generations; deal with stakeholder conflict; sustainability learning; social justice; developing human and material resources; developing environmental diversity and capacity; activist engagement with the environment; develop deep learning attitudes that spread and last; higher order thinking skills; socially responsive; reflexivity; open monitoring and evaluation; sensitive; humility; ethical; honesty; integrity; reflecting; engaging; empowering; and ecosystem awareness
Democratic/Participative	Complementary Theories	Rallying followers or teams to focus on objectives or goals	Facilitating; consulting; consensus building; encouraging; supporting; influencing; empowering; and ethical
Authoritarian/Autocratic		Giving directives to followers for achieving goals	Task knowledge; goal setting; power retention; decisiveness; and transactional skills
Authentic		Promotes positive psychological abilities and ethical climate	Ethical; self-awareness; internalised morality; relational transparency; and balanced information processing
Servant		Selflessness of the leader for the good of followers	Honesty; integrity; visionary; role modelling; listening; teaching; authenticity; humbleness; power and status sharing; and stewardship;
Ethical		Premised on social learning theory and emphasises morals	Role modelling; moral standing; interactional fairness; rewarding and disciplining; honesty; kindness; and courage
Psychological or 3P Model		Self-identity, purpose and feelings	Emotional intelligence, resilience, presence, authenticity, and servant ship
Responsible leadership		Emphasises relationships with all stakeholders and ecology based on ethics, values and norms	Stakeholder engagement; sustainability centered organisational culture; learning oriented towards sustainability; measuring and reporting sustainability results; exploration and assertion; attachment and affiliation; sense of enjoyment; justice; recognition; and care

Source: Compiled by Researcher from Section 3.2 and 3.3 of this Chapter

Table 3.11 shows that meta-theories contribute competences to the development of an LCF because they are the lens through which leadership theory is studied and influence leadership behaviour as discussed in section 3.2. Whilst leadership theories that are adaptable to the changing business provided competences necessary to drive sustainable manufacturing, their effectiveness is enhanced by complementary theories as discussed in section 3.3. Hence, the need to integrate the competences in these theories because they ought to move together. In addition, this study is persuaded to adopt this type of integration because there are similarities of competences found in the different leadership theories. The theories tend to borrow terms from one another or

feed into one another. For example, the visionary competence is found in behavioural theory. Integrity or honesty are found in behavioural, sustainable development, and responsible leadership theories. Ethical, authentic, and spiritual theories find themselves as competences feeding into other theories. In addition, ethical theory feeds into authentic, participative, and sustainable development leadership theories. Relationship theory feeds into contingency/situational, authentic and participative. Lastly, responsible leadership is implied in all leadership theories as it is the enabler of effective leadership. In short, the relationship among the leadership theories is incestuous. The leadership theories tend to differ in terms of orientation rather than in terms of competences and how the leadership qualities are acquired. What this means is that leadership theories are integrated and should not be considered in isolation. It is argued here that the different leadership theories are integrated and serve the same purpose, that is, to create effective leadership able to provide influence in different circumstances and situations. Hence, the need for multiple leadership knowledge to respond to the complex business environment. In this study, sustainable manufacturing is considered a circumstance or situation. Therefore, this study draws from the basket (Table 3.11) to identify leadership competences that would drive manufacturing. The method for choosing the competences was premised on the following criteria: All competences derived from meta-theories are included because the theories that support them are the lens with, which leadership theory is studied. In addition, most of these competences also reside in adaptive leadership theories category. Lastly, the rest of the competences were derived from the list of adaptive and complementary theories with regard to those competences that had strong presence in most leadership theories. Table 3.12 next shows the identified key leadership competences, which should be included in the draft LCF for a sustainable beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe. The theories from which these competences are derived and the category to which the theories belong are also indicated.

Table 3.12: Key Leadership Competences Identified

Competence	Source Theory	Theory Category
Socially responsive	Sustainable development leadership; and responsible leadership	Adaptable; complementary
Caring	Ecosystems; servant; relational and responsible leadership	Meta; adaptive; complementary

Reflexivity	Systems; ecosystems; sustainable development leadership; managerial leadership; and situational leadership	Meta; adaptive
Respect for all	Ecosystem leadership; participative; and sustainable development leadership	Meta; adaptive; complementary
Presencing	Quantum and Scharmer's U-theory	Meta
Knowledge of sustainable manufacturing pattern and practices	Sustainable development leadership	Adaptive
Strategic awareness	Sustainable development leadership; authoritarian; and managerial leadership	Adaptive; complementary
Integrity	Ethics; and implicit	Adaptive; complementary
Multiple intelligences	Sustainable development leadership	Adaptive
Stakeholder engagement	Sustainable development leadership; ethics; and responsible leadership	Adaptive; complementary
Systems thinking	Systems theory; and leadership theory	Meta
Inter-generational systemic behaviour	Systems theory; inter-generational systems; and sustainable development	Meta; adaptive
Ecosystem awareness	Systems theory; Scharmer's U-theory; and sustainable development	Meta; adaptive
Ethical	Ethics; authentic leadership; contingency; situational; and responsible leadership	Adaptive; complementary

Source: Compiled by Researcher from Sections 3.2 and 3.3

Table 3.12 shows that the key leadership competences are a result of integrating the meta-theories, adaptive, and complementary theories. Meta-theories are contributing to the key leadership competences because they are the base that anchor and influence leadership theory. The distinctive competences derived from these meta-theories are presencing; systems thinking; intergenerational systemic behaviour; and ecosystems awareness. But overall, meta-theories contribute to seven competences, whereas adaptable leadership theories are contributing twelve. Interestingly, complementary leadership theories are contributing to seven competences, the same number as meta-theories. This proves that, adaptive theories cannot be pursued in isolation, but require the support of complementary theories to bring about effective leadership.

3.6 Chapter Conclusions

This chapter addressed the third secondary research question 2.3: What theories of leadership competences can be identified in the literature that would equip leaders to drive sustainable manufacturing? The significance of this chapter lies in the identification of leadership competences from leadership theories and contextual theoretical approaches that are suitable for the changing business environment to drive sustainable manufacturing. In doing so, it was important to link leadership theory and competences. In this regard, it was found that leadership theories provide a lens with which to view leadership competences. Hence, the pertinence of leadership theory. The other theories that provided a contextual background for understanding leadership theory and its offshoots, but ended up contributing competences to the basket are quantum theory, U-theory, ecosystems theory, and inter-generational systems theory. A review of five schools of leadership thought assisted in providing models of leadership that respond to the changing business environment. Meta, adaptable and complementary leadership theories contributed leadership competences to a basket from which competences appropriate to sustainable manufacturing were derived.

In summary, the important issues stemming out of this chapter are highlighted in Table 3.13 below.

Table 3.13: Key Contributions from this Chapter

1	Quantum theory, U-theory; systems theory, ecosystems theory, and inter-generational systems theory provided the context for understanding leadership theory.
2	Open systems, ecosystems, and intergenerational systems theories were found to shape the leader's, skills and behaviours because they link leadership, the organisation, the supra environment, and the future generations. Hence the need for systems thinking capability.

3	The leadership theories in the various schools of leadership thought responded differently to the changing business environment. Pertinent ones were found to be either adaptable or complementary.
4	A multiple leadership approach that considers both adaptable and complementary leadership theories is necessary because the environment is driven by multiple forces of change as depicted by the PESTE model and the SDGs Agenda. Moreover, leadership theories are incestuously related and integrated. Hence, the need for a basket of leadership competences derived from a variety of theories.
5	Leadership competences were found to be off-shoots of leadership theory and competence theory and not necessarily stand-alone theories. Hence, leadership and competence theories provide the lenses with, which to view leadership competences. In reverse, leadership competences are enablers of effective leadership.
6	Existing paradigms in leadership and leadership education were found to be inadequate to drive the sustainable development agenda. Hence, a new approach to leadership and its development is required.
7	The integration of the meta, adaptive, and complementary theories resulted in the identification of key leadership competences considered suitable for driving sustainable manufacturing.

Source: Compiled by the researcher

Having identified key leadership competences considered suitable for driving sustainable manufacturing, Chapter Four reviews models of LCF from literature with the intention of developing a draft LCF for a sustainable beverage manufacturing industry.

CHAPTER 4 : DEVELOPING THE DRAFT LEADERSHIP COMPETENCE FRAMEWORK (LCF) FROM LITERATURE

4.1 Introduction

Chapter Three identified key leadership competences considered suitable for equipping leaders to drive sustainable manufacturing in a changing business environment. This chapter adopts these key leadership competences as the basis of coming up with a draft framework of leadership competences that will be the source of an empirical study. In doing so, the chapter addresses secondary research questions 2.4 and 2.5. The first part addresses secondary research question 2.4: What LCFs can be identified in the literature? Here, the concepts of models and frameworks are clarified including, their evolution and the criteria for the ideal LCF. Furthermore, leadership and related competence frameworks will be unpacked and integrated.

The last part addresses secondary research question 2.5: How can the theory on leadership competences be synthesised to develop a broad draft framework containing competences required for sustainable beverage manufacturing in Zimbabwe? In this section a synthesis of theories is done to develop a draft LCF, after which the draft LCF for a sustainable beverage manufacturing industry is presented. The chapter outline is provided by Figure 4.1.

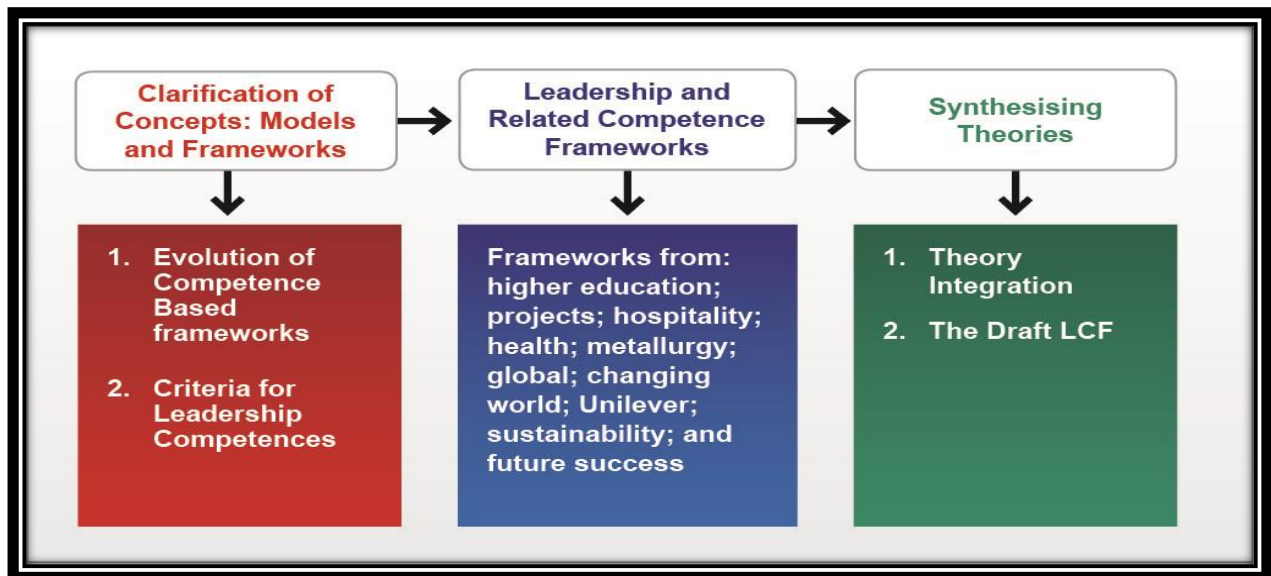


Figure 4.1: Chapter Outline

Source: Compiled by Researcher

The discussion commences with clarification of concepts of models and frameworks in general and in relation to leadership theory.

4.2 Clarification of Concepts: Models and Frameworks

In research, Kim and McLean (2015) consider a framework as an underlying structure or the basis on which to build a model that illustrates relationships among specified concepts. However, Rocco and Plakhotnik (2009) noted that the term framework and model are often used interchangeably in the literature. Dudley-Brown (1997) corroborates this by suggesting that the terms conceptual framework and conceptual model were synonymous. However, Sinclair (2007) avers that a theoretical framework provides the rationale for conducting a study and enables readers to understand the perspective followed in the study. Thus, Imenda (2014) adds that a conceptual or theoretical framework is the soul of a research study. Hence, Liehr and Smith (1999) believe that a framework in research is a structure that gives guidance.

Jacox (1974) differentiated framework from model by arguing that a framework identifies concepts of the study and a conceptual model is a device, which is more specified and heuristically scientific and clearly demarcates the relationships among the concepts. In other words, a model is a prototype. In addition, leadership models may be defined as guides that suggest specific leadership behaviours to use in a specific environment or situation (Sharma & Jain, 2013). To address the different interpretations of model and framework, this study considers a model as a prototype whereas a framework shall be considered as an underlying structure that becomes the basis of building a model. However, it is important to give some background to competence based frameworks by tracing the evolution of these frameworks.

4.2.1 Evolution of Competence Based Frameworks

According to Tripathi and Agrawal (2014) the early Romans profiled competences to select good soldiers. Nearly 3000 years ago, the Chinese empire adopted examinations for selection of civil servants for entry into government jobs (Hoge, Tondora, & Marrelli, 2005). Taylor (1911) also used the competence concept in his principles of scientific management. Modern day competence frameworks have their roots in the works of Flanagan (1954). Flanagan empirically studied how the United States Army Air Force used the critical incident model to identify behaviours and actions, which were common to its exceptional pilots in a program called American Psychology Program in 1941.

Flanagan attributes the roots of the critical incident technique to Sir Francis Galton around the 1880s. The US psychology program in 1944 studied critical requirements of combat leadership behaviours, which were helpful or inadequate in carrying out the assigned mission. In his study, Flanagan (1954, p. 327) states that: -

The critical incident technique consists of a set of procedures for collecting direct observation of human behaviour in such a way as to facilitate their potential usefulness in solving practical problems and developing broad psychological principles. To be regarded as critical, an incident must occur in a situation where the purpose or intent of the act seems clear to the observer and where its consequences are sufficiently definite to leave little doubt concerning its effects.

Flanagan was the first to apply the critical incident technique to the private sector; McClelland and Boyatzis made the technique popular and spread its application; and McClelland is credited with defining it as “competences” (Burns, Smith, & Ulrich, 2012, p. 17). Following Boyatzis’ studies since 1980, competency frameworks have become useful in aligning individual behaviours to organisational goals and development (Burns, Smith, & Ulrich, 2012).

The historical overview above shows that the evolution of competence frameworks is separated into two eras. The first era is the one prior to the early 1970s when competences were not known by their present-day name. The second era is after the mid-1970s when aptitudes, traits, ego, intelligence and abilities were defined as competences (McClelland, 1973). Boyatzis (2008, p. 5), one of the researchers who popularised the critical incident technique, had the following to say about the evolution of the concept of competence-based human resources:

The concept of competence-based human resources has gone from a new technique to a common practice since 1973 when David McClelland first proposed them as critical differentiator of performance. Today every organisation in America employing more than 300 people uses some form of competence-based human resources management.

As discussed in Chapter Three, focus on leadership competences could be attributable to the early 1960s when the behavioural approach to leadership became more

pronounced, coinciding with the publication of Douglas McGregor's book (McGregor, 1960). The next section sets out the criteria for an ideal leadership competence structure adopted in this study.

4.2.2 Important criteria for leadership competence

Whilst Chapter Two emphasised that top leadership need to understand and possess competences for scanning the environment, Chapter Three revealed that leadership is not preserved for those who are in management and leadership positions. In other words, people who are not in management and leadership positions can be leaders. Thus, this is the first criterion for an ideal leadership competence structure, that is, one that caters for all regardless of discipline, role or function. This is to say, leadership has to be provided by anyone depending on the situation. Hence, Gehring (2007) argues that it is possible to have a competent leader possessing the necessary skills but working in an immature organisation, where success is elusive. In this regard, organisations must develop LCFs that align individual competencies to organisational goals. Van Beek and Grachev (2010) corroborate this assertion by arguing that there is a strong link between strategy and LCFs, to the extent that an LCF is considered a competitive strategy, which aids the organisation in achieving its strategic goals. This is the second criterion of the ideal LCF in this study; it must be strategic in nature. An empirical study by Pagon, Banutai, and Bizjak (2008) on leadership competences in the public and private sector found that an LCF is used as a change strategy.

Another empirical study by Mollo, Stanz and Groenewald (2005) found that the role of leadership competences (LCs) and LCFs is to align performance to organisational goals/strategic objectives and creating conditions for the achievement of the goals/objectives. Furthermore, an empirical study by Muratbekova-Touron (2009) concluded that national culture and organisational culture for a multinational company is moderated by an LCF. In the same study, it was concluded that LCFs play an integrating role when a multinational company acquires other companies; thus, intimating the roles of the combined leadership. From the foregoing contributions from various authors (Gehring, 2007, p. 47; Mollo, Stanz, & Groenewald, 2005, p. 41; Muratbekova-Touron, 2009, p. 606; Pagon, Banutai, & Bizjak, 2008, p. 1; Van Beek & Grachev, 2010, p. 317), seven outcomes or benefits of using LCFs in an organisation to make the LCF strategic in nature are summarised as follows:

- Aligns individual competencies to organisational goals
- Aligns performance to organisational goals
- Creates distinctive advantage for achieving organisational goals
- Strategic tool for change
- Creates conditions for achieving organisational goals and strategic objectives
- Moderates national and organisational cultures
- Plays an integrating role in company acquisitions

These strategic outcomes are corroborated by Bolden, Gosling, Marturano, and Dennison (2003) who aver that leadership competence frameworks come in different forms in response to different strategies and goals. In other words, leadership competences are varied and depend on the situational factors or the role of leadership. In this regard, Filipova (2015) clarifies that leadership competences in an organisational structure context are not attributable to the person-leader, but to the functional roles. This assertion corroborates earlier discussions in Chapter Three, where it was established that competencies refer to abilities of the person leader and competences refer to distinctive abilities of leadership in a role.

In addition, YSC (2012) argues that organisations must adopt leadership competence frameworks to enunciate what is expected of leaders to drive business to success. They further argue that an effective leadership competence framework is one which is forward looking and aspirational, and describes the values, behaviours and capabilities necessary to create a distinctive advantage. As stated by Golini, Longini, and Cogliano (2013), an organisation's distinctive advantage, also referred to as organisational competence, is more effective when it incorporates leadership competences. Furthermore, it is argued that the tailored approach to competence frameworks results in the development of a competence model appropriate to the organisation (Muratbekova-Touron, 2009) or industry. The next section discusses LCFs and related competence frameworks.

4.3 Leadership and Related Competence Frameworks

The purpose of this section is to identify LCFs that can be referenced in the development of the draft LCF from literature. In Chapter Two, it was established that managers can also be leaders because the conceptualisation of management includes leadership (Mahmood, et al., 2012). In this regard, the core functions of management are planning,

organising, leading, and controlling (Kaehler & Grundei, 2019). Therefore, leading is listed as a core function of management. Hence, these can be regarded as leaders in management positions. Then there are also leaders without management positions because a leader may not have formal authority (Murray, 2011; Mahmood, et al., 2012). Hence, Flanagan and Thompson (1993) refer to this fusion of management and leadership as the model of managerial leadership. Therefore, because of these intertwined relationships at corporate level, this section reviews both management and leadership competence frameworks.

A review of literature could not find many academic writings on LCFs. Some of the literature found only related to leadership competences and not necessarily organised as frameworks. The competence models/frameworks that could be found, cover managerial and/or leadership competences. One is specifically related to the manufacturing industry and two refer more specifically to sustainability. The following leadership and related competence frameworks will be discussed in this section: management competences for heads of higher education; project leadership competences; hospitality industry; healthcare sector; management of metallurgical company; global leadership framework; leadership framework for changing world; LCF for Unilever; leadership competence framework for sustainability; and leadership competence framework for future success.

4.3.1 Management Competences for Heads of Higher Education

A study conducted by Potgieter, Basson, and Coetzee (2011) established a framework of management competences for the development of heads of higher education. The survey found the following to be higher-order dimensions of competences ranked in order of most to least important: leadership; financial management; project management; change management; problem-solving and decision-making; performance management; time management; strategic management; customer management; communications; training and development; industrial relations; administration; diversity management; risk management; relations management; awareness management; and recruitment and selection as shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Leadership Competence Framework for Heads of Higher Education

Dimension	Competencies within Dimension
Leadership	Leadership of overall team and individual team members; Motivation of overall team and individual team members; One-to-one counselling of subordinates and team members and helping others with their challenges; Delegation of tasks and to team or team members; Emotional intelligence (self-development, self-control, compassion and humanity, seeking responsibility and personal growth)
Financial management	Financial and commercial understanding (especially budgeting, cost control, and financial reporting)
Project management	Project management (in terms of planning, time, scope, and quality management)
Change management	Managing change and renewal; Organising and structuring departments for maximum productivity
Problem solving and decision-making	Creative problem solving and decision making
Performance management	Performance management (planning, conducting, and follow-up, for team and self); Rewarding of performance and team members
Time management	Day-to-day planning (prioritising and organising tasks and activities; Time management
Strategic management	Strategic planning and formulation; Strategic implementation; Environmental scanning and analysis
Customer management	Customer care and customer service management: external; Customer care and customer service management: internal
Communications Management	Communication skills (questioning and active skills, building trust, empathy, and mutual understanding); Monitoring and dissemination of information; Effective use of IT (especially communication, planning and reporting systems); Planning and running meetings and effective follow-up; Business writing (letters, reports, plans, project plans); Creating and giving effective presentations to groups
Training and development	Training and developing others (coaching and mentoring); Assessing training needs of team and individual team members
Industrial relations	Handling grievances and disputes; Dealing with issues of discipline; Negotiation and conflict resolution
Administration	Administration, reporting performance and financials, monitoring, maintaining and developing reporting systems
Diversity management	Managing diversity and cross-cultural issues in team and department
Risk management	Risk identification and management
Relations management	Managing interdepartmental relationship with peers from internal departments; Managing external relationships with key external stakeholders and suppliers
Awareness management	Quality awareness and management, according to quality standards and procedures; Employment and HR policy awareness and management, according to policies (equity, disability, harassment, etc); Occupational health and safety awareness and management, according to policies
Recruitment and selection	Attracting talent (recruitment, interviewing and selection of new staff members); Effective induction and orientation of new staff members

Source: Adopted from Potgieter, Basson, and Coetzee (2011, p. 95)

This framework of competences in Table 4.1 sounds too broad and has the hallmarks of just a list of tasks to be performed by the manager as opposed to being leadership competences. Furthermore, the competence framework was targeted only at heads in higher education. It does not cover the rest of staff members who do not hold leadership positions.

Whilst the educational sector competences tended to be broad, specialised leadership such as that of project leadership were compacted (Pretorious, 2014).

4.3.2 Competencies Critical for Effective Project Leadership

An empirical study by Mazibuko, Tait, and Jowah (2015) concluded that competencies critical for effective project leadership are as follows: communication; leadership style; interpersonal relationship; emotional intelligence; and stakeholder interaction as shown in Figure 4.2 next.

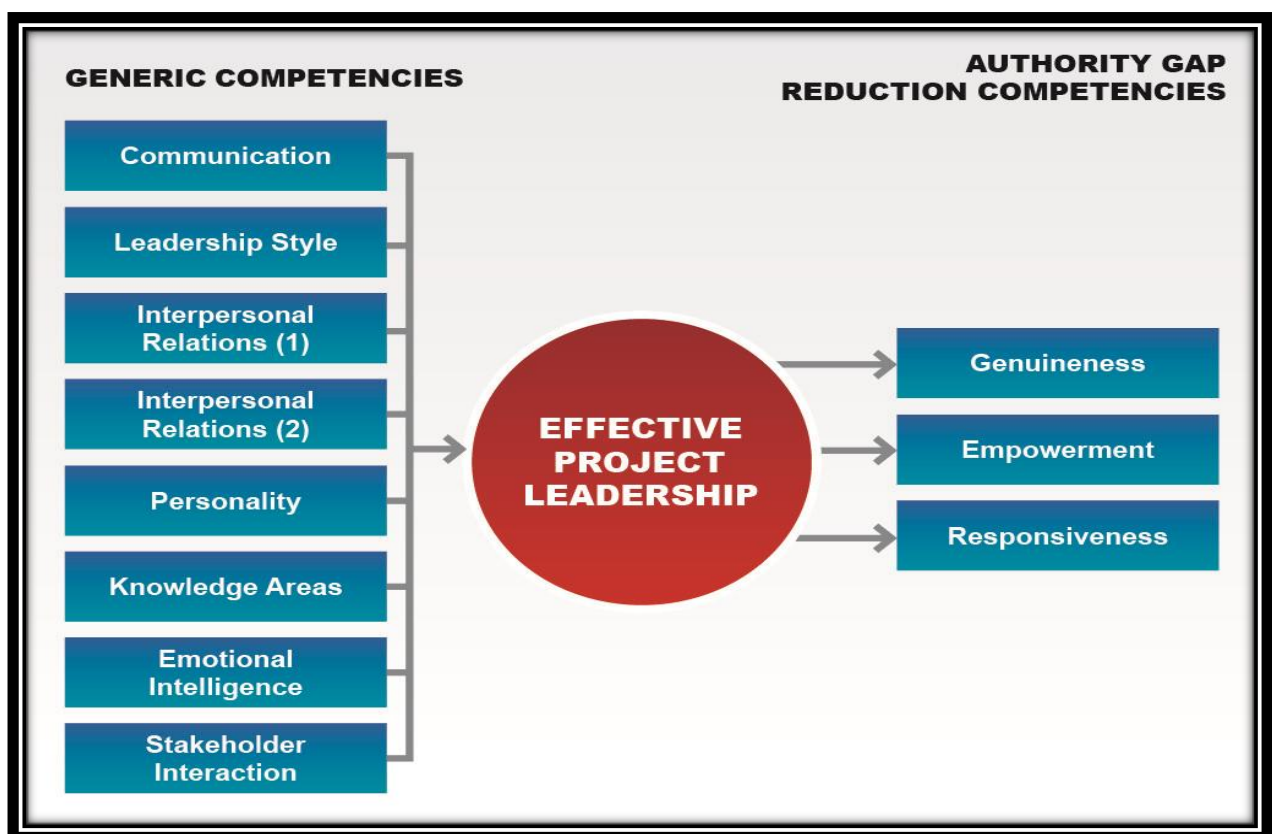


Figure 4.2: Competencies for Effective Project Leadership

Source: Adopted from Mazibuko, Tait, and Jowah (2015, p. 332)

In Figure 4.2 the generic competencies are the leadership competences, which result in effective project leadership. In addition, effective project leadership produces outputs

that enable the effective project leader to assume more authority to manage the project. The resultant competences for assuming more authority are genuineness, empowerment and responsiveness. Because projects tend to be managed by task force teams, whose members come from different disciplines, stakeholder interaction and interpersonal relations skills must be on top of the list of important competencies, which should result in an empowered project team. However, the competences for effective project management cannot be regarded as a framework. Therefore, they do not fully meet the evaluation criteria. However, the hospitality industry has an LCF worth reviewing.

4.3.3 LCF for the Hospitality Industry by Weerakit and Beeton (2018)

In the hospitality industry, Weerakit and Beeton (2018) proposed a leadership competence framework, which they believed could be the basis for developing a globally competitive Thai hospitality industry. The LCF is applicable to all levels of the Thai management hierarchy as depicted by Figure 4.3.

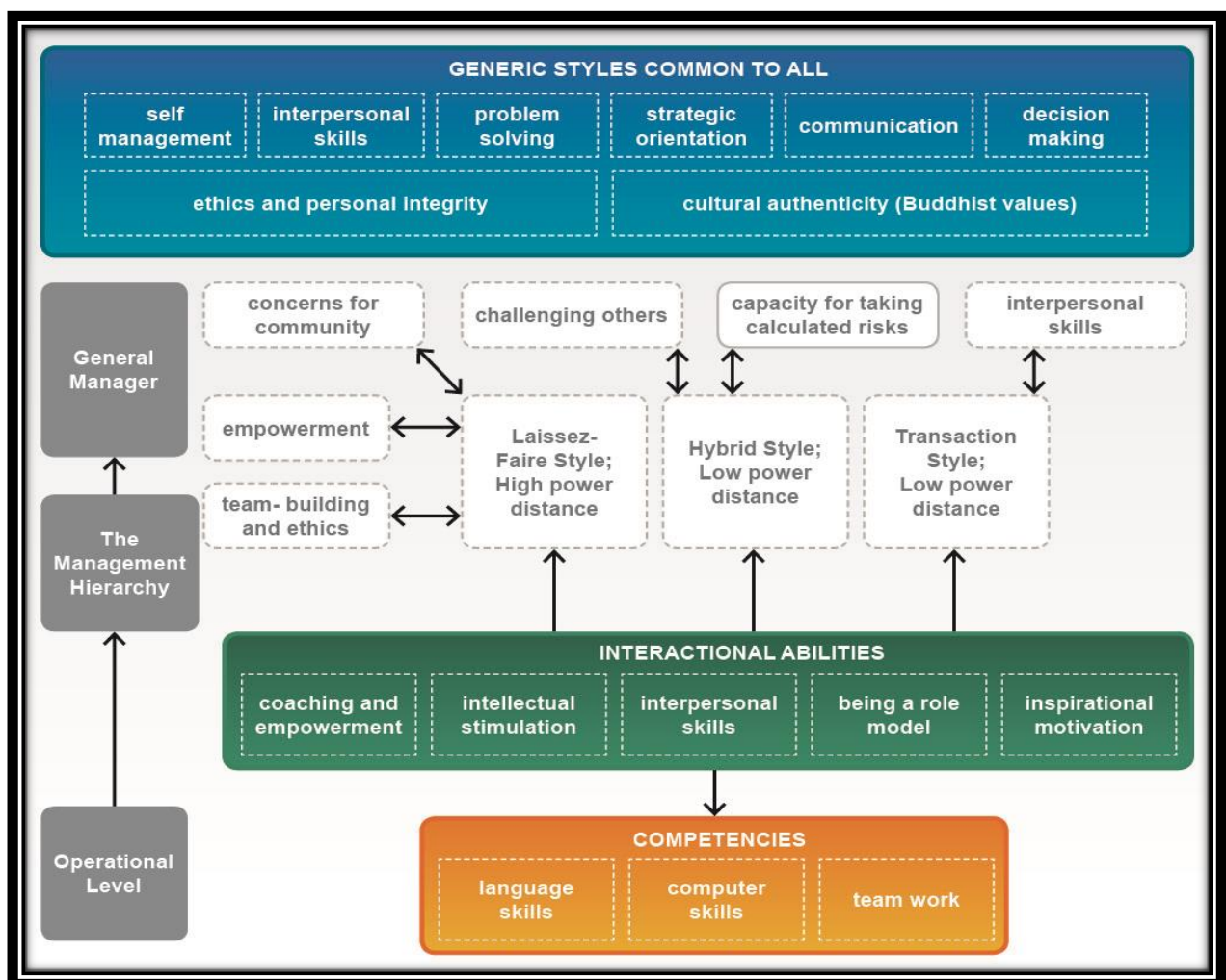


Figure 4.3: Leadership Competence Framework for the Thai Hospitality Industry

Source: Adopted from Weerakit and Beeton (2018, p. 331)

Figure 4.3 shows that the LCF was made up of three components, which are generic competences common to everyone; competences specific to general managers; and competences specific to operational level managers. In the framework, Weerakit and Beeton (2018) proffer the following as leadership competences required for all managers in leadership positions: self-management; interpersonal skills; problem solving; strategic orientation; communication; decision making; ethics and integrity; and cultural authenticity. In addition to the aforementioned competences, operational managers should possess the following competences: language skills; computer skills; and teamwork. Lastly, the additional competences for general managers were as follows: concern for community; challenging others; taking calculated risks; intellectual stimulation; role model; and inspirational motivation. This LCF met the evaluation criteria set in this study because it has both core and strategic orientations. An interesting aspect of the LCF is that laissez-faire leadership style is considered important yet, it has received quite some criticism in the literature (Bass & Avolio, 1997; Blake & Mouton, 1985; Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007; Northouse, 2010; Tosunoglu & Ekmekci, 2016). Hence, the importance of situational leadership. Leaders should adopt a style contingent to the situation. Another LCF worth reviewing is from the health sector.

4.3.4 LCF for Staff in Health Care Sector

In the British health sector, NHS (2011) developed an LCF for staff employed in the health and care sector regardless of discipline, function or role. The model framework is premised on the understanding that leadership should come from anyone and not necessarily from people holding leadership positions. The model has seven desired leadership competences as shown in Figure 4.4.



Figure 4.4: Leadership Competence Framework for National Health Services

Source: Adopted from NHS (2011, p. 6)

Figure 4.4 shows that, the following are core leadership competence, meaning they are required of everyone employed in NHS: demonstration of personal qualities; ability to work with others; manage services; improve services; and set direction. The outliers namely: create vision; and deliver strategy are strategic competences reserved for staff in senior leadership positional roles. This LCF has the ingredients of inclusivity. It covers everyone and is not limited to those in leadership positions. The LCF has both a core and strategic orientations. The next LCF was empirically studied among metallurgical companies.

4.3.5 LCF for Management of Metallurgical Company

In the mining sector, an empirical study by Vukovic, Ikonc, and Dobovick (2011) developed an LCF for management of metallurgical companies. The study used the words factor and traits in place of competence and competencies as shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Leadership Competence Framework for a Metallurgical Company

Target Factor	Leadership Trait	Metrics	Features	Training
Drive	Competitive, profit driven; Energy; Demands, shares, recognises success; Optimism via customer-focussed vision	360 degrees assessment	Self motivation and team motivation	Motivation and leadership training
Develop	Coaching and freedom to act; Freedom of information; Builds best teams; Treats others with dignity/fairness	360 degrees assessment, output metrics for team members	Tasks and interpersonal relationships orientation	Team leadership training
Decide	Challenges status quo; Keeps things simple; Quick, decisive; Makes tough calls	Percentage of goals attained	Strategic thinking and thinking in parameters	Decision making training
Deliver	Re-invents competitive advantage; Deliver – a way of life; Acts with integrity; Holds self and other accountable	Percentage of goals attained	Change, passion and practice	Leadership for change training

Source: Adopted from Vukovic at al. (2011, p. 169)

The LCF in Table 4.2 was designed for use by metallurgical companies as a structured tool for competence management. It had a training component in the last column to fill the competence gaps identified. Although the LCF was developed for leaders in management positions, it could also be applied to leaders who did not hold management positions. The target factors, namely: drive, develop, decide and deliver are just core-competences. Hence, the LCF should be regarded as having a core orientation only. A generic LCF at global level is discussed next.

4.3.6 Global Integrated Leadership Framework

Other generic leadership competence frameworks are of a global nature, such as one by Kim and McLean (2015). They developed a theory-based global integrated leadership framework for executive and managerial levels that should be the bedrock for building individual companies' global leadership competence models. The integrative framework proposed traits, character and ability in four competences, namely:

intercultural, interpersonal, global business, and global organisational competences. Table 4.3 shows the integrative LCF.

Table 4.3: Integrative Global Leadership Competence Framework

Global Leadership Competency		Dimensions			
		Intercultural	Interpersonal	Global Business	Global Organisation
Levels	Core Traits	Personality traits including motivation and the Big Five temperaments			
	Personal Character	Self-concepts, attitudes, values, and global perspectives/mind-sets			
	Ability	Intercultural knowledge and skills	Interpersonal knowledge and skills	Global Business knowledge and skills	Global Organisation knowledge and skills

Source: Adopted from Kim and McLean (2015, p. 250)

Table 4.3 clarifies the distinction between person-leader competences and organisational competences. The person-leader competences are the core traits, personal character, and ability as denoted by the levels, whereas organisational competences are intercultural, interpersonal, global business, and global organisation as represented by dimensions. The figure also shows that the person-leader abilities are the same as the organisational leadership competences. This corroborates earlier assertions by Van Beek and Grachev (2010) that a strategic LCF is a competitive tool for achieving organisational goals.

To explain the competences in Table 4.3, Dickson, Castaño, Magomaeva and Hartog (2012) found that **culturally contingent** leadership was necessary for understanding the different perspectives resulting from cultural differences, for example, multi-ethical standards, languages, and perspectives on leadership. The study found that **interpersonal** competence addresses leadership's orientation and alignment towards people (Bird, Mendenhall, Stevens, & Oddou, 2010), more so, when viewed from the

perspective of building relations and managing conflicts across global distances (Hazucha, Sloan, & Storfer, 2012) and understanding individual differences including global leaders (Sloan, Hazucha, & Van-Katwyk, 2003). The study also found that **global business** competence was necessary because global leaders were expected to create and implement, at all levels of the organisation, a coherent and aligned policy or strategy. Lastly, the study found out that global leaders must have the ability to marshal the **global organisation** competence beyond national boundaries (Morrison, 2000), thus, enabling global leaders to align the organisation's resources, structures, processes, and systems to win global opportunities. Although the LCF in **Error! Reference source not found.** was designed for leaders in executive and management positions, the competences could qualify as core-competences desirable for leadership regardless of position in the global business. Hence, the LCF should be regarded as having a core orientation only. The next LCF is for a changing world.

4.3.7 Leadership Framework for a Changing World

Another global leadership framework was studied and created by Dunn, Lafferty and Alford (2012), targeted at creating a new leadership framework for a changing world. The framework identified four broad competences for global leadership. These are task orientation, relationship orientation, awareness, and purposefulness as shown in Figure 4.5.



Figure 4.5: Global Leadership Competence Framework for a Changing World

Source: Adopted from Dunn, Lafferty and Alford (2012, p. 7)

In Figure 4.5, **task** orientation viewed organisational success from a transactional leadership perspective, focussing on the ability to inspire followers and one's self towards task accomplishment as the basic tenet. The study revealed that, it was crucial for global leaders to obtain and sustain **relationships** by connecting with many internal and external stakeholders to achieve organisational transformation (Black & Porter, 2000). Furthermore, the study noted that **awareness** tended to rely on conscious leadership (Chatterjee, 1998), requiring global leaders to experience moments of self-reflection, self-awakening and self-assessment. Finally, the study established that **purposefulness** connects human consciousness and organisational practices to achieve competitive advantage (Gozdz, 2000), thus, giving meaning to existence and provides guidance to leaders to achieve self-transcendence by shedding-off egoistical consciousness. The foregoing corroborates Filipova's (2015, p. 1) argument that leadership is what the leader and the team do together and not what the leader does.

However, at the trait level, Dunn, Lafferty and Alford (2012) proved six leadership competencies derived from Gardner's (1983) multiple intelligences theory. The six intelligences were distributed to each of the four global competences as follows: The task orientation was associated with **intellectual intelligence**. The relationship orientation was associated with both **cultural and emotional intelligences**. Awareness was paired with **metacognitive intelligence**. Lastly, purpose was associated with both **moral and existential intelligences**. Table 4.4 summaries the global leadership competence framework.

Table 4.4: A Global Leadership Competence Framework

Competence	Individual Competencies
Task orientation	Intellect
	Inspirational
	Task control and monitoring
	Contingency rewarding
	Managing by exception
Relationship orientation	Cultural intelligence
	Emotional intelligence
	Connecting with stakeholders
	Building trust
	Integrity
	Inspirational and considerate
	Innovativeness
Awareness	Metacognitive intelligence
	Self-reflection
	Self-awakening
	Self-assessment
	Reframing to see the big picture
Purposefulness	Moral intelligence
	Existential intelligence
	Ability to achieve self-transcendence
	Transpersonal leadership
	Reframe personal goals to be coterminous with organisational and societal goals

Source: Adapted from Dunn, Lafferty and Alford (2012, pp. 7-11)

The study concluded that purposefulness is where a leader transcends personal egos to attain the greatest performance (Dunn et al., 2012). They argued that transpersonal leaders possessing high existential intelligence and high moral intelligence are more likely to inspire sustained excellence among all stakeholders. This LCF indicates that the competences transcend an entire organisation and are not specific to leaders in management positions only, but can qualify as core-competences for anyone taking a

lead in the organisation at any point in time. Hence, it can be regarded as having a core and strategic orientation.

An LCF specifically designed for individual companies in the manufacturing sector, is for Unilever Corporation designed by Van Beek and Grachev (2010).

4.3.8 Unilever's Leadership Growth Profile

The researchers proposed a theoretical framework anchored on the value of a leadership competency model and then explored the framework in Unilever Corporation. The result was a framework that emphasised core leadership competences for successful corporate growth in multicultural environments as shown in Figure 4.6 next.

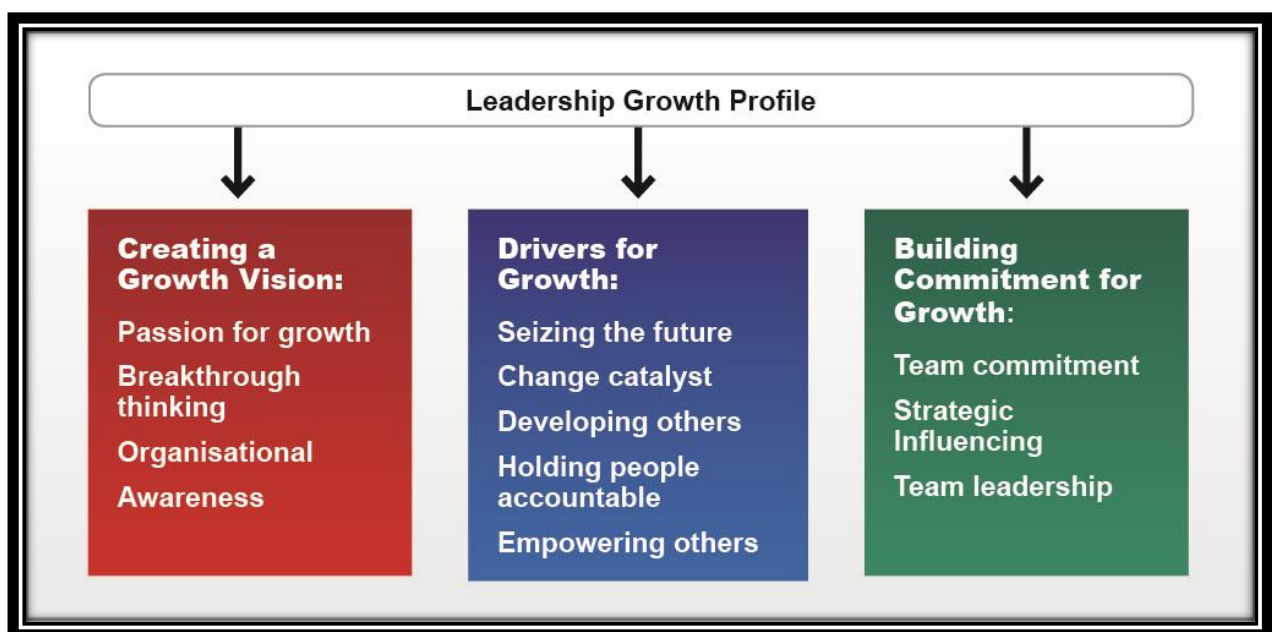


Figure 4.6: Leadership Competence Framework for Unilever Corporation

Source: Adopted from Van Beek and Grachev (2010, p. 321)

An interesting competence in Figure 4.6 is that of seizing the future, which resonates with U-theory discussed in Chapter Three. Using this Unilever study, Van Beek and Grachev (2010) exemplify understanding the link between strategy and desired leadership competences that lead to strategic success, thus, cementing the relationship between competences and winning strategies. They also confirmed the contingent aspect of leadership competences, where a universal approach is not the best when it comes to country specific situations. Hence the emphasis on the need for leadership competences that are adaptable to the changing business environment and local

condition. Bellandi, Caloffi and De-Propriis (2010) corroborate this view by arguing that local production systems should show different forms of LCF in support of systemic functioning or in reaction to radical and structural changes. Although the LCF for Unilever was designed with the core competence approach in the minds of the researchers, the LCF can be regarded as core and strategic, thus meeting the evaluation criteria. Other LCFs are more academic in nature and focus on sustainability.

4.3.9 Leadership Competence Framework for Sustainability

Faruk and Hoffmann (2012) developed an LCF necessary in the roles of senior managers, executive teams, and boards of directors to lead organisations into sustainability. The LCF was considered important to close the sustainability leadership gap enabling one to lead in an economically connected, ecologically interdependent, and socially accountable world. The LCF has a continuum orientation, where on one side competences speak to external focus, long-term perspective and managing relationships. On the other end, competences speak to internal focus, a short-term perspective and operational considerations as shown in Figure 4.7 next.

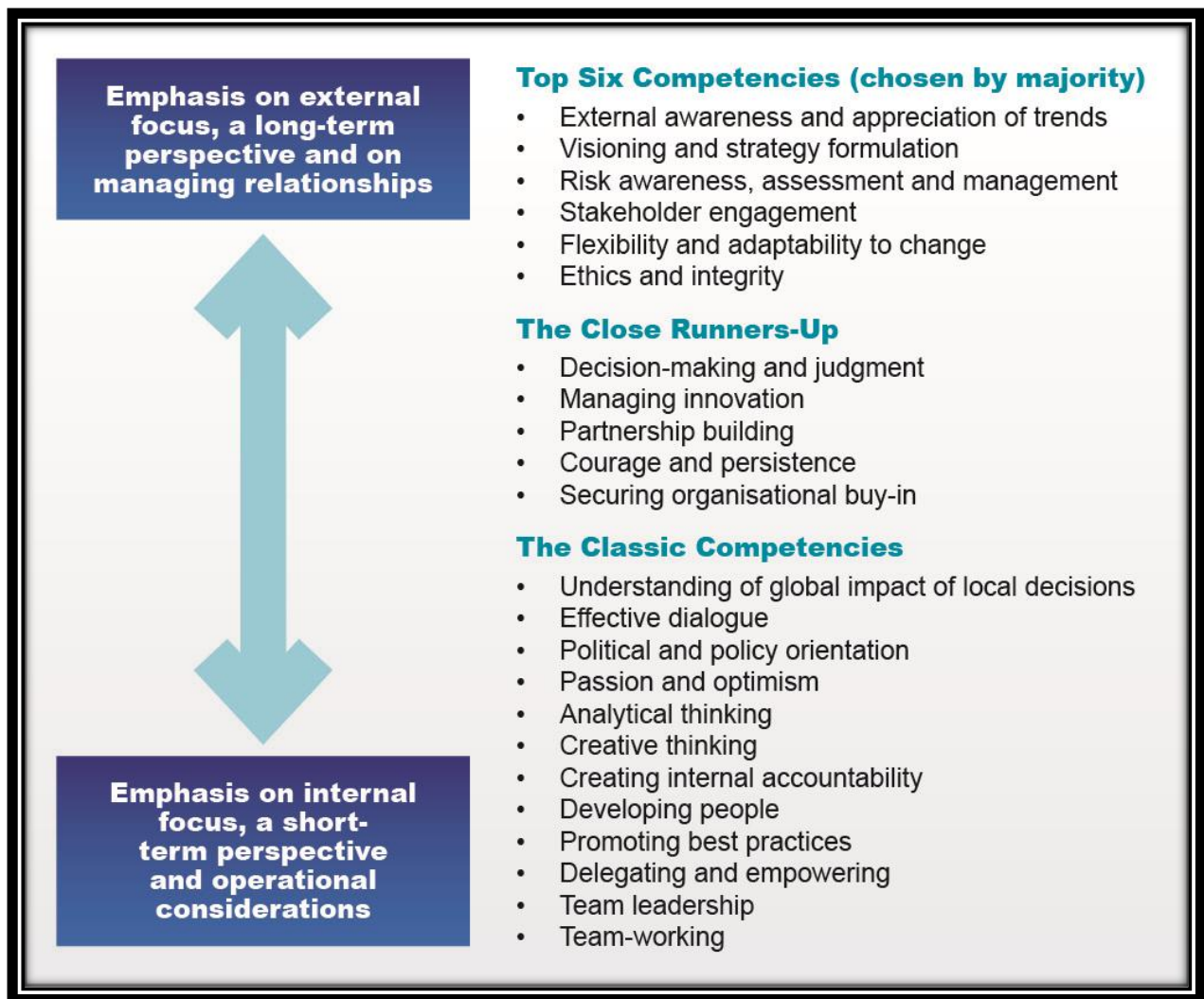


Figure 4.7: Leadership Competence Framework for Sustainability

Source: Adopted from Faruk and Hoffmann (2012, p. 20)

Although Figure 4.7 referred to competencies, they suited the definition of competences as defined in this study. Figure 4.7 shows that the top of the range leadership competences were external awareness and appreciation of trends; visioning and strategy formulation; risk awareness, assessment, and management; stakeholder engagement; flexibility and adaptability to change; and ethics and integrity. Whilst, the medium range comprised the following competences: decision making and judgement; managing innovation; partnership building; courage and persistence; and securing organisational buy-in. Last, the lower-end comprised of understanding global impact of local decisions; effective dialogue; political and policy orientation; passion and optimism; analytical thinking; creative thinking; creating internal accountability; developing people; promoting best practices; delegating and empowering; team leadership; and team

working. This detailed LCF is both strategic and core. Another LCF targeted at sustainability is for future success.

4.3.10 Leadership Competence Framework for Future Success

This LCF for a sustainability driven changing business environment was proposed by Strandberg (2015), who argued that the current changing business environment favours an update of the leadership competence framework. This led him to develop an LCF comprising the following five sustainability leadership competences: systems thinking; external collaboration; social innovation; sustainability literacy; and active values as shown in Figure 4.8.

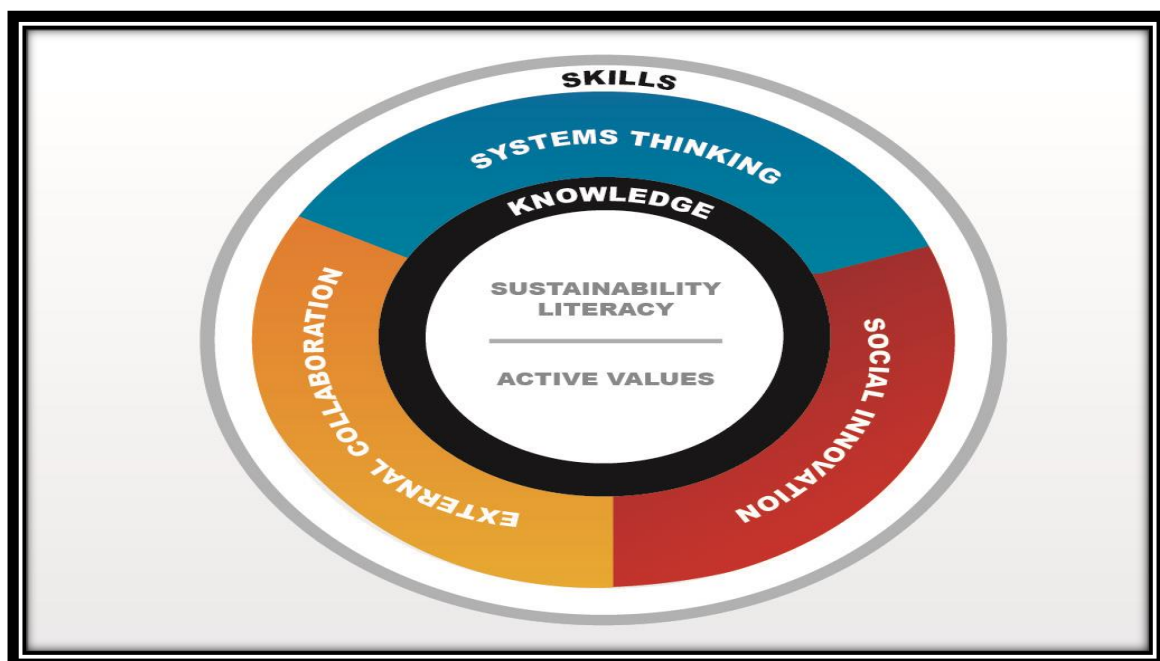


Figure 4.8: Leadership Competence Framework for Future Success

Source: Adopted from Strandberg (2015, p. 16)

According to Strandberg (2015), Figure 4.8 indicates that on the one hand there are two knowledge-based leadership competences namely, sustainability literacy and active values. On the other hand, there are three skills-induced leadership competences namely, systems thinking; external collaboration; and social innovation. This concise LCF is both strategic and core.

This section on leadership and related competence frameworks identified LCF models that satisfied the criteria set for a suitable framework. To recap, the two-tier criteria are that the LCF should have a strategic orientation and must cater for all leaders regardless

of discipline, role or function. These LCFs comprise of competences that make them adaptable to a changing business environment, as shown in Table 4.5 next.

Table 4.5: Basket of LCFs Adaptable to a Changing Business Environment

Derived From	LCF Characteristics	Competences/Competencies
Hospitality industry	Hotel management	Self-management; interpersonal skills; problem solving; strategic orientation; communication; decision making; ethics and integrity; cultural authenticity; language skills; computer skills; teamwork; concern for community; challenging others; taking calculated risks; intellectual stimulation; role model; and inspirational motivation.
Health Sector	Healthcare management	Values driven; relationships; management skills; leading; create vision; and strategic.
Global industry	Changing world	Cultural contingency, global business knowledge; task oriented; relationships; awareness; and purposefulness.
Manufacturing (Unilever)	Competences for growth	Passion for growth; breakthrough thinking; organisational awareness; seizing the future; change catalyst; developing others; holding people accountable; empowering others; team commitment; strategic influencing; and team leadership.
Theory	Competences for organisational sustainability	Supra environmental awareness; visioning and strategy formulation; risk management; stakeholder engagement; flexibility and adaptability; ethics and integrity.
Theory	Competences for a changing business environment	Systems thinking; external collaboration; social innovation; sustainability literacy; and active values.

Source: Compiled by researcher

Table 4.5 is significant in that it contains leadership competences that corroborate competences derived from theories as per Table 3.11 in Chapter Three. Hence, there is no need for a revised basket of leadership competences because Table 3.11 stands. However, this section provides orientation for the envisioned draft LCF for a sustainable beverage manufacturing industry based on the evaluation criteria used in this section. In other words, the envisioned LCF structure should incorporate strategic level leadership competences, core leadership competences and core values that are adaptable to the changing business environment to drive sustainable beverage manufacturing. This proposed three-pillar structure should assist in answering the next research question 2.5: How can the theory on leadership competences be synthesised to develop a broad draft framework containing competences required for sustainable beverage manufacturing in Zimbabwe? In this regard, the next section integrates theories pertinent to this study and the three-pillar structure to develop the draft LCF for a sustainable beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe.

4.4 Synthesising Theories to Develop the Draft LCF

This section integrates all the literature chapters. It brings together the changing business environment, leadership theory and competence theory and illustrates how the draft LCF for a sustainable beverage manufacturing industry has been developed. The complexity surrounding sustainable development discussed in Chapter Two and the entanglement and indivisibility aspects of quantum theory and system approaches discussed in Chapter Three, needed one to reflect deeply on the existing approaches to leadership and competences. These global challenges need deep change as called for by Goleman (1998) who argued that such change needs retooling of ingrained habits of thinking, behaviour and feeling. This is corroborated by Wanasika (2007) who said that leaders cannot navigate the changing business environment using traditional leadership characteristics. Thus, as discussed in Chapter Three, reflecting deeply is a model advocated in quantum and U theories by Scharmer (2007) to assist in responding to the changing business environment. It was established in Chapter Three that U-theory (presencing) connects quantum theory, ecosystems theory, intergenerational systems, and sustainable development. At the same time, presencing has been identified as a key leadership competence. Hence, U-theory becomes central to the development of the proposed LCF. The discussion starts with integration of theory, followed by a presentation of the draft leadership competence framework.

4.4.1 Theory Integration

The draft leadership competence framework is built from a number of conjectures arising from Chapters Two and Three, namely:

- Current trends in the external environment are advocating sustainable development as the lens with which to view PESTE forces.
- The sextuple bottom line (6Ps) framework should be developed for evaluating corporate sustainability in place of the triple bottom line (3Ps) framework.
- Quantum theory provides insights for reconciling the needs of business with the demands of the social and ecological environments.
- A systems approach enables leaders to align internal systems with the external environment and to understand the principle of connectedness.
- The ecosystems approach advocates for the well-being of all global communities and the planetary eco-systems, whilst the inter-generational systems approach is both a systems perspective and a sustainable development leadership perspective that links the current and future generation.
- U-theory connects quantum theory, system theories and sustainable development. A major output from U-theory is that presencing is a key leadership competence.
- The behavioural leadership approach is better suited than the trait approach in developing leadership competences for a sustainable manufacturing industry.
- The contingency/situational school of leadership thought provides theories that have universal adaptive attributes, which enable them to respond to both the internal and external changing business environments. This enhances the multiple leadership style approach, thus, assisting in deriving competences from both adaptable and complementary leadership theories in developing the competence framework.
- Multiple intelligences are the background theory to sustainability leadership development and they enhance person-leader capabilities, whereas multiple leadership styles are necessary for responding to an SDGs driven environment.
- The integration of leadership competence frameworks identified from literature in this chapter, resulted in a structure that became the base supporting the draft LCF.

Therefore, Figure 4.9 shows the integration of the theories and their relationship that resulted in a leadership competence framework for a sustainable beverage manufacturing industry.

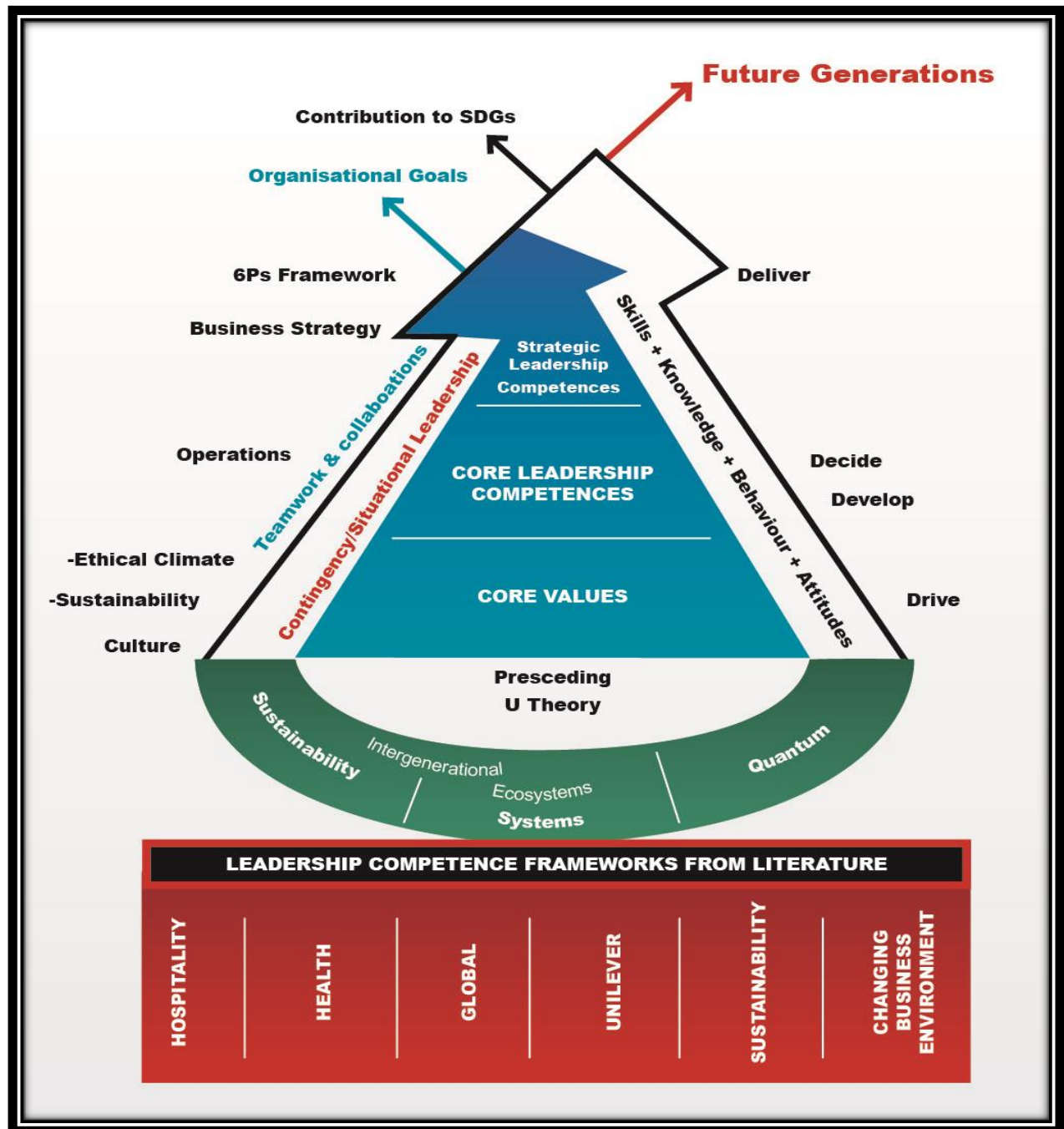


Figure 4.9: Integrating Theories to Develop Draft LCF

Source: Compiled by Researcher from Literature Review

Figure 4.9 shows the LCFs from hospitality; health; global; Unilever; sustainability; and the changing business environment as the base on which the framework is built. The

proposed three-pillar LCF structure is in the middle and comprises core values, core competences and strategic competences. While U theory acts as the interconnector between the LCF structure and the context driven by sustainability, systems and quantum theories. A culture based on sustainability values sets the ethical climate, which drives the organisation. The skills, knowledge, behaviours, and attitudes are associated with contingency/situational leadership as the most adaptable in a changing business environment both internally and externally. Success resides in teamwork and collaborations through making decisions that deliver at both operational and strategic levels. The metrics for measuring contribution to the organisational goals, SDGs and future generation are provided by the sextuple bottom line (6Ps framework). The 6Ps framework is the envisioned successor to the triple bottom line (3Ps framework). This should address the research problem statement where it was indicated that existing LCFs in the manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe were not adequate to drive companies to contribute to the achievement of SDGs.

The use of multiple theories shown in Figure 4.9, corroborates Weick's (1989) argument that better theory is the product of a process typified by a greater number of diverse conjectures than a process typified by a smaller number of homogeneous conjectures. DiMaggio (1995) reinforces the argument that focused and enlightening theories link domains ordinarily considered separate, which should emphasise processes and associations surprising to many readers. With the theory having been integrated, the draft leadership competence framework is discussed next.

4.4.2 The Draft Leadership Competence Framework

In coming up with the draft leadership competence framework, the proposed LCF structure, in the middle of Figure 4.9 and the key leadership competences identified in Table 3.12 in Chapter Three are integrated. The process of integration involved picking value-based competences and slotting them under core values. Secondly, picking up competences required of every leader regardless of position, including leaders without leadership position and slotting them under core competences. The rest of the competences were those required at strategic level of leadership. These are slotted under strategic leadership competences. The result of the exercise is represented by Table 4.6 and Table 4.7 next. Table 4.6 explains the values pillar and the sources from which the values are derived.

Table 4.6: Draft Leadership Values Framework for a Sustainable Manufacturing Industry

	Value	Indicators/Elements/Leader Competencies (skills, knowledge, behaviours and attitudes)	Source
Core values	Ethical	Honesty; fairness; kindness; moral person; moral leader; and moral standards	Cameron (2011); Pless (2007); Kibert et al. (2012); Teodorescu (2015)
	Caring	Servantship; sharing; valuing; stewardship; humbleness; and authentic	Scharmer & Kaufer (2013)
	Integrity	Honesty; trustworthy; morality; sincerity; probity; and ethical	Akins et al. (2013); Carsten et al. (2010); Dun et al. (2012); Hoy et al. (2008); Kirkpatrick & Locke (1996); Russell & Stone (2002)
	Respect for all	Transcending admiration; co-sensing; co-inspiring; and concern for all wellbeing	Brown & Trevino (2006); Li-Chen (2009); Littman & Littman (2017); Reave (2005)

Source: Compiled by Researcher from Chapter Two to Four literature sources as stated in the table

The values in Table 4.6 are derived from Table 3.12 in Chapter Three and provides for the person-leader competencies (elements/indicators) for each key competence. The framework is continued in the same manner to Table 4.7, representing the two pillars for core leadership competences and the strategic leadership competences.

Table 4.7: Draft Leadership Competence Framework for a Sustainable Manufacturing Industry

	Competence	Indicators/Elements/Leader Competencies (skills, knowledge, behaviours and attitudes)	Source
Core Competences	Ecosystem awareness	Caring for the well-being of all; concern for planetary ecosystems; Knowledge of ecosystem economics; co-initiating; co-sensing; co-inspiring; co-creating; and co-shaping.	Pauline (2014); Scharmer (2007); Scharmer & Kaufer (2013)
	Multiple intelligences	Recognising environment's non-verbal sounds; understand and relate well to other people; emotional intelligence; relate to the natural environment; and logistical intelligence.	Chen et al. (2009); Gardner (1983); Peterlin et al. (2015)
	Knowledge of sustainable manufacturing patterns and practices	Understand local conditions; learn local culture; know applicable regulations and policies; safeguard public interest; know environmental impact of equipment and systems; understand processes beyond pollution control to prevention; look-out for science and technology for efficiencies in environmental protection; and knowledge of ISO 14001.	Elkington (2004); Garbie (2014); General Assembly (2015); Jackson et al. (2011); Perez (2012);
	Systems thinking	Holistic thinking; Interdependency; thinking operationally; purposefulness; and interactive design.	Henry (2012); Skarzauskiene (2008); Strandberg (2015)
	Socially responsive	Cultural intelligence; sensitiveness to societal needs; adaptation beyond merely complying with legislation; and adopt attitudes beyond social responsibility.	Crews (2010); Fox (2004); John-Steiner & Mahn (1996); Pless & Maak (2011)
Strategic Competences	Presencing	Sensing and feeling future possibilities; actualising future possibilities; learning from the future as it emerges; have an open mind, heart and will; downloading past patterns; and crystallising vision and intentions	Scharmer (2007); Scharmer & Kaufer (2013); Senge et al. (2004)
	Inter-generational systemic behaviour	Strengthen the legacy motive; create positive emotional contagion; shape collective emotions; foster identification with future generations; beware of muting emotions; create ethical infrastructure; and use different sources of leadership.	Gandure & Kumwenda (2013); Hernandez et al. (2015); Kibert et al. (2012); Stazyk et al. (2016); Stern (1997)
	Reflexivity	Adaptation; flexible to changing environment; revisiting vision, goals and objectives; entertain new ideas; dealing with ambiguity; managing complexity; flexible strategizing skills; multi-creative listening skills; and continuous learning.	Birchal (2014); Brown & Harvey (2011); Govender (2011); Pauline (2014)
	Stakeholder engagement	Knowledge of stakeholders; listening skills; building action-oriented partnerships; knowledge of stakeholder politics; and moral intelligence.	Black & Porter (2000); Crews (2010); Dunn et al. (2012); Mazibuko et al. (2015); Pless (2007); Schriberg & McDonald (2013)
	Strategic Awareness	Scanning the horizon beyond own company and industry; spending more time with stakeholders gathering information from multiple channels; interpreting trends and signals to create opportunities and risks; knowledge of relevant SDGs; thinking the unthinkable; metacognitive intelligence; self-reflection; self-awakening; self-assessment; and reframing to see the big picture.	Bolden et al (2003); Hamid et al. (2016); Mollo et al. (2005); Peterlin et al. (2013); Van Beek & Grachev (2010); Wales (2013)

Source: Compiled by Researcher from Chapter Two to Four literature sources as stated in the table

Table 4.6 and Table 4.7 are now translated into diagrammatic format showing the key leadership competences according to the three-pillar framework in Figure 4.10.



Figure 4.10: Draft Leadership Competence Framework (LCF)

Source: Compiled by researcher from Table 4.6 and Table 4.7

Figure 4.10 shows that core values are encapsulating all the leadership competences, while strategic competences are anchored on core leadership competences.

The synthesising process done in this section was important to this study because it integrated the literature to show how the conceptual framework was developed, while

the draft leadership competence framework resulted from applying the key competences to the proposed three-pillar competence structure.

4.6 Chapter Conclusions

This chapter addressed secondary research questions 2.4 and 2.5. The first question was: What LCFs could be identified in the literature? Then the second question was: How could the theory on leadership competences be synthesised to develop a broad draft framework containing competences required for sustainable beverage manufacturing in Zimbabwe? The chapter discussed the concept of models and frameworks. It was found that the terms model and framework are sometimes used interchangeably. However, in this study, a model is regarded as a prototype, whereas an LCF is a structure that enunciates the competences expected of leadership and their influences. It was argued that an effective LCF is one, which should be forward looking; aspirational; describes the values, behaviours and capabilities necessary to create a distinctive advantage; and should include leaders who are not in leadership positions. This study was guided by this perspective in developing an LCF for the beverage manufacturing industry.

The literature revealed that competences complement leadership theory in the development of an LCF. Thus, an LCF merges leadership and competence theories. The need for an LCF was argued for on the basis that it was possible to have a competent leader working in an immature organisation, where success is elusive. In this regard, the purpose of an LCF is to align individual competencies to organisational goals, thus creating leadership competences. Furthermore, leadership competences were regarded as the basic building blocks that enable effective leadership. In summary, the important issues stemming out of this chapter are presented in Table 4.8 next.

Table 4.8: Key Contributions from this Chapter

1	Developing an LCF specific to a sector is pertinent because competences required are impacted by local conditions driven by forces in the changing business environment. Hence, there was no LCF for sustainable beverage manufacturing in Zimbabwe.
2	The importance of an LCF lies in being a strategic tool for aligning leadership behaviours to organisational goals and objectives. It can also be used to create a competitive and distinctive advantage for the organisation or industry. It should cater for leaders with and without leadership positions.
3	A review of the model LCFs from literature found some, which were adaptable to the changing business environment. Leadership competences from these model LCFs mirrored competences found in leadership theories discussed in Chapter Three. Hence, key leadership competences identified were adequate.
4	The synthesis of theories enabled the development of a conceptual framework for this study.
5	A three-pillar LCF was found suitable for this study, comprising core-values; core-leadership competences; and strategic leadership competences.
6	The draft LCF became input for the empirical study.

The contributions from this chapter coupled with the broad draft LCF informed the empirical study and the design of questions used in the field inquiry to fulfil secondary research objective 2.6. Objective 2.6 was to conduct a field inquiry into the viability of the broad draft framework of identified leadership competences to ensure sustainability of the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe. The field inquiry and the rest of the empirical study adopted the research design and methodology discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5 : RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

This chapter sets out the methodology for addressing secondary research objective 2.6: To conduct a field inquiry into the possible viability of the broad draft framework of identified leadership competences to ensure sustainability of the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe. According to Sarantakos (2013), methodology translates ontological and epistemological philosophies into guidelines that indicate how the research should be done. In addition, Holloway and Galvin (2017) define methodology as principles and ideas from which procedures and strategies (methods) of research stem. According to Kothari (2004, p. 8) “research methodology has many dimensions to, which research methods constitute part of the research methodology”. This study aimed at developing an LCF for the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe. As a forerunner, a comprehensive literature review was conducted in Chapters Two, Three and Four that resulted in the development of a draft leadership competence framework (LCF). The draft LCF fulfilled secondary research objective 2.5: To synthesise the theory on leadership competences to develop a broad draft framework containing competences required for sustainable beverage manufacturing in Zimbabwe.

The research approach employed in this study was a qualitative inquiry. It is important to decide whether the research approach is quantitative or qualitative because this will help in determining the research methods to be adopted (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Quantitative research uses measurement for comparing and analysing research variables data; whereas qualitative research records aspects of research using qualifying words or descriptions (Bless, Higson-Smith, & Kagee, 2006). Recently, researchers embraced the mixed methods approach, where both quantitative and qualitative data are collected and simultaneously analysed and interpreted (Zohrabi, 2013).

According to Birchall (2014), studies of a qualitative nature tend to be more appropriate where the phenomena are ambiguous; where daily experiences of phenomena are a factor; and where there is a need to focus on the context. In this study, leadership competence frameworks (LCFs) are the phenomena; the daily experiences are that of leading in the beverage manufacturing industry; and the context is constituted by a changing business environment driven by SDGs-mega forces. Khankeh, Ranjbar,

Khorasani-Zavareh, Zargham-Boroujeni, and Johansson (2015, p. 638) state that “qualitative research asks questions about people’s everyday lives and experiences in order to discover significant truths”. Additionally, Berg (2004) argues that quantitative studies are about measures and counts; whereas qualitative studies are about descriptions of some things. This study was about the latter and was therefore qualitative.

A characteristic of this qualitative research was to focus on experiences of participants with LCFs; the meanings they attached to LCFs for sustainable manufacturing; and the participants’ subjective views on LCFs for sustainable manufacturing (Creswell, 2007). In this regard, the research was an interpretation of what was heard and understood (Creswell, 2007). Hence, the choice of the qualitative approach in this study. Bonß and Hartmann (1985) corroborate this by stating that quantitative research is premised on the ideals of objectivism, wherein the notion of objectively true statements rule; whereas, qualitative research rides on subjectivism, where socially articulated concepts of knowledge formulate subject and situation related statements, which are empirically founded. However, Mayer (2015) argued that the research problem or aim determines the research design and not the philosophical position. In addition to this introduction, this chapter focuses on the design of this research and ends with chapter conclusion.

5.2 Research Design

This study adopted a flexible research design because it is a qualitative inquiry. According to Tuli (2010), a flexible design allows for unlimited movement between the steps of the design, while a fixed design is associated with quantitative studies and only allows limited movement between steps. de Vaus (2001) states that a research design is a structure for collecting and analysing research data to enable one to unambiguously answer the initial research question from the evidence obtained. He defines it in short as, a logical structure of the inquiry and **not** a logistical issue. In addition to the logical structure perspective, Mannheim (1977) states that research design anticipates and specifies the many decisions connected with the collection of data, processing and analysis of data. However, this study followed Creswell’s (2009) approach to research design by focussing on the epistemological or philosophical worldview; and the research methods or techniques used in data collection and analysis. The components, as they relate to the design of this empirical inquiry, are discussed next.

5.2.1 Epistemology or Philosophical Worldview

This study was a phenomenological and qualitative inquiry; hence, it took a constructivist and interpretivist perspective. According to Quinlan (2011) research must be underpinned by a philosophical framework that stipulates the worldview within which the research exists. In this regard, Vidal (2008) avers that, the term worldview is often used without a precise definition. He further argues that philosophy in its broadest sense refers to worldview. In other words, to construct a worldview is the highest manifestation of philosophy (Wolters, 1989). Furthermore, epistemology is the basis of assumptions made by the researcher, how knowledge is obtained and the methods of getting the knowledge (Cresswell & Plano Clark, 2011). It is a branch of philosophy that attempts to make sense from knowledge, rationality and beliefs, while the term comes from the Greek word *episteme*, which means knowledge (Moreland & Craig, 2017). Hence, Holloway and Galvin (2017) state that epistemology is the theory of knowledge that decides how the social phenomena will be studied based on ontology. Ontology is the beliefs about the nature of reality and human existence (Tuli, 2010), while phenomenology is about the lived experiences of people (Maypole & Davies, 2001) who are concerned with an issue being researched (Groenewald, 2004). The phenomenon in this study, was leadership competence frameworks (LCFs) in the changing business environment. Krauss (2005, pp. 758-759) sums it up as follows:

Epistemology is intimately related to ontology and methodology; as ontology involves the philosophy of reality, epistemology addresses how we come to know that reality, while methodology identifies the particular practices used to attain knowledge of it.

Tuli (2010) advocates for two philosophical worldviews in social science research as the positivist and the interpretivist or constructivist paradigms. He contends that the positivist philosophical worldview is associated with quantitative research, while the interpretivist or constructivist paradigm is associated with qualitative or phenomenological research. This is supported by Bless et al., (2006), who put it differently by stating that, the two widely recognised research frameworks or paradigms are the quantitative (positivist) and qualitative (phenomenological). Because the research paradigm is qualitative, the study adopted an inductive as opposed to the deductive reasoning approach, which is associated with quantitative research. On the one hand, inductive reasoning ends with conclusions or theories whilst, beginning with

observations or measures; detecting patterns and regularities; coupled with open-endedness and exploration, leading to a hypothesis (Kakuku, 2014). On the other hand, deductive reasoning is about theory testing (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). From a phenomenological paradigm coupled with inductive reasoning, the research techniques/methods were developed.

5.2.2 Research Techniques/Methods

de Vaus (2001) posits that research methods refer to techniques of data collection. However, Cresswell (2014) expands the qualitative techniques to include methods of sampling; methods of data analysis; methods that ensure trustworthiness and quality assurance; and methods that assure research ethics. Therefore, this study followed Cresswell's (2014) research methods approach.

5.2.2.1 Sampling Strategy/Technique

Being a qualitative study, non-probability snowball sampling was chosen as the strategy. Non-probability sampling means that elements in the population have no chance of being selected (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). Mean-while, Mercer, Kreuter, Keeter, and Stuart (2017) refer to the technique as characterised by the absence of randomised selection. Whereas, Vehovar, Toepoel, and Steinmetz (2016, p. 327) define it as “a deviation from probability sampling principles where units are included with unknown probabilities, or, that some of these probabilities are known to be zero”. Gentles, Charles, Ploeg and McKibbin (2015, p. 1775) define sampling as “selection of specific data sources from which data are collected to address the research objectives”. They add that, in the case of a phenomenological approach, the data sources are people.

The researcher purposefully targeted participants from beverage manufacturing companies listed on the Zimbabwe Stock Exchange (ZSE). The advantage of using companies listed on the ZSE was that these businesses were obliged to do sustainability reporting in compliance with ZSE regulations. Sustainability was the context in which the leadership competences were being investigated. Hence, it was believed that participants from companies located at the ZSE could tenaciously inform understanding of leadership competences in the context of SDGs.

At the time of the research proposal writing, there were four beverage manufacturing companies quoted on the ZSE. The selection of the companies was adequate because the four dominated the beverage manufacturing industry, covering the alcoholic and

non-alcoholic products with approximately 95% market share (IDE-JETRO, 2010). In any case, the targeted companies were not the sample size, but a demarcation in which a sample of participants was derived from. It was later discovered that one of the targeted companies had delisted from the ZSE. However, despite its delisting this company was included in the survey because its new status had no negative impact on the research outcome. In addition, the company was a member of a global multinational company and continued to do voluntary sustainability reporting.

According to Quinlan (2011), a sample stands for a sub-set of a population, whereas a population is the investigation group of interest for people, and events or things at the centre of the research (Sekeran & Bougie, 2013). The investigation group for this study were executives, non-executive and former members of beverage manufacturing companies listed on the Zimbabwe Stock Exchange (ZSE) who were knowledgeable in sustainability and leadership competences. The preceding terms were the criteria for choosing participants, which was not based on the actual population numbers.

The CEOs were selected because they were the chief drivers of business strategy. Using the snowballing technique, the CEOs were requested to recommend at least two executives or non-executive members of the company who were knowledgeable in sustainability and leadership competences to take part in the interview. According to Naderifar, Goli and Ghaljaie (2017), snowballing is a convenience sampling technique applied when it is difficult to access participants possessing required characteristics, where participants recruit future participants among their networks. In addition, every participant was asked to recommend any other two people whom they thought would add value to the research. The selection of participants was in line with the statement by Gentles et al. (2015) that in qualitative research the aim of sampling is to get useful information that helps understanding of the depth, complex nature, variation, or surrounding context of phenomenon rather than getting population representation as is the case with quantitative research. Liamputtong (2011) advocates that to achieve credibility, purposeful selection must choose informants based on their exceptional experience and knowledge. In line with Liamputtong's (2011) advocacy, the researcher sent the interview questions to potential participants by email to help them decide whether they were able to answer the research questions or not. In some cases, phone calls were made to follow-up on emails. Therefore, not all recommended candidates participated in the research because others declined on the basis that they felt they had

limited knowledge of the SDGs. The researcher did background checks of the companies to understand their vision, mission, values and roles of the interviewees prior to data collection (Birchall, 2014).

The targeted sample size was 12 participants. In a qualitative inquiry there are no established rules for sample size, with researchers using their own judgements considering the time and resource-constraints for completing the research (Patton, 2002, p. 242). A data saturation point is when further probing does not yield additional information (Reid & Mash, 2014) and is only clarified during the process of data collection (Khankeh et al., 2015). Saturation point was reached at participant number seven and was reconfirmed to participant number ten. However, the researcher continued with the search for more participants to give credibility to the study. Therefore, the target sample was reached.

5.2.2.2 Data Collection

Data collection is an organised approach to gathering and measuring information from various sources to answer research questions, evaluate outcomes and construct predictions (Peersman, 2014). The organised approach in this study involved the data collection method applied; the design of the interview; how the interviews were conducted; and the credibility of the interview.

The data collection method for this study was individual **face-to-face interviews** that were semi-structured. The aim of the interviews was to explore the views, beliefs, experiences, and/or motivations of participants on leadership competences in the context of sustainable development (Gill, Stewart, Treasure, & Chadwick, 2008). This is in line with qualitative inquiry, which is about exploration of meaning, individual experiences, and interpretation (Birchall, 2014). An interview is said to be an event of communication governed by rules and norms where appropriateness of content and style is emphasised (Hawamdeh & Raigangar, 2014). An interview could also be regarded as a two-way gathering and giving information process (Alvesson & Skoldberg, 2000). Hence, interviews enable probing, exploring perceptions, and teasing out information, which is difficult to get through other means (Byrne, Brugha, Clerk, Lavelle, & McGarvey, 2015). Furthermore, Burns (1999) argues that interviews are suitable for obtaining first-hand information from knowledgeable informants. The interviews were conducted face-to-face with participants. The interviews took place before the advent of

restrictions imposed by COVID-19. According to Sekeran and Bougie (2013), face-to-face interviews are direct interviews where both interviewer and participant are physically present and looking at each other. Face-to-face interviews were suitable for this study against telephones or internet-based calls for the following reasons: travel costs were affordable because all participants were in Harare within 20 kilometres; the duration of each interview was a minimum of 45 minutes of audio recording, thus making the other methods difficult to manage; and the researcher was able to rephrase questions after picking up facial expressions from participants seeking clarity. Furthermore, questionnaires were not used in this study because in qualitative research, questionnaires are suitable for structured interviews where there is no variation of questions or follow-up questions during the interview (Reid & Mash, 2014), yet this research was meant to explore the views, beliefs and experiences of participants with LCF and sustainable development. However, an interview guide with a list of questions asked was used. In addition, face-to-face interviews were most suitable for this study because the researcher benefitted from networking with CEOs and executives in the beverage manufacturing industry. However, before the interview started, each participant was asked to sign a consent form (appendix 3) agreeing to the terms and conditions of their participation (appendix 2).

The interviews were designed as **semi-structured**, where a questioning agenda was used to guide the inquiry (Nel & Goldman, 2017). In other words, it involved the researcher asking several pre-arranged open-ended questions (Given, 2008). The other two types of interview design are structured and unstructured interviews (Reid & Mash, 2014). These were not used in this research. Table 5.1 shows the three types of interview designs with their characteristics and orientation to demonstrate why semi-structured interviews were considered most suitable for this study.

Table 5.1: Types of Interview Design

Structure Type	Characteristics	Orientation
Structured	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Have predetermined questions. - No variation of questions during interview. - No scope for follow-up questions where further elaboration is evident. 	Regarded as verbally administered questionnaires.
Semi-structured	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Pre-determined interview guide. - Focused on broad issues. - Questions were open-ended. - Initial open-ended question in the interview guide was aligned to the main research question. - Subsequent questions probed specific aspects of an issue being discussed. 	Each question is structured in an open-ended manner.
Unstructured	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - No pre-conceived ideas or theories. - Greater interviewing skill required. - Initial response to the opening question will determine how the direction of the interview will progress. 	Regarded as open-ended interviews.

Source: Adopted from Reid and Mash (2014, p. 2)

This study had a main research question and secondary questions that were open-ended; therefore, the study took a semi-structured orientation.

In this qualitative inquiry, there was **interview flexibility** to enable exploring of the unknown and uncovering the unexpected. Hence, the design of research questions was balanced to permit exploration and at the same time enabled focus in delimiting the study (Marshal & Rossman, 1999). In this regard, the researcher accepted additional comments beyond the question asked. Examples were instances where the participant would answer the current question in conjunction with the next question. In such instances, the researcher would indicate that the next question had been answered,

then summarised the response given pertaining to the next question and asked if participant had anything to add or would want to repackage earlier response for the benefit of the next question. The researcher would then elect to read out the next question or not depending on the verbal or non-verbal response given. There were no new conceptual questions, which were prompted by participants' responses warranting adjustment of original questions. Creswell (2007) refers to such adjustments to scheduled interview questions as emergent design.

The following were the **key interview questions**, which the researcher asked participants during interviews. However, the detailed interview guide is presented in the appendices (appendix 4).

(A) The world is currently focused on sustainable development. Tell me about your understanding of sustainable development and how it is viewed in your organisation?

(B) The UN General Assembly resolved on 25 September 2015 to transform the world through the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) Agenda whose target date is 2030. Organisations like yours are defined as partners in sustainable development because corporates can contribute positively or negatively to sustainable development. Thus, corporates have been identified as major players in sustainable development and you as leaders must have competences that will lead organisations to contribute to the achievement of SDGs. What are your views concerning the effectiveness of the existing leadership competences in your organisation or others as depicted by the SDGs driven environment?

(C) How do you envision the development of leadership competences to optimise sustainable development in response to the SDGs agenda 2030?

(a) What competences do you want to see at strategic levels of leadership?

(b) What core-competences do you think are necessary at all levels of leadership in the organisation that are not necessarily strategic?

(c) How do you see the values of your organisation being able to respond to the sustainable development agenda?

(d) How can leadership competencies be amplified in yourself and other leaders to ensure the organisation contributes to sustainable development?

In **conducting the interview**, the process followed Merriam (1998), who suggested a combination of recording and taking down key notes to enable follow-up questions. The interviews were recorded using two digital recorders to avoid instances in which a digital recorder malfunctions. The key notes enabled further probing and enhanced understanding of responses. The researcher himself conducted the interview. The interviews started with introductions and getting to know each other. During the interview, the researcher was organised, calm, and prepared (Myers & Newman, 2007). The interview began with broad-open-ended questions before being more probing and direct to ease the participant into the discussion (Liamputtong, 2011). To encourage participants to think more, the researcher would occasionally pass comments like, 'this is interesting, please tell me more'. Also, the researcher would make sounds such as uh-uuh to show that, the participant was not talking to self but someone was listening attentively. It was evident that participants became lively when such actions and comments were made causing them to speak more on the question, thus, bringing new insights into their answers. The first interview was targeted at a CEO and it did not give rise to adjustments to the interview questions. The next three participants were also CEOs. It was not easy to get appointments with participants because executives had busy schedules with some being frequently out of the country. Getting appointments required a lot of patience and as result it took four months to complete the interviews. The shortest interview took 44 minutes and the longest was one hour, thirty-five minutes. The researcher allowed the participants to regulate their own talking time. This resulted in one participant adjourning the interview to continue the following week. All audio recordings were transcribed manually before conducting the next interview.

To ensure **credibility of interview questions**, literature review resulted in synthesising leadership competence theory and the changing business environment depicted by sustainable development, which resulted in a draft LCF in section 4.4 of Chapter Four. Precisely, the questions were derived from Figure 4.10 in Chapter Four. In addition, the Research Ethics Committee of the University of the Free State ensured that the interview questions complied with human research ethics and that they addressed the study topic. To avoid bias, the researcher maintained a **reflexive approach during the interview** by ensuring that their own ideas did not influence the participant's responses.

A reflexive approach is the capacity to remain unbiased and at the same time knowing and considering effects of existing biases in the process of the research (Birchall, 2014). To ensure **credibility of the interviews**, the study followed two suggestions by Miles, Huberman and Saldana (2013). The first suggestion is that the researcher should consider rival explanations from participants. For example, some participants dismissed systems thinking as a core leadership competence in favour of ecosystems thinking. The second suggestion is that the researcher should seek negative evidence from participants. Hence, one participant argued that poor communities should not be stopped from cutting down trees to get firewood. The issue here is that why should communities preserve trees for future generations when they have no other source of energy for cooking.

5.2.2.3 Data Analysis

Flick (2013, p. 5) defines qualitative data analysis as “the classification and interpretation of linguistic or visual material, to make statements about implicit and explicit dimensions and structures of meaning-making in the material and what is represented in it”. Whereas, Kawulich (2004) defines it as the activity of reducing large amounts of collected data and making sense out of the data. It is a process of eliciting meaning from data, systematically, comprehensively and rigorously (Smit, 2002). However, meaning making refers to subjective or social meanings (Flick, 2013). Hence, the purpose of data analysis is the conversion of data into a story that explains the participants’ views or phenomenon using their emic or inside standpoint (Kawulich, 2004). According to Lu (2012), emic viewpoint analysis involves evaluating participants’ interpretation of a phenomenon. However, the instrument of analysis is the researcher, who makes judgments concerning themes, coding, de-contextualisation, and re-contextualisation of the data (Starks & Trinidad, 2007).

The data collected from interviews in this study were analysed using **thematic data analysis** method. A thematic technique has flexibility as a characteristic because it can be conducted in different ways (Braun & Clarke, Using thematic analysis in psychology, 2006). However, Holloway and Todres (2003) noted that this flexibility can result in inconsistency and incoherence when creating themes from research data. Braun and Clarke (2006, p.77) provided an expanded definition of thematic data analysis arguing that “it is a method for identifying, analysing, organising, describing, and reporting themes found within a data set”, while, Boyatzis (1998. P.4) defines it simply as “a way

of seeing and making sense out of seemingly unrelated material.” In addition, thematic data analysis is considered good at identifying themes in qualitative data, to address the research problem (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017). Furthermore, it can be applied in a range of epistemologies (Nowell, Norris, White, & Moules, 2017). Alhojailan (2012) considers it most appropriate for studies that require interpretations to make findings. Hence, its selection as a data analysis method for this study.

Patton (1987), supported by Miles, Huberman and Saldana (2013) argue that three things must occur during data analysis namely: data must be organised; data must be condensed through summation and **categorisation**; and data must be identified and linked to patterns and themes. The purpose of linking is to create connections and relationships between categories of data (Kawulich, 2004). In this study, interview data were collected from participants with each participant being represented by an alpha-numeric code. The responses from each participant were then categorised as established in the draft LCF from literature review. The categories emanated from the conceptual framework developed from literature review, where a number of needs were summarised. The first was the need to understand the context in which leadership competences were contemplated, as discussed in Chapter Two. Secondly, there was a need to evaluate the effectiveness of the existing leadership competences in the context of sustainable development. This need responded to the problem statement, which alluded to the shortcomings of the existing LCFs. Third, there was a need to envision the development of leadership competences for sustainable development. Fourth, a search for strategic leadership competences suitable in a sustainable development environment was needed. Fifth, there was need to identify the type of core-leadership competences desired in a sustainable development environment. Sixth, also needed were the organisational values that encapsulate the desired leadership competences with attributes of being lived by all. Therefore, to address the foregoing needs, the following data categories were developed: understanding sustainable development; effectiveness of existing leadership competences; envisioning the development of leadership competences; strategic level leadership competences, core-leadership competences; core-values; amplifying person-leader competencies; and person-leader competencies. To address the research objectives, interview questions were designed to align with the categories. As a result, a last category was created to incorporate after thought matters at the end of each interview. This reflects a theoretical or top-down

thematic analysis that rides on specific research questions, as opposed to the inductive or bottom-up approach that rides on the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). As a result, the researcher created a number of concepts, ideas, or topics that were used to code and interpret the data as suggested by Braun and Clarke (2012). In this study, the researcher was interested in addressing the research questions in Chapter One; thus, the data was analysed cognisant of this objective as suggested by Maguire and Delahunt (2017). Furthermore, the top-down thematic approach dealt with the concern raised by Clarke and Braun (2013) that using the main interview questions as themes, suggests that the data have been ordered and summarised as opposed to being analysed.

Whilst there are so many ways of conducting thematic data analysis (Alhojailan, 2012; Boyatzis, 1998; Braun & Clarke, 2006; Javadi & Zarea, 2016), this study followed Braun and Clarke's (2006) six step process. This process was used to come up with a draft framework of themes or competences suitable for the SDGs agenda through literature review as shown in Table 5.2 next.

Table 5.2: Six Step Thematic Data Analysis Process

Step	Process
1	Became familiar with the literature on the changing business environment; leadership and competence theories; and models of LCFs
2	Generated categories based on the research questions after synthesising the literature
3	Searched for themes/competences within the categories by reviewing literature on leadership models
4	Reviewed themes/competences to ensure that there is theoretical support
5	Defined themes/competences, being the final refinement to determine that the competences were suitable for the SDGs era. This resulted in a thematic map referred to as the draft LCF from literature.
6	The draft LCF was then subjected to a field inquiry to test its viability

Source: Adapted from Braun and Clarke (2006)

Table 5.2 shows that themes/competences stemmed out of the categories. Examples of the themes/competences are presencing, ecosystems awareness; and ethics, just to pick a few from the categories respectively. The applicability of these themes/competences were subjected to review by participants. In addition, a number of

new themes/competences were proffered by the participants. At the same time, some of the themes/competences from the draft LCF were not supported by participants. According to Flick (2013), data analysis can be done after all the data has been collected or concurrently with data collection. In this study, manual data analysis was done concurrently with data collection.

During data analysis, **data coding** was done to facilitate categorisation of data to create a framework of themes and link the data to the research problem (Gibbs, 2007). In other words, data coding supports thematic analysis (Shosha, 2016). Gibbs (2007) explains that thematic coding identifies texts that are connected by a common idea to enable the researcher to create categories. However, in this study categories had been established through the draft leadership competence framework (LCF). Hence, coding first took a deductive perspective. The inductive perspective was used when coding was done to add to the draft theory through empirical study. According to Theron (2015), codes are descriptive constructs created by the researcher for capturing the primary content or substance of the data. Hence, Cope (2010, p. 281) describes data coding as “a process of identifying and organising themes in qualitative data”. Furthermore, Smith and Davies (2010) describe data coding as a method of organising data to make clearer the underlying messages depicted by the data. However, Charmaz (2006) describes it as a pivot, linking data collection and the meaning of data. Hence, repetitive codes create richer meanings and categories (Saldaña, 2013). Cope (2010) avers that there are three main reasons for coding data, namely: data reduction, that is, distilling large amounts of data along with key themes; organising data, that is, a finding aid to sort through data and then create structure; and a data processing tool, that is, for data exploration, analysis, and theory-building (Cope, 2010). Emerging themes arose from the introductory question in each category, which sought the views of participants on each topic. The themes or descriptive codes are explained as category labels that tend to answer the ‘who, what, where, when, and how’ kind of questions (Cope, 2010).

The foregoing **data analysis process** was complemented by Miles, Huberman and Saldana’s (2013) three-step data analysis procedure as follows:

- Data reduction using codes and categories
- Data reduction using quotes, graphs and charts

- Drawing conclusions from identified themes and explaining patterns and relationships.

The interactive data analysis was modelled as depicted by Figure 5.1.

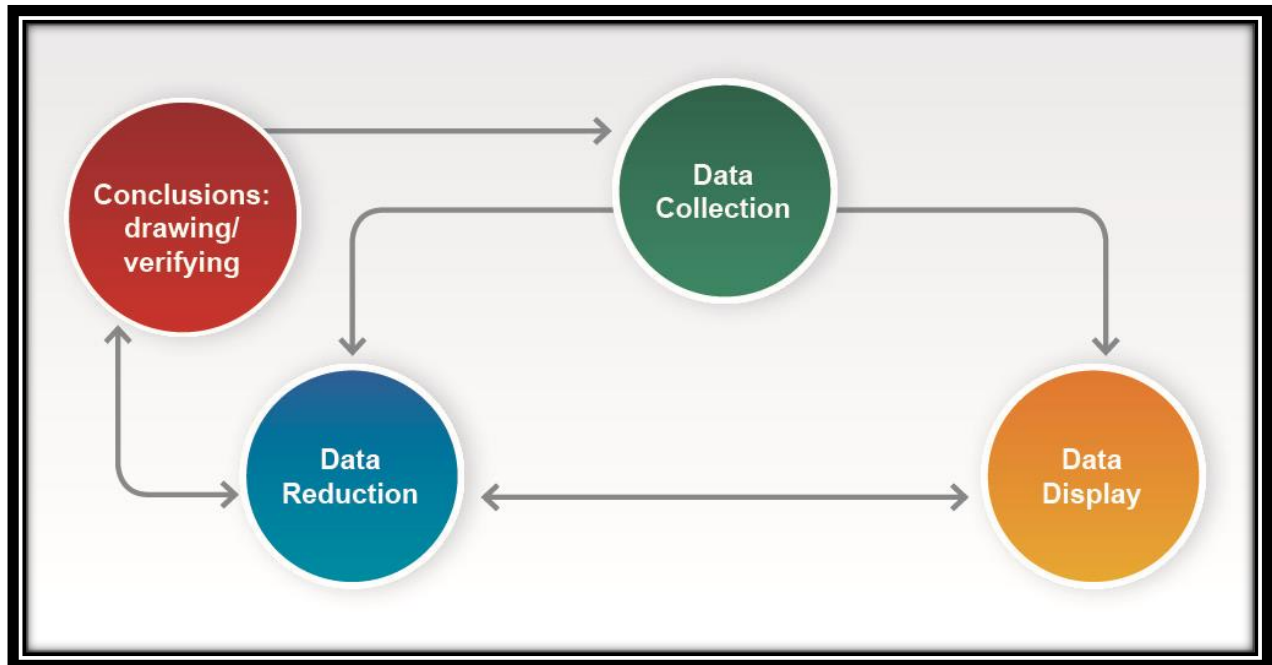


Figure 5.1: Data Analysis Interactive Model

Source: Adopted from Miles, Huberman and Saldana (2013)

From Figure 5.1 the double arrows show the iterative process. On the one hand, the data collected is either displayed or reduced. On the other hand, the conclusions call for further data re-collection before making final conclusions. However, there was no re-collection of data in this study.

After the first interview, the researcher played the audio and listened to the interview with a view to find gaps to address in the next interview. A replay was done the following day to transcribe the audio data, which was then analysed. This was the beginning of a **manual data analysis** process. The process of transcription involved listening attentively to the audio and summarising the interview using the predetermined categories from the draft LCF. The same process was done with the second interview, after which the researcher found comfort in the analysis and decided to use the approach for the rest of the interviews. Considering that the audio recordings averaged 72 minutes, the amount of data was easy to analyse manually and enabled the researcher to deeply immerse himself into the data. This meant turning oneself from an

external data analyst into an active participant in data analysis as advocated by Baumann-Pauly (2018). The manual approach is corroborated by Castleberry and Nolen (2018) who stated that it is the researcher's mind behind data analysis and not the software program. The researcher was able to translate gestures and other non-verbal signs used by participants during the interviews. These non-verbal signs are difficult to interpret using computer assisted data analysis. It had been planned to use ATLAS.ti computer software as the data analysis or validation tool. However, the ATLAS.ti customer support team advised that the software did not have audio transcribing capabilities, but could hyperlink audio data. This advice led to the researcher deciding against the use of ATLAS.ti because transcription was at the core of data analysis in this study. However, verbatim transcription was not necessary in this study. Hence, the search for transcription software was abandoned. Audio transcription was therefore, restricted to manual processing.

According to Ochs (1979) and Duranti (2007), transcription methodically reflects theoretical objectives and definitions. It entails decisions about what level and amount of detail to include and is considered the first step in data analysis (Bailey, 2008). According to Davidson (2009) transcription is important in data analysis for the following reasons: simplifies interpretation; enables criticism and improves the interview process; immerses researcher into data; enables researcher's views to be incorporated into transcription; and creates theoretical sensitivity. Therefore, transcription made meaning making of interview data and relating meaning to literature review easier. After transcribing and meaning making there was a need to ensure the trustworthiness of the study.

5.2.2.4 Ensuring the Trustworthiness of the Study: Quality Assurance

According to Gunawan (2015), a study is trustworthy only when the reader of the research report believes it is. To this end, Guba's (1981) construct of trustworthiness in qualitative research findings is premised on credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability of the findings. This study followed Guba's (1981) construct of trustworthiness as discussed next.

The study sought to ensure trustworthiness through **credibility** as suggested by Merriam (1998) who viewed the credibility of a qualitative research study as establishing congruence of the findings with reality. In other words, the results of this research

mirrored the views of the participants, thus, establishing confidence in the data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). A mixture of four industry and academic experts validated the findings of this study. One was a full time academic from a University in Lesotho. The other was a telecommunications industry executive and a part-time academic in Zimbabwe. The third one was a CEO of a construction company and a former beverage manufacturing executive. The last one was a CEO of a consultancy firm; a board chair and director of several companies including the beverage industry; and a part-time academic. Also, one of these validators was a participant in the field inquiry. The researcher argues that this participant cum validator had an insider's view of the study and a direct interest in knowing the results of the empirical study to representatively validate participants' input. This helps in completing a 360 degree validation because thematic data analysis involves interpretation, which should benefit from a review of those who provided the data. Bygstad and Munkvold (2007) support this view by advocating for the inclusion of informants in validating the researcher's interpretations before the publication of a report. Sousa (2014) adds that the aim of such validation is to sanction the researcher's interpretation. This is in contrast to quantitative research, where participant validation is very low. Dube and Paré (2003) corroborate this in a study of 183 quantitative case studies where they established that only 15% reported some form of participant validation.

The researcher decided to leave the issue of **transferability** of the research results to the readers of this report. Shenton (2004) states that transferability in qualitative research is the counterpart of external validity in quantitative research, measured in terms of generalisation. He further argues that the researcher must provide enough contextual information for the field work-sites, to enable the reader to make the transfer. In other words, it is the reader and not the researcher who makes such transfer by deciding how the study applies to the reader's area of interest. Hence, in determining transferability, this study was persuaded to follow Shenton's (2004) method. Thus, transferability was established by four industry and academic experts. Their selection was in line with Anney's (2014) suggestion that transferability of findings is aided by purposefully selecting experts to determine it, thus, giving the LCF a practical perspective. The validation team were provided with a semi-final LCF to review. Accompanying the proposed LCF were questions to be answered by each reviewer. The

reviewers would give their responses by email or voice calls on skype or WhatsApp platforms.

The study relied on **dependability** in the form of themes from the draft LCF established during the literature review. The themes were the basis of the questions in the interview guide. Category dependability refers to how coded data summed into blocks (categories) can be relied upon (Sekeran & Bougie, 2013). In addition, Table 5.3 highlights issues addressed in this study to ensure dependability and audit-ability of research data.

Table 5.3: Condition for Ensuring Dependability of Data

No.	Condition
1	Ensured research design was aligned to secondary research objective number 2.6: To conduct a field inquiry into the possible viability of the broad draft framework of identified leadership competences to guarantee sustainability of the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe
2	Ensured data was collected from legitimate participants, in this case, beverage manufacturing executives and non-executives both current and former.
3	Undertook quality checks on all biases and knowledge of participants regarding sustainability and leadership competences
4	Ensured parallelism in sources of data about interviews and context

Source: Adapted from Miles, Huberman and Saldana (2013)

In addition, the quality of results was checked through conformability audit by reference to draft LCF from literature (Houghton, Casey, Shaw, & Murphy, 2013). Furthermore, the process considered Lincoln and Guba's (1985) advice on addressing directly, dependability issues in research as shown in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4: Dependability Checklist

	Activity	Location
1	Report the process in detail, to enable replication of the study by other researchers in future, as a prototype model	This chapter 5 – Research Methodology
2	Explain the research design and how it was implemented, describing the plan and its execution	This section 5.2
3	Explain the data gathering methods, describing the minutiae of how the data was collected	Subsection 5..2.3.2 of this chapter
4	Perform an introspective appraisal of the study and evaluating how the process of inquiry was effective	Chapter 8 – Conclusion and Recommendations

Source: Adapted from Lincoln and Guba, 1985

From Table 5.4, the dependability issues have been aligned to the chapters and sections they are located in.

Regarding **confirmability**, the study was informed by Shenton's (2004) suggestion that research findings are the outcomes of the experiences and ideas of the participants, and not the beliefs and preferences of the researcher. The researcher's input was limited to the interpretation of the results. Also, the beliefs and assumptions underpinning decisions made in this study and the methods adopted were acknowledged as suggested by Miles, Huberman and Saldana (2013). The decision to interview CEOs first was informed by the belief that they were the drivers of business strategy and had knowledge and experience of leading in the context of SDGs driven environments. Furthermore, the research design provided audit trails whose importance was emphasised by Bowen (2009, p. 307) who argued that, "an audit trail offers visible evidence from a process and product, that the researcher did not simply find what he or she set out to find" but that the views came from participants indeed. Some of the audit trails are the audio recordings of the interviews and the manual transcripts of the audio recordings used to analyse the data. By ensuring that the views of participants are respected, the study was guided by ethical considerations discussed in the next section.

5.2.2.5 Ethical Considerations

Strict ethical principles are enforced when research involves human beings as subjects (Jelsma & Clow, 2005). According to Webster, Lewis and Brown (2014), ethics are at the heart of research, from design to reporting stages and beyond. To this end, Aluwihare-Samaranayake (2012) argues that both the researcher and participant are key to upholding good ethics through their conduct, which should lead to consciousness and transparency in the research process. Hence, ethics relates to doing good and avoidance of harm (Beauchamp & Childress, 1989). Quinlan (2011) defines ethics as principles of morality that govern the behaviour of individuals, group or organisation. In research studies, adequate ethics are premised on approval by the Research Ethics Board (Mauthner & Birch, 2002). The link between ethics and design is enunciated by Jelsma and Clow (2005), who argue that a Research Ethics Board should not approve a study, which is not designed well because such studies lack scientific merit to be granted ethical approval. Dickens (2001) concurs by saying that scientific methodology is an essential requirement for ethical justification. However, Reid, Brown, Smith, Cope and Jamieson (2018) aver that ethical considerations continue after approval has been granted because of the dynamism in human interactions. Hence, Hammersley (2015) argued that sensitive ethical issues happen “in the moment” as the study unfolds. This study was approved by the University of the Free State’s (UFS) Faculty of Economics and Management Sciences (EMS) Research Ethics Committee. The approval number was UFS-HSD2018/1338. In granting approval, the EMS Ethics Committee dealt with the following ethical considerations: permission to conduct research; participant consent and information; confidentiality; anonymity; data management; and risk mitigation.

The Researcher first got approval to go ahead with the empirical study from the Research Ethics Committee of the UFS, after, which **permission** was sought from four companies to access their members. A standard letter (appendix 1) was sent to each Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of the companies targeted for research, seeking approval to gain access to him or her and members of the company. However, responses were either by email, follow up phone calls or verbal after visiting the CEOs at their places of work. For confidentiality purposes, these responses are not shared in this study. The letter to CEOs guaranteed confidentiality, anonymity, ethical data management, and risk mitigation measures. The researcher emailed or telephoned targeted participants seeking permission to interview them. According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill

(2009), permission to conduct the study must be requested for and granted before the investigation begins. Aluwihare-Samaranayake (2012) emphasised the importance of accessing official and unofficial gatekeepers to gain access to participants. Orb, Eisenhauer and Wynaden (2001) warned of potential ethical conflicts that may arise in trying to gain access to a group of persons, while, Head (2009) gave the example of paying or not paying gatekeepers to encourage or discourage potential informants to take part in a study, as an area of potential ethical conflict. In this respect, Reid et al. (2018) argue that the seeking of permissions and commitments to adhere to ethical principles, together with associated justifications to conduct research, are referred to as procedural ethics. In this study, no payments were made to gatekeepers to gain access to participants.

The participating executives and non-executives were requested to read and sign an **informed consent** form before the interview started (appendix 3). According to Berg (2004), the researcher is obligated to inform participants about the type of the research, extent and nature of their involvement, and anticipated negative consequences of them participating. Wiles, Crow, Charles and Heath (2007) add that informed consent is generally accepted as the foundation of ethical research practice. The participants were given unambiguous information regarding the purpose of the research, storage of data and use of data in the long-term. This enabled the participants to voluntarily participate in the interviews (O'Neill, 2003). Nusbaum, Douglas, Damus, Paasche-Orlow and Estrella-Luna (2017) argue that successful communication of informed consent information considers the risks, discomforts and benefits of participation. Hence, the researcher provided adequate written information coupled with oral information that enabled prospective participants to make an informed decision about their participation before the interview (Wiles, Heath, Crow, & Charles, 2005). In addition, the researcher emphasised and guaranteed the right to withdraw from participation at any point. However, the researcher cautioned participants against withdrawing once the interview has already taken place since this was not feasible. As a result, no one withdraws after being interviewed. The researcher was cautious about information overload that militated against participation (Harris & Dyson, 2001) and limited the informed consent information sheet to allude to issues of confidentiality, anonymity, data management and risk mitigation.

To ensure **confidentiality** in this study, a guarantee that only the researcher and the promoter were to have sight of interview data (Quinlan, 2011) was given to participants. It was explained that the promoter would have sight of the data, if needed, as the co-author of the report and as a technical advisor to the research. The guarantee of confidentiality was emphasised at the time of the interview and was included in the informed consent form signed by the participants. According to Oliver (2003) confidentiality is equated to the principle of privacy, where individuals have a right to privacy about their affairs. Hence, Wiles et al. (2006) argue that, to guarantee confidentiality to someone means that, the discussion must not be repeated elsewhere without permission. Furthermore, confidentiality speaks to the storage of data where Lüders (2004, p. 359) argues that, “recordings and transcripts must be kept where no one will have access to them”. In this study, the recordings and transcripts were to be kept in a lockable drawer at the researcher’s house for a period of five years. All soft copies were kept in a password protected memory device and locked away. To operationalise confidentiality, Wiles et al. (2006) view anonymity as a vehicle for achieving confidentiality.

Assurances of **anonymity** were included in the informed consent form signed by the participants. The consent form gave guarantees that participants will remain nameless in the written report of the research (Quinlan, 2011). Anonymity in qualitative research means encrypting specific details to protect the identity of informants (Flick, 2009). In this research, anonymization was done through alpha-numeric codes, to ensure confidentiality of participants (Corden & Sainsbury, 2005; Cresswell, 2007). This report ensures that both confidentiality and anonymity do not result in deductive disclosure. Deductive disclosure takes place when it is possible to find the traits of participants in research reports (Kaiser, 2009). However, anonymity is enhanced by how data is managed.

Ethical **data management** in this study was premised on ensuring that there was no distortion and misrepresentation of interview data. Li-Chen (2009) defines qualitative data management as a structure designed systematically and categorised to enable filing of materials that can be retrieved and duplicated. He argues that the informants would like to see their contributions treated with respect, privacy, devoid of harm and misrepresentation. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2013) misrepresenting and distorting data in reports of a study requires strict avoidance. In this study,

misrepresentation and distortion of data were zero-tolerated. This is in line with Richards and Schwartz's (2002) argument that, in qualitative studies, published results must be a version of the truth, and that validity is judged in terms of the care exercised during data analysis. Hence, Hewitt (2007) argues that, qualitative research is susceptible to bias resulting from the researcher's qualities, attitudes and socially desirable factors. However, the study was not affected by misrepresentation resulting from researcher's interpretation due to hearing, grammar, punctuations and over-simplification (Alldred & Gillies, 2002). Several risk issues were mitigated in this study as discussed next.

Risk mitigation measures taken in this study centred on breach of confidentiality; loss of worktime; travelling costs; the possibility of failure to interview all candidates; and the possibility of finding the identity of participants in the data storage methods used in this study. In this regard, the risk discussed here is about participant risk as opposed to risk that impacts on the researcher, such as hearing distressing stories; managing high outcome expectations from participants; and listening to disagreeable statements from participants (Stahlke, 2018). However, the researcher took heed of Dickson-Swift, James, Kippen and Liamputtong's (2008) suggestion that there is a need to be prepared for physical and emotional risk. According to Hadjistavropoulos and Smythe (2001), **breach of confidentiality** can occur because of the identification of responses with their informants. In this study, the snowballing technique was used to identify participants with CEOs as the nucleus. Each person in the snowballing chain would know potential participants as recommended by them. There was no known risk or danger to any organisation or other participants in the snowballing chain, posed by the responses to the questions in the interview guide. However, none of the participants was able to know how the other participants responded in the interviews. Furthermore, no names of participants or their companies appear in the final report of this study. The audio recordings of the interviews have not been shared and will not be shared with anyone. In addition, participants **lost work-time** by taking part in this study. This sacrifice of company or personal time was mentioned in the request for permission to conduct research and in the informed consent information sheet stating that the interview was to take no more than 45 minutes. As a benefit, participants were informed that they could request a copy of the final report if they wanted to.

Another risk mitigated in this study was the **possibility of failure to interview all the intended participants**. There was a possibility that the targeted sample could not be

reached due to unforeseen commitments. However, the targeted sample of twelve was reached. In addition, there was the ***possibility of finding the identity of participants in the data storage methods used in this study***. Whilst there was no known danger if the participants were identified, all participants were distinguished by an alpha-code on the consent forms. Hard copies associated with responses were to be stored by the researcher for a period of five years in a locked cupboard/filing cabinet at the researcher's home, in case of need for future research or academic purposes, whereas, electronic information was to be stored on a password protected memory card/disk for five years in the same cupboard/filing cabinet at the same place. Future use of the stored data was subject to further Research Ethics Review and approval if applicable. The hard copies were to be destroyed using a shredder and the electronic data erased from the memory cards/disks. However, there was no known risk associated with responses expected to be stored and ultimately destroyed after five years. The participants were informed in the information sheet of the consent form that, if they felt there were compelling reasons for them to believe that the storage methods suggested were inadequate, they were to advise the researcher so that further mitigating methods could be explored to their satisfaction. However, all participants did not object to the storage methods suggested in the study.

5.3 Chapter Conclusion

The chapter set out the methodology used to address secondary research objective 2.6: To conduct a field inquiry into the possible viability of the broad draft framework of identified leadership competences to ensure sustainability of the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe. The research approach and design have been explained. In this regard, the methodology for this study was a qualitative inquiry. A qualitative inquiry was found to be more suitable than the quantitative one because LCFs as a phenomena were ambiguous; and daily experiences of leading in the beverage manufacturing industry was a factor, in the context of a changing business environment driven by SDGs as mega forces. Furthermore, it was argued that a qualitative approach was suited for developing theory using inductive reasoning. Because of the qualitative nature of the inquiry, the study adopted a flexible research design, which allowed for unlimited movement between the steps of the design. Two main components of research design discussed were epistemological or philosophical

worldview of the study; and the research techniques or methods used. Table 5.5 highlights the key contributions from this chapter.

Table 5.5: Key Contribution from this Chapter

1	The study took a constructivist and interpretivist perspective because it was phenomenological.
2	Snowballing technique was the most suited purposeful sampling method for the study.
3	Face-to-face- semi-structured interviews were conducted to collect data before the advent of COVID-19 using two digital voice recorders.
4	Thematic data analysis was conducted to elicit meaning and interpret the data.
5	Validation and transferability of results were conducted through feedback from four industry and academic experts.
6	The ethical clearance number for this study is UFS-HSD2018/1338, which was approved by the University of the Free State's (UFS) Faculty of Economics and Management Sciences (EMS) Research Ethics Committee.

Once the research methodology was clearly designed, the interviews were conducted leading to data analysis and interpretation presented next in Chapter Six.

CHAPTER 6 : DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

6.1 Introduction

The chapter is an application of Chapter Five in addressing the secondary research objective (2.6), namely, to conduct a field inquiry into the possible viability of the broad draft framework of identified leadership competences to ensure sustainability of the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe. The field inquiry was conducted to test the draft leadership competence framework (LCF) (Figure 4.10 in Chapter Four) constructed from the literature review and solicit views of participants. The interview questions were designed to obtain participants' views on and experiences with leadership competences and sustainable development. The chapter firstly, discusses the context in which data are analysed. This is followed by a discussion on information related to participants. Data analysis and interpretation is then presented. This section elaborates on the findings addressing every category or higher-order themes and sub-themes therein. The data analysis method in this study is the deductive thematic technique also referred to as theoretical thematic data analysis because categories and themes were derived from literature review as suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006). The discussion starts with the context of data analysis.

6.2 Context of Data Analysis

This section discusses the context in which data was analysed. It brings to the fore how a choice was made on the perspective of the study among the various perspectives of the changing business environment. Secondly, the section discusses the structure of the beverage market and the state of LCFs in it.

6.2.1 Choice of Study Perspective

Chapter Two discussed the forces impacting the ever-changing business environment. A pertinent definition of a business environment is provided by Kiyak and Pranckeviciute (2016) who regard it as a complex political, socio-cultural, economic and technical factor that affects businesses and their operations. These forces affecting the business environment go by the acronym, PESTE, depicting political, economic, socio-cultural, technological, and ecological. In other words, PESTE provides perspectives of a changing business environment. Ajayi (2016) explains that, a change in any of the PESTE forces results in a changing business environment. However, KPMG (2012) identified sustainable development as a contemporary mega force affecting the

business environment. They argued that sustainable development forces are most likely to increase the complexity of the business environment. Hence, in this study, PESTES is the revised acronym for forces affecting the business environment, where S stands for sustainability or sustainable development forces.

In Chapter Two, each of the forces of change was analysed with a focus on how they impact the business environment internationally, regionally, and locally. The researcher had options to develop an LCF contextualised on any or several of the PESTES forces. At the end, a choice was made to premise this study on sustainable development (S) because it is a contemporary force in its infancy. However, because SDGs are the instruments for realising the sustainable development concept in a globalised economy (Wysokinska, 2017), a leadership competence framework (LCF) was proposed to address the research problem as defined in section 1.3 of Chapter One. The research problem was that, existing LCFs in the manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe were not adequate to drive companies to contribute to the achievement of SDGs. Hence secondary research objective 2.7 aimed at developing an LCF that optimises sustainability of the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe. Another context to this research is the structure of the beverage manufacturing industry, which is discussed next.

6.2.2 Structure of the Beverage Market and State of LCFs

This section gives the structure of the beverage market and the state of LCFs under which data analysis and interpretation took place. According to Fellows and Hampton (1992) supported by Chidoko, Sakuhuni, and Mufandaedza (2015), the market for beverages the world over (including Zimbabwe), is categorised into non-alcoholic and alcoholic drinks. Figure 6.1 shows the segmentation of the beverages market.

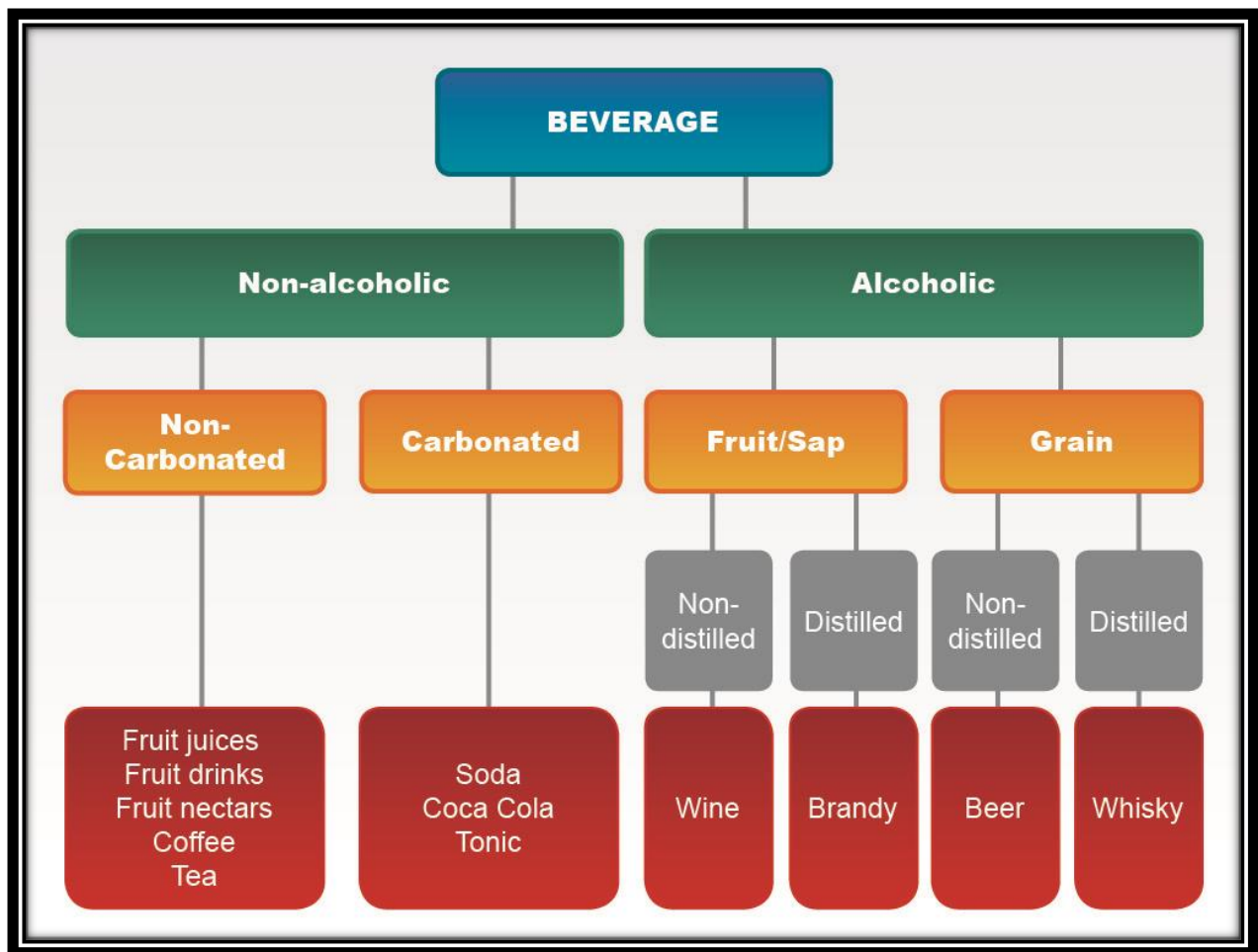


Figure 6.1: Structure of the Beverage Market

Source: Adopted from Fellows and Hampton (1992); and Chidoko, Sakuhuni, and Mufandaedza, 2015)

Figure 6.1 shows that the non-alcoholic market is made up of the non-carbonated drinks such as fruit juices, fruit drinks, fruit nectars, coffee and tea, whereas, examples of carbonated drinks are soda, coca cola and tonic water. In contrast, the alcoholic market is made up of fruit or sap and grain products. Fruit or sap produces non-distilled products such as wine, while producing distilled drinks such as brandy; grain also produces non-distilled products such as beer. In addition, grain also produces distilled products such as whisky. However, this study was not about the structure of the beverage industry, but structure is introduced here to put into perspective the industry in which sustainable development and LCF were being investigated. The importance of discussing structure manifested in the responses of some participants who referred to its components.

The dearth of academic literature on LCFs specific to the manufacturing industry revealed in Chapter Four, extended to the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe because there was no LCF in existence. This corroborated assertions in the problem statement that, the existing LCFs were not adequate to drive the sustainable development agenda in order to contribute to the achievement of SDGs. Literature suggested that an LCF should achieve the following: align individual competencies to organisational goals; align performance to organisational goals; create distinctive advantage for achieving organisational goals; and a strategic tool for change. Having provided the contextual background, the information about participants is discussed next.

The importance of this section lay in that, it provided the context under which data was analysed and interpreted. It brings an understanding of how sustainable development was chosen against other forces of change as the context for developing an LCF for the beverage manufacturing industry. Lastly, understanding the structure of the beverage market enabled the researcher to immerse into data during data collection and analysis.

6.3 Information related to the participants

This section is divided into the following three subsections, information on those that declined participation in the interviews, information on the interviews, and biographical information on participants.

6.3.1 Recommended Participants declining participation

The number of recommended participants approached and invited to take part in the interviews was twenty. Slightly less than half of the invitees declined to participate. However, the targeted sample of twelve was reached. Table 6.1 shows the profile of people who declined to participate in the interviews for various reasons.

Table 6.1: Profile of Potential Participants Who Declined the Interview

	Gender	Age (years)	Current Status	Reason for Declining
D1	Male	Above 50	CEO	Little knowledge on SDGs and felt he had no value to add
D2	Male	Above 50	CEO	Does not understand SDGs and no time to grant interviews
D3	Female	Below 40 and above 30	Operations Director	Company policy did not allow her to grant interviews
D4	Male	Below 50 and above 40	National Sales Executive	No knowledge of SDGs
D5	Male	Above 50	General Manager	Declined without providing reason
D6	Male	Above 50	General Manager	Had no time to grant interviews
D7	Male	Above 50	Director	Does not understand SDGs
D8	Male	Below 50 and above 40	Operations Executive	Questions too complicated & no time to study them

Surprisingly, more potential participants had no or little knowledge of SDGs despite having been recommended by other participants. A case in point was a recommendation from one CEO, P4 to another CEO, D1 where P4 wrote in an email that:

Dear D1,

A long-time work colleague of mine, Eliot Ruwanika who is now with FAO is doing his doctoral studies focused on the beverage industry. I have already had an interview with him, but I advised him that his doctoral research would not be complete without your input as CEO in the beverage industry in this country. May I request you to give him an hour

of your time for the interview please? I have copied Eliot so that you can respond to him as well.

With all the pleading from a fellow CEO, the invited CEO declined to participate citing non-familiarity with SDGs. Amongst the five who had no or little knowledge, D1 and D2 were CEOs of quoted companies on the Zimbabwe Stock Exchange. More surprising was that these CEOs were from companies whose published annual reports indicated that they were championing sustainability and were reporting on their successes. One of the companies clearly stated that they were championing SDGs in their strategies. A review of the companies' websites (not to be quoted for confidentiality reasons) indicated that one of the companies was doing well on global reporting initiative (GRI) standards, although not necessarily targeting SDGs, while the other company had its mission as: 'To sustainably grow the profitability and value of our businesses'.

The female, D3 who wanted to participate, but was precluded from participating due to company policy, robbed the research of gender balance and a youthful participant. In her response she referred the researcher to an email attached, after consulting her company's Public Relations department. The email from Public Relations department stated:

Hello XXX,

Our external communications policy states that, for academic research we refer to annual reports. In here is all the company information that has been approved for publication. We do not participate in research questionnaires.

The next subsection discusses information related to the actual interview process.

6.3.2 Information on the interviews

6.3.2.1 Duration of interviews

The participants were informed that the interviews were planned to take no more than 45 minutes. But it was up to the participant to manage their own time because the more they talked the more they clarified their minds, thus, bringing new insights into the discussion. Table 6.2 shows an analysis of the time taken to conduct the interviews.

Table 6.2: Interview Time Analysis

Participant Code	Time Taken in Minutes
P1	45
P2	55
P3	84
P4	61
P5	66
P6	85
P7	69
P8	84
P9	95
P10	56
P11	91
P12	78
Total	869
Mean	72
Standard Deviation	16

Only one interview was done within the 45 minutes timeframe. The longest interview took 95 minutes. The interview with participant P6 was done over two days because the interviewee had commitments which affected the start and end of the interview on the first day. The first interview covered three-quarters of the questions for 51 minutes. Yet, the last quarter of the questions took 34 minutes. The average time taken by each participant was 72 minutes. There was wide deviation from the average time per interview as depicted by the standard deviation of 16 minutes. However, there was no evidence of disparity in value of input between those who took less time and those who took longer time to respond. An analysis of the audio recordings does not show that participants who took more time responding had more valuable input than those who took less time. Since the participants were given the interview questions in advance, some decided to speak off-the-cuff, while others had talking points written down to guide

them. However, there was no evidence of disparity in value of input between those speaking off-the-cuff and those using talking points. This is corroborated by the fact that, the participant who took 45 minutes spoke off-the-cuff and articulately, whilst, the participant who took 95 minutes also spoke off-the-cuff, but digested each question before giving a response.

6.3.2.2 Data saturation

An issue of note regarding interviews was that the saturation point was reached after half of the envisaged 12 interviews were conducted and was re-confirmed after 10 interviews. The 12 were considered the maximum, enough to answer the main research question (Marshall, Cardon, Poddar, & Fontenot, 2013). However, after the saturation point was confirmed, new useful insights came from the last two participants, which added value to the research. The useful insights would not have been found if the research had been stopped at the saturation point. Next is a presentation of the biographical profiles of participants.

6.3.3 Biographical profiles of participants

Useful data came out of the profile of participants. This was related to gender, age, current job title, and status of a participant in the context of this study. Table 6.3 shows the profiles in no order.

Table 6.3: Profile of Participants

Gender	Age (years)	Current Job Title	Status in this research
Male	Above 50	CEO	Former executive
Male	Above 50	Retired CEO	Former executive
Male	Above 50	CEO	CEO
Male	Above 50	CEO	Former CEO
Male	Below 40	Divisional Executive	Executive
Male	Below 50 and above 40	CEO	CEO
Female	Above 50	Divisional Director	Executive
Male	Above 50	CEO	Non-executive
Male	Below 50 and above 40	Divisional Executive	Executive
Male	Above 50	General Manager	Executive
Male	Above 50	Divisional Director	Executive
Male	Above 50	General Manager	Executive

6.3.3.1 Gender

The researcher struggled to get female participants with only one participating. The absence of female participants could be attributed to the snowballing sampling technique used in searching for participants. Every participant was asked to suggest two potential participants who were knowledgeable in sustainable development and leadership. Most of the selected participants happened to be male. Another possible contributing factor was that, the snowballing was started by CEOs who were all male. Therefore, the issue of gender had to be coincidental. However, considering that only one woman, that is, about 8% of the sample participated in this study, this fell far short of the 18% of women who sat on the boards of directors of companies listed on the Zimbabwe Stock Exchange (ZSE) (Nyahasha, 2018). This shortcoming contradicts the National Gender Policy (NGP), where Zimbabwe adopted SDG number five: To achieve

gender equality and empower all women and girls (MoWAGCD, 2013). Among its priorities, the NGP implores the private sector to ensure equity in employment, access to resources and decision making.

6.3.3.2 Age

The age distribution was in favour of participants above 50 years constituting most participants, whilst participants in the 'above 40 and below 50' age group were the minority. The near absence of participants below 40 years, with only one participating, was indicative of lack of youth participation in senior leadership positions. Most boards of directors in Zimbabwe comprise of retired professionals; mostly men, under the mistaken belief that, experience comes with age (Sande, 2019). The lack of youth participation was against the thrust of sustainable development, which is about passing the button to future generations to enhance succession. It inhibits youth empowerment and robs top management structures of diversity. This is also against section 20 of the national constitution, which provides for effective participation of the youth in the economy (Parliament of Zimbabwe, 2013). Therefore, this field inquiry replicated what was obtaining in Zimbabwe regarding lack of youths' participation. This lack of youth participation militates against the SDGs agenda. However, all participants exhibited a fair understanding of leadership and sustainable development.

6.3.3.3 Current job title and status of participants in this research

In summary, six CEOs participated. Of these, two were serving CEOs in the beverage industry; one was a former CEO of the beverage industry and one was a former executive of the beverage industry. The other was a former executive and a retired CEO. The last one was a non-executive director in the beverage industry. The participation of the last four enriched the study in that they responded to the question giving a perspective of their current industry in addition to the beverage industry perspective. The other six participants were made up of two divisional directors, two divisional executives and two general managers. The different leadership positions held by participants were good for the research because it fulfilled an important aspect of the LCF, that is, to construct a framework of competences for both strategic and general levels of leadership. The fact that some participants were drawn from other industries, helped bringing in their experiences from other industries into this research. This input is exemplified by participants who questioned why the research was limited to the beverage industry, because in their minds the participants were oscillating between

answering the questions using current industry experience or their experience in the beverage manufacturing industry.

This section discussed information related to participants. It was important to understand why some participants declined to take part in the interviews; the majority had no knowledge of SDGs. The information on the interviews was pertinent because there was need to understand the implication on the result by the time taken to interview each participant, which revealed that there was no disparity in value of input. In addition, the interview information showed the importance of stretching beyond saturation point because new information can arise. Lastly, biographical data was necessary to put into context the background of participants. The composition of those who participated mirrored those who declined to participate. The next section discusses how the interview data was analysed and interpreted.

6.4 Data analysis and interpretation of interview data

Data analysis and interpretation followed the methodology and methods espoused in subsection 5.2.3.3, of Chapter Five. A deductive thematic data analysis method was used. Its orientation was a theoretical or top-down thematic analysis approach that rode on the research questions in Chapter One, subsection 1.4, as opposed to the inductive or bottom-up approach that rides on the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). As a result, the conceptual framework in Figure 4.9 complemented by the draft LCF in Table 4.6 and Table 4.7 in Chapter Four, provided the categories and themes applied in this data analysis. Hence, they influenced the coding of interview data. Data from each participant was represented by an alpha-numerical code. After each interview, the audio was manually transcribed for every interview. Participant data was dissected into the categories as shown in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4: Data Categories and Outputs

	Category Theme		Outputs
1	Sustainable development		Context themes
2	Development of leadership competences		Themes for developing leadership competences
3	Effective Leadership Competences	Strategic Leadership Competences	Themes for competences desirable at strategic level of leadership
		Core Leadership Competences	Themes for competences desirable at all leadership levels
		Core Values	Themes for desired organisational values
		Collaborative Leadership Competences	Themes for collaboration and teamwork
		Person-leader Competencies	Themes for competencies desirable for the person-leader
4	Considerations for Developing a LCF		Themes on what the LCF should be

The themes in black in Table 6.4 are from the draft LCF from literature, whereas the new themes stemming out of the field of inquiry are collaborative leadership competences and considerations for developing an LCF. The rest are category themes from the draft LCF from literature (Figure 4.10 in Chapter Four). However, it should be noted that the interview questions were derived from draft LCF from literature whose categories are shown in Table 6.4 because this was a deductive inquiry. During the interviews, deductive themes were confirmed or de-confirmed by participants. The data analysis presentation starts by focusing on understanding the context of sustainable development.

6.4.1 Sustainable Development

This first theme is premised on understanding sustainable development and how it is viewed in organisations. Knowledge of sustainable development is important to this study because it provided the context in which leadership competences were contemplated. Kawulich (2004) emphasises the importance of **understanding context** because it enables one to respond appropriately to the questions. This contextual theme

is identified in the conceptual framework, Figure 4.9 in Chapter Four, represented by sustainability, corroborated by ecosystems and intergenerational systems.

It was found that participants who declined to take part, reviewed the interview questions, which were dispatched together with the invitation to participate. After reviewing the questions, they declined to participate stating that they had little knowledge of sustainable development, more so on SDGs. The refusal to participate corroborated literature assertions of the importance of context in responding to questions, as exemplified by CEO D1's reply to the invitation to participate as follows:

Dear Eliot,

Thank you for the invitation to participate in your leadership in the context of SDGs research. To derive value from participants, it seems to me the participants must be familiar with SDGs. I am not very familiar. Without that context, I do not believe the research will benefit from my input.

At executive level the importance of context was also underscored by potential participant D4 who declined the invitation to participate through an email as follows:

Good afternoon Eliot.

Thanks, so much for considering me to participate in the PhD research. I feel quite humbled to have been considered for this. The topic is centred on sustainable development goals and leadership. I must admit that I am not well versed on the first part, that of sustainable development particularly as it relates to SDGs. It would be unfair to you to even attempt to respond as I feel that this is an area I still need to understand more. In fact, as I went through the questions, I noted how far I lacked information on this topic. I would have loved to participate towards your research topic.

Regrettably due to the foregoing, I am unable to assist in this instance.

Therefore, the importance of context was corroborated by the invited persons who declined to participate. In other words, without context, it is a challenge to respond to questions appropriately. In addition, this lack of knowledge of the changing business environment by the declining participants, corroborated the problem statement, which alludes to the inadequacy of the existing corporate LCFs to deal with current challenges

in the business environment, more so on their inadequacy to drive the new SDGs Agenda. However, understanding context helped the people who agreed to participate in the interviews as discussed next.

Participants understood sustainable development and the SDGs agenda in slightly varying degrees. There was a clear understanding by all participants that SDGs impact and are impacted by the corporate world. Participant P9 put this clarity into perspective stating that:

I know SDGs developed from millennium development goals (MDGs). I think at that point, which is three or four years back and beyond, it was just academic. We thought these are NGO and UN issues. But I know for a fact (that,) over the last year or two we have focused on SDGs, which we think, at least, are relevant to our industry.

The relevance of SDGs on corporates was corroborated by participant P1 who said:

We are fully aware that, although SDGs are UN-sponsored and government driven, they have impact at industry level. Corporates have a duty to contribute to poverty eradication; gender sensitivity; renewable energy; energy efficiencies; refrigeration that protects the ozone layer; environmental sustainability; compliance with ISO 14001; buying and designing equipment that contribute to sustainability; and managing profits to include designing processes that, consider sustainable development.

Although the UN wants to transform the world through partnership with the private sector, some participants believe **ownership of SDGs is still a challenge**. For example, participant P9 had the following to say:

We need a plan that engages the UN and the government. Then we need a plan of sharing resources as we set up milestones and sharing the SDGs across the industry so that we cover much ground as possible. The agenda is still very disparate, the journey to 2030 there is still disparity. There is no ownership from an industry perspective and that's a huge opportunity. In my literature review some two years back, one point that stuck in my mind was that there is no ownership. The government thinks it's the UN. The UN thinks it's the government. Then the industry thinks

we would want to contribute for sustainable profit. So, there is no ownership.

The transformation agenda will come to nothing if this lack of ownership is not resolved. What is required is for every stakeholder in SDGs to understand their role. According to the General Assembly (2015), business is classified as a major contributor to the achievement of SDGs.

Some participants buttressed their own understanding of sustainable development by defining it. For example, one CEO, participant P3 clarified his own understanding of sustainable development by stating the following:

The understanding we have in our organisation of sustainable development, is development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. It is also about promoting people, planet and profit.

In this case, the CEO brought in an aligned understanding of the Brundtland Commission definition of sustainable development (WCED, 1987), thus, bringing an **aligned perspective** to the definition. However, other participants defined it in their own terms using a **livelihoods perspective** to sustainable development. Participant P8 had this to say:

My understanding of sustainable development is that, in the process of making livelihoods, where livelihood is when people apply all the means to make a living to [by] either using their competencies and [or] available resources for them to be able to live. In the process of making livelihoods they should make sure that the natural environment or the ecosystem is preserved, such that the next generation don't get it worse than we found it. If at all, we should even enhance it and hand it over to them better.

Others used a **futuristic perspective** to define sustainable development, with participant P12 arguing that:

Here, we are saying the world is not just for today, but the world must be there tomorrow, and a better world must be there tomorrow for future generations. For us what legacy are we leaving? So, we are looking at a

better world ever improving towards better social welfare, better environmental impacts, better economic welfare, and inclusivity.

There was also a **responsible management perspective** in some definitions provided by participants. In arguing for responsible management in managing the environment, participant P5 had the following to say:

We have a responsibility as current citizens of the world to ensure that as we do our day to day activities, be it in business, farming or in our communities, we are also mindful of the fact that, there will be future citizens. Therefore, whatever we do today must ensure that we guarantee a future for the next generation. From a business perspective, profit must be obtained responsibly in a sustainable manner.

However, participant P10 put responsible management compactly stating that: “As we do our business, there should be a sense of responsibility and to do so with minimum harm to the environment so that we safeguard the environment for future generations”.

Others narrated some of the SDGs to demonstrate their understanding. Thus, providing a **SDGs perspective** to the understanding. In this regard, participant P4 said,

My understanding goes back to the decision by the United Nations to identify the 17 SDGs as they call them, which ought to be a template to guide leaders whether they are in the public or private sector as they go about the business of running their organisations. Essentially, sustainable development is about looking into the future so that we have a better world in every respect and in a lot of diverse areas.

The varying definitions given by participants is testimony that there was no consensus on the definition of sustainable development. This corroborates literature assertions that the term sustainable development had complicated many-sided characters (Gainullina, 2016) and was a difficult concept to define (Ozturk, Olgan, & Guler, 2012).

Whilst participants alluded to SDGs being UN, government and NGO driven, none of them mentioned the existence of ZimASSET, a Zimbabwean perspective of SDGs discussed in Chapter Two, which prioritised ten SDGs for Zimbabwe. Neither did anyone mention the local chapter of the United Nations Development Assistance Framework

(ZUNDAF), which sets the local SDGs agenda (ZUNDAF, 2016). This means that the beverage manufacturing industry was not paying attention to the local changing business environment, but was fully aware of the global trends. This lack of synchronisation manifests itself in that, while the Zimbabwean government was targeting 10 SDGs, the beverage manufacturing industry was targeting every other SDGs as they considered necessary. Judging by the responses of beverage manufacturing industry captains, the third force (business), is not integrated into the local agenda despite the existence of the Business Council for Sustainable Development Zimbabwe (BCSDZ). Furthermore, the evaluation report of ZUNDAF implementation covering the period 2016 – 2018 shows that, the private sector involvement is not among the priorities of the government of Zimbabwe, despite it being mentioned as a major contributor to the achievement of the SDGs agenda (Chiwara, Turugari, & Mpofu, 2019). There is a need to ensure that government puts involvement of the private sector among its priorities. To avoid such misjudgment; government needs to implement all the SDGs. Thus, the foregoing indicates that sustainable development was understood with reference to its impact and relevance to the organisation.

To demonstrate how sustainable development was viewed in their organisations, participant P4 was very cautious and stated that:

We are very much at the beginning of the cycle, if I may say so. We don't consider ourselves as advanced. But at least we are aware of what SDGs are and we are conscious of the need for measuring ourselves against those SDGs.

However, it is the researcher's view that, the CEO's response focused more on how many of the SDGs the company had taken on board as opposed to the intensity of focus on sustainable development. Some participants cited their company's association with reputable organisations. Participant P3 boasted:

My organisation is a member of the Business Council for Sustainable Development in Zimbabwe (BCSDZ) and a franchised bottler

These assertions were made to give credence to the company's belief that they were top of the class in corporate sustainability because of their association with these two bodies, thus, providing an **association perspective** to sustainable development.

Others gave a **practical perspective** of the actions their organisations were taking in responding to the SDGs agenda. There was no consensus on which, SDGs were applicable to the beverage manufacturing industry as participant P11 explained:

My organisation has embraced SDGs by selecting what is applicable to its own circumstance such as gender equality; health and well-being of employees; water usage; sustainable manufacturing; and climate change.

In this case, P11 was suggesting a **selective approach** to SDGs implementation. However, to show how their organisation took corporate sustainability seriously by creating a sustainability function in organisational structure, P12 said,

We have a full-time Sustainability Manager responsible for overseeing our sustainability initiatives across our business.

Other participants argued for taking strategic actions as a stepping-stone to driving an SDGs agenda at corporate level. Participant P10 said:

If you look at our strategic plan, we have said we want to be a forceful good in the communities and environments that we operate. We have set ourselves on a journey that recognises that our activities have a negative impact in many cases of the environment. Therefore, we must take mitigating measures to ensure that as we do our business we do so in a sustainable manner.

This **strategic perspective** of sustainable development was corroborated by another participant (P6) who internationalised it by stating that,

Sustainability has become a core element of the business strategy. It is now entrenched in the companies' strategic decisions; it is discussed at companies' board level; it is now an agenda at board meetings; and companies are even hiring or making investments in decisions in sustainable development.

There was also a **resource management perspective** in viewing sustainable development in companies as argued by one participant (P7) that:

Management must understand that the resource they are using is finite and it must be used in a manner at best to replenish that resource. Whilst, at the same time, managing the waste created by such a process.

There was also the **imperative perspective** of sustainable development in the corporate world. This was coined by one participant (P6) who argued that:

Sustainable development is now an imperative for business and can no longer be ignored; it is the reason why people work every day, with green jobs being the sustainable way of creating jobs; making a difference in people's lives; taking people out of poverty because poverty is dehumanising; prevents social exclusion; consideration of ecological risks; and a nexus between the environment and economic development.

Then there was the **social licensing perspective** of sustainable development for business organisations. Participants unanimously agreed that, for a company to operate sustainably, its activities must be accepted by the community in which it is operating. As one participant (P9) argued intensely:

In our industry, sustainable development is a social licence to operate that has led us to look at SDGs. We have also expanded these to look beyond the factory and the customers we do business with to go into the wider community. That is where our sustainable elements then come in, our social licence to operate. We know for a fact that; we cannot have a sustainable industry if the market is not there. The market comes from a sustainable environment, where you have the consumers who are healthy, prosperous and driving the economy, so that we have a middle class and an upper class that is able to consume our beverages. That is our understanding that, we need to be sustainable from a strategic perspective; and sustainable in the community, going back to supporting our industry.

The social licence perspective incorporates what some participants referred to as 'a favour to operate'. One executive, participant P12 had the following to say:

The organisation is part of the community and what a favour to be running this organisation in the community. So, serve the community and serve the

world in which you are operating, where the (our) children will be operating tomorrow.

The foregoing discussion on understanding sustainable development and how it is viewed in the beverage manufacturing industry brings new perspectives of looking at sustainable development. These are summarised into two categories namely: definitions, where participants gave meaning to sustainable development; and an organisational view, where participants explained how sustainable development was perceived in their companies as shown in Table 6.5.

Table 6.5: Sustainability Categorises and their Perspectives

Category	Perspectives
Definitions	Brundtland Commission definition
	Livelihoods
	Futuristic
	Responsible management
	SDGs
Organisational View	Association
	Selective approach
	Strategic approach
	Creating a sustainability function
	Embedding sustainability into strategy
	Resource management
	Imperative approach
	Social licensing

The different perspectives provided in the definition of sustainable development in Table 6.5 add to the diverse understanding of sustainable development alluded to in the literature by Gainullina (2016). This means that the lack of consensus in the way sustainable development is defined, understood, and viewed, continues. This is corroborated by one participant, P2 who said that,

Sustainable development is a complex term. Very few people understand it so well. It is a scenario that has been evolving over the years. When you

think you understand it, then someone comes up with something new to make it a little more complex.

The thrust by the UN General Assembly (2015) on agreeing on the SDGs Agenda 2030 is an attempt to bring clarity and unity of purpose on sustainable development. However, this study adds clarity to business's understanding of sustainable development from a beverage manufacturing perspective. According to General Assembly (2015), the corporate world is defined as partners to sustainable development. This partnership label does not confer ownership of SDGs to the corporate world. A fitting label is to define the corporate world as stakeholders in sustainable development. Classifying corporates as stakeholders bring that needed sense of ownership and remove misunderstandings such as that alluded to by participant P9, who initially thought that SDGs are a UN and Non-Governmental Organisational agenda, which had nothing to do with the corporate world.

On the organisational view, two important contributions from participants that add to the SDGs Agenda are the enterprise social licensing perspective and embedding sustainability into the business strategy. These two contributions should be integrated into the SDGs agenda. The social licensing perspective means the activities of the company must be accepted by the community where it is operating whereas, embedding sustainability into strategy as a core element of the business strategy integrates corporates with sustainable development. Hence, business needs to understand SDGs because sustainable development is the new mega force driving the changing business environment internationally and locally (KPMG, 2012). The fact that some leaders do not have a holistic understanding of sustainable development as the change in the business environment, should put to question their ability to lead such big organisations. The field inquiry corroborated literature findings in Chapter Two, where it was established that SDGs integrate the political, economic, social, technological and ecological (PESTE) forces of change and bring everyone on board, with the mantra, "no one will be left behind", namely all governments, the private sector, global institutions, civil society and citizens (Nicolai, Hoy, Berliner, & Aedy, 2015, p. 12). Therefore, without understanding SDGs, business can be a casualty and "will be left behind".

In this category, the importance of context is underscored. The context in this study was premised on understanding sustainable development as defined by SDGs. Once there

was understanding of SDGs, the appropriate responses were provided by the participants that contributed to the development of the LCF for a sustainable beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe. Hence, SDGs should form part of a toolkit for assisting in understanding sustainable development. While, sustainable development should be embedded in the business strategy, enterprise social licensing would determine the company's existence. The foregoing will assist in ensuring that business is not regarded as a partner to sustainable development but a stakeholder. Context was also important in the development of leadership competences discussed next.

6.4.2 Development of Leadership Competences

This second theme focuses on how to develop leadership competences to optimise sustainable beverage manufacturing. The theme is important to the study because leadership competences need to be developed that respond to a business environment premised on sustainable development. This theme is identified in the conceptual framework in Chapter Four, Figure 4.9 in the form of the “develop” pillar and relates to the development of skills, knowledge, behaviour and attitudes.

The need to develop leadership competences for a sustainable beverage manufacturing industry is corroborated by participants in the next subsection where there is consensus that existing leadership competences were not effective. These participants' views are supported by literature assertions (Ayeleke et al., 2016; MacDonald, 2013; Peterlin et al., 2015; Timmer et al., 2008). This category focuses on two developmental areas namely: development of organisational leadership competences; and development of person-leader competencies.

6.4.2.1 Developing Organisational Leadership Competences

Participant P8 made a representational statement concerning the process of how leadership competences can be developed to optimise sustainable development in response to the SDGs agenda. However, because of the length of the response, the statement is summarised as follows:

We need to clearly define, which goals are key to the company; set minimum standards to be met on each goal; learn and develop; set specific training for the set standards; and inculcate a culture of ownership of the sustainability agenda.

At **macro level**, the need to have **one national dialogue** was identified. Participant P3 summed up the one national dialogue initiative as follows:

With a lot of the dialogue, [that] I find taking place, there is a lot of dialogue amongst specialists in the subject and dedicated organisations. But I think it needs to be broadened. There is need for an opportunity for one conversation that includes all the economic actors: the private sector, the government, the non-state actors, to really have one dialogue, one conversation and figure out how we can coordinate efforts perhaps more effectively.

Participant P3, supported national dialogue stating that:

Let's bring down the dialogue on SDGs and climate change because currently it's at 30 000 feet above. The challenge to all practitioners and stakeholder is: how do we make it accessible to the common man [person] to get it and to understand their role and what impact it can have? I think it's still a discussion among the elites. So, how do we popularise it and simplify it so that everybody gets it and the role that they can play?

Some participants felt the need to **inculcate a sustainability culture**, which will be the bedrock where competences will be rooted. The need for a sustainability culture was clearly stated by participant P2 who argued that:

There is need to inculcate this [SDGs agenda] into the culture of the organisation. It must be part and parcel of the way people live and work in their organisation, their business practices and processes. It must be part and parcel of the espoused long-term strategic goals of the organisation. If we do that, then it becomes self-replicating and will keep happening long after today's people are gone.

An important aspect of inculcating a culture of sustainability is the need for **conscience development** as advocated by participant P12 who described the process in the organisation of developing a sustainability culture as follows:

The leadership has been educated around the attitude that says, doing right is right. So, when the value base is correct, now people understand

purpose, the next thing is to say, what are the competences necessary to drive this agenda? Now we all agree that we must do it [sustainability], then it's imbedded in our values system.

Other participants suggested that, after creating a sustainability culture anchored on values, the focus should be on **clearly identifying relevant SDGs**, which the organisation must pursue. Participant P8 captured the mood of other participants by stating that:

From the controlling bodies, there is need for a clear definition of specifications that have to be met in terms of sustainability for each organisation. There are those [SDGs] that are core for the organisation and also those that are related because in my view, these, they work hand in hand. You can't just separate them. There are those that are really at the centre and those that are peripheral, but they do contribute. Each company has to meet specific standards.

Once, the relevant SDGs were identified, most participants spoke of the need for **capacity building** to ensure that leadership is up to date with the sustainable development agenda. Participant P6 made the following representational statement in support of capacity building at corporate level:

Capacity building of corporate leaders is something that should be happening regularly. What I have seen in many of the companies' CEOs, managing directors or general managers, is that once they reach the top, some of them are not keen to **keep learning**. That is very dangerous because then you can be stuck in the 1970s. You can see a person like me, I am very young but an elder in sustainable development because this is where the world is going. So, we need leaders to be dynamic and have access to training. So, they [leaders] should have delivery programs in their companies. They should take advantage of programs such as **sustainable development management**, corporate social responsibility, environmental management systems, like your ISO 14000. Capacity development should include **continuous professional development**. The other issues are **networking** and **benchmarking** using methods such as exchange programs, study tours and replication of technology. If

you are not exposed your imagination is limited. So, through these exchange platforms, and through networking and knowledge exchange you learn what other companies are doing.

To add to capacity building, participant P4 suggested that:

We need more **education** as corporates. In my organisation we need to bring people who are knowledgeable about this to talk to management in the same way that we talk about resource allocation, resource management, financial management, and human resource management of talent.

On the importance of **learning from the best**, participant P6 quoted Unilever and Olam International as companies whose leadership competences for sustainable development are very high internationally. P6 had the following to say:

In terms of sustainability leadership, you may want to look at the sustainable living plan that was developed by Unilever..... When you look at Olam and when you look at Unilever, these companies have demonstrated that leadership for sustainable development can work locally.

Participant P6 urged the researcher to review websites of these two companies for further information. The researcher reviewed the websites and found that the two companies have imbedded sustainable development in their visions and strategies. UNILEVER states that: Our vision is a new way of doing business – one that delivers growth by serving society and the planet (Unilever, 2019). OLAM's is stated thus: Our vision is to deliver a triple positive impact in the places where we source and grow our products (Olam, 2019).

The need for **institutional vehicles**, which would drive capacity development was suggested by participant P5 who said that:

We should also look at some of the interventions that can come through business organisations like CZI (Confederation of Zimbabwe Industries); Business Council for Sustainable Development (BCSDZ); ZNCC (Zimbabwe National Chamber of Commerce); and bodies of such nature,

can play a very huge part. They have such huge membership and through their fora and conferences, they can also take that opportunity to ensure that competences are passed on.

In the foregoing, participants advocated the development of an organisational culture anchored on sustainability values as a starting point. This should be followed by **development of core leadership competences** as argued by participant P9 who averred that:

For you to get there [SDGs target], you will have to start with the right core competences. If you have the right (core) competences, you are then structured and tooled adequately to apply that knowledge into long-term. That's the way people develop in any area or industry. It's core competences first, the wider they are the more you are able to apply them into strategic decisions. I find it very difficult to appoint people into strategic levels that don't have the right grounding at core-competence level.

The core competence approach confirms literature outcomes in Chapter Three that leadership does not only reside at the top but is also found at various levels of the organisation. Participant P10 corroborates this by stating that:

Leadership is not only simply top leadership. I am from the school that says **everybody is a leader**..... So, I believe in an organisation that has leaders at various levels. Obviously, there will be transitioning from management to leadership as you go up.

Pertinent themes that can be deduced from the preceding discourse are in bold font. These themes are essential for the development of organisational leadership competences. They are summarised in Table 6.6 next.

Table 6.6: Themes for Developing Organisational Leadership Competences

Theme	Components/characteristics
External and internal dialogue	National; industry or company
Culture change	Sustainable development culture; and conscience development
Capacity building	Keep learning; and learning from the best
Programs for developing leadership competences	Sustainable development leadership; networking; and benchmarking
Channels for developing leadership competences	Institutional vehicles (CZI & BCSDZ); board meetings; in-house staff development; and benchmarking visits

Source: Compiled by researcher

The themes in Table 6.6 should contribute to a holistic program for the development of leadership competences suitable for a sustainable manufacturing industry. Next is a discussion on the development of person-leader competences.

6.4.2.2 Developing Person-Leader Competencies

Most participants identified **training** as a starting point in amplifying person-leader competencies. Participant P4 represented the thinking of the majority stating that:

I think it's a multi-dimensional approach. My preferred way is that, nothing beats taking leaders from their own immediate setting and putting them in a situation where they have a different learning environment. This can be achieved in different ways such as sending them away on training programs. Our company has done that consciously over the last couple of years.

A number of training programs were proposed by participants to amplify the person-leader competencies. Participant P1 had this to say:

I think starting leadership training at an early age and making people **aware** at an early age; that's the only way you can amplify. But **new leaders** who are coming up should be aware of what it means to achieve

those SDGs. Training must start at all levels in our organisation. It must be **institutionalised**. It must be a new way of doing things in the organisation.

Participant P6 added a business case training dimension stating that:

I think for leaders, what will be critical is for them to know the **business case for sustainability**. To say, how does sustainable development actually save my organisation? How can I reduce costs? How can I save money out of it? These are the things that people want to know.

Once training was provided, most participants agreed that the next stage of amplifying person-leader competencies was **development**. To this end, participant P3 suggested that:

I also believe that, for instance, we have a series of associates going through what we call a **management development training program**, I think it's also time to review the curriculum that we have, to include an awareness on SDGs.

Meanwhile, participant P2 suggested: "**continual learning and continual improvement**"; make it part and parcel of the culture that, people value **learning and self-improvement**", while participant P4 spoke of programs, which they undertake in their organisation that can be replicated in the SDGs environment stating that:

We **second people** to other situations. To take them out of their operating environments to other countries to work with other teams. It destabilises their comfort zone, puts them in a different setting, where they have to be part of different teams and allows them to grow very, very rapidly. Secondly, we have what we call **benchmarking visits** to other countries, in groups of people. To give an example, we have taken groups of managers, from top leaders, middle managers to sales personnel to different markets on a tour to experience what is happening in other countries. When they come back, they do a review of the whole visit on what they have learnt, which can help them in the organisation.

The next pillar for amplifying person-leader competencies was **culture change**. This was advocated by participant P2 who argued that: “We must **make SDGS part of our organisational culture**”. In other words, there is need for culture change in response to the SDGs agenda, to which participant P1 added:

It [SDGs] must be the way of doing things of the organisation. To institutionalise leadership competencies, it means leadership must not only be at the top; everybody must understand the direction and the vision of the organisation.

Another aspect of culture change was mentioned by participant P5, who said: “Leaders must always do **self-introspection** of their strength and build on them; whilst at the same time doing a gap analysis and then look for mentorship.

The last pillar of amplifying leadership competencies alluded to by some participants was **performance management**. Using own company’s performance management model, participant P5 said: “We do it so well here. Every six months, we do a formal Bacal performance review. In there, is a competencies section, where gaps can be identified and worked on”. In addition, participant P6 suggested some **motivational aspects**, stating that:

We need to motivate leaders. How we motivate them is through other external factors like providing incentives for sustainable development (initiatives).

To cap the discussion on performance management, participant P8 gave a different perspective to amplify the competencies through **acknowledgement** saying:

You know the way the performance of those competencies is acknowledged, if I am doing the right thing, and people don’t acknowledge it, eventually, I will stop doing it. Because I don’t think it’s the right thing to do. But, if you passed on a comment like hey, you have done a great job. How did you communicate that message? You know you have inspired me to do it and then I am (propelled to) amplifying it. So, I think the way we acknowledge and the way we notice as we perform and give **feedback** is critical in my view for people to then blossom.

In conclusion, Table 6.7 summarises the foregoing into pillars and programs for developing person-leader competencies.

Table 6.7: Pillars and Programs for Developing Person-Leader Competencies

Pillar	Programs
Training	Awareness of SDGs; new staff induction programs; case studying of success stories; and advancing business case for SDGs
Development	Management development programs with SDGs module; continuous self-improvement on sustainable development; secondments; and benchmarking visits.
Cultural Change	Institutionalise SDGs; and self-introspection
Performance Management	Include SDG objectives and targets; provide incentives for attaining SDG target; and feedback and acknowledgement for SDG performance

Source: Compiled by researcher

The pillars and programs in Table 6.7 should be considered when designing a structured program for developing person-leader competencies. This can be undertaken in conjunction with generic methods such as mentorship, coaching and counselling. However, there is need for an evaluation criterion to monitor the program (Rowold, 2014). According to Timmer, Buckler and Creech (2008), the advent of sustainable development has brought about the need to upscale the training of sustainable development leaders. The scarcity of sustainable development leadership was corroborated by IoDSA (2012, p. 2) which stated that

As the business model changes to include a broader view of the company's place in society, the need to be accountable to a diverse group of stakeholders and take responsibility for common ecological capital arises.

To conclude this category, an integrated developmental framework for organisational leadership competences and person-leader competencies based on the foregoing is shown in Figure 6.2 next.

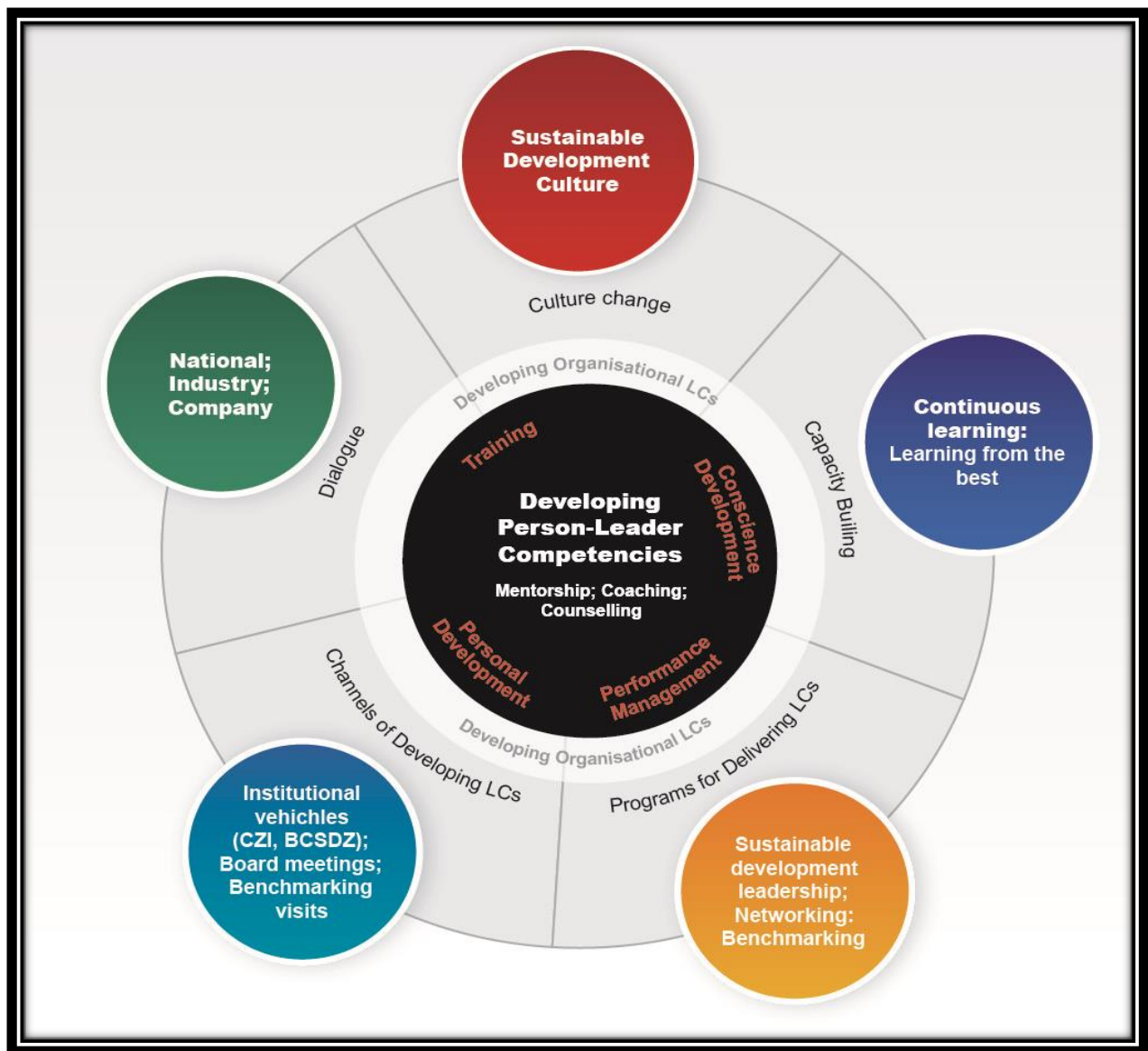


Figure 6.2: The Integrated Leadership Competences Development Wheel

Source: Compiled by researcher

From Figure 6.2 the inner part of the wheel represents the development of person leader competencies and the outer part represents the institutional development of leadership competences. The cogs represent the components that drive the process of developing leadership competences both at organisational and personal levels of leadership.

Important outcomes in this theme on the development of leadership competences are that the development should start at the highest level of the organisational structure to facilitate a cascading effect in the organisation. Second, it should lead to a leadership competence framework that is grounded in sustainable development values that are a strong foundation for leadership competences. Third, participants corroborated literature

findings in setting out the order in which the leadership competences should be developed. Last, the theme contributes to literature, a framework for the development of leadership competences suitable for a sustainable beverage manufacturing industry. Next is a discussion on what effective leadership competences should be.

6.4.3 Effective Leadership Competences

This third theme focuses on determining leadership competences that are effective for sustainable beverage manufacturing. The theme is central to this study because it assists in identifying key leadership competences that should drive sustainable manufacturing. It is derived from the base structure of Figure 4.9 in Chapter Four. According to the literature review in Chapter Four, effective leadership competences are determined by the context such as competences for project leadership (Mazibuko, Tait, & Jowah, 2015); leadership competences for a globally competitive Thai hospitality industry (Weerakit & Beeton, 2018); competences for global leadership (Kim & McLean, 2015); and core leadership competences for successful corporate growth (Van Beek & Grachev, 2010). The different contexts suggest that effective leadership competences are contingent upon the situation as argued by Van Beek and Grachev (2010). Hence, the orientation of this study where contingency/situational leadership was found suitable for this study as the most adaptable in a changing business environment both internally and externally (Figure 4.9 in Chapter Four). Following the foregoing reasoning, this category also integrates understanding or lack of understanding of sustainable development with the existing leadership competences practiced in organisations. In this case, sustainable development is the context in which effective leadership competences are contemplated. Hence, the need for leadership competences that drive sustainable beverage manufacturing. In determining effective leadership competences, the section will analyse existing leadership competences; desired strategic leadership competences; desired core leadership competences; desired core values; desired collaborative leadership competences; and desired person leader competences.

6.4.3.1 Existing Leadership Competences

According to the problem statement for this study, it was averred that existing corporate leadership competence frameworks (LCFs) were inadequate to deal with current challenges in the business environment and were viewed as being inadequate to drive the new Sustainable Development Goals Agenda. Hence, it is necessary to establish the effectiveness of existing leadership competences in the beverage manufacturing

industry. Table 6.8 shows how the participants viewed the effectiveness of existing leadership competences in the context of SDGs.

Table 6.8: Responses to Effectiveness of Existing Leadership Competences

Theme	Participant Number	Response
Need to upscale existing leadership competences	P1	Need to upscale the existing competences
	P6	Need to upscale the leadership competences
	P12	Need to upscale the existing leadership competences
Existence of gaps	P4	Not happy with own competences
	P5	Wide gap between current and desired competences
	P7	SDGs not mainstreamed in own organisation
	P9	SDGs not integrated with competences
Areas where competences existed	P2	Effective although continuously learning
	P3	Companies with international and regional linkages were performing better than those without
	P8	Competences were a mixed bag
	P10	There is room for improvement
	P11	Competences existed only in areas that contribute to profit

From Table 6.8, most participants expressed in different terms, the inadequacy of the existing leadership competences to drive the SDGs agenda. The responses in Table 6.8 are grouped into three sub-themes namely, need to upscale existing leadership competences; the existence of gaps; and areas where competences existed.

6.4.3.1.1 Need to Upscale Existing Leadership competences

Several participants expressed the **need to upscale the existing leadership competences**. For example, participant P6 argued that:

In terms of leadership for sustainable development, a lot of work still needs to be done at top levels, particularly when we look at the private

sector. Many leaders have been drilled, developed and trained in terms of how they can run the business as a viable entity, focusing on the profitability of the business. Is the bottom line being reached, is the balance sheet healthy, is the company making profits? It's only in recent years when corporate leadership has realised that they cannot go anywhere without sustainable development. Therefore, the level of awareness of sustainable development is rising but is still very low at the corporate level.

P6's expression was important in that there was synchronisation of awareness of sustainable development with leadership competences. In other words, one can only develop competences when there is **awareness of the context**, in this case sustainable development. This corroborates literature assertions that situations/contexts create different leadership styles. As argued by Bairantus and Agapitou (2016), leadership competences are the basic building blocks that are enablers of effective leadership. Hence, without contextualised competences, leadership is not effective. At the macro level, there was consensus among participants that **knowledge and awareness** of the SDGs was a key starting point in the development of leadership competences. This is how participant P3 puts the point aptly:

Firstly, it is about building awareness. It's part of what the Business Council for Sustainable Development in Zimbabwe (BCSDZ) seeks to promote that knowledge and understanding of the sustainability agenda of how [as] private sector we can act in ways that [clarify] what role we have to play in realising our, for instance, national goals, [and] our contributions. I don't think there has been sufficient education and information relating to our national commitment on say emissions.

Whereas, at the **micro level**, most participants believed that knowledge and awareness of SDGs must start at **strategic level** of the organisation. On this, participant P5, argued that:

I think it (knowledge and awareness) really needs to start at the top. If board members of every company ask for progress of SDGs from their executives, it's goanna (going to) force their executives to start to really dig deeper into what is actually required for them to be able to say, this is

the progress we are doing. Therefore, they will then be able to engage some of the parties and partners who can actually come and help in terms of some of this competence-building.

However, some participants cautioned against **artificial knowledge and awareness** of SDGs, which is found in companies performing **ritual sustainability reporting**. Participant P8 captured well the wrong intentions of such companies as follows:

At the moment there is a requirement for a sustainability report in the annual reports by companies, especially public companies. But the way I view those is that (sic), they are being done as a routine. They are not done as an integrated part of the business. It's like we have done our business, we have made our profits, and we have done all this. So, what do we say in terms of sustainability?

6.4.3.1.2 Existence of Gaps

Some participants confirmed the **gap between desired competences and the current competences**. Participant P4 argued that business leaders in Zimbabwe and Africa at large do not have the right competences for the SDGs era. Participant P4 acknowledged shortcomings as follows:

We are very much at the beginning of the (SDGs Agenda) cycle, if I may say so. We don't consider ourselves as very advanced. At least we are aware of what SDGs are and we are conscious of the need for us to be measuring ourselves against those SDGs. You ask me if I am happy with our competences. No! We are very much at the beginning.

At national and Africa level participant P4 had the following to say:

My reading, as someone who interacts with a lot of corporate leaders, is that the awareness is just not there. The competences are not there. It's a hit and miss operation, if I may put it that way. It's not well coordinated, it's not strategic. So, a lot of work needs to be done.

Participant P5 validated this gap in terms of the presence of leadership competences for an SDGs driven environment stating that:

My view is that, we still have a big gap in terms of leadership understanding about these SDGs. I know in certain areas people talk about water, talk about energy and now they talk about gender equality. But I think from a whole system of SDGs and the implications they have in terms of the future, I would say that there is still a huge gap. You will see that, of late, public companies have started talking about sustainability in their financials. It is now starting to have them to rethink and understand the trend in that area. But on average I would say, an average leader in our country is still not aware of some of these things (SDGs).

6.4.3.1.3 Areas Where Competences Existed

Whilst there was an acknowledgement of the **competency gaps**, there was a general perception that companies with international linkages performed better, although there was room for improvement. In this regard, participant P10 summed it up as follows:

To summarise is to say, there is awareness in (Name of company). We have driven this awareness as leadership and also because we are part of these incredible (international) systems. That at least there is awareness. Hey, but you know in terms of... could we make this better? Could everybody have an understanding of the sustainable development goals as they are, what are they? I think there is more that we can do to drive this (Agenda).

This suggestion by P10 means a much deeper understanding of the SDGs context is required beyond awareness.

While some participants boasted about the sustainability performance of companies with international or regional linkages, others felt that local companies without such linkages had little motivation for contributing to the SDGs agenda. For example, participant P3 diplomatically castigated companies without such links as a let-down to the sustainability agenda at local level, arguing that:

Amongst many Zimbabwean companies, if they are purely local and operating in the local environment, I think there is significantly lower awareness level on the importance of sustainable development goals or their relevance. Even on how that business can contribute in some way,

there is a much lower level. As you get to the kind of small and medium enterprise sector, I think there is even a kind of ignorance and indifference if anything. Probably a tendency to act in ways that probably hinder the achievement of those goals.

However, participant P11, rebuffed the effectiveness illusion based on international linkages thereby exposing an **element of hypocrisy** arguing that:

As a broad comment, what I have found is that, yes we have got the SDGs, but what I have noticed in organisations generally is, in as much as we are said to be partners, there is no clear mandate to the SDGs as long as you don't see the profit element coming out of that initiative. It's normally driven from: are we going to save money, are we going to make money. If we talk about the issue of water, water for a beverage industry is money. Can you imagine a beer without water or a soft drink without water? So, the issue of water, because of the impact it will have on the profitability of the organisation, it's an issue that definitely we have developed competences to manage that aspect, because we do realise the criticality of it to the business. There is a business case for water.

Surprisingly, whilst some participants were boasting of the sustainability performance of companies with international and regional linkages, it transpired that none of these companies had **mainstreamed SDGs in their strategic plans** as acknowledged by participant P7 who had the following to say:

I would not profess to say, in our strategic planning process, we flash sustainable development goals and tick them. We don't sit, to be honest, and go through the 15 [17] UN agency goals [SDGs]. That would be a business in its own right. I think the view we take is, within our own government, there should be institutions whose function is to take that and put it into the appropriate law. Then business can work profitably still within constraints defined by those goals.

But some participants took a **mixed-view perspective** of the effectiveness of leadership competences even for those companies with international linkages. Participant P8 argued that:

My view when I look at the current competences, I would say it's a mixed-bag. When it comes to producing a product, I see the competences are there. When it comes to other areas that contribute to the overall societal survival of the ecosystem, I find that there is some wanting on those areas.

Whilst participants confirmed the need to upscale existing competences and the need to close the gap between existing and desired competences, other participants confirmed that there are areas where leadership competences existed that responded to the SDGs driven environment, although there were reservations on their effectiveness. The assertions confirm literature findings and the problem statement that existing leadership competences are inadequate to drive sustainable manufacturing. The importance of establishing effective leadership competences was summed by participant P11 who said:

I have found the interview interesting because it enabled me to **reflect** on my own leadership capabilities and the gaps of knowledge that I have.

The foregoing suggests that effectiveness of leadership competences cannot be measured without context, hence, the need to go beyond just being aware of sustainable development to a full understanding of the SDGs agenda. This should be made possible by mainstreaming SDGs into the business strategy. However, companies must avoid the hypocritical approach where focus is only on SDGs that have a profit element. In addition, participants dwelt on the effectiveness of existing leadership competences in their companies in an effort to determine desired leadership competences. Thus, participants corroborated literature findings that existing leadership competences were ineffective to drive the beverage industry into contributing to the achievement of SDGs. Therefore, the rest of the following subsections that discuss effective leadership competences focus on desired strategic leadership competences; core leadership competences; core values; collaborative leadership competences; and person-leader competencies.

6.4.3.2 Desired Strategic Leadership Competences

This subcategory focuses on determining leadership competences that are desired at a strategic level of leadership. This theme is identified in the conceptual framework, Figure 4.9 in Chapter Four, represented by the strategic leadership competences pillar. Five

key strategic leadership competences were identified in Chapter Four, Figure 4.10. The five competences are presencing; intergenerational systemic behaviour; reflexivity; stakeholder engagement; and strategic awareness. Participants' views were sought on these competences in a deductive manner. However, new themes arose from the field study in an inductive manner and are discussed separately. The discussion starts with themes from the draft LCF from literature.

6.4.3.2.1 Themes/Strategic Leadership Competences from the Draft LCF from Literature

There was consensus among participants in confirming all the five strategic leadership competences in Figure 4.10 in Chapter Four. Therefore, discussion continues with participants' views on the five themes from the draft LCF, Figure 4.10 in Chapter Four, starting with presencing.

Presencing

All participants supported presencing as a strategic competence. Participant P5 summed the general feeling of the rest of the participants on presencing by arguing that:

It [presencing] is almost like the antenna of the business. If the antenna is picking up the wrong signals, it can lead us into danger. So, precisely it is a very important competence to have. Especially more so, if we are talking about guaranteeing a better future for our generations to come. That ability to be able to presence and therefore, be able to bring it into actual (sic) today, and be part of the future, can be sound.

Some participants cautioned on the **dilemmas** associated with presencing. In this regard, participant P4 had the following to say:

My own take on presencing is that there are several dilemmas. The first one is that you cannot presence if you focus too much on the present. So, one is looking at a balance between focus on the past, focus on the present, and a focus on the future. Now, those three have different kinds of demands on strategic leaders. If the leaders are very much focused on the past, and they're always kind of leading in a rear-view mirror perspective, then, presencing doesn't happen because you are projecting the future based on what has happened in the past.

Several participants were encountering the term **presencing for the first time**. In spite of this first encounter, participants agreed that presencing fitted well as a strategic competence. Participant P9 represented this group with the following statement:

It's a new word for me but I think that's what separates good strategies from not so good strategies. I think it comes naturally. Some people are good at sensing, seeing, understanding and deducing what the environment is saying. Then postulating a destination from what they see..... It's a huge tool to have. I have a weakness because I write-off people that cannot presence.

In conclusion, there was consensus that, presencing was an essential competence at the strategic level of leadership. This importance is confirmed in the conceptual framework, Figure 4.9 in Chapter Three, where it is an interconnector. Participants corroborated literature assertions that presencing, as an antenna, allowed visualisation and then enabled vision to come into being. Hence, presencing creates futuristic behaviours in a pragmatic way. The good thing about the outcome here was that, participants who were hearing the term presencing for the first time made meaningful contributions. There was need to develop modelling technologies in the like form of geographic information systems (GIS), remote sensing; or early warning systems to enhance presencing as suggested by participant P6. However, there was a need to understand the dilemmas brought about by presencing such as the need to anticipate future actions without necessarily spending too much time on the past or to be overwhelmed by the present, especially in turbulent times as suggested by participant P4. These views from participants mirror the essence of presencing in U theory by Scharmer (2007) depicted by Figure 3.3 in Chapter Three referring to “letting go” the past. Participant’s (P10) suggestion of dreaming, revelation, wisdom, gutfeel and trends synthesis skills under presencing, should be regarded as key elements of actualising future possibilities because they resonate with U theory. This is so because Scharmer and Kaufer (2013) averred that to enable “letting come” the future, one should have an open mind, open heart and open will to be able to actualise future possibilities (Figure 3.3). Hence, Dyck and Greidanus (2017) established a relationship between quantum theory, sustainable development theory and U-theory (presencing), manifesting as Quantum Sustainable Organising theory. They attempt to close the boundaries between the company and its ecological and social environments by considering matter (quanta).

The foregoing has linked presencing as an enabler of futuristic strategies, thus, the need to discuss strategic awareness as a competence in the next section.

Strategic Awareness

The majority of participants supported strategic awareness, as the name implies, as a key competence at the strategic level of leadership. For example, participant P6 married strategy and SDGs stating that:

What lacks in many company strategies is that sustainability is a peripheral issue (sic). It's not in the main strategy of these companies. So, what we need to see in the companies is the **mainstreaming of sustainability in the strategic document** and in their structures. We now need to pitch strategy and sustainable development at the board level. It would be interesting to see, in Zimbabwe, how many companies have a committee to deal with sustainability.

Some participants argued that strategic awareness and presencing mean the same thing. Participant P2 emphasised the sameness by stating that:

We are saying the same thing in different terms. Essentially, they are related. It's just the level of emphasis which differs.

However, participant P12 disagreed that the two terms mean the same thing. Participant P12's argument was based on the sequencing of the interview questions, stating that:

I see your questions are coming out nicely. [With reference to presencing] You started-off saying the future. So, somebody has said look this is what is going to happen. Then someone says, if it's happening like this, we will be here [there]. This is where we prefer to be. Then the strategist says, if you want to get there, this is the route. That now needs to be communicated. It has got to come, in a manner that does not end up being owned by possibly leadership alone, but must have buy-in of those executing. So, it [strategic awareness] is a key pillar.

The researcher agrees with P12's sentiments in the sense that strategy should follow presencing. Thus, the term presencing and strategic awareness do not mean the same thing but should be **sequenced and integrated**. However, the difficulties in engaging

strategic awareness during turbulent times was acknowledged by participant P11 who said the following:

What I have seen because of the environment in Zimbabwe, the environment that we are in, it's now difficult to come up with strategies. For me a strategy its [is] far reaching. But because of the ever-changing environment that we are in, we have become more reactive, more operational. As a result, it's no longer clear what course you are following.

The questions that arise from P11's acknowledgement of the impact of turbulent times on strategy formulation is that: how has this reasoning affected the implementation of SDGs in Zimbabwe? If Zimbabwe were not in turbulent times, could there have been greater knowledge and awareness of SDGs? These are questions, which require further research.

In conclusion, strategic awareness as a strategic level leadership competence was well supported by participants. In some instances, it was equated to presencing but rebuffed in other instances. Equating it to presencing could be ascribed to its future orientation perspective and its focus on wellbeing suggested by Quong and Walker (2010). Participants regarded strategic awareness as a force shaping business' contribution to SDGs because the point of intersection between strategic awareness and SDGs is the long-term perspective in both (Şeremet, 2013). Hence, strategic awareness of the sustainable development agenda assists in mainstreaming SDGs into the business strategy and embed execution. This embeddedness is found in the conceptual model, Figure 4.9 in Chapter Three, where the business strategy and the 6Ps framework are shown as intertwined. Participants suggested that a volatile changing business environment should bring impetus to strategic awareness and not an opportunity for leadership to sleep on the job hoping to wake-up when the situation has normalised. This is corroborated by Celik and Yilmaz (2016) who stated that strategic leadership thrives in uncertain environments. Hence, strategic awareness helps bring in the required adaptive ability and reflexivity (Schoemaker, Krupp & Howland, 2013) discussed next.

Reflexivity

There was overwhelming support for reflexivity as a competence at the strategic level of leadership. Participant P1 represented this support by considering reflexivity as **a key characteristic** that an organisation must have, arguing that:

It is a strategic competence, the ability to change quickly. The ability to review and reflect upon what has gone on, I suppose. Then being able to change because the environment is not a straight line. You can plan today and the environment changes. So, you have got to change to the environment. I don't know whether it's the same as adaptability. You need to adapt to change and yet at the same time achieve the vision that you had at the beginning. So, that ability is critical to success. Organisations that fail to change or adapt will fail. It's a key characteristic that an organisation must have.

Participant P7 concurred by idiomatically underscoring the importance of the ability to change quickly, stating that:

In our organisation we call it 'wearing our pants loose'. Last week we were selling in United States dollars, this week we have said we want RTGS dollars, just after two days. But we are responding to the environment because there are some forces in the environment that might get us to that.

Participant P5 argued that, "adaptability does not mean cutting corners". Yet, participant P8 argued for what reflexivity should be or should not be as follows:

Adaptability, yes when you see the direction the environment is taking is the right one, so adapt to go there. Not like a dead fish that is flowing down the river. To me, that is not adaptability. That is drowning. Because I think also as leaders at strategic level, you should now start to share different course of direction. With sustainability at the moment, we are going this way. If we go by the **theory of adaptability**, we will continue to damage the environment. So, we need people who say, this is it, but this is where we want to go. You may be going against current, but that's what a live fish does. It goes up the current, up the river, up the stream because it

knows this is right. This is where we are going, and it ties so well with what you told me about strategic awareness and presencing.

Although P8 was tying reflexivity with strategic awareness and presencing, participant P4 was of the view that **SDGs awareness precedes reflexivity** and had the following to say:

Adaptability in my view, is a function of awareness. If the leadership team is not aware of the emerging trends, so we in our organisation spend a great deal of time trying to understand, what are the key trends emerging from the future? What are they? How far are they? When are they likely to actually have an impact? More importantly, what position should we be taking now, in anticipation of those trends?

However, participant P11 brought in a **generational perspective to reflexivity** arguing that:

It depends on the leadership. The older the leadership, reflexivity is a problem. The younger the leadership, they are very agile. As a result, when you look at performance you actually pick it.

In conclusion, there was overwhelming support for reflexivity as an important leadership competence especially in changing times as depicted by SDGs. In the conceptual framework, Figure 4.9, reflexivity is identified with contingency/situational leadership. “Wearing our pants loose” a term coined by participant P7 was a depiction of the reality of adapting to the changing business environment. In other words, reflexivity and change move together. Literature supports that a continuously changing environment requires maintenance of flexibility and adaptability by revisiting vision, goals and objectives (Akins et al., 2013). However, it was suggested that reflexivity must not be associated with cutting corners for the sake of adapting nor should reflexivity be adopted for its sake. Adapting to change must be a strategic choice. Hence, adaptability must follow need and presencing. Although there were assertions that the old guard was conservative when it came to change, conservatism cannot be limited to the old generation, but it also affects the young generation because it is associated with one’s attitude towards taking risk. It is more fitting to say that reflexivity requires dynamic leadership because it is a pillar of survival. Hence, Hersey and Blanchard’ (1977)

support leadership style flexibility, while Brown and Harvey (2011) believe winning companies of the future are the ones managed by leaders possessing adaptive and flexible skills to respond quickly to the changing business environment. However, the inclusion of the young generation into leadership structures requires competences of intergeneration systemic behaviour.

Inter-generational Systemic Behaviour

There was overwhelming support for inter-generational systemic behaviour. The initial consensus was the **enabling perspective** of inter-generational systemic behaviour. Participant P1 clearly explained this perspective stating that:

As an organisation moves forward, one generation takes on another one, as change goes. There are good things which organisations do today, which must be passed on to future generations. However, there are things that will be new also as you go into the future and you have to drop some things that you were doing in the past. Allied with that, is also knowledge that [of], whatever you do today impacts the future. So, one has to look at the future, knowing whatever we do today has an impact environmentally. One has to take some key legacy issues and be able to transmit them to a future generation for their benefit. So, a lot of talent development or training is required to move forward, at the same time, ensuring that, whatever you do today, you create a sustainable future for generations to come. So, it's the way you are looking at today in relation to tomorrow; today's people and tomorrow's people; today's environment in relation to tomorrow's environment; and [realisation that] what you do today impacts the future.

The second consensus was the **inclusion of the youth** in management boards as a way of linking the present generation to future generations. In this regard, participant P4 argued as follows:

What needs to be done in my view, is for our leaders to realise that, there is a new generation there. The millennials are there. It's a fact of life. The workplace of the future will change. The infrastructure that suits the current generation will be different from what is desired by future generations. The kind of business models and kind of workplace that we

have today will change fundamentally, when it comes to future generations. So, what is the starting point from my perspective? Bring in young people into management teams and boards. We are not doing enough right now. Bring in youngsters who are in tune with the demands and requirements of the millennials. Only then, can we have a comprehensive program that is responding to the inter-generational systemic behavioural issues.

The third consensus was the **stewardship perspective**, clearly enunciated by participant P3, in reference to inter-generational systemic behaviour, who stated that:

When I compare to 25 years ago, there is a greater awareness now that we are stewards for the time being of many resources, including water and our environment in general and we need to husband and steward it [them] as best as we can for future generations, as well as survival of the business in future.

The fourth perspective of inter-generational systemic behaviour, which participants alluded to was **embedded planning**. Participant P9 gave examples of inter-generational embedded planning as:

Be like the Japanese, with their 100-year strategic plans. Even here, during Rhodesia [now Zimbabwe] we had that. Let me give you my examples; like Osborne dam, when was that planned for? [Planned in] 1905, Osborne dam. Tokwe Mukosi, which we commissioned a year ago, [planned] 1923. We have planned for no dam in modern day Zimbabwe, but we are building dams. That's a legacy issue.

However, **sceptic views** were expressed by some participants, who did not believe in inter-generational systemic behaviour. Participant P7 had the following scepticism:

The cynics might see this [behaviour] as [depicting one] trying to rule from the grave. You have guys who, before they die, they will put some people on the board [of directors] for their own benefit to leave behind a personal legacy.

Furthermore, participant P6 preferred to call it inter-generational equity instead of inter-generational systemic behaviour, and spoke of it as a **paradox** arguing that:

Truthfully speaking, none of us has been into the future. So, for us to try and organise and arrange equality between today and tomorrow, I don't think we have that capability because we have never been in the future. Future systems will be more resilient. Who knew that we would have these smart phones? What if robots, takeover? What if aliens come on board? What if we are able to conquer new planets? Right now, our imagination is focused on the earth, but we live in a galaxy. We live in a universe with other galaxies. I know that the United States was working on missions that, they are sending to space, to try and explore other planets. Who knows, if mars would be habitable in a few years to come? Will the principle of inter-generational equity still apply at that point? Even now when we are doing inter-generational equity, how do you convince someone who is suffering, who is in poverty in the rural area, to stop cutting down a tree, when they need energy? Is it, inter-generational equity that someone fails to get energy today so that someone will get it tomorrow? These are the questions many scholars have not been able to answer. So, I think there is a paradox on the inter-generational equity, but really no one has been in the future.

The intergenerational equity perspective is understood by Stazyk et al., (2016) to mean inheriting the Earth from previous generations and hold it in trust for future generations.

In conclusion, participants agreed that, inter-generational systemic behaviour was the link between current and future generations. In the conceptual framework, Figure 4.9 in Chapter Four, intergenerational systemic behaviour is situated in the arch under both sustainability and systems perspectives. Consensus was reached on the enabling; youth inclusion; stewardship; and embedded planning perspectives of inter-generational systemic behaviour. The enabling perspective creates conditions for linking the present and future generations. The youth perspective involves their inclusion in management boards and leadership positions in industry to enable continuity and creativity. In other words, recruitment must encompass inter-generational mix and mainstreaming the youths. Organisations must develop a people's balance sheet yearly, with age profiles

of personnel to create a strategic human resources-fit with the future of the company. These foregoing views are corroborated by Hernandez et al., (2015) who studied how leaders promote corporate sustainability through creating inter-generational systems.

However, the stewardship perspective places emphasis on the husbandry of resources into the future. Whereas, embedded planning involves developing 50 to 100-year plans that cut across generations, thus, linking the current and future citizens of the planet. However, it is important to consider schools of sceptics, which suggest that, the stewardship of resources may not be necessary because no-one really knows what the future holds. For example, landslides can create new rivers as happened in January 2019 in cyclone-hit Chimanimani district in Zimbabwe. However, people have christened them rivers of stones because there was no water on the riverbeds. Some interesting paradoxes were that it might be possible to find a new habitable planet since astronauts are busy looking for one. Alternatively, some oceans may create new islands from the degradation and debris coming from the existing land. Others such as participant P6 have questioned the legacy motive, which inhibits future generations from deciding their destiny. However, Gandure and Kamwenda (2013) rebuff the paradoxes arguing that the main goal of sustainable development is to achieve improved human lives with inter-generational equity. The foregoing suggests that, future generations are stakeholders because indirectly they have an interest in the present. Hence, stakeholder relations are discussed next.

Stakeholder relations

Participants were unanimous in acknowledging the importance of stakeholders in business. It was found that all relevant **SDGs created stakeholders** for each goal adopted by the organisation. Participant P1 explains:

In SDGs kind of world, one will have under each goal specific targets to ensure that one looks after all the stakeholders that are defined by the SDGs. The SDGs model basically defines the stakeholders for you and what goal is expected to be reached in terms of stakeholders for sustainable growth.

Once each SDG creates stakeholders, the need to **be responsive to shareholder needs** arises. Participant P3 had an expression of the mind as follows:

We really do believe that we need to work with stakeholders [and] that we need to be as responsive as we can be. We need to make sure we are educated about their expectations and [that] they are equally educated about what we can do and what our limitations are. That we can collaborate with stakeholders, perhaps to create something: models that will be effective when implemented and achieve scale relatively quickly.

To ensure that the organisation is responsive effectively to stakeholder needs, participant P12 advised of the existence of the following company program:

We actually have a **stakeholder management program**, which categorises stakeholders into bands. What are we doing with government? What are we doing with employees? What are we doing with customers? Customers now want healthy products. Do we understand them? So, stakeholder relations are a deliberate act. We have an office that just looks at stakeholders that reports to the General Manager.

When implementing a stakeholder management program, the need to **give-up power** was underscored by participant P4 who said that:

Now with the SDGs approach, it means corporate leaders have to give-up power. Power dynamics come into SDGs. They have to recognise that it is an interdependent world [and] that interdependence means they have to consult more. Consultation doesn't come easily to business leaders. They want to chart their own course, do their own thing. They think they are right. Meanwhile, by leaving out stakeholders, they are not providing a holistic solution.

However, **power abuse** can result from **unethical approaches** to stakeholder relations. The one unethical approach is an **incestuous type of stakeholder**, explained by participant P7 as follows:

In Zimbabwe a bottle store in Murambinda (growth point) may belong to government Minister so and so. That stakeholder is not just a regular customer. Over the weekend, he/she is a regular customer. But during the week, he/she is minister of environment, with regulatory powers. So those are very strong stakeholders.

In other words, the Minister is on the one hand the regulatory authority of environmental affairs and on the other, a customer. Therefore, it is important for the organisation to be cognisant of such interwoven stakeholder relationships because of the potential conflict in decision making. The other unethical approach emanates from the big brother mentality of some companies as they interact with “small” stakeholders. Participant P11 explains:

If you are working for an organisation that has been there since time immemorial, and an organisation that believes that it is the best, at times they forget about what makes them the best. So, the issue of stakeholders, cannot be ignored. You know that even your suppliers are stakeholders. The sustainability of your suppliers is your own sustainability. But when you start believing that, you want to push your supplier to a corner: the big brother mentality, [and] you dictate the credit terms. You do not even stick to them [credit terms] because you know that, without you they [suppliers] will go nowhere. It's all about you, you, you, forgetting that, without them you are nothing.

In conclusion, all the participants emphasised the importance of stakeholders because they define the company's existence. From the conceptual framework, Figure 4.9 in Chapter Four, stakeholder relations are identified with sustainability and collaborations. Hence, in a SDGs driven environment, each SDG defines the stakeholders for the company as suggested by participant P1. This plurality of stakeholders is reinforced by IoDSA (2012) who stated that, a business model which includes a broader view of a company's place in society must be prepared to be accountable to a diverse group of stakeholders. Hence, as suggested by participants, the interdependence between the organisation and stakeholders requires a give and take attitude. After all, the company cannot meet all the needs of stakeholders but has to be honest about it. Literature corroborates this by stating that there is a need to balance the long-term benefits that should accrue from a balanced stakeholder perspective (Pearce et al., 2014). However, participants suggested that it is important for companies to establish policies of engagement and partnerships with stakeholders. During engagement and partnership creation, companies must not undermine the value of small stakeholders, especially those that are weaker in bargaining, as noted by participant P11. For this reason, Black and Porter (2000) urged leaders to obtain and sustain relationships by connecting with

many internal and external stakeholders to achieve organisational transformation. Good stakeholder relations are a must for every organisation. However, there is need to come up with mechanisms that address unethical practices mentioned by participant P7, arising from conflicting dual relations with stakeholders who possess regulatory power. This study has exposed the inadequacy of the stakeholder model in the sense that the future generation has not been emphasised as a stakeholder. Given that the SDGs agenda puts emphasis on the future generation, it follows that it ought to be classified as a major stakeholder and should be represented by the youths, whose agenda must be mainstreamed together with gender equity.

In this subsection on strategic leadership themes from literature, all the competences from the draft LCF were supported by participants. This indicates that there was a convergence between theory and practice. In other words, what was found in the literature, in terms of desired strategic leadership competences, was confirmed by practitioners in the beverage manufacturing industry. However, during the field inquiry, new themes were established and are discussed next.

6.4.3.2.2 New Themes/Leadership Competences at Strategic Level

New themes or emerging themes are competences proffered by participants during interviews, which are not on the draft LCF from literature. The process of finding emerging themes involved synthesising all the competences mentioned by participants and evaluating them against the draft LCF from literature. From each of the participants' transcriptions identified by their participant number, the following themes were identified: looking into the future (P1); scanning the environment (P1); taking appropriate action (P1); day-to-day management (P1); analytical skills (P1); strategic thinking (P2; P3); strategic awareness (P4); knowledge of SDGs (P5; P6; P11); providing direction (P5); balancing profitability and sustainability (P5); technical competence (P6); being inspirational (P6); knowledge of metrics of measurement (P6); fair play (P7), gutfeel (P7); skills of inclusivity (P7); organising people and assets (P7); ability to take charge (P7); envisioning (P8); communication (P8); execution (P8); ability to plan (P8); sustainability thinking (P9); passion (P10); walking the talk (P10); general awareness (P12); social awareness (P12); environmental awareness (P12); conservation of resources (P12); desire for achievement (P12); and innovative thinking (P12).

However, the literature review suggests that the following competences are generic and not necessarily associated with sustainability alone: taking appropriate action; day-to-day management; analytical skills; strategic thinking; providing direction; technical competence; being inspirational; fair play; gutfeel; organising people and assets; ability to take charge; envisioning; communication; execution; planning; passion; walking the talk; and desire for achievement. This leaves the following competences for consideration in the SDGs driven environment: looking into the future; scanning the environment; strategic awareness; knowledge of SDGs; balancing profitability and sustainability; knowledge of metrics of measurement; skills of inclusivity; sustainability thinking; general awareness; social awareness; environmental awareness; conservation of resources; and innovative thinking.

Further review showed that the following themes were already covered in the draft LCF from literature in other terms: looking into the future; scanning the environment; and strategic awareness. Knowledge of SDGs is a must for all leadership levels and is placed under core leadership competences. However, the following competences should be considered elements of knowledge of SDGs: general awareness; social awareness; environmental awareness; and conservation of resources. Furthermore, balancing profitability and sustainability should be considered as part of sustainability thinking. Therefore, the key emerging themes from the interview were as follows: sustainability thinking; knowledge of metrics of measurement; skills of inclusivity; and innovative thinking that engenders smart technologies. However, innovative thinking that engenders smart technologies should fall under core competences because this should be found at any level of leadership.

After synthesising the foregoing themes, the outcome was five key emerging themes. These were as follows: sustainability thinking; knowledge of metrics for measurement; skills of inclusivity; and multiple leadership style.

Sustainability thinking

In proposing strategic competences, participant P9 had the following to say:

I have a simple understanding of strategic competences; that [it] is the ability to operate sustainably. Whatever decisions, whatever you are doing, must have a bearing into the future, long-term. That way you don't

then live for the day. It takes you into a space of not being selfish. Whatever issue you are looking at, you are then saying it is like this today, what is the ideal destination? If I make this decision, it will work for the next three months, is that right? As opposed to the decision, which requires us to look at ten years from now.

P9's response encapsulated the now and future issues, which resonates with presencing. However, presencing emphasises sensing the environment and actualising the possibilities of the future, whereas P9 referred to idealising the future. P9's reference to the ability to operate sustainably should inculcate sustainability thinking in the organisation. Sustainability thinking as a competence resonates with literature findings which remind us of our responsibility to the planet and future generations. IoDSA (2012) corroborates this view by stating that sustainability thinking engenders accountability in a diverse group of stakeholders and taking responsibility for common ecological capital. It should put us in a mode of behaving responsibly over the environment and the future. In other words, it is a catalyst of behaviour change in favour of responsible management. Lozano (2015) concurs with this view stating that, the new world order demands organisations to think sustainable development in the entire strategic management process. Thus, embedding sustainability into the business strategy in the same way strategic thinking does. Therefore, by integrating P9's response and literature findings, sustainability thinking is identified as a leadership competence at strategic level. From the conceptual framework, Figure 4.9 in Chapter Four, sustainability thinking should link with sustainability in the arch of the framework and be embedded in the business strategy at the top of the diagram.

Knowledge of metrics for measurement

The second emerging theme was knowledge of metrics of measurement arising from sustainability thinking. These metrics are key factors, which should measure the success of sustainable manufacturing. Participant P6 strongly argued for this knowledge saying that:

It is quite obvious that you cannot manage something, which you cannot measure. So, if leaders do not know metrics of measuring sustainability, let's say I want to measure SDG on water and sanitation, how do I measure its success? Or the SDG on energy, how do I measure its

success? In the beverage industry, one might want to measure how many kilowatt hours have been used per litre of beverage? Then you will be able to compare. It is not sufficient to know and sing the SDGs (agenda), without the knowledge to measure its implementation.

In business, it is necessary to measure success by establishing key indices to track it. These key indices, referred to as metrics, induce some level of behaviour, while giving form to strategy because strategy is abstract (Harris & Tayler, 2019). Hence, the need for knowledge of metrics for measuring sustainability success cannot be overemphasised. However, key success factors are meaningful when they are designed into a framework (Pournasir, 2013). Hence, from the conceptual framework, Figure 4.9 in Chapter Four, the metrics of measurement should be housed in the 6Ps framework together with the business strategy. Chapter Three emphasised the importance of these technical skills at strategic level, albeit at lower percentages in relation to other skills, as one goes up the organisational ladder (Hamid et al., 2016).

Skills of inclusivity

The third emerging theme was the skills of inclusivity. After mastering the knowledge of metrics of measurement, there is a need to have the ability to bring everyone on board, which is derived from skills of inclusivity. Participant P7 added that:

What I have found is that, after five to six years, you begin to see the new skills of leaders popping up. What is it that you now start seeing that is different? There is a tendency to be inclusive. Let's hear what John has to say. Don't shut him out. Let's hear him out.

However, skills of inclusivity should not come into being after five to six years of leadership but must be inculcated right at the beginning of the leadership cycle.

Skills of inclusivity are pertinent to the sustainable development agenda because they resonate with the Agenda 2030 mantra that, "no one will be left behind" (General Assembly, 2015). The "no one to be left behind" mantra refers to all governments, the private sector, global institutions, civil society and citizens (Nicolai et al., 2015). More precisely, these skills speak to SDGs four and sixteen. From the conceptual framework, Figure 4.9 in Chapter Four, skills of inclusivity should be linked to the

contingency/situational leadership school. In addition, the reference of these skills to SDGs four and sixteen identifies them with the 6Ps framework.

Multiple leadership styles

The last emerging theme was multiple leadership styles. This term replaces multiple intelligences because there was a mismatch between the interview question and the explanation, which contextualised the question on multiple intelligences. The researcher explained in each interview that multiple intelligences referred to intelligences that went beyond leadership acumens and aptitudes, but are rooted in abilities to exercise different leadership styles and recognise the environment's non-verbal signs. It is now clear in the data analysis that the interview question referred to multiple leadership styles. However, more participants understood the explanation and were able to respond appropriately. For example, participant P6 explained:

The modern day 21st century business leader should be multi-skilled. Whatever you were talking about, I want to look at it as **multi-skilled**; to say, what is the modern-day leader supposed to have with a specific focus of the manufacturing sector?

Participant P4 used a different term referring to it as:

That which relates to the **environment's non-verbal signs**, is what we call contextual intelligence. This has been popularized by recent writers who talk about the ability to sense the context in which you are operating.

The preceding suggests that multiple leadership styles ought to be **exercised at strategic level** of leadership. Some participants questioned the suitability of multiple leadership styles as a core-competence, with participant P11 stating that:

We are a very structured organisation, which has got standard operating procedures. If you deviate from those, then you will go for a hearing. I have found that, being situational, you only get rewarded if it [idea] works. But if it doesn't work, you get your head chopped-off [for deviating].

Participant P9 corroborates this assertion and argues for its unsuitability as a core-competence:

My understanding is that those are very strong leaders that are able to do that [use multiple intelligences]. Two things could happen to you. You could be viewed as too powerful to be in that organisation. Some people could be uncomfortable with that. They will try to side-line you in many ways.

However, participant P10 questioned the need for multiple leadership styles arguing that:

They [multiple leadership styles] can never be developed to the same extent, which is why you always win in teams. So, I think you can supplement with others, but always have an awareness of areas that you are weak in and try and grow these to become a strong leader.

Whilst, the team approach is enriched by the talents and competences of individuals, this should not be a hindrance to developing multiple skills in the individuals.

In conclusion, some participants preferred to call it multi-skilling or contextual intelligence as opposed to multiple leadership styles. Although some participants questioned the need for such skills considering that people win and lose in teams, the need remains that the teams must be capacitated with multiple leadership styles to be adaptable to the changing business. This is supported by Glynn and De Jordy (2010) who stated that there is convergence among researchers that, there is no one leadership style that is universal in all situations, hence, the reason why the behavioural leadership approach has devolved into different leadership styles/models which leaders can adopt (Amanchukwu, Stanley, & Ololube, 2015). The aspect of recognizing the environment's non-verbal signs in contextual intelligence corroborated literature findings. Furthermore, this was in line with the context in which the orientation of the question was explained, that is, intelligences that go beyond leadership acumens and aptitudes, but rooted in abilities to exercise different leadership styles and recognise the environment's non-verbal signs. The general feeling among participants was that multiple leadership styles reside in top leadership, hence, its promotion as a strategic level competence. From the conceptual framework, Figure 4.9 in Chapter Four, multiple leadership styles reside in the contingency/situational school of leadership thought, which has been considered the most adaptable to the changing business environment.

In this subsection on new strategic leadership themes, four new competences were identified. The four emerging competences helped in filling the gap in the draft LCF on strategic leadership competences. Therefore, the four emerging competences contributed to the development of the LCF.

To conclude this category on desired strategic leadership competences, the themes from draft LCF from literature and the new emerging themes are consolidated in Table 6.9 below.

Table 6.9: Desired Leadership Competences at Strategic Level

Themes in Draft LCF from Literature	New Competences after Field Inquiry
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Presencing 2. Strategic awareness 3. Reflexivity 4. Inter-generational systemic behaviour 5. Stakeholder awareness 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Sustainability thinking 2. Knowledge of metrics of measurement 3. Skills of inclusivity 4. Multiple leadership styles (moved from core-competences)

Table 6.9 shows that all the five competences in the draft LCF from the literature were supported and retained by participants. However, participants suggested new competences, which were consolidated into four on the right side of Table 6.9. Competences at this level of leadership are the drivers of business strategy. However, multiple leadership styles were promoted from core-leadership competences to be at strategic level. An interesting emerging theme was sustainability thinking. This term embeds sustainability into the business strategy in the same way strategic thinking does. Below the strategic level, competences required for all leaders have been identified in literature as core-leadership competences and are discussed next.

6.4.3.3 Desired Core-leadership Competences

This subcategory focuses on determining desired core competences necessary at all levels of leadership in the organisation. This theme is identified in the conceptual framework, Figure 4.9 in Chapter Four, represented by the core leadership competences pillar. Five key core leadership competences were identified in Chapter

Four, Figure 4.10. The five competences are ecosystem awareness; multiple intelligences; knowledge of sustainable manufacturing patterns and practices; systems thinking; and social responsiveness. However, new themes also arose from the field inquiry and are discussed separately. The discussion starts with the five themes from the draft LCF from literature.

6.4.3.3.1 Themes/Core-competences in the Draft LCF from Literature

Only two of the core-competences got participants' support. These are social responsiveness, and ecosystems awareness. However, ecosystems awareness was renamed ecosystems thinking.

Social responsiveness

Participants overwhelmingly considered socially responsiveness important to the **survival** of their organisations. Participant P1 explains well the origins of this survival stating that:

We live in a world of people. The same people that come to work are representative of the environment, which we live. So, as the environment changes, some of it comes through legislation, some of it comes through social norms. It also impacts the organisations in which we work. So, organisations have tended to be responsive to the social environment. I think even if you get a big disaster, you can see how people can respond. Under those SDGs you can see the issues of poverty. As an organisation, one has to look at one's workers first. Look at how one's products are designed to ensure affordability. You can see the issues of gender. You can see the issues of multi-culturalism, if there is a word like that. The issues that organisations respond to (such as,) your recruitment policies should not be based on race or religion. It's a way of responding to the (social) environment in which we live. Also, the basic rule at work is, try to accommodate the environment in, which we live socially. So, generally, organisations are affected by society.

In emphasising the survival aspect, some participants stressed the importance of the community regarding the company's existence. Participant P4 explained: "We now see

ourselves as a citizen of society. We now see ourselves as getting our licence to trade from the community and society in which we operate”.

Others brought in a **class perspective** to social responsiveness. In responding to the question how social responsiveness is viewed in your organisation, participant P2 excitedly said: “I would probably arrogantly say, very good (sic) and top of the class in the local environment”.

Yet, other participants dwelt on the **responsible management** aspects of social responsiveness. Participant P7 argued:

No-one has a right to profit. Do this in a responsible manner, understanding that we must share value creation equally [equitably], because you will be fairly greedy, if you choose not to. The fact that you pay people fairly, that’s also social responsibility.

In emphasising responsible management and arguing against the profit motive, participants had various viewpoints. Participant P6 said:

You can be succeeding financially when your product is being boycotted.
You can be succeeding financially when you are sexually abusing women.
So, sustainability looks at the social aspects [as well].

The company may be succeeding financially without caring about the harmful effects of its products on society. Participant P10 shared the following practice:

The company encouraged **responsible consumption** of its products and had programs which discouraged over-consumption and consumption of its products by consumers to ensure a responsible future generation.

Some participants spoke of **what social responsiveness is not**. Participant P8 blasted companies who were deceitfully engaged in promotions in the name of social responsibility arguing that:

If social responsiveness is taken from a perspective where we want visibility of our products and our organisation, [then] we have missed the point. I think social responsiveness should start with what you said, awareness of the ecosystem. We are not doing it for those people to know

us. We are doing it because we want to preserve a sustainable environment going forward. But I have seen in most cases, social responsibility is an extension of advertising initiative. So, there is brand visibility, to build brand equity and all that.

In conclusion, participants overwhelmingly considered social responsiveness important to the survival of their organisations. This is supported by John-Steiner and Mahn (1996) who argued that socio-cultural drivers are cornerstones for change. Whilst, participant P2 argued that there were attendant costs to social responsiveness, emphasis should be on conducting business in a responsible manner and staying ahead of authorities. Hence, responsible management entails earning profit taking into account that no-one has a right to profit as well as encouraging responsible consumption. Participant P8's view that social responsiveness should start with ecosystem awareness is an idea which deserves support. It inculcates an understanding that everything depends on everything and that the notion of independence was a fallacy because the organisation depends on the society and vice versa. This is supported by Pless and Maak (2011) who state that, responsible leadership is triggered by the various environmental and social forces. A stakeholder management program explained by participant P12 can be a useful tool for social responsiveness. However, it is unethical to engage in promotions in the name of social responsiveness as suggested by participant P8. Therefore, to achieve equilibrium, social responsiveness should be undertaken in balance with the environmental and economic considerations and not as a top of the class issue ahead of the other two sustainable development dimensions. The foregoing interpretation is corroborated by the relationship between responsible management and social responsiveness as enunciated by Crews (2010) who identified competences required of responsible leadership as stakeholder engagement; sustainability centered organisational culture; learning oriented towards sustainability; and measuring and reporting sustainability results. From the conceptual framework, Figure 4.9 in Chapter Four, social responsiveness is situated under sustainability in the arch of the framework. It is also associated with collaborations on the left side of the framework because of the need to engage stakeholders. The next core competence is ecosystems awareness, which has been renamed ecosystems thinking.

Eco-systems thinking

There was consensus among participants that **ecosystem awareness** was a key leadership competence premised on everything in the environment depending on everything else. Participant P1 represented the sentiments of participants stating that:

The word ecosystem was normally a biological term. Basically, it says, everything in an environment depends on everything else. Everything affects the environment of everything else. So, the way things work is that one thing affects the other things. One must be aware of one's environment that, there are other people who live in the same environment, that one's activity in the environment affects everybody else. So, that kind of awareness makes it easier for one to regulate one's behaviour, if it is going to negatively affect other people who share the same environment. So, for the environment itself, if we are polluting it, then other people are affected. Not only people, but plants, other animals and other things that are in the same ecosystem.

Participant P3 aptly used the **environmental pollution perspective** to exemplify ecosystem awareness stating that:

I think an understanding of how environmental pollution works, leads to an appreciation that this is something that is borderless and cannot be contained in a single unit. Therefore, actions need to be coordinated to make an impact that we are all interdependent in that, actions of others may impact on others in other parts of the world

Thus, as a **borderless concept** necessary in an interdependent world, every practice should be driven by eco-systems. Hence, business leadership should have knowledge of eco-systems, although participant P10 said:

Look we are a very literate [organisation]. So, even if you speak to the guy who sweeps the floor, could be a degreed person, could have some kind of awareness. But that awareness in the context that, I need to do something? I don't think so. I think it's more and more. It's what people continually see, read and do. Some people are passionate about it, but how do you spread the passion?

Thus, the preceding argument should not justify exclusion of ecosystem awareness at lower leadership levels but buttress its inclusion. Furthermore, the argument by participant P11 that: “Zimbabweans are not cultured in ecosystems” suggests a need to develop this competence as opposed to excluding it. Other participants believed that there were **pressing issues** that prohibit people from caring about the ecosystem. Participant P4 gave two contrasting examples, firstly arguing that:

Given where we are in our developmental path, as a corporate that is operating in the African context and also corporates that are operating in Africa, I think our understanding of global ecosystems is not well developed, for good reasons. Because we are dealing with the **here and now issues of survival**, we are very much at the early stages of development.

Secondly, there is reluctance at global level where P4 argued that:

I would say to you that even one has to look at America, and see the President of the United States [Donald Trump] is not very much into this global ecosystem. He wants to focus on American **industrial and economic growth**, and he sees this global ecosystem as a hindrance. If they in America can talk like that, what about us in Africa.

However, the arguments proffered under systems thinking, suggesting that eco-systems thinking would be the preferred term in place of ecosystems awareness, was pertinent. To this end, there were a lot of negative feelings about **systems thinking** and its suitability as a leadership competence. Most participants credited it with **breaking silos** in many organisations, as participant P11 stated:

In the business that I work for, it [systems thinking] is quite an important thing. At some point we thought everyone was like generalist from bottom to top. We were now beginning to think that people must now specialise. Everyone must be aware of the impact they have on the next person or stage, whatever, so that you are not in a silo.

However, other participants **discredited it** as leadership competence, with participant P2 arguing that:

[Systems thinking] It's an old buzzword, which has not been taken-up generally in many countries because of the nature of its complexity. It's easy to say the words, but it's not easy to conceptualise it and to bring it together, essentially..... Issues, which emerge from systems thinking find their way into strategic thinking because systems thinking is only a tool to facilitate better strategic planning. On its own as a subject, I will have to say, it has been at the tail-end. It's a gap that needs attention.

Although, there was overwhelming support that systems thinking appeared to do well with regard to the internal environment, there were **huge gaps when linked to the external environment**. The disconnection was clearly enunciated by participant P8 who argued that:

Internal systems thinking is very strong. I liked the way you put it, 'the connectedness of events and activities, in us delivering what we want to deliver, within and outside'. Where I see a disconnect is the external environment. At times we do not think in terms of the final consumer, even where our product is eventually terminating. Our products terminate in the stomach of consumers, but what happens to the things that remain. Yah, there is awareness of systems thinking, but I think it's an area that can be done better, particularly external systems.

In this regard, some participants suggested that, in the context of SDGs, systems thinking should be considered part of ecosystems awareness as Participant P1 said: "The whole concept of an **ecosystem engenders systems thinking** and that you are looking at the system as opposed to looking at it in parts". Therefore, in light of these contradictions on systems thinking and the need to link with the external environment, eco-systems thinking would be the more appropriate competence than systems thinking. In addition, ecosystems thinking has a deeper meaning and should replace eco-systems awareness.

In conclusion, there was consensus among participants that ecosystem awareness was a key leadership competence premised on everything in the environment depending on everything else. As a borderless concept necessary in an interdependent world, every practice should be driven by eco-systems. Hence, business leadership should have knowledge of eco-systems. The foregoing is supported by literature where Paulin (2014)

advanced the following to deal with the ecosystem approach: facilitating core-creation; facilitating innovations that are sensitive to the ecosphere; knowledge of complex systems; openness to change; and listening and responding within the ecosystem, which should include listening to everyone including the general staff. There is a need to avoid the tragedy of the commons as propounded by Hardin (1968) where abuse of common facilities in the form of grazing land can be replicated in the use of other finite resources. The argument by participant P10 that ecosystems awareness at lower organisational levels was quite tricky, does not justify its exclusion from being a core competence. Furthermore, the argument that Zimbabweans were not cultured in ecosystems suggests a need to develop this competence as opposed to excluding it. Of course, the here and now issues argued by participant P4 do take centre-stage locally and globally in militating against ecosystems awareness. However, the arguments proffered under systems thinking suggesting that eco-systems thinking would be the preferred term in place of ecosystems awareness are pertinent. This slight change in the theme does not shift its position in the conceptual framework, Figure 4.9 in Chapter Four; it should remain in the arch of the framework within the systems box and is identified with sustainability, more specifically as SDG 15. Hence, Elkington (2004) argues that corporate sustainability goes further into business ecosystems. However, some of the competences were rationalised to the extent that they were excluded from the final list of core-competences. These are discussed next.

6.4.3.3.2 Rationalised and excluded core-competences

Participants agreed that **knowledge of sustainable manufacturing** patterns and practices were the way to do business and depicted the future of manufacturing in Zimbabwe. A general understanding from participants was that good sustainable manufacturing should emphasise voluntary initiatives rather than compliance with regulatory control because regulations are the minimum standards. However, knowledge of sustainable manufacturing resides in SDG twelve: “Ensuring sustainable consumption and production patterns”. Hence, for reasons advanced under new competences below, knowledge of sustainable manufacturing patterns and practices is integrated with “knowledge of SDGs”.

Multiple intelligences have been renamed multiple leadership styles and already discussed under strategic level of leadership.

This subsection on core competences from the draft LCF was characterised by rigorous interrogation of the themes/competences by participants. In this regard, knowledge of sustainable manufacturing practices and patterns was replaced by a more embrative term, knowledge of SDGs. Multiple intelligences were renamed multiple leadership style and moved to strategic level. Systems thinking and ecosystem awareness were integrated into ecosystems thinking. However, there was convergence of participants' minds on social responsiveness. Lastly, participants suggested new core leadership competences discussed next.

6.4.3.3.3 New Themes/Core leadership competences

The process of establishing emerging themes involved synthesising all the competences mentioned by participants and evaluating them against competences in the draft LCF from literature. From each of the participants' transcriptions recognised by their participant number, the following themes were identified: interpersonal skills (P1; P2); communication skills (P1); negotiating skills (P1); persuasion skills (P1); goal setting skills (P1); relational skills (P1; P7); emotional intelligence (P2); influencing (P2; P10); knowledge of organisational politics (P2); self-leadership (P2); conflict resolution (P2); courage (P2); decision making (P2); technical competence (P2); integrity and honesty (P2); knowledge of SDGs (P3; P10)); prioritising (P4); resource allocation (P4; P7); establishing processes for productivity (P4); execution (P4); respectability (P5); accountability (P5); building multi-disciplinary teams (P6); fair play (P7), gutfeel (P7); ability to take charge (P7); planning (P8); execution (P8); alignment (P8); ethics (P9); passion (P10); people skills (P7; P11); gender sensitiveness (P11); climate, water, energy, and land management skills (P11); alignment to strategy ability (P12); dynamism (P12); innovation (P12); social awareness (P12); commitment (P12); ability to respond to politics which affect the business (P12); and understand trends at a lower level (P12).

However, literature suggests that the following competences were generic and were not unique to corporate sustainability: interpersonal or people skills; communication skills; negotiating skills; persuasion skills; goal setting skills; relational skills; emotional intelligence; influencing; knowledge of organisational politics; conflict resolution; courage; decision making; prioritising; resource allocation; fair play; ability to take charge; establishing processes for productivity; planning; execution; alignment; building

multidisciplinary teams; dynamism; commitment; and understanding trends at a lower level.

Being ethical; integrity and honesty; respectability; accountability; and passion are oriented towards values. Whilst, gutfeel is a trait. This leaves self-leadership; gender sensitiveness; climate, water, energy, and land management skills; technical competence; knowledge of SDGs; social awareness; and innovation to be considered suitable for a sustainable development environment. However, the latter batch, with the exception of self-leadership and innovation, can be encapsulated into knowledge of SDGs. Therefore, after synthesising the foregoing themes, the outcome was three emerging themes. These are as follows: self-leadership; knowledge of SDGs; and innovative thinking that engender smart technologies. These three emerging themes are discussed next.

Self-leadership

The importance of leading one's self to be able to lead others was discussed under the subsection 6.4.2 on development of leadership competences. It is brought in this section as a necessary core leadership competence as argued by participant P7 who had the following to say: "Before you can lead others, first of all you must be able to lead yourself before you can lead others". Participant P10 corroborates this statement, arguing that: "So, for me to be a leader, I must be able to lead myself, isn't it"?

The importance of self-leadership as a competence is corroborated by Cottrell (2015) who equated it to self-discipline, arguing that it involves effectively regulating emotions feelings and conduct in different contexts. Chatterjee (1998) adds that self-leadership should have a conscious perspective requiring leaders to experience moments of self-reflection, self-awakening and self-assessment. From the conceptual framework, Figure 4.9 in Chapter Four, self-leadership should be located in the contingency/situational leadership school. Weerakit and Beeton (2018) consider self-leadership a generic competence, hence, its location as a core competence, which should reside in every leader.

Knowledge of SDGs

In advancing knowledge of SDGs as a core-competence, participant P3 summed views of participants as follows:

I think the core competences to really bring this to life revolve around an understanding and appreciation of how our operations and processes can impact on SDGs, either positively or negatively. Also understanding how we can innovate on our processes to mitigate adverse impact or to promote the advancement of the SDGs.

Although participants P5, P6 and P11 had considered knowledge of SDGs as a strategic level competence, this knowledge is a must at all levels of leadership as argued by P3. Knowledge of SDGs is important for execution; therefore, it cannot be the preserve of those at strategic level. Hence, its inclusion as a core-competence. From the conceptual model, Figure 4.9 in Chapter Four, SDGs reside in the sustainability box and are quantum oriented because of their association with nature. Participants' assertions for the need to understand SDGs is corroborated by General Assembly (2015), which urges the private sector to be partners in contributing to the seventeen SDGs and the 159 targets to be achieved by 2030 bearing in mind that these goals are global, integrated and indivisible. In the same vein, leaders must understand the 5Ps framework that anchors SDGs, where the 5Ps represent people, planet, prosperity, peace, and partnerships (DESA, 2016). The importance of building SDGs knowledge summed up by participant P3' resonates with sustainability thinking, a competence at strategic level discussed earlier, which embeds SDGs into operations and processes through reasoning; whereas, knowledge of SDGs is oriented towards acquiring technical understanding. Lozano (2015) concurs that the new world order demands organisations to think sustainable development in the entire strategic management process. Thus, industry leaders are required to understand that SDGs integrate the political, economic, social, technological and ecological considerations through the inclusivity approach whose mantra is that "no one will be left behind", including the private sector and citizens (Nicolai, Hoy, Berliner, & Aedy, 2015). However, participant P3 earlier spoke of the need to understand how to innovate processes in advancing the SDGs agenda. This is discussed next.

Innovative thinking

To corroborate in support of innovative thinking, participant P12 had the following to say: "The mind-set and the skills required are changing. So, we need thinkers, innovators, people who come up with new ideas; people who understand their area".

In the context of this study, a changing mind-set is one that is innovative enough to advance the SDGs and contribute to their achievement. The need for innovative thinking is corroborated by Tabbah and Maritz (2019) who stated that disruptive innovation challenges the status quo and impacts the economy, society and ecology. These challenges should create new paradigms for innovation policy aimed at a system-wide transformation (Grillitsch et al. (2019). Therefore, the existence of an innovation policy should be a catalyst for innovative thinking at all levels of the organisation. In the conceptual model, Figure 4.9 in Chapter Four, innovative thinking resides in operations on the left side of the diagram.

Another emerging theme was **wisdom**. This was to be a replacement of multiple intelligences or to be a stand-alone competence. However, in the context of this study, wisdom would be better placed as a trait for the person-leader and not as a leadership competence. In addition, Chapter Three concluded that the trait approach was not suitable for this study.

What is important to note in this subsection on emerging themes is that the interviews added new themes/competences, which were not part of the draft LCF. It also clarifies that self-leadership is an important ingredient for all leaders for one to be able to lead others, whilst knowledge of SDGs is required to innovate for the sustainable development agenda. Hence, the need for innovative thinking.

To conclude this category on desired core leadership competences, the themes from draft LCF from literature and the emerging themes are consolidated in Table 6.10 next.

Table 6.10: Desired Core leadership Competences

Themes in Draft LCF from Literature	Emerging Themes after Field Inquiry
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Social responsiveness 2. Ecosystems thinking 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Self-leadership 2. Knowledge of SDGs 3. Innovative thinking that engender smart technologies

From Table 6.10, the supported core leadership competence from the draft LCF are social responsiveness and ecosystems thinking. Ecosystems thinking resulted from integrating systems thinking and eco-systems awareness. Some rationalisation took place where multiple intelligences were renamed multiple leadership styles and moved to strategic level as suggested by participants. Knowledge of sustainable manufacturing patterns and practices was merged with knowledge of SDGs; whilst self-leadership and innovative thinking that engender smart technologies are new themes.

The need for values to encapsulate the other competences cannot be overemphasised and is discussed next.

6.4.3.4 Desired Core Values

This subcategory focuses on determining desired core values necessary at all levels of leadership in the organisation. This theme is identified in the conceptual framework, Figure 4.9 in Chapter Four, represented by the core values pillar. Four key core values were identified in Chapter Four, Figure 4.10. The four values are ethical; caring for the well-being of all and everything; integrity; and respect for all. However, new themes also arose from the field inquiry and are discussed separately. The discussion starts with the four themes from the draft LCF from literature.

6.4.3.4.1 Themes/Core-values in the Draft LCF from Literature

Three core values got participants' support. These core values are ethical; caring for all; and respect for all.

Ethics

All participants considered the role of ethics in sustainable manufacturing to be very important. Participant P3 explained this importance as exemplified in their organisation's value chain as follows:

Ethics sit very squarely when we are preparing products for consumption by consumers. We make certain claims about those products. We rely on raw materials supplied by other suppliers and we have to make product declarations. When I look at our need for consistent quality and food that is safe for consumers, it just seems to me that ethics are the bedrock of that entire value chain that leads to the manufacturing of foods and beverages. Because we all have to be [have] **integrity** about product

declarations, what is contained and what is not contained in those products, both in the raw materials as well as in the final product. We are also depending on our suppliers to be ethical in terms of what they are disclosing about the raw materials they are supplying. Because we rely on that to make claims about our final products to the consumer.

Most participants discussed integrity in the context of ethics, as exemplified in the preceding paragraph by participant P3. It was logical that this research incorporates integrity into ethics and not as a stand-alone value. Hence participant P8 said: “These values are interwoven. You cannot talk of ethics and leave out integrity”.

Some participants mentioned unethical practices obtaining in the industry, which must not be tolerated. One participant had witnessed unethical practices where colleagues would record a quality result that they had not measured. This is why it is important to take advice from participant P5 who said:

People think that things of an ethical nature are board [of directors'] responsibilities. Yes, they [board] carry the biggest cane, but at every level of the organisation, we should be able to take some ethical responsibilities. Certain organisations have started to do that. Where every year, a person at my level is required to sign an ethical statement, so that we can be reminded of our role as managers in terms of living our ethical life. More so, as we try to drive these SDGs.

In summary, participants called for the avoidance of sustainability scandals such as dumping hazardous waste in rivers; corruption; avoidance of unethical players in the supply chain; misrepresenting and untruthful information; non-transparent reporting; and paying executives at the expense of workers during turbulent times. The importance of ethical behaviour in sustainable development is corroborated by Kibert et al. (2012,) who argue that ethics are implicit in sustainable development because sustainability takes into account moral values and moral goals. In this regard, this should enable an organisation to move to ethical and sustainable business practices (Wales, 2013). The importance of discipline was emphasised by participants to uphold ethical conduct. This should result in the development of standards for ethical conduct because ethics was a difficult term to define, they argued. Hence, literature confirms the need to safeguard the interests of future generations, grounded in ethical commitment to the well-being of

both current and future generations (Kibert, 2012) by avoiding ethical scandals mentioned by participants. Therefore, adopting ethics as an organisational culture should bring about respect in leaders, which can be emulated by followers (Brown & Trevino, 2006). From the conceptual framework, Figure 4.9 in Chapter Four, ethics are found in the ethical climate domain on the left of the diagram. Ethical behaviour can be enhanced by a caring attitude as discussed next.

Caring for the well-being of all and everything

There was consensus among participants that caring for all and everything was important and that organisations must strive for it for the benefit of the ecosystem and every stakeholder, including the workforce. Participant P1 puts clarity to the consensus stating that:

It [caring] also goes (back) to the issue of **ethics**. The world is a world of people. The world was created to accommodate people and people live in it. So, if you care, you don't destroy or pollute the very world in which people live, starting with the people you work with.

Participant P3 states in other words that:

I see at the centre of the entire global sustainability agenda; I think the **foundation** of that is caring. That is, caring about what is going to happen to our planet in 50 years or 100 years, when we are not here. That implies, it is a concern for us; what the state of the world will be and the environment in 100 years when we are gone. The fact that, it is a concern suggests that we are caring.

Care should be demonstrated continuously even during difficult times as argued by participant P12 who stated that:

Right now, we have a difficult time in terms of demand suppression, but we have not retrenched anyone. People have no money. They can't buy these products. Salaries are not going up in government. In addition to that, we are going into communities and doing projects where we are operating, focussing on poverty alleviation; education; and other works. I think we have gone past being too excited in our reports of profits, but with impacts. [That is] what are we doing about those around us?

Hence, there is need for focussing on **maintaining stakeholder** relations instead of profit during turbulent times. In addition, self-interest should not be the basis for caring. Interestingly, some participants believe that **caring has bi-products** such as reverse supply chain; recycling and refurbishment; waste management; and extension of product life cycles.

However, participant P7 disagreed with the rest of the participants on the importance of caring. But before responding, participant sought clarity on whether the term caring for all includes all humankind? After getting an affirmative response from the researcher, P7 went on to dismiss the notion saying that: “Look this sounds like **blue sky stuff**”. But went on to admit that: “We worry (care) about our environment. This is why we do things that we spoke about”. In this regard, the insinuation was that it is not possible to care for all and everything. Hence, cognisant of this shortcoming, the word ‘everything’ was dropped so that the value refers to ‘caring for all’. The suggestion by participant P8 that the word **love** should be used instead of caring could not be supported by scholarly literature. Love is ordinarily appropriate for the person-leader values than as a corporate value. Finally, although caring for all and everything had some challenges, participant P4 urged organisations to strive for it.

An important link was created between ethics and caring. Both are found in the ethical climate and sustainability culture domains in the conceptual framework, Figure 4.9 in Chapter Four. This bonding makes inculcation of both values easier because pursuing one creates a magnetic pull of the other. Concern for the environment depicting caring as alluded to by participants, resonates with Scharmer and Kaufer’s (2013) averments that ecosystem awareness is a leadership competence rooted in caring about the well-being of all, including one’s self. Kras (2007) corroborates this by stating that consideration of future generations should drive the behaviour of leaders concerned with sustainability. The rooting of ecosystem awareness in caring, confirms the thrust of this study that values must encapsulate the competences. The last core-value is respect for all.

Respect for all

All participants concurred that, respect for all was a fundamental value, to the extent that without respect values crumble. The analysis shows that there are the **human**

relations and the **environmental perspectives** of respect. Both aspects were clearly elaborated by participant P5 who averred that:

Respect is almost like a given. When we talk about relationship building, where there is respect there is progress, so to speak. In some of the marriage counselling courses I give; I always talk about respect in marriage as one of the key top binders of marriage. Where there is total respect, things like trust easily flows. So, when it comes to even the conduct in the business environment, I think even when we talk about SDGs, your top-most is, respect women through your gender policies. If you respect nature, you 'goanna' [will] be asking questions around how can I use chemicals properly. Respect is part of our Zimbabwean culture, where respect for our elders creates reciprocity. If respect flows throughout the organisation, it can mean a lot in terms of unity of purpose.

One participant spoke from an **antonym perspective** in support of human respect indicating that this was a question very close to heart. Participant, as a young adult, had a horrific and humiliating experience of being ill-treated. Participant P4 explained the experience:

I always said to people, when I look back, I made a resolution in my mind that whenever I became a leader, I would not tolerate a situation where people were not respected..... What you cannot do, is to trash and trample upon the dignity of employees you have a responsibility to lead. For me that comes before anything else, that people are entitled to be treated with respect. It doesn't matter what their station in life is. They may be wearing their overalls coming into the factory, but at their homes they are leaders of their families. They are probably leaders in their church. They are leaders in their community. The fact that they have now put on your company uniform does not deprive them of those roles. Everybody matters. That's my philosophy.

Participant P12 corroborated by a **renaming of employees** to give them their status as stakeholders in an organisation saying: "We have even moved away from the term employee to associates to try and bring in the humane element".

However, there were **shortcomings** regarding respect for the environment. Participant P8 alluded to this shortcoming stating that:

Respect for each other is there. But respect for the environment? If I said, respect for the environment is very high, then I shouldn't have said there is a lot of cullet and litter. This is a great value. But how it is inculcated in our organisation is not to that desired level. The beauty is that, I came through the operations, but I know at times there are short-cuts. Managers say at times, let it go. We can't stop. We want to meet our target.

In conclusion, participants argued that respect tends to manifest itself through action. Thus, appreciation of stakeholders, including employees, should be through action. This respect for all is rooted in the sustainability culture domain in the conceptual framework, Figure 4.9 in Chapter Four. However, the view that respect should not be a hindrance to disciplinary action should be supported. Also, the view that the term employee should be replaced by associates needs support as it brings *Ubuntu* (humanism) to the factory. Furthermore, the view that persons of integrity tend to be respected has merit. This is corroborated by findings in literature that ethical behaviour brings about respect for leaders (Brown & Trevino, 2006). Furthermore, the assertion by participants that respect and trust move together has merit. When it comes to the ecology, the argument that respect for the environment means we also care holds true. Respect is also a leadership behaviour found in various leadership model: spiritual model (Reave, 2005); ethical model (Littman & Littman, 2017); visionary model (Dwivedi, 2006); sustainability leadership (Peterlin, Dimovski, & Penger, 2013); and ecosystem model (Scharmer & Kaufer (2013).

This subsection on theoretical themes resulted in the integrity value being merged with the ethical value as a result of contributions from participants. The caring value had an opposing and alternate voice, which did not impact on the overall support of caring as a suitable value in the SDGs environment. However, the theme was shortened to just caring for the well-being of all instead of 'caring for the well-being for all and everything' because of the opposing voice.

6.4.3.3.2 New Themes/Core-values

Most participants believed that their company values were responsive to the SDGs agenda, but acknowledged the need for reform. Participant P7 made a brief response, which captured the majority feelings saying:

I think yes, we are responding. Our behaviours are being driven by these [SDGs]. Are we moving at sufficient pace in some quarters, I would say, no.

However, participant P8 was emphatic on the need to change organisational values saying:

I think we need to **reset our values and our culture** as a country and then as entities, which exist in our country as the private sector or public sector or even as individuals. As I have already said, core-competencies as Zimbabweans, we are not bad; we are quite strong. Once we have reset our values and culture and leverage our core competencies that are quite strong; then pick-up strongest leaders that we have, then drive at strategic level.

Some participants challenged companies for having values on paper without **living the values**. This was unravelled by participant P11 who argued that:

We happen to be a company that is globally linked, too big a company. Therefore, some of these things are a given. The question which you could be asking me is 'do we live them [values]'. But in terms of alignment, there is. One would want to have a dipstick to measure if we live the values. Unfortunately, there is no dipstick.

To address the gaps alluded to in the preceding, participants identified by their participation number suggested the following as suitable values for sustainable beverage manufacturing environment: creativity and innovation (P3; P5); excellence (P1; P3; P5); teamwork (P3); accountability (P3; P5; P12); responsibility (P5); respect (P1); honesty (P1); integrity (P1; P5; P12); hard working (P1); people are our enduring advantage (P2; P11); accountability is clear and personal (P2); work and win in teams (P2; P5); reputation is indivisible (P2); beliefs in sustainable development (P12); do the

best for local communities (P2); empathy (P4); compassion (P4); results driven (P4); humanness (P4); diplomacy (P6); and responsibility for the environment (P8).

However, literature suggests that the following values were generic and not necessarily specific to SDGs driven environment: creativity and innovation; teamwork; responsibility; honesty; integrity; excellence; hard working; people are our enduring advantage; accountability is clear and personal; work and win in teams; reputation is indivisible; empathy; compassion; and results driven. However, respect and humanness have similar connotations. In this case, respect should prevail as it is more embrative. Notably, respect is not an emerging theme because it already existed in the draft LCF from literature. Lastly, responsibility for the environment resonates with beliefs in sustainable development. However, beliefs in sustainable development have deeper meaning because of its convictions and values connotations. Hence, beliefs in sustainable development should prevail.

Therefore, the emerging themes in this category are **beliefs in sustainable development; doing the best for local communities;** and **diplomacy**. These are discussed next.

Beliefs in sustainable development

Participant P12 had the following to say about **beliefs in sustainable development**:

The [SDGs] agenda is saying let's correct what is not right. So, what we have done is, got the values framework right to say, 'we **believe** it is not right to have poverty; [and] we believe that it is not right not to have integrity'. Then we say, because you believe, now you can have competences. Competences are now enabling you to execute what you believe.

The emphasis on the beliefs in what is right about the SDGs agenda is corroborated by literature findings where Kibert et al. (2012,) argue that ethics are implicit in sustainable development because sustainability takes into account moral values and moral goals. Thus, ethics is about doing good and avoidance of harm (Beauchamp & Childress, 1989). Kibert et al. (2012,) added that the ethical concepts pertinent to sustainable development are the precautionary principle or intergenerational justice; chain of

obligation to future generations; distributional principle or fair distribution of advantages and disadvantages; land or environmental ethics; and the rights of the other species.

Beliefs in sustainable development inculcates a sense of responsibility over the environment. Hence, participant P8 had the following to say about responsibility for the environment:

As an organisation, it's our responsibility to look after our environment and make sure it's better. So, if what we are producing here is not going to make the environment better, stop the machine! That's our value. But at times we carry on. How many times have we been fined? A number of times we have been fined for discharging effluent. If we use our value of saying, 'we are responsible for our environment', that's the starting point and not that we will be fined.

By inculcating a culture of responsibility over the environment, this should complement our beliefs in sustainable development. Thus, making responsibility over the environment a perspective of beliefs in sustainable development. This is so because the incorporation of SDGs in the business strategy should engender responsibility over the environment and care for the future generations. IoDSA (2012, p. 2) corroborates these views by arguing that, "as the business model changes to include a broader view of the company's place in society, the need to be accountable to a diverse group of stakeholders and take responsibility for common ecological capital arises". In emphasising the value of responsibility, Waldman (2011) argued that responsibility was a missing element in leadership models yet, it is the main driver of effective leadership. Hence, beliefs in sustainable development should anchor the values system in the SDGs era. From the conceptual framework, Figure 4.9 in Chapter Four, beliefs in SDGs should be linked to sustainability culture on the left side of the diagram. The next new core value is doing the best for local communities.

Doing the best for local communities

In emphasising the importance of doing the best for local communities, participant P12 had the following to say:

We are going into communities and doing projects where we are operating, focussing on poverty alleviation; education; and other works. I

think we have gone past being too excited in our reports of profits, but with impacts.

The 'doing the best for local communities' approach advances a business agenda for SDGs that endears corporates with all communities. It speaks to social responsiveness discussed under core leadership competences, as opposed to socially responsible collaborations, which is associated with diplomacy discussed next. This is corroborated by literature where, beneficiation in the context of value addition is one example to benefit local communities that is gaining ground in Africa in countries such as Nigeria, South Africa, Angola, Zambia, DRC and Zimbabwe (Akinkugbe, 2013). From the conceptual framework in Chapter Four, Figure 4.9, doing the best for local communities should be linked to the sustainability culture domain. The last new core value is diplomacy.

Diplomacy

Diplomacy was identified as a value, which is necessary in the SDGs era. In support, participant P6 said:

One of our values is diplomacy, which resonates very well with SDG 17 of partnerships for goals, peace, justice, strong institutions, and climate diplomacy. I have just completed a course in climate diplomacy on the road to be one of the negotiators of climate change for Zimbabwe.

Literature corroborates that organisational diplomacy is the art of socially responsible collaborative relations with stakeholders in a sensitive and tactful way (Macnamara, 2012). In other words, it emphasises sensitiveness and peaceful relationships. It has been mainly associated with politics and now finding its way into the corporate world as stated by participant P6. For example, Colakogla (2016) revealed that, MIKTA, a new global governance player comprising Mexico, Indonesia, South Korea, Turkey and Australia was formed as a power broker within the G20 to enhance summit diplomacy. He further argues that countries use global summitry as a governance process to resolve pressing international issues and cause change. However, Stogdill (1974) emphasised that diplomacy is a necessary skill for successful leadership. On the conceptual framework, Figure 4.9, diplomacy should be fitted in the sustainability culture domain as well as the collaborative domain, both on the left side of the diagram.

What is important to note on emerging themes is that the interviews added new values, which were not part of the draft LCF. Two related values added were beliefs in sustainable development; and doing the best for local communities. Interestingly, diplomacy as a value, normally associated with political and international relations, has found its way into corporate relations.

To conclude this category on core values, the themes from draft LCF from literature and the emerging themes are consolidated in Table 6.11 next.

Table 6.11: Desired Core-values

Core Values in Draft LCF from Literature	Emerging Themes from Field Inquiry
1. Ethical 2. Caring for all 3. Respect for all	1. Beliefs in sustainable development 2. Doing the best for local communities 3. Diplomacy

From Table 6.11, the three supported values from the draft LCF from literature are ethical, caring for all, and respect for all. In addition, caring for the well-being of all and everything has been reduced to just ‘caring for all’. However, participants suggested new values, which were consolidated into three on the right side of Table 6.11. This values framework sets the culture required in the organisation and encapsulate the rest of the leadership competences.

Participants underscored the need to have values that are suitable for SDGs driven environment. In this regard, mainstreaming of sustainability into the company values was advocated for because this was lacking in the industry. In other words, the values framework must be underpinned by beliefs in sustainable development. The need for living the values as opposed to have the values on paper cannot be overemphasised. The call to have the custodianship of values to reside at strategic level of the organisation is important to avoid a situation presented by participant P11 who said:

What I found is that when we had custodianship of values residing at strategic level, you could actually see that we were living the values. But a time came when it was all about cost cutting. The thinking was that it

was not an important function [custody of values] and was manned at very low levels. Its importance was lost, and it died.

The aforesaid will enable top leadership to lead by example, which resonates with implicit leadership theory (Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Fein, Tziner, Vasiliu, & Felea, 2015). Here, followers carry through their first impressions of the leader and regulate their own behaviours in relation to their acceptance or not of the leader (Phillips & Lord, 1986). However, the call for a culture that sees profit as a by-product of the company's activities in the communities may not go down well with the shareholders.

While, this subcategory centred on finding a fit between the existing values and the new SDGs agenda, the next section is intended to establish how collaborative leadership competences can be complementary to the other leadership competences.

6.4.3.5 Desired Collaborative Leadership Competences

The issue of collaborative leadership competences is enshrined in the SDGs agenda framework where it is stated that, implementing the agenda is to be done by all countries and stakeholders in collaborative partnerships, including the corporate world (General Assembly, 2015). This collaborative leadership competences pillar was not part of the draft LCF and has been inductively established from the field inquiry. These collaborative leadership competences are ability to build diverse teams; and partnering skills. They are discussed next.

Ability to build diverse teams

To contribute positively to sustainable development, competences required of leaders must reside in teams as advocated by participant P12, who stated that:

We have done an exercise around ourselves and properly placed the team such that, if you look at the whole team, what you are seeing is, it has all the competences necessary to execute the agenda. But they might not all reside in one individual. So, we have done that assessment already to say, what is so and so able to do and properly placed the team so that achievement of goals is a bit easier. You have been put in an area where you have got talent and naturally inclined to learn faster than having people just being put into various areas.

The team competence perspective alluded to by P12 is supported by literature, where Filipova (2015) clarified that, leadership competences in an organisational structure context are not attributable to the person-leader but to the functional roles. Hence, the need to bring team members who have diverse abilities to fit into the functional role. This is supported by role theory, which indicates that incumbents in distinct roles are linked to complement one another (Vandenberghe, Bentein, & Panaccio, 2017). Hence, it is argued that leadership competence behaviour is influenced by roles and functions (Bairantus & Agapitou, 2016). However, awareness of weaknesses will assist in building strong teams as discussed next.

In stressing the importance of the team-based approach to leadership, participant P10 questioned the need for one to possess multiple leadership styles arguing that:

They [multiple leadership styles] can never be developed to the same extend, which is why you always win in teams. So, I think you can supplement with others, but always have an awareness of areas that you are weak and try and grow these to become a strong leader.

Whilst, the team approach is enriched by talents and competences of individuals, this should not be a hindrance to developing multiple skills in the individuals. Teamwork should not be restricted to internal teams but must include collaborative teams with external stakeholders. Participant P12 had the following to say about external teaming-up:

We have teamwork, although it sometimes refers to internal [teams]. We work with a lot [of] others in building programs that are directed at achievement of these goals. So, we are not just ourselves.

The ability to build diverse teams is pertinent to this study because the SDGs agenda is pregnant with inclusion issues as exemplified by SDGs four, five, eight, nine and sixteen (General Assembly, 2015). However, as collaboration extends outside the organisation, the need for partnering skills arises because partnering goes beyond building teams as discussed next.

Partnering skills

Partnering should be considered as a perspective collaboration. It is encapsulated in sustainable development goal number seventeen where multi-stakeholders partnership are required to implement the SDGs agenda as follows:

Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the global partnership for sustainable development (ECOSOC, 2015, p. 1)

With reference to collaboration, participant P12 put partnering skills into perspective by stating that:

We expand a lot, around other communities, between ourselves; amongst ourselves; [and] externally. I think it's quite encompassing; and when you are using it as a frame of reference for what you then plan to do, I think it still directs you to the same thing that your organisation should actually see profit as a bi-product rather than a principal product. It's actually more sustainable if you did that, these days.

This subcategory contributed desired collaborative leadership competences, which should be included in the leadership competence framework as a new pillar and not as an outlier as it currently stands in the conceptual framework in chapter four, Figure 4.9. In addition, collaboration is a contemporary term in the SDGs agenda encompassing partnership with implementing partners and multi-stakeholders. Consequently, in this study teamwork and partnering are perspectives of collaborations. Hence, the need to have collaborative leadership competences as a separate pillar. The next section discusses desired person-leader competencies.

6.4.3.6 Desired Person-Leader Competencies

Person leader competencies are abilities that are essential characteristics of an individual leading to outstanding performance (Boyatzis, 2009). This theme can be identified in the conceptual framework in chapter, Figure 4.9 represented by skills, knowledge, behaviours and attitudes on the left side of the diagram. Table 4.6 and Table 4.7 in chapter four shows that competencies are elements of competences without the i (Gehring, 2007).

There was mixed reaction as to what person-leader competencies participants considered important. Most participants felt that, what they had said in the competences section was applicable to the person-leader. This mix-up is corroborated by literature findings that the concepts of competencies and competences are either used as meaning the same thing or as concepts with different meaning (Brownell, 2006; Jovescek, 2016; Wickramasinghe & De Zoyza, 2011). The field inquiry did not include person-leader competencies from the draft LCF. Hence, the focus was only on establishing if new themes could be inducted from the inquiry. The process of establishing these new themes involved checking for competencies from each of the participants' transcriptions against Table 4.6 and Table 4.7 in chapter four. Therefore, the new themes identified are awareness and knowledge of SDGs; understanding global affairs; ability to reset values and culture; stakeholder management skills; social intelligence; environmental awareness; resource prudence; and ability to live the values. However, awareness and knowledge of SDGs; and understanding global affairs have been incorporated in the core values under beliefs in sustainable development. Ability to reset values and culture; and ability to live the values have been discussed as the preamble to the core values pillar. Stakeholder management skills are part of stakeholder engagement discussed under strategic leadership competences. Environmental awareness is part of knowledge of SDGs discussed under core leadership competences. Lastly, resource prudence is generic and not necessarily associated with sustainability only. This leaves social intelligence as the only person-leader competence not discussed elsewhere and is discussed next.

Social Intelligence

Thorndike (1920) defined social intelligence as the capacity to understand and manage people, whilst, acting wisely in such human relations. Its constructs are social understanding, social memory, social perception, and social creativity (Weis & Süß, 2005). Participant P12 advocated for social intelligence as an important person-leader competence for sustainable development saying that:

In terms of SDGs, I would mention social consciousness. If you do not have **social consciousness** in today's world, then you are in trouble. In fact, research has demonstrated in most cases that, **social intelligence** pays higher than IQ. Because you can have your mathematics and what,

but if the people are not going to support what you are doing; if the people are not going to be aware; if the people are not going to benefit; if you don't see the importance of people recognising you as an important cog in their community; then you haven't started.

The importance of social intelligence alluded to by P12 is corroborated by Fernández-Aráoz (1999). He studied new C-level executives who had been hired because of their self-discipline, drive, and intellect. He found that some of these executives were later fired for lack of basic social skills and failing to get along with others.

Whilst, the person-leader competencies proffered by participants for a sustainable beverage manufacturing industry were important, they were not exhaustive. These competencies are abilities that enable one to use knowledge and then implement concepts learnt into practice (Visagie et al., 2011). However, the competencies mentioned by participants were adequate to show their link to the organisational competences to augment the LCF. The view that the person-leader competencies should be aligned to organisational competences is supported by literature, where competencies were found to role-up into competences (Gehring, 2007).

This subsection proposed what effective leadership competences should be. This was done after establishing shortcomings of existing leadership competences. It was concluded that existing leadership competences were ineffective to drive the beverage industry into contributing to the achievement of SDGs. Thus, corroborating the problem statement. Therefore, contribution of this subsection to the study are as follows:

- Effectiveness of leadership competences cannot be measured without context. This should be complemented by mainstreaming SDGs into the business strategy.
- Five themes of desired leadership competences were identified. These are strategic leadership competences; core leadership competences; core values; collaborative leadership competences; and person leader competences. Collaborative leadership competences is a new theme to be added to the draft LCF from literature.
- Competences at strategic level of leadership are the drivers of business strategy.
- Core leadership competences are required for every leader including leaders at strategic level.

- The core values pillar must be underpinned by beliefs in sustainable development and everyone must walk them.
- The draft LCF from literature must be reconstructed to take into account new themes being added and some being dropped.

The revised draft will be discussed in the next chapter. The next category discusses considerations for developing the envisaged leadership competence framework (LCF).

6.4.4 Considerations for Developing a Leadership Competence Framework (LCF)

Participant P1 summed up in a **philosophical** manner, the development of an LCF stating that:

It [LCF] is a way of training people to think in a particular manner; to have care basically; to be aware of one's environment; and to do things that benefit the community in, which one lives and the wider world. Of course, without making it into a religion.

Participant P6 dwelt on what **features** the LCF should have suggesting that:

You will need to develop a model that is **practical** in Africa. If I was your supervisor, one of the things that I would expect from you is, development of a leadership model that responds to sustainable development, which would be pilot tested. Now you are assessing the current situation in the manufacturing sector. It would be important to go a step further and develop a model. Pilot it and see how the model can be tweaked and customised to our context. One of the things you are going to learn is that, leadership for sustainable development depends on the context. If you are operating from a developed country or developing country, the context is different. So, your model must not be static. It must not be one size fits all. It must not be rigid. The model should be responsive to multi-country contexts for it to be relevant.

Participant P11 also followed up with another **feature**-proposal for the development of an LCF suggesting that:

What I implore you to do is to make the framework as **practical** as possible. Let it not be seen as one of those things where people felt that,

someone just wanted to complete their thesis. The value of anything is in the usability of that something.

The proposal to have the SDGs become a framework for strategic planning needs to be operationalised. In support of this SDGs framework for strategic planning, participant P12 said:

This [interview] was talking about SDGs. I have [still] to actually come to an organisation, which has SDGs as its framework for planning. Organisations work with plans; if it goes into their plans, they know how to execute, performance measurements, what, what, what, all those systems will work. But the template that we are using, as organisations, has not been shifted to go to the current expectation. So, I would see an opportunity for one to say, hang-on, can I create something that organisations can touch and that will drive their agenda. If one can come up with something like that, then you have sort of replaced an old template with one that is going towards, rather than make this a subsidiary of another. You want to change it because the argument now is, this should be the base of your operation; and the others now become bi products. It would be good to have an opening **workshop** to drive this new thrust.

Lastly, some participants touched on the **transferability** of the LCF to other setting. In this case, participant P7 said:

I went through this [interview paper] before we met. Of course, I understand that you would need to narrow it down to your field of study; otherwise you have it [study] for decades. Maybe that's why you chose the beverage industry. So, yah, it's a fair way of looking at it. But I still would have thought, when you look at the leadership competence framework, you should be able to apply it pretty much, to any, any enterprise whether profit making, non-profit making and so forth. So, we will see from your output.

The argument by participant P7 that the leadership competence framework was applicable to any industry, suggests that the envisaged LCF could be transferrable to other industries. This probable transferability and non-static LCF model arguments

proffered by participant P6 were to be confirmed during validation. In addition, contributions by participants in this section pointed to the need for an LCF, which responds to the SDGs agenda. Thus, a company must define SDGs that are relevant to its business strategy. The incorporation of SDGs in the business strategy brings a sense of responsibility over the environment and a caring attitude for the future generations. This is corroborated by Ruwanika and Massyn (2019) who argued that organisations must engage in responsible management in pursuit of SDGs. This is corroborated by participant P1 who argued that:

The proposed LCF provides the following: a new way of thinking; awareness of SDGs; a mind-set that puts future generations in the context of our children; caring that leads to poverty alleviation and value addition; and a vision of the kind of world we want to live in. In other words, sustainable development engenders a culture of leaving a legacy.

Therefore, the considerations for developing an LCF point to a blending of philosophy and practice. This means the theoretical framework must be translated into a usable tool for leaders in the beverage manufacturing industry and adaptable to other industries to promote leadership competences for sustainable development.

This section provided for data analysis and interpretation. It is at the core of this chapter and assisted in eliciting meaning from interview data using a thematic data analysis process. Thematic analysis helped in connecting and establishing relationships among the following themes: context of sustainable development; development of leadership competences; effective leadership competences; and considerations for developing a leadership competence framework. Once data analysis and interpretation is concluded, this means a proposal for a revised leadership competence framework (LCF) can be made.

6.5 Chapter Conclusion

This chapter operationalised research objective 2.6: To conduct a field inquiry into the possible viability of the broad draft framework of identified leadership competences to ensure sustainability of the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe. The field inquiry tested the draft leadership competence framework (LCF), which was constructed from literature review and solicited views of participants. Interviews were conducted to

obtain views of participants on and experiences with leadership competences and sustainable development.

The context in which data was analysed and interpreted involved the choice of study perspective; and the structure of the beverage manufacturing industry. The choice of the study context was influenced by a PESTES analysis resulting in sustainable development being chosen as the context. It was established that the beverage market in Zimbabwe and the world over was categorised into non-alcoholic and alcoholic drinks. It was found that meaning is enhanced when the context is clearly enunciated before conducting data analysis and interpretation. The findings of this study assist in developing an LCF for a sustainable beverage industry designed to achieve the following: aligning individual competencies to organisational goals; aligning performance to organisational goals; creating distinctive advantages for achieving organisational goals; and to be a strategic tool for change.

Information related to participants provided an understanding of why some participants declined to take part in the interviews; the majority had no knowledge of SDGs. The targeted sample size of twelve was reached comprising current and former executives of the beverage manufacturing industry. Although data saturation point was reached at seven and reconfirmed up to the tenth participant, the research benefited from new insights by continuing to look for more participants to get to the predetermined sample of twelve. The interviews were conducted in a time range of 45 to 95 minutes per participant. Despite the wide-time range, there were no identified disparities in the value of input from the participants. In addition, the interview information showed the importance of stretching beyond saturation point because new information arose.

After conducting a thematic data analysis, two key contribution to the study are identified in this chapter. These are the leadership competences development framework depicted by Figure 6.2 and Table 6.12 next, containing key themes contributing to the reconstruction of a leadership competence framework (LCF).

Table 6.12: Key Themes Contributing to the Reconstruction of an LCF

	Category Theme	Subcategory themes
1	Sustainable development	Definitions
		Organisational View
2	Development of leadership competences	Developing Organisational Leadership Competences
		Developing Person-Leader Competencies
3	Effective Leadership Competences	Strategic Leadership Competences
		Core Leadership Competences
		Core Values
		Collaborative Leadership Competences
		Person-leader Competencies
4	Considerations for Developing a LCF	

Having analysed and interpreted the data in this chapter, the next chapter works towards developing a leadership competence framework (LCF) for a sustainable beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe.

CHAPTER 7 : TOWARDS A LEADERSHIP COMPETENCE FRAMEWORK (LCF) FOR THE BEVERAGE MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY IN ZIMBABWE

7.1 Introduction

The chapter seeks to answer the last secondary research question 2.7: What LCF can be developed that optimises sustainability of the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe? In addressing this question, the other secondary research questions 2.1 to 2.6 provided background information. Chapter Two provided a contextual background to the study by reviewing the changing business environment and identified sustainable development, dissected into SDGs, as the new mega-force driving change globally and nationally. It was argued that the impact of COVID-19 strengthens the need to focus on SDGs. Chapter Three discussed leadership theory and identified key leadership competences necessary to drive sustainable manufacturing. Chapter Four integrated the literature to come up with a conceptual framework for leadership competences for sustainable manufacturing. The chapter then presented a draft LCF, which became the basis of a field inquiry. In Chapters Five and Six a case was made to review the draft LCF through face-to-face interviews resulting in new themes arising and some themes in the draft LCF being challenged by participants. Hence, Chapter Seven starts by giving an overview of the literature and field inquiry findings to make a proposal for a reconstructed LCF. The reconstructed LCF was given to four validation experts to evaluate and make suggestions for refinement. In addition to evaluating, the experts were asked to determine the applicability and transferability of the framework.

Therefore, this chapter is presented in the following order. First, an overview of the literature and field inquiry findings is provided. The integration resulted in a reconceptualization leading to a reconstructed leadership competence framework for the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe. Secondly, validation results of the reconstructed LCF are discussed. The chapter ends with conclusions.

7.2 Overview of the Literature and Field Inquiry Findings

The starting point for developing an LCF for a sustainable beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe involves the integration of the findings in the draft LCF from literature and the findings of the empirical study. The integration is done using the themes identified in Chapter Six. Table 7.1 shows the integration and the relevant themes.

Table 7.1: Integrating the Study

	Category Theme	Subcategory themes	Themes, Competences or Elements
1	Sustainable development	Definitions	Brundtland Commission; livelihoods; futuristic; responsible management; and SDGs
		Organisational View	Association; selective approach; strategic approach; creating sustainability function; embedding sustainability into strategy; resource management; imperative approach; and social licensing
2	of Development leadership competences	Integrated Leadership Competences Development	Dialogue; culture change; capacity building; programs for developing LCs; channels for developing LCs; training; personal development; conscience development; performance management; mentorship; coaching; and counselling
3	Effective Leadership Competences	Strategic Leadership Competences	Presencing; intergenerational systemic behaviour; reflexivity; stakeholder engagement; strategic awareness; sustainability thinking; knowledge of metrics of measurement; inclusivity skills; and multiple leadership styles
		Core Leadership Competences	Social responsiveness; ecosystem thinking; self-leadership; knowledge of SDGs; and innovative thinking
		Core Values	Ethics; caring for all; respect for all; doing the best for local communities; diplomacy; and beliefs in sustainable development
		Collaborative Leadership Competences	Build diverse teams; and partnering skills
		Person-leader Competencies	As listed in Table 4.6 and Table 4.7 in Chapter Four plus social intelligence
4	Considerations for Developing an LCF		Blend philosophy and practice; make LCF a practical tool; promote adaptability to other industry settings

Compiled by researcher

The integration of the themes in Table 7.1 are discussed next starting with the sustainable development theme.

7.2.1 Sustainable Development

This theme underscored the importance of context in, which a LCF for the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe is contemplated. Definitions played a role in unpacking the context of sustainable development in the literature review and the field inquiry. It was found that SDGs are a perspective for understanding sustainable development. This is the reason why a number of prospective participants declined to take part in the field study citing lack of understanding of SDGs. However, there was divergence in the way participants viewed sustainable development in their organisation. Participants alluded to the following approaches being undertaken in their companies: selective approach; strategic approach; creating a sustainability function; embedding sustainability in strategy; resource management; imperative approach; and social licensing. To enable businesses to fully immerse themselves into sustainable development, SDGs should form part of a toolkit for assisting in understanding sustainable development that should include a social licensing aspect. Social licensing entails that the company's activities endear themselves with the communities.

There was convergence between literature and the participants that SDGs were the new drivers of change internationally and locally. Therefore, to incentivise managers to pursue sustainable development, SDGs should be embedded in the business strategy to bring a sense of ownership that force corporates to be stakeholders and not partners in sustainable development. This removes misunderstandings exhibited by some participants that SDGs are a UN and Non-Governmental Organisational agenda, which had nothing to do with corporates. However, context is also important in designing a framework for the development of leadership competences discussed next.

7.2.2 Development of Leadership Competences

The importance of this theme lies in the need to develop existing leadership competences at both organisational and person-leader levels to desired levels for sustainable development in the beverage manufacturing industry. The following issues are important in the development of leadership competences: capacity development should start at the highest level of the organisational structure to enable the cascading effect; development programs must aim at developing leaderful organisations with a

collective responsibility for leadership; and upscale the training of sustainable development leaders at person-leader level. The foregoing calls for a framework for capacity development, which is provided for by Figure 6.2 in Chapter Six.

This theme established that sustainable development values must encapsulate the other leadership competences. Secondly, it is necessary to have core leadership competences in the framework because together with core competences, they are required in any leadership position, whilst strategic competences are reserved for top leadership. A development program designed according to the dictates of this theme should engender effective leadership competences discussed next.

7.2.3 Effective Leadership Competences

The context of sustainable development is important in judging the effectiveness of leadership competences, hence the need to have full knowledge of the SDGs perspective of sustainable development, for one to determine the effectiveness of existing and desired leadership competences. Participants and literature corroborated the problem statement that existing leadership competences were ineffective to drive the beverage industry into contributing to the achievement of SDGs. Participants' views are summed up into three themes to explain what they thought about existing leadership competences namely: there is need to upscale existing leadership competences; there are gaps in existing leadership competences; and there are some areas where competences existed but needed improvement.

After establishing the shortcomings of the existing leadership competences theoretically and empirically, the research sought to probe how effective leadership competences should be. It is concluded that effective leadership competences fall into five pillars namely: strategic leadership competences; core leadership competences; core values; collaborative leadership competences; and person-leader competencies. Except for collaborative leadership competences, the other four pillars emanated from the draft LCF from literature. However, there are movements in these four pillars where new themes were added or existing ones dropped after the field inquiry. Table 7.2 depicts the reconstruction of the proposed LCF showing the movements. However, the leadership competence pillars are briefly discussed next, starting with strategic leadership competences.

Strategic Leadership Competences

Strategic leadership competences reside at the top level of the organisational ladder. They are the enablers of strategic thinking, formulation, and directing execution. Without strategic leadership competences, the organisation becomes directionless even where a vision exists. The draft LCF from literature identified five key strategic leadership competences. After the data analysis four new competences are identified. These are sustainability thinking; knowledge of metrics of measurement; inclusivity skills; and multiple leadership styles. The next pillar is core leadership competences.

Core Leadership Competences

Core leadership competences are capabilities, which should reside in all leadership position in each context. The core leadership competence approach is premised on the understanding that leadership should come from anyone and not necessarily from people holding leadership positions. Core leadership competences are required for anyone assuming leadership in the organisation. Without them, strategic leadership competences will not hold because core competences are the foundation. Hence, their importance in a leadership competence framework. During data analysis, core competences from the draft LCF from literature were overhauled. Social responsiveness was the only one that remained intact. The other new and renamed competences are ecosystem thinking; self-leadership; knowledge of SDGs; and innovative thinking. The next pillar is core values.

Core Values

The importance of core values is confirmed by literature findings indicating that a sustainable organisational culture or core values are some of the driving factors for sustainable development at corporate level. This is the reason why core values must encapsulate the strategic and the core leadership competences to be able to drive the SDGs agenda. As one participant quipped, “Without values, competences crumble in a SDGs environment”.

However, the custodianship of core values must rest with the strategic level of leadership, to force leaders to lead by example through living the values. Three of the four core values from the draft LCF withstood participants’ evaluation. These are ethical; caring for all; and respect for all. However, three new values were identified during data

analysis. These are doing the best for local communities; diplomacy; and beliefs in sustainable development. The next pillar is collaborative leadership competences.

Collaborative Leadership Competences

Collaboration is a contemporary term encompassing partnership with implementing partners and multi-stakeholders. It is up-scaled by the UN sustainable development goal (SDG) number 17, which emphasises collaborations through partnership as one of the means for implementing the sustainable development agenda 2030. Collaboration is important because we live in an interdependent world. The theme is inductively established through data analysis after the field inquiry and should be a new pillar in the proposed LCF. However, in the conceptual framework in Chapter Four, Figure 4.9, it is shown as an outlier instead. Now it is promoted to be a new pillar. There are two competences associated with this new pillar. These are ability to build diverse teams; and partnering skills. The last pillar is person-leader competencies.

Person-Leader Competencies

This theme is important to the development of a performance framework because an LCF aligns individual competencies to organisational goals. The theme is included to show the link between organisational competences and the person-leader capabilities. This is supported by literature in that competencies were found to role-up into organisational competences. Hence, person-leader competencies are found in every pillar of the LCF namely: strategic leadership competences; core leadership competences; core-values; and collaborative leadership competences. Because of their presence in every leadership competences pillar, person-leader competencies are not included in the draft LCF that was taken for field inquiry. It was argued that person-leader competencies are off-shoots of organisational competences as indicated in Table 4.6 and Table 4.7 in Chapter Four. However, the only pertinent competence established from the data analysis is social intelligence.

After integrating the findings from the literature and the field inquiry a proposal was made for an LCF suitable for the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe.

7.2.4 Considerations for developing an LCF for the Beverage Manufacturing Industry in Zimbabwe

Considerations for developing an LCF entails blending philosophy and practice. The theoretical framework should be translated into a usable tool for leaders in the beverage manufacturing industry with probable adaptation to other industries. To achieve the foregoing, a reconstruction of the conceptual framework and the draft LCF from literature was required that took into account the results of the field inquiry. The conceptual framework in Chapter Four, Figure 4.9, produced three pillars of leadership competences namely, core values, core leadership competences and strategic leadership competences. These pillars determined effective leadership competences contextualised with sustainable development during literature review. In data analysis and interpretation, collaborative team leadership competences were added as a new pillar. In addition, the other pillars were overhauled to drop, add, confirm or merge some of the competences. This exercise leads to reconstruction of the LCF depicted by Table 7.2 next.

Table 7.2: Reconstruction of LCF after Field Inquiry

Theme	Leadership Competences	Confirmed; Dropped, New Theme or Merged
Core-Values	Ethical	Confirmed
	Caring for all	Confirmed
	Integrity	Merged
	Respect for all	Confirmed
	Doing the best for local communities	New theme
	Diplomacy	New theme
	Beliefs in sustainable development	New theme
Collaborative Team Competences	Ability to build diverse teams	New theme
	Partnering skills	New theme
Core Competences	Eco-system awareness	Merged
	Multiple intelligences	Dropped
	Knowledge of sustainable manufacturing patterns and practices	Merged
	Systems thinking	Merged
	Social responsiveness	Confirmed
	Eco-systems thinking	New theme
	Self-leadership	New theme
	Knowledge of SDGs	New theme
	Innovative thinking that engenders smart technologies	New theme
Strategic Competences	Presencing	Confirmed
	Inter-generational systemic behaviour	Confirmed
	Reflexivity	Confirmed
	Stakeholder engagement	Confirmed
	Strategic awareness	Confirmed
	Sustainability thinking	New theme
	Knowledge of metrics for measurement	New theme
	Skills of inclusivity	New theme
	Multiple leadership styles	New theme

Compiled by researcher

Table 7.2 shows the changes that have taken place in the draft LCF after the field inquiry. Collaborative leadership competences is a new competence pillar. On core-values, integrity is merged whilst three new themes are created, making a total of six themes. On core-competences, four themes are either dropped or merged with other themes, while four new themes are created, thus, maintaining the total of five. On strategic competences, four new themes were created in addition to the five from the draft LCF, making them nine in the reconstructed LCF. Overall, five competences in the draft LCF from literature were either dropped or merged from the initial fourteen, while new themes are thirteen.

Given the findings in the literature and empirical studies, the need arises to revisit the conceptual framework in Chapter Four, Figure 4.9. Therefore, taking into account the movements in Table 7.2, this study proposed the concept of quantum sustainable leadership competences depicted by Figure 7.1 next.

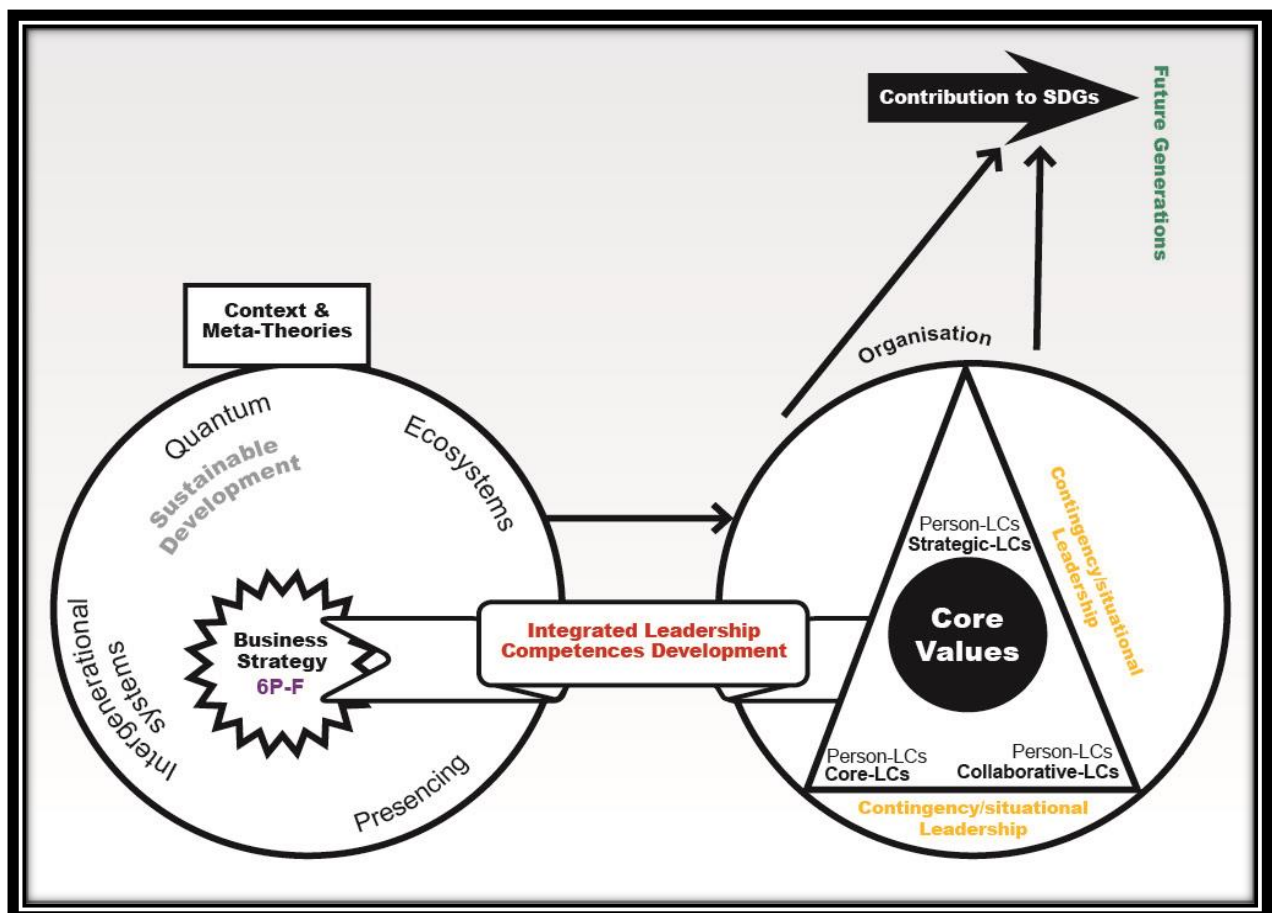


Figure 7.1: Conceptual Framework for Quantum Sustainable Leadership Competences

The main outcomes of the conception is depicted by the bicycle, Figure 7.1. The rear wheel embeds sustainable development into the business strategy because sustainability is the main context. It is complemented by the following meta-theories: intergenerational systems; ecosystems; quantum; and presencing. Performance tracking is done through the sextuple bottom line (6P) framework, the envisaged successor to the triple bottom line (3P) framework. These context themes are the influencing variables giving rise to the LCF. Thus, enabling the organisation on the left wheel to make contributions to SDGs for the benefit of future generations. The contribution to SDGs is the steering that directs the organisation to focus on the future generations. A contingency/situational leadership approach envelops the LCF in the organisation because of the adaptable aspects of the concept. The core values are the heart that pumps blood into the rest of the competences. Hence, without these values the rest of the competences crumble. However, the person-leader competencies are required to enable the strategic, core, and collaborative leadership competences. It is argued that organisational leadership competences require people to drive them. Hence, the importance of person-leader competencies. However, to operationalise the LCF, an integrated leadership competence development approach is required. This is the axle in the middle that connects the two wheels. The axle connects through core values and business strategy, which are the two cogs of both wheels. In support of these two-cog perspective, one would say: “What is an organisation without business strategy and what is leadership without values”? The full integrated leadership competences development framework is shown in Chapter Six, Figure 6.2. Next is the reconstructed LCF depicted by Table 7.3.

Table 7.3: Reconstructed LCF for Validation

Theme	Leadership Competences
Core-Values	Ethical
	Caring for all
	Respect for all
	Doing the best for local communities
	Diplomacy
	Beliefs in sustainable development
Collaborative Team Competences	Ability to build diverse teams
	Partnering skills
Core Competences	Social responsiveness
	Eco-systems thinking
	Self-leadership
	Knowledge of SDGs
	Innovative thinking that engender smart technologies
Strategic Competences	Presencing
	Inter-generational systemic behaviour
	Reflexivity
	Stakeholder engagement
	Strategic awareness
	Sustainability thinking
	Knowledge of metrics for measurement
	Skills of inclusivity
	Multiple leadership styles

Compiled by researcher

The reconstructed LCF now has expanded by one pillar to four pillars. The new pillar is collaborative leadership competences. While, the original LCF had core values; core competences; and strategic competences. The reconstructed LCF has 22 competences compared to 14 in the draft LCF from literature. The core values are six compared to four in draft LCF. Core competences remain at five although some have been dropped merged and new ones added. Strategic competences have increased to nine from the original five. Lastly, collaborative competences is the new pillar comprising two

competences. After a thorough review, the reconstructed LCF was sent to validation experts for evaluation as discussed next.

7.3 Validation of the Reconstructed Leadership Competence Framework (LCF)

The reconstructed LCF required authentication for it to be credible and to determine its transferability to other industry settings. It also required final refinement. Hence, experts' opinions became necessary to evaluate it.

Five questions were found suitable to validate the LCF. The questions were approved by the promoter of this study. The questions are as follows:

1. What are your opinions regarding the framework developed from literature?
2. What are your opinions concerning the final LCF after integration of literature and the empirical study?
3. Any comments regarding the graphical presentation of the framework? Butress your response on whether it is easy to understand.
4. How applicable do you think this framework is to the beverage manufacturing industry?
5. Do you think the framework can be applied to other industries other than the beverage manufacturing industry?

The questions were sent to each validation expert together with a summary of this study for review. The advent of the COVID-19 pandemic made it difficult to interact physically. Due to erratic internet connectivity, the validation experts were requested to make their responses by email to ensure uniformity in the structure of the responses. Information related to the validation experts is discussed next.

7.3.1 Information Related to Validators

The information relating to the validation experts is important to give credibility to the validation results. A total of four experts were involved in the validation process. Table 7.4 shows their biographical profiles.

Table 7.4: Biographical Profiles of Validators

Gender	Status	Sector/Industry	Country
Female	Academic	University	Lesotho
Female	Industry Executive and Part-time Academic	Telecommunications & University	Zimbabwe
Male	CEO & former Beverage Manufacturing Industry Executive	Construction & Beverage Manufacturing Industry	Zimbabwe
Male	CEO, Board Chair, Director & Part-time Academic	Consultancy; Several Industries/Sectors including Beverages; & University	Zimbabwe

Table 7.4 shows that the academic expert from Lesotho brought an international perspective to the validation, while the executive from the telecommunications industry gave both non-beverage industry and academic perspectives. The CEO from construction gave both a beverage and non-beverage perspective because of his experience in both industries. The other CEO gave multiple-sector and academic perspectives because of his vast experience in industry and academia. The validators were selected based on Anney's (2014) argument that transferability of findings is aided by purposively selecting experts. Hence, an important dimension to the validators was that one of them participated in the field inquiry. The inclusion of a field inquiry participant as a validator has been elaborated in Chapter Five subsection 5.2.3.4. The inclusion of this validator tested whether his/her input corroborated the input of the independent validators. Judging by the validators' input one cannot decipher, which validator participated in the interviews. Alternatively, the inclusion of the fourth validator was also academic because three experts should be considered adequate to do independent evaluation. This means that the validation team was diverse in terms of gender, knowledge, expertise, sector and geographic dispersion. This embedding of self-crosschecking mechanisms through choice of validators makes the validation credible.

An analysis of the validation results culminated in the following inductive themes: overarching views; views on the developed LCF; understanding the graphical integration; and applicability of the framework. Next is a discussion on the results of the validation.

7.3.2 Overarching Views

The overarching views were opinions of validators that summed up their assessment of the study. There was consensus among the validators that the study contributed to leadership development and the outcome was relevant and had practical implications for business. Validator V1 gave an academic view stating that:

I went through your Thesis Summary which is very interesting and relevant for [the] management discipline. This is a very interesting topic.

Validator V2 added:

Please find attached the thesis summary with a few cosmetic changes otherwise it is well structured and I thoroughly enjoyed going through it especially the bicycle model (LCF), brilliant concepts in there, well done.

Whereas, validator V3 gave a business executive's view saying:

Overall, I must say that I am impressed with the outcome of your research study and how you have managed to come up with a Leadership Competence Framework that is so powerful and relevant not only to the beverage manufacturing industry but towards leadership competences in general and applicable in different industries. Well done for this seminal achievement.

The key descriptive words from this theme emanating from data analysis are as follows: very interesting (V1, V3); relevant (V1); well structured (V2); thoroughly enjoyed (V2); impressed (V3); and powerful (V3). Therefore, the key descriptive terms indicate that overall, this study was positively evaluated by the team of validation experts. The views of the validators on the developed LCF are discussed next.

7.3.3 Views on the Developed LCF

Developing an LCF for the beverage manufacturing industry was the core of this study. Hence, it was important to obtain the views of the validators on the developed LCF. In

evaluating the process leading to the development of the LCF, the experts provided feedback on validation questions 1 and 2. Question 1: What are your opinions regarding the framework developed from literature? Question 2: What are your opinions concerning the final LCF after integration of the literature and the empirical study? Two subthemes emerged during analysis and interpretation of the validation results. These are the draft LCF from literature; and the proposed final leadership competence framework. The discussion starts with the draft LCF from literature.

7.3.3.1 Draft LCF from Literature

The draft LCF from literature is depicted by Figure 4.10 and complemented by the conceptual framework, Figure 4.9, both in chapter four. The validators considered the draft leadership competence framework and the conceptual framework to be a fair representation of literature integration. In support of this assertion validator V1 said:

The draft framework indicates that rigorous and relevant literature review on leadership competences that contributed into the development of the draft LCF has been made.

Validator V2 used a characteristic perspective to evaluate the draft LCF stating that:

It captures the critical aspects of practical and transformational leadership that not only looks at leadership styles but also incorporates characteristic behaviours that inspire social change and are aligned to sustainable objectives.

However, validators V3 and V4 proffered some suggestions for improvement with reference to the draft LCF, Figure 4.10 in Chapter Four. Participant V3 said:

Well done for presenting a summary so easy to follow and to understand. However, I do not quite understand why the core values have been shown only on two sides of the triangle and not at the bottom as well. I would have expected that since the core values envelop everything, they should have been shown at the bottom of the triangle as well so that the loop is complete.

While, participant V4 said:

What I find most useful about the Draft LCF shown in Figure 4.10 is the centrality of core values as the crucial cross cutting factor on which the rest of the framework depends. What I would suggest is that “Social responsiveness “ or “sustainable living “ be part of the core values as this would bake the SDG theme into the core values. This would have the effect of strengthening the draft LCF.

The foregoing suggestions from validators V3 and V4 were taken on board. First, the core values were already inserted at the bottom of the triangle in Figure 4.10. But the diagram copied to the summary sent to the validators squashed the text at the bottom, making the text invisible. Therefore, no correction was necessary. Secondly, “sustainability living” was added as a core value in the final leadership competence framework in chapter eight, Figure 8.2. Sustainability living was considered more fitting as a value than social responsiveness. Social responsiveness fits well as a core competence where the empirical inquiry validated it. Therefore, its position on the framework stands.

Validator V4 called for more clarity on the draft LCF saying:

I think that from a practical perspective one wants to get better clarity on the distinction between “Strategic Competences” and “Core Competences”. The literature review does not bring this distinction out unambiguously. When I go [to] your data categories in Table 6.4, I see that this distinction is a factor of the hierarchical level within the organisation. Might it not be better then, to have “Strategic Competences” and “Generic Competences “. However, in section 8.3 you do make the distinction clearer when you point out that “core-leadership competences are a must at all levels, whereas strategic leadership competences are most useful for top leadership.

The clarity suggested by V4 was strengthened in Chapter Four, subsection 4.4.2 and subsection 7.2.3 of this chapter sub-headed core leadership competences, where it is clarified that core competences are not only hierarchical but are also required of leaders without leadership position. Therefore, referring to them as generic competences may not synchronise with the orientation of this study.

The key descriptive terms from this subtheme stemming out of data analysis are as follows: rigorous (V1); relevant (V1); fairly good (V1); easy to understand (V1, V3); captures (V2); inspires (V2); strengthens leadership (V2); supports organisational change (V2); promotes cohesion and collectiveness (V2); very good (V3); easy to follow (V3); most useful (V4); do not quite understand (V3); would have expected (V3); would suggest (V4); would bake (V4); and better clarity (V4). Overall, these key terms indicate positive validation of the draft LCF from literature. However, the last five terms pointed to the need for improving the graphical presentation of the LCF and strengthen the core values. The suggestions were taken on board and corrections made.

7.3.3.2 Proposed Final LCF

The proposed final leadership competence framework is depicted by Figure 7.1 and complemented by the reconstructed key leadership competences in Table 7.3. There was consensus among validators that the proposed final LCF fully integrates the findings from literature and the empirical study. Validator V1 was very concise in responding stating that:

This is very clear and easy to comprehend. This indicates that the literature has been satisfactorily and applicably assessed against the research problem in hand.

Validator V3 was a bit more elaborate arguing that:

In my view the final Leadership Competence Framework is very good especially considering the build-up process that was followed, which shows a very logical and thorough intellectual application of the concepts and empirical research findings. I am also particularly impressed by the focus on the SDGs and the future generations, which is the essence of sustainability from my own interpretation.

Validator V4 was more emphatic in appraising the proposed final draft stating that:

Overall, the conceptualisation represented by the “Bicycle” model in Figure 7.1 is powerful. The link between theory and context on the back wheel and the organisation’s competences on the front wheel is clearly provided by the axle through the transmission mechanism of the “Integrated Leadership Competences Development”.

Having emphatically endorsed the bicycle model, V4 had some post decision dissonance, which he eventually revoked saying:

What is not clear to me is how you ended up identifying three types of competences (Core, Strategic & Collaborative). However, when I go back to Table 7.2, I can see that this consolidation process was a direct outcome of the field inquiry. So my initial reservations on the derivation of the key pillars of the LCF is withdrawn.

However, validator V2 gave a detailed response in approving the proposed final LCF explaining that:

My opinion on Figure 7.1: Conceptual Framework for Quantum Sustainable Leadership Competences (bicycle) is that it fully captures and interlinks the core aspects not only within an institutional level but aligns them to broader and sustainable objectives that have a futuristic focus. The framework unlocks the growing need to add a layer that morphs from the development of leaders who are both operationally and professionally competent, but those who are capable of creating and delivering a compelling vision for the future to inspire and motivate others. The LCF therefore seeks to develop resilient leaders who will take responsibility for continuous improvement in the overall performance of the Manufacturing sector. We need leaders who are able to collaborate across our different functions internally as well as being able to cross traditional boundaries with other sectors and businesses to achieve more efficient, effective and joined up services for the communities we serve. Leadership is no longer defined by qualifications attained but by the difference being made to communities and people around us. The LCF links to new pathways which seek to support future leaders. The model depicted in Figure 7.1 recognizes that throughout one's career and leadership journey, there is always room for continuous professional development and improvement thus shifting the focus from output to sustainable outcomes. The LCF therefore seeks to lead organisations forward in an ever evolving operating environment. The model combines utilizing high levels of emotional intelligence, whilst supporting people to effectively achieve the

goals of the organisation. It also conjoins the creation of sustainable learning organisations, embracing inclusion, diversity, innovation and openness to alternative perspectives with a focus on improvement and accountability through the incorporation of coaching and mentorship.

The key descriptive terms from this theme arising from the data analysis are as follows: very clear (V1); easy to comprehend (V1); satisfactorily assessed (V1); applicably assessed (V1); captures (V2); interlinks (V2); unlocks (V2); develops resilient leaders (V2); links to new pathways (V2); shifts from output driven to sustainable outcomes; conjoining; very good (V3); very logical (V3); impressive; and powerful (V4). Overall, these key terms indicate positive validation of the proposed final LCF.

In summary, the validators evaluated the process leading to the development of the LCF as adequate and sound for both the draft LCF and the proposed final LCF. There was no negative feedback on this theme. The positive responses were echoed by the validators' understanding of the graphical representations of the integration discussed next.

7.3.4 Understanding the Graphical Integration

The graphical integration of the study was positively evaluated by the validators. Validator V4 puts it concisely saying:

Figure 7.1 is a great simplifier.

Also using the simplified expression, validator V2 gave an unconditional response saying:

The graphical presentation of the framework in Figure 7.1 - (the bicycle) is an interesting model that is simplified but captures the critical aspects that should shape modern leadership competencies. It also clearly connects the strategic focus areas at institutional level to the global SDGs. It is a robust model, which is not too complex and coupled with Table 7.3, can be clearly understood and adaptable, making leadership competencies simpler, and providing a consistent approach to leadership irrespective of discipline, role or function. The LCF model brings together the "What and the how" whilst combining traditional operational and professional competencies with behavioural expectations.

However, validator V1 gave a qualified response arguing that:

The graphical presentation of the framework (Figure 7.1) is well articulated, while presentation of Table 7.3 is also good but needs more explanation. The inclusion of Table 7.2 showing some changes that have taken place in the draft LCF after the field inquiry is excellent. It actually answered many questions that one wanted to ask.

The shortcomings of Table 7.3 alluded to by V1 were addressed by providing more explanations on Figure 8.2 in Chapter Eight. Another qualified response, which suggested some improvements to the graphics came from validator V3, who argued that:

The graphical presentation using the bicycle in Figure 7.1 is a great innovation which summarises the LCF. However, I would have thought the driven cog or gear on the front wheel could have been improved so that it does not stand out as just a triangle. I would have expected the driven cog to have taken almost the same shape as the drive cog on the rear wheel albeit with different information as contained in the triangle. Having said that, I still think using the bicycle as a graphical presentation and as a metaphor was a great idea which makes the framework real and meaningful to the reader. Table 7.3 is [also] very good and I really like the graphical presentation.

The remodelled bicycle had its front wheel cog replaced with one that resembled the cog in the rear wheel as suggested by validator V3. This is shown in Chapter Eight,

Figure 8.1.

Lastly, validator V4 had reservations on the title of the graphical presentation arguing that:

The introduction of the “Quantum” element complicates things. This concept is not clearly articulated and may confuse future readers of your work. Perhaps [the title should] just [read] “SLCF- Sustainable Leadership Competency Framework”

V4's suggestion has been considered in Chapter Eight and the word quantum is dropped to remove the complication from the graphical representations.

The key terms from this theme that exhibit the validators' understanding of the graphical presentations are as follows: simplifier (V4); good (V1); well-articulated (V1); excellent (V1); interesting (V2); simplified (V2); robust model (V2); clearly understood (V2); adaptable (V2); great innovation (V3); great idea (V3); real and meaningful (V3); very good (V3); needs more explanation (V1); could have been improved (V3); would have expected (V3); and complicates (V4). Overall, these key terms indicate positive validation of the graphical representation of the integration. However, the last four terms pointed to the need for more explanations and improvements to the graphical presentation of the integration, which were all addressed. The next theme addresses the applicability of the LCF.

7.3.5 Applicability

The business community is most interested in the application side of theory than in the theory itself. Hence, it was important that the LCF be assessed for its applicability to the beverage industry and to other sectors of the economy. In evaluating the application of the LCF, the experts responded to questions four and five. Question five sought to establish whether the framework could be a useful tool in the beverage manufacturing industry. Whereas, question five sought to establish whether the framework could be useful in other industries or sectors as well. The discussion starts with the applicability of the LCF in the beverage manufacturing industry.

7.3.5.1 Applicability to the Beverage Manufacturing Industry

Validators were unanimous in confirming the applicability of the LCF to the beverage manufacturing industry. Validator V2 agrees and explained why, as follows:

This framework is very applicable to the beverage manufacturing industry as this sector is about delivering high quality services into the future, and developing customer intimacy as beverages become part of the lifestyle of the consumer. This model therefore is about intelligent problem solving with an outcome focused approach, continuous improvement, sustainable production models, ethical manufacturing and creating value for money for the customer. This unlocks innovation whilst promoting socially responsible corporates and an inclusive environment for all key

stakeholders. The model thus, creates a positive, open working environment focusing on ethics and wellbeing, whilst building high performing teams, fostering trust and creating strong collaborative working partnerships on and off the shop floor.

Validator V1's response was quite succinct stating that:

The final proposed LCF seem to be applicable not only on the Beverage Manufacturing (sic). Thus, the main objective of the current study has been achieved, which is to develop a LCF for the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe.

Whereas, validator V4's response was even shorter, just saying:

The framework is applicable.

However, validator V3 confirmed the LCF's applicability to the beverage manufacturing industry by questioning the rationale of limiting the research to this industry arguing that:

The way I see it, the emerged LCF is applicable to any organisation. However, I did not quite get the rationale why it is particularly associated with the beverage manufacturing industry because I don't see anything unique and specific that relates to the beverage manufacturing industry in the framework.

The preceding V3's assertions resonate with findings in Chapter Six subsection 6.4.4, where participant P7 wondered why the researcher was limiting the study to the beverage manufacturing industry because leadership competence frameworks should apply to any industry. In other words, both participant P7 and validator V3 were arguing for the transferability of the LCF.

The key terms that explain applicability of the LCF to the beverage manufacturing industry are as follows: seems applicable (V1); very applicable (V2); and applicable (V3, V4). Overall, the key terms indicate consensus that the proposed final LCF was a practical tool, which can be used in the beverage manufacturing industry.

7.3.5.2 Transferability

Validators unanimously confirmed that the LCF had all the ingredients of transferability.

Validator V3 explained its transferability saying:

My view is that the framework is applicable and transferable to any manufacturing organisation and any other industry. Because it covers all critical leadership competences that are required to ensure sustainability and contribute towards the SDGs as a vehicle to ensure that future generations will enjoy livelihoods without having to spend exorbitant amounts of money due to the neglect of current generation and practices that affect sustainability in general.

Whilst V3 argued for transferability to other industries, validator V1 believed it was transferable to other countries stating that:

Although the problem identified is in the manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe, the Model can be applied in other countries.

V1's validation statement resonates with Chapter Six subsection 6.44, when participant P6 called for a leadership competence framework that is practical in Africa. However, validator V2 used the leadership principles perspective to explain the transferability of the framework saying:

The LCF can certainly be applied to other industries other than the beverage manufacturing industry because it affords a common and consistent approach to professional and leadership development based on shared values and beliefs, which are consistent with the principles and values across several sectors and industries. It addresses leadership in a holistic manner at the individual, team and organisational levels. It provides a toolkit of principles that managers and teams can quickly use to address day-to-day challenges. It simplifies leadership as something everyone can understand and contribute towards.

Validator V4 used an economic dimension to justify transferability arguing that:

As the SDGs are integral to all economic and non-economic activity it is clear that the framework would have application across other industries.

The key terms that explain transferability of the LCF to other industries or sectors are as follows: can be used across different sectors (V1); applicable in any industry (V1; V2; V3); can be applied in other countries (V1); applicable and transferable to any manufacturing organisation (V3); and application across other industries (V4). The key terms indicate that the proposed final LCF can be applied in other industries and sectors as well as being transferable to other countries.

Overall, there was consensus that the proposed leadership competence framework was applicable to all industries and other countries.

7.4 Chapter Conclusions

The chapter aimed at answering the primary research question: How can a leadership competence framework (LCF) be developed for the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe? In doing so, the chapter integrated the literature and the empirical findings. The integration resulted in the reconceptualization of the study and a reconstructed LCF. A summary of this study was made and submitted to validation experts who evaluated the draft LCF from literature and the proposed final LCF by responding to predetermined questions. Data emanating from the feedback from validators was analysed through themes to be consistent with the way the empirical data was analysed in Chapter Six.

The validation results indicated that the study contributed to leadership development and the outcome was relevant and had practical implications for business. The draft leadership competence framework from theory was considered a fair representation of literature integration. Whereas, the proposed final LCF was found to fully integrate the findings from literature and the empirical study. Furthermore, the graphical metaphors were considered representative of the integration. However, the suggested improvements to the graphics have been addressed in the next chapter. The proposed final LCF was found to be applicable not only to the beverage manufacturing industry but to other industries and other countries as well.

The final framework, together with an overview of the study are presented in Chapter Eight.

CHAPTER 8 : CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Introduction

This chapter builds on Chapter Seven and answers the primary research question: How can a leadership competence framework (LCF) be developed for the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe? In this regard, this chapter gives an overview and the outcome of the research, with the researcher giving some concluding thoughts. The chapter also discusses recommendations for business; the significance of the study; limitations of the study; and further studies/research needed.

8.2 Overview of Study

This section provides an overview of the study using the research questions to guide the overview. Reference is made to Chapter One section **1.4 Research Questions**, where the research questions for this study are outlined. Secondary research questions 2.1 to 2.7 formed the foundation by providing necessary pointers that informed the outcome of this study. The review of the literature arose from the literature Chapters Two to Four; the research methodology in Chapter Five; and the field inquiry findings discussed in Chapter Six; and the validation of the study, Chapter Seven.

It was important to have three literature chapters to ensure an exhaustive literature review. Firstly, it was important to situate the study to an international and local context and then select a perspective that best suited the study. Secondly, a review of leadership theories was required because these theories provided the lens for viewing leadership competences to determine suitable key leadership competences given the context in Chapter Two. Lastly, it was necessary to have a chapter that reviewed models of LCF existing in the literature to inform how the gap established in chapter one could be filled by this study. The chapter also provided an integration of the literature to develop the conceptual framework for this study.

The discussion of the secondary research questions that follows also includes the researcher's concluding remarks. The overview starts with secondary research question 2.1, which reviews the driving forces of the changing business environment internationally.

8.2.1 Secondary Research Question 2.1

What are the driving forces in the changing business environment internationally?

The research question aimed at contextualising leadership competences to the international driving forces in the changing business environment. Chapter Two established that political, economic, socio-cultural, technological, and ecological (PESTE) forces provide perspectives on the changing business environment. Sustainable development was identified as a contemporary mega force. Hence, this study revised the acronym to PESTES, where S stands for sustainable development. Sustainable development was identified as a summation of the PESTE forces as depicted by the SDGs. The sustainable development goals agenda 2030 account for the PESTE forces through the 17 SDGs that are now driving change globally. The SDGs were crafted around people, planet, prosperity, peace and partnerships (known as the 5P's) as in Figure 2.4 (Chapter Two subsection 2.3.1). However, this study adds profit as another P, to make it a 6P framework that makes it relevant to the business community. It is argued that the sextuple bottom line (6P framework) should be the tool for measuring business success to replace the triple bottom line (3P framework). Hence, the researcher opted to use sustainable development since it integrates the various forces that influence the business environment and therefore resonated with the problem statement.

The contribution of the research question to this study are shown in Table 2.11 (Chapter Two section 2.5). However, the most significant contribution is that sustainable development was chosen as the context that should guide the development of the leadership competence framework (LCF). Considering that the LCF was envisioned for the local beverage manufacturing industry, a review of the forces driving change in the local manufacturing industry became necessary to address secondary research question 2.2.

8.2.2 Secondary Research Question 2.2

What are the current driving forces for change in the manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe?

This research question aimed at contextualising the local forces of change in the manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe. The contextualisation followed on the discussion of the driving forces for change in the business environment in Chapter Two. The local

PESTE drivers of change are integrated through a local Zimbabwe United Nation Development Framework (ZUNDAF) and the Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation (ZimASSET) agenda, being the local SDGs agenda. However, there appears to be a shift of focus in policy from ZimAsset to the Transitional Stabilisation Program (TSP). It is argued that this is a temporary shift of policy focus and should not be seen as an abandonment of the SDGs agenda because SDGs 1 and 2 are still being pursued vigorously.

The contributions of the research question to this study are also shown in Table 2.11 (Chapter Two section 2.5). However, the most significant contribution is that localising the forces of change synchronises with the problem statement, which suggests that existing LCFs in the manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe were not adequate to drive companies to contribute to the achievement of SDGs. Therefore, in search of the desired leadership competences, secondary research question 2.3 assisted in reviewing the theories of leadership competences that would equip leaders to drive sustainable manufacturing.

8.2.3 Secondary Research Question 2.3

What theories of leadership competences can be identified in the literature that would equip leaders to drive sustainable manufacturing?

This research question aimed at deriving leadership competence from identified leadership theories. Thus, Chapter Three provided an orientation of leadership from a business environment perspective commencing with an overview of leadership theories that indicated the development of leadership, and identified the gaps within the current leadership theories. In section 3.4, a theoretical clarification of the competence terminology and its application to leadership is provided. In this regard, it was found that leadership theories provided the lens for viewing leadership competences. In addition, meta-theories found to support the development of an LCF for sustainable manufacturing included quantum; systems; ecosystems; intergenerational systems; and U theory.

In the process of identifying leadership competences suitable for sustainable manufacturing in a changing business environment, five schools of leadership thought were reviewed. These are trait, behavioural, contingency/situational, followership, and contemporary schools of leadership thought. Trait theories were found not suitable for

a changing business environment because traits are specific characteristics of an individual, which are difficult to transfer to other people. From the remaining four schools of leadership thought came out the leadership models that were adaptable or complementary to each other in responding to the changing business environment as shown in Table 3.9 (Chapter Four subsection 3.3.5). When the adaptable and complementary leadership theories were combined with meta-theories they informed the development of an LCF for sustainable manufacturing (Table 3.11).

The significant outputs of this research question, which contributes to this study are shown in Table 3.13 (Chapter Three conclusion). However, the most significant outcome is the identification of key leadership competences considered suitable for driving sustainable manufacturing as shown in Table 3.12 (Chapter Three section 3.5). These key leadership competences favour a contingency/situational leadership style. After identifying the key leadership competences from the meta-theories and leadership theories, it became necessary to answer secondary research question 2.4, which resulted in a review of LCFs obtained from the literature.

8.2.4 Secondary Research Question 2.4

What LCFs can be identified in the literature?

While Chapter Three focused on identifying applicable leadership competences from the various leadership perspectives, Chapter Four focused more on leadership competence frameworks that existed in the literature. It aimed to establish if there were LCFs in existence, suitable for sustainable manufacturing and how the ideal LCF should look like. Hence, an LCF is a set of skills, behaviours, qualities and values that contribute to performance and is an integral part of the organisation's strategy. It assists in aligning individuals' competencies to organisational goals. However, it was argued that the development of an LCF should focus on leadership behaviour and not leadership traits because traits are difficult to transfer to others. It was further argued that an LCF is more effective when it considers local conditions. Hence, the proposed LCF is localised to the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe. It was also established that some models of LCFs found in the literature comprised competences that made them adaptable to the changing business environment.

The significant outputs from this research question are shown in the upper part of Table 4.8 (Chapter Four conclusions). However, the most significant outcome was the

establishment of a three-pillar competence structure that assisted in answering the research question 2.5 discussed next.

8.2.5 Secondary Research Question 2.5

How can the theory on leadership competences be synthesised to develop a broad draft framework containing competences required for sustainable beverage manufacturing in Zimbabwe?

The research question aimed at integrating all the literature chapters. It brought together the changing business environment (Chapter Two); deriving leadership competences from leadership theories (Chapter Three); and existing models of LCF (Chapter Four sections 4.2 & 4.3), to draw the conceptual framework. The literature was integrated using multiple conjectures resulting in a conceptual framework as shown in Figure 4.9 (Chapter Four subsection 4.4.1). After designing the conceptual framework, a draft leadership competence framework (LCF) for a sustainable beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe was proposed as shown in Figure 4.10 (Chapter Four subsection 4.4.2).

The significant outputs from this research question are shown in the lower part of Table 4.8 (Chapter Four conclusions). However, the most significant outcome was the draft LCF that informed the empirical study and the design of questions used in the field inquiry (Figure 4.10). This was done cognisant of secondary research question 2.6 discussed next.

8.2.6 Secondary Research Question 2.6

How can the possible viability of the broad draft framework of identified competences be determined to ensure sustainability of the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe?

The research question aimed at determining the possible viability of the broad draft framework from theory of identified competences to ensure sustainability of the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe. The research approach taken in the field study was a qualitative inquiry. The field inquiry tested the draft leadership competence framework (LCF), which was constructed from the literature review and solicited views of participants. The viability of the broad draft framework was operationalised in two parts. The first part sets out the methodology and methods used to get the research

results in Chapter Five, while the second part analysed the data and presented the findings through Chapter Six.

The methodology took into account that the study was a qualitative inquiry using the daily experiences of leaders in the beverage manufacturing industry; and the context was constituted by a changing business environment driven by sustainable development. The key methodological issues underpinning this study are shown in Table 5.5 (Chapter Five conclusions). However, the significant methodological issues were the use of non-probability sampling, specifically the snowballing technique, whereas data was collected through structured face to face interviews.

Data collected from each participant was identified using an alpha-numeric code. Important contributions from Chapter Six are that subsection 6.4.3 of the chapter concluded by explaining what effective leadership competences should be. Secondly, a framework for developing leadership competences was created referred to as the integrated leadership competences development wheel shown in Figure 6.2 (Chapter Six subsection 6.4.2). Lastly, key themes emanating from the analysis and interpretation leading to the reconstruction of the LCF are shown in Table 6.12 (Chapter Six conclusions). The reconstruction of the LCF answered the last secondary research question 2.7 discussed next.

8.2.7 Secondary Research Question 2.7

What LCF can be developed that optimises sustainability of the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe?

The research question aimed at developing an LCF that optimises sustainability of the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe. The secondary research questions 2.1 to 2.6 provided background information necessary for answering this research question. The draft LCF from literature and the results of the field inquiry were summarised to reconstruct an LCF that was validated by experts. The reconstruction of the draft LCF involved dropping, adding, confirming or merging the competences as shown in Table 7.2 (Chapter Seven subsection 7.2.4). These changes resulted in a reconstructed conceptual framework depicted by Figure 7.1 (Chapter Seven subsection 7.2.4).

In summary, the validation experts made significant suggestions that contributed to the following changes: first, sustainability living was added as a new core value to reinforce

the beliefs in sustainable development; second, the conceptual framework for Quantum Sustainable Leadership Competences was renamed the Leadership Competence Framework for Sustainable Development and lastly, some house-keeping was done to the graphical representation to give it a face-lift as shown in

Figure 8.1. These face-lifts involved upgrading the metaphor to resemble a real bicycle; replacing the front-wheel cog with one similar to the rear wheel cog; putting a third loop for contingency/situational leadership in the front wheel to envelop the LCF triangle; and putting more explanatory details to the graphical representations. After considering the inputs from the validation experts, the outcome of this research is presented next.

8.3 A Leadership Competence Framework for Sustainable Development in the Beverage Manufacturing Industry in Zimbabwe

This section presents the outcome of this research whose primary objective was to develop a leadership competence framework (LCF) for the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe. In this regard, the overarching research question is revisited: How can a leadership competence framework (LCF) be developed for the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe? Hence, the section presents the Leadership Competence Framework for Sustainable Development (LCFSD) resulting from the integration of the findings from literature and the empirical study after evaluation by validation experts.

Figure 8.1 next is the graphical representation of The Leadership Competence Framework for Sustainable Development (LCFSD).

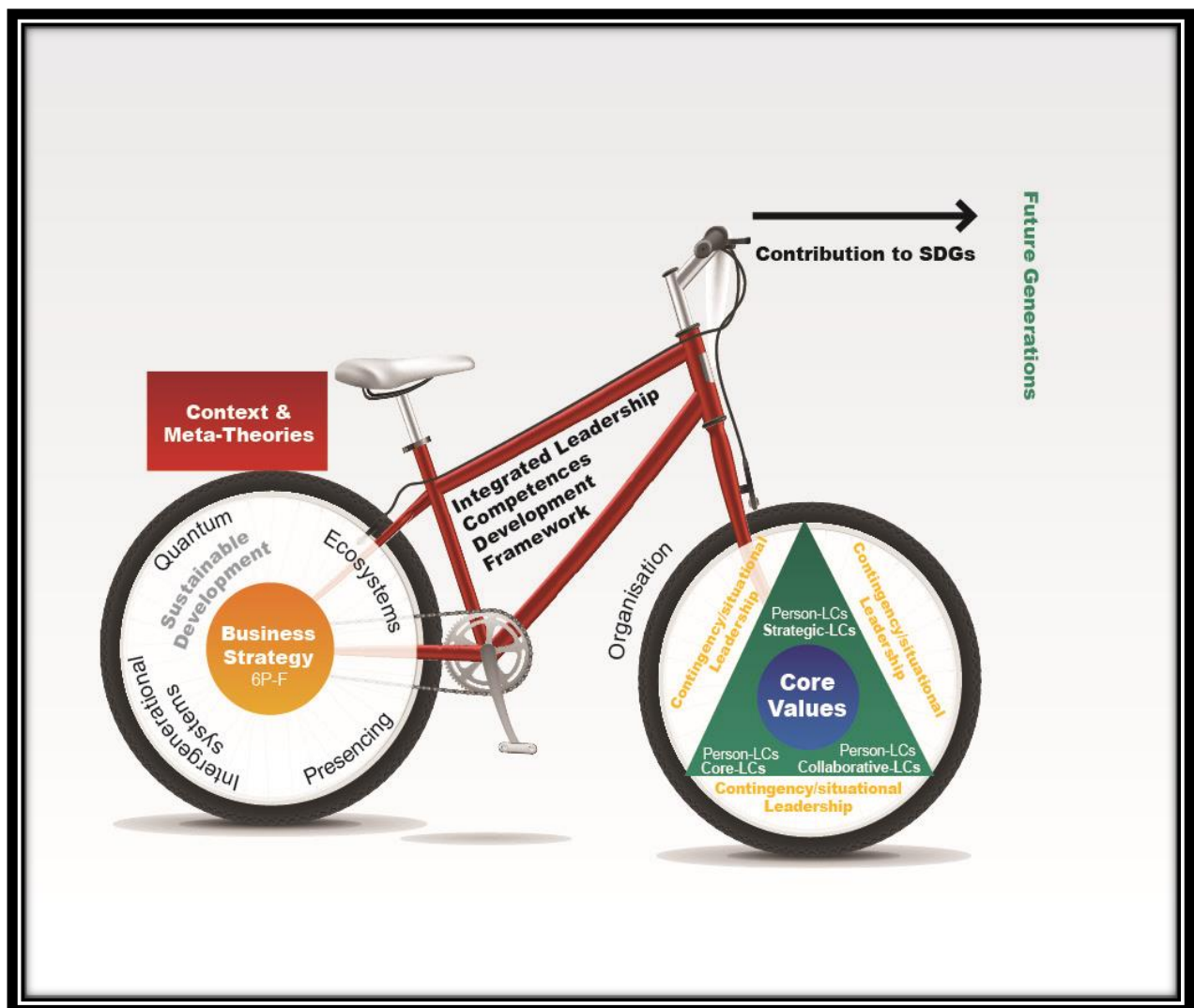


Figure 8.1: The Leadership Competence Framework for Sustainable Development (LCFSD)

The main outcome of the conception is depicted by the bicycle. This bicycle is the improved version of Figure 7.1 (Chapter Seven) after validation. Table 8.1 provides details of the components of the LCFSD (

Figure 8.1) and enables the relationships of the concepts to be explained.

Table 8.1: Components of the Leadership Competence Framework for Sustainable Development (LCFSD)

Category Theme	Pillar or Meta-Theory	Themes, Competences or Elements
Sustainable development	Ecosystems	Caring for the well-being of all; concern for planetary ecosystems; knowledge of ecosystem economics; co-initiating; co-sensing; co-inspiring; co-creating; and co-shaping.
	Intergenerational Systems	Strengthen the legacy motive; create positive emotional contagion; shape collective emotions; foster identification with future generations; beware of muting emotions; create ethical infrastructure; and use different sources of leadership.
	Quantum	Knowledge of entanglement, indeterminism and indivisibility of quanta; presencing; and learning from evolution
	Presencing	Sensing and feeling future possibilities; actualising future possibilities; learning from the future as it emerges; have an open mind, heart and will; downloading past patterns; and crystallising vision and intentions
	Business Strategy: 6P Framework	People; prosperity; planet; peace; partnerships; and profit
Development of leadership competences	Integrated Leadership Competences Development	Dialogue; culture change; capacity building; programs for developing LCs; channels for developing LCs; training; personal development; conscience development; performance management; mentorship; coaching; and counselling
Key Sustainability Leadership Competences	Strategic Leadership Competences	Presencing; intergenerational systemic behaviour; reflexivity; stakeholder engagement; strategic awareness; sustainability thinking; knowledge of metrics of measurement; inclusivity skills; and multiple leadership styles
	Core Leadership Competences	Socially responsiveness; ecosystem thinking; self-leadership; knowledge of SDGs; and innovative thinking
	Core Values	Ethics; caring for all; respect for all; doing the best for local communities; diplomacy; beliefs in sustainable development; and sustainability living
	Collaborative Leadership Competences	Build diverse teams; and partnering skills

Source: Figure 2.4, Table 3.11, Table 4.7 and Table 7.2 (chapters 2, 3, 4, & 7 respectively)

The sources of data in Table 8.1 shown at the bottom, is a reflection of the integration of the literature chapters (2, 3, & 4) and the empirical chapters (6 & 7). The context of the study is sustainable development backed by the following meta-theories: ecosystems; intergenerational systems; presencing; and quantum theories. To embed sustainable development in the business strategy, a 6P framework should be the template for strategic planning. However, to develop leadership competences desired for sustainable development, an integrated leadership competences development framework is provided. Therefore, this study proposed key leadership competences based on the contingency situational leadership approach that comprises nine strategic leadership competences; five core leadership competences; seven core values; and two collaborative leadership competences. These competences should assist with optimising sustainability in the beverage manufacturing industry. Figure 8.2 next is a zooming of the triangle in the front wheel of the bicycle (

Figure 8.1) to show in metaphoric form the key leadership competences explained in Table 8.1.

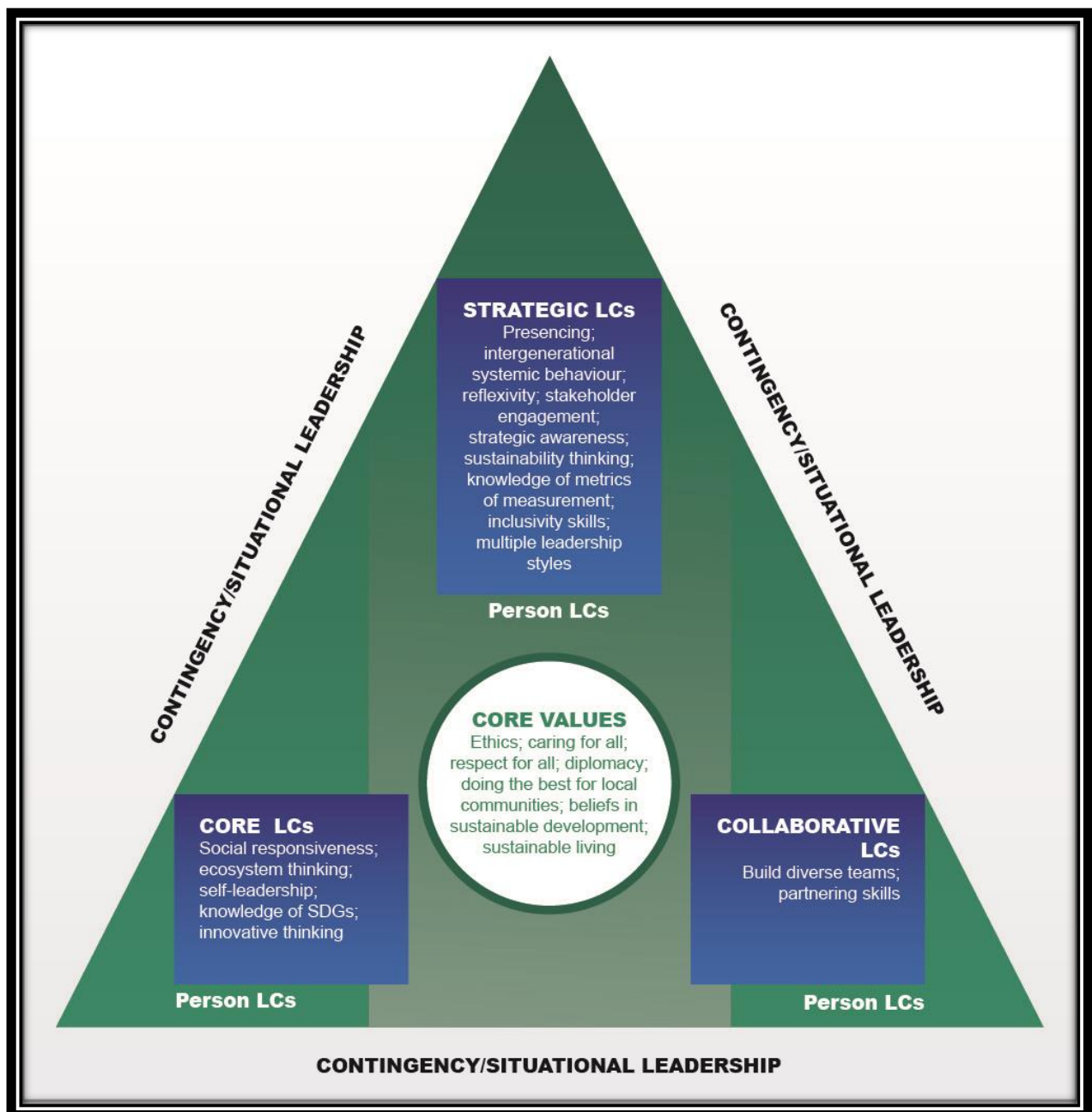


Figure 8.2: Key Leadership Competences for Sustainable Development

Figure 8.2 shows that the core values, as a front gear, drive the rest of the leadership competences. These are ethics; caring for all; respect for all; doing the best for local communities; diplomacy; beliefs in sustainable development; and sustainability living. Sustainability living as a value was added as an input from validation experts. In the left corner of the triangle are the core competences. These are social responsiveness; ecosystem thinking; self-leadership; knowledge of SDGs; and innovative thinking, whereas the strategic competences are in the top corner of the triangle. These are

presencing; intergenerational systemic behaviour; reflexivity; stakeholder engagement; strategic awareness; sustainability thinking; knowledge of metrics of measurement; inclusivity skills; and multiple leadership styles. The collaborative competences are in the left corner of the triangle and these are build diverse teams; and partnering skills. The person-leader competencies are found in every leadership competence pillar because organisational leadership competences require people to drive them. Therefore, with this new revelation, person-leader competencies become sub-pillars of leadership competences at organisational level and not stand-alone pillars. Discussed next, are the recommendations from the study.

8.4 Recommendations for Business

These recommendations focus on four areas that, if adopted, will ensure that corporate leaders are fully equipped to deal with the changing business environment being driven by sustainable development.

8.4.1 Incorporate Sustainable Development in the SWOT Analysis

The traditional model for conducting a SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunity and threats) analysis in business is based on the political, economic, social, technological and ecological (PESTE) environments. In Chapter Two (subsection 2.2.1), this study identified sustainable development as a contemporary mega force in the changing business environment. Hence, the study revised the acronym of the forces of change to PESTES, where S stands for sustainable development. Therefore, it is recommended that business must include sustainable development in the SWOT analysis model.

To operationalise this recommendation, the SWOT analysis for sustainable development will review the strengths and weaknesses of each of the 17 SDGs in relation to the business strategy and identify what opportunities and threats arise from each SDG. Doing so will enable the organisation to embed the SDGs into the strategic plans as discussed next.

8.4.2 Incorporate the 6P Framework into Strategic Planning

The study advocated for the development of a sextuple bottom line (6P) framework to replace the triple bottom line (3P) framework. To achieve corporate sustainability, all the 6Ps must be pursued in unison with equitable emphasis. The framework will assist in embedding and tracking equitable focus on sustainable development and profit at corporate level.

This recommendation entails identifying SDGs that are relevant to the business and embed them into the business strategy. The 5P template (Figure 2.4) and the traditional Profit (to form the 6Ps) will assist in planning, monitoring and evaluation of the business strategy. To recap, the 5Ps that cover the SDGs are as follows: people (SDGs 1-6); prosperity (SDGs 7-11); planet (SDGs 12-15); peace (SDG 16); and partnerships (SDG 17). The process of embedding should involve for example, the people pillar being evaluated for SDGs (1-6) in respect of their relevance to the business strategy. The same should be replicated to the rest of the Ps. The relevant SDGs should then form part of the business strategy.

The foregoing will address concerns raised by participants P7 and P12 (Chapter Six subsection 6.4.3.1 & 6.4.4) who lamented the absence of such a framework to embed and operationalise SDGs in the business strategy. However, to operationalise both preceding recommendations, the leadership competence framework for sustainable development (LCFSD) comes in handy as a toolkit as discussed next.

8.4.3 Leadership Competence Framework for Sustainable Development (LCFSD) as a toolkit

The LCFSD is the outcome of this study. The framework was evaluated by industry executives and members of academia to be a practical tool applicable to the beverage manufacturing industry and other industries. Therefore, it is strongly recommended that business should adopt the leadership competence framework for sustainable development (LCFSD) as a toolkit for developing leadership competences that will enable the organisation to contribute to SDGs for the good of future generations. In doing so, the integrated leadership competence framework is a tool that can be adopted to operationalise the LCFSD as discussed next.

8.4.4 Integrated Leadership Competence Development Framework as a Toolkit

Business should also adopt the integrated leadership competence development framework (Figure 6.2) as a toolkit for developing leadership competences. This framework combines the development of institutional leadership competences and the person-leader competencies. The aim of such a holistic approach is to develop leaderful organisations with a collective responsibility for leadership as opposed to the traditional approach of developing competent leaders (see Chapter Three subsection 3.5). The next section explains the significance of this study.

8.5 Significance of the Study

The significance of this study lies in the development of a leadership competence framework that can be used to optimise sustainability of the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe. This study through the discussion of the forces of change, incorporated the United Nations sustainable development goals (SDGs) agenda 2030 as the context for developing the LCF through the term sustainable development. Hence, this framework will capacitate beverage manufacturing industry leaders to have competences that drive organisations to contribute to the achievement of the SDGs.

The study developed the leadership competence framework for sustainable development (the bicycle) that possess relational conjectures in its conceptualisation (see

Figure 8.1). This is an important contribution because no such framework existed in the literature.

The leadership competence framework for sustainable development (LCFSD) is not only a philosophical framework but also a practical tool that can be embedded in the business strategy. This assertion was confirmed by industry executives and academic experts who validated the framework as discussed in Chapter Seven (section 7.3.). The recommendations of the validation experts have been incorporated into the final framework.

Lastly, the study also created an integrated framework for the development of leadership competences (see Chapter Six Figure 6.2). This framework will assist in developing organisational leadership competences and the person-leader competencies. The next section explains the limitations of the study.

8.6 Limitations of the Study

The study was confined to executives and former members of the beverage manufacturing companies associated with the Zimbabwe Stock Exchange and did not extend to executives of medium and small sized enterprises.

The study could have been enriched by incorporating views from leaders of workers bodies such as workers committees and trade unions. Incorporating such bodies resonates with the inclusivity approach advocated for by SDGs nine and sixteen in Table 2.6 (Chapter Two subsection 2.3.1). This limitation was also observed by participant

P11 who implored the researcher to include the views of other stakeholders such as trade unions; workers committees; and audit firms to allow for diversity of views. However, this was outside the remit of this study. The study recommends further research as highlighted next.

8.7 Further Studies/Research Needed

These are recommendations for scholars to provide pointers for future research envisaged. The recommendations in this area are discussed below.

8.7.1 Exploring the LCFSD Further

The leadership competence framework for sustainable development (LCFSD) is a new term introduced in this study that is contextualised to sustainable development leadership, which is a leadership approach in its infancy. Hence, it is suggested that sustainability leadership competences need to be explored further to update this framework to contribute further to sustainable development leadership.

8.7.2 Testing the LCFSD

Whilst the validation experts believe the LCFSD is applicable to the beverage manufacturing industry and transferable to other industries, applying the framework will test the applicability of the framework in practice. In addition, the LCFSD should be tested with leaders of worker bodies such as workers committees and trade unions.

8.7.3 Operationalising the 6P (Sextuple) Bottom Line

There is a need for further research on how the sextuple bottom line (6P) framework can be operationalised and as to whether it should be the successor to the triple bottom line (3P) framework. The 3Ps stand for focus on the people, planet and profit, whereas the 6P framework adds prosperity, peace and partnerships.

8.7.4 Participants as validators of research results

The use of participants to evaluate the results of the interviews where they participated, was argued for in Chapter Five (subsection 5.2.3.4) and operationalised in Chapter Seven (subsection 7.3.1). Some scholars have written against such practice in quantitative research (Chapter 5, subsection 5.2.3.4). However, there is little research on the practice in qualitative inquiries. Therefore, there is need to increase research for using participants in validating qualitative studies.

8.8 Delimitation of Study

Whilst the study was confined to the beverage manufacturing industry, the validation experts confirmed that the framework can be applied to other industries/sectors or countries because of its flexible nature, thus confirming its transferability. However, there is need to test this delimitation. With this need to test the delimitation of the study, the researcher ends with some concluding remarks.

8.9 Concluding Remarks

The primary objective of the study was to develop a leadership competence framework (LCF) for the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe. However, secondary research objective 2.7 emphasised that the envisioned LCF should aim at optimising sustainability of the beverage manufacturing industry. As a result of this study, the researcher aimed to utilise literature to develop a draft LCF whose viability was to be tested through an empirical study. An integration of the literature and empirical findings produced the Leadership Competence Framework for Sustainable Development (LCFSD). The LCFSD was found to be applicable in the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe. This is the major contribution of this study to the beverage manufacturing industry. The most fulfilling part of the study was when validation experts corroborated the applicability of the LCFSD and went further to suggest that the LCF was transferrable to other industries and other countries.

The study was also self-motivating to the extent that it caught the attention of participant P6 who said:

I like your energy. I like also your passion. This will take you far in your PhD research.

When I got home on that day, I reflected on the interview with P6 and immediately changed my WhatsApp social media profile status to “Sheer Determination Leads to Success”. Since, then I never looked back in my quest to complete my PhD journey whose end appeared too far.

In this journey I was also motivated by most participants who were ending their contributions by stating that they had learnt a lot through their participation in the interviews. For example, participant P11 said:

I was looking at the way you sequenced the competences, I must say, I want to commend you. I don't know how you will package all that information that's coming. But when I looked at the competences, which will go into this framework, I said yah! We will respond differently, like when you spoke about presencing, which I didn't know and now I am educated. You started from the top, top, very broad and narrowing, narrowing until you got to the individual competencies. I admired it.

These two participants, P6 and P11 elevated my spirit. However, the most interesting part in this journey is that a leadership competence framework that optimises sustainability has been developed. I look forward to seeing the LCF being operationalised.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Request for Permission to Conduct Research

Dear XXXXX

I am doing research and would like to request permission to conduct my research at your company, XXXXXX.

DATE

TBA

TITLE OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT

A LEADERSHIP COMPETENCE FRAMEWORK FOR THE BEVERAGE
MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY IN ZIMBABWE

PRINCIPLE INVESTIGATOR / RESEARCHER NAME AND CONTACT NUMBER:

Eliot Quinz Farai Ruwanika *Student No. 2015089929* *Cell No. +263 772 203*
119

FACULTY AND DEPARTMENT:

Faculty of Economics and Management Sciences

Business School Department

STUDY LEADER NAME AND CONTACT NUMBER:

Dr Liezel Massyn

+27514017305

WHAT IS THE AIM / PURPOSE OF THE STUDY?

The aim of this research is to obtain your views in your capacity as CEO of the company, on how a leadership competence framework (LCF) can be developed that optimises the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe to contribute to sustainable development goals (SDGs).

WHO IS DOING THE RESEARCH?

My name is Eliot Ruwanika and I am a student with the University of The Free State's Business School. I am conducting this research in part fulfilment of my thesis for the degree Philosophiae Doctor in Business Administration

HAS THE STUDY RECEIVED ETHICAL APPROVAL?

This study has received approval from the Research Ethics Committee of UFS. A copy of the approval letter can be obtained from the researcher.

Approval number: *UFS-HSD2018/1338*

WHY IS YOUR COMPANY INVITED TO TAKE PART IN THIS RESEARCH PROJECT?

You and your organisation have been chosen to participate in this research because of your knowledge and experience in leadership and sustainable development at corporate level. Furthermore, your organisation belongs to the beverage manufacturing industry, which is the target of this research. Your organisation also meets another criterion of this study that is, being a listed company on the Zimbabwe Stock Exchange (ZSE). Therefore, I picked your organisation from ZSE as one of the beverage manufacturing companies listed. From your organisation I intend to interview you as CEO and any other two members or past members of your organisation recommended by yourself, who possess the same knowledge and experience.

WHAT IS THE NATURE OF PARTICIPATION IN THIS STUDY?

You are required to provide responses to the interview to be conducted by myself. The study involves audio taping using semi-structured interviews. Questions for this research are centred on leadership competences and sustainable development. The interview will take no more than forty-five minutes.

WHAT ARE THE POTENTIAL BENEFITS OF TAKING PART IN THIS STUDY?

The interview presents you with an opportunity to bring into academic perspective your knowledge and experience in leadership competences and sustainable development at corporate level. You will also have an opportunity to access the final report which will present an updated leadership competence framework (LCF) that you can tap into in

leading your organisation into contributing to sustainable development goals (SDGs). Hence, feel free to request for a copy of the final report by ticking the “yes” in the check box of the consent form. For confidentiality and as a mitigating measure, your name will not appear in the written report of this research including the consent form. Only your signature will appear on the consent form

WHAT IS THE POTENTIAL RISKS TAKING PART IN THIS STUDY?

There is no known danger to you participating and providing answers to this interview. The interview data is only accessed by me and perhaps my promoter, without prejudice. My promoter is a co-author of the research report and may have access to interview data to provide technical advice. However, the research requires you to set aside about 45 minutes from your busy schedule to provide responses to the interview.

WILL THE INFORMATION BE KEPT CONFIDENTIAL?

Although there is no known risk in the responses expected from participants, however, participant names will not be recorded, anywhere and no one will be able to connect participants to the answers given. Participants will be given a fictitious code number and will be referred to in this way in the data, any publications, or other research reporting methods such as validation workshops. The answers may be reviewed by people responsible for making sure that the research is done properly, including the transcriber, external coder, and members of the Research Ethics Committee. Otherwise, records that identify participants will be available only to me, unless participants give permission for other people to see the records. The only people working on the study is me and my promoter. My promoter is a co-author of the research report and may have access to interview data to provide technical advice, without prejudice. Apart from using this anonymous data for writing the research report, the data may be used for journal articles, conference presentation and any related publications. Just like in the final report, none of the publications will be able to identify participants by name. A report of the study may be submitted for publication, but individual participants will not be identifiable in such a report. However, in the validation workshop, it is common cause that contributions in such forum are the subject of discussion by all participants. While every effort will be made by the researcher to ensure that participants will not be connected to the information that they share during the workshop, I cannot guarantee that other participants in the validation workshop will treat information confidentially. I

shall, however, encourage all participants to do so. For this reason, I advise participants not to disclose personally sensitive information in the validation workshop.

HOW WILL THE INFORMATION BE STORED AND ULTIMATELY DESTROYED?

Hard copies of responses will be stored by the researcher for a period of five years in a locked cupboard/filing cabinet at my home in Borrowdale West, Harare, for future research or academic purposes; whereas, electronic information will be stored on a password protected memory card/disk. Future use of the stored data will be subject to further Research Ethics Review and approval if applicable. The hard copies will be destroyed using a shredder and the electronic data will be erased from the memory cards/disks. However, there is no known risk associated with responses expected to be stored and ultimately destroyed after five years. But, if participants feel there are compelling reasons for one to believe that the storage methods suggested here are inadequate, they should kindly advise so that further mitigating methods can be explored to their satisfaction.

WILL THERE BE PAYMENT OR ANY INCENTIVES FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS STUDY?

There is no payment for participation in this research. However, the researcher will meet the costs of participation in the validation workshop. Other than meeting the costs of attendance at the validation workshop, the researcher is indemnified of any costs associated with participation, whether through injury, sickness or otherwise.

HOW WILL THE COMPANY BE INFORMED OF THE FINDINGS / RESULTS OF THE STUDY?

Participants who would like to be informed of the final research findings should contact me on the following: cell-phone or WhatsApp - +263 772 203 119; skype – eliotqf; and email eliot.ruwanika@fao.org or eliotqf@yahoo.co.uk. In addition, participants can tick the “yes” check box on the informed consent form, which shall be signed by participants. In this regard, participants will be contacted once the report is ready for public distribution and I will ask participants for your email addresses to be included on a control sheet to be used for that purpose. If they do not receive the report as requested or want to contact me for any aspect of this study, they are free to contact me on the contact details indicated above, which contact details will appear on the informed

consent form as well. It is envisioned that the final report will be out no later than twelve months after the study is completed. However, any delays in providing the final report outside the envisioned period should be considered as beyond the control of the researcher, and without prejudice.

Yours sincerely

Eliot Q. F. Ruwanika

Signature_____

Appendix 2: Participant Research Study Information Leaflet

1. DATE

TBA

2. TITLE OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT

A LEADERSHIP COMPETENCE FRAMEWORK FOR THE BEVERAGE MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY IN ZIMBABWE

3. PRINCIPLE INVESTIGATOR / RESEARCHER(S) NAME(S) AND CONTACT NUMBER(S):

Eliot Quinz Farai Ruwanika Student No. 2015089929 Cell No. +263 772 203 119

4. FACULTY AND DEPARTMENT:

Faculty of Economics and Management Sciences

Business School Department

5. STUDY LEADER(S) NAME AND CONTACT NUMBER:

Dr Liezel Massyn

+27514017305

6. WHAT IS THE AIM / PURPOSE OF THE STUDY?

The aim of this research is to obtain your views on how a leadership competence framework (LCF) can be developed that optimises the beverage manufacturing industry in Zimbabwe to contribute to sustainable development goals (SDGs).

7. WHO IS DOING THE RESEARCH?

My name is Eliot Ruwanika and I am a student with the University of The Free State's Business School. I am conducting this research in part fulfilment of my thesis for the degree Philosophiae Doctor in Business Administration

8. HAS THE STUDY RECEIVED ETHICAL APPROVAL?

This study has received approval from the Research Ethics Committee of UFS. A copy of the approval letter can be obtained from the researcher.

9. Approval number: UFS-HSD2018/1338

WHY ARE YOU INVITED TO TAKE PART IN THIS RESEARCH PROJECT?

You have been chosen to participate in this research because of your knowledge and experience in leadership and sustainable development. Furthermore, your association with the beverage manufacturing industry makes you the ideal candidate for this research, targeted at the beverage manufacturing industry.

10. WHAT IS THE NATURE OF PARTICIPATION IN THIS STUDY?

You are required to provide responses to the interview to be conducted by myself. The study involves audio taping using semi-structured interviews. Questions for this research are centred on leadership competences and sustainable Development. The interview will take no more than forty-five minutes. There shall be a validation workshop to review the preliminary findings of this research. You will be invited to attend. The workshop shall not take more than two hours reviewing the preliminary findings.

11. CAN THE PARTICIPANT WITHDRAW FROM THE STUDY?

Being in this study is voluntary and you are under no obligation to consent to participation. If you do decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a written consent form. You are free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason. However, once you have participated in the interview, it will not be possible to withdraw because it will be difficult to identify data specifically provided by yourself because of the anonymity nature of your participation.

12. WHAT ARE THE POTENTIAL BENEFITS OF TAKING PART IN THIS STUDY?

The interview presents you with an opportunity to bring into academic perspective your knowledge and experience in leadership competences and sustainable development. You will also have an opportunity to access the final report which will present an updated leadership competence framework (LCF) that you can tap into in leading your organisation in contributing to achievement of sustainable development goals (SDGs). Hence, feel free to request for a copy of the final report by ticking the “yes” in the check box of the consent form. For confidentiality and as a mitigating measure, your name will not appear in the written report of this research including the consent form. Only your signature will appear on the consent form

13.WHAT IS THE ANTICIPATED INCONVENIENCE OF TAKING PART IN THIS STUDY?

There is no known danger to you participating and providing answers to this interview. The interview data is only accessed by me and perhaps my promoter, without prejudice. My promoter is a co-author of the research report and may have access to interview data to provide technical advice. However, the research requires you to set aside about 45 minutes from your busy schedule to provide responses to the interview. In addition, you will be invited to attend a validation workshop to review the preliminary findings. The workshop will take no more than two hours. The workshop will take place at a conference facility in Harare still to be decided.

14.WILL WHAT I SAY BE KEPT CONFIDENTIAL?

Although there is no known risk in the responses expected from you, however, your name will not be recorded, anywhere and no one will be able to connect you to the answers you give. You will be given a fictitious code number and you will be referred to in this way in the data, any publications, or other research reporting methods such as validation workshops. Otherwise, records that identify you will be available only to me, unless you give permission for other people to see the records. The only people working on the study is me and my promoter. My promoter is a co-author of the research report and may have access to interview data to provide technical advice, without prejudice. Apart from using this anonymous data for writing the research report, the data may be used for journal articles, conference presentation and any related publications. Just like in the final report, none of the publications will be able to identify you by name. A report of the study may be submitted for publication, but individual participants will not be identifiable in such a report. However, in the validation workshop, it is common cause that your contributions in such forum are the subject of discussion by all participants. While every effort will be made by the researcher to ensure that you will not be connected to the information that you share during the workshop, I cannot guarantee that other participants in the validation workshop will treat information confidentially. I shall, however, encourage all participants to do so. For this reason, I advise you not to disclose personally sensitive information in the validation workshop.

15.HOW WILL THE INFORMATION BE STORED AND ULTIMATELY DESTROYED?

Hard copies of your responses will be stored by the researcher for a period of five years in a locked cupboard/filing cabinet at my home in Borrowdale West, Harare, for future research or academic purposes. Whereas, electronic information will be stored on a password protected memory card/disk for five years in the same cupboard/filing cabinet at my home in Borrowdale West, Harare. Future use of the stored data will be subject to further Research Ethics Review and approval if applicable. The hard copies will be destroyed using a shredder and the electronic data will be erased from the memory cards/disks. However, there is no known risk associated with responses expected to be stored and ultimately destroyed after five years. But, if you feel there are compelling reasons for you to believe that the storage methods suggested here are inadequate, kindly advise so that further mitigating methods can be explored to your satisfaction.

16.WILL I RECEIVE PAYMENT OR ANY INCENTIVES FOR PARTICPATING IN THIS STUDY?

There is no payment for your participation in this research. However, the researcher will meet the costs of your participation in the validation workshop. Other than meeting the costs of your attendance at the validation workshop, the researcher is indemnified of any costs associated with your participation, whether through injury, sickness or otherwise.

17.HOW WILL THE PARTICIPANT BE INFORMED OF THE FINDINGS / RESULTS OF THE STUDY?

If you would like to be informed of the final research findings, kindly tick the “yes” check box on the informed consent form. You will be contacted once the report is ready for public distribution. I will ask you for your email address to be included on a control sheet to be used for that purpose. If you do not receive this report as requested or you want to contact me for any aspect of this study, you are free to contact me on the contact details indicated on the informed consent form. It is envisioned that the final report will be out no later than twelve months after the study is completed. However, any delays in providing you with the final report outside the envisioned period should be considered as beyond the control of the researcher, and without prejudice.

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

Appendix 3: Consent to Participate in the Study Form

Interviewee no: _____

I confirm that the person asking my consent to take part in this research has told me about the nature, procedure, potential benefits and anticipated inconvenience of participation.

I have read (or had explained to me) and understood the study as explained in the information sheet. I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and am prepared to participate in the study. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without penalty (if applicable). I am aware that the findings of this study will be anonymously processed into a research report, journal publications and/or conference proceedings.

I agree to the recording of the interview.

Do I want a copy of the final report? (tick appropriate box)	Yes	No
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I have received a signed copy of the informed consent agreement.

Signature of Participant: _____ Date: _____

Contact Details of the Researcher

	Name	Addresses	Signature & Date
Researcher	Eliot Quinz Farai Ruwanika	Email: eliot.ruwanika@fao.org or eliotqf@yahoo.co.uk Skype: eliotqf Cell and WhatsApp: +263 772 203 119	
Promoter	Dr Liezel Massyn	Email: MassynL@ufs.ac.za Telephone: +27514017305	

Appendix 4: Interview Guide and Questions

3. INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR AUDIO RECORDING

3.1 The world is currently focused on sustainable development. Tell me about your understanding of sustainable development and how it is viewed in your organisation?

3.2 The UN General Assembly resolved on 25 September 2015 to transform the world through Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) Agenda whose target date is 2030. Organisations like yours are defined as partners in sustainable development because corporates can contribute positively or negatively to sustainable development. Thus, corporates have been identified as major players in sustainable development and you as leaders must have competences that will lead organisations to contribute to achievement of SDGs. What are your views concerning the effectiveness of the existing leadership competences in your organisation or others as depicted by the SDGs driven environment?

3.3 How do you envision the development of leadership competences to optimise sustainable development in response to the SDGs agenda 2030?

3.3.1 What competences do you want to see at strategic levels of leadership?

3.3.1.1 What are your views on presencing? Presencing in this case means sensing and actualising future possibilities?

3.3.1.2 How do you view strategic awareness in your organisation considering the changing business environment?

3.3.1.3 How do you consider reflexivity in your organisation in terms of leadership competences in view of the changing business environment?

3.3.1.4 What are your views on inter-generational systemic behaviour? This is behaviour that engender systems that promote the legacy motive, shape collective emotions, ethical infrastructure and interests of future generations.

3.3.1.5 How does your organisation view stakeholders in the SDGs driven environment?

3.3.2 What core competences do you think are necessary at all levels of leadership in the organisation that are not necessarily strategic?

3.3.2.1 Any thoughts on eco-systems awareness? Here, ecosystem awareness is concern for the well-being of all global communities and the planet; and knowledge of ecosystem economics.

3.3.2.2 How would you view knowledge of sustainable manufacturing patterns and practices? This refers to knowledge of local conditions and regulations; ISO 14001; and efficient technologies in environmental protection.

3.3.2.3 How is systems-thinking viewed in your organisation, in the sense of holistic appreciation of the total organisation? To clarify, systems thinking involves holistically accounting for the interwoven relationships between the organisation's internal systems and the external environment.

3.3.2.4 How socially responsive is your organisation? This refers to the sensitiveness to the needs of society and adapting accordingly, in contrast to merely complying with legislation and or corporate social responsibility.

3.3.2.5 How are leadership multiple intelligences viewed in your organisation? I am referring to intelligences that go beyond leadership acumens and aptitudes but routed in abilities to exercise different leadership styles and recognise the environment's non-verbal signs.

3.3.3 How do you see the values of your organisation being able to respond to the sustainable development agenda?

3.3.3.1 What core organisational values do you want to see being pursued?

3.3.3.2 How do you view the role of ethics in sustainable manufacturing?

3.3.3.3 How does your organisation consider caring for the well-being of all and everything in view of the SDGs driven environment?

3.3.3.4 How would you view integrity in your organisation?

3.3.3.5 How would you consider respect for all inculcated in your organisation or others?

3.3.4 How can leadership competencies be amplified in yourself and other leaders to ensure the organisation contributes to sustainable development?

3.3.5 What competencies or abilities do you consider important?

3.3.6 Now getting to conclusion. May you please share with me any other issues which you think should be incorporated into the leadership competence framework for driving sustainable manufacturing?

3.4 End the interview

3.5 Thank the participant for taking part.

3.6 Feel free to contact me if you think of other issues which could assist the development of this framework.

3.7 Provide contact details to participant

Appendix 5: Validation Questions

1. What are your opinions regarding the framework developed from literature?
2. What are your opinions concerning the final LCF after integration of literature and the empirical study?
3. Any comments regarding the graphical presentation of the framework? Buttress your response on whether it is easy to understand.
4. How applicable do you think this framework is to the beverage manufacturing industry?
5. Do you think the framework can be applied to other industries other than the beverage manufacturing industry?